

Diversity of Ethnobotanicals and Other Herbaceous Plants in Ecological
Restoration Areas and Riparian Gradients

Joshua Brann, Jaclyn Carpenter, Karina Champion, Whitney Kitchner, and Caitlin
Reed

The Evergreen State College
2700 Evergreen Parkway
Olympia, WA 98505

1

2

Abstract

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

Ethnobotanicals are important considerations to restoration because they help indicate the general health and diversity of a specific region. The locations that were used to test this idea for this study were Cibola Arizona on the Cibola National Wildlife Refuge, West Fork Oak Creek Arizona, and Kanab Creek Utah. At these locations, a general plant census was taken to sample the species richness and composition. We found a trend that shows a decrease of introduced species as the age of restored stand increased.

10

11

12

Keywords: ethnobotany, cottonwood, *Populus fremontii*, restoration, succession, canopy cover

13

14

Introduction

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

In the field of restoration ecology one aspect that is not commonly taken into consideration is the species abundance and richness of ethnobotanicals. Villeux and King (2003) describe ethnobotany as "... the study of how people of a particular culture and region make use of indigenous plants. Ethnobotanists explore how plants are used for such things as food, shelter, medicine, clothing, hunting, and religious ceremonies." Ethnobotanicals are important characteristics to local culture and history. According to Altiere et al (1987) "Preservation of these traditional agrieocosystems (i.e. ethno botanicals) can not be achieved when isolated from maintenance of the culture of the local people.

1 Therefore, projects should also emphasize maintenance of culture diversity.”
2 Ethnobotanicals can potentially provide sustainable financial support to the local
3 economy by the development of cottage industries. Sustainable harvesting of
4 ethnobotanicals for commercial use is far less destructive than agribusiness on
5 ecosystems. (Altiere et al, 1987) Plant diversity provided by native habitat (vs.
6 monocultures generally used in agribusiness) allows for a wide range of niches in
7 a habitat throughout trophic levels. Preserving or restoring native habitat also
8 fosters a greater genetic diversity of plants which helps to protect the population
9 against pests and disease. These are two of the reasons why plant diversity is
10 an important determining factor of habitat health. (Margalef, 1968, Odum 1969)

11 The areas in this study were Cibola Arizona; West Fork Oak Creek,
12 Coconino County, Arizona; and Kanab Creek, Utah. In Cibola, we looked at an
13 age gradient in *P. fremontii* restored stands; each stand being three years apart
14 starting at age 1. In these restored stands *Populus fremontii* (cottonwood) was
15 the dominant species and provided many different levels of canopy cover and
16 habitat for various species. In Oak Creek and the Utah location, the forest sites
17 were riparian areas with an unknown age. Our common factor was the riparian
18 zone which allowed us a greater diversity of plants along an ecotonal gradient.

19

20

Methods

21 The sites chosen spanned two southwestern states, Arizona and Utah.
22 The first four sites were in the Cibola National Wildlife Refuge, Arizona, which is
23 located in the flood plains of the Colorado River. Three of those sites were

1 across an age gradient ranging from 1-6 year old cottonwoods. In each of these
2 areas, thirteen random plots were established by measuring along the edge of
3 the stand to find the center. Once the center was found the group entered the
4 stand following a random number generator. One person was designated to pace
5 through the stand. After that person reached the end of the number they would
6 throw a 1-meter square of pvc piping, over their shoulder to establish a plot. Each
7 plot was then divided into a subplot by placing a 1/8-meter square of pvc piping
8 in the center. The subplot was used to determine the characteristics of the overall
9 plot.

10 The fourth site consisted only of tamarix (*Tamarix pentandra*). This area
11 was chosen because it represents an unrestored riparian area dominated by an
12 invasive species. Thirty random plots were established along a 720 meter
13 transect at the edge of the tamarix stand.

14 The other two sites were established in natural riparian zones. The first
15 site was in a canyon in West Fork of Oak Creek, Arizona. Since the canyon walls
16 were too narrow, a parallel transect traveled along the river's edge. Thirteen
17 random plots were created along this transect using a random numbers table.
18 The second site was at Kanab Creek, Utah. Due to time constraints, only eight
19 plots were established along a 61.6meter transect; starting at the creek and
20 going perpendicular from the edge.

21 Many variables were measured within the plots. First we counted all the
22 species, and then the plants were identified using several different dichotomous
23 keys and field guides. If identification was not possible, a specimen was

1 preserved using a plant press for later identification in the lab. For each of the
2 species present in the plot and the sub plot, the percentage of ground cover was
3 estimated. The litter depth, measured in centimeters, was performed in the
4 center of the sub plot. Using a densiometer, a calculation of percent canopy
5 cover was recorded for each plot. Some plants were absent inside our plots,
6 meaning the plant was in the area but never occurred in the random plots. To
7 remedy this, a sample of these were pressed and taken back to be identified in
8 the lab for a census of the area. The same sampling protocol was performed at
9 each study site, except for the positioning of the transect at West Fork.

10 After returning to the lab, all of the plants were identified and compiled into
11 a species list for plant species inside and outside of the plots at each site. The
12 identified plant species were researched through the University of Michigan's
13 database of Native American Ethnobotany to find out their ethnobotanical uses.
14 The USDA's Plant Database was used to find out if the plants were native to the
15 United States.

16 Statistical analysis was conducted with three different stats programs. PC-
17 Ord v. 4.3 was used for community analysis of the different species from this we
18 graphed species area curves, along with a MRPP (Multi-response Permutation
19 Procedure). SPSS v. 13. was used for liner regressions. And Microsoft Excel v.
20 11.2.3 was used to create graphs that displayed the number of ethnobotanicals
21 at each site.

22

23

Results

1 An ordination sorted by location expresses that the first, second, and sixth
2 locations share similar canopy cover, which may mean they share similar
3 understory composition. Other than these three sites, the canopy structure is
4 closely related to the location (Figure 1). Also shown by the ordination is that
5 percent canopy cover is relative to location: this means that the ethnobotanicals
6 that appear to be site specific (baccharis, reed grass, etc...) may be correlated to
7 canopy cover, occurring in these locations due to their respective forest structure.
8 This is essential as it supports the need for conservation of a variety of forest
9 types in order to preserve a diversity of ethnobotanicals.

10 Although canopy cover may be linked to the restoration of
11 ethnobotanicals, increased canopy cover resulted in a decrease of species
12 richness both in the Cibola sites ($P = 0.000$) as well as across all sites ($P =$
13 0.000). Refer to Figure 2 and 3. The highest number of ethnobotanicals occurs in
14 the first-year cottonwoods, which reinforces this observation, and is represented
15 in Figure 4.

16 Related to this result is the finding that introduced species within the
17 Cibola sites decrease along the age gradient, and in turn decrease with
18 increased canopy cover ($P > 0.05$). See Figure 5.

19

20

Discussion

21 Among all of the sites surveyed there was a correlation between canopy
22 cover and diversity in the understory plant communities, specifically, more open
23 areas supported a greater diversity of plants. Our most compelling results,
24 however, came from the Cibola, AZ sites. There we found marked differences in

1 understory plant communities according to the particular stage of restoration in
2 individual sites.

3 Nearly all of the plant species encountered within the censused plots were
4 of some ethnobotanical significance, the only exception being *Medicago lupulina*
5 (L) in the 3-year-old stand. Ethnobotanicals were categorized into by usage type
6 to analyze how type varied by stand age and understory community. The
7 ethnobotanical plants fell out in a clear pattern with number of species at each
8 site from greatest to fewest being utilitarian, medicinal, and food, respectively.
9 While this finding may not have any direct implications for riparian restoration, it
10 may provide some insight into the resources available to Native American tribes.

11 As may be expected in an early seral-stage forest, the most recently
12 disturbed site (1-year-old cottonwood stand) supported the most abundant and
13 diverse community of plants. The species in this community were affected by
14 agricultural remnants however, which may have been a somewhat confounding
15 factor. Nevertheless, a disturbed site would still be expected to show higher
16 diversity as a result of pioneer plants and invasive species moving in. This is
17 supported by our results showing that non-native species richness was greatest
18 in the 1-year-old cottonwood stand. Interestingly, the number of non-native
19 species decreased as stand age increased until disappearing altogether in the
20 six-year-old stand.

21 The successively older stands of cottonwood also supported proportionally
22 fewer total species of understory plants. The tamarisk site, representing an
23 unrestored riparian area dominated by an invasive species, supported no other

1 plant species – though tamarisk species have been used by some Native
2 American tribes and thus were considered ethnobotanicals for the purposes of
3 this study. It is interesting to note that, unlike some other invasive species that
4 simply crowd out and overshadow native plants, tamarisk actually alters the
5 environment to make it unsuitable to less hardy species. Tamarisk transpires
6 large quantities of water and thus can dry out the surrounding soil; it is also salt-
7 tolerant as it can excrete salt from its leaves, when leaves fall the ground soil
8 salinity is increased thus killing off less tolerant plants. This study was only able
9 to address canopy cover as a factor of physical crowding. This has implications
10 for restoration efforts since canopy cover may not be the only limiting factor for
11 native species. Depending on the length of time that an area has been
12 dominated by tamarisk, even when an area has been cleared and replanted with
13 native species soil conditions may remain unsuitable for growth to occur.

14 Although diversity decreased as stand age increased, the species
15 composition of plant communities found were different in all three stands. This
16 suggests that a patchwork of mixed-aged stands would be the most beneficial
17 from the standpoint of having access to the greatest variety of ethnobotanicals.
18 However, if the goal of restoration was to limit the number of invasive species
19 present, then managing for mature stands would be the more appropriate course
20 of action.

21

22

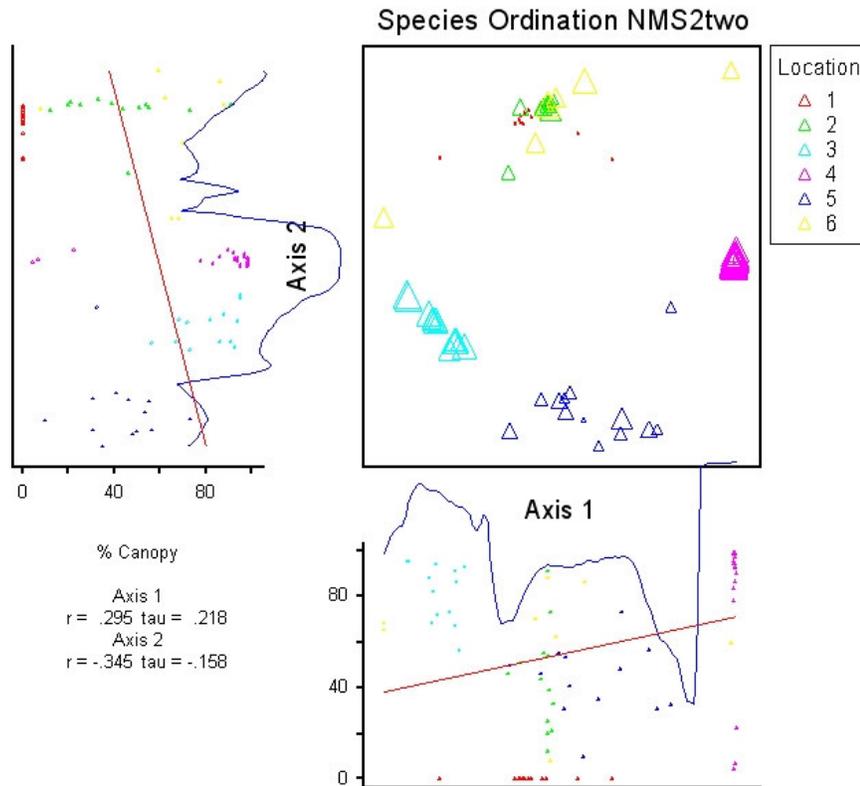
23

Literature Cited

- 1 Altieri, M.A., M.K. Anderson, and L.C. Merrick. 1987. Peasant agriculture and the
2 conservation of crop and wild plant resources. *Conservation Biology* **1**:49-
3 58.
- 4 Balick, M.J. 1996. Transforming ethnobotany for the new millennium. *Annals of*
5 *the Missouri Botanical Garden* **83**:58-66.
- 6 Berenbaum, M.R. 2001. Chemical mediation of coevolution: phylogenetic
7 evidence for Apiaceae and associates. *Annals of the Missouri Botanical*
8 *Garden* **88**:45-59.
- 9 Berlin, B. and G.T. Prance. 1978. Insect galls and human ornamentation: the
10 ethnobotanical significance of a new species of *Licania* from Amazonas,
11 Peru. *Biotropica* **10**:81-86.
- 12 Brush, S.B. 1989. Rethinking crop genetic resource conservation. *Conservation*
13 *Biology* **3**:19-29.
- 14 Chazdon, R.L. and F.G. Coe. 1999. Ethnobotany of woody species in second-
15 growth, old-growth, and selectively logged forests of Northeastern Costa
16 Rica. *Conservation Biology* **13**:1312-1322.
- 17 Cox, P.A. 2000. Will tribal knowledge survive the millennium? *Science* **287**:44-
18 45.
- 19 Davis, M.A., K. Thompson, and J.P. Grime. 2001. Charles S. Elton and the
20 dissociation of invasion ecology from the rest of ecology. *Diversity and*
21 *Distributions* **7**:97-102.
- 22 Dorney, C.H. and J.R. Dorney. 1989. An unusual oak savanna in northeastern
23 Wisconsin: the effect of Indian-caused fire. *American Midland Naturalist*
24 **122**:103-113.
- 25 Etkin, N.L. 1988. Ethnopharmacology: biobehavioral approaches in
26 anthropological study of indigenous medicines. *Annual Review of*
27 *Anthropology* 1988 **17**:23-42.
- 28 Gomez-Pompa, A. and A. Kaus. 1999. From pre-Hispanic to future conservation
29 alternatives: lessons from Mexico. *Proceedings of the National Academy*
30 *of Sciences of the United States of America* **96**:5982-5986.
- 31 Gottlieb, O.R., M.R. de M.B. Borin, and B.M. Bosisio. 1995. Chemosystematic
32 clues for the choice of medicinal and food plants in Amazonia. *Biotropica*
33 **27**:401-406.
- 34 Harborne, J.B. 2000. Arsenal for survival: secondary plant products. *Taxon*
35 **49**:435-449.
- 36 Hazlett, D.L. and N.W. Sawyer. 1998. Distribution of alkaloid-rich plant species in
37 shortgrass steppe vegetation. *Conservation Biology* **12**:1260-1268.
- 38 Hegazy, A.K. 1992. Age-specific survival, mortality and reproduction, and
39 prospects for conservation of *Limonium delicatulum*. *The Journal of*
40 *Applied Ecology* **29**:549-557.
- 41 Joyce, C. 1992. Western medicine men return to the field. *BioScience* **42**:399-
42 403.
- 43 Kaplan, L. 1956. The cultivated beans of the prehistoric southwest. *Annals of the*
44 *Missouri Botanical Garden* **43**:189-251.

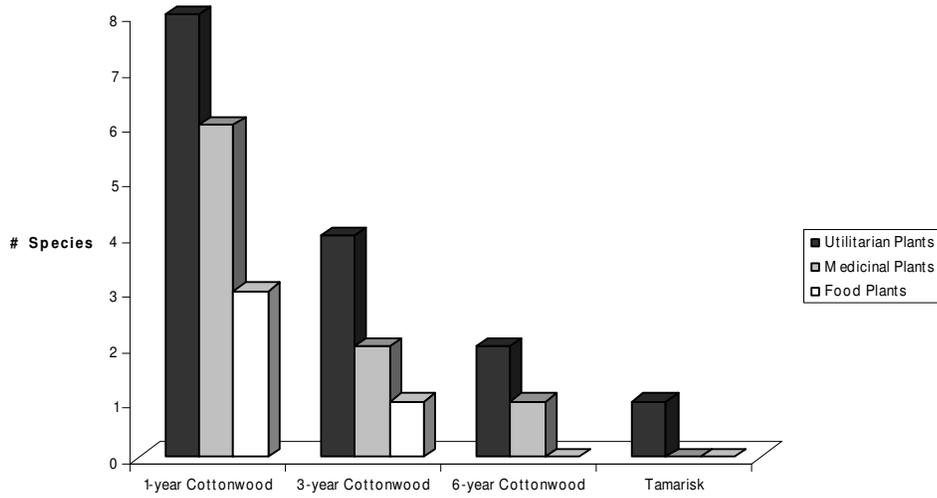
- 1 Kremen, C., I. Raymond, and K. Lance. 1998. An interdisciplinary tool for
2 monitoring conservation impacts in Madagascar. *Conservation Biology*
3 **12**:549-563.
- 4 Lewis, W.H. and M.P. Elvin-Lewis. 1995. Medicinal plants as sources of new
5 therapeutics. *Annals of the Missouri Botanical Garden* **82**:16-24.
- 6 Lloyd, R.M. 1964. Ethnobotanical uses of California pteridophytes by Western
7 American Indians. *American Fern Journal* **54**:76-82.
- 8 Luken, J.O., A.C. Hinton, and D.G. Baker. 1992. Response of woody plant
9 communities in power-line corridors to frequent anthropogenic
10 disturbance. *Ecological Applications* **2**:356-362.
- 11 Margalef, R. 1986. *Perspectives in Ecological Theory*. University of Chicago
12 Press. Chicago Illinois.
- 13 Nabham, G. P. *The Desert Smells like Rain: A Naturalist in Papago Indian*
14 *Country*. North Point Press. 1982.
- 15 Nabhan, G.P. 2000. Interspecific relationships affecting endangered species
16 recognized by O'Odham and Comcaac cultures. *Ecological Applications*
17 **10**:1288-1295.
- 18
- 19 Odum, E.P. 1969. The Strategy of Ecosystem Development. *Science*. 164: 262-
20 270.
- 21 Oldfield, M.L. and J.B. Alcorn. 1987. Conservation of traditional agro
22 ecosystems. *Bioscience* **37**:199-208.
- 23 Phillips, O., A.H. Gentry, C. Reynel, P. Wilkin, and C. Galvez-Durand B. 1994.
24 Quantitative ethnobotany and Amazonian conservation. *Conservation*
25 *Biology* **8**:225-248.
- 26 Plotkin, M.J. 1985. Standardized format for conservation and ethnobotanical data
27 in tropical South America project. *Taxon* **34**:120-121.
- 28 Rogers, G.K. 2000. A taxonomic revision of the genus *Agave* (Agavaceae) in the
29 Lesser Antilles, with an ethnobotanical hypothesis. *Brittonia* **52**:218-233.
- 30 Steinberg, M.K. 1998. Neotropical kitchen gardens as a potential research
31 landscape for conservation biologists. *Conservation Biology* **12**:1150-
32 1152.
- 33 Stevens, L.E., T.J. Ayers, J.B. Bennett, K. Christensen, M.J.C. Kearsley, V.J.
34 Meretsky, A.M. Phillips III, R.A. Parnell, J. Spence, M.K. Sogge, A.E.
35 Springer, and D.L. Wegner. 2001. Planned flooding and Colorado River
36 riparian trade-offs downstream from Glen Canyon Dam, Arizona.
37 *Ecological Applications* **11**:701-710.
- 38 The Baca Institute of Ethnobotany, 1999 – 2000. What is Ethnobotany and why
39 is it Important. URL: <http://anthro.fortlewis.edu/ethnobotany/ethno2.htm>.
40 Accessed on 22May2006.
- 41 Turner, N.J., M.B. Ignace, and R. Ignace. 2000. Traditional ecological knowledge
42 and wisdom of aboriginal peoples in British Columbia. *Ecological*
43 *Applications* **10**:1275-1287.
- 44 University of Michigan Dearborn, Native American Ethnobotany,
45 2003-2006. URL <http://herb.umd.umich.edu/> (accessed in April 2006)
46

1 USDA, NRCS. 2006. The PLANTS Database (<http://plants.usda.gov>, 2 June
2 2006). National Plant Data Center, Baton Rouge, LA 70874-4490 USA.
3 (Accessed in April 2006)
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45

1 **Figures**

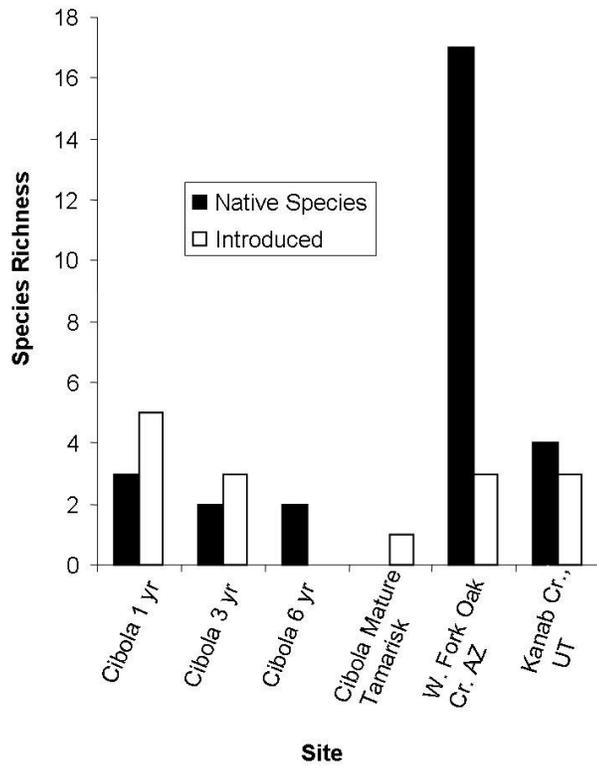
2

3 Figure 1. Ordination of understory community composition sorted by location,
 4 and corresponding correlations of community composition (axis 1 and 2 separately) with
 5 percent canopy cover. Sites 1 (1 year Cibola), 2 (3-year Cibola), and 6 (Virgin R., UT)
 6 share similar communities and canopy cover despite a >300 mile distance between them,
 7 while other sites have very different communities. Note that even though canopy cover
 8 can be similar between site 4 (Cibola tamarisk) and site 3 (Cibola 6-year old stand), the
 9 community composition is very different between stands.



1

2 Figure 4. Species richness of ethnobotanicals by usage type. Utilitarian plants
 3 have the highest species diversity, food plants have the lowest. Number of species for all
 4 usage types decrease along the age gradient.



1

2 Figure 5. Total number of the native and introduced species by site. Introduced
 3 species decrease over the age gradient but have no correlation to the other sites.

4

5

6