

# Inventory and Spatial Distribution of Trees In Eleme Local Government Area, Port Harcourt

## ABSTRACT

Urban trees provide a wide range of environmental, economic and social benefits to those that live and work within and outside the community. Urban forest assessments are essential in supporting urban forest management and planning to improve environmental quality and human health in cities. The study aims at carrying out inventory of urban trees in Eleme Local Government Area (Apkajo) Port Harcourt Nigeria, The study area were divided into 3 categories (Academic, Residential and Religious). Total enumerations of trees in these categories were done which comprises tree identification and measurement while remote sensing technique was used to determine spatial distribution of trees and their land surface temperature. Growth parameters measured and estimated includes total height (THT), crown diameter (CD), crown projection area (CPA), slenderness coefficient (SC) Merchantable area (MCH). Total number of twenty seven (27) different species was identified from a sample population of one hundred and eighty five (185) trees. Species identified includes *Mangifera indica*, *Dacryodes edulis*, *Terminalia mantaly*, *Azadirchta indica*, *Newbouldia laevis*, *Persea americana*, *Polyalthia longifolia*, *Terminalia catappa* e.t.c. some benefits derived from the urban trees in study included medicinal, food security, income generation, beautification and micro-climate purposes. Among the species, *Mangifera indica* was the most abundant with a frequency of 47 trees. The result reveals that trees found in academic areas consistently gave higher mean tree growth variable values. Biodiversity was highest in residential areas with a Shannon index of 2.54 and Simpsons index of 0.88. Spatial distribution pattern shows that most tree species are clustered around the residential areas than the religious and academic areas. It was also observed that the trees moderate the land surface temperature by reducing temperature beneath it. The high species richness and diversity in residential areas, despite its high infrastructural development, showed that infrastructural development in the city did not negatively affect its biodiversity conservation potential.

*Keywords: [Biodiversity, Environment, Inventory, Temperature, Spatial]*

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Around the globe, there is an unprecedented increase in urbanization which has led to economic and environmental challenges. The United Nations report (2020) states that with the current escalation of urbanization, the gradual shift of population concentration from rural areas to urban areas, the rapid growth of population and the number of people inhabiting urban areas could increase by 2.5 billion. Africa and Asia is expected to be involved with 96% of this increase. Although developing countries have enjoyed positive impact of urbanization, its process has also lead to socioeconomic issues (Zhang and Li, 2020), health-related threats (Lu *et al.*, 2021; Shao *et al.*, 2022), and, most importantly, the negative effect on the sustainability of the environment (Liu *et al* 2019; Zhang *et al* 2021).

Urbanization combined with the threat from climate change can cause significant risk on both physical and social environment leading to urban heat island (UHI). According to Santamouris (2015) UHI can be describe as local-scale heat temperature differences between urban and rural areas. Memon *et al.* (2009), stated that the intensity of the UHI is the simplest and most quantitative indicator of the thermal changes forced by the city's land use/land cover (LULC) on the region in which the UHI is identified and of its relative warming to the neighboring rural environment.

Urban vegetation, particularly trees, provides numerous benefits that can improve environmental quality and human health in and around urban areas. Trees are a common but decreasing sight within urban areas. Trees have been part of the urban landscape for many centuries. There are areas in the urban environment with larger numbers of trees than others depending on availability of land for tree planting which in turn reduces the potential canopy cover. Urban forest structure such as tree species, number, tree canopy cover, height, health, composition, tree size, location, health, influences the extent to which land use can provide ecosystem services which in turns can provide useful information for estimating trees' structural characteristics such as leaf biomass and total leaf area, and quantifying multiple ecosystem services and forest functions (Nowak *et al.*, 2008).

Urban tree inventories are powerful management and planning tools that collect accurate information on individual trees planted in cities (Nielsen *et al.*, 2014). These inventories can aid in the management and planning of urban trees (Morgenroth *et al.*, 2016; Roman *et al.*, 2020), which is crucial to assess tree mortality, growth and performance of decision-making in urban greening programs and species selection

## 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

### 2.1 Study Area

This research was carried out in Akpajo community of Eleme- Local Government of Rivers state. It has a longitude of 7.1437N and latitude of 4.7874E. Eleme is one of the 23 Local Government Areas of Rivers State and amongst the 13 federal constituencies representing River State in Nigeria's National Assembly and part of the Rivers East Senatorial District. There are 10 political wards and 10 Clan that make up Eleme local government, which include Ogale, Akpajo, Alode, Ebubu, Onne, Eteo, Alesa, Ekporo, Agbonchia and Aleto (fig 1).

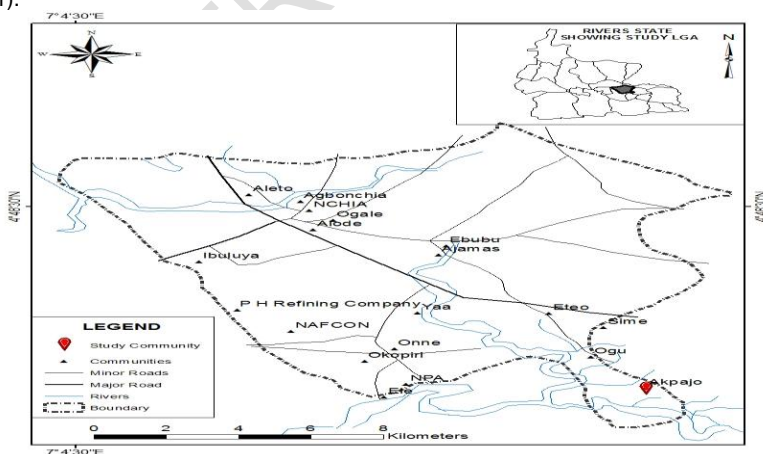


Fig 1: Eleme Local Government showing Akpajo community

## 2.2 Sample and Sampling Techniques

Reconnaissance inventory was carried out in this study in order to achieve an exploratory primary investigation of the tree population and the necessary information at the study area. The study area was categorized into residential, religious and academic. Trees in the selected categories were enumerated.

## 2.3 Instrument for data collection

The instruments that were used for this study are Haga Altimeter (Height), Gps (coordinate), measurement tape and 3m stable stick used to take the Diameter at Breast Height (DBH), Field note (Used to record the rough data that was collected from the field).

## 2.4 Data Collection

In this studies, field survey with direct manual measurements and visual inspection were used for tree identification and growth variable measurement while remote sensing technique was used in determining under tree —land surface temperature and spatial distribution of the trees.

## 2.4 Data Analysis

Data were processed into usable form before analysis as done, Data processing includes the following.

Slenderness coefficient (SLC) was calculated using the formula

$$SLC = \frac{H(m)}{DBH(m)} \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

Where:

H = Tree height

DBH = Diameter at breast height

Crown projection area (CPA) was estimated using the formula

$$CPA = \frac{\pi(CD^2)}{4} \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

Where:

CPA = Crown Projection Area (m<sup>2</sup>)

CD = Crown Diameter (m)

The processed data were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Completely Randomized Design (CRD) was used to test significant difference among the study areas and (LSD) was used to separate the means, correlation analysis was used to determine the level of association among the growth variables. Arc GIS was used to determine the land surface temperature beneath trees.

## 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

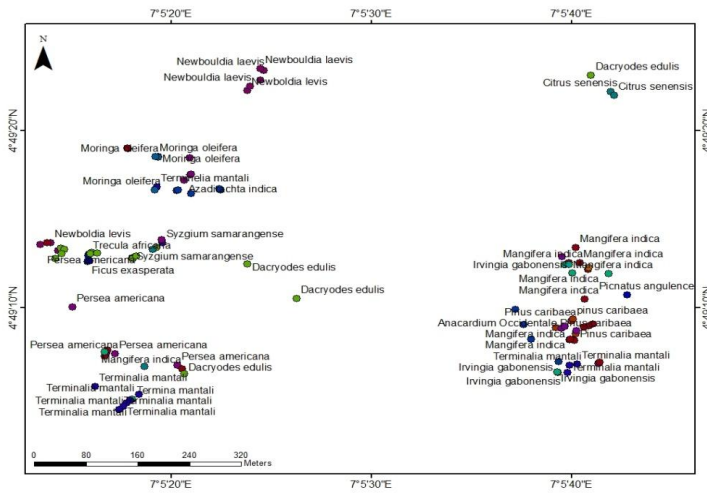
### 3.1 Results

#### 3.1.1 Urban Trees Identification and their usefulness

A total of twenty-seven (27) species and their GPS locations were identified across the residential, academic and religious areas at Akpajo Eleme with a total sample population of 185 trees (Table 1). These urban trees serve as a source of food, medicine, shade and aesthetic to their environs. Among the species, *Mangifera indica* was the most abundant with a frequency of 47 trees and *Dacryodes edulis* followed with 17 trees. Other notable species identified include *Terminalia mantaly* (12), *Azadirachta indica* (11), *Newbouldia laevis* (9), *Persea americana* (9), *Polyalthia longifolia* (9) and *Terminalia catappa* (9). Species with single occurrences observed consists of *Psidium guajava*, *Treculia Africana*, *Eucalyptus spp.*, and *Acacia auriculiformis*.

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**Fig 2: Study area showing the Trees under study**

From the analysis which was carried out in the arc GIS environment, it was revealed that there is no special pattern of tree planting though from the observation every land form indicated high preference for green cultivation (fig 2).

**Table 1: Urban Trees in Residential, Religious and Academic Areas of Akpajo Eleme**

| S/N          | Species                          | Common name        | Family        | N          | Uses                |
|--------------|----------------------------------|--------------------|---------------|------------|---------------------|
| 1            | <i>Anacardium occidentale</i>    | Cashew             | Anacardiaceae | 5          | Food                |
| 2            | <i>Annona muricata</i>           | Soursop            | Annonaceae    | 2          | Food                |
| 3            | <i>Artocarpus heterophyllus</i>  | Jackfruit          | Moraceae      | 3          | Food                |
| 4            | <i>Azadirachta indica</i>        | Neem               | Meliaceae     | 11         | Medicine, shade     |
| 5            | <i>Casuarina equisetifolia</i>   | She-oak            | Casuarinaceae | 4          | Aesthetics          |
| 6            | <i>Chrysophyllum albidum</i>     | African star apple | Sapotaceae    | 3          | Food                |
| 7            | <i>Citrus sinensis</i>           | Orange             | Rutaceae      | 8          | Food                |
| 8            | <i>Dacryodes edulis</i>          | African pear       | Burseraceae   | 17         | Food                |
| 9            | <i>Delonix regia</i>             | Flamboyant tree    | Fabaceae      | 2          | Aesthetics, shade   |
| 10           | <i>Ficus exasperata</i>          | Sandpaper          | Moraceae      | 3          | Medicinal           |
| 11           | <i>Hura crepitans</i>            | Sandbox tree       | Euphorbiaceae | 2          | Aesthetic           |
| 12           | <i>Irvingia gabonensis</i>       | Wild/bush mango    | Irvingiaceae  | 7          | Food                |
| 13           | <i>Syzygium samarangense</i>     | Local apple        | Myrtaceae     | 2          | Food                |
| 14           | <i>Mangifera indica</i>          | Mango              | Anacardiaceae | 47         | Food, shade         |
| 15           | <i>Moringa oleifera</i>          | Moringa            | Moringaceae   | 4          | Medicinal           |
| 16           | <i>Newbouldia laevis</i>         | Boundary tree      | Bignoniaceae  | 9          | Aesthetic, boundary |
| 17           | <i>Persea americana</i>          | Avocado, Pear      | Lauraceae     | 9          | Food                |
| 18           | <i>Picnatus angolence</i>        | African nutmeg     | Myristicaceae | 2          | Food, medicinal     |
| 19           | <i>Pinus caribaea</i>            | Pine               | Pinaceae      | 4          | Aesthetic           |
| 20           | <i>Polyalthia longifolia</i>     | Masquerade tree    | Annonaceae    | 9          | Aesthetic           |
| 21           | <i>Psidium guajava</i>           | Guava              | Myrtaceae     | 1          | Food                |
| 22           | <i>Pterocarpus santalinoides</i> | Gbengbe/Nturukpa   | Fabaceae      | 7          | Medicinal, food     |
| 23           | <i>Terminalia catappa</i>        | Almond             | Combretaceae  | 9          | Food, shade         |
| 24           | <i>Terminalia mantaly</i>        | Umbrella tree      | Combretaceae  | 12         | Aesthetic, shade    |
| 25           | <i>Treculia africana</i>         | Bread fruit        | Moraceae      | 1          | Food                |
| 26           | <i>Eucalyptus spp.</i>           | -                  | Myrtaceae     | 1          | Aesthetic, medicine |
| 27           | <i>Acacia auriculiformis</i>     | Acacia             | Fabaceae      | 1          | Aesthetic, shade    |
| <b>Total</b> |                                  |                    |               | <b>185</b> |                     |

N = Frequency of occurrence

### 3.1.2 Tree growth variable Analysis in Selected Urban Areas

Tree growth variables such as height, diameter at breast height, crown height, crown diameter, merchantable height, bole height, slenderness coefficient and crown projection area, as well as their mean comparison across the study areas surveyed are presented in Table 2. The result reveals that mean height ( $14.30 \pm 2.50\text{m}$ ), diameter at breast height ( $0.41 \pm 0.20\text{m}$ ), crown diameter ( $5.25 \pm 1.80\text{m}$ ), merchantable height ( $9.84 \pm 2.10\text{m}$ ) and crown projection area ( $24.18 \pm 15.55\text{m}^2$ ) were found to be the highest in academic areas. Tree height was significantly higher in academic area than residential ( $12.83 \pm 2.01\text{m}$ ) and religious ( $12.93 \pm 2.43\text{m}$ ) areas. Average diameter at breast height (DBH), crown diameter (CD) and crown projection area (CPA) of trees in academic area were statistically similar to those of residential areas ( $0.35 \pm 0.16\text{m}$ ;  $4.85 \pm 1.47\text{m}$ ;  $20.14 \pm 11.75\text{m}^2$ ) but different from mean in religious areas ( $0.28 \pm 0.12\text{m}$ ;  $3.70 \pm 1.49\text{m}$ ;  $12.35 \pm 8.44\text{m}^2$ ). There was no significant difference observed in the mean crown. Average crown projection area was highest in academic area ( $24.18 \pm 15.55\text{m}^2$ ) which was statistically similar with the mean of residential areas ( $20.14 \pm 11.75\text{m}^2$ ) but both are statistically different from religious areas ( $12.35 \pm 8.44\text{m}^2$ ). Total crown cover for academic was  $1886.04\text{m}^2$  while residential accumulated to  $1852.45\text{m}^2$  and religious areas was  $185.23\text{m}^2$ . Minimum and maximum crown projection area was  $1.09\text{m}^2$  and  $49.53\text{m}^2$ ,  $2.19\text{m}^2$  and  $67.23\text{m}^2$ , and  $1.13\text{m}^2$  and  $28.10\text{m}^2$  for residential, academic and religious areas respectively (Table 2).

**Table 2: Means comparison of the parameters measured in the study areas (Mean±SD)**

| Variables | Residence                 | Academic                 | Religion                  |
|-----------|---------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|
| H (m)     | 12.83±2.01 <sup>b</sup>   | 14.30±2.50 <sup>a</sup>  | 12.93±2.43 <sup>b</sup>   |
| DBH (m)   | 0.35±0.16 <sup>ab</sup>   | 0.41±0.20 <sup>a</sup>   | 0.28±0.12 <sup>b</sup>    |
| CH (m)    | 4.61±1.56 <sup>b</sup>    | 4.50±0.88 <sup>b</sup>   | 4.27±0.68 <sup>b</sup>    |
| CD (m)    | 4.85±1.47 <sup>a</sup>    | 5.25±1.80 <sup>a</sup>   | 3.70±1.49 <sup>b</sup>    |
| MCH (m)   | 8.12±1.79 <sup>b</sup>    | 9.84±2.10 <sup>a</sup>   | 8.67±2.07 <sup>b</sup>    |
| BH (m)    | 2.40±0.89 <sup>a</sup>    | 2.21±0.51 <sup>a</sup>   | 2.17±0.41 <sup>a</sup>    |
| SLC       | 44.00±19.30 <sup>ab</sup> | 44.23±24.96 <sup>b</sup> | 51.01±12.25 <sup>ab</sup> |
| CPA       | 20.14±11.75 <sup>a</sup>  | 24.18±15.55 <sup>a</sup> | 12.35±8.44 <sup>b</sup>   |

Mean with same alphabet are not significantly different at  $\alpha_{0.05}$

### 3.1.3 Relationship between Tree Growth Variable of Urban Trees

Tree height has a moderate positive relationship with DBH (0.517), CH (0.493), CD (0.506) BH (0.442) and CPA (0.542), while it exhibited a strong positive relationship with merchantable height (0.888) (Table 3). It can also be seen from the table that DBH has a weak positive relationship with CH (0.284) and BH (0.283), moderate positive relationship with CD (0.614), MCH (0.423) and CPA (0.644), and a strong negative relationship with SLC (-0.799). Crown height showed a strong positive relationship with BH (0.925). The relationship between crown diameter and CPA is strongly and positive correlated (0.980) while slenderness coefficient is negatively correlated with CH (-0.168), CD (-0.448), BH (-0.191) and CPA (-0.445) (table 3).

**Table 3: Pearson's Correlation between Tree Growth Variables of Trees in Residential, Religious and Academic Areas of Akpajo Eleme**

|                           | H (m)   | DBH (m)  | CH (m)  | CD (m)   | MCH (m) | BH (m)   | SLC      | CPA (m <sup>2</sup> ) |
|---------------------------|---------|----------|---------|----------|---------|----------|----------|-----------------------|
| <b>H(m)</b>               | 1       |          |         |          |         |          |          |                       |
| <b>DBH(m)</b>             | 0.517** | 1        |         |          |         |          |          |                       |
| <b>CH(m)</b>              | 0.493** | 0.284**  | 1       |          |         |          |          |                       |
| <b>CD(m)</b>              | 0.506** | 0.614**  | 0.286** | 1        |         |          |          |                       |
| <b>MCH(m)</b>             | 0.888** | 0.423**  | 0.091   | 0.428**  | 1       |          |          |                       |
| <b>BH(m)</b>              | 0.442** | 0.283**  | 0.925** | 0.291**  | 0.07    | 1        |          |                       |
| <b>SLC</b>                | -0.128  | -0.799** | -0.168* | -0.448** | -0.038  | -0.191** | 1        |                       |
| <b>CPA(m<sup>2</sup>)</b> | 0.542** | 0.644**  | 0.275** | 0.980**  | 0.468** | 0.280**  | -0.445** | 1                     |

\*\*Significant at 0.01 level, \*Significant at 0.05 level, N = 185; H = Height; DBH = Diameter at breast height; CH = Crown height; CD = Crown diameter; MCH = Merchantable height; BH = Bole height; SLC = Slenderness coefficient; CPA = Crown projection area

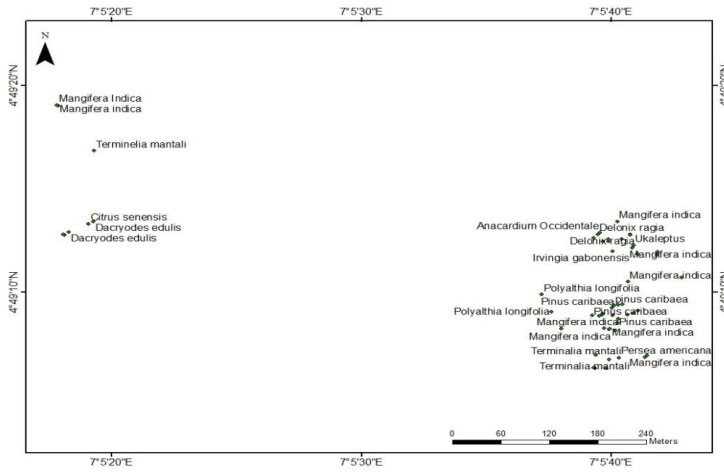
### 3.1.4 Biodiversity Analysis of Urban Trees in the study areas

In terms of species richness, academic area is the richest with 20 species followed by residential area which has 16 species and religious areas consist of only 3 species among the study areas (fig 3, 4 and 5). The result reveals that the academic area had a species abundance of 78 (42.2%), the residential areas had population of 92 (49.7%), while religious area had 15 (8.1%) trees. Biodiversity was highest in residential areas with a Shannon index of 2.54 and Simpsons index of 0.88. This was closely followed by academic areas with Shannon index of 2.35 and Simpsons index of 0.87 while the religious area was the least diverse community with Shannon index of 1.05 and Simpsons index of 0.64. With a Sorensen's similarity index of 0.5, the residential and academic area share a moderate similarity, while the residential and religious as well as academic and religious have a low similarity index of 0.21 and 0.09 respectively (Table 4.).

**Table 4: Biodiversity Indices of Urban Trees in Residential, Religious and Academic Areas of Akpajo Eleme**

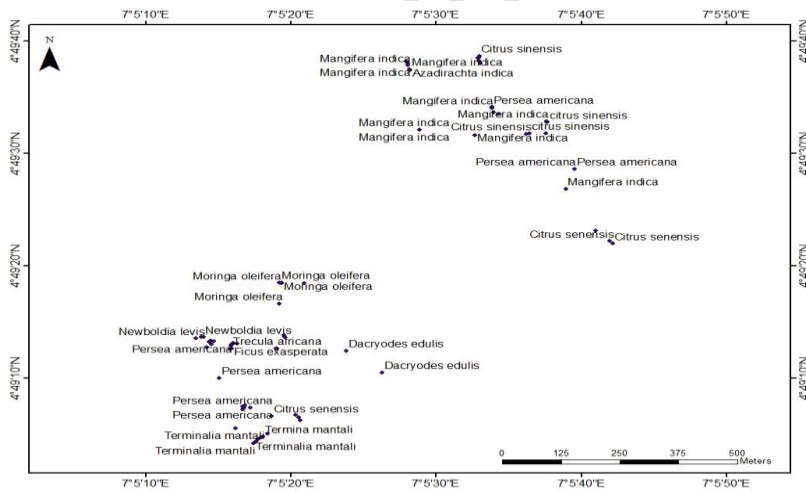
| <b>Species</b>                        | <b>Residential</b> | <b>Academic</b> | <b>Religious</b> |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------|-----------------|------------------|
| <i>Anacardium occidentale</i>         | 1                  | 4               | 0                |
| <i>Annona muricata</i>                | 0                  | 2               | 0                |
| <i>Artocarpus heterophyllus</i>       | 0                  | 3               | 0                |
| <i>Azadirachta indica</i>             | 8                  | 0               | 3                |
| <i>Casuarina equisetifolia</i>        | 0                  | 4               | 0                |
| <i>Chrysophyllum albidium</i>         | 3                  | 0               | 0                |
| <i>Citrus sinensis</i>                | 7                  | 1               | 0                |
| <i>Dacryodes edulis</i>               | 11                 | 6               | 0                |
| <i>Delonix regia</i>                  | 0                  | 2               | 0                |
| <i>Ficus exasperata</i>               | 3                  | 0               | 0                |
| <i>Hura crepitans</i>                 | 1                  | 1               | 0                |
| <i>Irvingia gabonensis</i>            | 0                  | 7               | 0                |
| <i>Syzygium samarangense</i>          | 1                  | 1               | 0                |
| <i>Mangifera indica</i>               | 25                 | 22              | 0                |
| <i>Moringa oleifera</i>               | 4                  | 0               | 0                |
| <i>Newbouldia laevis</i>              | 3                  | 0               | 6                |
| <i>Persea americana</i>               | 8                  | 1               | 0                |
| <i>Picnatus angulence</i>             | 0                  | 2               | 0                |
| <i>Pinus caribaea</i>                 | 0                  | 4               | 0                |
| <i>Polyalthia longifolia</i>          | 0                  | 3               | 6                |
| <i>Psidium guajava</i>                | 0                  | 1               | 0                |
| <i>Pterocarpus santalinoides</i>      | 7                  | 0               | 0                |
| <i>Terminalia catappa</i>             | 1                  | 8               | 0                |
| <i>Terminalia mantaly</i>             | 8                  | 4               | 0                |
| <i>Treculia africana</i>              | 1                  | 0               | 0                |
| <i>Eucalyptus spp.</i>                | 0                  | 1               | 0                |
| <i>Acacia auriculiformis</i>          | 0                  | 1               | 0                |
| <b>Species Richness</b>               | <b>16</b>          | <b>20</b>       | <b>3</b>         |
| <b>Species Abundance</b>              | <b>92</b>          | <b>78</b>       | <b>15</b>        |
| <b>Species Relative Abundance (%)</b> | <b>49.7</b>        | <b>42.2</b>     | <b>8.1</b>       |
| <b>Shannon Diversity Index</b>        | <b>2.54</b>        | <b>2.35</b>     | <b>1.05</b>      |
| <b>Simpsons Diversity Index</b>       | <b>0.88</b>        | <b>0.87</b>     | <b>0.64</b>      |
| <b>Sorensen's Similarity:</b>         |                    |                 |                  |
| Residential                           | 1                  |                 |                  |
| Academic                              | <b>0.50</b>        | 1               |                  |
| Religious                             | <b>0.21</b>        | <b>0.09</b>     | 1                |

In the academic area, species such as *Mangifera indica*, *Terminalia cattappa* were found there. The preference of these tree may be primarily because of shade and wind break and as such has been conserved (Fig 3)



**Fig 3: Biodiversity of Urban Trees in Academic Land use**

It was observed that there was a form of diversity in the residential area on the choices of tree species. This diversity may have been influenced by individual diversity in terms of belief, language, religion e.t.c. *Mangifera indica*, *Dacryodes edulis*, *Citrus sinensis* were dominant in residential areas. Also some trees species such as *Moringa oleifera* and *Azadirachta indica* were found based on their medicinal values (Fig 4).



**Fig 4: Biodiversity of Urban Trees in Residential Land use**

In religious area, *Newboldia laevis* was prominent based on the spiritual belief associated with the species. Other species such as *Polyalthia longifolia* and *Azadirachta indica* were also found based on their aesthetic and shade value (Fig 5)

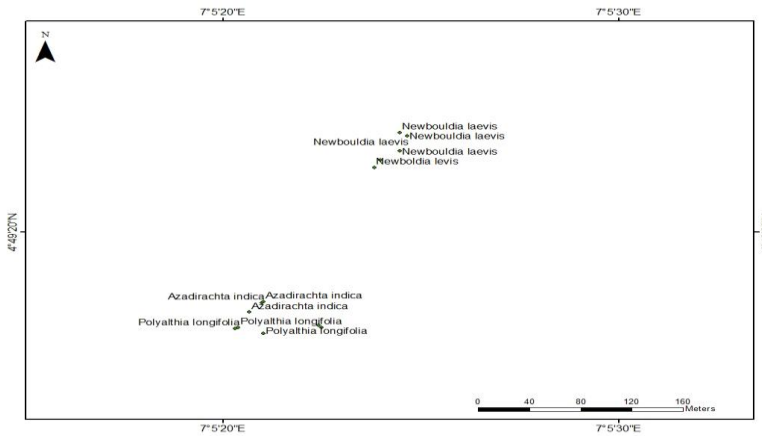


Fig 5: Biodiversity of Urban Trees in Religious Land use

### 3.15 Spatial distribution of urban trees in Akpajo community

The distribution of trees in residential, religious and academic area of Akpajo community and its land surface temperature is shown in fig 6 and 7. The spatial distribution of trees did not follow a special pattern. The residential area had a higher spread of tree species compared to religious and academic area (Fig 6).

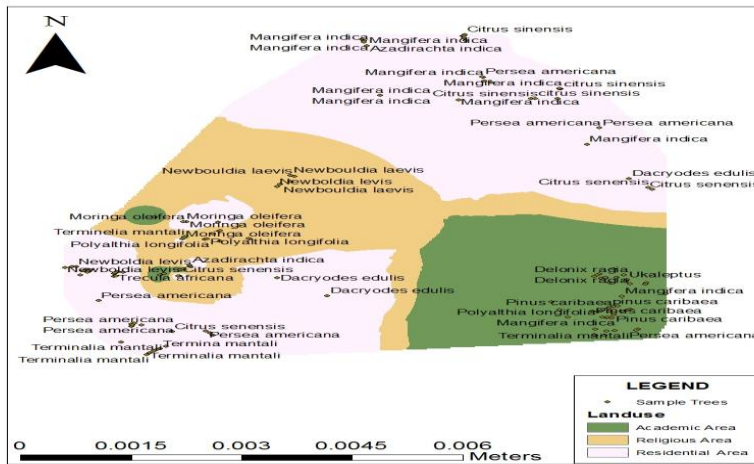
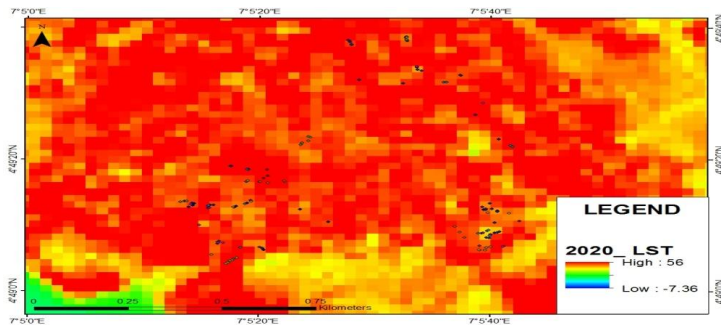


Fig 6: spatial spread of Tree species by land use (Residential, Religious and Academic)

From the analysis, it was observed that there was general high level of temperature across the study area as shown by the red colour as indicated by the legend (Fig 7). the dots across the image represent the sampled trees. From the image analysis, there is obvious change in the colour spatial displayed indicating a decrease in temperature over space (Fig 7).



**Fig 7: Spatial trend of Undercover Land surface temperature**

Result on land surface temperature beneath tree species further buttress the role of tree in temperature reduction. Land surface temperature beneath tree varies with species. The land surface temperature recorded includes *Polyalthia longifolia* (25.3), *Anacardium occidentale* (18.6), *Anzadirachta indica* (21.1) *Dacryodes edulis* (17.8) e.t.c. (table 5)

**Table 5: Average land surface temperature of studied species**

| Species                          | Average |
|----------------------------------|---------|
| <i>Anacardium occidentale</i>    | 18.6    |
| <i>Annona muricata</i>           | 18.6    |
| <i>Artocarpus heterophyllus</i>  | 18.1    |
| <i>Anzadirachta indica</i>       | 21.1    |
| <i>Casuarina equisetifolia</i>   | 17.5    |
| <i>Chrysophyllum albidium</i>    | 18.5    |
| <i>Citrus sinensis</i>           | 17.9    |
| <i>Dacryodes edulis</i>          | 17.8    |
| <i>Delonix regia</i>             | 17.4    |
| <i>Ficus exasperata</i>          | 23.4    |
| <i>Hura crepitans</i>            | 13.6    |
| <i>Irvingia gabonensis</i>       | 18.3    |
| <i>Syzygium samarangense</i>     | 17.8    |
| <i>Mangifera indica</i>          | 17.1    |
| <i>Moringa oleifera</i>          | 19.7    |
| <i>Newbouldia laevis</i>         | 18.5    |
| <i>Persea americana</i>          | 18.4    |
| <i>Picnatus angulence</i>        | 15.5    |
| <i>Pinus caribaea</i>            | 16.6    |
| <i>Polyalthia longifolia</i>     | 25.3    |
| <i>Psidium guajava</i>           | 11.8    |
| <i>Pterocarpus santalinoides</i> | 19.1    |
| <i>Terminalia catappa</i>        | 18.1    |
| <i>Terminalia mantaly</i>        | 21.1    |
| <i>Treulia africana</i>          | 23.1    |
| <i>Eucalyptus spp.</i>           | 17      |
| <i>Acacia auriculiformis</i>     | 15.8    |

### 3.2 DISCUSSION

#### 3.2.1 Urban tree Identification

Trees grown in the study areas are valuable municipal resources, they provide tangible and intangible benefits for different reasons. Literature has shown that the types and distribution

of trees in an urban environment are usually uneven (Handley *et al.*, 2000). Though Alvey (2006) reported that, traditionally, urban forest areas have been regarded as locations of low biodiversity that are dominated by nonnative species; evidence from this study as well as those from published information reveals that urban and suburban areas can contain relatively high levels of biodiversity. A total sample population of one hundred and eighty five (185) trees were measured and 27 species were identified such as *Anacardium Occidentale*, *Mangifera indica*, *Annona muricata*, *persea americana*. Most of the trees were planted on purpose which serves very crucial importance for the urban dwellers for the production of food security to enhance livelihood (Onyekwelu and Olaniyi 2012). Babalola (2010), found similar tree species within the University of Ibadan planted for same purposes. Also providing a multitude of aesthetic and environmental benefits thereby controlling air and noise pollution (Bolund and Hunhammer 1999). Beyond shade and aesthetic value these urban trees also have practical benefits and real monetary value that the urban dwellers are not fully aware of. Furthermore the significance of trees in creating micro climate and cooling environment in the cities and urban settling has also been documented in a study by Akabari *et al.*, 2001. There is a large amount of research that demonstrates that trees have many more effects on an area than directly measurable economic benefits (Tyrvainen and Miettinen, 2000; Kaufman and Cloutier, 2006)

#### **Urban tree growth variables**

The extent to which land use can provide ecosystem services depends on the current urban forest structure (e.g., tree species, number, tree canopy cover, height, health, composition, tree size, location, health), which can provide useful information for estimating trees' structural characteristics such as leaf biomass and total leaf area, and quantifying multiple ecosystem services and forest functions. The result of this study reveals that the urban trees have a wide range of tree growth variables as observed in literature. Urban forest assessments are essential in supporting urban forest management and planning to improve environmental quality and human health in cities (Nowak *et al* 2008). Due to the limited resources available and an inability to demonstrate and quantify all urban forest structures, functions, and economic benefits through standard data analyses, at present few of these benefits and functions are quantifiable (Nowak *et al* 2011).

#### **Biodiversity Analysis of Urban Trees in the study areas**

Although many factors may influence urban tree cover. two dominant factors affecting the extent and distribution of urban tree cover are the surrounding natural environment and the land use. The results of this study confirmed that urban forest is a storehouse of many indigenous tropical hardwood and exotic tree species in different families, judging by the tree species richness of the study area, which is similar to or higher than what has been reported in some natural forest ecosystems in Nigeria (Onyekwelu *et al.*, 2008; Adekunle, 2006) reported 31 and 51 trees species in tropical rainforest ecosystems of southwestern Nigeria. Thus, the large numbers of tree species that are found in tropical forests could also be said to be characteristics of urban forest landscapes. This similarity of tree species richness of urban centres and natural forest ecosystems underscores the importance of urban forests in biodiversity conservation and thus is evidence that urban forests can be both reservoirs and contributor to global biodiversity conservation. Biodiversity indices of urban and periurban forests are generated in order to appreciate the level of diversity and abundance of species in built-up environment. Shannon-Wiener diversity and Evenness indices of this study are similar to the values of Parthasarathy (2001).

#### **Spatial distribution of Urban Trees in the study areas and its implication on land surface temperature.**

The spatial distribution of trees in the community did not follow any pattern. It was obvious that the community have high preference for urban forestry. The diversity of trees in the

residential area can be attributed to individual choice, religion, background, language. Species like *Anacardium occidentale*, *Dacryodes edulis*, *Mangifera indica* e.t.c. were found in mostly in residential area because of food, *Moringa oleifera*, *Azadirachta indica* were planted for their medicinal value. *Newbouldia laevis* were mostly found in religious area because of the spiritual belief associated with the tree. From the result trees decreases land surface temperature there by serving as temperature moderator. Trees cools its surroundings through shading effects and evapotranspiration (Georgi and Zafiriadis, 2006; Tsiros 2010; Zardo *et al.*, 2017),

#### 4. CONCLUSION

Trees exist as part of the urban setting in different parts of the world, this study has shown the importance of having trees around our places of academic, religious and residential areas. The result of this research has provided baseline information on urban forests in the Akpajo community, which can be used for the development of tree species database of the territory. The tree species richness of the study area confirms and underscores the importance of urban forests in biodiversity conservation; it is evidence that urban forests can be reservoirs and contributor to biodiversity conservation. Residential areas had higher tree species richness and diversity compared to religious and academic area. The high species richness and diversity in residential areas, despite its high infrastructural development, showed that infrastructural development in the city did not negatively affect its biodiversity conservation potential.

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