Post Shallow-landslide Habitat Disturbance and Vegetation Recovery Status in a Wet Montane Wildlife Sanctuary in the Eastern Highlands Region of Zimbabwe

#### **Abstract**

Landslides are a form of slope failure that may lead to soil and vegetation removal on the earth surface. This study seeks to assess the vegetation recovery status and succession in areas affected by the March 2019 tropical cyclone Idai, which induced shallow landslides in the Eland Sanctuary. Site observations and floristic surveys were performed to elucidate the extent of habitat recovery and the plant successional process. Plant diversity was assessed by estimating the Shannon-Wiener index, whereas species richness was computed via Menhinick's index. Our results revealed fifty-eight shallow landslide sites in the southwestern part of the study area in open woodland areas with poor vegetation cover at elevations between 1418 m and 1673 m and slopes ranging from 20–70 degrees. A total of 1.850km<sup>2</sup> was affected by shallow landslides in loose soils of clay-silt and loam dominated on impervious substrata. Twenty-nine plant species were recorded across the fifty-eight plots sampled. Species include Pteridium aquilinum, Pinus patula, Helichrysum spp., Vernonathura polyanthes, Cyperus iria and Acacia mearnsii. The Shannon (H) index showed medium diversity (Shannon (H) index = 2.474). The species richness (Menhinick index) was 0.5233. The woody plants recorded were mostly from seedlings, although there was no significant difference among the seedlings, bushes and mature trees (Mann–Whitney test at p = 0.05, where the p value = 0.2203). There was no significant difference in the number of invasive plants recorded across the sampled plots for *Pinus patula, Vernonathura polyanthes or Acacia mearnsii* (H =4.57; DF = 2; p value = 0.102, p = 0.05). Active habitat restoration using native woody species is recommended.

**Keywords:** Sanctuary Park, Tropical Cyclone Idai, Shallow landslides, Plant succession, Colonizers, Habitat damage, Invasive plants, Active Habitat Restoration

## 1. Introduction

Landslides are a form of slope failure event characterized by rapid mass movement of soil and/or rock along a discrete shear surface, leading to dramatic soil and vegetation mass wasting in sloping areas (Walker et al 2009). Landslides can result from disturbances in the natural

stability of a slope. They can be triggered by intense rainfall episodes earthquakes or volcanic eruptions (Restrepo and Alvarez, 2006), and human land use practices such as infrastructure construction (Sidle and Ochiai, 2006). Climate change has also increased the frequency and scale of heavy rainfall, increasing the risk of shallow landslides due to heavy rainfall (Gomes et al. 2020; Asada and Minagawa 2023, Bruzo'n et al 2024). When excess water rapidly accumulates in the ground, it increases the water-saturated surface area that triggers mudslides. Shallow land sliding is the most common geomorphic process in mountainous areas of the world (Begueria, 2006, Crozier, 2010, Gulla et al 2021). Shallow landslides usually have small to medium dimensions and typically affect the soil mantle and upper regolith, tending to evolve into unconfined debris flows that affect wildlife habitats and vegetation (Geertsema et al 2009).

Shallow landslides are disturbances that foster the evolution of slope landscapes as part of their self-regulating capacity (Ollauri and Mickovski, 2017). Landslides constitute a major process of land degradation and, in many areas, are responsible for a substantial fraction of the total sediment delivered from a catchment, resulting in displacement of land within a few meters (Gabet and Mudd 2006). The impacts are the creation of habitat gaps in a community or ecosystem. These gaps provide refugia for colonizing plant species that, in turn, supply many other organisms with food or habitat or negatively affect the vegetation status by facilitating invasion (Wunderle et al, 1987).

Intense rainfall-induced shallow landslides caused by climate-induced flooding can have severe consequences, including soil erosion, vegetation loss and habitat loss. The frequency and magnitude of heavy rainfall events are increasing, leading to a rising trend in the occurrence of slope failure. As a result, among these slope failures, shallow landslides are regarded as the most common type of disaster on slopes (Phillips et al 2021, Asada and Minagawa, 2023).

In ecology, landslides are viewed as natural disturbance events of varying frequency and intensity that contribute to the natural evolution of sloped ecosystems (Walker and Shield 2013); however, the effects of shallow landslides on wildlife habitats and vegetation are mostly negative and, in some instances, catastrophic (Schuster and Highland, 2003). Land morphology and topography change greatly, with features such as massive erosion occurring in a habitat due to landslides, for example, after a catastrophic tropical cyclone that occurred on 15 March 2019, affecting parts of the Eastern Highlands Region of Zimbabwe. The damage caused by this tropical cyclone affected the soil, habitat and water conservation. Landslides impact the Earth's natural environment, including effects on forests and grasslands and the

habitats of native flora and fauna (Sams, 2022). Changes in soil characteristics in the sliding area can decrease soil organic matter and plant nutrition (Cheng et al., 2016, Blonska et al, 2018). Shallow landslides increase the openness of the landscape by displacing material enriched with topsoil (Odum 1969) and establishing vegetation downward on the slope at the time of failure (Walker et al. 1996).

Habitat and vegetation damage are major threats to the maintenance of ecological systems in protected areas and forests (Adla et al 2022). Rapid vegetation recovery at shallow landslide sites is important for increasing land stability and retaining wildlife habitats (Asada and Minagawa 2023, Phillips et al 2021). However, the status of vegetation recovery processes after shallow landslides in the Eland Sanctuary Park is currently unknown. Examining vegetation recovery following shallow landslides can offer valuable insights into improving future wildlife habitats affected by disasters (Zhong et al 2023, Lin et al 2006). The quantitative assessment of the response of vegetation following shallow landslides in natural habitats is critical for determining vegetation succession.

Assessments to determine vegetation recovery status and succession in areas affected by shallow landslides have become important sources of information for decision making (Chou et al, 2006). This can improve efforts to restore long-term surface stability through the establishment of relatively stable plant communities (Walker et al, 2009). Therefore, it is important to evaluate the natural vegetation recovery status and provide basic information on the ecological aspects of the recovering environment after shallow landslides. The following objectives prompted the study: (i). To identify areas affected by tropical cyclone idai-induced shallow landslides, (ii). To determine the passive plant species recovery status in habitats affected by shallow landslides induced by tropical cyclones and (iii). To assess the status of vegetation succession and invasion at sites affected by tropical Cyclone Idai-induced shallow landslides in the Eland Sanctuary Park of Chimanimani, Zimbabwe.

## 2. Materials and methods

# 2.1. Location of the study area

The size of the Eland Sanctuary Park is only 18km<sup>2</sup> and it is located in the Eastern Highlands area of Zimbabwe in the Chimanimani district. The vegetation type is a characteristic of montane woodlands and grasslands. The vegetation is sparse on cliffs. The dominant tree species include *Uapaca kirkiana*, *Brachystegia spiciformis*, *Julbernardia globiflora rauvolfia caffra*, *Schefflera umbllifera* and *Protea spp*. The common grass species are *Hyperhania species*, *Loudetia simplex* and *Themeda trianda*. The Miombo and *Uapaca* woodlands occupy the slope areas in the central parts, whereas montane grasslands are found on higher grounds, mostly on the eastern side of the park.

The topography of the Eland Sanctuary consists of high-relief Mountains with elevations above 1000 m. The climate of the area is generally considered humid tropical to temperate, with temperatures ranging between 18–25°C during summer (November–April) and between 8–15°C in the winter season (May–August). Rainfall ranges between 1200 and 2000 mm per year. The area is prone to tropical cyclones as a result of its location in the Indian Ocean. Since 2000, at least five cyclones have been recorded in the area. Eland Sanctuary Park and other parts of Chimanimani and Chipinge experienced heavy rainfall on the 15<sup>th</sup> of March, 2023, with precipitation in excess of 250 mm in 24 hrs accompanied by heavy winds of up to 170 km/h, resulting in numerous shallow landslides. Rainfall-induced shallow landslides are characteristic of areas affected by tropical cyclone events because of their geological, geomorphological, and climatic conditions.

## 2.2. Sampling approach

Shallow landslides tend to have a clearly definable morphology, with an overall spoon shape (Schuster and Krizek, 1978), a nearly vertical arc-shaped 'headwall' and a less distinct 'debris tail' (Whenua, 1997). In this study, a ground survey was performed to identify areas affected by landslides after cyclone Idai occurred on March 15, 2019, at the Eland Sanctuary Park recording location points at each site. A conventional method was then used where site visits to affected areas were performed to assess vegetation recovery status via field floristic surveys of vegetation four years after the tropical cyclone idai induced shallow landslides in Eland Sanctuary Park. A random sampling design was implemented to record the vegetation status at each site affected by shallow landslides. A 1-meter buffer zone from each boundary of the area affected by shallow landslides was delimited within each sampling site to avoid edge effects upon sampling. Scars on upper faces were chosen because lower areas can be affected by subsequent deposition of rafted material (Whenua 1997). A 5 m × 5 m sampling plot was

randomly placed at each site affected by shallow landslides. The plots were pegged on the ground with four plastic pegs using a 5 m tape measure. Fifty-eight plots were randomly set for vegetation and soil sampling in areas affected by shallow landslides. In each plot, location data, site number, plot size, elevation, aspect, slope angle, land use type, dominant vegetation type, soil type, humus level, cover status, disturbance level, size of area affected and plant species (grass, woody and sedges) were recorded.

The geographical position of each sampling plot was recorded via a Garmin Etrex-10 handheld global positioning system (GPS device). The soil samples were also collected for soil analysis. Soil samples were collected randomly at the top level in the sampling plot. The collected soil samples were placed into a 500 ml transparent bottle and marked with the point coordinates of each site. Soil samples were collected for laboratory analysis to determine the dominant soil types in each plot and the humus status. The slope gradient at each site was measured with a hand inclinometer, and topographic attributes such as aspects and point coordinates were recorded from the GPS device. The plant species in each plot were identified. The identification process was carried out at the family and species levels via plant identification field guides (Field guide to trees of southern Africa (Wyk and Wyk 1997), Identification guide to southern African grasses (Fish et al., 2015), Handbook on weed identification (Naidu, 2012), (Herbaceous plants Gowanus field guide (Gruberg et al, 2020)). Where the plant species cannot be named, pictures of the plant were taken via a camera and uploaded online at "Flora of Tropical Africa" Facebook and a leaf snap phone application for assisting in plant identification by experts.

## 3. Data analysis

# 3.1. Size of the study area affected by shallow landslides

To calculate the percentage of wildlife area affected by shallow landslides in the study area, total size of area affected by landslide was added to and expressed as a percentage of the Eland Sanctuary using the derived formula:

%age Area Affected
$$= \left(\frac{Estimated\ total\ size\ of\ area\ affected\ by\ landslides(km2)}{Total\ Size\ of\ Study\ Area\ (km2)}\right)x\ 100$$

## 3.2. Topographic attributes, plants soil samples and number of shallow landslides sites

The topographic attributes were used for assess how they relate to occurrence of shallow landslides. The soil samples collected during data collection were analyzed via the simple method of Matsa et al. (2023) to determine the soil type and humus level, where a flat-bottomed clear jar was ¾ filled with soil and water. The soil and water are then mixed so that all the soil is broken into individual particles (Krasner and Amy 1995). The jar was then placed for one minute, which was the deposition time frame for the sand particles. The deposition of silt particles occurs after one hour, and the deposition of clay particles occurs after 24 hours. The humus content remained suspended on top of the water. Lines were drawn on top of each soil type layer and were measured to determine the percentage of each soil type in the plot, of which all percentages summed to 100%. The soil type percentages were then used for analysis via the soil texture triangle designed by Milton Whitney (1911). The soil texture triangle was used to determine the soil type (sand, clay or loam soil) that was most affected by shallow landslides. Plant types were identified using field guides while simple counting of number of slides was done to come up with the total.

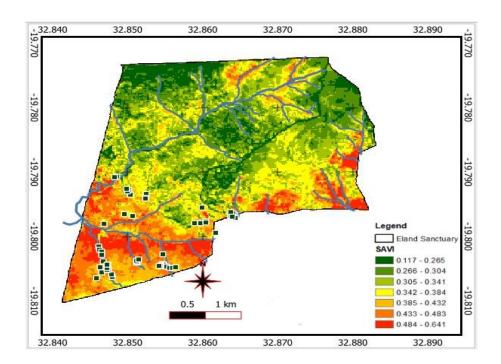
## 3.3. Plant diversity metric determination and indicator species analysis

Plant diversity was assessed by estimating the Shannon-Wiener index. The cumulative species richness (*S*) was computed as the cumulative richness encountered over the plots belonging to a given sampling plot. Species richness per unit area (Sa) was calculated via Margalef's index and Menhinick's index, which calculate species richness independently of the sample size collected. The calculations for plant species diversity and richness were performed in *Paste* 2.14 statistical software.

## 4. Results

4.1.Distribution of sites affected by shallow landslides in relation to vegetation and soil type

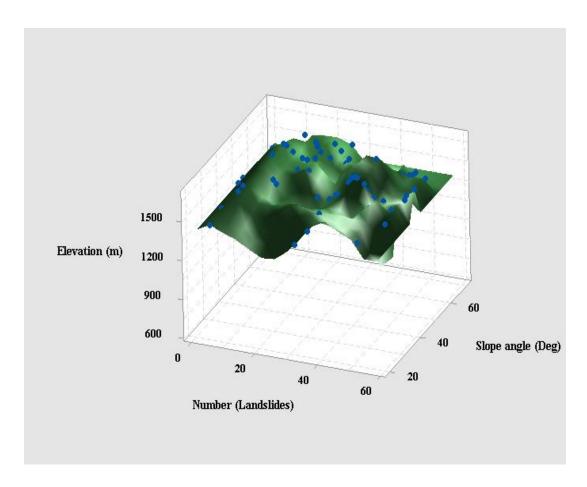
Fifty-eight sites were recorded in the southwestern part of the Eland Sanctuary Park, and the affected areas were characterized by open woodlands dominated by miombo and *Uapaca* with poor vegetation cover (**Figure 1**). A total of 1.850 km<sup>2</sup> (10.3%) was affected by shallow landslides in the study area.



**Figure 1:** Distribution of landslides (black squares) in relation to the soil-adjusted land cover index in Eland Sanctuary Park

# **4.2.** Vegetation type, elevation, slope and number of shallow landslides recorded in the study area

The sizes of areas affected by shallow landslides vary between 25 m<sup>2</sup> and 420 m<sup>2</sup>, and areas with elevations between 1418 m and 1673 m are characterized by slopes ranging from 20–70 degrees (**Figure 2**). There were seventeen sites (29.3%) recorded in mixed miombo-*uapaca*, nine (15.6%) in Uapaca, eighteen (31%) in miombo, six (10.4%) in mixed woodland, six (10.4%) in *Widdringtonia nodiflora*-dominated habitats, the lowest two (3.4%) and six (10.3%) in the riverine.



**Figure 2:** Locations of landslides in relation to elevation (m) and slope angle (deg.) in the study area

Areas that are highly affected by shallow landslides contain shallow and loose soils on impervious substrata. The soils with high clay, clay loam, silt-clay-loam and silt-loam-sized grains were most associated with landslides basing on the results from soil analysis performed.

# 4.3. Species recorded and diversity at affected sites and recovery levels.

Twenty-nine plant species were recorded across the fifty-eight plot samples in seven habitat types. The number of plants recorded by Uapaca kirkiana was the highest (Figure 3).

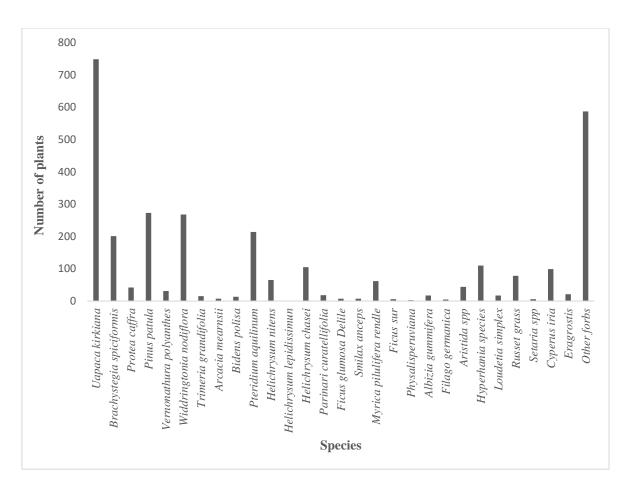
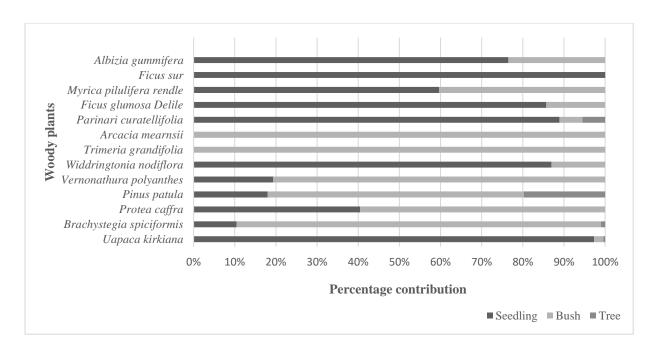


Figure 3: Species recorded in areas affected by shallow landslides.

Diversity analysis performed with Paste 2.14 statistical software at the 0.95% confidence interval *revealed that the Shannon (H)* index was 2.474, indicating medium diversity. The species richness based on the *Menhinick index* was 0.5233, and the *Margalef index* was 3.487.

# 4.4. Woody plant recruitment status

The woody plants recorded were mostly from seedlings rather than from the coppicing or recovery of mature trees, with the exception of *Trimeria grandifolia* (**Figure 4**). However, the results were not significantly different according to the Mann–Whitney pairwise comparison at p = 0.05, where p (same) was 0.2203.



**Figure 4:** Wood plant species comparison from the sampled plots in different habitats of the study area

# 4.5. Invasive plant status in areas affected by shallow landslides

*The Kruskal–Wallis* test was performed to determine if there was a significant difference in the number of new invasive colonizers recorded in the sampled plots (Table 1).

**Table 1**: Comparison of the number of plants and plots recorded with alien plants

	Number of plants	Number of plots where	
	recorded	present	
Pinus patula	273	31	
Vernonathura polyanthes	31	13	
Acacia mearnsii	7	4	

The results revealed no significant difference in the number of plants recorded among the three species (H =4.57; DF = 2; p value = 0.102) at p = 0.05.

#### 5. Discussion

## 5.1. Areas and locations affected by shallow landslides in the study area

The Cyclone Idai shallow landslides affected the southwestern part of the Eland Sanctuary. These affected areas are mostly found in open woodland areas of mixed-miombo-*uapaca*, *uapaca* dominated, miombo dominated and other mixed but sparsely vegetated areas. There are few shallow landslides in areas with high vegetation cover, such as montane grasslands and woodlands. This may be a function of vegetation cover, where thick vegetation holds soil in place while open lands are highly exposed to running water.

Our findings indicate that areas affected mostly by shallow landslides are distributed mainly in steep terrain, including areas at the bottom of gullies and along riverine and stream channels. In these areas, once the soil is saturated, it easily becomes slippery due to reduced friction. The associated soils recorded in these areas are prone to landslides because of their low resistance. Clay and silty-loam soils can easily become saturated and less resistant to movement. When more sediment flows down a river, it can cause flooding, leading to erosion of the surrounding areas. Increased sediment flow along river channels causes a rapid, unstable build-up of material on the riverbank, which results in a slide.

Our findings are also consistent with those of Prancevic et al. (2020), who reported that steeper slopes require smaller hydrological triggers for shallow landslides to occur due to the added downslope pull of gravity, which should result in more frequent landslides and faster erosion. A result of these actions, the affected areas are left exposed to open ground, and further mass movements can occur (**Figure 5**).



Figure 5: Shallow landslide scars recorded on steep slopes in the study area

#### **5.2. Vegetation Recovery Status**

Vegetation recovery in areas affected by shallow landslides was recorded from seedlings, coppicing from roots and from tree branches. Most coppicing and recovery from fallen trees and roots were recorded in *Myrica pilulifera rendle*, *Protea caffra*, *Brachystegia spiciformis*, and *Ficus sur*, whereas trees that grow directly from seeds were mostly recorded in *Uapaca kirkiana*, *Widdringtonia modiflora*, *Pinus patula* and *Albizia gummifera*. Other nonwoody plants, including *herbaceous* species, grow from seeds and bulbs, and these plants include *Helichrysum nitens*, *Helichrysum lepidissimun*, *Helichrysum chasei*, *Pteridium aquilinum* and *Cyperus iria*. Approximately 87% of the woody plants recorded grew from seeds, and sixtyeight percent of the recorded plants were seedlings.

The findings show that the vegetation recovery process in the study area has a protracted duration, and it is likely to take much time before the affected sites fully recover. There is evidence that the survival of seedlings, especially *Uapaca kirkiana*, is low because several factors, including utilization by herbivores, wilting during the dry season, poor adaptability to environmental conditions and low nutrient levels in the soil influence the growth and survival of seedlings (Hawkes et al 2001, Bhadouria et al 2016, Makhado et al 2014, ). This is evidence of a poor recruitment rate between seedlings and small bushes. The majority of the seedlings were less than one year old. Four years after a major landslide event, the surveyed sites also recorded low regeneration in the initiation zones and an indication of slower vegetation recovery. Low vegetation recovery can also be attributed to the severity of the landslide disturbance that occurred (Zhong et al 2023, Law et al 2024). Mostly, the topsoil was washed away to pattern rock. Furthermore, unfavorable conditions for vegetation recovery, such as middle to upper elevations, steeper and southwest-facing slopes, and slightly divergent terrain, were widespread in the landslide-affected areas and contributed to delayed vegetation recovery. The cumulative effect of these conditions exacerbates challenges for revegetation, including limited resources, increased erosion risk, and reduced microclimatic suitability (Shipra 2018).

#### **5.3.** Vegetation succession status

The number of first colonizers recorded in these affected areas includes herbaceous and woody plants. The common plants recorded include *Uapaca kirkiana*, *Protea caffra*, *Pinus patula*, *Widdringtonia nodiflora*, *Helichrysum nitens*, *Helichrysum lepidissimun*, *Helichrysum chasei*, *Parinari curatellifolia*, *Ficus glumosa Delile*, *Smilax anceps*, *Myrica pilulifera rendle*, *Ficus sur*, *Physalis peruviana*, *and Albizia gummifera*. The grass species were *Aristida*, *Hyperhania*, *and Loudetia simplex*, while a number of Forbs were also dominant.

Pteridium aquilinum, Pinus patula, Helichrysum species, Vernonathura polyanthes, Cyperus iria and Acacia mearnsii have been reported to invade disturbed areas as colonizers. These species are the primary invaders to newly disturbed environments during the processes of primary succession and, in some cases, secondary succession. Pteridium species are among the most prominent plant life forms that colonize landslides in tropical locations (Walker and Sharpe, 2010). They have rapid growth rates (Richardson and Walker, 2010). According to Walker et al. (2010), Pteridium species form monospecific stands on landslides. Pteridium and Helichrysum species can be present during some or all of the stages of landslide succession. Widdringtonia nodiflora was also a good colonizer and promoted good recruitment from seed growth. The plant typically grows among rocks and steep slopes. Grasslands represent one of the most successful groups of plants that can rapidly colonize and dominate landslides for several years following disturbance (Velazquez and Gomez-Sal, 2009). Tropical landslides with bare soils can be quickly covered by grasses and herbs. Valazquez and Gomez-Sal (2009) reported that grasses, particularly Hyparrhenia rufa, were the dominant initial colonists and persisted as dominants throughout the first 4 years of succession on a large landslide in the Nicaraguan dry forest. Similarly, Gomes et al (2020) reports better herb diversity and density two years after a major landslide took place in Aranayake, Sri Lanka.

Our findings establish that these colonizers reproduce and grow quickly, enabling them to take advantage of resources in barren environments before larger competitors arrive. Through their interactions, pioneer species build a simple initial biological community that gradually gives way to other species (Chou et al 2015). As ecological succession continues, the community advances through one or more intermediate stages to reach a relatively stable mature or climax structure dominated by a small number of prominent species.

## 5.4. Alien plant invasion status at affected sites

A close look at the disturbance as a result of landslides revealed likely changes in vegetation type over time. New species of invasive plants were recorded in at least 53% of the plots sampled where they were establishing themselves, and the species included *Pinus patula* (273 plants), *Vernonathura polyanthes* (31 plants) and *Acacia mearnsii* (7 plants). These plants are characterized by fast growth and can spread quickly and outcompete herbaceous plants, and after establishment, they can spread to other areas, hence potentially leading to changes in ecosystem structure.

From the surveys, it was observed that invasive plants were outgrowing native plants, with 96% of recorded alien plants at least one meter above the ground, and had established themselves from seedlings, an indication of fast growth and adaptability to affected areas (**Figure 4**). On the other hand, native plants growing from seeds were mostly less than 30 centimeters in height although it was difficult to estimate age. Estimating plant age can be difficult because there are several factors which influence plant growth like soil type, nutrient level and continuous disturbance (Harper 2024).

The establishment of invasive plants in affected areas may facilitate the competitive ability of invasive plants with native plants in more stressful environments. Invasive plant species have several qualities in common, and they adapt to help them colonize harsh sterile environments; they tend to germinate, grow, mature, and reproduce quickly; and they produce large numbers of offspring, either asexually or through wind-dispersed pollen, spores, and seeds. In addition, the seeds and other propagules of many pioneer species are adapted to low-moisture environments, which allows them to survive long periods of dormancy.

Our findings suggest that invasive plant establishment on shallow landslides can occur in a short time frame. Similarly, Gomes et al (2020) also reports increase in number and diversity of non-native plants in areas which experienced major landslide in Aranayake, Sri Lanka, two years after the disaster. Succession is an imperative ecological concept that can be studied to determine how affected sites respond to a disturbance and thereby motivate restoration techniques. The findings of this study allow for targeted and nuanced monitoring and assessment of vegetation dynamics, enabling effective management and decision making in post landslide affected ecosystems. Therefore, active habitat restoration is recommended where fast-growing trees and shrubs are best suited from local native plants, with a focus on removing invasive plants from areas affected by shallow landslides. Further research is needed to investigate the reciprocal influences of geomorphic processes on vegetation recovery dynamics by simulating nutrient level changes.

# 6. Conclusions

This study investigated vegetation recovery and succession status after four years of rainfall-induced landslides disturbed by the tropical Cyclone Idai in the Eland Sanctuary Park. Open habitats with sparse vegetation were the most affected. Vegetation recovery is poor and

inconsistent, and the affected sites are taking protracted time (four years) without reaching a near-stable state. This may be related to the severity of landslide disturbance, low humus level and lack of restoration work after the occurrence of shallow landslides. Recording nonindigenous plants of *Pinus patula*, *Vernonathura polyanthes* and *Acacia mearnsii* in the affected areas may define plant succession, which influences habitat changes. This study provides insights into the long-term impacts of shallow landslides on vegetation recovery, growth stability and succession. These results successfully address the primary motivation for investigating vegetation recovery and succession and hence suggest that active habitat restoration that aims to improve recolonization by native plants in affected areas while suppressing the growth of invasive plants by alien plants.

## Acknowledgment

The author(s) thank the Director General of Parks and Wildlife Management Authority, Zimbabwe, for permission to carry out the research in the Eland Sanctuary Park area. We also appreciate Mrs. M. Chikara, who assisted during data collection, and anonymous reviewers, who helped perfect the manuscript.

## **Disclaimer (Artificial intelligence)**

Author(s) hereby declare that NO generative AI technologies such as Large Language Models (ChatGPT, COPILOT, etc.) and text-to-image generators have been used during the writing or editing of this manuscript.

## Reference

Adla, K., Dejan, K., Neira, D., and Dragana, S. (2022). Degradation of ecosystems and loss of ecosystem services. One Health, Integrated Approach to 21<sup>st</sup> Century Challenges to Heath. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-822794-7.00008-3">https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-822794-7.00008-3</a>.

Asada, H and Minagawa T. (2023). Impact of Vegetation Differences on Shallow Landslides: A Case Study in Aso, Japan. Water, 15(18): 3193. https://doi.org/10.3390/w15183193

Begueria, S. (2006). Changes in Landcover and shallow landslides activity: A case study in the Spanish Pyrenees. Geomorphology, 74(1-4), 196-206. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geomorph.2005.07.018.

Bhadouria, R., Singh, R., Srivastava, P. and Raghubanshi, A.S. (2016). Understanding the ecology of tree-seedling growth in dry tropical environment: a management perspective. Energ. Ecol. Environ. (2016) 1(5): 296–309. DOI 10.1007/s40974-016-0038-3.

- Blonska, E., Lasota, J., Piaszczyk, W., Wiechec, M. and Klamerus-Iwan, A. (2018). The effect of landslide on soil organic carbon stock and biochemical properties of soil. Journal of Soils and Sediments 18(7). https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s11368-017-1775-4.
- Bruzon, A.G., Arrogante-Funes, P., Alvarez, A., Osuna, D., Novillo, C. and Arrogante-Funes, F. (2024). Enhancing Landslide Vulnerability Mapping Through Automated Fuzzy Logic Algorithm-Based Methodology. Geotechnical and Geological Engineering 42(5): 1-17 DOI:10.1007/s10706-023-02714-z.
- Cheng, C., Hsiao, S., Huang, Y., Hung, C., Pai, C., Chen, C. and Manyailo, O.V. (2016). Landslide-induced changes of soil physicochemical properties in Xitou, Central Taiwan. Geoderma, 265 (1): 187-195. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoderma.2015.11.028.
- Chou, F., Lin, W., Chen, Y. and Lia, C. (2015). Monitoring the Vegetation Dynamics of Early Succession Following a Landslide on Shanping Forest Road. Taiwan Journal for Scientific 30(4): 217-28, 2015.
- Crozier, M.J. (2010). Landslide geomorphology: An argument for recognition, with examples from New Zealand. Geomorphology, 120(1-2): 3-14. <a href="http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.geomorph.2009.09.010">http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.geomorph.2009.09.010</a>. DOI 10.1007/s10346-017-0822-y.
- Field operations of the Bureau of Soils, 1911. (Thirteenth report.) By Milton Whitney, Chief, with accompanying papers by assistants in charge of field parties.
- Fish, L., Mashau, A.C., Moeaha, J. and Nembudani, T. (2015). Identification guide to southern African grasses: an identification manual with keys, descriptions and distributions. South African National Biodiversity Institute (SANBI), Strelizia.
- Gabet, E. and Mudd, S. (2006). The mobilization of debris flows from shallow landslides. Geomorphology. 74. 207-218. 10.1016/j.geomorph.2005.08.013.
- Geertsema, M. and Pojar, J. J. (2007) Influence of landslides on biophysical diversity A perspective from British Columbia. Geomorphology, 89(1-2): 55-69.
- Geertsema, M., Highland, L. and Vaugeouis, L. (2009). Environmental Impact of Landslides. In: Sassa, K., Canuti, P. (eds) Landslides Disaster Risk Reduction. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-540-69970-5\_31">https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-540-69970-5\_31</a>
- Gomes, C. L., Bianchi, F., Cardoso, I., Bianchi, F. J. J.A., Fernandes, R.B. A., Filho, E.I.F. and Schulte, R.P.O. (2020) Agroforestry Systems Can Mitigate the Impacts of Climate Change on Coffee Production: A Spatially Explicit Assessment in Brazil. *Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment*, 294 (106858). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2020.106858.
- Gomes, P. I., Aththanayake, U., Deng, W., Li, A., Zhao, W. and Jayathilaka, T. (2020). Ecological fragmentation two years after a major landslide: Correlations between vegetation indices and geo-environmental factors. Ecological Engineering, 153: 105914.
- Gonzalez-Ollauri, A.G. and Mickovski, S. B. (2017). Shallow landslides as drivers for slope ecosystem evolution and biophysical diversity. Landslides, 14:1699–1714.
- Gruberg, D., Morris, W. and Seaton, N. (2020). Herbaceous plants Gowanus Field Guide. 2020 edition. Gowanus Canal Conservancy.

- Gullà, G., Conforti, M. and Borrelli, L. (2021). A refinement analysis of the shallow landslides susceptibility at regional scale supported by GIS-aided geo-database. Geomatics, Natural Hazards and Risk, 12(1): 2500–2543. https://doi.org/10.1080/19475705.2021.1967204.
- Harper, O. (2024). Assessing the Influence of Soil Composition on Plant Growth and Development in USA. American Journal of Physical Sciences. 2: 61-72. 10.47604/ajps.2665.
- Hawkes, C. and Jon, S. (2001). The Impact of Herbivory on Plants in Different Resource Conditions: A Meta-Analysis. Ecology. 82. 2045-2058. 10.2307/2680068.
- Law, Y.K., Lee, C.K.F., Chan, A.H. Y., Mak, N.P.L., Hau, B.C.H. and Wu, J. (2024). Unveiling the role of forests in landslide occurrence, recurrence and recovery. Journal of Applied Ecology 61(9), 2033-2046. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2664.14741">https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2664.14741</a>.
- Lin, W., Lin, C. and Chou, W. (2006). Assessment of vegetation recovery and soil erosion at landslides caused by a catastrophic earthquake: A case study in Central Taiwan. Ecological Engineering. 28: 79-89. 10.1016/j.ecoleng.2006.04.005.
- Makhado, R.A., Mapaure, I., Potgieter, M.J., Luus-Powell, W.J. and Saidi, A.T. (2014). Factors influencing the adaptation and distribution of Colophospermum mopane in southern Africa's mopane savannas A review. Bothalia- African Biodiversity & Conservation. **44(1)**. <a href="https://doi.org/10.4102/ABC.V44I1.152">https://doi.org/10.4102/ABC.V44I1.152</a>
- Matsa, M., Mugogo, K. A., Mahakata, I., Dzawanda, B. and Mavugara, R. (2023). Spatial distribution of invasive large fever berry trees (Croton megalobotrys) in Sengwa Wildlife Research Area: Gokwe, Zimbabwe. Environmental Systems Research 12:8 <a href="https://doi.org/10.1186/s40068-023-00285-9">https://doi.org/10.1186/s40068-023-00285-9</a>.
- Naidu, V.S.G.R. (2012). Hand Book on Weed Identification Directorate of Weed Science Research, Jabalpur, India Pp 354.
- Phillips, C., Hales, T.C., Smith, H. and Basher, L. (2021). Shallow landslides and vegetation at the catchment scale: A perspective. Ecological Engineering. 173. 106436. 10.1016/j.ecoleng.2021.106436.
- Prancevic, J. P., Lamb, M. P., McArdell, B. W., Rickli, C. and Kirchner, J. W. (2020). Decreasing landslide erosion on steeper slopes in soil-mantled landscapes. Geophysical Research Letters, 47, e2020GL087505. https://doi.org/10.1029/2020GL087505.
- Restrepo, C., and Alvarez, N. (2006). Landslides and Their Contribution to Land-cover Change in the Mountains of Mexico and Central America. Biotropica, 38(4). 446-457. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-7429.2006.00178.x">https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-7429.2006.00178.x</a>.
- Restrepo, C., Walker, L. R., Shields, A. B., Bussmann, R., Claessens, L., Fisch, S., Lozano, P., Negi, G., Paolini, L., Poveda, G., Ramos-Scharron, C., Richter, M. and Velazquez, E. (2009). Landsliding and its multiscale influence on mountainscapes. Bioscience 59: 685–698.
- Richardson, S. and Walker, L. (2010). Nutrient ecology of ferns. Fern Ecology. 111-139. 10.1017/CBO9780511844898.005.
- Sams, C. (2022). Impact of landslides on the environment. Journal of Science and Geosciences. 10 (1): 13-14.

- Schuster, R. L, and Highland, L.M (2003) Impact of landslides and innovative landslide mitigation measures on the natural environment. In International conference on slope engineering, Hong Kong, China, 8(10).
- Schuster, R.L. and Krizek, R.J. (1978). Landslides: analysis and control. Special report 176, Transportation Research Board. Commission on Socio-Technical Systems, National Research Council (U.S.A.).
- Shipra, S. (2018). Understanding the role of slope aspect in shaping the vegetation attributes and soil properties in montane ecosystems. Tropical Ecology. 59: 417-430.
- Sidle, R.C. and Ochiai, H. (2006). Landslides: Processes, Prediction, and Land Use. Water Resources Monograph Series, 18. DOI: 10.1029/WM018.
- Velázquez E. and Gómez-Sal, A. (2009) Changes in the herbaceous communities on the landslide of the Casita volcano, Nicaragua, during early succession. Folia Geobot 44:1–18.
- W.T., Lin, C.Y. and Chou, W. C. (2006). Assessment of vegetation recovery and soil erosion at landslides caused by a catastrophic earthquake: A case study in Central Taiwan. Ecological Engineering 28: 79-89.
- Walker, L. R. and Shield, A. B. (2013). Chapter 4 Biological consequences for Landslide Ecology. *USDA National Wildlife Research Center Staff Publications*. 1639. https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/icwdm\_usdanwrc/1639.
- Walker, L., Velázquez, E., and Shields, A. (2009). Applying lessons from ecological succession to the restoration of landslides. Plant and Soil. 324: 157-168. 10.1007/s11104-008-9864-1.
- Walker, L.R. and Sharpe, J.M. (2010). Fern Ecology. Plant Sciences, Life Sciences, Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511844898.
- Walker, L.R., Zarin, D. J., Fetcher, N., Myster, R.W. and Johnson, A.H. (1996) Ecosystem development and plant succession on landslides in the Caribbean. Biotropica, 28(4): 566-576. https://doi.org/10.2307/2389097.
- Whenua, M. (1997). Vegetation and soil recovery on shallow landslide scars in tertiary hill country, East Cape Region, New Zealand. *New Zealand Journal of Ecology* (1997) 21(1): 31-41.
- Wunderle, Jr, J.M., Diaz, A., Velazquez, I. and Scharron, R. (1987). Forest Openings and the Distribution of Understory Birds in a Puerto Rican Rainforest. The Wilson Bulletin, 99(1): 22-37. https://www.jstor.org/stable/4162338.
- Wyk, V. B. and Wyk, V. P. (1997). Field Guide to Trees of Southern Africa. Cape Town: Struik Publishers (a division of New Holland Publishing, South Africa) (Pty Ltd).
- Zhong, C., Oguchi, T. and Lai, R. (2023). Effects of Topography on Vegetation Recovery after Shallow Landslides in the Obara and Shobara Districts, Japan. Remote Sensing, 15(16): 3994; <a href="https://doi.org/10.3390/rs15163994">https://doi.org/10.3390/rs15163994</a>.
- Zhong, C.; Oguchi, T. and Lai, R. (2023). Effects of Topography on Vegetation Recovery after Shallow Landslides in the Obara and Shobara Districts, Japan. Remote Sens. 15: 3994. https://doi.org/10.3390/rs15163994.