



ELSEVIER

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Global Ecology and Conservation

journal homepage: <http://www.elsevier.com/locate/gecco>

Original Research Article

Traditional ecological knowledge and medicinal plant diversity in Ecuadorian Amazon home gardens

Veronica Caballero-Serrano ^{a,*}, Brian McLaren ^b, Juan Carlos Carrasco ^c,
Josu G. Alday ^d, Luis Fiallos ^e, Javier Amigo ^f, Miren Onaindia ^g^a Faculty of Science, Escuela Superior Politécnica de Chimborazo, Panamericana Sur 1 ½ km², Riobamba, Ecuador^b Faculty of Natural Resources Management, Lakehead University, 955 Oliver Road, Thunder Bay, ON, P7B 5E1, Canada^c Faculty of Natural Resources, Escuela Superior Politécnica de Chimborazo, Panamericana Sur 1 ½ km², Riobamba, Ecuador^d Department of Crop and Forest Sciences-AGROTECNIO Center, Universitat de Lleida, 25198, Lleida, Spain^e Faculty of Livestock Sciences, Escuela Superior Politécnica de Chimborazo, Panamericana Sur 1 ½ km², Riobamba, Ecuador^f Department of Botany, Faculty of Pharmacy, Universidad de Santiago de Compostela USC, Campus Vida, Santiago de Compostela, 15782, Spain^g Plant Biology and Ecology Department, Faculty of Science and Technology, University of the Basque Country UPV/EHU, Barrio Sarriena s/n, 48940, Leioa, Biscay, Spain

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 30 September 2018

Received in revised form 2 January 2019

Accepted 2 January 2019

Keywords:

Ecosystem services

Biodiversity

Human well-being

traditional ecological knowledge

Ethnobotany

ABSTRACT

Medicinal plants are an ecosystem service directly implicated in human well-being. In many rural communities, they constitute a main treatment for disease or a source of disease prevention. Here, we review traditional knowledge of medicinal plants, the benefits they provide when cultivated in home gardens, and the determinants of knowledge about their uses in a rural parish in Amazonian Ecuador, where two ethnic groups prevail: indigenous *Shuar* and settled *mestizos*. Among 138 garden owners interviewed in 11 communities, a broad knowledge of 104 pharmacological properties across 145 medicinal plant species is retained. Several species play a specific role for a particular culture; therefore, the importance ranking of medicinal plants is different between the two main cultures. Traditional knowledge of medicinal uses is also influenced by ethnicity as well as generational age of the gardeners. Knowledge seems to have been lost in people of younger generations, who cultivated fewer species and knew less about properties of medicinal plants. Although men cultivate more diverse gardens, the role for women in the conservation of agrobiodiversity in home gardens appears crucial, as they are identified as the main source for transmission of traditional knowledge about medicinal plants. Our study highlights the importance of integrated land use management that respects different social aspects (i.e., culture, gender, health and well-being) related to conservation of biodiversity and traditional knowledge in agroecosystems.

© 2019 The Authors. Published by Elsevier B.V. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>).

1. Introduction

Cultivated plants provide a wide range of ecosystem services as food, fodder, fuel, medicines and traditional ecological knowledge (Bidak et al., 2015). Home gardens play a crucial role in cultivation and also in nature conservation (Barbhuiya

* Corresponding author.

E-mail addresses: veronicaballero@gmail.com (V. Caballero-Serrano), bmclaren@lakeheadu.ca (B. McLaren), jccb2004@hotmail.com (J.C. Carrasco), josucham@gmail.com (J.G. Alday), luisfior@yahoo.es (L. Fiallos), javier.amigo.vazquez@usc.es (J. Amigo), miren.onaindia@ehu.es (M. Onaindia).

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gecco.2019.e00524>

2351-9894/© 2019 The Authors. Published by Elsevier B.V. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>).

et al., 2016), often occurring as part of biodiversity hot spots (Kumar and Nair, 2004) and germplasm banks (Huai and Hamilton, 2009). There is growing interest in the study of ecosystem services delivered by agroecosystems, including home gardens, owing to the environmental, social and economic benefits that they provide (Calvet-Mir et al., 2012; Caballero-Serrano et al., 2016). One of the most important ecosystem services provided by home gardens in tropical areas relates to their diversity of medicinal plants (Sunwar et al., 2006).

In Ecuador, a megadiverse country (Mittermeier et al., 1997), medicinal properties have been reported for more than 3118 plant species belonging to 206 families (De la Torre et al., 2008). Additionally, the use of medicinal plants in the Ecuadorian Amazon ranks among the highest in South America, in part due to the lower availability of conventional health care at a regional level (Paniagua-Zambrana et al., 2015). Across all developing countries, around 80% of the population uses medicinal plants as a primary source of health care, being sometimes the only available treatment (World Health Organization, 2013). Thus, human health can depend on the maintenance of medicinal plant diversity, and of the home garden in particular, where native plants are seeded, transplanted or cultivated from *in situ* stock (MEA, 2005).

The relationships between people and plants are dynamic (Albuquerque, 2006), and maintenance of traditional practices can generally enhance biodiversity (Gadgil et al., 1993; Berkes et al., 2000). Moreover, medicinal plants are an essential part of the traditional ecological knowledge of a culture (Heinrich et al., 1998; Saslis-Lagoudakis et al., 2014). Local medical systems are supported by plant diversity and traditional knowledge (Díaz-Reviriego et al., 2016). However, generational changes to traditional lifestyles can threaten the continuity of home gardens (Huai and Hamilton, 2009), and such loss of traditional knowledge has negative implications for the persistence of some plant populations (Uniyal et al., 2006), with potentially serious repercussions on biodiversity and human well-being (Giday et al., 2009; Bidak et al., 2015). Ethnobotanical studies are required to understand traditional ecological knowledge as linking ecosystem services to human well-being (Duque et al., 2018).

Research on local ecological knowledge has commonly been focused on indigenous groups (e.g., Berkes et al., 2000), sometimes to the point of neglecting or even rejecting knowledge from non-indigenous rural people (Reyes-García et al., 2007; Gómez-Baggethun et al., 2010). With few exceptions (e.g., Ghimire et al., 2004), comparisons of ethno-ecological knowledge within and between cultures have also received little scientific attention. A better understanding of intra- and intercultural traditional knowledge related to medical plant diversity is often crucial to achieve conservation goals (Cocks, 2006). Our aim in this study was to examine the importance of Amazonian home gardens as part of a traditional knowledge bank, toward conserving medicinal plants and protecting their contribution to human well-being. We also explored traditional ecological knowledge on this subject across cultures, genders and generations. We located our study in Sangay parish, Morona Santiago province, in the Ecuadorian Amazon, where two main ethnic groups occur, both with a great legacy of traditional knowledge: indigenous *Shuar* and settled *mestizos* (a mixture of indigenous and Spanish heritage that began with settlement from Europe in the colonial era). Sangay is also a place where medicinal plants make up the most accessible form of health care. Specifically, we followed these objectives: i) to identify via ethnobotanical inventory the medicinal plants found in Sangay home gardens and to document their importance to human well-being in the area (i.e., the systems of the human body that they treat and their pharmacological properties); ii) to identify the socioeconomic factors that influence medicinal plant cultivation in the Sangay home gardens; and iii) to describe aspects of the transmission of traditional knowledge on medicinal plant cultivation in the area.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Study area

The study took place in the Sangay parish (78° W, 1°48'S), in the Palora municipality, Morona Santiago province, in the Ecuadorian Amazon Region (Fig. 1). Sangay extends 201 km²; it comprises a parish nucleus (*cabecera parroquial*) and 10 adjacent communities. It has a tropical climate with a mean temperature of 21 °C and 3890 mm of precipitation annually (INAMHI, 2014). Land cover includes croplands (53%), natural forest (35%), grasslands (12%) and a small area of urban development (0.3%; Fig. 1). The parish council chamber and police headquarters are found in the parish nucleus, as well as some basic services that are absent in the more remote communities of the parish, such as a medical clinic, purified drinking water, plant wastewater treatment, and sewerage. Medical clinics are also found in Chinimp, Cañari and Chup.

The population, comprising 1172 inhabitants, is predominantly *Shuar indigenous* (65%) and *mestizo* (32%); most (70% of the population) are employed in agriculture (INEC, 2011). *Mestizos* are mainly concentrated in the parish nucleus, while people of *Shuar* and other indigenous ethnicities inhabit the more remote communities. The *Shuar* are considered among the first inhabitants of the Ecuadorian Amazon (Uquillas, 1984). At present, they inhabit mostly outlying communities within the Sangay parish and remain strongly dependent on forest resources (Byg and Balslev, 2006), owing the vast traditional knowledge of the Amazonian ecosystems (Carvajal and Shacay, 2004). *Mestizos* came to Sangay from other regions of the country, mainly Andean Ecuador, during the Agrarian Reforms (1964–1973); most live in the parish nucleus.

2.2. Sangay's home gardens

Home gardening is a traditional land use in the tropics and involves the intensive management of native and non-native trees, shrubs, annuals and perennials, using family labour (Fernandes and Nair, 1986). Home gardens have a small size and

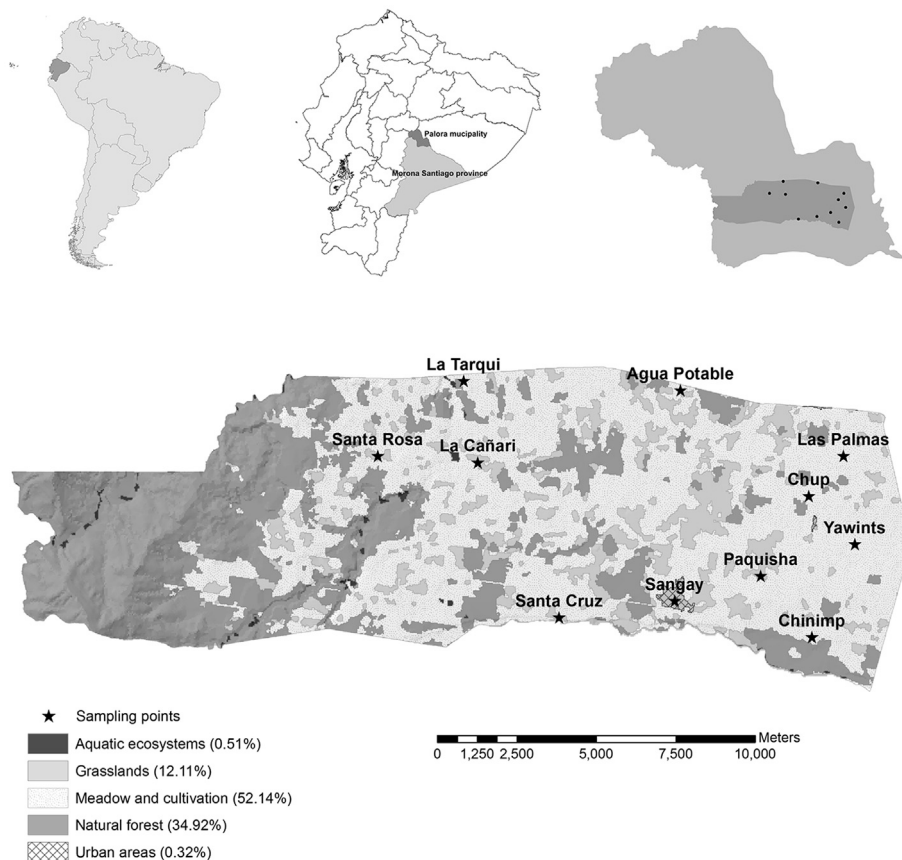


Fig. 1. Map of land uses and sampling points in the home garden survey conducted in the Sangay parish, Palora municipality, Morona Santiago province, Ecuador. Source: Land use map of continental Ecuador, Ministry of the Environment of Ecuador [MAE \(2008\)](#).

high diversity of multipurpose plant species occurring in various vegetation layers. This diverse spatial configuration ensures a better use of resources like nutrients and water, and also satisfies a diversity of plants serving diverse human needs ([Sunwar et al., 2006](#)). Although the main function of home gardens is to provide food ([Fernandes and Nair, 1986](#)), gardeners also cultivate species that offer a wide range of ecosystem services directly associated with their well-being, including medicinal plants ([Caballero-Serrano et al., 2016](#)). Thus, home gardens are considered agroforestry systems that are economic and ecologically efficient, and also biologically sustainable ([Mendez et al., 2001](#)).

Traditionally, *Shuar* home gardening was an itinerant practice and gardens were located in the forest. *Shuar* men cut trees and cleared the ground of weeds, and later women were engaged in agricultural activities that accompanied magical rituals. After a period of between two to four years, soil nutrients in a forest patch declined, and an alternative planting location was sought within the forest for the establishment of a new home garden ([Carvajal and Shacay, 2004](#)). For millennia, home gardens continue to be very important to the survival of the *Shuar* in particular, providing them most of their carbohydrates and a significant component of the medicinal plants they use ([Harner, 1994](#)). As in other tropical areas, home gardens in Sangay are the result of various cultural and biological transformations produced by the interaction of the farmer's traditional knowledge and the environment ([Kumar and Nair, 2004](#)). In the past, *Shuar* home gardens were known as “*ajas*,” and were a place of contact with their gods ([Carvajal and Shacay, 2004](#)), especially “*Nunkui*,” who, according to mythology, taught cultivation techniques to women, along with practices and rituals to ensure good production. The *Shuar* believed that plants have souls that can be male or female, and that most plants, such as cassava, yams, parsnips and beans, have feminine souls; hence, agriculture is to this day viewed as mainly a female activity ([Karsten, 2000](#)).

Today, Sangay home gardens are generally permanent features of the landscape and are located immediately next to their owner's house. They have a smaller extent than the forest gardens of times past, and modern home gardens involve fewer magical or ritual practices ([Carvajal and Shacay, 2004](#)). Sangay's home gardens have a rectangular form, with an average area of around 844 m², an average age of around 13 years, and an average of 32 plant species ([Caballero-Serrano et al., 2016](#)). The plant diversity in home gardens comprises both cultivated plants and other plants either spontaneously invading or those that were not eliminated during clearing of the land. There are still home gardens located in the forest, but they are used for the cultivation of a few edible species, mainly *Manihot sculenta* Crantz and *Colocasia esculenta* (L.) Schott). The form of

ownership of the gardens is individual, in most cases not by legal land title, rather as part of a traditional allocation recognized by community assembly and reported to the Ecuadorian Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock, Aquaculture and Fisheries (MAGAP). Traditionally, a garden's owner is not necessarily the head of household or owner of the house, rather the person who is responsible for managing the garden with the help of other members of the family.

2.3. Survey

We recorded ethnobotanical information about the plant species cultivated in home gardens and the ecosystem services provided by each of them from a sample of 138 home gardens, randomly selected from the 11 communities in Sangay parish, between September 2014 and June of 2015. The number of home gardens per community was a function of the number of households in each community (Agua Potable: $n = 3$, Cañari: $n = 4$, Chinimp: $n = 33$, Chup: $n = 7$, Tarqui: $n = 8$, Las Palmas: $n = 1$, Paquisha: $n = 28$, Sangay: $n = 41$, Santa Cruz: $n = 2$, Santa Rosa: $n = 5$, Yawints: $n = 6$). In a first exploration of the data, we analysed the diversity of plants and 20 ecosystem services provided by the entire botanical collection, including food, fibre, fence, handicrafts, veterinary, shade, tools, hunting, fishing and others (Caballero-Serrano et al., 2016). In the present research, we focused on medicinal plants, because of the importance of this service for the well-being of the local population.

Initially, we approached the owners of the home gardens, explaining the objective of the study, and after obtaining their consent, we conducted a socioeconomic survey of the household. Later that day, characteristics of the home garden were recorded: its location (geographical coordinates), extent, the species of plants present, and the uses of each of the species. Some of the plant identification was done in the field, but for several plants we collected a voucher specimen for later identification at the Herbarium of the Escuela Superior Politécnica de Chimborazo in Riobamba, Ecuador. We recorded the genera of plants that could not be identified to species, and the family for those that could not be identified to genus. To categorize the benefits provided by the medicinal plants, we used the methodology proposed by Cook's (1995) Economic Botany Data Collection Standard, incorporating the modifications suggested by Macía et al. (2011) and Paniagua-Zambrana et al. (2015), in which medicinal uses or pharmacological properties were classified by the body systems they treat.

To establish the contribution of the full set of plants to local well-being and the factors that influence plant selection, we provided home garden owners a questionnaire seeking information on the socioeconomic characteristics of the home gardeners and their traditional ecological knowledge of medicinal plants, including their use, forms of preparation, and whether the plant was the first treatment used in cases of illness. We also asked them about their understanding of the level of vegetation (herb, tree or shrub) where the plants grew, of the plant parts used, and of other ecosystem services provided by plants. Characteristics of the gardeners themselves were summarized, including their age, gender, ethnicity, education level, occupation and family income, number of family members, home community, garden area, geographical coordinates of garden location, distance to the municipal capital, and distance to a main road. To compare traditional knowledge among generations, we classified the gardeners into three age categories: young (17–40 years old), middle-aged (41–64 years old), and older (65 years and older; Gómez-Baggethun et al., 2010). We also included in the questionnaire questions related to the member of the family that owns and transmits traditional ecological knowledge.

Respondents were mostly (77%) women with an average age of 40 years. We identified three ethnic groups: *Shuar* who represented 60% of the respondents (83 persons), *mestizos* (33% or 46 persons), and *others* (7% or 9 people identifying as *Shuar-Kichwa*, *Shuar-Achuar*, *Kichwa of the Amazon*, or *Kichwa of the Andes*). Education level was mainly (63%) primary, followed by none (26%), secondary (6%), and university educated (5%). Families had on average five members, and gardeners earned an average monthly income of \$247 (USD). Respondents were mainly farmers (73 cases) and homemakers (57 cases) when they identified profession (Table 1). Fifty-seven gardeners were “young,” 60 were “middle-aged,” and 21 were “older.”

2.4. Statistical analyses

We determined the importance of each medicinal plant in local well-being by calculating five quantitative ethnobotanical indices: relative importance, use values, cultural importance, diversity of uses, and informant consensus on the plant uses (Albuquerque et al., 2006; Paniagua-Zambrana et al., 2017a,b). The relative importance is an index that measures the versatility of the plants based on the normalized number of pharmacological properties and the normalized number of body systems they treat, as identified by the gardeners (Bennett and Prance, 2000). The normalized number is calculated by dividing the number of pharmacological properties of each species into the highest number of properties provided by one of the species in the collection. The same process is applied to body systems, and the sum of these two numbers is converted to a scale of 100, or percentage of importance (Bennett and Prance, 2000). The use value index was proposed by Prance et al. (1987) and modified by Phillips and Gentry (1993), and is based on informant consensus, considering the number of properties, but also the number of informants who are in agreement with the attributes of a particular species; we calculated this index for each of the ethnic groups and excluded the species grown only in one and two gardens, to emphasize in our analysis those species that likely have higher cultural importance (Heinrich et al., 1998). Cultural importance is the number of reports summed across all uses and divided by the number of users of each plant (Paniagua-Zambrana et al., 2017a,b). Diversity of uses was calculated using the Shannon index, and informant consensus was calculated across ethnicity and gender by summing all uses identified and subtracting the number of plants identified for each group, dividing this difference by the number of uses identified minus 1.

Table 1
Owners of home gardens and their main socioeconomic characteristics, Sangay parish, Ecuadorian Amazon.

| Characteristics | Shuar | Mestizo | Other |
|---|-----------------|---------|-------|
| | Number of cases | | |
| Gender | | | |
| Female | 63 | 35 | 8 |
| Male | 20 | 11 | 1 |
| Occupation | | | |
| Farmer | 43 | 24 | 6 |
| Homemaker | 36 | 18 | 3 |
| Teacher | 3 | 1 | 0 |
| Merchant | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Public employee | 0 | 3 | 0 |
| Educational level | | | |
| None | 22 | 3 | 4 |
| Primary | 55 | 35 | 5 |
| Secondary | 3 | 4 | 0 |
| University | 3 | 4 | 0 |
| Community | | | |
| Agua Potable | 1 | 2 | 0 |
| Cañari | 0 | 4 | 0 |
| Tarqui | 0 | 6 | 2 |
| Sangay | 7 | 33 | 1 |
| Santa Rosa | 4 | 1 | 0 |
| Chinimp | 29 | 0 | 3 |
| Chup | 7 | 0 | 0 |
| Las Palmas | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Paquisha | 25 | 0 | 3 |
| San Luis | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Santa Cruz | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Yawintz | 6 | 0 | 0 |
| Sources to obtain traditional knowledge | | | |
| Mother | 51 | 30 | 6 |
| Father | 20 | 13 | 2 |
| Grandmother | 29 | 10 | 2 |
| Grandfather | 11 | 3 | 2 |
| Friends | 0 | 5 | 1 |
| Mother-in-law | 3 | 1 | 0 |
| Neighbours | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Father-in-law | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Doctor | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| School | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Other training | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Books | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Averages | | | |
| Gardener's age (years) | 40 | 53 | 47 |
| Number of species of medicinal plants | 13 | 16 | 11 |
| Area of the home garden (m²) | 891 | 715 | 1068 |
| Monthly family incomes (USD) | 195 | 338 | 268 |
| Age of garden (years) | 11 | 15 | 16 |
| Number of family members | 5 | 3 | 6 |
| Number of family members involved in garden care | 2 | 2 | 2 |

We tested the socioeconomic factors that influence medicinal plant diversity with a multiple regression analysis, using the “glm” library in the R-package (R Development Core Team, 2017). Here, the dependent variable was the number of medicinal plants and the independent variables were chosen among gardener's age, distance to the municipal capital, education level, community, ethnicity, occupation, monthly family income, number of family members and gender of the gardener, age of garden, number of family members involved in garden care (Table 1). The model selection was based on Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC). Eighteen models were compared, based on hypothesized relationships between the number of species of medicinal plants in the garden and various socioeconomic characteristics (Table 2). The first 10 models only considered socioeconomic characteristics of the garden owner. Model 11 considered these characteristics and the age of the garden. Models 12–18 considered the socioeconomic characteristics and also other geographical variables relating to the garden.

We explored compositional differences in the medicinal plant community between home gardens using a non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) through the function “metaMDS” of the library “vegan” in R. To determine the relationship among medicinal plants, ethnicity, and age or generation, we used the fitting function “envfit” (Oksanen et al., 2015). Afterwards, a correspondence analysis was used to identify if knowledge transmission differed between ethnicity and generation, required because these variables are categorical. To determine the association between gender and number of species

Table 2

Variables included in 17 candidate multiple regression models predicting the number of medicinal plants in home gardens with socioeconomic characteristics of the gardener and the garden, Sangay parish, Ecuadorian Amazon.

| Model | Gardener's age | Distance to the municipal capital | Education level | Community | Ethnicity | Occupation | Monthly family income | Number of family members | Gender of gardener | Age of garden | Number of family members involved in garden care |
|-----------------|----------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------|-----------|-----------|------------|-----------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|---------------|--|
| 1 | Y | N | N | N | N | N | N | Y | N | N | N |
| 2 | Y | N | Y | N | Y | Y | N | N | N | N | N |
| 3 | Y | N | Y | N | Y | N | N | N | Y | N | N |
| 4 | Y | N | N | N | N | Y | N | N | Y | N | N |
| 5 | Y | N | N | N | Y | Y | N | N | Y | N | N |
| 6 | Y | N | N | N | Y | N | N | N | Y | N | N |
| 7 | Y | N | N | N | Y | Y | N | N | Y | N | Y |
| 8 | Y | N | Y | N | Y | Y | N | N | Y | N | N |
| 9 | Y | N | N | N | Y | N | Y | N | Y | N | N |
| 10 | Y | N | Y | N | Y | N | Y | N | Y | N | N |
| 11 | Y | N | Y | N | Y | Y | Y | Y | Y | Y | Y |
| 12 | Y | N | Y | Y | Y | Y | N | N | N | N | N |
| 13 | Y | Y | Y | Y | Y | Y | N | N | Y | N | N |
| 14 | Y | N | Y | Y | N | Y | N | N | Y | N | N |
| 15 | Y | N | Y | Y | N | N | N | N | Y | N | N |
| 16 | Y | N | Y | Y | Y | Y | N | N | Y | N | N |
| 17 ^a | Y | Y | Y | Y | Y | N | N | N | Y | N | N |

Y: Yes, variable was considered in the model N: No, variable was not considered in the model.

^a Selected model.

of medicinal plants planted, we applied a Chi-square test. We used generalized mixed models, considering number of species and number of uses as dependent variables, ethnicity and generation as independent fixed variables, and community as a random factor; where appropriate, we repeated each model as an analysis of variance (ANOVA) using the function "glm" in R.

3. Results

3.1. Ethno-medicinal plant resources and their therapeutic uses

A total of 484 plant species occur in the 138 home gardens surveyed, 30% are medicinal plants (145 species, Table 3), and 96% of gardens ($n = 132$) provide the ecosystem service of "medicinal plants." Seventy-three species are exclusively medicinal, and the remaining 72 species provide medicinal and other ecosystem services. In the *Shuar* home gardens, 114 medicinal plants are identified, while in the *mestizo* and *other* home gardens, 78 and 32 medicinal plants are identified, respectively. Among the 125 plants identified to species, 64% are native and 36% are exotic and transplanted or seeded, and 59% of species are cultivated. The medicinal species belong to 60 botanical families, with Solanaceae the most common (10 species), followed by Asteraceae (9 species), Fabaceae, Lamiaceae and Piperaceae (each 7 species). Herbs are the most abundant group (43%; 62 species), 25% are trees (36 species) and 23% shrubs (34 species). In 53% of species, leaves are employed to extract medicine, stems in 13%, whole plants in 6%, plant latex in 5%, seeds in 6%, fruits in 11%, flowers in 6%, roots in 3%, and bark in 2%, and bulbs in 1%. Plants are used in different forms of preparation: 37% in infusion (53 species), 15% in decoction, and 30% in fresh plant and other were less frequent (Table 3).

Ninety-one percent of respondents (126 gardeners) use plants as a primary medical treatment; only 9% go first to a medical centre in cases of illness. The medicinal plants in the Sangay home gardens have 104 pharmacological properties and are used to treat 19 body systems or medical problems. Among the most common are stomach problems (20 species), diarrhoea (19 species), wounds (15 species) and swellings (15 species; Table 3). The most frequent uses across all medicinal plants are to treat the digestive system (59 species) and skin and subcutaneous tissues (41 species). The most frequent medicinal plant species are *Brugmansia arborea* (L.) Lagerh. (occurring in 64 home gardens), used to alleviate diverse conditions, such as general body pains and menstrual cramps, as a hallucinogen, to alleviate fractures, as an antibacterial or as a cicatrizing agent, *Piper umbellatum* (in 50 gardens), used to treat wounds, *Aloe vera* L. (in 45 gardens), having various uses, especially as an anti-inflammatory, *Scoparia dulcis* (in 39 gardens), used to prevent infections, and *Psidium guajava* (in 39 gardens), used to remedy digestive conditions.

Twenty-two species are associated with rituals and used in the cure of 13 magical ailments (Table 3). Sixty-two percent of the Sangy gardeners are cultivating these magical plants. "Bad mood" (*mal aire*) is the condition treated by the largest number of magical plants (11 species). Among the species with highest recognition for their magical properties are *Cyperus prolixus*, used to treat *bad moods*, *Brunfelsia grandiflora*, *Banisteriopsis caapi*, *Nicotiana tabacum* and *Brugmansia arborea*, all used as hallucinogens to explore the future, to build courage to confront difficult situations, and to acquire power. In *mestizo* home gardens, *Ruta graveolens* is the plant most commonly used to treat *bad moods*. Twenty-eight of all respondents (38 gardeners) practice some ritual associated with the use of magical plants, and these practices differ between ethnic groups ($\chi^2 = 9.6$,

Table 3

Medicinal plants cultivated in home gardens, Sangay parish, Ecuadorian Amazon, their pharmacological properties and ecosystem services.

| N° | Botanical family | Scientific name | Local name | Body systems - pharmacological properties | Pharmacological properties by cultural association | | | Locality | Used part | Form of preparation | ES | Collection number |
|----|------------------|--|------------------------------|--|---|----------------|------------|---|-----------------|------------------------|----|----------------------|
| | | | | | Shuar | Mestizo | Others | | | | | |
| 1 | Acanthaceae | <i>Justicia pectoralis</i> Jacq. ^a | wirink | rs-cu ms-ct ms-sa di-di rs-cu ii-cl | cu, ct, sa | di | | Chinimp Las Palmas La Tarqui Chup | Leaves | Fresh plant | ri | VCS-2015/013 |
| 2 | Adoxaceae | <i>Sambucus nigra</i> L. ^a | tilo | rs-cu ii-cl | cu, cl | cu, cl | cu | Cañari Sangay La Tarqui Chinimp Agua Potable Paquisha | Flowers | Infusion | | VCS-2015/063 |
| 3 | Amaranthaceae | <i>Aerva sanguinolenta</i> Blume ^a | escancel | di-lp us-kp bc-bi ga-fe | lp, kp, bi | lp, kp, bi, fe | lp, kp, fe | Cañari Sangay La Tarqui Chinimp Agua Potable Paquisha | Leaves | Infusion | | VCS-2015/019 |
| 4 | Amaranthaceae | <i>Alternanthera</i> sp. 1 ^a | tapir | di-di rs-cu cd-bm cd-ee ms-sa | di, cu, bm, ee, sa | | | Chinimp Chup | Leaves | Fresh plant | ri | VCS-2015/004 |
| 5 | Amaranthaceae | <i>Alternanthera</i> sp. 2 ^a | kantse | ss-sw pp-wn rh-me bc-ah | sw, wn, me, ah | sw, wn | | Paquisha Chinimp Santa Cruz Sangay Chup | Leaves and stem | Fresh plant | | VCS-2015/037 |
| 6 | Amaranthaceae | <i>Chenopodium ambrosioides</i> L. ^a | paico | ot-rs | sr | sr | sr | Santa Rosa Cañari Las Palmas Sangay La Tarqui Paquisha | Whole plant | Infusion | fo | VCS-2015/046 |
| 7 | Amaranthaceae | <i>Iresine diffusa</i> Humb. & Bonpl. ex Willd. ^a | ataco | di-lp rh-me us-kp | lp, me, kp | lp, kp | | Paquisha Paquisha Cañari Yawints Sangay La Tarqui | Leaves | Infusion | | VCS-2015/101 |
| 8 | Amaryllidaceae | <i>Allium sativum</i> L. ^a | ajo | ga-ua | | ua | | La Tarqui | Bulb | Fresh plant | fo | VCS-2015/143 |
| 9 | Anonaceae | <i>Annona muricata</i> L. ^a | guanábana | ga-ua pp-ba | ba, ua | ua, | ua, | Santa Rosa Paquisha Sangay Yawints | Fruits | Infusion | fo | VCS-2015/106 |
| 10 | Apiaceae | <i>Arracacia xanthorrhiza</i> Bancr. ^a | maya, zanahoria | ss-ci cd-bm | ci, bm | | | Las Palmas Chinimp | Roots | Decoction | fo | VCS-2015/117 |
| 11 | Apiaceae | <i>Eryngium foetidum</i> L. ^a | culantro de monte, sampak | di-sp cd-bm | sp, bm | | | Chinimp, Sangay | Leaves | Rub Infusion | fo | VCS-2015/031 |
| 12 | Apiaceae | <i>Petroselinum crispum</i> (Mill.) Nyman ex A.W. Hill ^a | perejil | ga-ua | | ua | | Chinimp | Leaves | Infusion | fo | VCS-2015/068 |
| 13 | Apocynaceae | <i>Asclepias curassavica</i> L. | wampuis | | ua, em, | ua, em, | | | Latex | Fresh plant | or | VCS-2015/027 |

(continued on next page)

Table 3 (continued)

| N° | Botanical family | Scientific name | Local name | Body systems - pharmacological properties | Pharmacological properties by cultural association | | | Locality | Used part | Form of preparation | ES | Collection number |
|----|------------------|--|--------------------|--|--|-------------------|-------------|--|-----------------------|---------------------|-----------|-------------------|
| | | | | | Shuar | Mestizo | Others | | | | | |
| 14 | Apocynaceae | Indeterminate 1 | planta para sangre | ga-ua di-em | | | | Cañari Santa Cruz Chinimp | Leaves | Infusion | fo | VCS-2015/078 |
| 15 | Apocynaceae | <i>Tabernaemontana sananho</i> Ruiz & Pav. | kunapip | bc-bf di-sp di-vo rs-sn mn-to | sp, vo, sn, to | bf | | Cañari Las Palmas, Yawints, Chinimp | Bark | Crush | fo | VCS-2015/124 |
| 16 | Aquifoliaceae | <i>Ilex guayusa</i> Loes. ^a | guayusa | di-sp di-em cd-pf ga-bp mn-to nh-sm | sp, em, pf, bp, to, sm | | | Las Palmas Chinimp Sangay Paquisha | Leaves | Infusion | fo | VCS-2015/076 |
| 17 | Araceae | <i>Anthurium rubrinervium</i> (Link) G. Don | shiñumas | ms-ct | ct | | | Chinimp | Leaves | Fresh plant | fo | VCS-2015/132 |
| 18 | Araceae | <i>Philodendron hebetatum</i> Croat | camacho | bc-ah | ah | ah | | Paquisha | Stem | Fresh plant | | VCS-2015/137 |
| 19 | Araceae | <i>Philodendron</i> sp. | sanwap | ss-ci | ci | | | Santa Cruz, Paquisha Paquisha | Leaves and stem | Fresh plant | | VCS-2015/108 |
| 20 | Araceae | <i>Syngonium podophyllum</i> Schott | sunkip | ss-ci ss-si | ci, si | | | Paquisha | Stem | Fresh plant | | VCS-2015/050 |
| 21 | Areaceae | <i>Bactris corossilla</i> H. Karst. | kamancha | ss-sw cd-db | sw, db | | | Chinimp | Stem | Fresh plant | fo | VCS-2015/133 |
| 22 | Areaceae | <i>Bactris gasipaes</i> Kunth ^a | chonta, uwí | se-ea | ea | | | Chinimp Sangay | Fruits | Fresh plant | fo | VCS-2015/096 |
| 23 | Areaceae | <i>Bactris setulosa</i> H. Karst. | chontilla | ss-sw ii-fu | sw, fu | | | Las Palmas Sangay Chup Chinimp | Palm heart | Fresh plant | | VCS-2015/079 |
| 24 | Areaceae | <i>Iriartea deltoidea</i> Ruiz & Pav. ^a | pambil, ijiu | di-sp | sp | | | Las Palmas Sangay La Tarqui Chinimp Agua Potable | Palm heart | Decoction | fo, co | VCS-2015/038 |
| 25 | Aristolochiaceae | <i>Aristolochia ruiziana</i> (Klotzsch) Duch. | saragosa | di-sp di-sr rh-mc rh-mr | sp, sr, mc, mr | sp, sr, mc, mr | sp., sr, mr | Las Palmas Sangay La Tarqui Chinimp | Stem | Infusion | | VCS-2015/034 |
| 26 | Asteraceae | <i>Acmella brachyglossa</i> Cass. | ssesa | di-di bc-vv dh-th | di, vv, th | di | di, th | Las Palmas, Paquisha, Chinimp, Yawints, Sangay | Flowers | Infusion | | VCS-2015/033 |
| 27 | Asteraceae | <i>Adenostemma fosbergii</i> R.M. King & H. Rob. | ararats | po-sb pp-ab | sb, ab | | sb, ab | Las Palmas, Paquisha, Chinimp, Santa Cruz, Yawints | Whole plant | Infusion | | VCS-2015/039 |
| 28 | Asteraceae | <i>Ageratum conyzoides</i> L. | pedorrera | di-sr | sr | sr | | Las Palmas, Sangay, Chup | Leaves and flowers | Infusion | | VCS-2015/040 |
| 29 | Asteraceae | <i>Ambrosia arborescens</i> Mill. ^a | marco | ga-bp | | bp | | Sangay | Leaves | Fresh plant | | VCS-2015/082 |
| 30 | Asteraceae | <i>Baccharis latifolia</i> (Ruiz & Pav.) Pers. ^a | chilca | ga-ua | | ua | | Cañari Sangay La Tarqui | Leaves | Fresh plant | | VCS-2015/023 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----|----------------|---|-------------------------|--|---------------------------------|----------------------------|---|---|-------------|---------------------|--------------|
| 31 | Asteraceae | <i>Bidens cynapiifolia</i> Kunth | vichin | bc-ah | ah | | Paquisha | Leaves | Parboiled | VCS-2015/066 | |
| 32 | Asteraceae | <i>Heliopsis oppositifolia</i> (L.) Druce | buscapina del monte | di-sp | | sp | Sangay | Leaves and branches | Infusion | VCS-2015/134 | |
| 33 | Asteraceae | <i>Neurolaena lobata</i> (L.) Cass. | yapayap | (di-sr) | sr | | Chinimp, Yawints | Leaves | Infusion | VCS-2015/026 | |
| 34 | Asteraceae | <i>Vernonanthura patens</i> (Kunth) H. Rob. | neitiak, naetiak | ss-ci di-em ss-bu di-sp di-ul rs-br rs-cu ii-in ot-cc is-hv | ci, em, bu | | Paquisha, Chinimp | Leaves | Parboiled | VCS-2015/010 | |
| 35 | Bignoniaceae | <i>Mansoa standleyi</i> (Steyerm.) A.H. Gentry | kaipi | di-sp di-ul rs-br rs-cu ii-in ot-cc is-hv | | sp, ul, br, cu, in, cc, hv | Paquisha Chinimp Chup | Leaves | Crush | fo VCS-2015/059 | |
| 36 | Bixaceae | <i>Bixa orellana</i> L. ^a | achiote, ipiak | ss-ci ss-ra ss-so ii-fu bc-ah | ra, ci, so, fu, ah | | Santa Rosa Las Palmas Sangay Chinimp Chup | Seeds | Dilution | dy, fo VCS-2015/109 | |
| 37 | Cactaceae | <i>Hylocereus polyrhizus</i> (F.A.C. Weber) Britton & Rose ^a | ikiamanch, pitajaya | di-co | | co | Cañari Sangay La Tarqui | Fruits | Fresh plant | fo VCS-2015/114 | |
| 38 | Caricaceae | <i>Carica papaya</i> L. ^a | papaya, wapai | ii-at | at | at | Sangay Yawints Paquisha Chup | Seeds | Liquefied | fo VCS-2015/107 | |
| 39 | Chloranthaceae | <i>Hedyosmum goudotianum</i> Solms. | monte de oso | cd-bm ga-ua | | bm, ua | Sangay | Leaves | Infusion | VCS-2015/125 | |
| 40 | Chloranthaceae | <i>Hedyosmum sprucei</i> Solms | sacha guayusa | di-sp | | sp | Santa Rosa Chinimp | leaves | Decoction | fo VCS-2015/081 | |
| 41 | Crassulaceae | <i>Kalanchoe daigremontiana</i> Raym.- Hamet & H. Perrier ^a | dulcamara | ga-ai ot-cc | ai, cc | ai, cc | Chinimp Sangay La Tarqui Chinimp | Leaves | Fresh plant | VCS-2015/115 | |
| 42 | Cleomaceae | <i>Cleome</i> sp. | kawai numi | ss-ra | ra | | Chinimp, Sangay | Leaves | Fresh plant | VCS-2015/067 | |
| 43 | Commelinaceae | <i>Dichorisandra ulei</i> J.F. Macbr. | chiyuyo, chiriyuyo | di-rs | rs | | Chinimp | Leaves | Infusion | VCS-2015/001 | |
| 44 | Convolvulaceae | Indeterminate 2 ^a | medicinal de la presión | (bc-be) | | be | Sangay | Leaves | Infusion | VCS-2015/118 | |
| 45 | Costaceae | <i>Costus asplundii</i> (Maas) Maas | caña agria | di-sr rh-vi us-pc | sr, vi, pc | sr | Chinimp, Sangay | Stem | Juice | VCS-2015/055 | |
| 46 | Crassulaceae | <i>Bryophyllum pinnatum</i> (L.f.) Oken ^a | ampicilina | ms-fr di-sp ga-ai ss-sw ot-cc di-ul ga-bp ss-wo bc-gn | fr, sp, ai, sw, cc, ul, bp, wo, | ai, sw, cc, gn, ul, wo | ai, sw, cc, ul, wo | Cañari Las Palmas Sangay Yawints La Tarqui Chinimp Paquisha Agua Potable Chup | Leaves | Fresh plant | VCS-2015/024 |
| 47 | Cucurbitaceae | <i>Cucurbita ficifolia</i> C.D. Bouché ^a | zambo | ii-at | at | at | Sangay | Seeds | Crush | fo VCS-2015/048 | |
| 48 | Cyclanthaceae | <i>Cyclanthus bipartitus</i> Poit. ^a | tink | ss-wo po-sb po-ib | | wo, sb, ib | Las Palmas Santa Cruz Yawints Chup | Root and latex | Paste | VCS-2015/141 | |

(continued on next page)

Table 3 (continued)

| N° | Botanical family | Scientific name | Local name | Body systems - pharmacological properties | Pharmacological properties by cultural association | | | Locality | Used part | Form of preparation | ES | Collection number |
|----|------------------|--|---------------------|--|--|-------------------|--|------------------|--------------|---------------------|--------------|-------------------|
| | | | | | Shuar | Mestizo | Others | | | | | |
| 49 | Cyperaceae | <i>Cyperus prolixus</i> Kunth ^a | piripri | di-sp di-di rs-as cd-bm ga-bp pp-ba pp-gl rh-cn mn-to ss-hg | sp, di, as, bm, bp, ba, gl, cn, to | | Chinimp Santa Rosa Las Palmas Paquisha Yawints Chup | Rhizome | Fresh plant | pu, ri | VCS-2015/102 | |
| 50 | Cyperaceae | <i>Eleocharis elegans</i> (Kunth) Roem. & Schult. | intiash piripri | | hg | hg | Las Palmas | Bulb | Paste | | VCS-2015/123 | |
| 51 | Euphorbiaceae | <i>Croton lechleri</i> Müll. Arg. | Sangre de drago | di-ga ss-bu | ga, bu | ga, bu | Chinimp Yawints Paquisha Chup | Latex | Fresh plant | | VCS-2015/071 | |
| 52 | Euphorbiaceae | <i>Manihot sculenta</i> Crantz ^a | yuca, mama | cd-bm | bm | | Las Palmas Sangay Chup | Roots | Decoction | fo | VCS-2015/069 | |
| 53 | Euphorbiaceae | <i>Ricinus comunis</i> L. ^a | higuerilla | bc-ae | | ae | Sangay | Leaves | Liquefied | | VCS-2015/116 | |
| 54 | Euphorbiaceae | <i>Sapium marmieri</i> Huber | kauchu numi, caucho | dh-th | th | | Chinimp | Latex | Fresh plant | co | VCS-2015/098 | |
| 55 | Fabaceae | <i>Arachis hypogaea</i> L. ^a | maní, nuse | mn-to | to | | Las Palmas Chinimp | Seeds | Bath | fo | VCS-2015/094 | |
| 56 | Fabaceae | <i>Caesalpinia pulcherrima</i> (L.) Sw. ^a | sekemur | ss-da rs-cu | da, cu | | Las Palmas | Roots | Decoction | pu | VCS-2015/119 | |
| 57 | Fabaceae | <i>Calliandra angustifolia</i> Spruce ex Benth. ^a | yutsu | (di-di) (mn-to) (nh-ss) (cd-en) | to, di, ss, en | di to, di, ss, | Santa Rosa Las Palmas Yawints La Tarqui Chinimp Chinimp | Leaves | Infusion | | VCS-2015/035 | |
| 58 | Fabaceae | <i>Erythrina poeppigiana</i> (Walp.) O.F. Cook ^a | necerero | ss-sw rs-sn | sw, sn | | Chinimp | Stem | Juice | ha | VCS-2015/110 | |
| 59 | Fabaceae | <i>Medicago sativa</i> L. ^a | alfalfa | bc-ae mn-to | | ae, to | La Tarqui | Stem and leaves | Fresh plant | | VCS-2015/093 | |
| 60 | Fabaceae | <i>Phaseolus vulgaris</i> L. ^a | fréjol | di-vo | vo | | Santa Cruz Yawints Sangay | Fruits and seeds | Decoction | fo | VCS-2015/091 | |
| 61 | Geraniaceae | <i>Geranium</i> sp. ^a | geranio | ss- wo ga-ai | | wo, ai | | Leaves | Infusion | or | VCS-2015/049 | |
| 62 | Gesneriaceae | <i>Columnea ericae</i> Mansf. | lengua de vaca | rh-mr | mr | | Santa Rosa | Leaves | Infusion | | VCS-2015/045 | |
| 63 | Gesneriaceae | <i>Pearcea abunda</i> (Wiehler) L. P.K. Vist & L.E. Skog | urik kudumar | ga-he | he | | Chinimp | Leaves | Vaporization | | VCS-2015/056 | |
| 64 | Lamiaceae | <i>Hyptis pectinata</i> (L.) Poit. ^a | poleo, tipo | di-sr rh-mc | | sr, mc | Sangay, La Tarqui | Leaves | Infusion | | VCS-2015/105 | |
| 65 | Lamiaceae | <i>Melilotus</i> sp. ^a | genogreco | ii-fu | | fu fu | Sangay, Chinimp | Leaves | Fresh plant | | VCS-2015/097 | |
| 66 | Lamiaceae | <i>Melissa officinalis</i> L. ^a | toronjil | rs-cu ii-in ga-ai nh-se | cu, in, ai, se | ai, se | Cañari Sangay La Tarqui | Leaves | Infusion | | VCS-2015/144 | |
| 67 | Lamiaceae | <i>Mentha pulegium</i> L. ^a | menta | di-ic di-fl di-di | fl, di, ic | ic, fl | Chinimp, Santa Rosa, | Leaves | Infusion | fo | VCS-2015/015 | |

| | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----|-----------------|---|------------------|--|---------------------------|-------------------|--|-----------------|-------------|--------|--------------|
| 68 | Lamiaceae | <i>Mentha spicata</i> L. ^a | hierba buena | di-sr nh-se | | sr, se | Sangay, Yawints, La Tarqui | Leaves | Infusion | fo | VCS-2015/005 |
| 69 | Lamiaceae | <i>Ocimum campechianum</i> Mill. ^a | albahaca | di-sr di-di cd-bl bc-hd ga-ua se-ec di-lp ms-rh | sr, di, bl, hd, ua, ec | sr, lp, rh | Chinimp Cañari Las Palmas Sangay Yawints La Tarqui Chup Agua Potable Paquisha Chinimp, Sangay | Leaves | Infusion | fo, ri | VCS-2015/073 |
| 70 | Lamiaceae | <i>Origanum vulgare</i> L. ^a | oregano | di-ic ga-he nh-se | ic, se, he | ic, se, he | Chinimp, Sangay | Leaves | Infusion | | VCS-2015/041 |
| 71 | Lamiaceae | <i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i> L. ^a | romero | rh-mc | | mc | Sangay, La Tarqui | Leaves | Infusion | | VCS-2015/085 |
| 72 | Lauraceae | <i>Cinnamomum triplinerve</i> (Ruiz & Pav.) Kosterm | canela | nh-sm | | sm | Cañari | Stem | Decoction | fo | VCS-2015/103 |
| 73 | Lauraceae | <i>Persea americana</i> Mill. ^a | aguacate | po-sb | sb | | Las Palmas Santa Cruz Paquisha Sangay Yawints Chinimp | Seeds | Macerated | fo | VCS-2015/084 |
| 74 | Lecythidaceae | <i>Grias peruviana</i> Miers | apai | rs-de nh-mg ss-ac | de, mg, ac | | Chinimp | Fruits | Infusion | fo | VCS-2015/136 |
| 75 | Loranthaceae | <i>Phthirusa pyrifolia</i> (Kunth) Eichler | iwianchmer | ms-fr es-dt | fr, dt | | Paquisha, Santa Cruz | Leaves | Fresh plant | | VCS-2015/087 |
| 76 | Malpighiaceae | <i>Banisteriopsis caapi</i> (Spruce ex Griseb.) C.V. Morton ^a | ayahuasca, natem | di-pu cd-hl mn-ch es-dt | hl, ch, pu, dt | pu | Santa Rosa Las Palmas Chinimp Santa Cruz Sangay Chup Paquisha La Tarqui | Leaves and stem | Decoction | ri | VCS-2015/122 |
| 77 | Malpighiaceae | <i>Diplopterys cabrerana</i> (Cuatrec.) G. Gates ^a | yaji | cd-hl | hl | | La Tarqui | Leaves and stem | Decoction | ri | VCS-2015/051 |
| 78 | Malvaceae | <i>Herrania cuatrecasana</i> García-Barr. | kushiniap | po-sb | sb | | Chinimp Yawints Paquisha Chup | Fruits | Fresh plant | fo | VCS-2015/083 |
| 79 | Malvaceae | <i>Malachra ruderalis</i> Guerke | malva | di-sr ss-si ss-si di-di ga-fe | sr, si, so | sr, di, si, fe sr | Sangay La Tarqui Agua Potable Paquisha | Flowers | Infusion | | VCS-2015/060 |
| 80 | Malvaceae | <i>Malva sylvestris</i> L. ^a | tabaco de monte | ii-cl ii-in | cl, in | | Las Palmas | Leaves | Infusion | | VCS-2015/057 |
| 81 | Malvaceae | <i>Sida glomerata</i> Cav. | japimiuk | ss-da | da | | Paquisha | Whole plant | Decoction | | VCS-2015/138 |
| 82 | Malvaceae | <i>Sida poeppigiana</i> (K. Schum.) Fryxell | ortiga bejuco | us-up ga-ai | | up, ai | Sangay | Leaves | Fresh plant | | VCS-2015/014 |
| 83 | Maranthaceae | <i>Calathea</i> sp. ^a | motricidad niños | (ms-ct) | ct | | Paquisha | Leaves | Fresh plant | | VCS-2015/065 |
| 84 | Melastomataceae | <i>Monolena primuliflora</i> Hook. f. | shangur | ss-wo | wo | | Paquisha | Stem | Crush | fo | VCS-2015/080 |

(continued on next page)

Table 3 (continued)

| N° | Botanical family | Scientific name | Local name | Body systems - pharmacological properties | Pharmacological properties by cultural association | | | Locality | Used part | Form of preparation | ES | Collection number |
|-----|------------------|--|-------------------------|--|--|-----------------------|---------------------------|---|-----------------|---------------------|-----------|-------------------|
| | | | | | Shuar | Mestizo | Others | | | | | |
| 85 | Meliaceae | <i>Cedrela odorata</i> L. ^a | séetur, cedro fino | di-sr | sr | | | Sangay | Stem | Decoction | co | VCS-2015/126 |
| 86 | Moraceae | <i>Brosimum utile</i> (Kunth) Oken | sande | ss-wo | wo | | | Las Palmas | Latex | Fresh plant | | VCS-2015/036 |
| 87 | Moraceae | <i>Ficus carica</i> L. ^a | higo | rh-wc | | wc | | Sangay | Leaves | Infusion | fo | VCS-2015/043 |
| 88 | Moraceae | <i>Ficus insipida</i> Willd. | wambo | ii-at | at | | | Chinimp | Latex | Fresh plant | | VCS-2015/139 |
| 89 | Moraceae | <i>Morus insignis</i> Bureau ^a | morera | mn-ch | | ch | | Sangay | Leaves | Infusion | | VCS-2015/061 |
| 90 | Musaceae | <i>Musa</i> spp. ^a | plátano | di-di po-sb ii-er bc-ah di-sr di-di di-vo pp-ba | di, sb, er, ah | | di, sb, ah | Las Palmas Paquisha Chinimp | Stem | Fresh plant | fo, fp | VCS-2015/062 |
| 91 | Myrtaceae | <i>Psidium guajava</i> L. ^a | guayaba | | sr, di, vo, ba | sr, di, | sr, di, | Paquisha Cañari Santa Rosa Las Palmas Sangay Yawints La Tarqui Chinimp Chup Agua Potable | Fruits | Infusion | fo | VCS-2015/020 |
| 92 | Nyctaginaceae | <i>Miabilis jalapa</i> L. ^a | don dieko | rs-cu | | cu | | Sangay | Flowers | Infusion | | VCS-2015/075 |
| 93 | Oxalidaceae | <i>Oxalis</i> sp. | caña agria morada | es-dt | | dt | | Sangay | Stem and leaves | Fresh plant | or | VCS-2015/006 |
| 94 | Piperaceae | <i>Peperomia rotundata</i> Kunth. | congona | cd-bm | | bm | | Sangay | Leaves and stem | Macerated | | VCS-2015/142 |
| 95 | Piperaceae | <i>Peperomia</i> sp. ^a | tsemsem | ms-sp | sp | | | Chinimp, Sangay | Leaves | Infusion | | VCS-2015/053 |
| 96 | Piperaceae | <i>Piper aduncum</i> L. ^a | matico | ms-fr di-sr di-di ss-wo ss-sc | fr, sr, di, wo, sc | fr, sr, di, wo, sc | | Cañari Santa Rosa Las Palmas Sangay Yawints La Tarqui Chinimp Agua Potable | Leaves | Parboiled | | VCS-2015/129 |
| 97 | Piperaceae | <i>Piper obliquum</i> Ruiz & Pav. | anís | di-lp ga-ua di-lp di-sr | lp, ua | sr, lp | | Paquisha Cañari Paquisha Sangay Chinimp | Leaves | Infusion | | VCS-2015/128 |
| 98 | Piperaceae | <i>Piper obtusifolium</i> C. D.C. | ampar | di-sr di-di | sr, di | | | Chinimp, Yawints | Whole plant | Decoction | | VCS-2015/025 |
| 99 | Piperaceae | <i>Piper peltatum</i> Ruiz & Pav. ^a | natsamak, santa maria 1 | ga-ua ss-sw ga-bp ii-al cd-bm | ua, sw, bp, al, bm | ua, sw | | Cañari Santa Rosa Paquisha | Leaves | Parboiled | | VCS-2015/017 |
| 100 | Piperaceae | <i>Piper umbellatum</i> L. ^a | natsamak, santa maria 2 | di-lp ss-wo ss-sw ss-ci ss-sc ms-rh ii-al cd-bm | lp, wo, sw, ci, sc, rh, al, bm | lp, wo, sw, rh | lp, wo, sw, ci, sc, rh | Cañari Santa Rosa Las Palmas Chinimp Santa Cruz Sangay Paquisha Yawints | Leaves | Parboiled | fo | VCS-2015/052 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----|----------------|---|-----------------------------|---|-------------------------------|----------------|--|---|-------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|
| 101 | Plantaginaceae | <i>Plantago major</i> L. ^a | llantén | rs-cu ss-ci bc-ah ii-an | cu, ci, ah, an | cu, ci, ah, an | La Tarqui Chup Agua Potable Santa Rosa Cañari Sangay La Tarqui Chup Paquisha Cañari | Leaves and roots | Poultice | | VCS-2015/021 | |
| 102 | Plantaginaceae | <i>Scoparia dulcis</i> L. | tiatina | ss-wo ss-ci ga-fe ii-al mn-to | wo, ci, fe, al, to | wo, fe, ci, al | wo, fe | Paquisha Cañari Santa Rosa Las Palmas Paquisha Chinimp Sangay Yawints La Tarqui Agua Potable Chup | Whole plant | Infusion | | VCS-2015/018 |
| 103 | Poaceae | <i>Cymbopogon citratus</i> (D.C.) Stapf ^a | hierba luisa, chirichiri | di-sr | sr | sr | sr | Cañari Santa Rosa Las Palmas Paquisha Yawints Sangay La Tarqui Chinimp | Leaves | Infusion | fo | VCS-2015/032 |
| 104 | Poaceae | <i>Guadua angustifolia</i> Kunth | bambú | ss-hg us-kp | hg, kp | | | Las Palmas, Chinimp | Stem | Fresh plant | co | VCS-2015/113 |
| 105 | Poaceae | <i>Saccharum officinarum</i> L. ^a | Caña | ii-cl cd-bm | cl, bm | | cl | Las Palmas Chinimp Sangay La Tarqui Paquisha | Sap | Fresh plant | fo | VCS-2015/070 |
| 106 | Rosaceae | <i>Rosa</i> sp. ^a | Rosa | di-di se-ec ii-in | | di, ec, in | | Cañari, Sangay | Flowers | Infusion | or | VCS-2015/120 |
| 107 | Rubiaceae | <i>Morinda citrifolia</i> L. ^a | Noni | ot-cc | | cc | | | Fruits | Fruit | | VCS-2015/130 |
| 108 | Rubiaceae | <i>Uncaria tomentosa</i> D.C. | kenkuk, uña de gato | di-lp di-ga se-ca rh-uc us-bc mn-ch ot-cc | lp, ga, ca, uc, bc, ch, cc | | | Chinimp, Sangay, Yawints | Stem | Infusion | | VCS-2015/127 |
| 109 | Rutaceae L. | <i>Citrus × aurantium</i> ^a | naranja | di-di ii-cl di-lp ga-ua | di, cl, ua | cl, sr, lp | | Cañari Sangay La Tarqui Chinimp Agua Potable Paquisha | Fruits | Fresh plant | fo | VCS-2015/099 |
| 110 | Rutaceae | <i>Citrus medica</i> L. ^a | limón | ii-cl ga-ua | cl,ua | cl, ua | cl | Cañari Santa Rosa Las Palmas Sangay | Fruits | Decoction | fo | VCS-2015/100 |

(continued on next page)

Table 3 (continued)

| N° | Botanical family | Scientific name | Local name | Body systems - pharmacological properties | Pharmacological properties by cultural association | | | Locality | Used part | Form of preparation | ES | Collection number |
|-----|------------------|--|----------------------|---|---|---|--------|---|-----------------------|------------------------|-----------|----------------------|
| | | | | | Shuar | Mestizo | Others | | | | | |
| 111 | Rutaceae | <i>Ruta graveolens</i> Baill. ^a | Ruda | di-sp di-sr rh-mc cd-pr | sp, sr, mc | mc, pr | | Yawints La Tarqui Chinimp Agua Potable Chup Paquisha Sangay La Tarqui Chinimp | Leaves and flowers | Infusion | | VCS-2015/111 |
| 112 | Rubiaceae | Indeterminate 3 | matut | bc-hd | hd | | | Chinimp | Bark | Infusion | co | VCS-2015/030 |
| 113 | Sapotaceae | Indeterminate 4 | yurankmis arbol | se-ec | ec | | | Santa Rosa, Las Palmas, Paquisha | Fruits | Juice | | VCS-2015/002 |
| 114 | Scrophulariaceae | Indeterminate 5 | kujuk | (cd-ge) | ge | | | Santa Cruz, Paquisha | Whole plant | Decoction | | VCS-2015/086 |
| 115 | Smilacaceae | <i>Smilax insignis</i> Kunth | ijiak, zarzaparrilla | ss-sw bc-bf | sw, bf | sw, bf | | Las Palmas, Chinimp, La Tarqui | Leaves | Parboiled | | VCS-2015/145 |
| 116 | Solanaceae | <i>Brugmansia arborea</i> (L.) Lagerh. ^a | maikiua 1 | ms-fr mn-to pp-cr rh-mc ss-wo ss-sw cd-hl ss-ci bc-ah ii-an ga-bp cd-en cd-we pp-ih ii-al | fr, to, cr, mc, wo, sw, hl, ci, ah, an, bp, en, we, ih, al | fr, wo, hl, ci, bp, fr, wo, hl, bp, rh, en, we, ih, al, | | Paquisha Cañari Santa Rosa Las Palmas Santa Cruz Sangay Yawints La Tarqui Chinimp Chup Agua Potable | Leaves | Decoction | ri, or | VCS-2015/012 |
| 117 | Solanaceae | <i>Brugmansia × insignis</i> (Barb. Rodr.) Lockwood ex R.E. Schult. ^a | maikiua 2 | ms-fr ss-wo cd-mi ga-ai ss-sw cd-hl ga-bp cd-en di-lp ii-in | fr, wo, mi,, ai, sw, hl, bp, en | fr, in, wo, bp lp, wo, mi, ai | | Cañari Santa Rosa Paquisha Chinimp Sangay Yawints Chup | Leaves | Macerated | ri | VCS-2015/011 |
| 118 | Solanaceae | <i>Brunfelsia grandiflora</i> D. Don ^a | chiricaspi | cd-pr di-em ss-sw rs-de cd-hl cd-re ga-fe ii-in | pr, em, sw, de, hl, re, fe, in | | | Santa Rosa Las Palmas Santa Cruz Sangay Yawints Chinimp Paquisha Chup | Bark | Infusion | ri, or | VCS-2015/112 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----|---------------|--|-------------------------------------|---|--------------------------------------|----------------|------------|---|-------------|-------------|-----------|--------------|
| 119 | Solanaceae | <i>Capsicum annum</i> L. ^a | aji, jimia | po-sb | sb | sb | | Las Palmas Yawints Sangay La Tarqui | Fruits | Fresh plant | ve, fo | VCS-2015/104 |
| 120 | Solanaceae | <i>Cestrum peruvianum</i> Will. ex Roem. & Schult. ^a | sauco | rs-tp ms-rh us-kp | | tp, rh, kp | | Sangay, La Tarqui | Leaves | Infusion | | VCS-2015/077 |
| 121 | Solanaceae | <i>Nicotiana tabacum</i> L. ^a | tsaank, tabaco | ii-in ms-sa cd-hl ga-he ss-sw cd-bm | in, sa, hl, he, sw,bm | in, sw | in, hl, sw | Santa Rosa Las Palmas Paquisha Chinimp Sangay | Leaves | Parboiled | ri | VCS-2015/092 |
| 122 | Solanaceae | <i>Physalis peruviana</i> L. ^a | uvilla de la sierra | ss-wo | | | wo | La Tarqui | Fruits | Fresh plant | fo | VCS-2015/058 |
| 123 | Solanaceae | <i>Physalis pubescens</i> L. ^a | yurankmis, uvilla | di-di | di | di | | Sangay, Las Palmas | Fruits | Decoction | fo | VCS-2015/047 |
| 124 | Solanaceae | <i>Solanum americanum</i> Mill. | Shimpich, shimbishbi, mortiño | ss-ra ss-bu | ra, bu | ra | ra | Sangay, La Tarqui, Chinimp | Leaves | Powder | fo | VCS-2015/008 |
| 125 | Solanaceae | <i>Solanum appressum</i> K.E. Roe | tsaknum | ss-wo | wo | | | Chinimp | Leaves | Fresh plant | | VCS-2015/029 |
| 126 | Tiliaceae | <i>Heliocarpus americanus</i> L. | sapan | di-co | co | | | Santa Cruz | Latex | Fresh plant | fi | VCS-2015/131 |
| 127 | Tropaeolaceae | <i>Tropaeolum majus</i> L. | mastuerzo | ss-wo | | wo | | Sangay | Whole plant | Infusion | | VCS-2015/089 |
| 128 | Urticaceae | <i>Cecropia</i> sp. 1 | guarumo | ss-sc | sc | sc | | Sangay, Chinimp, Paquisha | Leaves | Decoction | fp, fu | VCS-2015/135 |
| 129 | Urticaceae | <i>Cecropia</i> sp. 2 | tsekse | ss-wo ss-sw | wo, sw | | | Sangay La Tarqui | Leaves | Fresh plant | | VCS-2015/074 |
| 130 | Urticaceae | <i>Urera caracasana</i> (Jacq.) Griseb. ^a | suku nara | ms-ct ms-rh | ct, rh, cl | | | Chinimp | Whole plant | Fresh plant | | VCS-2015/054 |
| 131 | Urticaceae | <i>Urera laciniata</i> (Goudot) Weed. ^a | napi nara | ii-cl di-sp ms-rh | sp, rh, ct | sp, rh | sp, rh | Cañari, Chinimp, Sangay, La Tarqui, Chup, Paquisha | Leaves | Fresh plant | | VCS-2015/007 |
| 132 | Urticaceae | <i>Urera baccifera</i> (L.) Gaudich. ex Wedd. ^a | ortiga, nara | di-di ms-ct ss-wo rs-br ga-fe ms-rh ms-cp us-up rh-oc | di, ct, wo, br, fe, rh, cp, up | di, oc, br, up | | Chinimp, Cañari, Santa Rosa, Las Palmas, Santa Cruz, Sangay Paquisha, Yawints, Chup | Leaves | Infusion | | VCS-2015/072 |
| 133 | Verbenaceae | <i>Aloysia triphylla</i> Royle ^a | cedrón | di-sr nh-se | | sr, se | | Sangay | Leaves | Infusion | fo | VCS-2015/140 |
| 134 | Verbenaceae | <i>Lippia alba</i> (Mill.) N.E.Br. | yantria | di-sr di-di ga-bp | sr, di, bp | sr, di | sr | Santa Cruz Sangay La Tarqui Chinimp Paquisha Chup | Leaves | Decoction | fo | VCS-2015/003 |
| 135 | Verbenaceae | <i>Stachytarpheta cayennensis</i> (Rich.) Vahl ^a | katipujuk | di-sr | sr | | | Las Palmas | Whole plant | Decoction | to | VCS-2015/028 |
| 136 | Verbenaceae | <i>Verbena litoralis</i> Kunth | yápa, verbena | di-sp rs-cu ga-fe ga-he bc-vv | sp, cu, fe, he, vv | sp, cu, fe, he | sp, cu, he | Santa Rosa, Las Palmas, Chinimp, Sangay, Yawints, La Tarqui, | Leaves | Infusion | ve | VCS-2015/009 |

Table 3 (continued)

| N° | Botanical family | Scientific name | Local name | Body systems - pharmacological properties | Pharmacological properties by cultural association | | | Locality | Used part | Form of preparation | ES | Collection number | |
|-----|------------------|--|-------------------|---|--|----------------|---------|----------|--|---------------------|-------------|-------------------|--------------|
| | | | | | Shuar | Mestizo | Others | | | | | | |
| 137 | Violaceae | <i>Viola odorata</i> L. ^a | violeta | rs-cu ii-in | | | | cu, in | Agua Potable, Paquisha, Chup Sangay | Flowers and leaves | Infusion | or | VCS-2015/042 |
| 138 | Xanthorrhoeaceae | <i>Aloe vera</i> L. ^a | zábila | di-sr ga-ai bc-bf ss-sw us-ks ii-fu | sr, ai, bf, sw, ks | sr, ai, bf, sw | ai, bf, | | Cañari, Santa Rosa, Paquisha | Leaves | Fresh plant | | VCS-2015/022 |
| 139 | Zingiberaceae | <i>Renalmia alpinia</i> (Rottb.) Maas ^a | kumpia | ii-fu | fu | | | | Santa Cruz, Yawints | Fruits and seeds | Decoction | ha, fo | VCS-2015/044 |
| 140 | Zingiberaceae | <i>Renalmia thyrsoides</i> Poepp. & Endl. ^a | chiank | di-di | di | | | | Las Palmas, Chinimp | Seeds | Decoction | fo | VCS-2015/095 |
| 141 | Zingiberaceae | <i>Zingiber officinale</i> Roscoe ^a | jengibre, ajej | pp-cr di-sp rh-mc rs-cu ii-in ii-oh bc-ah | cr, sp, mc, rh, cu, in cu, in, oh, ah | | | | Chinimp, Santa Rosa, Las Palmas, Paquisha, Santa Cruz, Sangay, Yawints, Chup | Rhizome | Fresh plant | | VCS-2015/064 |
| 143 | Unknown | Indeterminate 6 | marucasi | di-di di-vo pp-cr | di, vo, cr | | | | Las Palmas | Leaves | Infusion | | VCS-2015/016 |
| 144 | Unknown | Indeterminate 7 | helecho shiñañip | (mn-to) | to | | | | Chinimp | Leaves | Infusion | | VCS-2015/088 |
| 145 | Unknown | Indeterminate 8 | para sentar leche | (pp-gl) | gl | | | | Paquisha | Leaves | Infusion | | VCS-2015/090 |

PHARMACOLOGICAL PROPERTIES: sp = Stomach pain, ic = Intestinal colic, fl = flatulence, sr = stomach problems, di = Diarrhoea, lp = Liver pain, ul = Ulcers, em = Emetic, vo = Vomiting, co = Constipation, pu = Purgative, ga = Gastritis, ha = Halitosis, wo = Wounds, sw = Swellings, ra = Rash, hg = Hair growth, ci = Cicatrizing, bu = Burns, si = Skin infections, so = Skin spot, ac = Acne, da = Dandruff, sc = Skin condition, br = Bronchitis, cu = Cough, sn = Sinusitis, tp = Throat pain, de = Decongestant, as = Asthma, bm = Bad mood, bl = Bad luck, hl = Hallucinogen, mi = Mood improver, ge = Good energy, pr = Protection, pf = Purifying, db = Dog bite, en = Encourage, we = Weakness, re = Rejuvenation, ee = Evil eye, cm = Children misbehaving, sb = Snake bite, ib = Insect bite, fe = Fever, he = Headache, ai = Anti-inflammatory, ua = Undisclosed ailments, bp = Body pain, ba = Birth pain, cr = Childbirth recuperation, gl = Galactagogic, wn = Wean, ih = Induce childbirth, ab = Abortive, ea = Earache, ec = Eye condition, ca = Cataracts, rh = Rheumatism, fr = Fractures, ct = Children motricity, sa = Sprain, cp = Cramp, an = Antibiotic, at = Antiparasitic, oh = Oral herpes "Holanda", cl = Cold, in = Influeza, fu = Fungi, al = Antibacterial, er = *Erysipelas*, ae = Anemia, ah = Antihemorrhagic, hd = Heart disease, be = Blood pressure, bi = Blood circulation improver, bf = Blood purification, gn = Gangrene, vv = Varicose veins, mc = Menstrual colic, oc = Ovarian cysts, mr = Menstrual regulation, vi = Vaginal infection, wc = Women condition, cn = Contraceptive, me = Menorrhagia uc = Uterus condition, up = Urinary tract problems, kp = Kidney pain, pc = Prostate condition, ks = Kidney stones, bc = Bladder condition, to = Tonic, ch = Cholesterol, cc = Cancer, rs = Recovery of surgeries, se = Sedative, sm = Stimulant, ss = Stress, mg = Meningitis, dt = Diabetes, th = Toothache, hv = HIV.

BODY SYSTEMS: di = Digestive system, ss = Skin and subcutaneous tissue, rs = Respiratory system, cd = Cultural diseases and disorders, po = Poisoning, ga = General ailments with unspecific symptoms, pp = Pregnancy, birth and puerperium, se = Sensory system, ms = Muscular skeletal system, ii = Infections and infestations, bc = Blood and cardiovascular system, rh = Reproductive system and sexual health, us = Urinary system, mn = Metabolic system and nutrition, ot = Other, nh = Nervous system and mental health, es = Endocrine system, dh = Dental health, is = Immune system.

ECOSYSTEM SERVICES (ES): pu = personal use, fo = food, or = ornamental, ri = ritual, fp = food preparation, ve = veterinary, dy = dyes, ha = handicrafts, co = construction, fu = fuel, to = tools, fi = fibre, fodder = fd.

^a Cultivated in home gardens.

$p = 0.008$) and by generation ($\chi^2 = 13.3$, $p = 0.034$), with *Shuar* (57% of the gardeners) and older gardeners (38% of the survey) the most common practitioners of magical rituals.

Ten medicinal plant species have the highest relative importance (>0.5 ; Table 4). These plants include *Brugmansia arborea* and *Cyperus prolixus*, both used to treat stomach pain, labour pains and *bad moods*, both taken as a tonic or galactagogic, *Urera baccifera*, used to treat digestive problems, fever and rheumatism, *Brugmansia × insignis*, having various uses, such as in treatment of fractures or as an anti-inflammatory, and *Bryophyllum pinnatum*, an anti-inflammatory used to cure ulcers, gangrene, swellings, wounds, stomach problems and cancer (Table 3). The medicinal plant species with the highest cultural values are *Aerva sanguinolenta*, *Piper umbellatum*, *Cymbopogon citratus*, *Citrus medica*, and *Verbena litoralis* (Table 4). The plants with the highest diversity of uses are *Brugmansia arborea*, *Zingiber officinale*, *Piper umbellatum*, *Ilex guayusa* and *Cyperus prolixus*. The use values (informant consensus) differed among ethnic groups but not by gender. For *Shuar*, the more valuable medicinal plant species were *Calliandra angustifolia*, used as a tonic to provide courage, alleviate stress and treat diarrhoea, and *Musa* spp., used to treat diarrhoea, skin infections and snake bites. For *mestizos*, the highest valued medicinal plants were *Hyptis pectinata*, used to treat stomach problems, menstrual cramp, and coughs, and *Mentha spicata* L., used to treat stomach problems and as a sedative. For *other* cultures, the most important plants were *Bryophyllum pinnatum* (diverse applications listed above) and *Aristolochia ruiziana*, used to treat stomach problems and menstrual cramps.

3.2. Socioeconomic variables and traditional ecological knowledge of medicine plants

Most home gardeners in Sangay are women (Table 1). The main occupation for gardeners is farming, and the predominant educational level is primary. *Shuar* and *other* gardeners mostly live in Chinimp and Paquisha, while *mestizos* are concentrated in the Sangay parish nucleus. *Mestizo* gardeners are older (53 years old), have more medicinal plant species in their gardens (an average of 16 species), and have the highest monthly family incomes (338 USD). The gardens of *other* ethnic groups are largest (1068 m²). The best model of how socioeconomic factors influence the number of medicinal plants in home gardens includes age, ethnicity, education level, distance to the capital, and the gardener's community (Table 5). Older *mestizos* cultivate more medicinal plants than younger and *other* ethnic groups. People with no education cultivate more species than those with university education. Las Palmas, La Tarqui and Chup are the communities with the highest diversity of medicinal plants.

A larger array of uses for medicinal plants is identified by gardeners who cultivate more medicinal species ($R^2 = 0.89$, $p < 0.0001$). Male gardeners cultivate significantly more medicinal plants (mean [SD] = (10 species [6]) than females (7 species [5]; $\chi^2 = 35.5$, $p = 0.05$). The total number of medicinal plants grown in home gardens differs by ethnicity (ANOVA, model $df = 2$, $F = 3.75$, $p < 0.05$); *mestizos* cultivate more medicinal plants (9 [6]) than *Shuar* (7 [5]) and *other* groups (5 [5]). Older gardeners maintain more medicinal plants in the home garden than middle-aged and young gardeners ($df = 2$, $F = 4.99$, $p < 0.01$). Similarly, older gardeners identify more uses or pharmacological properties for the medicinal plants than do middle-aged and young gardeners ($df = 2$, $F = 4.85$, $p < 0.01$). The cultivation specifically of exotic plants differs by ethnicity ($df = 2$, $F = 15.29$, $p < 0.001$), with *mestizos* planting more (5 species [4]) than *Shuar* (2 species [1]) or *other* cultures (2 species [2]), and by generation ($df = 2$, $F = 6.65$, $p < 0.001$), with older gardeners planting more (5 species [3]) than middle-aged (4 species [3]) or young gardeners (2 species [2]). On the other hand, the number of native medicinal plants seeded, planted or cultivated does not differ by ethnicity or generation.

The preferred place to collect medicinal plants is from the home garden (118 respondents), followed by secondary forest (70 respondents), primary forest (19 respondents), markets (13 respondents), neighbours (8 respondents), and nearby farms (5 respondents). However, the frequency of respondents naming these sources differs according to ethnicity ($\chi^2 = 52.7$, $p = 0.001$), with *mestizos* collecting mainly from their home gardens (74%) and *Shuar* (47%) and *other* groups (44%) collecting mainly from secondary forest (Fig. 2). Only *mestizos* purchase some medicinal plants from the local market, neighbours or nearby farms.

The compositional analysis of the medicinal plant species has a stress of 0.23 in the NMDS, with the use of some species likely culturally embedded. For example, *mestizos* are associated with more use of *Hyptis pectinata* and *Rosmarinus officinalis*, while *Shuar* are associated with more use of *Psidium guajava*, *Cestrum peruvianum*, *Arracacia xanthorrhiza*, *Vernonanthera patens*, and *Alternanthera* sp. (Fig. 3). Some species, such as *Malachra ruderalis*, are close with all three ethnic groups; in this case, the plant is used similarly by all cultures to treat digestive conditions. Also *Brugmansia arborea* is used in different ways for three groups (Table 3). While *other* are related with diverse species as *Mentha pulegium* L., *Aloe vera*, *Mentha spicata*, *Musa* spp., *Saccharum officinarum* L., and *Urera laciniata* (Goudot) Weed.

3.3. Sources of traditional ecological knowledge

Across all respondents, mothers are the main source of traditional knowledge about medicinal plants (cited by 84%), followed by fathers (43%) and grandmothers (30%), with other sources less frequently cited (Table 1). The sources of traditional knowledge cited are similar for the three ethnic groups. After mothers, young gardeners and *Shuars* acquire their knowledge mainly from their grandparents and fathers- and mothers-in-law, while older gardeners, *mestizos* and gardeners from *other* cultures acquire their knowledge mainly from neighbours and friends (Fig. 4).

Table 4

Medicinal plants with the highest importance in index value calculation, in the home gardens of the Sangay parish, Palora municipality, Morona Santiago province, Ecuador.

| Relative importance index | | | |
|---|-------------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Species | Normalized body systems | Normalized pharmacological properties | Percentage of importance |
| <i>Brugmansia arborea</i> (L.) Lagerh. | 1.00 | 1.00 | 100.0 |
| <i>Cyperus prolixus</i> Kunth | 0.78 | 0.56 | 67.0 |
| <i>Urera baccifera</i> (L.) Gaudich. ex Wedd. | 0.78 | 0.56 | 67.0 |
| <i>Bryophyllum pinnatum</i> (Lam.) Oken | 0.67 | 0.56 | 61.5 |
| <i>Brugmansia</i> × <i>insignis</i> (Barb. Rodr.) | 0.56 | 0.63 | 59.0 |
| <i>Ocimum campechianum</i> Mill. | 0.67 | 0.50 | 58.3 |
| <i>Zingiber officinale</i> Roscoe | 0.67 | 0.44 | 55.2 |
| <i>Piper umbellatum</i> L. | 0.56 | 0.50 | 52.8 |
| <i>Brunfelsia grandiflora</i> D. Don | 0.56 | 0.50 | 52.8 |
| <i>Uncaria tomentosa</i> (Willd.) D.C. | 0.56 | 0.44 | 49.6 |
| <i>Ilex guayusa</i> Loes. | 0.56 | 0.38 | 46.5 |
| <i>Aloe vera</i> (L.) Burm. f. | 0.56 | 0.31 | 43.4 |
| <i>Nicotiana tabacum</i> L. | 0.44 | 0.38 | 41.0 |
| <i>Malachra ruderalis</i> Gürke | 0.44 | 0.38 | 41.0 |
| <i>Mansoa standleyi</i> (Steyerm.) A.H. Gentry | 0.33 | 0.44 | 38.5 |
| Cultural Importance | | | |
| Species | Total reports | Uses | Cultural importance |
| <i>Aerva sanguinolenta</i> Blume | 77 | 2 | 39 |
| <i>Piper umbellatum</i> L. | 181 | 8 | 23 |
| <i>Cymbopogon citratus</i> (DC.) Stapf | 21 | 1 | 21 |
| <i>Citrus medica</i> L. | 41 | 2 | 21 |
| <i>Verbena litoralis</i> Kunth | 102 | 5 | 20 |
| <i>Aloe vera</i> (L.) Burm. f. | 97 | 5 | 19 |
| <i>Phthirusa pyrifolia</i> (Kunth) Eichler | 38 | 2 | 19 |
| <i>Piper aduncum</i> L. | 88 | 5 | 18 |
| <i>Bactris gasipaes</i> Kunth | 17 | 1 | 17 |
| <i>Scoparia dulcis</i> L. | 83 | 5 | 17 |
| <i>Erythrina poeppigiana</i> (Walp.) O.F. Cook | 32 | 2 | 16 |
| <i>Psidium guajava</i> L. | 62 | 4 | 16 |
| <i>Brugmansia arborea</i> (L.) Lagerh. | 235 | 16 | 15 |
| <i>Chenopodium ambrosioides</i> L. | 14 | 1 | 14 |
| <i>Zingiber officinale</i> Roscoe | 93 | 7 | 13 |
| <i>Morinda citrifolia</i> L. | 13 | 1 | 13 |
| <i>Nicotiana tabacum</i> L. | 75 | 6 | 13 |
| <i>Ficus insipida</i> Willd. | 12 | 1 | 12 |
| <i>Calathea</i> sp. 2 | 12 | 1 | 12 |
| <i>Persea americana</i> Mill. | 11 | 1 | 11 |
| <i>Sambucus nigra</i> L. | 21 | 2 | 11 |
| <i>Adenostemma fosbergii</i> R.M. King & H. Rob. | 20 | 2 | 10 |

Table 5

Coefficients and significance of variables in the full regression model to explain diversity of medicinal plants with socioeconomic characteristics of the home gardeners in the Sangay parish, Morona Santiago province, Ecuadorian Amazon.

| Variables | Coefficients | Standard error | Z value | Pr(> z) |
|-----------------------------------|--------------|----------------|---------|-----------|
| Intercept | 1.18 | 0.33 | 3.61 | <0.001*** |
| Age | 0.01 | 0.00 | 4.22 | <0.001*** |
| Ethnicity (other) | -0.58 | 0.18 | -3.22 | 0.001** |
| Ethnicity (Shuar) | -0.17 | 0.13 | -1.27 | 0.20 |
| Distance to the municipal capital | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.32 | 0.74 |
| Distance to the main road | 0.00 | 0.00 | 5.20 | <0.001*** |
| Gender (male) | 0.05 | 0.08 | 0.63 | 0.53 |
| Education level (primary) | -0.24 | 0.09 | -2.40 | 0.02* |
| Education level (secondary) | -0.34 | 0.19 | -1.89 | 0.06 |
| Education level (university) | -0.34 | 0.19 | -1.86 | 0.06 |
| Community (Cañari) | 0.36 | 0.39 | 0.95 | 0.34 |
| Community (Chinimp) | 0.33 | 0.41 | 0.79 | 0.43 |
| Community (Chup) | 0.65 | 0.33 | 1.96 | 0.05* |
| Community (La Tarqui) | 0.80 | 0.37 | 2.17 | 0.03* |
| Community (Las Palmas) | 1.47 | 0.33 | 4.49 | <0.001*** |
| Community (Paquisha) | -0.05 | 0.35 | -0.17 | 0.87 |
| Community (Sangay) | 0.42 | 0.36 | 1.16 | 0.25 |
| Community (Santa Cruz) | 0.60 | 0.48 | 1.27 | 0.20 |
| Community (Santa Rosa) | 0.42 | 0.48 | 0.88 | 0.38 |
| Community (Yawints) | 0.53 | 0.37 | 1.42 | 0.16 |

Significance codes: 0 '****' 0.001 '***' 0.01 '**'.

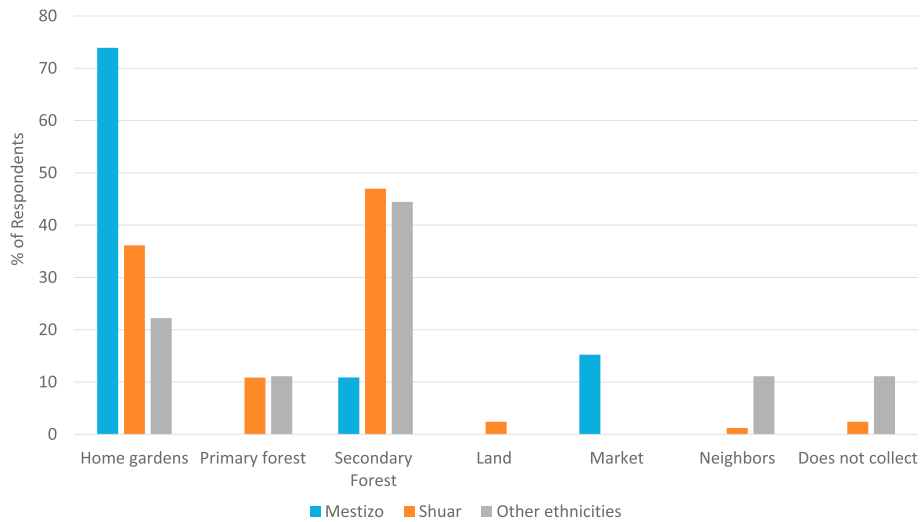


Fig. 2. Place of collection of medicinal plants among gardeners in the Sangay parish, Palora municipality, Morona Santiago province, Ecuador.

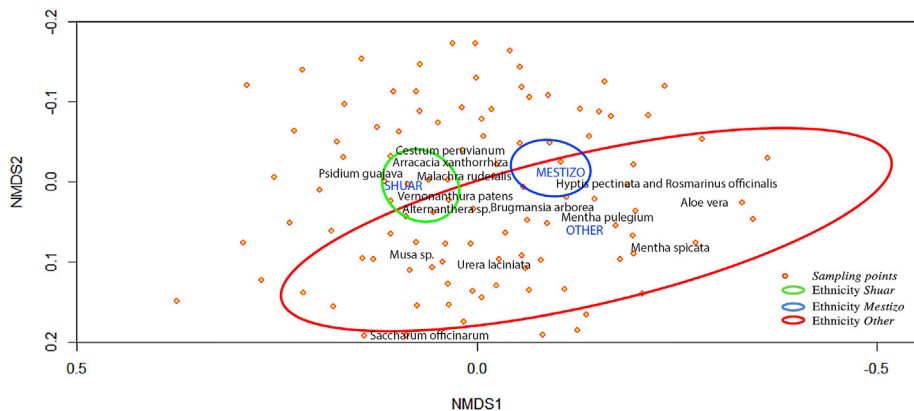


Fig. 3. Compositional differences among the home gardens of the Sangay parish, Palora municipality, Morona Santiago province, Ecuador. Species are distributed with a non-metric multidimensional scaling related to ethnicity of the home gardener.

4. Discussion

4.1. Diversity of medicinal plants and human well-being

In rural areas, such as Sangay, medicinal plants fulfil health care needs and contribute to local well-being. The number of medicinal plants reported in Sangay's home gardens is similar to those reported in other ethnobotanical studies in Ecuador (Bennett et al., 2002; Cerón, 2002; De la Torre et al., 2008). The main condition alleviated by medicinal plants in Sangay falls in the category of gastrointestinal disorders, as in other ethnobotanical studies around the world (Lozada et al., 2006; Giday et al., 2009; Khan et al., 2013; Paniagua-Zambrana et al., 2015). Similar to our results, different Shuar-based ethnobotanical studies also reveal the existence of a large number of plants species used to relieve gastrointestinal disorders, a chronic health problem for this ethnic group (Bennett et al., 2002).

Spiritual benefits are also obtained from medicinal plants, especially for Shuar people and the oldest gardeners we surveyed. Diverse studies have highlighted the indivisible relationship between magic and healing (Kawa, 2012). In Ecuadorian traditional medicine, the most frequent magical aspect, associated with 473 plant species, is in the treatment of the *evil eye* or *mal de ojo* (De la Torre et al., 2008). In Sangay, the contribution of magical plants to home garden diversity is considerable, with 62% of gardeners cultivating medicinal plant species with magical properties. The spiritual benefits of some species have been previously documented; for instance, *Ilex guayusa* is used as a tonic in purifying rituals and *Nicotiana tabacum* clears the mind and protects users from disease (Karsten, 2000). In our study, another species with a broadly recognized magical property is *Banisteriopsis caapi*, an essential part of Shuar daily life, providing spiritual well-being and power (Harner, 1994).

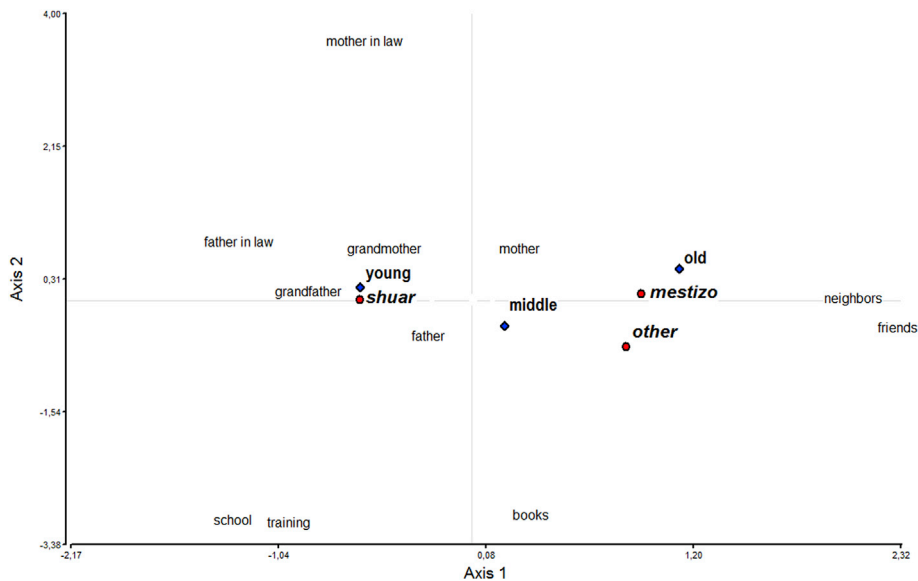


Fig. 4. Correspondence analysis between source of transmission of traditional knowledge of medicinal plants and ethnicity and generation of the home gardeners of the Sangay parish, Palora municipality, Morona Santiago province, Ecuador.

In Sangay, 91% of gardeners declare medicinal plants as their primary source of primary health care and their households have an average monthly income of 247 USD, an amount below the minimum wage in Ecuador (375 USD). Thus, the incorporation of traditional knowledge in conservation measures is essential to maintaining rural health (Paniagua-Zambrana et al., 2016). In addition, home gardening provides economic alternatives to people living in tropical regions (Begossi et al., 2002). As an example, in Sangay, commercialization of *Ilex guayusa* in the form of infusion bags now occurs to markets in nearby areas. Product integration into a market economy can stimulate transmission of traditional knowledge and contribute to the livelihood of households, as has been proposed for some areas in Bolivia and Peru (Paniagua-Zambrana et al., 2017a,b). The Amazon region has a very high plant diversity, including species used in traditional medicine, which can provide a source for many new products, including compounds for combating disease (Da Silva et al., 2018).

4.2. Home gardens for biodiversity conservation

Home gardens constitute key centres not only for biocultural knowledge, but also for biodiversity conservation (Calvet-Mir et al., 2016). In our study area, a third of species cultivated in home gardens are medicinal plants. For *Shuar*, the main place to collect medicinal plants remains the forest, as shown by a previous study (Harner, 1994). We feel, as have others, that the home garden provides a place for the cultivation of medicinal plants that can reduce pressure on natural ecosystems (Begossi et al., 2002; Khan et al., 2012). Thus, policy makers should consider home gardens as important reservoirs of biological and cultural diversity, but also as important alternatives to gathering medicinal plants from the forest. To date, local planning frameworks frequently do not recognize home gardens as elements of biodiversity conservation.

4.3. Use of plants by different ethnic groups and genders

In Sangay, as in other tropical regions, cultural and socioeconomic conditions are fundamental to the selection of medicinal plants for the home garden. Previous studies have highlighted the influence of ethnicity on plant community composition in home gardens (e.g., Perrault-Archambault and Coomes, 2008; Caballero-Serrano et al., 2016). Medicinal plants have individually special meanings to individual cultures (Heinrich et al., 1998; Hamilton, 2004). For example, for our study area, we learn that *Shuar* use *Brugmansia arborea* as a hallucinogen and tonic, while *mestizo* apply the sap of this plant as a cicatrizing agent; and *other* cultures use it to treat rheumatism. This plant is previously reported as used by *Shuar* to build courage (Karsten, 2000), especially in shamanic rituals (De la Torre et al., 2008). We identify the most versatile and useful medicinal plant species for each ethnic group. For *Shuar*, the most important species is *Calliandra angustifolia*, reported to be an emetic (De la Torre et al., 2008), in our study a species with magical properties used to build courage in the transition from boy to man. *Musa* spp. are also part of the traditional diet that *Shuar* families consume toward healing (Karsten, 2000), which in Sangay is also used to treat snake bites. For *other* cultures in our study, we find *Aristolochia ruiziana* is used to treat menstrual pain and digestive disorders, as in previous reports for the *Kichwa* of the Amazon (De la Torre et al., 2008). Two species are the most important plants for *mestizos* in our study: *Hyptis pectinata* and *Mentha spicata*. Both are previously shown to cure digestive disorders among the *mestizos* of the Andes of Ecuador (De la Torre et al., 2008).

Some medicinal plant species in our survey show even more association with a specific ethnic group. For example, *mestizos* use *Hyptis pectinata* and *Rosmarinus officinalis* much more frequently than other groups, the latter used to treat menstrual colic and liver pains. A wide range of medicinal properties of *Rosmarinus officinalis* are previously reported, such as in relief from headaches, skin conditions, gangrene and other ailments (De la Torre et al., 2008). *Shuar* home gardens highlight *Bixa orellana* and *Banisteropsis caapi*, both magical plants. In our findings, *Bixa orellana* treats diverse skin conditions, such as liver spots, fungi and infections, while in previous studies it is used to paint the body for rituals and ceremonies (Karsten, 2000). Other studies emphasize the use of similar medicinal plants by different cultures living in similar environments (Saslis-Lagoudakis et al., 2014). In our case, we find higher diversity in medicinal plant cultivation by culture, but also some similarities. For example, the native *Malachra ruderalis* is similarly used to alleviate stomach problems by the three ethnic groups in Sangay. There is evidence that *Shuar* have transmitted their traditional knowledge about the use of this plant to *mestizos* (Byg and Balslev, 2006).

When a culture persists for a long period in a place, more knowledge of local plants and their use can be developed (Byg and Balslev, 2006). That is the case reported to us by older *Shuar* farmers, who recognized greater number of medicinal plants than did younger *Shuar* or *mestizos* (Caballero-Serrano et al., 2017). While *mestizos* possess more diverse home gardens across all plants, in comparison with other ethnic groups (Caballero-Serrano et al., 2016), *Shuar* home gardens form only a part of their traditional knowledge about pharmacological properties of plants, because they also collected medicinal plants from the secondary forest.

As in other tropical areas, traditional medicine can include both native and exotic species (Begossi et al., 2002). Although only 11% of the medicinal plants reported across all of Ecuador are exotic (De la Torre et al., 2008), the percentage of exotics in Sangay's home gardens is higher (36%). Having exotic plants immersed in local medicine does not necessarily indicate erosion of traditional knowledge; rather, it represents diversification of mechanisms to increase the richness of medicinal stocks (Albuquerque, 2006). Here, higher use of exotic medicinal plants is probably a combination of i) an effect of knowledge brought by *mestizos* from other places of origin, and ii) the inclusion of some exotic species as foods being afterwards recognized for their medicinal benefits (Voeks, 2007). We have shown that, among native *Shuar*, exotic species, such as *Citrus × aurantium*, *Cymbopogon citratus*, *Saccharum officinarum* and *Zingiber officinale*, remain in home gardens as the most common remedies to many problems (Bennett and Prance, 2000).

4.4. Knowledge transmission

Despite the great diversity of medicinal plants in Sangay's home gardens, we report evidence for a decline in traditional knowledge about them. Cultivation of more medicinal plant species and a higher number of pharmacological properties known about them are found among older generations. Commonly, ethnobotanical knowledge is transmitted vertically within a family, and it is also learned through practice (Lozada et al., 2006). Although there are multiple factors threatening medicinal plant conservation, cultural changes are the most worrying (Voeks, 2007). The loss of traditional knowledge could be an effect of limited transmission of this knowledge by elders (Gómez-Baggethun et al., 2010). Additionally, younger people also seem to be less interested in learning about traditional practices (Giday et al., 2009).

In our study, although men in Sangay cultivate the most diverse gardens, knowledge transmission is associated with women, especially mothers. However, transmission of knowledge follows diverse pathways, and caution is required in considering the multiple social and environmental factors required for protecting traditional knowledge (Paniagua-Zambrana et al., 2016; Saslis-Lagoudakis et al., 2014). In Sangay, a high education level is not a guarantee of having more traditional ecological knowledge; indeed, people with no formal education cultivate more medicinal plant species than people with university degrees. In both cases, gardeners acquire their medicinal knowledge mainly from other family members. Similar work finds that people with no formal instruction cultivate more medicinal plant species than people with a high level of education (Giday et al., 2009). Some authors consider that it is necessary to integrate traditional ecological knowledge into the formal educational system to reverse the loss of local and traditional ecological knowledge (Gómez-Baggethun et al., 2010). However, Downey (2010) and Marchand (2010) argue that local ecological knowledge is acquired principally on emulation and context and not by verbal communication. The acquisition of local ecological knowledge involves learning mechanisms that are more pragmatic and sensory oriented (Zarger, 2010), and they often are simply embedded in everyday activities (Berl and Hewlett, 2015). Depending of the kind of traditional knowledge, different forms of transmission can occur, for example in traditional forager-farmer societies in Cameroon, children obtain knowledge about subsistence activities in a horizontal way through the observation and imitation of other children and adolescents with who develop these activities (Gallois et al., 2018). In other words, the acquisition of local ecological knowledge might be less effective in school-based learning than in learning at home (Reyes-García et al., 2016).

In Sangay, another factor influencing traditional knowledge is age. We find that older gardeners maintain more medicinal plants in the home garden than middle-aged and young gardeners and that they identify more uses or pharmacological properties for the medicinal plants. Related works already show that traditional knowledge of palms among people in the Amazon region is heterogeneous among generations and increases with age (Paniagua-Zambrana et al., 2016). Among people living in tropical forests, as in Sangay, older men cultivate more medicinal plants, but in other studies they also hold more traditional knowledge than do women and the younger generations (Begossi et al., 2002). Traditional knowledge supports the cultivation of medicinal plants, and simultaneously the daily use of medicinal plants favours the maintenance of traditional

knowledge. The loss of knowledge in younger generation makes urgent the need to take measures to transmit knowledge to the younger generations, especially from mothers.

5. Conclusions

Currently, the [World Health Organization \(2013\)](#) suggests that countries recognize traditional medicine in their conventional health systems. The role for medicinal plants in local health is also essential in our study area, as in other rural areas with lower family incomes. In Sangay, 91% of gardeners declared medicinal plants as their source for primary health care. Our study also shows that medicinal plant diversity is associated with an extensive knowledge of plant properties and uses. Traditional knowledge, most often transmitted by mothers to children, supports the cultivation of medicinal plants, and simultaneously the daily use of medicinal plants favours the maintenance of traditional knowledge. Therefore, the loss of traditional knowledge, and any infringement on the rights of women, would have serious implications for plant diversity and local well-being. Policy makers should consider home gardens as important reservoirs of biological and cultural diversity. Maintenance of traditional knowledge requires comprehensive measures, implying learning by emulation and context more than by formal education.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank the National Secretary of Higher Education, Science and Technology of Ecuador (SENESCYT) for the doctoral grant received by Veronica Caballero-Serrano. Josu G. Alday was supported by Ramón y Cajal fellowship, Spain [Grant number RYC-2016-20528]. Brian McLaren was supported by the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council, Canada [Discovery Grant number RPGIN/312/860-2012] and the Chimborazo Polytechnic University, Ecuador. We thank the local population of the Sangay parish for participating in this research and sharing their valuable knowledge.

References

- Albuquerque, U.P., 2006. Re-examining hypotheses concerning the use and knowledge of medicinal plants: a study in the Caatinga vegetation of NE Brazil. *J. Ethnobiol. Ethnomed.* 2, 30.
- Albuquerque, U.P., Lucena, R.F.P., Monteiro, J.M., Florentino, A.T.N., Almeida, C.F.C.B.R., 2006. Evaluating two quantitative ethnobotanical techniques. *Ethnobot. Res. Appl.* 4, 51–60.
- Barbhuiya, A.R., Sahoo, U.K., Upadhyaya, K., 2016. Plant diversity in the indigenous home gardens in the Eastern Himalayan region of Mizoram, northeast India. *Econ. Bot.* 70 (2), 115–131.
- Begossi, A., Hanazaki, N., Tamashiro, J., 2002. Medicinal plants in the Atlantic Forest (Brazil): knowledge, use, and conservation. *Hum. Ecol.* 30, 281–299.
- Bennett, B.C., Prance, G.T., 2000. Introduced plants in the indigenous pharmacopoeia of Northern South America. *Econ. Bot.* 54, 90–102.
- Bennett, B.C., Baker, M.A., Gómez, P., 2002. Ethnobotany of the Shuar of Eastern Ecuador. *Adv. Econ. Bot.* 14, 1–299.
- Berkes, F., Colding, J., Folke, C., 2000. Rediscovery of traditional knowledge as adaptive management. *Ecol. Appl.* 5, 1251–1262.
- Berl, R.E.W., Hewlett, B.S., 2015. Cultural variation in the use of overimitation by the Aka and ngandu of the Congo basin. *PLoS One* 10 (3) e0120180-e.
- Bidak, L.M., Samal, S.A., Halmly, M.W., Heneidy, S.Z., 2015. Goods and services provided by native plants in desert ecosystems: examples from the north-western coastal desert of Egypt. *Global Ecology and Conservation* 3, 433–447.
- Byg, A., Balslev, H., 2006. Palms in indigenous and settler communities in southeastern Ecuador: farmers' perceptions and cultivation practices. *Agrofor. Syst.* 67, 147–158.
- Caballero-Serrano, V., Alday, J.G., Amigo, J., Caballero, D., Carrasco, J.C., McLaren, B., Onaindia, M., 2017. Social perception of biodiversity and ecosystem services in the Ecuadorian Amazon. *Human Ecology* 45, 475–486.
- Caballero-Serrano, V., Onaindia, M., Alday, J.G., Caballero, D., Carrasco, J.C., McLaren, B., Amigo, J., 2016. Plant diversity and ecosystem services in Amazonian homegardens of Ecuador. *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.* 225, 116–125.
- Calvet-Mir, L., Gomez-Baggethun, E., Reyes-García, V., 2012. Beyond food production: ecosystem services provided by home gardens. A case study in Vall Fosca, Catalan Pyrenees, Northeastern Spain. *Ecol. Econ.* 74, 153–160.
- Calvet-Mir, L., Riu-Bosoms, C., González-Puente, M., Ruiz-Mallén, I., Reyes-García, V., Molina, J.L., 2016. The Transmission of home garden knowledge: safeguarding biocultural diversity and enhancing social–ecological resilience. *Soc. Nat. Resour.* 29, 556.
- Carvajal, J., Shacay, C., 2004. Aja Shuar, Sabiduría Amazónica. Fundación Etnoecológica y Cultura Tsantsa (FECTSA), Macas, Ecuador.
- Cerón, C.E., 2002. Etnobotánica del río Upano, sector Purshí-zuñac, Parque Nacional Sangay. *Cinchonia* 3 (2), 36–54.
- Cocks, M., 2006. Biocultural diversity: moving beyond the realm of 'indigenous' and 'local' people. *Hum. Ecol.* 34 (2), 185–200.
- Cook, F.E.M., 1995. Economic Botany Data Collection Standard. Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, United Kingdom.
- De la Torre, L., Navarrete, H., Muriel, P., Macía, M., Balslev, H. (Eds.), 2008. Enciclopedia de Plantas útiles del Ecuador. Herbario QCA de la Escuela de Ciencias Biológicas de la Pontificia Universidad Católica del Ecuador y Herbario AAU del Departamento de Ciencias Biológicas de la Universidad de Aarhus, Quito.
- Da Silva, B.J.M., Hage, P.A.A., Silva, E.O., Rodrigues, A.P.D., 2018. Medicinal plants from the Brazilian Amazonian region and their antileishmanial activity: a review. *Journal of Integrative Medicine* 16 (4), 211–222.
- Díaz-Reviriego, I., Fernández-Llamazares, A., Salpeteur, M., Howard, P., Reyes-García, V., 2016. Gendered medicinal plant knowledge contributions to adaptive capacity and health sovereignty in Amazonia. *Ambio* 45 (3), 263–275.
- Downey, G., 2010. 'Practice without theory': a neuroanthropological perspective on embodied learning. *J. Roy. Anthropol. Inst.* 16, S22–S40.
- Duque, M., Gómez, C., Cabrera, J.A., Guzmán, J.D., 2018. Important medicinal plants from traditional ecological knowledge: the case La Rosita community of Puerto Colombia (Atlántico, Colombia). *Bol. Latinoam. Caribe Plantas Med. Aromat. (BLACPMA)* 17 (4), 324–341.
- Fernandes, E.C.M., Nair, P.K.R., 1986. An evaluation of the structure and function of tropical homegardens. *Agric. Syst.* 21, 279–310.
- Gadgil, M., Berkes, F., Folke, C., 1993. Indigenous knowledge for biodiversity conservation. *Ambio* 22, 151–156.
- Gallois, S., Lubbers, M.J., Hewlett, B., Reyes-García, V., 2018. Social networks and knowledge transmission Strategies among baka children, southeastern Cameroon. *Hum. Nat.* 29 (4), 442–463.
- Ghimire, S.K., McKey, D., Aumeeruddy, Y., 2004. Heterogeneity in ethnoecological knowledge and management of medicinal plants in the Himalayas of Nepal: implications for conservation. *Ecol. Soc.* 9 (3), 6.
- Giday, M., Asfaw, Z., Woldu, Z., 2009. Medicinal plants of the Meinit ethnic group of Ethiopia: an ethnobotanical study. *J. Ethnopharmacol.* 124, 513–521.
- Gómez-Baggethun, E., Míngorria, S., Reyes-García, V., Calvet-Mir, L., Montes, C., 2010. Traditional ecological knowledge trends in the transition to market economy: an empirical study in the Doñana natural areas, SW Spain. *Conserv. Biol.* 24, 721–729.

- Hamilton, A.C., 2004. Medicinal plants, conservation and livelihoods. *Biodivers. Conserv.* 13, 1477–1517.
- Harner, M., 1994. Shuar, pueblo de las cascadas sagradas. Abya Yala. Quito third ed., 267 pages.
- Heinrich, M., Ankli, A., Frei, B., Weimann, C., Sticher, O., 1998. Medicinal plants in Mexico: healers' consensus and cultural importance. *Soc. Sci. Med.* 47 (11), 1859–1871.
- Huai, H., Hamilton, A., 2009. Characteristics and functions of traditional homegardens: a review. *Front. Biol. China* 4 (2), 151–157.
- I.N.A.M.H.I (Instituto Nacional de Meteorología e Hidrología), 2014. Registros Meteorológicos Estación Meteorológica Té Sangay.
- I.N.E.C., 2011. VII Censo de Población y VI de Vivienda 2010. Ecuador. Available from: <http://redatam.inec.gob.ec/cgibin/RpWebEngine.exe/PortalAction> (accessed August 2014).
- Khan, S.M., Page, S., Ahmad, H., Harper, D., 2012. Anthropogenic influences on the natural ecosystem of the naran valley in the western Himalayas. *Pakistan J. Bot.* 44, 231–238.
- Khan, S.M., Page, S., Ahmad, H., Shaheen, H., Ullah, Z., Ahmad, M., Harper, D.M., 2013. Medicinal flora and ethnoecological knowledge in the naran valley, western Himalaya, Pakistan. *J. Ethnobiol. Ethnomed.* 9, 4.
- Karsten, R., 2000. La vida y la cultura de los Shuar, Segunda Edición. Ediciones Abya Yala, Quito-Ecuador.
- Kawa, N.C., 2012. Magic plants of the Amazonia and their contribution to the Agrobiodiversity. *Hum. Organ.* 71, 3.
- Kumar, B.M., Nair, P.K.R., 2004. The enigma of tropical homegardens. *Agrofor. Syst.* 61, 135–152.
- Lozada, M., Ladio, A.H., Weigandt, M., 2006. Cultural transmission of ethnobotanical plant knowledge in a rural community of northwestern patagonia, Argentina. *Econ. Bot.* 60 (4), 374–385.
- M.A.E (Ministerio de Ambiente del Ecuador), 2008. Land Use Map of Continental Ecuador. Quito- Ecuador. Escala 1:50,000, 84. WGS, 17S.
- Macía, M., Armesilla, P., Cámara-Leret, R., Paniagua-Zambrana, N., Villalba, S., Balslev, H., Pardo-De-Santayana, M., 2011. Palm uses in northwestern South America: A quantitative review. *The Botanical Review* 77, 462–570.
- Marchand, T.H.J., 2010. Making knowledge: explorations of the indissoluble relation between minds, bodies, and environment. *J. Roy. Anthropol. Inst.* 16, S1–S21.
- MEA (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment), 2005. Ecosystems and human wellbeing: current state and trends. Millennium Ecosystem Assessment. Island Press, Washington, D.C.
- Mendez, V.E., Kok, L., Somarriba, E., 2001. Interdisciplinary analysis of homegardens in Nicaragua: micro-zonation, plant use and socioeconomic importance. *Agrofor. Syst.* 51, 85–96.
- Mittermeier, R.A., Mittermeier, C.G., Robles-Gil, P., 1997. Megadiversity: Earth's Biologically Wealthiest Nations. CEMEX, México, D.F.
- Oksanen, J., Blanchet, F.G., Kindt, R., Legendre, P., Minchin, P.R., O'Hara, R.B., Simpson, G.L., Solymos, P., Stevens, M.H.H., Wagner, H., 2015. **Vegan: Community Ecology Package.** R Package Version 3.3-1. <http://CRAN.R-project.org/package=vegan>.
- Paniagua-Zambrana, N.Y., Cámara-Leret, R., Macía, M.J., 2015. Patterns of medicinal use of palms across northwestern South America. *Bot. Rev.* 81, 317–415.
- Paniagua-Zambrana, N.Y., Cámara-Leret, R., Bussmann, R.W., Macía, M.J., 2016. Understanding transmission of traditional knowledge across north-western South America: a cross-cultural study in palms (Arecaceae). *Bot. J. Linn. Soc.* 182, 480–504.
- Paniagua-Zambrana, N.Y., Bussmann, R.W., Hart, R.E., Moya Huanca, A.L., Ortiz Soria, G., Ortiz Vaca, M., Ortiz Álvarez, D., Soria Morán, J., Soria Morán, M., Chávez, S., Chávez Moreno, B., Chávez Moreno, G., Roca, O., Siripi, E., 2017a. Traditional knowledge hiding in plain sight—21st century ethnobotany of the Chácobo in Beni. *Bolivia Journal of Ethnobiology and Ethnobiomedicine* 13, 57.
- Paniagua-Zambrana, N., Bussmann, R.V., Macía, M.J., 2017b. The socioeconomic context of the use of *Euterpe precatoria* Mart. and *E. oleracea* Mart. in Bolivia and Peru. *J. Ethnobiol. Ethnomed.* 13, 32.
- Perrault-Archambault, M., Coomes, O.T., 2008. Distribution of agrobiodiversity in home gardens along the corrientes river, Peruvian Amazon. *Econ. Bot.* 62, 109–2.
- Phillips, O., Gentry, A.H., 1993. The useful plants of Tambopata, Peru: I. Statistical hypotheses tests with a new quantitative technique. *Econ. Bot.* 47, 15–32.
- Prance, G.T., Balée, W., Boom, B.M., Carneiro, R.L., 1987. Quantitative ethnobotany and the case for conservation in Amazonian. *Conserv. Biol.* 1, 296–310.
- R Development Core Team, 2017. **R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing.** R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna.
- Reyes-García, V., Marti, N., McDade, T.W., Tanner, S., Vadez, V., 2007. Concepts and methods in studies measuring individual ethnobotanical knowledge. *J. Ethnobiol.* 27, 108–203.
- Reyes-García, V., Pyhälä, A., Díaz-Reviriego, I., Duda, R., Fernández-Llamazares, Á., Gallois, S., et al., 2016. Schooling, local knowledge and working memory: a study among three contemporary hunter-gatherer societies. *PLoS One* 11, 1.
- Sunwar, S., Thornström, C.G., Subedi, A., Bystrom, M., 2006. Home gardens in western Nepal: opportunities and challenges for on-farm management of agrobiodiversity. *Biodivers. Conserv.* 15, 4211–4238.
- Saslis-Lagoudakis, C.H., Hawkins, J.A., Greenhill, S.J., Pendry, C.A., Watson, M.F., Tuladhar-Douglas, W., Baral, S.R., Savolainen, V., 2014. The evolution of traditional knowledge: environment shapes medicinal plant use in Nepal. In: *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 281, p. 20132768.
- Uniyal, S.K., Singh, K.N., Jamwal, P., Lal, B., 2006. Traditional use of medicinal plants among the tribal communities of Chhota Bhangal, Western Himalaya. *J. Ethnobiol. Ethnomed.* 2 (14), 1–8.
- Uquillas, J., 1984. Colonization and spontaneous settlement in the Ecuadorian Amazon. In: Schmink, M., Wood, C.H. (Eds.), *Frontier Expansion in Amazonia*. University of Florida Press, Gainesville, pp. 261–284.
- Voeks, R.A., 2007. Are women reservoirs of traditional plant knowledge? Gender, ethnobotany and globalization in northeast Brazil. *Singapore J. Trop. Geogr.* 28, 7–20.
- W.H.O. (World Health Organization), 2013. *Traditional Medicine Strategy 2014–2023*. World Health Organization, Geneva.
- Zarger, R., 2010. Learning the environment. Pages 341–69. In: Lancy, D., Bock, J., Gaskins, S. (Eds.), *The Anthropology of Learning in Childhood*. AltaMira Press., 2010.