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**Research Article**



## Invasive alien flowering plants of sacred groves vegetation in Kanyakumari district, Tamilnadu, South India

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### Abstract

Invasive alien species pose a serious threat to our native biodiversity. A total of 94 alien plant species under 78 genera and 39 families were recorded from the sacred groves of the study area. Leguminosae was the dominant family followed by Euphorbiaceae and Compositae. Herbs (52%) were dominating than the other life forms such as shrubs (25%), trees (17%) and climbers (6%). The recorded Invasive alien plants were from 16 geographical elements in which 49 were from Tropical America. Out of the 94 species, 73% were introduced unintentionally and 27% intentionally. About 73% of the taxa get naturalized, 16% of plants were interfering and 11% of the plants were noxious to the native biodiversity. Most of the plants were used as medicine by the local inhabitants followed by ornamental, edible and so on. The present study was undertaken to inventorisation of the harmful invasive alien species of the sacred groves of Kanyakumari district, Tamilnadu.

### INTRODUCTION

Exotic plants are species those were earlier present in other place, but due to intentionally or unintentionally they are introduced in to any new ecosystem and may causes sound effects on that ecosystem. These plants in their new ecosystem are referred to as 'alien' or 'exotic' plants; they normalize the world biota (Mooney and Hobbs, 2000). The International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) defines "alien invasive species" as an alien species which becomes established in natural or seminatural ecosystems or habitat as agent of change and threatens native biological diversity. They are non native plants become invasive when they are introduced purposely from outside their natural habitats into new areas where they express the capability to establish, invade and struggle along

with native species (Randall and Marinelli, 1996; Pant and Sharma, 2010). Once introduced, they colonizes the new habitat and gets naturalized by getting incorporated into residential flora (Gyan *et al.*, 2005) They can widely distributed among the all habitat as well as diverse ecosystem throughout the world (Aravindhan and Rajendran, 2014) and therefore they are considered as one of the severe threat to the biodiversity after the habitat destruction (Hobbs and Humphries, 1995). Every year, exotic species become more prevalent, expanding their ranges into areas designated as nature reserves (Cox, 1999). Global climate change may well accelerate the rate of introduction and spread of exotic plants into areas where they were previously absent, or increase their performance relative to indigenous species (Raizada *et al.*, 2009).

Invasive alien species can have large damaging economic impacts on human enterprises such as fisheries, agriculture, grazing and forestry (Kannan *et al.*, 2013). In a survey of 24 reserves worldwide, all were found to have exotic species, and some reserves harbored more exotic plant species than native species (Usher *et al.*, 1988; Fine, 2002).

Many people introduce non-native species into new habitats for economic reasons (Mc Neely, 2001). At least 300,000 (10%) vascular plants have the potential to invade other ecosystems and affect native biota in a direct or indirect way and about 18% of the Indian flora constitutes aliens (Nayar, 1997). There are so many invasive species invading our state by improper industrial and agricultural activities which imbalanced our local ecosystem and become a threat to our native flora. These kinds of human impacts highly declines our native biodiversity (Sukumaran and Parthiban, 2014; Debnath *et al.*, 2017). Introduction of these species create a threat to native biodiversity. Even though human depends on these non-native species for food, shelter, medicine ecosystem services, aesthetic enjoyment and cultural identity. Due to these aspects, introduced plants have an impact on native species with respect to household economy and national economy (Pant and Sharma, 2010). Some of the species were also introduced for ornamentation, enhanced economic status and as a medicinal plants, but after a period few of them become invasive on local ecosystem, replace the native vegetation and hampered the ecological structure of naïve one. Numerous studies have been conducted to explore the exotic floristic composition of various regions of the India (Mcdougall *et al.*, 2011; Khuroo *et al.*, 2012; Boro and Sarma, 2013; Das, 2013; Surendra *et al.*, 2013; Udaykumar *et al.*, 2014; Debnath *et al.*, 2015; Vyankatrao, 2017).

Sacred groves are the reservoirs of native vegetation (Khumbongmayum *et al.*, 2006) and have been shown to have a major effect on conservation of ecology and environment due to restrictions associated with them (Anderson *et al.* 2005; Daye and Healey, 2015). They are the ancient means of in situ conservation of genetic diversity and are conserved through social, cultural and environmental values since time immemorial (Sasikala *et al.*, 2014). The sacred forests are the last remnants of the native vegetation of the region protected by the villagers of that region (Karthik *et al.*, 2015). They are believed to be a treasure trove

of medicinal, rare, endangered and endemic species (Rao *et al.*, 2015). It act as pristine patches of native biodiversity that are preserved in their original state over centuries due to religious beliefs, taboos and customs which have been followed from generations to generations (Subramanian *et al.*, 2016). They are the sites to conserve habitats and serve as sanctuaries for endemic species (Jamir and Pandey, 2003). Sacred groves are relics of the forests that once covered a large part of Western Ghats (Hangarge *et al.*, 2016). Invasion of exotic weeds into sacred groves has become a serious problem in the ecological functions. Local biodiversity of these groves are being depleted and further threatened by the domination of exotic weeds (Swamy *et al.*, 2003).

Sacred groves of Kanyakumari district support numerous indigenous species and these groves are known as “Kaavu” or “Iyarkaikovilkal” by the local people of the district. Sukumaran and his coworkers carry out several studies on various aspects such as phytodiversity, conservation status, phytogeography, economic status, environmental sustainability, cultural diversity, sthalavrishtas, pteridophytic diversity and medicinal plants (Raj and Sukumaran, 1997; Sukumaran *et al.*, 2006; Sukumaran, 2007a; Sukumaran, 2007b; Sukumaran and Jeeva, 2008; Sukumaran *et al.*, 2008; Sukumaran and Raj, 2008; Sukumaran and Raj, 2009; Sukumaran and Raj, 2010; Sukumaran *et al.*, 2010; Sukumaran *et al.*, 2017). *Tectaria zeilanica* and *Petiveria alliacea* were rediscovered and new distributional record from the sacred groves of the district (Sukumaran *et al.*, 2007; Sukumaran and Raj, 2008). But there was no study on exotic plants and its harmful effects. Though these groves are well protected, intrusion of exotic species was increased recently due to various anthropogenic activities and seed dispersal ability yet they were comparatively low when compared with other protected ecosystems. In this view present study aims to document the impact of exotic species in the sacred groves of Kanyakumari district.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Study area

Kanyakumari District is the southernmost district of Tamilnadu. The district lies between 77° 15' and 77° 36' of the eastern longitudes and 8° 03' and 8° 35' of the northern latitudes. Kanyakumari spreads 1,684 km<sup>2</sup> and has almost all ecosystems such as forests, wetlands, freshwater resources, marine areas and the hills.

Topographically, it has prominent natural features such as richly varied and crowded vegetation, majestic undulating hills with surrounding plains, colorful seashores and plantations which make splendid landscapes (Kiruba *et al.*, 2006).

The climate of the district is warm and humid; summer starts from March to May followed by southwest monsoon from June to September. October and November constitute the post-monsoon or retreating monsoon season with frequent thunderstorms. From December to February, northeast monsoon season is confined with rains and rest of the months is generally with bright weather. The mean annual rainfall was 167.64 mm and varied from 70 mm (minimum during February) to 442 mm (maximum – October) for the period of study. However, there is no rainfall in the month of January. The mean monthly temperature varied from a maximum of 32.6°C in the month of May to a minimum of 22.5°C in December. The soil of district is broadly classified into two major groups namely, red and alluvial soils. Red soil is further classified into red loam and sandy soils. Alluvial soil is divided in to coastal and river alluvial soils. The black colour of the forest soil is mainly due to high contents of humus and minerals.

#### Data Collection

An extensive field survey was undertaken to inventory the sacred groves of Kanyakumari district during the study period (October 2014 – September 2016). Information about the existence of sacred groves was gathered from hereditary priests and the temple authorities, and various social organizations. With this background information thorough field surveys were carried out by visiting the sacred grove and documenting the exotic plants. Exotic plant species were identified and confirmed by using regional floras of Gamble and Fischer (1915 - 1936), Matthew (1999) and Nayar *et al.* (2014). Citations of the plants were obtained from the database of the plant list (IPNI) (<http://www.ipni.org>). All the preserved voucher specimens were deposited at Department of Botany

and Research Centre, Nesamony Memorial Christian College, Marthandam.

The nativities and modes of introduction of the exotic species were recorded from the published literatures (Matthew, 1969; Sekar, 2012; Khuroo *et al.*, 2012; Das, 2013; Debnath *et al.*, 2015). Invasive alien species occurring in this region were categorized into Naturalized, Interfering and Noxious based on the literature survey of Srivastava *et al.*, 2014. Self-replacing plant populations by recruitment through seeds and capable of independent growth were categorized as *naturalized*. Alien and native plants which impacted agriculture adversely especially on the disturbed sites were taken as *noxious*. The species which were neither injurious nor noxious but caused profuse interference and hindrance to the growth of crop/native species over a large area by virtue of their vast numbers were taken as *interfering*.

#### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A total of 94 exotic plants were identified from the sacred groves of the study area, the gathered data were presented with botanical name, family, common name, habit, uses, nativity, mode of introduction and categories were tabulated (Table 1). This was 15% of the total floristic wealth (613) recorded from the 289 sacred groves of the district (Pepsi, 2017). Nayar (1997) reported that 18% of the Indian flora constitutes alien plants but in the present study only 15% of exotic taxa were enlisted and it was proved that exotic plants invade even the protected areas. It may be due to anthropogenic activities and seed dispersal capacities. Out of 94 plant species recorded, 85 were dicotyledons (35 polypetalae, 33 gamopetalae and 17 monochlamydeae) and 9 were monocotyledons (Table 2), belonged to 78 genera and 39 families. The present work was closely correlated and most of the alien species studied were also reported by the number of workers in various ecosystems of India (Gyan *et al.*, 2005; Reddy, 2008; Sekar, 2012; Srivastava *et al.*, 2014; Debnath *et al.*, 2015).

**Table 2. Floristic analysis of the study area**

Taxonomic Group	Class	Families	Genus	Species
Dicotyledons				
	Polypetalae	17	28	35
	Gamopetalae	11	29	33
	Monochlamydeae	6	13	17
Monocotyledons		5	8	9

Among the recorded taxa, 39 families and 78 genus were elucidated in which Leguminosae was a dominant family (11 taxa), followed by Euphorbiaceae (9 taxa), Compositae (7 taxa), Solanaceae (5 taxa), Apocynaceae, Convolvulaceae, Malvaceae, and Poaceae with 4 taxa each; Amaranthaceae, Annonaceae and Cactaceae with 3 taxa each; Acanthaceae, Agavaceae, Lamiaceae, Nyctaginaceae, Rubiaceae, Verbenaceae, Asclepidaceae and Capparaceae with 2 taxa each. Twenty families such as Anacardiaceae, Apiaceae, Araceae, Areaceae, Bombacaceae, Caricaceae, Marantaceae, Onagraceae, Papavaraceae, Passifloraceae, Pedaliaceae, Piperaceae, Polygonaceae, Portulacae, Scrophulariaceae, Sterculiaceae, Tiliaceae, Ulmaceae, Urticulariaceae and Zygophyllaceae with one taxon each. The present study was also supported by the previous work done by Rao and Murugan (2006). Studies carried out in various parts of India by various workers (Reddy, 2008; Singh *et al.*, 2010; Sekar,

2012; Srivastava *et al.*, 2014 and Debnath *et al.*, 2015) suggested that family Compositae was dominant which was the codominant family in the present study. Genus such as *Annona*, *Ipomoea*, *Jatropha* and *Senna* were the dominating genus of 3 species each. The present study was supported by the previous work of Srivastava *et al.* (2014) and he found out *Ipomoea* was a dominant genera of exotic weeds in North Eastern Uttar Pradesh.

Habitwise distribution describes 49 species (52%) of herbs were dominating because of greater viability and tolerance to harsh conditions which result in the preponderance of herbs across the region (Srivastava *et al.*, 2014). Their dominance may be also due to microclimate prevails in the sacred forests favours a good condition for the germination of seeds and its growth. In the present study herbs were followed by shrubs and trees of 23 species (25%) and 17 species (16%). Climbers were in least condition and constitute of about 6 species (6%) (Figure 2).

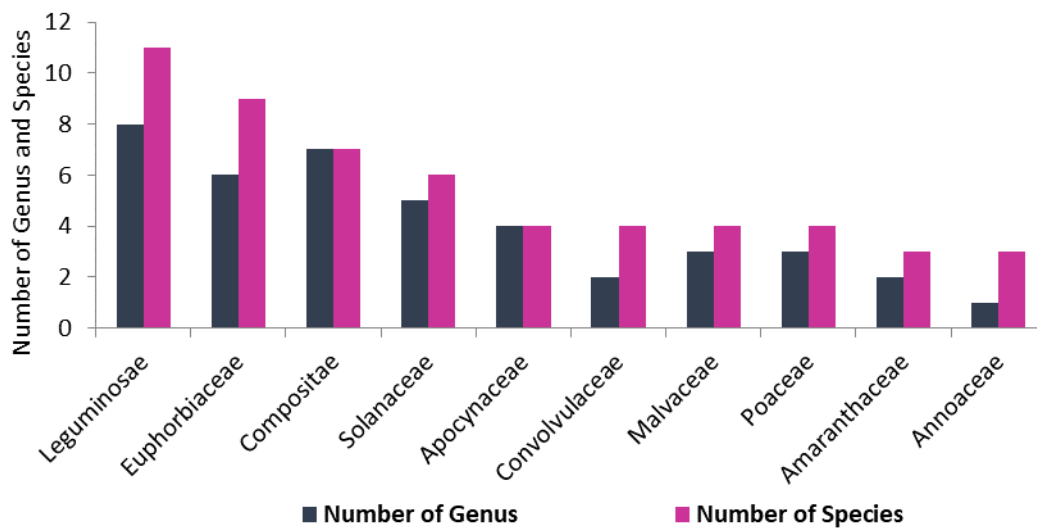


Figure 1. Top ten Families of exotic plants addressed in the study area

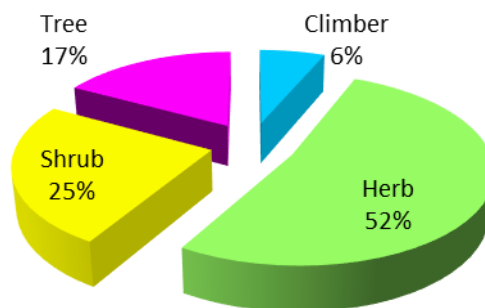
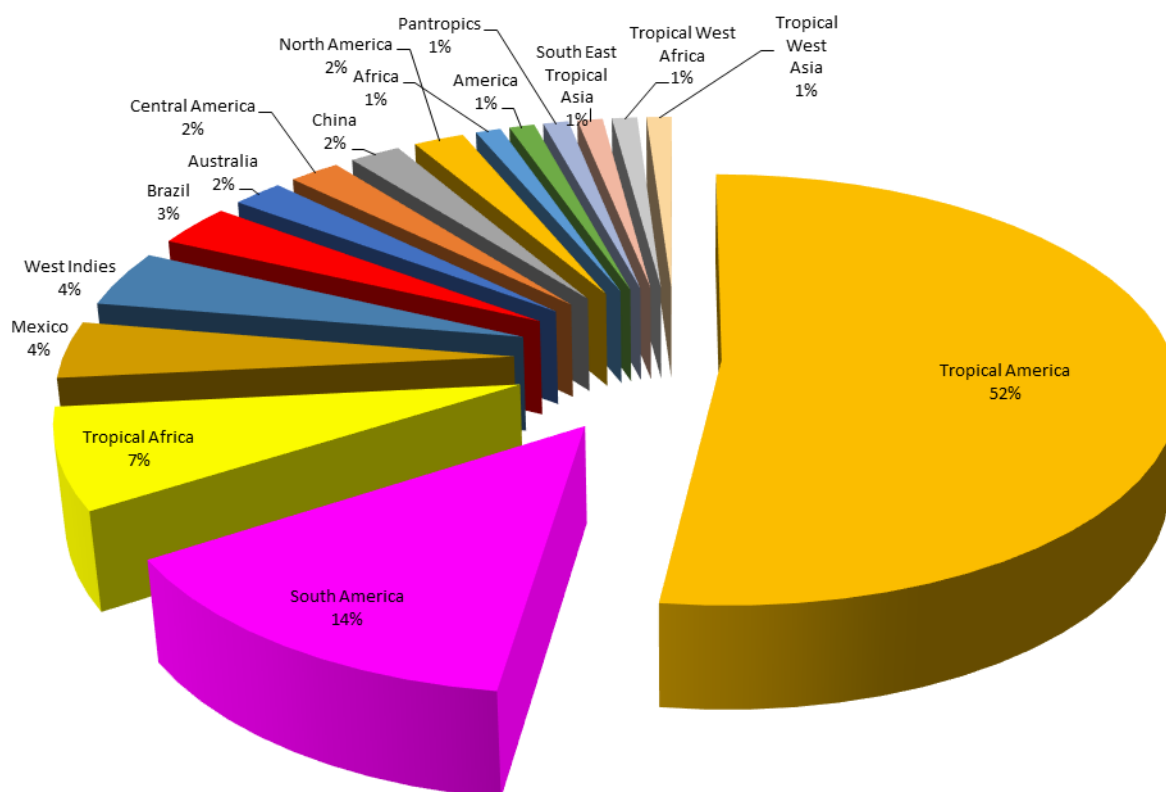


Figure 2. Habitwise distribution of invasive alien plants of the sacred groves

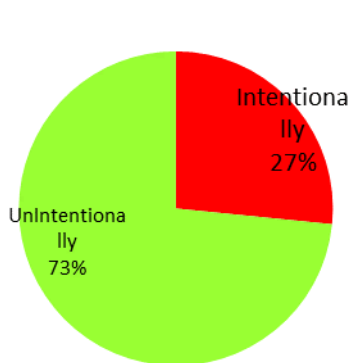
All the 94 non indigenous taxa were categorized into 16 geographical elements (nativity) were recorded for the plants studied (Figure 3). Of these 49 were from Tropical America, followed by South America (13 species), Tropical Africa (7 species), West Indies and Mexico (4 species each), Brazil (3 species), Australia, Central America, China and North America (2 species each) and Africa, America, Pantropics, South East Tropical Asia, Tropical West Africa and Tropical West Asia (1 species each). However the present study was supported by different findings throughout India. Reddy (2008) reported that 74% of exotic plants in India were originated from Tropical America and the same was reported from various states (Singh *et al.*, 2010; Srivastava *et al.*, 2014; Deshmukh *et al.*, 2012; Sekar, 2012; Surendra *et al.*, 2013; Debnath *et al.*, 2015). Sukumaran (2007a) categorized 329 plant species recorded from 201 sacred groves of this district into 12 geographical elements.



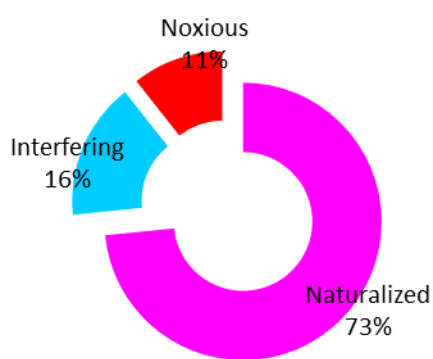
**Figure 3. Percentage of geographical distribution of alien plants.**

The enlisted taxa were categorized based on their mode of introduction (Sekar, 2012; Debnath *et al.*, 2015). Many alien species support our farming and forestry systems in a big way. However, some of the alien species become invasive when they are introduced deliberately or unintentionally outside their natural habitats into new areas where they express the capability to establish, invade and out-compete native species (Raghubanshi, 2005). Sixty nine species were introduced unintentionally and 25 of the species were introduced for its beneficial role to man. Even though unintentionally introduced alien species flourish well and most of them are useful to mankind (Figure 4). Most of the invasive plants were naturalized (69), 15 were interfering. The

following exotic plants such as *Ageratum conyzoides*, *Amaranthus spinosus*, *Antigonon leptopus*, *Argemone Mexicana*, *Axonopus compressus*, *Centrosema pubescens*, *Chromolaena odorata*, *Echinochloa crus-galli*, *Lantana camara* and *Mimosa pudica* were noxious (Figure 5). These noxious alien species were harmful to native species (Singh *et al.*, 2010) and some of them are allergic to mankind causing diseases (Tripathi, 1999; Srivastava *et al.*, 2014). By utilizing these weeds into manure and fodder their distribution and growth can be controlled. Toxic weed like *Parthenium* can be used as a source of nutrients for crops by converting it into compost and vermicompost (Vyankatrao, 2017).



**Figure 4. Mode of introduction of invasive species**



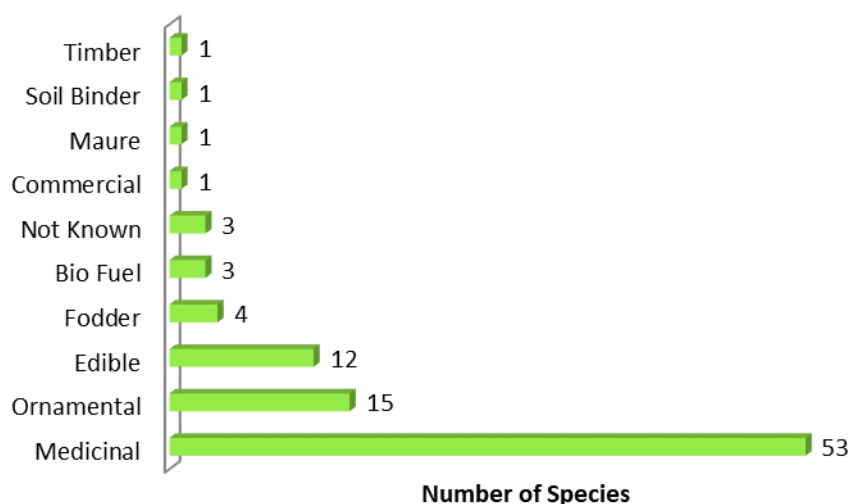
**Figure 5. Categories of invasive species of the study area**

While interpreting the uses of exotic plant species (Figure 6), most of the plants are used as medicinal (57%) followed by other values such as ornamental (16%), edible (13%), fodder (4%), biofuel (35%), and one species (1%) for green manure (*Gliricidia sepium*), soil binder (*Ludwigia adscendens*), commercial (*Hevea brasiliensis*) and timber (*Senna siamea*). The uses of *Gomphrena celosioides*, *Pilea microphylla* and *Pistia stratiotes* were unknown. Even though 10 taxa recorded were noxious they are used as medicine, manure, fodder, etc by the local people.

**Conclusion**

Sacred groves are the store house of rare, endemic and endangered species, conservation pockets of biodiversity, treasure trove of medicinal plants, genepool for wild relative cultivars, heritage centre for traditional culture and harmony. The

native plants of these valuable groves are on the risk of extinction because of the invasion of the alien species. The invasive species cause severe impacts on biodiversity and ecosystem services and they are the serious hindrance to the conservation with significant undesirable impacts on the ecosystems. They can be eradicated largely by physical, chemical, biological and cultural methods (mulching). However these plants are highly resistant and with good regenerative potential they come up with greater vigourity. So it can be controlled effectively by using it in ecological and economical needs. Researches should be carried out to eradicate these exotic plants and to create awareness from gross root level in rural and urban about these alien plants. So that planting of these alien plants should be largely minimized from the sacred lands and its environs.



**Figure 6. Economic utility of invasive alien plants of the sacred groves.**

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**Table 1. Check list of Invasive species of the sacred groves of Kanyakumari district.**

Botanical Name	Family	Common name	Ha	N	MI	C	U
<i>Acacia mangium</i> Willd	Leguminosae	Hickory Wattle	T	Au	I	Na	M
<i>Acacia mearnsii</i> Willd.	Leguminosae	Merralls Wattle	T	Au	I	Na	O
<i>Acalypha siamensis</i> Oliv.ex Gage.	Euphorbiaceae	Siamese Acalypha	S	TAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Acanthocereus tetragonus</i> (L.) Hummelinck	Cactaceae	Triangle Cactus	S	SA	Ui	Na	M
<i>Agave cantula</i> (Haw.) Roxb. ex Salm-Dyck	Agavaceae	Cantala Bombay Aloe	H	TAM	Ui	Na	O
<i>Ageratum conyzoides</i> (L.) L.	Compositae	Goat weed	H	TAM	Ui	No	M
<i>Amaranthus spinosus</i> L.	Amaranthaceae	Prickly Amaranth	H	TAM	Ui	No	E
<i>Anacardium occidentale</i> L.	Anacardiaceae	Cashew	T	SAM	I	Na	E
<i>Annona muricata</i> L.	Annoaceae	Soursop	T	TAM	I	Na	E
<i>Annona reticulata</i> L.	Annoaceae	Netted Custard Apple	T	TAM	I	Na	E
<i>Annona squamosa</i> L.	Annoaceae	Custard Apple	T	TAM	I	Na	E
<i>Antigonon leptopus</i> Hook. & Arn.	Polygonaceae	Coral Vine	C	TAM	Ui	No	M
<i>Argemone mexicana</i> L.	Papaveraceae	Mexican Prickly Poppy	H	SAM	Ui	No	M

<i>Axonopus compressus</i> (Sw.) P.Beauv.	Poaceae	Carpet grass	H	NAM	Ui	No	F
<i>Boerhavia erecta</i> L.	Nyctaginaceae	Erect Spiderling	H	NAM	Ui	In	M
<i>Borassus flabellifer</i> L.	Arecaceae	Palmyra palm	T	TAF	Ui	Na	E
<i>Bougainvillea spectabilis</i> Willd.	Nyctaginaceae	Green Bougainvillea	S	B	Ui	Na	O
<i>Brugmansia suaveolens</i> (Humb. & Bonpl. ex Willd.) Bercht. & J.Presl	Solanaceae	Angels Trumpet	S	Mx	Ui	Na	O
<i>Caesalpinia pulcherima</i> (L.) Sw.	Leguminosae	Peacock Flower	S	TAM	I	Na	O
<i>Calotropis gigantea</i> (L.) Dyand	Asclepiadaceae	Crown Flower	S	TAF	Ui	In	M
<i>Calotropis procera</i> (Aiton) Dryand	Asclepiadaceae	Rubber Bush	S	TAF	Ui	In	M
<i>Capsicum annuum</i> L.	Solanaceae	Capsicum	H	TAM	I	Na	E
<i>Carica papaya</i> L.	Caricaceae	Papaya	T	TAM	I	Na	E
<i>Cascabela thevetia</i> (L.) Lippold	Apocynaceae	Mexican Oleander	S	Mx	Ui	Na	O
<i>Cassia fistula</i> L.	Leguminosae	Amaltas	T	P	I	Na	M
<i>Catharanthus roseus</i> (L.) G. Don.	Apocynaceae	Periwinkle	H	TAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Ceiba pentandra</i> (L.) Gaertn.	Bombacaceae	Kapok	T	TAM	I	Na	M
<i>Centrosema pubescens</i> Benth.	Leguminosae	Spurred Butterfly Tree	C	TAM	I	No	M
<i>Cereus pterogonus</i> Lem.	Compositae	Columnar Cactus	H	TAM	Ui	Na	O
<i>Chloris barbata</i> Sw.	Poaceae	Swollen finger grass	H	TAM	Ui	Na	F
<i>Chromolaena odorata</i> (L.) King and Rob.	Compositae	Siam Weed	H	TAM	Ui	No	M
<i>Cleome gynandra</i> L.	Capparaceae	Wild Spider Flower	H	TAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Cleome rutidosperma</i> DC.	Capparaceae	Fringed Spider Flower	H	TAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Croton bonplandianum</i> Baill.	Euphorbiaceae	Bantulasi	H	SAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Datura metel</i> L.	Solanaceae	Devil's Trumpet	H	TAM	I	In	M
<i>Echinochloa colona</i> (L.) Link	Poaceae	Jungle rice	H	SAM	Ui	In	F
<i>Echinochloa crus-galli</i> (L.) P.Beauv.	Poaceae	Barnyard Grass	H	SAM	Ui	No	F
<i>Eclipta prostrata</i> (L.) L.	Compositae	False Daisy	H	TAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Emilia sonchifolia</i> (L.) DC. Ex DC	Compositae	Purple Sow Thistle	H	TAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Epiphyllum oxypetalum</i> (DC.) Haw.	Cactaceae	Queen of the night	S	CAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Eryngium foetidum</i> L.	Apiaceae	Long Coriander	H	Mx	I	Na	M
<i>Euphorbia hirta</i> L.	Euphorbiaceae	Asthma weed	H	TAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Euphorbia cyathophora</i> Murray	Euphorbiaceae	Painted Leaf Poinsettia	H	TAM	Ui	In	M
<i>Evolvulus nummularius</i> (L.) L.	Convolvulaceae	Roundleaf Bindweed	H	TAM	Ui	Na	M

<i>Gliricidia sepium</i> (Jacq.) Walp.	Leguminosae	Mexican Lilac	T	SAM	I	Na	Ma
<i>Gomphrena celosioides</i> Mart	Amaranthaceae	Water globe head	H	TAM	Ui	Na	NK
<i>Gomphrena globosa</i> L.	Amaranthaceae	Gomphrena	H	A	Ui	Na	O
<i>Hevea brasiliensis</i> (Willd. ex A.Juss.) Mull.Arg.	Euphorbiaceae	Rubber	T	B	I	Na	Co
<i>Hibiscus rosa-sinensis</i> L.	Malvaceae	Shoe flower	S	C	Ui	Na	M
<i>Hibiscus schizopetalus</i> (Dyer) Hook.f.	Malvaceae	Japanese Hibiscus	S	TAF	Ui	Na	O
<i>Hyptis suaveolens</i> (L.) Poit.	Lamiaceae	American Mint	H	TAM	Ui	In	M
<i>Ipomoea alba</i> L.	Convolvulaceae	Moon Vine	C	TAM	Ui	Na	E
<i>Ipomoea carnea</i> Jacq.	Convolvulaceae	Bush Morning Glory	C	TAM	Ui	In	O
<i>Ipomoea obscura</i> (L.) Ker. Gawl.	Convolvulaceae	Obscure Morning Glory	C	TAF	Ui	In	M
<i>Ixora coccinea</i> L.	Rubiaceae	Ixora Pink	S	C	Ui	Na	O
<i>Jatropha curcas</i> L.	Euphorbiaceae	Physic Nut	S	TAM	I	Na	BF
<i>Jatropha gossypifolia</i> L.	Euphorbiaceae	Bellyache Bush	S	TAM	Ui	Na	BF
<i>Jatropha podagrica</i> Hook.	Euphorbiaceae	Australian Bottle plant	S	TAM	I	Na	O
<i>Justicia gendarussa</i> Burm. F.	Acanthaceae	Gandarussa	S	TWAs	Ui	Na	M
<i>Lantana camara</i> L.	Verbenaceae	Lantana	S	TAM	Ui	No	M
<i>Ludwigia adscendens</i> (L.) H. Hara	Onagraceae	Water Primerose	H	TAM	Ui	Na	Sb
<i>Malvaviscus arboreus</i> Cav.	Malvaceae	Sleeping Hibiscus	S	TAM	Ui	Na	O
<i>Maranta arundinacea</i> L.	Marantaceae	West Indian Arrowroot	H	Mx	I	Na	E
<i>Mimosa pudica</i> L.	Leguminosae	Touch Me Not	H	B	Ui	No	M
<i>Ocimum americanum</i> L.	Lamiaceae	Hoary Basil	H	TAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Opuntia dillenii</i> (Ker Gawl.) Haw.	Cactaceae	Prickly Pear	S	TAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Passiflora foetida</i> L.	Passifloraceae	Love in a Mist	C	SAM	I	In	E
<i>Pedaliium murex</i> L.	Pedaliaceae	Large Calotrops	H	TAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Peperomia pellucida</i> (L.) Kunth	Piperaceae	Shiny Bush	H	SAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Physalis minima</i> L.	Solanaceae	Ground Cherry	H	TAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Physalis angulata</i> L.	Solanaceae	Cutleaf Ground Cherry	H	TAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Pilea microphylla</i> (L.) Liebm.	Urticulaceae	Gunpowder Plant	H	SAM	Ui	Na	NK
<i>Pistia stratiotes</i> L.	Araceae	Water Cabbage	H	TAM	Ui	In	NK
<i>Plumeria rubra</i> L.	Apocynaceae	Common White Frangipani	T	TAM	Ui	Na	O
<i>Portulaca oleracea</i> L.	Portulacaceae	Purslane	H	TAM	I	Na	M
<i>Rauvolfia tetraphylla</i> L.	Apocynaceae	Wild Snake Root	H	WI	I	Na	M

<i>Ricinus communis</i> L.	Euphorbiaceae	Castor Bean Plant	S	SAM	Ui	In	BF
<i>Ruellia tuberosa</i> L.	Acanthaceae	Minnie Root	H	TAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Sansevieria trifasciata</i> Prain.	Agavaceae	Snake Plant	H	TWAF	I	Na	O
<i>Scoparia dulcis</i> L.	Scrophulariaceae	Sweet Broom Weed	H	TAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Senna alata</i> (L.) Roxb.	Leguminosae	Candle Bush	S	WI	Ui	Na	M
<i>Senna occidentalis</i> (L.) Link	Leguminosae	Coffee Senna	S	SAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Senna siamea</i> (Lam.) H.S.Irwin & Barneby	Leguminosae	Siamese Cassia	T	SETAs	I	Na	Ti
<i>Solanum torvum</i> Sw.	Solanaceae	Turkey Berry	S	WI	Ui	In	M
<i>Spermacoce hispida</i> L.	Rubiaceae	Indian Pavetta	H	TAM	Ui	In	M
<i>Stachytarpheta jamaicensis</i> (L.) Vahl	Verbenaceae	Blue Porter Weed	H	TAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Synedrella nodiflora</i> (L.) Gaertn.	Compositae	Cinderella Weed	H	WI	Ui	Na	M
<i>Tamarindus indica</i> L.	Leguminosae	Tamarind	T	TAF	I	Na	E
<i>Trema orientalis</i> (L.) Blume	Ulmaceae	Charcoal Tree	T	Af	Ui	Na	M
<i>Tribulus terrestris</i> L.	Zygophyllaceae	Puncture Vine	H	TAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Tridax procumbens</i> (L.) L.	Compositae	Tridax Daisy	H	CAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Triumfetta rhomboidea</i> Jacq.	Tiliaceae	Burr Bush	H	TAM	Ui	Na	M
<i>Urena lobata</i> L.	Malvaceae	Caesar weed	H	TAF	Ui	In	M
<i>Waltheria indica</i> L.	Sterculiaceae	Sleepy Morning	H	TAM	Ui	Na	M

**Ha - Habit:** C – Climber; H – Herb; S – Shrub; T-Tree.

**N – Nativity:** A – America; Af - Africa; Au – Australia; B – Brazil; CAM – Central America; Ch – China; Mx – Mexico; P – Pantropics; SAM – South America; SETA – South East Tropical Asia; TAF – Tropical Africa; TAM – Tropical America; TWAF – Tropical West Africa; TWAs – Tropical West Asia; WI – West Indies. **MI- Mode of Introduction:** I – Intentionally; Ui – Unintentionally.

**C – Categories:** In – Interfering; Na – Naturalized; No – Noxious.

**U – Uses:** E – Edible; O – Ornamental; F – Fodder; M – Medicinal; Ma – Manure; NK – Not Known; Sb – Soil binder; Ti – Timber.

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