Relative Abundance and Local Uses of Wild Trees Species in Ukohol Community, Guma Local Government Area of Benue State, Nigeria

¹Adagba, M. N., Shomkegh, S.A² and Ikyaagba, E. T²

¹Department of Forest Production and Products, College of Forestry and Fisheries, University of Agriculture, Makurdi, Nigeria

²Department of Social and Environmental Forestry, College of Forestry and Fisheries, University of Agriculture, Makurdi, Nigeria

Abstract: The study sought to estimate the relative abundance and uses of wild tree species in Ukohol community. Six transects were laid at a range of 500m within a 5km baseline through fallowlands in the community. On each transect, 4 plots of 50m x 50m were marked and the total number of each species in the plots was counted and recorded. A semi-structured questionnaire was also administered to 40 respondents in four out of six villages in the study area to obtain information on uses of the tree species. A total of 38 plant species from 17 families were recorded. The Dbh classes in the study area ranged between less than 20cm to below 80cm. The tree species in the community were used for food, medicines, crafts, local construction materials, fuelwood and charcoal making. Plants with multiple uses such as Prosopis africana with a CI of 5.5, Vitellaria paradoxa (4.2) and Burkea africana (3.9) were rated high by respondents. Tree species in the area were less diverse but useful to the people. It is recommended that planting of these species be prioritized to ensure their sustainability in the community.

Keywords: Wild trees, relative abundance, local knowledge, importance value index, Ukohol community

I. Introduction

Traditional ecological knowledge refers to people's knowledge, practices and beliefs about the relationships between organisms and their biophysical environment (Berkes, 2008). Traditional knowledge is a cumulative body of knowledge, know-how, practices and representations maintained and developed by people with extended histories of interaction with the natural environment (Lepage et al., 2007). The association between knowledge of plants and the uses of these plants depends on the ecosystem from which the plants were derived; people used plants they knew about from the forest (Ladio and Lozada, 2004). Accumulated knowledge and traditional practices of indigenous communities are a powerful resource that can greatly facilitate the task of identifying useful new varieties of domestic plants or animals, isolating novel biological components, or developing innovative technologies and techniques (Munn, 2002). The existence of plants species in any habitat is crucial to man and other components of the ecosystem as all plants are valuable for one purpose or the other (Olapade and Bakare, 1992) but anthropogenic activities can influence plants by modifying their environment, especially their resource base -the soil (Buba, 2015). In addition, the distribution, abundance and structure of plant species are shaped by biotic and abiotic factors such as rainfall, temperature, topography, soil, luminosity and human activities (Wala et al., 2012, Mendoza-González et al., 2012). Fraterrigo et al., (2006) and Latzal, (2008) affirmed that the performance and success of plants depends partly on the soil composition and characteristics, with frequent anthropogenic disturbances playing a major role in shaping and determining plant community composition and distribution. According to Buba (2015), human disturbances arising from different types of land use can directly affect plants by damaging the plant's conducting tissues and leaves, which may result in growth retardation or death of the plant. Tillage also affects plant community composition and diversity and this reflects in the relaxation of competition due to the elimination of dominant species, which takes time to reestablish (Daniellie et al., 2008, Dinnage, 2009). Another attribute of human disturbances is heavy grazing which alters species abundance and their functional composition in an area (Kukshal et al., 2009, Hanke et al., 2014). Tree harvesting arising mainly from unsustainable farming practices, timber, craft making, charcoal production, fuelwood and grazing/trampling have deepened in Ukohol community. Preferred tree species are frequently sought for these purposes even beyond the community but baseline information on their uses and relative abundance in the area is lacking. This study therefore sought to estimate the relative abundance and document the uses categories of tree species harvested in the area in order to provide information on the status and uses of wild tree plants in the area.

2.1 Study area

II. Materials And Methods

The Ukohol community is located in Guma Local Government Area (LGA), Benue North in North-Central Nigeria. The area is characterized by two distinct seasons, the wet and dry season respectively. The wet season commences from April –November while the dry season begins from November to March. The major tribe in the area is the Tiv people, who are predominantly farmers. The vegetation is the open savanna woodland characterized by scattered trees within vast grasslands.

2.2 Data Collection

Tree species composition, distribution and diameter at breast height was estimated through a field survey to obtain the status of each tree species utilized in the community while semi-structured interviews with heads of selected households in the community provided information on the use categories of tree species in the study area

2.2.1 Tree composition, distribution and estimation of diameter at breast height

Six (6) transects were laid at a range of 500m within a 5km base line through the fallowlands in the community between February and March, 2016. On each transect, 4 plots of 50m x 50m each were marked and the total number of each tree species in each of the plots was counted and recorded (Brerly *et al.*, 2004). The Dbh of each species was measured and Dbh classes assigned to each of the trees encountered according to Turyahabwe and Tweheyo (2010). Trees recorded were identified through their local names with the aid of Agishi (2010) and botanical information obtained from Arbonnier (2004), Keay (1989) and support from virtual plant identification platforms especially Angiosperm Phylogeny Group (APG III).

2.2.1.1 Species Diversity

Species diversity refers to the number of species and their relative abundance in a defined area (Sanderson *et al.*, 2004). This was determined using relative frequency; relative density and Importance Value Index, estimated according to Maingi and Marsh, 2006 and Adams *et al.*, 2007).

Relative Frequency (RF)

This gave an indication of the degree of dispersion of individual tree species in relation to all other tree species present in the area, calculated as follows;

Relative Density (RF) = <u>Frequency of individual species x 100</u> Total frequency of all species

Relative Density (RD)

The relative density provided information on the distribution of tree plants in the area and is expressed as; Relative Density (RD) = Number of individual species x 100

Total number of species

2.2.1.2 The Importance Value Index (IVI)

The Importance Value Index (IVI) of each tree species was estimated by obtaining the sum of relative frequency and relative density of the tree species. It gave an indication of which tree species was dominant over the other. The Importance Value Index (IVI) = RF + RD.

2.2.2 Semi-Structured Interviews

A semi-structured questionnaire was administered to 40 respondents in four out of six villages in Ukohol community to obtain information on use categories of tree species in the area. The list of plants and their uses was compiled and documented. The number of citations (CI) for each plant was estimated as provided below;

The number of citations (CI) = $\underline{\text{Total number of citations of an individual plant}}$

Total number of respondents

III. Results and Discussion

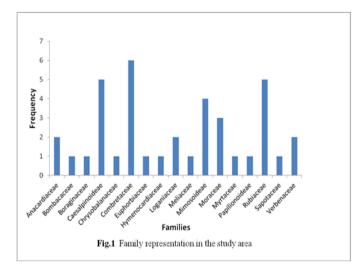
3.1 Floristic Composition and Distribution of tree species in Ukohol community.

A total of 38 plant species from 17 families were recorded (Table 1) with combretaceae having the highest number of species (6), followed by Rubiaceae and Caesalpinioidaeae with 5 species each (Fig.1). Nine (9) families had 1 species each, mainly from species with multiple uses or high rating for craft making, timber and charcoal production. Species such as *Daniellia oliveri*, *Parkia biglobosa*, *Ficus sur* and *Mitrygyna inermis* were more diverse with relative frequency of 5.95 each and among the most abundant species with a relative density of 8.24, 8.79, 8.24 and 6.59 respectfully. *Parkia biglobosa* had the highest IVI of 14.74 due to its

multiple uses such as fish poisoning, condiment/food additive, local construction, medicine and shelter (Shomkegh *et al.*, 2016). This was followed by *Sarcpocephalus latifolia* with an IVI of 13.55, *Khaya senegalensis* (10.26), *Combretum nigricans* (9.16) and *Bridelia ferruginea* (7.97). Twelve species had the least IVI of 1.74 among preferred species in the community due mainly to their lower numerical strength as all the species had very low relative densities (0.55) compared with the other tree species in the community.

S/No	Botanical name	Family	Local name	Relative	Relative	Importance Value Index	
			(Tiv)	frequency	Density		
			<u> </u>	(RF)	(RD)	(IVI)	
1	Acacia nilotica	Mimosoideae	Saa anula	1.190476	0.549451	1.739927	
2	Afzelia africana	Caesalpinoideae	Yiase	1.190476	0.549451	1.739927	
3	Ancardium occidentale	Anacardiaceae	Ishase	2.380952	2.197802	4.578755	
4	Anogeissus leiocarpa	Combretaceae	Maaki	1.190476	0.549451	1.739927	
5	Anthocleista djelonensis	Loganiaceae	Kookoso	1.190476	0.549451	1.739927	
6	Borassus aethiopum	Boraginaceae	Akuugh	1.190476	1.098901	2.289377	
7	Bombax costatum	Bombacaceae	Genger	1.190476	0.549451	1.739927	
8	Bridelia ferrugiena	Euphorbiaceae	Ikpine	3.571429	4.395604	7.967033	
9	Combretum molle	Combretaceae	Azulugh	2.380952	1.648352	4.029304	
10	Combretum nigricans	Combretaceae	Alo	4.761905	4.395604	9.157509	
11	Crossopteryx febrifuga	Rubiaceae	Iikwar	2.380952	2.747253	5.128205	
12	Daniella oliveri	Caesalpinoideae	Chiha	5.952381	8.241758	14.19414	
13	Detarium microcarpum	Caesalpinoideae	Lienegh	2.380952	3.296703	5.677656	
14	Entada africana	Mimosoideae	Liemen	2.380952	1.648352	4.029304	
15	Ficus sur	Moraceae	Tur	5.952381	8.241758	14.19414	
16	Ficus sycomorus	Moraceae	Hirkar	3.571429	2.747253	6.318681	
17	Gardenia aqualla	Rubiaceae	Ishondugh	1.190476	0.549451	1.739927	
18	Gardenia erubescens	Rubiaceae	Ibohogh	1.190476	0.549451	1.739927	
19	Gmelina arborea	Verbenaceae	Malina	2.380952	2.197802	4.578755	
20	Hymenocardia acida	Hymenocardiaceae	likwar tor	1.190476	0.549451	1.739927	
21	Khaya senegalensis	Meliaceae	Haa	4.761905	5.494505	10.25641	
22	Lannea schimperiana	Anacardiaceae	Ipungwa	3.571429	2.747253	6.318681	
23	Mitrygyna inermis	Rubiaceae	Sohonor	5.952381	6.593407	12.54579	
24	Morinda lucida	Moraceae	Ikpine-puupuu	3.571429	2.197802	5.769231	
25	Parkia biglobosa	Mimosoideae	Nune	5.952381	8.791209	14.74359	
26	Parinari curatellifolia	Chrysobalanaceae	Ibua-kyuna	1.190476	1.098901	2.289377	
27	Pericopsis laxiflora	Caesalpinoideae	Giragba	1.190476	0.549451	1.739927	
28	Piliostigma thonningii	Caesalpinoideae	Nyihar	1.190476	1.098901	2.289377	
29	Prosopis africana	Mimosoideae	Gbaaye	3.571429	2.197802	5.769231	
30	Pterocarpus erinaceus	Papilionoideae	Ngaji	1.190476	1.098901	2.289377	
31	Sarcocephalus latifolia	Rubiaceae	Ikura-ukase	4.761905	8.791209	13.55311	
32	Strychnos spinosa	Loganiaceae	Maku	2.380952	2.197802	4.578755	
33	Syzygium guinenses	Myrtaceae	Daanyam	1.190476	0.549451	1.739927	
34	Terminalia avicenniodes	Combretaceae	Kwegh	3.571429	3.296703	6.868132	
35	Terminalia schimperiana	Combretaceae	Ukwegh	1.190476	0.549451	1.739927	
36	Terminalia catarpa	Combretaceae	Hii-pine	1.190476	0.549451	1.739927	
37	Vitallaria paradoxa	Sapotaceae	Chamegh	2.380952	2.747253	5.128205	
37	Vitandria paradoxa Vitex donniana	Verbenaceae	Hulugh	2.380932	2.197802	4.578755	
30	ν μελ αθηπιαπά	verbenaceae	ruiugii	2.300932	2.19/002	4.570735	

Table 1: Tree species encountered and the Importance Value Index in Ukohol community



3.2 Diameter at Breast Height (Dbh) classes of tree species in the study area

The Dbh classes in the study area ranged between less than 20cm to below 80cm. This gives an indication of absence of large trees species in the area. Dbh class 41-60cm had the highest number of tree species (25) but with only 40 individual plants, lower than Dbh range 41-60cm which had the highest number of individual plants (76) from 25 species as shown in Fig.2. Dbh of less than 20cm had 15 species with 26 individual plants. The oldest classes of trees were fewer, having 11 species with a total of 18 individuals compared with all other classes. This could be linked to the high rate of deforestation arising from destructive harvesting of merchantable trees for craft making, timber, charcoal production and fuelwood. Using Turkey's pairwise comparison, DBH class 21-40cm was found to be significantly different with Dbh class less than 20cm; similarly, Dbh class 61-80cm and 81cm beyond were significantly different from other classes(Table 2). This implies that the observed differences in most of the Dbh classes were not significantly different as only the few highlighted above were different. Seventy-five percent (75%) of trees species in the area were moderately harvested while 25% believed to be most preferred species were heavily harvested (Table 3). All the respondents agreed that there has been a decline in tree population in the area in the last 10 years. The major reasons for the decline were unsustainable farming practices (62.5%) and craft making (20%) which was observed to be a lucrative business for energetic young men who were seen operating the venture in several mini camps along the Makurdi-Lafia expressway. Timber harvesting accounted for 10% due lack of merchantable timber species in the area. Charcoal production was said to be practiced in the past but was no longer operational due to scarcity of *Prosopis africana*, the most preferred species because of its high heating value. Mortar carvers who noted that they go outside the Local Government Area to purchase the tree and transport it back for their business. Majority of respondents (87.5%) in the area admitted that they do not plant these trees species, which poses a bleak future for tree utilization in the area.

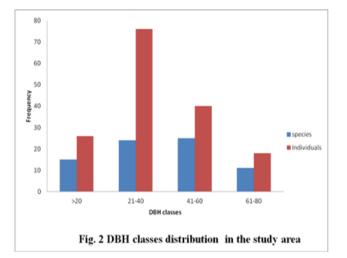


Table 2: Tukey's pairwise comparison of species distribution in the study area

DBH classes(cm)	<20	21-40	41 - 60	61 - 80	81 & above
<20		0.002172**	0.841 ^{ns}	0.9767 ^{ns}	0.9276 ^{ns}
21-40			0.06141 ^{ns}	0.2009**	8.333E-05**
41-60				0.4842 ^{ns}	0.3496 ^{ns}
61-80					0.9995 ^{ns}
80 & above					

Note ** significant at 5% ns= not significant at 5%

Table 3: Reasons for tree species decli	ine in the study area
---	-----------------------

Variable	Parameters	Frequency	Percentage frequency (%)	
Harvesting intensity of trees	Heavily	10	25	
* *	Moderate	30	75	
	Light	0	0	
	Do not know	0	0	
Are there tree species which were available in last 10 years rare or absent now?	Yes	40	100	
•	No	0	0	
Reasons for tree species decline	Farming	25	62.5	
	Charcoal production	0	0	
	Fire	0	0	
	Fuelwood collection	3	7.5	

DOI: 10.9790/2402-1008021824

	Timber	4	10
	Craft making	8	20
Do you plant some of the tree species in your area?	Yes	5	12.5
	No	35	87.5

3.3 Local uses of tree species in the study area

3.3.1 Demographic information of study respondents

Forty (40) heads of households in the four villages made up of 65% men and 35% women mainly within the ages of 21-40 years were interviewed in the study area (Table 4). Elderly people were between the ages of 41-60 years constituting 10% of the surveyed population. The respondents were all married with their primary vocation as farming. On their educational status, most of them had primary school education (47.5%), while secondary and tertiary education had 5% each. Tree species in the area were used as food, medicines, crafts, local construction materials, fuelwood and charcoal making (Table 5). Tree plants with multiple uses such as *Prosopis africana*, *Vitellaria paradoxa* and *Burkea africana* had a CI of 5.5, 4.2 and 3.9 respectively and were rated high by respondents. Fourteen (14) tree species were the least cited with a CI of less than 2. Plants parts such as leaves, seeds, fruits, root and trunk were used for each of the use categories (Fig. 3). Plant parts utilized for food were the leaves, seed and fruits depending on the tree species. Plants with medicinal values utilized roots, seeds, leaves and trunk (bark) of different tree species depending on the ailment treated. Craft making, local construction, fuelwood and charcoal production used mainly the trunk of tree species in the area.

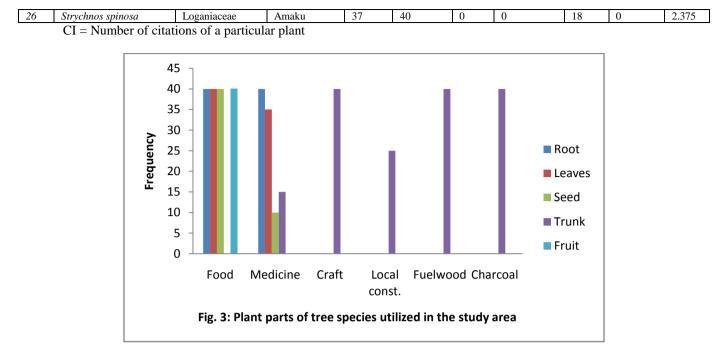
Variable	Demographic	Frequency	Percentage frequency (%)		
	1	1 2			
Sex	Male	26	65		
	Female	14	35		
Age	< 20	0	0		
	21-40	36	90 10 0		
	41-60	4			
	61-80	0			
	81 above	0	0		
Occupation	Farming	40	100		
Marital status	Married	40	100		
Educational status	Non formal	17	42		
	Primary	19	47.5		
	Secondary	2	5		
	Tertiary	2	5		
	Total	40	100		

 Table 4: Demographic data of study respondents

Table 5:	Uses of	tree species	in Ukohol	community

S/n	Scientific name	Family	Local name	Food	Medicine	Crafts	Local	fuel	charcoal	CI
							Construction	wood		
1	Prosopis africana	Mimosoideae	Gbaaye	40	21	40	40	40	40	5.525
2	Parkia biglobosa	Mimosoideae	Nune	40	21	0	0	32	0	2.325
3	Ficus sur	Moraceae	Tur	40	31	0	0	20	0	2.275
4	Vitex doniana	Verbenaceae	Hulugh	40	35	0	0	0	0	1.875
5	Saba florida	Apocynaceae	Ipungwa	40	11	0	25	0	0	1.900
6	Mangifera indica	Anacardiaceae	Mango	40	4	0	0	21	0	1.625
7	Burkia africana	Caesalpinoideae	Gbagbongom	0	40	21	31	38	27	3.925
8	Annona sengalensis	Annonaceae	Ahur	13	40	0	0	1	0	1.350
9	Piliostigma thonningii	Caesalpinoideae	Nyihar	0	40	0	0	31	0	1.775
10	Maytenus sengalensis	Celatraceae	Alom	0	40	0	0	20	0	1.500
11	Grewia mollis	Tiliaceae	Hwerbar	0	40	0	0	0	0	1.000
12	Gardenia aqualla	Rubiacea	Shondugh	0	40	0	0	0	0	1.000
13	Daniellia oliveri	Caesalpinoideae	Chiha	0	40	0	40	14	0	2.350
14	Pterocarpus erinaceus	Papilionoideae	Ngaji	0	40	40	40	23	12	3.875
15	Detarium macrocarpum	Caesalpinoideae	Agashi	2	40	40	0	28	17	3.175
16	Afzelia africana	Caesalpinoideae	Yiase	0	40	40	40	32	0	3.800
17	Vitellaria paradoxa	Sapotacaea	Chamegh	35	40	40	16	26	11	4.200
18	Pseudocedra kotschyi	Euporbiaceae	Kpamegh	0	0	40	0	0	0	1.000
19	Khaya sengalensis	Meliaceae	Haa	0	31	21	40	30	0	3.050
20	Anogeisus leiocarpa	Combretaceae	Maaki	0	21	7	40	29	26	3.075
21	Mitragyna inermis	Rubiacea	Sohonor	0	40	0	0	0	0	1.000
22	Crossopteryx febrifuga	Rubiaceae	Irkwar	0	40	0	0	31	0	1.775
23	Sarcocephalus latifolia	Rubiaceae	Ikyura	0	40	0	0	13	0	1.325
24	Allophyllus africanus	Sapindaceae	Apaapa	0	31	0	0	21	0	1.300
25	Azadirachta indica	Meliacea	Dogonyaro	0	40	0	21	0	0	1.525

DOI: 10.9790/2402-1008021824



IV. Conclusion

A total of 38 plant species from 17 families were recorded with combretaceae having the highest number of species. Plants with multiple uses had high importance value index with the highest number of citations. *Daniellia oliveri, Parkia biglobosa, Ficus sur* and *Mitrygyna inermis* were more diverse with relative frequencies of 5.95 each and among the most abundant species with relative densities of 8.24, 8.79, 8.24 and 6.59 respectfully. Plants in the area were utilized for food, medicinal purposes, crafts making, local construction and fuelwood with most uses leading to the cutting of the trees. Majority of respondents agreed that they do not plant these tree species, a situation which presents a bleak future for utilization of the tree species for different purposes in the study area. It is therefore recommended that planting of tree species especially those preferred by community members be encouraged among members of the community and other stakeholders to reduce the current rate of loss of the species and provide for future demand. Creation of awareness on the impacts of deforestation and the need to conserve wild tree resources may reduce the current rate of exploitation of preferred tree species in the community.

References

- [1]. Adams, J.H., Mahmud, A.M and Muslim, N.E (2007). Cluster analysis on floristic and forest structure of hilly lowland forest in Lak Kawi, Sabah of Malaysia. Int. J. Bot.4:351-358
- [2]. Agishi, E.C. Tiv, Idoma, Etulo, Igede, Akwaya, Hausa, English and Scientific names of plants, 2nd Edition, Agitab publishers Ltd Makurdi.2010.
- [3]. Arbonnier, M (2004). Trees, shrubs and lianas of West African dry zones, 2nd Edition.CIRAD,MARGRAF PUBLISHERS GMBH MNHN,Germany.
- [4]. Atakpama. W, F. Foléga, M. Dourma, Y. A. Woégan, B. Diwediga, K. Wala, K. Batawila and Akpagana, K (2014). Woody Species Diversity, Structure and Distribution of *Sterculia setigera* Del. in Togo, West Africa. Annual Research & Review in Biology,4(24): 4511-4528
- [5]. Balemie, K and Kebebew, F(2006). Ethnobotanical study of wild edible plants in Derashe and Kucha Districts, South Ethiopia. Journal of Ethnobiology and Ethnomedicine.
- [6]. Berkes, F. (2008). Sacred ecology (2 ed.). New York and London: Routledge.
- [7]. Bond and Midglay (2001).
- [8]. Brearly, F. Q, Prajadinata, S., Kidd, P.S., Procto, J and Suriantata, J (2004). Structure and floristics of an old secondary rainforest in Central Kalimantan, Indonesia: a comparison with adjacent primary forests. Forest ecology and management 195: 385-397.
- [9]. Buba, T. (2015). Impact of different types of land use on pattern of herbaceous plant community in the Nigerian Northern guinea savanna. Journal of Agriculture and Ecology Research International 4(4): 151-165
- [10]. Bussmann RW, Gilbreath GG (2006), Solio J, Lutura M, Lutuluo R, Kunguru K, Wood N, Mathenge SG: Plant use of the Maasai of Sekenani Valley, Maasai Mara, Kenya. *Journal of Ethnobiology and Ethnomedicine*. 22.
- [11]. Campbell BM(1987). The use of wild fruits in Zimbabwe. Economic Botany. 41:375-385.
- [12]. Carney, J.R., Krenishky, J.M., Williamson, R.T., Luo, J., Carlson, T.J., Hsu, V.L. and Moswa, J.L. (1999). Maprouneacin, a new daphnane diterpenoid with potent antihyperglycemic activity from *Maprounea africana*. Journal of Natural products 62: 345-347
- [13]. Chidumayo, E, D. Okali, G. Kowero and Larwanou, M (2001). Climate change and African forest and wildlife resources. African Forest Forum, Nairobi, KENYA
- [14]. Chin YW (2006). Balunas MJ, Chai HB, Kinghorn AD. Drug discovery from natural sources. AAPS J. 8:239–53.
- [15]. Cragg G.M and Newman D.J(2013). Natural products: a continuing source of novel drug leads. Biochim Biophys Acta. 1830(6):3670-95.

- [16]. Fowler M.W (2006). Plants, medicines and man. J. Sci. Food Agric. 2; 86:1797-1804.
- [17]. Fraterrigo JM, Turner MG, Pearson SM (2006). Previous land use alters plant allocation and growth in forest herbs. Journal of Ecology. 94(3):548–557. DOI: 10.1111/j.1365-2745.2006.01081.x
- [18]. Friedman J, Bolotin D, Rios M, Mendosa P, Cohen Y, Balick M.J (1993). A novel method for identification and domestication of indigenous useful plants in Amazonian Ecuador. In New Crops. Edited by: Janick J, Simon JE. Wiley, New York; 167-174
- [19]. Grivetti LE, Ogle BM(2000). Value of traditional foods in meeting macro-and micronutrient needs: the wild plant connection. *Nutrition Research Reviews*. 13:31-46.
- [20]. Hanke, W, Böhner J, Dreber N, Jürgens N, Schmiedel U, Wesuls D, Dengler, J(2014). The impact of livestock grazing on plant diversity: An analysis across dryland ecosystems and scales in southern Africa. Ecological Applications; 24:1188–1203.
- [21]. Hooper, D.U, Chapin, F.S, Ewel, J.J. Hector, A,Ichausti, P, Lavorel, S, Lawton, J.H, Lodge, D. M, Loreau, M, Naeem, S, Schmid, B, Setala, H, Symstad, A. J,Vandermeer, J and Wardle, D.A (2005). Effects of biodiversity on ecosystem functioning: A consensus of current knowledge, Ecological monographs75(1):3-35
- [22]. Hui, G, Yu, B. G, Xing, D.H (2014). Impacts of grazing and mowing on reproductive behaviors of Stipa grandis and Stipa krylovii in a semiarid area. Journal of Arid Land. 6(1):97–104. DOI: 10.1007/s40333-013-0196-5
- [23]. Iwara, A.I, Offiong, R.A, Njar, G.N and Ogundele, F.O (2012). The effects of land use change on the structure and floristic patterns of vegetation in Ugep, Nigeria. Journal of Environmental studies 2(1):101-113.
- [24]. Keay, R. W. J.(1989). Trees of Nigeria. Clarendon Press, Oxford Walnut Street, Oxford OX2.
- [25]. KIT(2003). Cultivating a Healthy Enterprise. In *Bulletin 350* Royal Tropical Institute, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.
- [26]. Kukshal S, Nautiyal BP, Anthwal A, Sharma, A Bhatt A.B (2009). Phytosociological investigation and life form pattern of grazing lands under pine canopy in temperate zone, Northwest Himalaya, India. Research Journal of Botany. 4(2):55-69. DOI: 10.3923/rjb.2009.55.69
- [27]. Latzel V. (2008). Plant traits and regeneration of urban plant communities after disturbance: does the bud bank play any role? Applied Vegetation Science. 11(3):387–394. DOI: 10.3170/2008-7-18487
- [28]. Ladio, A. H., & M. Lozada (2004). Patterns of use and knowledge of wild edible plants in distinct ecological environments: a case study of a Mapuche community from northwestern Patagonia, *Biodiversity Conservation* 13, pp. 1153-1173.
- [29]. Lepage,L.,Berestovoy, P.,Fluet, M.J.and Rochette, A. (2007). Working Group III-Human vulnerability and adaptation to climate variability in the sahel: communities, institutions and local dynamics. *In* Report on Canadian Contrbutions to the CIDA-CILSS Project(#A030978-002). 154pp
- [30]. Maigi, J.K and Marsh, S. E.(2006). Composition, structure and regeneration patterns in a gallery forest along the Tana river near Bura, Kenya.Forest Ecology Management 236:211-228
- [31]. Martin, C.J (1999). E thnobotany: Plants and people conservation manual. London. Pp 1-67.
- [32]. Medley KE, Kalibo HW(2007). Ethnobotanical survey of 'wild' woody plant resources at mount kasigau, Kenya. Journal of East African Natural History, 96(2):149-186
- [33]. Mendoza-González G, Martínez ML, Rojas-Soto OR, Vázquez G, Gallego-Fernández J.B (2013). Ecological niche modeling of coastal dune plants and future potential distribution in response to climate change and sea level rise. *In*: Atakpama et al., 2014
- [34]. Munn,T. (2002). Indigenous Knowledge, Peoples and Sustainable Practice, Encyclopedia of Global Environmental Change, Vol. 5. John Wiley & Sons, Ltd, Chichester.
- [35]. Olapade, O.E and Bakare, O. A (1992). Medicinal plants in Ibadan under threats of erosion; Our forest, Environment and Heritage; Challenges for our people. Akinsanmi, S A.(ed). Proceedings of 22nd Annual conference of Forestry Association of Nigeria. 55-58pp
- [36]. Oriola, E.O (2009). Forestry for Sustainable Development in Nigeria. International Journal of African Studies. Issue 1, pp.11-16
- [37]. Pei, S.J., (2001). Ethnobotanical approaches of traditional medicine studies: some experiences from Asia. *Pharmaceutical Biology* 39: 74-79. Priutte et al., (2004).
- [38]. Randimbivololona F(1996). Research, valorization and exploitation of biological resources for medicinal purposes in the Malagasy Republic (Madagascar). J Ethnopharmacol. 51:195-200.
- [39]. Rim-Rukeh, A, G. Irerhievwie and I. E. Agbozu (2013).Traditional beliefs and conservation of natural resources: Evidences from selected communities in Delta State, Nigeria. International Journal of Biodiversity and Conservation. Vol 5(7):426-432
- [40]. Saberwal, V, M Rangarajan and A Kothari (2001). People, Parks and Wildlife, Towards Coexistence (London: Sangam Books).
- [41]. Shomkegh, S. A., Mbakwe, R and Udeagha A. U (2016). Uses and Relative Abundance of Non-timber Forest Plants in Farmlands of Selected Tiv Communities in Benue State, Nigeria. Journal of Agriculture and Ecology Research International. *In press*
- [42]. Sanderson, M.A, Skinner, R.H, Barker, D.J, Edwards, G.R, Tracy, B.F and Wedin, D.A (2004). Plant species diversity management of temperate forage and grazing land ecosystems. http://www.crop.scijournals.org/cgi/content/abstract/44/41132?
- [43]. Shiva M.P (1996). Inventory of Forestry Resources for Sustainable Management and Biodiversity Conservation. New Delhi: Indus Publishing Company.
- [44]. Signorini, M. A, Piredda, M. and Bruschi, P. (2009). Plants and traditional knowledge: An ethnobotanical investigation on Monte Ortobene. Journal of Ethnobiology and Ethnomedicine, Vol 5.
- [45]. Turyahabwe, N and Tweheyo, M (2010). Does forest tenure influence forest vegetation characteristics? A comparative analysis of private, local and central government forest reserves in Central Uganda. The International Forestry Review 4:320-338.
- [46]. Usher PJ (2000). Traditional ecological knowledge in environmental assessment and management. Arctic, 53(2):183-193.
- [47]. Verburg, P.H, Schot, P., M, Dijst and A. Veldkamp (2004). Land use change modeling: Current practice and research priorities. Goe Journal 61:309-324.
- [48]. Wala K, Woegan AY, Borozi W, Dourma M, Atato A, Batawila K, (2012). Assessment of vegetation structure and human impacts in the protected area of Alédjo (Togo). African J. Ecol.; 50:355-366.
- [49]. Wangchuk, P(2004). Bioactive alkaloids from medicinal plants of Bhutan. M.Sc. thesis. Australia: Department of Chemistry, University of Wollongong.
- [50]. Zent, S. (1999). The quandary of conserving ethnoecological knowledge. A Piaroa example. In: Ethnoecology. The University of Georgia.