

Journal of Agriculture and Ecology Research International

21(10): 25-37, 2020; Article no.JAERI.63899 ISSN: 2394-1073

Floristic Response of Herbaceous Flora to Intensive Cropping Systems: A Case of Ajibode-sasa Arable Agroecosystem, Ibadan, Southwest Nigeria

Olayanju, Folasayo Micheal¹ and Olubode, Oluseun Sunday1*

1 Department of Crop Protection and Environmental Biology, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria.

Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration between both authors. Author OOS conceptualized the study. Authors OOS and OFM designed the study, performed the statistical analysis, managed literature searches, and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. Author OOS managed the revisions of manuscript. Both authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Article Information

DOI: 10.9734/JAERI/2020/v21i1030171 *Editor(s):* (1) Dr. Nhamo Nhamo, Marondera University of Agricultural Sciences and Technology, Zimbabwe. (2) Dr. Chandra Shekhar Kapoor, Mohan Lal Sukhadia University, India. *Reviewers:* (1) Lim Hwee San, Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM), Malaysia. (2) Andri Wibowo, University of Indonesia, Indonesia. (3) Hari Om, Bihar Agricultural University, India. Complete Peer review History: http://www.sdiarticle4.com/review-history/63899

Original Research Article

Received 11 October 2020 Accepted 19 December 2020 Published 31 December 2020

ABSTRACT

Agriculture a most significant land use types which alter natural ecosystem dynamics. Arable farming exerts much pressure on plant biodiversity, especially when practiced intensively in urban centers. There is dearth of information on floristic changes due to intensive arable farming in urban agroecosystems in developing countries. The study therefore assessed floristic changes resulting from and intensive farming practices at Ajibode-Sasa agricultural landscape. Ajibode-Sasa agroecosystem is a complex mix of arable cropping system between latitude N07°28′, E003°53′ and longitude N07°28′, E003°54. Comparative floristic surveys were conducted in 2016 and 2020 using quadrats (1 m²) systematically laid on 18 Transects ranging from 50 - 250 m long. A total of 224 and 184 quadrats were laid in 2016 and 2020 respectively. Reduction in numbers of quadrats laid resulted from physical anthropogenic development after the 2016 survey. Species identification followed standard procedures, and quantitative occurrence data were collected for determination of species composition and computation of relative importance values (RIV) and diversity indices.

Land-use changes over four years period was determined using Google earth and QGIS. Herbacous plant composition with 123 cumulative number of species in both years reduced from 98 species in 2016 to 85 species in 2020 species RIV of species ranged from 0.038 – 14.803. *Tridax procumbens* had the highest RIV (14.803) in 2016, while it was *Acmella brachyglossa* (13.248) 2020. Species richness and floral diversity was high with Shannon-Weiner Index (3.081 and 3.088) and Dominance (0.09388 and 0.08746) in 2016 and 2020 respectively. Intensive cultivation favoured introduction and spread of invasive species like *Tridax procumbens* and *Tithonia diversifolia.* Eight introduced and invasive species were newly enumerated in 2020, with a total of 38 herbaceous species no longer encountered in 2020. Concerted efforts should be made to conserve native flora on the agroecosystem through sustainable practices like crop rotation and short fallow.

Keywords: Ecosystem dynamics; arable farming; landscape fragmentation; invasive species; sustainable agriculture.

1. INTRODUCTION

Man has dramatically transformed much of the earth's natural ecosystems through various activities [1] and agriculture remains one of the major contributing factors [2]. Of the 13.2 billion hectares global land area, 1.6 billion hectares that represent 12 per cent is currently in use for agricultural production [3] and this interferes with ecosystem services provided by natural resources [4]. Alteration of natural ecosystems has been ongoing for millennia – but it has accelerated sharply over the last centuries, and in the last several decades [5]. Expansion of agricultural land which for some time was justified as a need to ensure food security has led to habitat fragmentation [6] which is one of the four major threats to world biodiversity [7] and their life-sustaining services [8]. Agricultural intensification in both rural and urban centers as an adaptation to increasing human population has however, continues to disrupt ecosystem integrity of natural environment [9] leading to great negative consequences [10].

Urbanization encourages fragmentation of habitats of plants into patches that contain subsets of species inhabiting different habitat subsets [11]. Species occupancy is related to the specificity of the habitat, if habitat is defined according to Hall et al. [12] and Lindenmayer and Fischer [13], where 'habitat' constitutes the resources and conditions present in an area that produce occupancy for a particular species. The habitat fragments are usually anthropogenic, where it can constitute threats to biodiversity [11]. The anthropogenic nature of the patchiness may be in the form of a number of built structure or like in the case of this study, more agriculturerelated in the form of patches of different cropping systems intensively operated The

fragmentation thus affects terrestrial biodiversity in way that affect species richness patterns, because species richness is related to landscape structure [14].

However, as more than 50 percent of world population now reside in cities [15], which justifies the need for urban agriculture intensification to ensure food security [16,17], concerns have developed long term sustainability and environmental consequences of the intensification of agricultural systems [18]. Agricultural intensification can have negative local consequences, such as increased erosion, lower soil fertility, and reduced biodiversity; negative regional consequences [19], such as pollution of the ground water and eutrophication of rivers and lakes; and negative global consequences, including impacts on atmospheric constituents and climate [20].

The roles of agriculture in spreading invasive species have also been well documented [21]. This [4] anthropogenic effect [1] together with climatic and geological factors determines biological composition and services rendered by ecological system within space and time [22]. However, there is dearth of information on quantitive floristic changes occasioned by intensive arable agriculture in many urban regions of developing countries in Africa.

Therefore, there is need to critically appraise effects of intensive cropping of urban lands on health and community structure of herbacous flora. Hence this study was carried out to assess response of floral composition and flora invasion of Ajibode-Sasa arable landscape to intensive cropping practices in the area over a period of four years.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 The Study Site

The Ajibode-Sasa arable landscape is located in the University of Ibadan, Nigeria on N07°28′, E003⁰53′ and N07°28′, E003°54′ with elevation ranging from 189-193 m above the sea level. It covers an area of 0.1685 km² (16.85 ha) of farmlands with diverse cropping systems, and bounded by two streams to the south and to the west with a rich river valley soil (Fig. 1, 2). It is bordered by the forest of the International Institute for Tropical Agriculture and Ajibode-Sasa road to the north and east respectively. The area receive a mean annual rainfall of 1280 mm and mean annual minimum and maximum temperature of 21°C and 30°C respectively. The site was selected because of its location as a complex of crop farms in Ibadan metropolis. It is important to the livelihood of especially Yoruba and Hausa populations in Ajibode, Sasa, Orogun and University of Ibadan communities, being in close proximities to them. The farm complex is coordinated by a Farmers' Association. The farm complex is comprised of various combinations of arable crops that are farmed on a small-holder basis. The farms were so close that many were separated by footpaths, increasing possibility of weed infestation, introduction and spread of invasive plants.

Google Earth ©2016 was used to complement the layout with an aerial view of Ajibode-Sasa arable landscape and its imageries were also used to determine historical changes in the landscape with respect to vegetation dynamics and other landscape features. The Garmin™ etrex 12H model Geographical Positioning System was used for geo-referencing and SILVA plastic compass was used for obtaining a straight baseline and accurate perpendicular location of transects to the baseline for floristic.

2.2 Sampling Procedure

A systematic sampling design was employed for assessment of the flora composition on the landscape. A baseline transect of 900 meters was laid along Ajibode-Sasa road. Along the baseline transect, eighteen transects perpendicular to the baseline transect at an interval of 50 meters apart were laid into the Ajibode-Sasa agroecosystem. The river formed the terminal end of each transect at the other end. We observed a clearance or 5 m to the beginning and end of each transect in order to give due consideration to edge effect from the main road and the river. The transect lengths ranged from 50-260 m with which a total of 225 quadrats were laid in 2016 and 184 in 2020 respectively. A 1 x 1 m^2 square quadrat was laid at an interval of 10 m along each transect for enumeration of herbaceous plants that are rooted in the quadrat. Quantitative values of number of individuals in each quadrat was recorded in a species x attribute data matrix

The vegetation components of the quadrats were identified using A Handbook of West African Weeds [23] and Weeds of Rice in West Africa [24]. Species that could not be identified immediately were preserved and later taken to the Department of Botany Herbarium, University of Ibadan for identification.

2.3 Data Analyses

Analysis of Relative Important Value (RIV) of species followed Kent, (2011) [25] and (Olubode et al., (2011) [26];

where:

Relative Importance Value (RIV) = Relative Frequency / Relative Density × 100

The RIV was obtained by computing:

Frequency = the number of occurrence of a species in a set of quadrat or area.

Relative Frequency = (Frequency of a species / Total Frequency of all species) × 100

Density = (Total number of a species / (Quadrat area × number of quadrats laid))

Relative Density = (Density of a particular species) / (Total density)) × 100

Where,

Diversity Indices

Shannon-Wiener index (H') = -∑(ρί).(lnρί) **Evenness index (J) = H'/InS Simpson index** = 1-D **Dominance** = 1-Simpson index **D** = $\sum (n_i/N)^2$

Micheal and Sunday; JAERI, 21(10): 25-37, 2020; Article no.JAERI.63899

Fig. 1. Aerial View of Ajibode-Sasa agroecosystem in the University of Ibadan, Nigeria

Fig. 2. Map generated from QGIS describing the location of the Study Site in Ibadan, Southwest Nigeria

Where,

- ρί = the proportion of individuals or the abundance of the ith species expressed as a proportion of total abundance of all species (ρί = n/N)
- n_1 = number of individuals in the ith species.
- $N =$ total number of individuals in the sample
- $ln = log base$
- S = number of species

Paleontological Statistics (PAST) [27] was used to conduct a multivariate exploration of the quantitative floristic attributes of the agroecosystem in the two years. Diversity indices – Dominance, species richness/Simpson index, Shannon-Weiner index, Evenness index and Equitability index were computed to determine the nature of the community structure, while cluster analysis was used to nexplore the dissimilarity that existed among the plant species in the agroecosystem. Euclidean Distance [28] was employed as the index of dissimilarity on the paired group algorithm.

Together with phytosociological classification to produce dendrograms of floral relationship completed with. The Two-Way Indicator Species Analysis [28] was used to determine the percentage cover of each relevee/stand from species composition in each quadrat and on the landscape based on scale of 0-100. It was also used to explain the dendrograms obtained from the classification.

3. RESULTS

Herbaceous plant species composition reduced from 98 species in 25 families in 2016 to 85 species in 25 families in 2020 (Table 1). Introduction and invasion of new species is implicated in the loss of species (Table 1). Eight introduced invasive species were enumerated in 2020 that were not encountered in 2016. A total of 38 species were no longer encountered in 2020, but which were encounterd in 2016. Four of the first five species with the highest RIV in two years under comparison were known invasive species (Table 1). These were: *Tridax procumbens (*RIV: 14.803), *Euphorbia heterophylla* (RIV: 11.415), *Tithonia diversifolia* (RIV, 9.824), *Desmodium scopiorus* (RIV:3.712) and (*Acmella brachyglossa* (RIV: 3.647) in 2016; while in the 2020 survey, their RIVs indicated that *Acmella brachyglossa* (RIV:13.248) was becoming more invasive than the others - *Euphorbia heterophylla* (RIV: 9.322), *Tridax procumbens (*RIV*:* 9.025), *Tithonia diversifolia*

(RIV: 8.357) and *Desmodium scopiorus* (RIV: 6.333) respectively (Table 1). Poaceae was the most represented family (25 species) in the study area in years compared, however, with loss of 7 species by 2020 (Table 2). Fabaceae family increased from nine to 11 species in the same period. Four new families introduced into the agroecosystem from which species were enumerated in 2020 were Colchicaceae, Pedaliaceae, Smilacaceae and Sphenocleaceae.

The numbers of individuals recorded reduced from 8919 in 2016 but to 8165 in 2020 (Table 3). The dominance indices of the community in the two years were low in 2016 (0.09388) and 0.08746 in 2020. The species richness of the landscape as modeled by Simpson's index was higher (0.9126)) in 2020 than in 2016 (0.9061), probably as a result of proliferation of a few invasive species in the agrecosystem, despite the clearing a portion of the land for erection of a communication mast and a building (Fig. 3). The study area exhibited high alpha diversity of species in the two years (3.081 in 2016; 3.088 in 2020). The disparate nature of the agroecosystem due to the varied cropping system was revealed in the low Evenness index indicating non-even distribution of species. The Evenness indices were low for the two years. In 2016, the Evenness index was 0.2222 but slightly increased to 0.2579 in 2020 (Table 3).

The phytosociology of the agroecosystem were being modified by the presence and proliferation of iinvasive species (Fig. 3). In 2016, *Tridax procumbens* was formed a distinct cluster of flora whose attributes were mainly unrelated to other species. It was a dominant species on the landscape. *Thithonia diversifolia* and *Acmella brachyglossa* behaved in a similar way but to lesser extents. Others, such as *Euphorbia heterophylla* formed large clusters around which other plants clustered. In 2020 bowever, the clusters were more pronounced, with *Acmella brachyglossa* replacing *Tridax procumbens* as the most prominent species in the agroecosystem. *Thithonia diversifolia, Tridax procumbens* and *Euphorbia heterophylla* formed discrete groups that separate clusters that are dissimilar in association to them. The results were corroborated by the fragmented landscape as indicated by the Google Earth imageries (Fig. 4). However, there were more anthropogenic incursions by 2020 as indicated by presence of a large building and a telecommunication mast constructed after the 2016 survey.

 $\overline{}$

Table 1. Relative Importance Value (RIV) of Flora Species in Ajibode-Sasa Farmland in 2016 and 2020

*Key: I = Invasive Species, N = Native, INT = Introduced and ND = Not-Determined Source * = Plants of the World Online, Kew Science (2020);*

http://www.plantsoftheworldonline.org/taxon/urn:lsid:ipni.org:names:541268-1#distribution-map

Table 2. Comparative floristic representation of species in taxonomic families encountered at Ajibode-Sasa agroecosystem in 2016 and 2020 in Ibadan, Southwest Nigeria

2020

Fig. 3. Cluster dendrogram of floristic association in Ajibode-Sasa agroecosystem in Ibadan, Southwest Nigeria in 2016 and 2020

Year	2016			2020		
	Index Value	Lower	Upper	Index Value	Lower	Upper
Taxa S	98	90	98	85	79	85
Individuals	8919	8919	8919	8165	8165	8165
Dominance D	0.09388	0.09061	0.09726	0.08746	0.08424	0.09096
Simpson 1-D	0.9061	0.9027	0.9094	0.9125	0.909	0.9158
Shannon H	3.081	3.045	3.107	3.088	3.052	3.113
Evenness e [^] H/S	0.2222	0.2201	0.2429	0.2579	0.2538	0.2783
Equitability J	0.672	0.6687	0.6859	0.695	0.6906	0.708

Table 3a. Diversity Indices of Ajibode-Sasa in 2016 and 2020

Year	2016	2020
Total	8919	8165
Richness	98	85
н	3.080998	3.087617
S ₂ H	0.00025	0.000237
	0.300066	
df	17078.51	
Crit	1.960103	
p	0.764131	
СI	0.031601	0.030783

Table 3b. t-test comparison of species diversity of Ajibode-Sasa in 2016 and 2020

Fig. 4. Aerial imageries of Ajibode-Sasa agroecosystem in 2016 and 2020 showing mosaic pattern of fragmentation in the sampled portion (A) of the landscape. The 2020 image indicates a newly constructed building (B) and Telecomunication Mast (C) within the sampled area

4. DISCUSSION

Our results indicate that subtle floristic changes have occurred in the Ajibode-Sasa agroecosystem between 2016 and 2020. The changes are mainly attributable to the intensive cultivation of arable crops in different cropping system on a small-holder basis which encourage species invasion. The results of this study further supports the observation of [26] that Weed diversity is often related to local conditions, most especially habitat heterogeneity, with high weed species richness in complex landscape. The species invasion reduced the taxonomic number of species over the period, and in the process ousted some species and involved introduction of four new families. The changes portend threat to ecosystem functions, especially the ability of the

ecosystem to cope with climate change, as indicated by various studies [35,36] since changes in diversity is a main driver of ecosystem functioning [37]. For instance, the implication of the increase in the members of the Fabaceae in this study is a potential increase in the deposition of Nitrogen in the soll of the study site. This might have been responsible for further increase in the abundance of invasive species. The study of Manning et al. [38] showed that N deposition had direct effect in stimulation plant growth and thus strongly affected ecosystem function.

Fragmentation of the agricultural landscape through small-holder farming of different types of arable crops favours widespread occurence of some noxious plants like *Tridax procumbens,*

Euphorbia heterophylla, Acmella brachyglossa with high relative importance values. These plants are mostly categorized as invasive [30,33]*.* The result indicated that the ecosystem is anthropogenically disturbed, leading to loss of native flora. The fragility of the arable ecosystem from the changing flora can cause a disruption in its structural and functional integrity. This supports Stoate et al. [34] that disturbed ecosystems are particularly vulnerable to invasion by alien species. The invasive species are most likely responsible for the low RIVs of many native species that were enumerated in this study, thus floristically simplifying the ecosystem overtime like Poggioa et al. [39] reported. They are responsible for changes in the structure and species composition in the ecosystem [40].

Decreased taxa on the landscape were partly due to intensive cultivation, construction of a large building and telecommunication mast after the 2016 survey. This conspicuous change reduced the number of quadrats from 224 to 184 and flora diversity. This is suspected to have negative impacts on the resilience of the native flora and conservation of community structure and functions. The continuous cultivation could have been responsible for proliferation of grasses (Poaceae family) at the expense of other families. The loss of species was compensated for by increase in the number of individuals of invasive species in the existing species and the introduction of new families which compensated for the families that were lost.

5. CONCLUSION

The study revealed that species invasion is a key driver of floristic changes at Ajibode-Sasa arable landscape through the agency of intensification of arable crop farming. The study also explained trends in community structure as related to intensive farming. Some species are phasing out while others are gaining ground due to their invasive attributes. *Acmella brachyglossa* seems to be becoming more aggressive in outcompeting *Tridax procumbens, Tithonia diversifolia* and other invasive plants; although this would require further studies for confirmation. The high flora diversity is being subtly undermined by increase in invasive taxa 9species and families). The study has indicated that it is possible for intensive cultivation of small holder-farmlands to constitute an avenue to encourage proliferation of invasive plants. The spread of the invasive species could threaten native flora biodiversity and hence, disruption of natural ecosystem

dynamics. It is therefore necessary that while encouraging urban agriculture, measures should be taken to curtail introduction and spread of invasive plants. We suggest that adequate phytosanitation, regular monitoring and reporting of invasive plants and sustainable agricultural practices like use of certified and clean seeds, clear demarcation of boundaries and provision of pathways rather than unregulated traversing farmlands.

ACKNOWLEDEGEMENTS

We thank members of God's Foundation Farmers' Association and all farmers who permitted us to conduct floristic surveys on their farms at the Ajibode-Sasa farmlands, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

- 1. Vellend M, Baeten L, Becker-Scarpitta A, Boucher-Lalonde V, McCune JL, Messier J, et al. Plant biodiversity change across scales during the anthropocene. Annual Review of Plant Biology. 2017;68:563–86.
- 2. Gomes E, Banos A, Abrantes P, Rocha J, Kristensen SBP, Busck A. Agricultural land fragmentation analysis in a peri-urban context: From the past into the future. Ecological indicators. 2019;9:380–8.
- 3. FAO. The state of the world's land and water resources for food and agriculture (SOLAW) – Managing systems at risk. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome and Earthscan, London. 2011;21.
- 4. Malavasi M, Santoro R, Cutini M, Acosta ATR, Carranza ML. The impact of human pressure on landscapepatterns and plant species richness in Mediterranean coastal dunes. Plant Biosystems - An International Journal Dealing with all Aspects of Plant Biology. 2016;150(1):73–82.
- 5. Sodhi NS, Ehrlich PR (Eds.). Conservation biology for all. Oxford University Press; 2010.
- 6. With KA. The landscape ecology of invasive spread. Conservation Biology. 2002;16(5):1192–203.
- 7. Ramirez-Villegas J, Jarvis A, Touval J. Analysis of threats to South American flora

and its implications for conservation. Journal for Nature. 2012;20(6):337–48.

- 8. Rodríguez-Echeverry J, Echeverría C, Oyarzún C, Morales L. Impact of land-use change on biodiversity and ecosystem services in the Chilean temperate forests. Landscape Ecology. 2018;33(3):439–53.
- 9. Neldner VJ, Laidlaw MJ, McDonald KR, Mathieson MT, Melzer RI, Seaton R, et al. Scientific review of the impacts of land clearing on threatened species in Queensland; 2017.
- 10. Sharma R, Nehren U, Rahman SA, Meyer M, Rimal B, Seta GA, et al. Modeling land use and land cover changes and their effects on biodiversity in Central Kalimantan, Indonesia. Land. 2018;7(57).
- 11. Montoya D, Alburquerque FS, Rueda M, Rodríguez MA. Species' response patterns to habitat fragmentation: do trees support the extinction threshold hypothesis? Oikos. 2009;119:1335–1343. DOI: 10.1111/j.1600-0706.2010.18280.x
- 12. Hall LS, Krausman PR, Morrison ML. The habitat concept and a plea for standard terminology. Wildlife Society. Bulletin. 1997;25:173–182.
- 13. Lindenmayer DB, Fischer J. Habitat fragmentation and landscape change. An ecological and conservation synthesis. Island Press. 2006;352. ISBN: 9781597266062.
- 14. Bascompte J, Rodriguez MA. Habitat patchiness and plant species richness. Ecological Letters. 2011;4:147–420.
- 15. Orsini F, Kahane R, Nono-Womdim R, Gianquinto G. Urban agriculture in the developing world: a review. Agronomy for Sustainable Development. 2013;33:695– 720.
- 16. Goldstein B, Hauschild M, Fernández J, Birkved M. Urban versus conventional agriculture, taxonomy of resource profiles: a review. Agronomy for Sustainable Development. 2016;36(1):9.
- 17. van Tuijl E, Hospers G, van Den Berg L. Opportunities and challenges of urban agriculture for sustainable city development. European Spatial Research and Policy. 2008;25(2).
- 18. Santos de Araújo W, Vieira MC, Lewinsohn TM, Almeida-Neto M. Contrasting effects of land use intensity and exotic host plants on the specialization
of interactions in Plant-Herbivore of interactions in Plant-Herbivore Networks. PLoS. 2015;10(1).
- 19. Dolan RW, Moore ME, Stephens J. Documenting effects of urbanization on

flora using herbarium records. Journal of Ecology. 2011;99(4):1055–62.

- 20. Shuaib M, Ali K, Ahmed S, Hussain F, Ilyas M, Hassan N, et al. Impact of rapid urbanization on the floral diversity and agriculture land of district Dir, Pakistan. Acta Ecologica Sinica. 2018;38(6):394– 400.
- 21. Bergmeier E, Strid A. Regional diversity, population trends and threat assessment of the weeds of traditional agriculture in Greece. Botanical Journal of the Linnean Society. 2014;175:607–23.
- 22. Chivian E, Aaron B (Eds.). Sustaining life:
how human health depends on how human health depends on biodiversity. Oxford University Press; 2008. 75–114 p.
- 23. Okezie Akobundu IO, Agyakwa cw. A handbook of West African Weeds; 1998.
- 24. Johnson DE. Weeds of rice in West Africa. West Africa Rice Development Association (WARDA); 1997.
- 25. Kent M. Vegetation description and data analysis: a practical approach. John Wiley & Sons; 2011.
- 26. Olubode OS, Awodoyin RO, Ogunyemi S. Floral diversity in the wetlands of Apete River, Eleyele Lake and Oba Dam in Ibadan, Nigeria: Its implication for biodiversity erosion. West African Journal of Applied Ecology. 2011;18(1):109–19.
- 27. Hammer Ø, Harper DAT, Ryan PD. PAST: Paleontological Statistics Software Package for Education and Data Analysis. Palaeontologia electronica. 2001;4(1):9.
- 28. Hill MO. DECORANA and TWINSPAN, for ordination and classification of multivariate species data: a new edition, together with supporting programs, in FORTRAN 77. Institute of Terrestrial Ecology, Hunbingdon, UK; 2012. 58 p.
- 29. PPQ. Weed risk assessment for Tridax procumbens L. (Asteraceae) – Coast buttons. United States Department of Agriculture, Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service, Plant Protection and Quarantine (PPQ), Raleigh, NC. 2018;26.
- 30. Borokini TI. Invasive alien plant species in Nigeria and their effects on biodiversity conservation. Tropical Conservation Science. 2011;4(1):103–10.
- 31. Bendixen LE, Nandihalli UB. Worldwide distribution of purple and yellow nutsedge (Cyperus rotundus and C. esculentus). Weed Technology. 1987;61–5.
- 32. *Synedrella nodiflora* (synedrella) [Internet]. [cited 2020 Nov 11].

Available:https://www.cabi.org/isc/datashe et/52325

- 33. Global Invasive Species Database. [cited 2020 Nov 7]. Available:http://issg.org/database/species/ search.asp?st=sss&sn=&rn=Nigeria&ri=19 361&hci=-1&ei=-1&fr=1&sts=&lang=EN
- 34. Stoate C, Boatman ND, Borralho RJ, Carvalho CR, De Snoo GR, Eden P. Ecological impacts of arable intensification in Europe. Journal of Environmental Management. 2001;63(4):337–65.
- 35. Adler PB, Dalgleish HJ, Ellner SP. Forecasting plant community impacts of climate variability and change: When do competitive interactions matter? Journal of Ecology. 2012;100:478–487. Available:https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365- 2745.2011.01930.x
- 36. Alexander JM, Diez JM, Levine JM. Novel competitors shape species' responses to climate change. Nature. 2015;525:515– 518. Availble:https://doi.org/10.1038/natur
- e14952 37. Linders TEW, Schaffner U, Eschen R, Abebe A, Choge SK, Nigatu L, Mbaabu PR, Shiferaw H, Allan E. Direct and indirect effects of invasive species:

Biodiversity loss is a major mechanism by which an invasive tree affects ecosystem functioning. Journal of Ecology. 2018;107:2660–2672. Available:https://doi.org/10.1111/1365- 2745.13268

- 38. Manning P, Newington JE, Robson HR, Saunders M, Eggers T, Bradford MA, Bardgett RD, Bonkowski M, Ellis RJ, Gange AC, Grayston SJ, kandeler E, Marhan S, Reid E, Tscherko DT, Godfray HCJ. Decoupling the direct and indirect effects of nitrogen deposition on ecosystem function. Ecology Letters. 2006;2011:9(9):1015-1024*. .* Available:https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461- 0248.2006.00959.x
- 39. Poggioa SL, Chaneton EJ, Ghersa CM. The arable plant diversity of intensively managed farmland: Effects of field position and crop type at local and landscape scales. Agriculture, Ecosystem and Environment. 2013;166:55–64.
- 40. Roschewitz I, Gabriel D, Tscharntke T, Thies C. The effects of landscape complexity on arable weed species diversity in organic and conventional farming. Journal of Applied Ecology. 2005; 42(5):873–82.

 $_$, *© 2020 Micheal and Sunday; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.*

> *Peer-review history: The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here: http://www.sdiarticle4.com/review-history/63899*