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Floristic Composition, Structure and Diversity of Urban Reserve Forests: An Implication for Biodiversity Conservation and Forest Management

Gisandu K. Malunguja $1*$ and Ashalata Devi²

¹Department of Earth science, Mbeya University of Science and Technology, 131, Mbeya, Tanzania Email: gmalunguja77@gmail.com Phone: +255 763 628343 ORCID: 0000-0002-1853-5068 ² Department of Environmental Science, Tezpur University, PIN-784028, Tezpur, Assam, India Email: ashalatadevi12@gmail.com ORCID: 0000-0002-1445-2492. Phone: +9194357493540 **Corresponding author:** Gisandu K. Malunguja **E-mail:** gmalunguja77@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The establishment of forested areas adjacent to urban centers, known as reserve forests (RFs), is increasing and gaining importance in India. However, there is limited understanding of their role in supporting biodiversity. To address this, a study using phytosociological techniques was conducted in three RFs near Tezpur city in Assam, India, to evaluate their contribution to biodiversity. A total of 204 plant species from 180 genera and 64 families were identified. The cumulative curve showed irregularities with asymptotic trends. Species with high importance value indices (IVI) included *Cynodon dactylon* and *Cymbopogon nardus* for grasses, *Clitoria ternatea* and *Chromolaen*a among forbs, *Mikania micrantha* and *Piper betle* among climbers, *Lantana camara* and *Clerodendrum viscosum* among shrubs, and *Tectona grandis* and *Shorea robusta* among trees. The basal area was lowest in grasses (0.04-0.13 m^2 ha⁻¹) and highest in trees (29.18-63.61 m^2 ha⁻¹). Diversity indices ranged from 2.06 to 3.34 (Shannon), 0.04 to 0.17 (Simpson), 0.72 to 0.94 (Pielou's), and 1.3 to 14.62 (Margalef). The Whitford index indicated a contagious distribution pattern. Sørensen similarity was highest between Bhomoraguri and Balipara for grasses (60.87%), shrubs (81.97%), and trees (54.79%), and between Bhomoraguri and Sengelimari for forbs (37.93%) and climbers (54.55%). The floristic composition recorded in RFs suggests a viable strategy for biodiversity conservation in these areas.

Keywords: Biodiversity conservation, Floristic composition, Forest management, Diversity indices, Reserve forests, Urban greening.

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1. INTRODUCTION

India is experiencing a growing trend in establishing forests adjacent to urban centers, known as reserve forests (RFs) or urban forests. Understanding species composition, structure, and diversity is crucial for managing these urban forests (Yan and Yang 2017). Indian forests, including those in Assam, are recognized for their rich biodiversity (Barbhuiya et al. 2013; Dibaba et al. 2019). Reserve forests (RFs) serve as critical habitats for species diversity (Kanagaraj et al. 2017; Nohro and Jayakumar 2020) and help offset CO² emissions through carbon sequestration (Enríquez-de-Salamanca 2020; Malunguja et al. 2020; Caviedes and Ibarra 2017). They are also effective in protecting species from extinction (Deori and Talukdar 2015). Like other protected areas, RFs host native species and local endemics, providing various ecosystem goods and services (Giri et al. 2019; Gogoi and Sahoo 2018; Paudel et al. 2022). Reserve forests are designated for specific purposes where human activities are highly restricted. Studies highlight the role of forests, whether urban or rural, in biodiversity conservation (Dri et al. 2024; Baul et al. 2022; Borah et al. 2015; Caviedes and Ibarra 2017; Kanagaraj et al. 2017). Ecological monitoring of forest ecosystems is crucial to estimate their contribution to species sustainability (Flores-Galicia et al. 2024; Anitha et al. 2010; Buragohain and Swargiari 2016; Echeverría et al. 2007; Hubálek 2000; Matuszkiewicz et al. 2013; Malunguja et al. 2020; Naveenkumar et al. 2017; Paudel et al. 2022; Sala et al. 2000; Wade et al. 2003).

In India, reserve forests support species biodiversity and sustainability, as addressed in the Constitution of India, Act 1976 (Kumar et al. 2020). There is a continuous effort to develop a scientific basis for sustainable forest management through forest management plans (Kumar et al. 2020). These plans aim to increase forested areas, particularly reserve forests, adjacent to developing cities as part of an urban greening strategy. Currently, approximately 33.42% of India's total land area is covered by reserve forests (FSI 2019; Gandhi and Sundarapandian 2017). Despite their extensive coverage, there is a lack of studies elucidating the role of reserve forests in biodiversity. This lack of information hinders the evaluation of their ecological well-being. Existing studies on RFs are often specific to certain topics (Bhattacharjee et al. 2014; Borah et al. 2020; Dutta and Devi, 2013; Malunguja and Devi 2022) and focus on other forest categories like biosphere reserves,

national parks, and wildlife sanctuaries (Behera et al. 2017; Bora et al. 2017; Dar and Sundarapandian 2015; Deori and Talukdar 2015; Gogoi and Sahoo 2018; Gogoi et al. 2017; Duchok et al. 2005; Giri et al. 2019; Kar et al. 2019; Kalita and Kalita 2014; Sharma et al. 2010; Sumita et al. 2015). Consequently, these data do not provide a complete ecological characterization of reserve forests. A detailed phytosociological study was conducted to create a floristic baseline for better forest management. The study aimed to (i) conduct a floristic inventory of plant species and (ii) assess plant community structure and diversity. Beyond urban greening, the findings of this study will help policymakers, ecologists, and environmentalists develop effective conservation strategies to enhance biodiversity conservation.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Study area

The current study was conducted in three reserve forests (RFs) in the Sonitpur district of Assam, a state in northeast India. The RFs—Balipara, Bhomoraguri, and Sengelimari—were chosen due to their proximity to Tezpur City, an urban area experiencing rapid industrialization and urbanization. These forests are also connected to one of the busiest National Highways (NH-15), which operates year-round. The district is situated between 92° 16' E and 93° 43' E longitudes and 26° 30' N to 27° N latitudes (Nath et al. 2013). It has a subtropical climate, with seasonal temperatures ranging from a minimum of 7°C to a maximum of 36°C (Saxena et al. 2014). A map showing the locations of the three studied RFs is provided in Fig. 1.

2.2 Vegetation sampling

A total of 105 circular plots with a 15 m radius (covering an area of 707.14 m²) were systematically established along transects (45 in Balipara RF, 30 in Bhomoraguri RF, and 30 in Sengelimari RF). Within each plot, two sub-plots with a 10 m radius (area of 314.29 m²) and a 5 m radius (area of 78.57 m²) were established to record shrubs and herbaceous plants, respectively, following a modified method from Zahabu (2008). The general layout of transect lines and plots is illustrated in Fig. 2. Woody individuals with a diameter at breast height (dbh) of less than 5 cm, characterized by single or multiple stem branches at ground level were recorded as shrubs. Those with a

dbh of 5 cm or more were recorded as trees. The frequency of herbaceous species (%) was determined using the quadrat method (Pieper 1988; Rubanza et al. 2006). Four metal frames of 0.5 m × 0.5 m (area of 0.25 m²) were placed within the 5 m radius sub-plot to record herbaceous composition. If the frame landed on a previously sampled point or in a dense shrub layer, it was re-thrown to avoid these factors (Czapiewska and Dyderski 2019). Plant species were identified based on their local and botanical names with the help of local botanists and relevant floras. For species difficult to identify in the field, specimens were collected and herbarium samples were prepared for further identification at the Department of Environmental Sciences, Ecology Laboratory, Tezpur University, India.

Figure 1: Map showing the location and sampling points of the studied RFs.

2.3 Floristic composition and diversity Cuantitative community attributes and phytosociological characteristics, including species density, abundance, relative frequency, relative

density, and relative dominance, were calculated according to Curtis and McIntosh (1950). The basal area was determined using the allometric method (Kanagaraj et al. 2017). The importance value index (IVI) of individual species was calculated following Misra (1989), which involves summing the relative frequency, relative density, and relative dominance. Plant diversity indices such as the Shannon-Wiener index (Shannon and Weaver 1949), Simpson's dominance index (Simpson 1949), Pielou's evenness index (Pielou 1966), Margalef's index (Margalef 1969), and Sørensen similarity index (1948) were used to quantify phytosociological attributes. The plant distribution pattern was analyzed based on the abundance to frequency ratio (Whitford 1949).

2.4 Statistical analysis

Multivariate analysis was used to determine significant differences in plant diversity both across and within forests. The Shapiro-Wilk and Levene tests were employed for parametric tests to ensure that data fit normal distribution conditions and was homogeneous, respectively. The Fisher's Least Significant Difference (LSD) test was used to determine whether the means were statistically different at $P \le 0.05$. The Pearson correlation coefficient was employed to examine the relationships between plant life forms (grasses, forbs, climbers, shrubs, and trees). Statistical analyses were performed using the SPSS software package (version 20, Chicago, IL). Additionally, graphs were created using the Origin Pro software package (trial version 8.5) and Microsoft Excel.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Plant species recorded in RFs

The present investigation identified 204 plant species (i.e., 24 grasses, 62 forbs, 19 climbers, 40 shrubs and 59 trees) belonging to 180 genera and 64 families in the three studied reserve forests (RFs). Table 1 enlisted all the plant species enumerated in this study based on their life forms. The results showed that, some species were recorded in all the studied forests like *Cynodon dactylon*, and *Brachiaria reptans* for grasses; *Amaranthus spinosus* and *Centella asiatica* for forbs; *Argyreia speciosa* and *Cissus rotundifolia* for climbers; *Gloriosa superba and Alangium chinense* for shrubs; *Eugenia orbiculata* and *Bombax ceiba* for trees. Species that were only found in one of the studied sites are *Aristida adscensionis*(Sengelimari RF) and *Arundo donax* (Bhomoraguri RF) for grasses;

Achyranthes aspera and *Chamaecrista rotundifolia* (Bhomoraguri RF) for forbs; *Cissus quadrangularis* (Sengelimari RF) and *Hedyotis scandens* (Balipara RF) for climbers; *Lantana camara* and *Solanum spinosum* (Bhomoraguri RF) for shrubs; and *Acacia retinodes* (Sengelimari RF), and *Caesalpinia pulcherrima* (Bhomoraguri RF) for trees.

Additionally, the present study recorded a variability of plant life forms between the reserve forests. For instance, grasses recorded 24 species from 22 genera and 2 families in three studies reserve forests. Forbs enumerated 63 species from 59 genera and 25 families. Climber recorded 19 species from 17 genera and 11 families, while shrub recorded 40 species from 37 genera and 21 families. Furthermore, trees enumerated 59 species from 53 genera and 29 families. As stated previously, some species were recorded in all three studied reserve forests, some in two or in only one. Such phenomenons lead into variability of individual species in the studied forests. For such reasons, Bhomoraguri RF recorded 123 plant species (13 grasses, 39 forbs, 9 climbers, 31 shrubs, and 31 trees). While, Balipara RF recorded 121 plant species (10 grasses, 29 forbs, 10 climbers, 30 shrubs, and 42 trees). Then, Sengelimari RF recorded 83 plant species (12 grasses, 19 forbs, 12 climbers, 17 shrubs, and 23 trees).

3.2.Community structure analysis

The sampling effort made for studying community structure analysis helps in understanding the rate of accumulation of new species over the increasing sampling units. The species cumulative curve portrayed an irregular along with asymptotic notations to all plant life forms (Fig. 3). The number of shrub and tree species increased along with the increase in number of sampling plots for all studied forests. Such observation suggests presence of diverse species in the community for forbs, shrubs and trees. Furthermore, it was found that in Bhomoraguri RF, grass species only 15 studied plots were enough to record their richness, while, new species was accumulated up to 35 of sampling units in Balipara RF. Similar trend was also observed among forb species for all studied forests. Climber species, on the other hand, were recorded mostly within 15 plots in Sengelimari RF. Such results suggest that, species richness (number of different species), specifically, for grasses and climbers was small as compared to other plant life forms (forbs, shrubs and trees) (Fig. 3).

Table 1: List of plant species recorded in Bhomoraguri RF (1), Balipara RF (2), and Sengelimari RF (3) RFs

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Total No. of species = 59, genus = 53 Family = 29 31 42 23 **Note:** ✓ **indicate presence of a species, x absence of a species**

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quadrat within 5 m radius sub-plot for herbaceous sampling

Figure 2: Diagrammatic representation of plots layout and line transects

Bhomoraguri RF ann an Dùbhlachadh ann an Dùbhlachadh ann an Dùbhlachadh ann an Dùbhlachadh ann an Dùbhlachadh

Balipara RF

Figure 3: Species-accumulative curve of grass (A), forbs (B), climber (C), shrub (D) and tree (E) species recorded in Bhomoraguri RF (), Balipara RF () and Sengelimari RF ().

Figure 4: Estimated density (ha-1) of all studied plant life forms in RFs

Bhomoraguri RF Balipara RF Sengelimari RF

3.3 Density (individual's ha-1) and basal area (m² ha¹) in RFs

Density and basal area are the two important quantitative data which largely determine the dominance of species in a particular forest ecosystem. The overall number of individuals per hectare (individual's ha⁻¹) differed significantly ($p < 0.05$), between forests and plant life forms (grasses, forbs, climbers, shrubs and trees). Analysis of variance $(ANOVA)$ revealed that individual ha⁻¹ in the studied reserve forests was significant for trees ($F = 2.299$, $p =$ 0.042), and shrub species (F = 3.802, p = 0.027), but insignificant for grasses (F = 30.193, $p = 0.8.26$), forbs $(F = 0.87, p = 0.423)$, and climbers $(F = 0.039, p = 0.423)$ 0.962). The phytosociological attributes of plants inventoried in Bhomoraguri RF, Balipara RF, and Sengelimari RF is summarized in Table 2. Among the herbs, highest density was recorded in forb species than other plant life forms in all the forests. A total of 375157 individual ha⁻¹ for forbs were recorded in Bhomoraguri RF, 283183 in Balipara RF, and 410547 individuals' ha⁻¹ in Sengelimari RF. Meanwhile, the lowest individual's ha⁻¹ was recorded in tree species. For tree species, Bhomoraguri RF recorded 588 stem ha⁻¹ followed by Balipara RF (464 stem ha⁻¹) and the lowest stem was recorded in Sengelimari RF having 313 ha⁻¹ (Fig. 4.). For shrub and tree species, Sengelimari RF contributed the least number of individuals ha $^{-1}$ and highest was recorded in Balipara RF for shrubs (1747 ha $^{-1}$) and Bhomoraguri RF for trees $(588 \text{ ha}^{-1}).$

Basal area varied significantly between forests which ranged from 0.04 m2 ha⁻¹ (as minimum in grasses) to 63.61 m2 ha-1 (as maximum in trees) (Fig. 5.). The analysis results indicated significant for grasses ($F =$ 6.131, $p = 0.006$, forbs (F = 12.26, $p = 0.000$), climbers $(F = 4.643, p = 0.018)$ and for trees $(F = 5.677, p = 1.643)$ 0.005); but insignificant for shrubs (F = 0.749, $p =$ 0.476). The highest basal area of 63.61 m^2 ha⁻¹ for tree was recorded in Balipara RF, followed by 52.21 $m²$ hat $¹$ in Bhomoraguri RF, and the lowest was recorded in</sup> Sengelimari RF (28.87 m^2 ha⁻¹) (Fig. 5.). Among the herbs, the lowest basal area was recorded in grass species for all the studied forests (0.15, 0.04, and 0.13 m2 ha-1 for Bhomoraguri RF, Balipara RF, and Sengelimari RF, respectively.

3.4 Dominant plant species in RFs

Species exhibiting high important value index (IVI) values does contribute high values either for density or basal area, or both in the community. The dominant plant species varied from one forest to another (p < 0.05). The top most dominant grasses, forbs, climbers, shrubs and trees species based on greater IVI values in Bhomoraguri RF, Balipara RF and Sengelimari RF are presented in Fig. 6a, Fig. 6b, Fig. 6c, Fig. 6d and Fig. 6e, respectively. For Bhomoraguri RF, species with great IVI for grasses were *Cynodon dactylon* (40.28), *Imperata cylindrica* (35.82) and *Brachiaria reptans* (33.56); while *Datura stramonium* (22.21) and *Chromolaena odorata* (14.93) were dominant forbs. *Clitoria ternatea* (52.22), and *Piper betle* (51.28) recorded as dominant climber species. *Lantana camara* (43.48) and *Melastoma malabathricum* (23.88) were dominant shrub species. Nevertheless, tree species such as *Tectona grandis* (58.34%) and *Ficus hirta* (25.09) recorded the high IVI values indicating dominant tree species in Bhomoraguri RF.

Similarly, for Balipara RF, the dominant grass species were *Cymbopogon nardus* (49.08), *Cynodon dactylon* (41.72) and *Cyperus rotundus* (37.81). While *Chromolaena odorata* (19.36), *Colocasia esculenta* (23.78), and *Drymaria cordata* (19.28) were the dominant forbs. *Hedyotis scandens* (46.26) and *Mikania micrantha* (50.27) recorded high IVI values for climbers. Moreover, shrubs species like *Clerodendrum viscosum* (45.09), *Justicia adhatoda* (24.09) and *Melastoma malabathricum* (23.94) were dominant in Balipara RF; while tree species such as *Syzygium cumini* (19.26), *Ficus hirta* (19.63) and *Shorea robusta* (60.71) dominated Balipara RF.

On the other hand, species that recorded high IVI values for Sengelimari RF were *Cynodon dactylon* (44.38), *Lophatherum gracile* (33.96) and *Paspalum conjugatum* (33.25) for grasses. *Chromolaena odorata* (22.33) and *Colocasia esculenta* (38.97) for forbs. Species such as *Piper betle* (36.12), *Paederia foetida* (35.45) and *Argyreia speciosa* (30.63) were dominant climbers. For shrubs, *Antidesma acidum* (23.69) and *Melastoma malabathricum* (49.67) were dominant species and *Artocarpus heterophyllus* (50.22) and *Eugenia orbiculata* (38.69) recorded dominated tree species in Sengelimari RF.

3.5 Diversity indices

3.5.1 Shannon-Wiener diversity and Simpson index

Results on Shannon-Wiener index (H') and Simpson index (C_D) recorded in the three studied reserve forests of Assam differed significantly between species (*p* < 0.05). Comparative analysis of species diversity index (Shannon-

Wiener index) between plant life forms (i.e., grasses, forbs, climbers, shrubs and trees) revealed variables results for each plant life form (Table 3). A significant different was recorded between species of different life forms in Bhomaraguri RF (*F =*13.90*, p <* 0.001). Furthermore, significant values of *F =*18.95*, p <* 0.001, and *F* = 3.67*, p =* 0.009 for plant life forms was recorded for Balipara RF and Sengelimari RF, respectively. On the other hand, analysis between forests indicated no significant different for grass species (*F* = 0.79*, p* = 0.46), and climbers (*F =* 0.59*, p =* 0.559). However, forbs, shrubs and trees differed significantly between forests (*F* = 8.255*, p* = 0.001 for forbs; *F =* 3.336*, p =* 0.041 for shrub; and *F =* 4.08*, p =* 0.022 for trees).

Figure 5: Estimated basal area (m2ha-1) of all studied plant life forms in RFs

For Bhomoraguri RF, forb species recorded the highest diversity (H' = 3.34) and lowest diversity was recorded in climber species (H' = 2.06). A similar trend was also observed in Balipara RF, having greatest diversity in forb species (H'= 3.13); whereby Simpson index ranged from 0.06-0.16, being highest in trees and lowest in forbs (Fig. 7.). Furthermore, forb species recorded great diversity in Sengelimari RF (H' = 2.79; $CD = 0.07$) followed by tree species (H' = 2.70; CD = 0.11) and the least was recorded by grasses ($H' = 2.18$; $CD = 0.14$). Among the studied reserve forests, Bhomoraguri recorded higher diversity for grass, forb and shrub species than Balipara and Sengelimari RFs. Similarly, Balipara RF recorded higher diversity for shrub and tree species than Bhomoraguri and Sengelimari RFs. However, climber species was recorded more diverse in Sengelimari RF than Bhomoraguri and Balipara RFs.

3.5.2 Whitford, Pielous' evenness, Margalef richness indices and Similarity index

The spatial distribution pattern of the species based on abundance and frequency ratio (Whitford index) depicts contagious distribution. Species distribution patterns range from 0.84 to 9.76 (0.84, 3.58, 0.83, 9.76 and 7.10 for grasses, forbs, climbers, shrubs and trees, respectively) in Bhomoraguri RF (Fig. 8). Similar pattern is found in Balipara RF and Sengelimari RF therein it ranges from 0.89 to 14.62 (0.89, 2.05, 1.10, 14.62, and 14.07 for grasses, forbs, climbers, shrubs and trees, respectively) in Balipara RF (8and from 0.84 to 6.18 (1.58, 1.40, 0.84, 3.77, and 6.18 for grasses, forbs, climbers, shrubs and trees, respectively) in Sengelimari RF (Fig. 8). The calculated values fall within the contagious categories of species distribution pattern, suggesting that the studied forests exhibit contagious patterns for all plant life forms.

Pielous' evenness index (J) portrayed a range of 0.72 to 0.93 (i.e., 0.91, 0.88, 0.93, 0.78 and 0.72 for grasses, forbs, climbers, shrubs and trees, respectively) for all plant life forms in Bhomoraguri RF (Fig. 8). Balipara RF, on the other hand, recorded 0.94 for grasses, 0.83 for forbs, 0.92 for climbers, 0.72 for shrubs and 072 for trees; which ranged from 0.72 to 0.94 (Fig. 8). Moreover, a range of 0.83 to 0.94 (0.83, 0.92, 0.94, 0.86, and 0.85 for grasses, forbs, climbers, shrubs and trees, respectively) was recorded in Sengelimari RF (Fig. 8). The Margalef species richness index (R) justifies effective number of species in a particular habitat. Relatively high values are recorded in forbs followed by shrubs and trees. In Bhomoraguri RF, the values ranged from 1.25 to 4.7; 1.3 to 7.2 in Balipara RF, and 1.6 to 4.44 in Sengelimari RF. Forbs recorded 4.77 in Bhomoraguri RF followed by shrubs (R = 4.22) and trees (R = 5.02). Similarly, in Balipara RF, Margalef species richness index values were 3.64 for forbs, 4.66 for shrubs and 7.02 for trees (Fig. 8). And lowest value of forbs is recorded in Sengelimari RF with $R = 2.71$ followed by shrubs $R = 3.09$ and trees $R = 4.44$ (Fig. 8).

The SØrensen similarity index, which is used to measure the degree to which species composition is alike; the higher the value the greater similarity. The result index indicated a maximum similarity between Bhomoraguri RF and Balipara RF (60.87, 81.97 and 54.79% for grasses, shrubs and trees, respectivelly), and between Bhomoraguri RF and Sengelimari RF (37.93 and 54.55% for forbs and climbers) (Table 4). The maximum similarity for grasses (60.87%) was

recorded between Bhomoraguri and Balipara RFs, and the least (24.00%) was recorded between Bhomoraguri and Sengelimari RFs. For forbs, the maximum (37.93%) was recorded between Balipara and Sengelimari RFs, while the lowest (28.21%) was between Bhomoraguri and Balipara RFs. On the other hand, Sengelimari and Bhomoraguri RFs, recorded the maximum (57.14%) for climbers and lowest (31.58%) was between Bhomoraguri and Balipara RFs. Trees and shrubs recorded maximum between Bhomoraguri and Balipara, while the least was between Sengelimari and Bhomoraguri RFs (Table 4). Multivariance analysis (MANOVA) revealed variables results between forests. For instance, Pielous' evenness index was significant for grasses (F =23.038, $p = 0.000$), forbs (F =19.078, $p = 0.000$), shrubs (F = 6.84, $p = 0.002$), and tree (F = 8.149, $p = 0.001$), but insignificant for climbers $(F = 1.94, p = 0.163).$

3.6 Correlation analysis

Relationship between plant diversity from different plant categories (i.e., grasses, forbs, climbers, shrubs and tree) were determined using Pearson's correlation analysis. The degree of correlation ranged from weak positive and negative to relatively strong (Table 5). The results showed that diversity of forb species was negatively associated to tree species diversity for all the studies RFs (r = -50% for Sengelimari RF; r = -8% for Balipara RF; and r = -5% for Bhomoraguri RF). Similar trend was observed in the relationship between shrub species and tree species diversity ($r = -22\%$ for Sengelimari RF; $r = -13\%$ for Balipara RF; and, r = -18% for Bhomoraguri RF). These indicate that the tree species are inversely related to forbs and shrub and have a significant negative impact on their diversity. Thus, any increase in number of tree species lowers forbs and shrubs diversity. Furthermore, climber species diversity showed a negative correlation with grass species diversity (r = - 15%; r = -7%). On the other hand, grass species diversity exhibited a positive correlation with both

shrubs and tree diversity, with the coefficient value of 20%, 13% and 9% for tree diversity, and 35%, 47%, and 48% for shrubs, suggesting that grass species diversity

was affected with other factors rather than the diversity of tree or shrub species.

4. DISCUSSION

4.1 Floristic composition in reserve forests

The 204 plant species recorded in this study suggest that the RFs under investigation are potential habitats for rich biodiversity. However, an ever-increasing population and rapid urbanization are driving the demand for forest products, leading to biodiversity loss. The presence of grass species from the genus Aristida and Cenchrus, despite their low frequency and abundance, indicates that the ecosystem of the studied reserve forests is disturbed (Rubanza et al. 2006). Similarly, species like Ipomoea spp. and Sida spp. clearly indicate disturbed habitats, which may be caused by specific types of land degradation (Plate 1). In addition to ecological factors, the study observed several human-induced disturbances, such as

agriculture, grazing, fuel-wood collection, medicinal herb harvesting, and forest fires within the reserve forests (Plate 2). These activities have contributed to significant vegetation clearance and forest degradation. The high incidence of forest encroachment observed during field visits, particularly in Sengelimari RF, may have led to lower diversity, although this was not investigated in detail. Such activities likely contributed to the vegetation status documented in the studied forests. The investigation also found that valuable timber tree species have been harvested illegally to the extent that it was rare to encounter mature stems, especially in Sengelimari RF. Tree species like Shorea robusta Roth, Tectona grandis, Dillenia indica, and Bombax ceiba are under

threat, as evidenced by the presence of stumps, indicating illegal harvesting of stems.

Figure 6a: Top ten dominant grass species based on IVI values in Bhomoraguri RF (a), Balipara RF (b), and Sengelimari RF(c).

Figure 6b: Top ten dominant forb species based on IVI values in Bhomoraguri RF (a), Balipara RF (b), and Sengelimari RF(c

Figure 6c: Top dominant climber species based on IVI values in Bhomoraguri RF (a), Balipara RF (b), and Sengelimari RF(c).

Figure 6d: Top ten dominant shrub species based on IVI values in Bhomoraguri RF (a), Balipara RF (b), and Sengelimari RF(c).

The presence of species like *Chromolaena odorata*, a rapidly growing perennial herb that often acts as a creeper on other vegetation, may have contributed to the poor diversity of grasses and climbers in Bhomoraguri RF. Additionally, the dominance of herbaceous species such as *Hydrocotyle sibthorpioides* and *Cynodon dactylon* reflects their water-loving nature, as these forests frequently experience flooding, favoring the colonization and thriving of such species. Differences in floristic

composition from other reported data could be linked to various forms of anthropogenic activities. For instance, Gogoi and Sahoo (2018) reported that the growing population led to extensive exploitation of natural resources in the tropical rainforest of the eastern Himalayas (India), putting forest biodiversity under severe anthropogenic stress. Thus, proper policies should be implemented. Several scholars have recorded a similar number of species in different forest types. Deori and Talukdar (2015) recorded 159 species (37 climbers, 63 shrubs, and 49 trees) in Laokhowa Wildlife Sanctuary of Assam (India). Kar et al. (2019) recorded 144 species (21 grasses, 35 forbs, 34 climbers, 19 shrubs, and 35 trees) in Borail Wildlife Sanctuary of Assam (India). Gogoi and Sahoo (2018) recorded 129 species (24 forbs, 33 shrubs, and 72 trees) in Jeypore Forest of Assam (India). Borah (2020) recorded 37 herb species in Behali Forest, Assam. Bora et al. (2017) recorded 147 species (35 grasses and 112 trees) in Barail Wildlife Sanctuary. Dutta and Devi (2013) recorded 137 species (19 grasses, 34 shrubs, and 84 trees) in disturbed tropical forests (Doboka RF) of Assam, India. Sarkar and Devi (2014) recorded 98 species (23 shrubs and 75 trees) in Gibbon Wildlife Sanctuary, Assam (India). Sarmah and Borthakur (2009) recorded 602 species (51 grasses, 337 forbs, 21 climbers, 97 shrubs, and 96 trees) in Manas National Park of Assam, India. Similar observations were also reported by Kushwaha and Hazarika (2004).

Figure 6e: Top ten dominant tree species based on IVI in Bhomoraguri RF (a), Balipara RF (b), and Sengelimari RF(c).

Furthermore, Kushwaha and Nandy (2012) recorded 477 (230 forb, 113 shrub and 134 tree) species in Moist Sal forests of West Bengal (India). Furthermore, Nath et al. (2005) recorded a range of 14 to 27 and 18 to 50 for shrub and tree species, respectivelly in Tropical wet evergreen forests, Arunachal Pradesh, India, and Parthasarathy, (1999) recorded 114 tree species in Tropical wet evergreen forest of Western Ghat of India. Such studies have reported most of the plant species which are encountered in the present study like, Argyreia spp., Cynodon dactylon, and Brachiaria reptans as dominant, with relatively high density and frequency. The dominat species are

Cynodon dactylon., Imperata cylindrica, Brachiaria reptans, and Axonopus compressus for grasses; Datura stramonium, Chromolaena odorata, Alternanthera sessilis and Hydrocotyle sibthorpioides for forbs; Argyreia spp., Cissus rotundifolia and Clitoria ternatea for climbers; Lantana camara, Melastoma malabathricum, Glycosmis pentaphylla and Lawsonia inermis for shrubs; and Artocarpus heterophyllus, Bombax ceiba, Dalbergia sissoo, Duabanga grandiflora, Ficus hirta and Shorea robusta for trees. All these species have contributed to density in the present study.

Figure 7: Variability of Shannon-Wiener index (H') in Bhomoraguri RF, Balipara RF, and Sengelimari RF.

Based on the important value index (IVI), studies have reported dominant species that reflected the present study findings. Dutta and Devi (2013) recorded species such as Cynodon dactylon, Ophiuros megaphyllus, Maranta arundinacea, Curcuma amada, Cyperus rotundus, Commelina benghalensis, had relatively high IVI values in Doboka Reserve Forest. Shameem et al. 2010, on the other hand, reported species like Bothriochloa pertusa, C. dactylon, and Stipa sibirica as dominant grasses; while Salvia moorcroftiana, Fragaria nubicola., Galinsoga parviflora and Viola indica as dominant forbs. Furthermore, herbaceous species like Stellaria media, Cynodon dactylon, Persicaria strigosa, Thunbergia grandiflora, Ipomoea cheirophylla, Argyreia nervosa and Ipomoea purpurea were recorded by Kar et al. (2019) in Borail Wildlife sanctuary. The high IVI values and dominant species in Balipara RF such as Dillenia indica (7.94), Sterculia villosa (8.11), Eugenia orbiculate (8.42), Senna siamea (8.83), Altingia excelsa (10.63), Mimusops elengi (11.49), Pterospermum acerifolium (11.78), Kayea floribunda (16.22), Syzygium cumini (19.26), Ficus hirta (19.63), Shorea robusta (60.71) and Lagerstroemia speciosa (12) indicate that these species have more competitive ability to survive and out compete with other tree species. It might also be because of more structural quality through which they can suppress others.

Additionally, such species may have better ability to uptake the soil nutrients than others. On the other hand, species like Smilax ovalifolia, Lantana camara and Piper betle are highly resistant and exhibited weed characteristics which increased their dominance and frequency (Naveenkumar et al. 2017). Such species have established themselves as a renowned plant that suppresses the establishment and development of other understory species. Furthermore, Lantana camara is a frequent noxious species in the dry and damp forests (Gogoi and Sahoo 2018; Naveenkumar et al. 2017). It is an aggressive colonizer, especially near forest borders and disturbed ecosystems.

4.2 Density and basal area

The great number of individual ha-1 in the present study was recorded highest in herbs than others plant life forms. Among the herbs; forbs recorded the highest density in Bhomoraguri RF, Balipara RF, and Sengelimari RF. Results on basal area on the other hand, varied significantly for studies plants. For instance, the great trees density and basal area recorded in Bhomoraguri and Balipara RF as compared to Sengelimari RF, could be ascribed by presence of forest security point in Bhomoraguri RF and Balipara RF. This vigilance of forest staff could have reduced people's movement in and out of these forests

compared to Sengelimari RF. The domination of some plant species like Tectona grandis and Shorea robusta, is linked to strategic conservation management by forest department in these RFs, which involves special plantation. The findings from the present study are also comparable to data reported by other scholars from different forest types of India. For instance, Dutta and Devi (2013) recorded a range of 130500 to 237100 individual ha-1 for forbs, 3168 to 5928 individual ha-1 for shrubs, and 138 to 736 individual ha-1 for trees, in Doboka Forest, Gogoi and Sahoo (2018) in Jeypore (36500-16600, 2680-8680 and 235645 ha-1 for herbs, shrubs and trees, respectively. Other reported data with similar trend includes that of Nohro and Jayakumar (2020) (552.8 ha-1 for trees) in Wetland Forest (India); Nath et al. (2005) (69600- 254333, 3080-13280 and 34-610 density ha-1 for herbs, shrubs and trees, respectively) in Tropical wet evergreen forests, Arunachal Pradesh (India); Kushwaha and Nandy (2012) (438 density ha-1 for tree); Parthasarathy (1999) (575-855 density ha-1 for trees) in Tropical wet evergreen forest of Western Ghat, India.

Figure 8: Pielou evenness index (A), Whitford index (B) and Margalef species richness index (C) in Bhomoraguri RF, Balipara RF, and Sengerimari RF.

Results on basal area (m2 ha-1) on the other hand, varied significantly. These results were within the data reported by other scholars from different forest types of India. For example, Kushwaha and Nandy (2012) recorded a basal are of 56.52 m2 ha-1 for tree; Nath et al. (2005) recorded a range of 0.63 to 3.77 m2 ha-1 for shrubs, and 7.81 to 98.58 m2ha-1 for tree species in Tropical wet evergreen forests of Arunachal Pradesh (India); Gogoi and Sahoo, (2018) recorded a range of 0.6 to 2.4 m2 ha-1 for shrubs, and 19.55- 108.02 m2 ha-1 for trees, in Jeypore RF. The findings from the present study, reflects the general characteristics of most tropical dry forests of India. However, the differences in terms of individuals ha-1 and basal area (m2 ha-1) of the present results, when compared from other reported data could be due to

different in forest types, and maturation as well as the levels of anthropogenic activities. The high level of human intrusion observed requires a quick reaction; otherwise, they may convert these RFs into other land

use system. Special attention should be given to Sengelimari RF, which is spontaneously become a treeless forest and soon will be a history.

Aristida **spp. (A),** *Cenchrus ciliaris* **L. (B***), Ipomoea cheirophylla* **O'Donell (C),** *Sida acuta* **Burm.f. (D),** *Smilax ovalifolia* **Roxb. ex D. Don (E),** *Piper betle* **L. (F),** *Lantana camara* **L. (G), and** *Chromolaena odorata* **(L.) R.M.King & H.Rob.(H).**

Figure 9: Species that indicate disturbed ecosystems (A, B, C, and D), and those that exhibits weed characteristics (E, F, G, and H) recorded in RFs.

Forest fire observed in Balipara RF (A), Trespass observed in Bhomoraguri RF (B), Bundles of firewood seen in the borders of Bhomoraguri RF (C), Tree stump observed in Sengelimari RF (D), Small scale rice field (farms) observed in Sengelimari RF (E), and harvesting of cultivated crops observed in Balipara RF (F).

Figure 10: Observed anthropogenic activities in studied RFs.

4.3 Analysis of diversity indices

Although results on species diversity varied significantly between plant life form and forests. However, the analysis of diversity indices illustrated a promising floristic diversity in the studied reserve forests. Shannon index (H') and Simpson diversity index (CD) were used to determine diversity and richness of a species present in the studied forests.

Higher values of H' indicate diverse and equally distributed community, and lower values represent less diverse community. Simpson diversity index (CD) on the other hand, the lower CD values represent higher diversity (Giri et al. 2019). Whitford index (WI) which is the ratio of abundance and frequency ratio (A/F) was used to assess the distribution pattern of species, while Pielou evenness index assessed species evenness. The high Shannon index (H') values for forbs in Bhomoraguri RF (3.34, dominated by Tectona grandis) and in Balipara RF (3.13, dominated by Shorea robusta) indicates that, the dominant tree species have less suppressing power on understory species. They provide an excellent opportunity for other plant species to coexist and populate the habitat. The present study's findings revealed a reasonably high flora species diversity that differed considerably (p < 0.05). Forb species showed a significantly higher diversity in all the studied RFs. Such results imply a relatively promising vegetation coverage in the studied RFs, which was within the range of 1.85 to 5.68 reported from other India's forests (Dibaba et al. 2019; Raha et al. 2020). For example, Nohro and Jayakumar (2020) reported Shannon index values of 3.73; Gogoi and Sahoo (2018) reported a range of 2.44 to 3.37; Dutta and Devi (2013) in Doboka Reserve Forest, recorded a range of 2.02 to 2.43; Karki et al. (2016) recorded a range of 2.65 to 3.47 in Central Himalaya Forest of Assam (India); Kushwaha and Nandy (2012) recorded (H' = 3.08-3.10); and Deori and Talukdar (2015) (H' = 3.61-4.01). Anthropogenic activities were the mostly reported factors which affected plant diversity (Begum et al. 2011; Konwar et al. 2009; Sumita et al. 2015). The indiscriminate felling of the species coupled with poor regeneration is likely to cause species to be vulnerable to extinction.

Species distribution patterns varied between forests, in Bhomoraguri RF (0.84-9.76), Balipara (0.89-14.62) and Sengelimari RF (0.84-6.18). The calculated values fall within the contagious categories of species distribution pattern, suggesting that the studied forests exhibit contagious patterns to all plant life forms. Pielous' evenness index (J), on the other hand, varied between forests in Bhomoraguri RF (0.72-0.93), Balipara (0.72-0.94) and Sengelimari RF (0.83-0.94). The Margalef index which justifies effective number of species in a particular habitat, differed between forest and plant life forms. In Bhomoraguri RF (1.25-4.7), Balipara (1.3-7.2) and Sengelimari RF (1.6-4.44). The

Whitford index revealed that most of the species were contagiously distributed, suggesting that species in the studied forests performed contagious pattern of distribution. The domination of contagious distribution may be due to the fact that the majority of species reproduce vegetatively in addition to their sexuality (Shameem et al. 2010). An abundance of species on the other hand, increased proportionately with the value of Margalef index. The results suggested for the number of effective species in the studied forests. For instance, despite large number of tree species ($n = 42$) in Balipara RF, only 6 species namely Shorea robusta Roth, Syzygium cumini, Ficus hirta, Lagerstroemia speciosa, Altingia excelsa and Kayea floribunda were dominating more effectively in the entire ecosystem. These findings are comparable with the data reported by Gogoi and Sahoo (2018) (1.63-2.92 for herbs, 2.2-3.27 for shrubs, and 4.67- 10.91 for tree) in Jeypore reserve forest of Assam, India.

4 CONCLUSION

Understanding species distribution, structure, and diversity patterns in reserve forests is essential for their effective planning, management, and sustainable use. The present study highlighted that reserve forests are potential biodiversity centers and play a significant role in floristic composition. However, the presence of species from the genus Aristida and Cenchrus, which are typically good indicators of disturbed ecosystems, suggests specific types of land degradation, mainly due to anthropogenic activities. The distribution of these species may have been accelerated by human encroachment. Therefore, immediate action is required; otherwise, these forests may be converted to other land uses. If the appropriate authorities do not take action, even the notable recorded forest biodiversity may become stressed by human activities.

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Authors' contributions

All authors contributed equally to this work: Gisandu K. Malunguja drafted the manuscript, conducted fieldwork, collected data, analyzed and interpreted the results, and compiled the findings. Ashalata Devi supervised the study, analyzed data, corrected errors, typeset the text, and assisted with fieldwork-related materials.

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