

Peri-Urban Agricultural Expansion and Forest Loss in Lapite, Ibadan; Its Implication for Floristic Composition and Species Invasion

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ABSTRACT

Peri-urban agriculture in developing countries is increasing due to demand for food for the increasing population. Peri-urban agriculture offers an alternative land-use for income generation to ameliorate urban poverty and food insecurity, however, it causes forest loss, degradation, and species invasion. This study investigated the extent of forest loss, species composition, and the importance of invasive species in peri-urban agriculture in Ibadan, Oyo State. The study site was located at Lapite, Moniya, Ibadan. Ten farmlands (sizes: 1120 m² and 3750 m²) were evaluated within 70.4 hectares. Systematic sampling for herbaceous and woody flora was conducted using plot sizes of 10 × 10 m and 1 m² quadrats, respectively. Land-use cover change from 1998-2018 was assessed with Arc GIS 10 on USGS Landsat imagery. Enumerated floristic data were analysed for species composition, relative importance value (RIV), and invasive species were noted. One hundred and thirty-two (132) herbaceous species in 38 families were enumerated with RIV ranging from 0.02% - 13.9%. *Talinum fruticosum* had the highest RIV (13.58%). Twenty woody species in 13 families were enumerated with RIV of 1.33% to 23.2%. *Elias guineensis* had the highest RIV. Five invasive species were identified with *Leucaena leucocephala* having the highest occurrence among invasive woody species (RIV=13.38). *Alternanthera sessilis* was the most (RIV= 2.5%) occurring invasive species. GIS analysis indicated bare/deforested areas increased from 8.33% in 1998 to 46.23% in 2018. Loss of cover and species invasion was attributed to the expansion of agricultural areas and might increase the impact of climate change in the area. Peri-urban agricultural activities in Moniya should be regulated to prevent the further incursion of invasive species and forest loss with associated benefits.

Keywords: Peri-urban agriculture, deforestation, species composition, ecosystem change, Relative importance Value.

Introduction

Nigeria is well endowed with forest resources, accounting for about 2.5 percent of the Gross Domestic Products (GDP). These resources employ over 2 million people and more than

80,000 people working in the log processing industries, especially in the forest zones of the south (FAO, 2015). The resources are situated in high forests, woodlands, bushlands, plantations, and trees on farmlands. These forests occupy about 10 million hectares

representing almost 10 percent of the total land area of 92,376,700 hectares. This total is made up of about 445 reserves, distributed over the five main ecological zones of Freshwater/mangrove, the lowland rainforest, the derived savanna, and the Sahel/Sudan savanna (FAO, 2015). According to Aigbe *et al.* (2012), forests provide a wide range of non-wood products and environmental functions, these products include conservation of biodiversity, medicine, watershed protection, stabilization of the hydrological regimes, and carbon sequestration.

Despite the huge resources, increase in human population, its demands, and subsequent anthropogenic activities have continuously been mounting pressure on the ecosystem (FAO, 2017). The continuous alteration of the ecosystem by humans and their quest for alternative use of the environment has resulted in a continuous and serious degradation of the ecosystem which thus poses a threat to nature and its inhabitants (Ogunwale, 2015). Anthropogenic activities mostly implicated in forest depletion globally are agriculture, pollution, urbanisation, road construction, mineral exploitation, oil-spillage, and industrialisation (Ibrahim *et al.*, 2015). Nigeria is not left out of the tragedy befalling forests worldwide. From 2001 to 2018 alone, the country lost 818,286 ha of its tree cover. This accounts for 6% of its total tree cover (Mongabay Deforestation Statistics, 2019). The loss of this large amount of forest and its resources can be traced to anthropogenic activities of man. The rate of losses of forest and associated resources in Nigeria is attributed

to factors including uncoordinated land use policy and other forms of land use such as agriculture, grazing, industrialization, urbanization, and water management leading to the formation of deserts, bare surfaces, and general environmental degradation (Aigbe *et al.*, 2012).

Continuous opening of lands for agricultural expansion has established itself as one of the major threats to biodiversity loss, in most developing countries which are characterised by an enormous population, high poverty rate, and high price of acquiring fertilisers. Therefore, farmers explore uncultivated farmlands which are still fertile as a means of improvising cheap sources of fertilisers and expanding their farm size and output Onuche (2010). This, in turn, leads to biodiversity and habitat loss, loss of forest and its resources. This rate of forest expansion drew the attention of the FAO (2001), who warned that if the rate of forest loss increases at the present progression, by 2050 the world's arable land will increase by some 70 million hectares, and much of the new farmland will be on areas that are currently forested.

In recent years, peri-urban agriculture has gained more popularity in many developing countries with increased demand for food and other agricultural produce for its ever-increasing population, and its potential as an alternative source of income and alleviation of poverty and food insecurity (Germer *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, peri-urban agriculture is an important food security functional mechanism used by the FAO in response to food scarcity and insecurity in most developing countries

(FAO,2001). Benefits of peri-urban agriculture as described by Duchemin *et al.* (2008) include food security, food accessibility, good food quality, economic integration, fight against poverty, prevention of biodiversity loss, multiple inter-individual interactions, social participation, and social integration among others.

However, agricultural activities have been established as major drivers of climatic change, with the emission of greenhouse gases from agricultural activities contributing to 30% of anthropogenic greenhouse emissions (Smith *et al.*, 2013). Global demand for agricultural products such as food feeds, and fuel is increasing the demand for croplands and pasture expansion across much of the developing world (Gibbs *et al.*,2010). In recent times, many forested areas have been lost to arable farming leading to land cover change occasioned by vegetation loss or species invasion.

Land cover change has been described as the third most important anthropogenic cause of carbon emissions globally and the second most important in developing countries (World Bank, 2010). Tree species that serve as a device for sequestering carbon are cut down and large expanses of land are opened up for agricultural expansions. Gibbs *et al.* (2010) described the agricultural expansion as the major driver of tropical deforestation and reported that between 1980 and 2000, both intact forest and disturbed forest have given way for the creation of new agricultural lands with intact forest accounting for 55% loss and disturbed forest accounting for 28% loss. The impact of this population

increase and the increased subsequent pressure on rural lands and attendant cover changes are disproportionately reported for Nigeria and other developing countries.

This study aimed to fulfil the following objectives:

1. Assess floristic composition of peri-urban land use in Lapite, Moniya, Oyo State, Nigeria
2. Evaluate rate of forest loss due to agricultural expansion in Lapite, Moniya, Oyo State, Nigeria
3. Identify invasive species in Lapite, Moniya, Oyo State, Nigeria

Materials and Methods

Location and description of the study site

The study was located at Lapite village, a peri-urban settlement located close to Moniya (also a peri-urban town) at Akinyele local government area, Ibadan, Oyo State, Nigeria between latitude 07° 34.253 and longitude E 003° 54.633 and elevation of 235 m above sea level. The study area consisted of ten farmlands ranging from 3750 m² to 1200 m² in the area and summing up to over 70.4 hectares. They comprised either mixed cropping or mono-cropping of maize, cassava, okra, leafy vegetables, potatoes, cocoyam, and banana. The study area featured a large dumpsite that covered about ten hectares of the land surface.

Data collection

Flora sampling procedure

A systematic sampling design was employed for the assessment of the flora composition of the study area, using a plot size of 10 ×10 m², with the number of plots determined by the farm size, and a randomized sampling technique was used for the enumeration of the tree samples. Enumeration of herbaceous flora contents was done using quadrats of 1m ×1m size which were laid systematically at the corners and center of each plot. Data were collected on the heights and stem girths of tree species encountered.

Species identification and enumeration

Herbaceous flora identification followed identification using the flora of Johnson (1997) and Akobundu *et al.* (2016). Tree species were identified using Nigeria Trees by Keay *et al.* (1964) and West African Flora of Hutchinson and Dalziel (1979). Species were identified for their invasiveness from the IUCN invasive species database. (IUCN, 2019).

Global positioning system (GPS); Garmin™ertrex12 H model was used for geo-

Multivariate analysis for floristic data

Detrended correspondence analysis DCA was used to indicate the relatedness of a quadrant to others (Hill, 2012) using the Detrended Correspondence Analysis (DECORANA) Software. The most explanatory combination of axes was used to display variations and relationships. Paleontological statistics (PAST2.14) version software (Hammer *et al.*, 2001) was used for multivariate analysis, phytosociological classification and computation of diversity indices.

referencing (determination of the coordinates: longitude and latitude and elevation of the study site and aerial mapping). A meter rule of 100 meters long was used for measurement of demarcated plot size at intervals and the stem girth of each tree species was taken at breast height. A one square meter quadrat was used for quantitative enumeration of the flora samples present at the study site. Wooden pegs were used to demarcate the transects from one another.

Data analytical tool

Analysis for geographical data

Google Earth 2018 was used to determine the coordinates of the study site. The historical changes in the vegetation and the landscape of the study site were assessed using a Geographic information system (GIS). Information on the land-use land cover changes of the study site from 1998-2018 was obtained with Arc GIS 10 from USGS Landsat imageries.

Results

Results of Species Composition of Lapite Moniya

A total of one hundred and thirty-two 132 species of herbaceous flora belonging to 38 different families were enumerated on the field with relative importance values (RIV) ranging from 0.012% to 13.9% as presented in Table 1. *Talinum fruticosum* had the highest RIV (13.9%), followed by *Euphorbia heterophylla* (8.1%), and *Tithonia diversifolia* (6.3%), with *Mallotus oppositifolius*, *Vernonia cinerea*, *Daniella oliveri*, *Physalis micrantha*,

Manniophyton fulvum, *Aconthospermum hispidum*, having the least RIV (0.012%).

Twenty woody species in 13 families were enumerated with RIV ranging from 1.3% to 23.2%. *Elias guineensis*, had the highest RIV (23.2%), followed by *Newbouldia laevis* (13.9%) and *Leuceanea leucocephala* (10.3%), while *Ficus polita*, *Bridella feruginea*, and *Anthocelesta djalolensis* had the lowest each with RIV of 1.3% (Table 2).

Diversity indices of herbaceous flora in Moniya, Ibadan

The diversity indices accounted for 132 species (Taxa) with a total abundance of 26757 individual plants (Table 3). The dominance index of 0.06911 for herbaceous plants indicated that there was no prevalence of any species in the study site. Simpson index showed a value of 0.9309 which indicated that there was high species richness and moderately even distribution with Evenness index of 0.2182. Diversity of species in the study area was very high with the Shannon Weiner value at 3.361. The high diversity was accounted for by many of the enumerated herbaceous plants (Figure 1).

The woody flora had a lower diversity indices than the herbaceous flora of Lapite, Ibadan, Twenty species (Taxa) with a total abundance

of 227 individuals were enumerated in the study site. The low dominance index (0.202) indicated that no particular species was dominating the study area. Simpson index of 0.797 indicated that there was fairly high species richness and near moderate even distribution (0.423) across the landscape. Equitability index (0.7128) indicated that each plot used for the enumeration had a fairly high even distribution of various species encountered. Diversity of woody plants was high (though not as high as that of herbaceous flora) with a Shannon-weiner value of 2.135 (Table 3). The diversity was accounted for by few of the enumerated woody plants, except *Ficus polita*, *Ficus exasperata* and *Elaeis guineensis* (Figure 2).

Species invasion among herbaceous and woody flora at Lapite, Moniya, Ibadan

Five prominent invasive species were identified at the study site, comprising *Leuceanea leucocephala* being the only woody invasive species identified with an RIV of 13.3% among the woody plants. *Alternanthera sessilis*, *Chromolaena odorata*, *Mimosa pudica*, and *Cyperus rotundus* were the identified invasive herbaceous plants with *Alternanthera sessilis* being the most occurring invasive species with RIV of 2.5% (Table 4).

Table 1: Composition and relative importance value of herbaceous flora at Lapite, Moniya, Ibadan

Species	Family	RIV
<i>Talinum fruticosum</i> (L.) Juss.	Portulacaceae	13.588
<i>Euphorbia heterophylla</i> L.	Euphorbiaceae	8.056
<i>Tridax procumbens</i> L.	Asteraceae	6.341
<i>Tithonia diversifolia</i> (Helmsl.) A. Gray	Asteraceae	6.329
<i>Laportea aestuans</i> (Linn.) Chew	Uticaceae	4.212
<i>Marriscus alternifolius</i> Vahl.	Cyperaceae	3.897
<i>Spermacoce ocymoides</i> Burm f.	Rubiaceae	3.850
<i>Celosia leptostachya</i> Benth.	Amaranthaceae	3.258
<i>Spigelia anthelmia</i> Linn.	Loganiaceae	3.142
<i>Oldenlandia corymbosa</i> Linn.	Rubiaceae	3.131
<i>Phyllanthus amarus</i> Schum. & Thonn.	Euphorbiaceae	2.522
<i>Merremia aegyptia</i> (Linn.) Urban	Convolvaceae	2.494
<i>Desmodium scorpiurus</i> (Sw.) Desv.	Fabaceae	2.008
<i>Senna hirsuta</i> (Linn.) Irwin & Barneby	Fabaceae	1.707
<i>Synedrella noiflora</i> Gaertn.	Asteraceae	1.698
<i>Ageratum conyzoides</i> Linn.	Asteraceae	1.619
<i>Sida garckeana</i> Polak	Malvaceae	1.553
<i>Peperomia pellucida</i> (L.) H.B. & K.	Piperaceae	1.536
<i>Commelina benghalensis</i> L.	Commelinaceae	1.372
<i>Paullinia pinnata</i> L.	Sapindaceae	1.310
<i>Calopogonium mmucunoides</i> Desv.	Fabaceae	1.304
<i>Centrosema pubescens</i> Benth.	Fabaceae	1.251
<i>Commelina erecta</i> L.	Commelinaceae	1.056
<i>Brachiaria deflexa</i> (Schumach) C.E. Hubbard	Poaceae	1.013
<i>Euphorbia hyssopifolia</i> Linn.	Euphorbiaceae	1.012
<i>Euphorbia hirta</i> Linn.	Euphorbiaceae	0.991
<i>Cromolaena odorata</i> (L.) R. M. King & Robinson	Asteraceae	0.879
<i>Asystasia gangetica</i> (Linn.) T. Anders	Acanthaceae	0.879
<i>Desmodium tortuosum</i> (Sw.) DC.	Fabaceae	0.840
<i>Shrankia leptocarpa</i> DC	Fabaceae	0.829
<i>Boerhavia erecta</i> Linn.	Nyctaginaceae	0.798
<i>Acroceras zinaniodes</i> Dandy	Poaceae	0.663
<i>Solanum nigrum</i> L.	Solanaceae	0.625
<i>Alchornea cordifolia</i> (Schum & Thonn.) Mull. Arg.	Euphorbiaceae	0.617
<i>Alternanthera ficodea</i> (L.) Sm.	Amaranthaceae	0.584
<i>Mucuna pruriens</i> (L.) Dc.	Fabaceae	0.539
<i>Pouzolzia guineensis</i> Benth.	Urticaceae	0.511
<i>Commelina africana</i> L.	Commelinaceae	0.510
<i>Sida acuta</i> Burm. F.	Malvaceae	0.461
<i>Passiflora foetida</i> L.	Passifloraceae	0.452
<i>Ficus exasperata</i> Vahl.	Moraceae	0.427
<i>Senna obtusifolia</i> (L.) Irwin & Barneby	Fabaceae	0.410
<i>Ipomea involucrata</i> P. Beauv.	Convolvulaceae	0.393
<i>Alchornea laxiflora</i> (Benth.) Pax & K. Hofm	Euphorbiaceae	0.375
<i>Melanthera scandens</i> (Schum & Thonn.) Roberty	Compositae	0.373

Species	Family	RIV
<i>Albizia zygia</i> (Dc.) J.F. Macbr. (Seedling)	Fabaceae	0.357
<i>Platostoma africanum</i> P. Beauv.	Lamiaceae	0.330
<i>Commelina diffusa</i> Burm. f.	Commelinaceae	0.329
<i>Triumfetta rhomboidea</i> Jacq.	Malvaceae	0.312
<i>Physalis angulate</i> Linn.	Solanaceae	0.311
<i>Cleome viscosa</i> L.	Cleomaceae	0.282
<i>Acalypha fimbriata</i> Schum & Thonn.	Euphorbiaceae	0.266
<i>Trema orientalis</i>	Cannabaceae	0.251
<i>Combretum hispidum</i> Laws.	Combretaceae	0.250
<i>Corchoru stridens</i> L.	Malvaceae	0.240
<i>Oplismenus burmannii</i> (Retz.) P. Beauv.	Poaceae	0.212
<i>Solenostemon monostachyus</i> (P. Beauv.) Brig.	Lamiaceae	0.208
<i>Newbouldia laevis</i> (P. Beauv.) Seemann ex Bureau	Bignoniaceae	0.203
<i>Mimosa pudica</i> Linn.	Fabaceae	0.203
<i>Panicum maximum</i> Jacq.	Poaceae	0.196
<i>Cynodon dactylon</i> (Linn.) Pers.	Poaceae	0.186
<i>Brachiaria lata</i> (Schumach) C.E.Hubbard	Poaceae	0.186
<i>Portulaca quadrifida</i> Linn.	Portulacaceae	0.178
<i>Sclerocarpus africanus</i> Jacq. ex Murr	Asteraceae	0.176
<i>Axonopus compressus</i> (Sw) P. Beauv.	Poaceae	0.176
<i>Digitaria horizontalis</i> Willd	Poaceae	0.174
<i>Combretum racemosum</i> P. Beauv.	Combretaceae	0.160
<i>Triumfetta cordifolia</i> A. Rich.	Malvaceae	0.157
<i>Azadirachta indica</i> A. Juss. (Seedling)	Meliaceae	0.151
<i>Wahlenbergi aperrottetii</i>	Campanulaceae	0.139
<i>Amaranthus spinosus</i> Linn.	Amaranthaceae	0.120
<i>Cyperus rotundus</i> Linn.	Cyperaceae	0.120
<i>Pueraria phaseoloides</i> (Roxb.) Benth	Fabaceae	0.116
<i>Ipomoea triloba</i> Linn.	Convolvulaceae	0.110
<i>Pennisetum polystachion</i> (Linn.) Schult.	Poaceae	0.105
<i>Digitaria nuda</i> (Schumach)	Poaceae	0.104
<i>Marriscus fllabeliformis</i> Kunth var.	Cyperaceae	0.103
<i>Luffa cylindrica</i> (Linn.) M.J. Roem.	Cucurbitaceae	0.098
<i>Reissantia indica</i> (Willd.) N. Hallé	Celastraceae	0.089
<i>Pupalia lappacea</i> (Linn.) Juss.	Amaranthaceae	0.084
<i>Parquetina nigrescens</i> Afzel.	Apocynaceae	0.079
<i>Solanium torvum</i> Swartz	Solanaceae	0.074
<i>Lepistemon owariense</i> (P. Beauv.) Hall.	Convolvulaceae	0.072
<i>Emilia praetermissa</i> Milne-Redhead	Asteraceae	0.071
<i>Rottboellia cochinchinensis</i> (Lour.) Clayton	Poaceae	0.069
<i>Leptochloa caerulescens</i> Steud.	Poaceae	0.069
<i>Combretum zenkeri</i> Engl. Diels	combretacea	0.068
<i>Gomphrena celosioides</i> Mart.	Amaranthaceae	0.067
<i>Boerhavia coccinea</i> Mill.	Nyctaginaceae	0.060
<i>Spilanthes costata</i> Benth.	Asteraceae	0.058
<i>Cnestis ferruginea</i> DC	Connaraceae	0.053

Species	Family	RIV
<i>Celosia isertii</i> C.C. Townsend	Amaranthaceae	0.052
<i>Ipomea eriocarpa</i> R. Br.	Convolvulaceae	0.049
<i>Eleusine indica</i> Gaertn.	Poaceae	0.048
<i>Typha orientalis</i> C. Presl	Typaceae	0.044
<i>Paspalum conjugatum</i> Berg.	Poaceae	0.044
<i>Anthonotha macrophylla</i> P. Beauv.	Fabaceae	0.042
<i>Leptochloa filiformis</i> (Lam.) P. Beauv.	Poaceae	0.042
<i>Diodia samentosa</i> Sw.	Rubiaceae	0.041
<i>Ageratum conyzoides</i> Linn.	Asteraceae	0.040
<i>Cleome rutidosperma</i> DC.	Cleomaceae	0.039
<i>Piliostigma thoninngii</i> Milne-Redhead	Fabaceae	0.037
<i>Croton lobatus</i> L.	Euphorbiaceae	0.034
<i>Cochorius olitorius</i> L.	Malvaceae	0.034
<i>Abutilon indicum</i> (Jacq.) Medic.	Malvaceae	0.032
<i>Triathema portulacastrum</i> Linn.	Aizoaceae	0.031
<i>Setaria megaphylla</i> (Steud.) Dur & Schinz	Poaceae	0.031
<i>Scoparia dulcis</i> Linn.	Plantaginaceae	0.028
<i>Anielema beniniense</i> (P. Beauv.) Hunth	Convolvulaceae	0.028
<i>Dactyloctenium aegyptium</i> (Linn.) P. Beauv.	Poaceae	0.027
<i>Senna occidentalis</i> (L.) Link	Fabaceae	0.026
<i>Vernonia amygdalina</i> Delile	Asteraceae	0.026
<i>Cyperus esculentus</i> Linn.	Cyperaceae	0.026
<i>Eragrostis tenella</i> (Linn.) P. Beauv. ex Roem &Schult	Poaceae	0.026
<i>Portulaca oleracea</i> Linn.	Portulacaceae	0.025
<i>Manniophyton fulvum</i> Mull. Arg.	Euphorbiaceae	0.025
<i>Alchornia cordifolia</i> Mull. Arg.	Euphorbiaceae	0.025
<i>Oldelandia corymbosa</i> Linn.	Rubiaceae	0.018
<i>Cleome viscosa</i> L.	Cleomaceae	0.016
<i>Diditaria gayana</i> (Kunth) Stapf. ex A. Chev.	Poaceae	0.014
<i>Icacina trichanta</i> Oliv.	Icacinaceae	0.014
<i>Cenchrus biflorus</i> Roxb.	Poaceae	0.014
<i>Paspalum scrobiculatum</i> Linn.	Poaceae	0.014
<i>Mariscus longibracteatus</i> Cherm.	Cyperaceae	0.014
<i>Ipomoea mauritiana</i> Jacq.	Convolvulaceae	0.012
<i>Vernonia cinerea</i> (Linn.) Less.	Asteraceae	0.012
<i>Daniellia oliveri</i> (Rolfe) Hutch & Dalz.	Fabaceae	0.012
<i>Mallotus oppositifolius</i> (Geisel) Mull. Arg.	Euphorbiaceae	0.012
<i>Physalis micrantha</i> Linn.	Solanaceae	0.012
<i>Acanthospermum hispidum</i> DC	Asteraceae	0.012

Table 2: Woody Floral Composition and Relative Importance Values of the peri-urban area of Moniya, Ibadan in 2019

Species	Family	RIV
<i>Elaeis guineensis</i> Jacq.	Arecaceae	23.157
<i>Newbouldia laevis</i> (P. Beauv.) Seemann ex Bureau.	Bignoniaceae	13.945
<i>Leuceanea leucocephala</i> (Lam.) de Wit.	Fabaceae	10.382
<i>Ficus exasperate</i> Vahl.	Moraceae	9.310
<i>Millettia thonningii</i> (Schumach.) Baker	Fabaceae	5.546
<i>Magnifera indica</i> L.	Anacardiaceae	5.095
<i>Morinda lucida</i> Benth.	Rubiaceae	5.095
<i>Gliricidia sepium</i> (Jacq.) Steud.	Fabaceae	3.544
<i>Gmeliana arborea</i> Roxb.	Lamiaceae	3.534
<i>Tectona grandis</i> L.f.	Lamiaceae	2.433
<i>Cocos nucifera</i> L.	Arecaceae	1.992
<i>Havea brasiliensis</i> Mull. Arg.	Euphorbiaceae	1.992
<i>Anacardium occidentale</i> L.	Anacardiaceae	1.772
<i>Anthocleista djalolensis</i> A. Chev.	Longaniaceae	1.331
<i>Citrus sinensis</i> (L.) Osbeck	Rutaceae	1.552
<i>Spondias mombin</i> L.	Anacardiaceae	1.331
<i>Irvingia gabonensis</i> (Aubry-Lecomte ex O'Rorke) Baill.	Irvingiaceae	2.663
<i>Bridella feruginea</i> Benth.	Euphorbiaceae	1.331
<i>Albizia lebbek</i> (L.) Benth.	Fabaceae	2.663
<i>Ficus polita</i> Vahl.	Moraceae	1.331

Table 3: Species Diversity of Herbaceous and woody flora at Lapite, Moniya, Ibadan

Diversity index	Herbaceous plants	Woody plants
Taxa_S	132	20
Individuals	26757	227
Dominance_D	0.06911	0.2029
Simpson_1-D	0.9309	0.7971
Shannon_H	3.361	2.135
Evenness_e^H/S	0.2182	0.423
Equitability_J	0.6882	0.7128

Vegetation change in the study site as a result of peri-urban agricultural activities

Land-use cover change from 1998-2018 assessed with Arc GIS 10 on USGS Landsat

imageries showed that the vegetation cover of the study site substantially changed over time (Figure 3). In 2018, the vegetation cover reduced to 68.75% from 1998. The non-

vegetated area covered 31.24%, further, slightly more vegetation was however recorded in 2018 where non-vegetated areas, corresponding to built-up areas in 1998 had

increased from 31.24% to 32.65% in 2018. The increase can therefore be largely attributable to increase in the build-up areas.

Table 4: List of invasive species encountered among the flora of Moniya and Environs in June-August, 2019

Species	Family	RIV
<i>Leuceanea leucocephala</i> *	<i>Fabaceae</i>	13.38
<i>Mimosa pudica</i>	<i>Fabaceae</i>	0.06
<i>Chromolaena odorata</i>	<i>Asteracea</i>	0.89
<i>Cyperus rotundus</i>	<i>Cyperaceae</i>	0.12
<i>Alterna theasessilis</i>	<i>Amaranthaceae</i>	2.47

* = woody plant

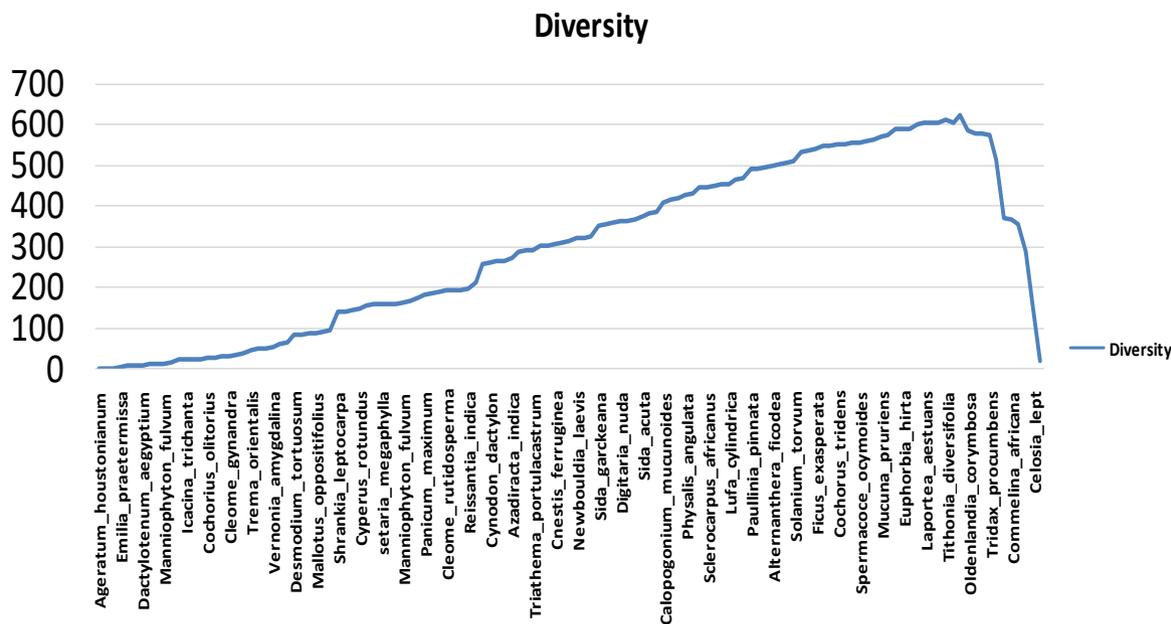


Figure 1: Diversity curve of herbaceous species at Lapite, Moniya, Ibad

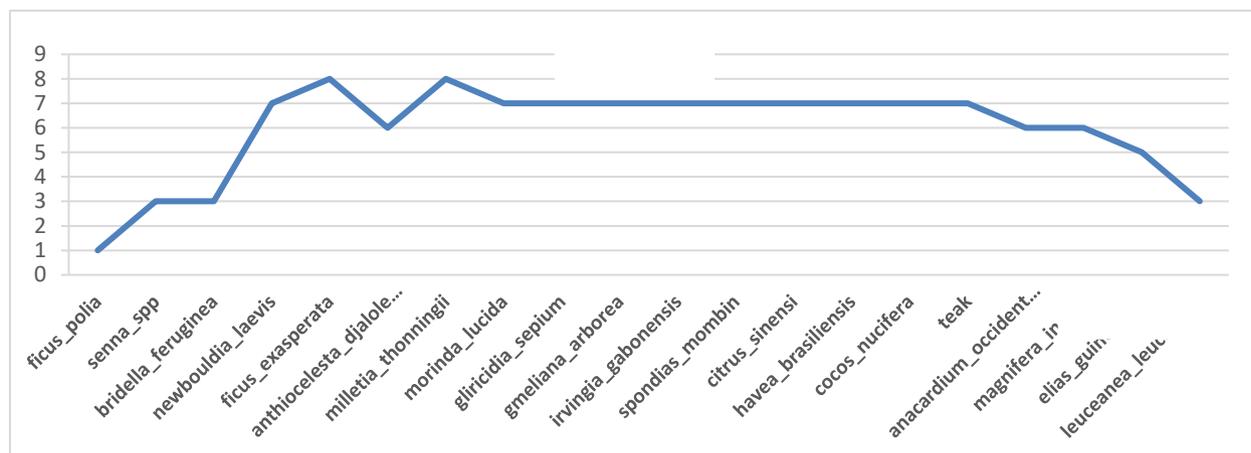


Figure 2: Diversity curve of woody species of Lapite, Moniya, Ibadan

Discussion

The study revealed that vegetation cover of Lapite in Moniya reduced over the years as a result of construction-related activities. A loss of 32.72% of agricultural and forest lands was recorded from 1998 to 2018. The presence of many herbaceous species (ruderals and agrestals) known to associate with disturbed habitats supports FAO (2016) that arable farming contributes to reduction of forest lands in the tropics; and Ibrahim *et al.* (2015) that agricultural activities, anthropogenic activities such as urbanization, pollution, road construction, mineral exploitation, oil-spillage, and industrialization as the major causes of forest depletion globally.

Agricultural practices, as the main source of livelihood of many peri-urban dwellers, reflect in the nature of vegetation of peri-urban communities, as they interface with urban areas. The agrarian nature of Lapite community in Moniya contributed mainly to state of its vegetation. The loss of its vegetation/forest

cover was suspectedly enhanced by its proximity to Ibadan city, an urban settlement. Demand for cropland, fuelwood and pasture are among main drivers of ecosystem change. In agreement with the reports of Gibbs *et al.* (2010) and Adu *et al.* (2012), the low populations of tree species in study area could have been occasioned by felling to make room for agriculture expansion, while the gaps created were being compensated for by the high populations and diversity of agresters. It also could have contributed to the presence of invasive species in the site. This was so as Duke (2002) highlighted that the ecosystem is a structural system, such that alteration or perturbation of one of the structures creates a vacuum for the incursion of invasion into the ecosystem.

The slight gain in vegetation cover over a 10-year period was an indication that the ecosystem is prone to slow recovery, and efforts should be made to encourage tree

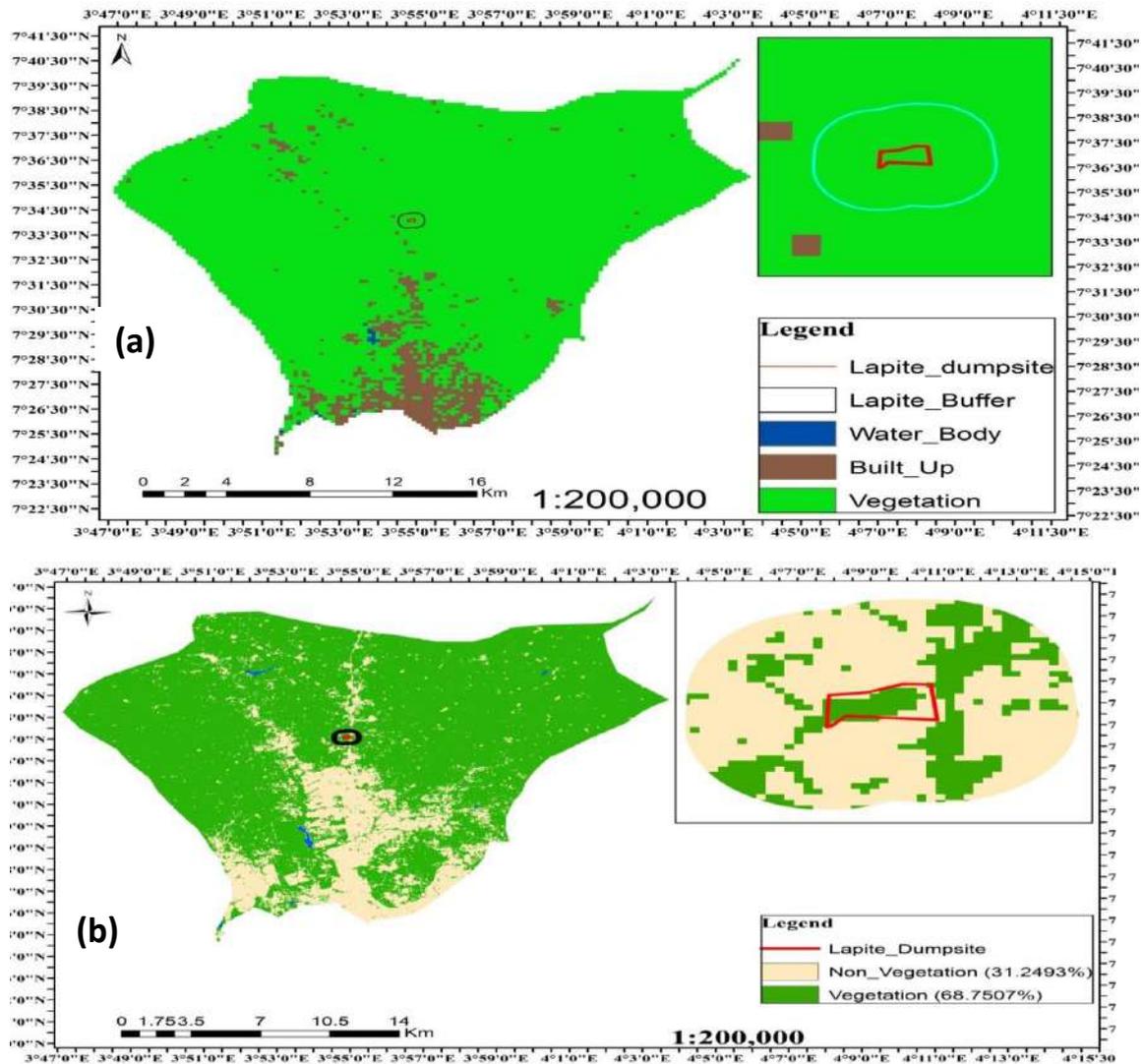


Figure 3: Land-use type and land-use cover of Lapite and Moniya in 1998 (a) and 2018 (b).

conservation practices, especially because of other benefits such as climate change mitigation, watershed protection and soil conservation. Peri-urban agricultural farmers

should practice integrated farming methods as they help to conserve natural resources. Furthermore, integrated land-use planning that

provides an essential strategic framework for balancing land uses should be encouraged.

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