The Threat of Urbanization on Beetle Diversity in New Damietta City, Egypt

Eman I. El Surtasi¹*; Fayez M. Semida²; Mahmoud S. Abdel-Dayem³; Mohammed M. El Bokl¹

¹Department of Zoology, Faculty of Science, Mansoura University (Damietta Branch), Egypt. ²Department of Zoology, Faculty of Science, Suez Canal University, Ismalia, Egypt.

³ Plant Protection Department, College of Food and Agricultural Sciences, King Saud University,

Rivadh, Saudi Arabia.

*E-mail: eman2006700@yahoo.com

Abstract: Urbanization is a global phenomenon, particularly along coastal Mediterranean Sea that represents a threat to natural ecosystem and whole biodiversity due to the reduction of natural environment with land conversion. This impact was investigated on beetle diversity at three urbanized sites in addition to natural control site in New Damietta city, Egypt for 24 successive months (2007-2009). Within each site, 20 pitfall traps were distributed systematically in grid arrangement. Overall, beetle diversity (diversity index, richness and abundance) showed a highly significant difference among study sites and clarified the higher species of diversity, richness and abundance in the natural control site compared to urbanized sites. Moreover, cluster analysis and ordination (DCA) differentiated between natural control site and urbanized sites, while canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) revealed seven important environmental factors from 22 factors that correlated with beetle community. This study clarified that urbanization is not only threat to beetle diversity but also on species composition and environmental characters.

[Eman I. El Surtasi; Fayez M. Semida; Mahmoud S. Abdel-Dayem; Mohammed M. El Bokl. **The Threat of Urbanization on Beetle Diversity in New Damietta City, Egypt.** Nature and Science 2012;10(1):15-23]. (ISSN:1545-0740). <u>http://www.sciencepub.net</u>.

Keywords: Abundance, Coleoptera, Mediterranean, ordination, pitfall traps, species richness.

1. Introduction

Urbanization is a dominant process of land alteration, converting rural to urban land (United Nations, 2006). It occurs at different levels, and these differ in the density of humans present, the amount of the original habitat left, and often the intensity and type of management (Blair, 2004; McDonald, 2008). Urban areas, however, are not devoid of plants and animals. These areas can provide ephemeral or more permanent habitats for species, dispersal corridors or resting places for migrating organisms (Gaston et al., 2005).

The most important consequence of urbanization is wholesale transformation of the local environment, affecting it at a fundamental level by altering habitat, climate, hydrology, and primary production (Sukopp & Starfinger, 1999; Kinzig & Grove, 2001). A final daunting result will be to habitat loss, habitat fragmentation, isolation and biotic homogenization (Miller & Hobbs, 2002; McKinney, 2002& 2006). biodiversity linked Further. is to essential environmental services in urbanized areas, including the removal of dust, the mitigation of microclimatic extremes and the modulation of humidity (Bolund & Hunhammar, 1999). The opportunity to exchange meaningful interactions with the natural world is necessary to gain public support for biodiversity conservation (Miller, 2005).

Beetles constitute a large proportion of total insect biodiversity, play a pivotal role in trophic chains and are sensitive to human activities (Purvis and Fadl, 2002; Leraut, 2003). Numerous studies on beetle assemblages in urban areas have been largely developed in the last decades especially in Europe, Japan and in United States (e.g.: Alaruikka et al., 2002; Venn et al., 2003; Magura et al., 2004, 2006, 2008 & 2010; Elek and Lovei, 2007; Gaublomme et al., 2008; Fattorini, 2011) but until now, there is lack of studying this effect in almost world. New Damietta city is a recently reclaimed and developed city along coastal Mediterranean Sea. Urbanization is the most important impact that drew its characters overall city directions. Therefore, this study aimed to detect threat of urbanization on biodiversity using beetle diversity in this city.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Study sites

New Damietta city is a recently reclaimed and developed city in Egypt along coastal Mediterranean Sea. Its locality is about 18 km2 at 31°26'20.0972"N 31°42'55.6898"E and accommodate more than 8770 people. It characterized by sandy sheets and dunes, special flora and with temperate to dry climate. New Damietta is renowned for its guava farms and palm trees over its land in addition to some famous agricultural products such as tomatoes, vegetables, wheat and others. Nevertheless, salt wild herbs and

shrubs such as *Inula crithmoides* (Golden samphire), *Zygophyllum aegyptium* (Ratrayt), *Alhagi graecerum* (Aquoul), *and Juncus rigidus* (Samaar Morrr) characterize the other wild regions. The climate of the study area is typically Mediterranean, almost semiarid. The Mediterranean climate is defined in terms of precipitation and temperature and characterized by a high seasonality summarized as long hot and dry summer season and cool, wet short rainy winter season.

Urbanization is one of the main characters in the recently reclaimed cities. Briefly, the combined effects of the multiple elements of urbanization have led to the reduction, alteration and fragmentation of the rural habitat. Three urbanized study sites in addition to natural control one were chosen and coordinated using a hand-held GPS (Garmin, GPS III plus). Natural control site is laid at E 31° 39' 46.8" and N 31° 27' 20.6". Three urbanized sites were determined; Urban1 at E 31° 40' 10.4" and N 31° 27'23", while the other sites were inside the city; Urban2 at E 31° 40' 45" and N 31° 26'20.3" and the third site, Urban3 at E 31° 40' 37.6"and N 31° 26' 28.8". These urbanized sites represented different intensity of urbanization. Urban 1 is coastal site that characterized by exchange of the sandy soil to white, loamy soil and change in the main characters of this site, in addition to runoff water, noise and light, urbanization encompassed more than half the total land area, which contributed to the disappearance of perhaps less than 50% of natural habitat. The Urban 2 is residential, which includes fragments of nonurban land (10%) within surrounding urban land (90%); with continuous increasing of correlated impact aspects such as light, workers, noise, urbanization wastes that cause heavy effect on this site, and removal of vegetation cover occurred at the end of this study. While, inside city urbanized site (Urban 3) characterized with vast area of fragmented nonurban patches (20%) within urban land (80), with less urbanized effect from light, water runoff, sandy soil and wild vegetation.

2.2. Data sampling

The sampling of beetles was conducted using pitfall trap (rounded plastic bottle 13 cm deep with an opening of 5.7cm diameter and filled one-third full of water with a little of colorless detergent). Twenty traps per site at five meter intervals in a regular distribution were fixed. Traps were closed except for 48-hours period of trapping once per month throughout the study period (2007-2009). This period of 48 hours is considered adequate to minimize depletion of the ground insects (Southwood & Henderson, 2000). The collected specimens were identified to the species level whenever possible. Occasionally only generic or even family designations were possible but even though without a

name, it was ensure that each morphotype represents a separate species.

Soil samples were collected from each site for physical and chemical analysis. The portion finer than 2 mm was kept for physical and chemical analysis. Texture analysis was performed with different sieve diameters: 0.59 mm for coarse sand; 0.25 mm for medium sand; 0.063 mm for fine sand; and < 0.063mm for silt and clay fraction. Soil moisture was estimated in each soil sample by drying at 105°C for 72h then ignition (at 450°C for 3 h) for estimation of organic matter content. Electric conductivity (EC) and soil Hydrogen number (pH) were evaluated in 1:5 soil-water extract using electric conductivity meter and a glass electrode pH-meter, respectively (Jackson, 1962). Potassium, sodium and calcium of the soil extract were measured by using Flame Photometer (model Jenway PFP7) (Rowell, 1994). Moreover, calcium carbonates (CaCO₃) and chlorides (Cl⁻) were determined according to (Jackson, 1962). On the other hand, bicarbonates (H_2CO_3) were determined in soil extract by titration against 0.1N Hydrochloride acid (HCl) using Phenolphthalein and Methyl orange as indicator respectively (Piper, 1947). Moreover, the samples of plants in each site were identified in the Botany Department, Damietta Mansoura University. Faculty, The relative vegetation cover to each plant was estimated according to the method described in the literatures (Barbour et al., 1999). While the total area and barren area (m^2) were determined using standard methods.

2.3. Data analysis

Overall beetle diversity

Overall beetle diversity was expressed as species richness, abundance and Simspon diversity index. Species richness is the simplest way to describe community and regional diversity and most universally applied measure and important traits of biodiversity of which it captures much of the essence (Magurran, 1988; Sarkar & Margules, 2002) that refers to number of species in certain area. However, abundance is the kind of diversity measures that has inclusively been considered as equivalent to biodiversity per se (Peet, 1974) and referred to the sum of individuals in area. However, Simpson diversity index (D) is nearly the most tractable and statistically useful calculation (Lande, 1996):

 $\lambda = \Sigma p_i^2$ D = 1- λ Where D is Simpson diversity index, λ is an index of dominance. p_i is the proportion of the community occupied by the i^{th} species.

All parameters of beetle diversity were calculated by PC-ORD program 4.14 (McCune & Mefford, 1999). However, analyses of variance (ANOVA) were used to test for differences.

Grouping and ordination analysis

Cluster analysis is a grouping technique for classifying numerical data using similarity indices between localities and sites within localities depending up on the similarity distances between groups and plotted using the Hierarchical Cluster analysis. Detrended Correspondence Analysis (DCA) is an eigen analysis-based ordination technique derived from correspondence analysis (Hill and Gauch, 1980). Detrended correspondence analysis (DCA), an indirect gradient analysis technique, plots sites against axes based on species composition and abundance (ter Braak, 1994). Sites that are more similar in environmental conditions are depicted as being closer together in the diagram. However, Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA) is a multivariate method, which relates the community species composition to environmental variables. Its results were displayed as a CCA tri-plot of species, sample habitats and environmental variables and the axes of the ordination were constrained to optimize their linear relationships to the environmental variables. Longer the line (and more parallel) is with an axis, the more important that variable (s) is for structuring the beetle species composition. A

permutation test with 1000 iterations was performed to test for significance of the species and the environmental variables. Grouping and ordination analysis was carried out by PAST V. 1.92 software running on Windows® XP. (Hammer et al., 2001).

3. Results 3.1. Overall beetle diversity

In total, 702 individuals of 46 different beetle species belonging to 15 families (Table 1) were collected from different sites throughout the study period. The most specious family was Tenebrionidae (34%) among the collected families of Coleoptera. There are highly significant differences among Coleoptera families in their species number during study period (F $_{(14, 95)}$ = 9.7, P< 0.0001) in addition to significant differences among study sites (F $_{(3, 95)}$ = 5.09, P< 0.004). Also, beetle species exhibited a spatially significant difference in species richness among different study sites (F $_{(3, 95)} = 5.09$, P< 0.0001). Where, Control site (33 species in 15 families) had the highest value of the spatial variation in species richness; while, urbanized site (Urban 2) was the lowest one (11species in five families) (Table 1).

Table1: Spatial variation in species richness (number of species), abundance, and Simpson diversity of beetle assemblages at different sites of the study area and different families of Coleoptera during 2007-2009, at New Damietta City, Egypt.

Family	Control site	Urban 1	Urban 2	Urban 3	Total
Anthicidae	1 (30)	1 (6)	0	1 (1)	1(37)
Buprestidae	0	0	0	2 (3)	1(3)
Carabidae	6 (97)	3(20)	4 (65)	5 (66)	9(248)
Cerambycidae	1(3)	0	0	0	1(3)
Coccinellidae	2 (2)	0	0	0	1(1)
Cryptophagidae	0	0	0	1(2)	1 (2)
Curculionidae	4 (13)	1(3)	0	2 (4)	5(20)
Elateridae	1(2)	0	0	0	1 (2)
Histeridae	1(one)	1(7)	0	0	1(8)
Meloidae	1(8)	0	0	1 (4)	1(12)
Mycetophagidae	0	0	1 (3)	0	1(3)
Nititulidae	0	0	0	1 (1)	1(1)
Scarabaeidae	3(23)	1(5)	0	2 (7)	5(35)
Staphylinidae	3 (28)	3 (120)	2 (13)	0	3 (161)
Tenebrionidae	11(108)	4 (13)	3 (5)	9 (44)	16 (170)
Species richness & abundance	34 (316)	14 (174)	11 (86)	24 (133)	47 (706)
Simpson diversity	0.93	0.76	0.74	0.86	0.94

Spatial variation in species richness (F $_{(3, 95)} = 5.09$, p< 0.004); Species richness variation among beetle families (F $_{(14, 95)} = 9.7$, p < 0.0001); spatial variation in abundance (F $_{(3, 95)} = 4.3$, p< 0.01); spatial variation in Simpson diversity (F $_{(3, 95)} = 15.3$, p< 0.0001). Number before brackets refers to the species richness, while that between brackets refers to abundance.

Moreover, table (1) indicates the spatial variation in abundance of beetle species with a highly significant difference among the different study sites (F $_{(3, 95)} = 4.3$, P< 0.01). Abundance was greater in the control site, while the minimum was at Urban 2 (Table

1). Beetle diversity among the study sites was significantly different (F $_{(3, 95)} = 15.3$, P< 0.0001), where control site had the highest Simpson diversity index and Urban 1 and 2 were the minimum sites

(Table 1). On the other hand, the species number (richness) at control site increased more than impacted sites through the time of the study (Figure 1).

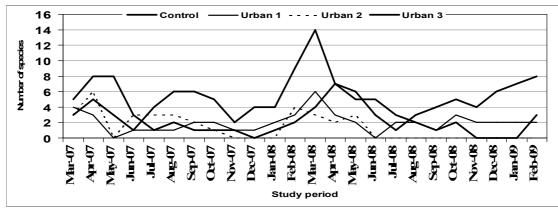


Figure 1: Temporal species richness of beetle assemblages at different sites of the study area throughout study period.

3.2. Grouping and ordination analysis

As shown in Figure (2), there were clear differences in beetle composition between control site and three urbanized sites. The Hierarchical Cluster analysis of beetle species revealed three distinct groups by second divisions. Control site separated far away from the three urbanized sites at the first phase, while the second phase clustered the two urbanized sites 2 and 3 away from the third site (Urban 1). Also, Figure (3) clarified the Detrended Correspondence Analysis (DCA) that spread out the different study sites along axis 1 (Eigen-value= 0.738) and axis 2 (Eigen-value= 0.197) dependent upon their beetle composition. The axis 1 differentiated urbanized sites 2 and 3 in positive part far away from the control site and urbanized site 1 (negative part). While the axis 2 separated urbanized site 3 and control site on the upper side and both urbanized sites 1 and 2 on the lower side.

3.3. CCA Analysis on the beetles Community

Table (2) displays the results of the environmental variables in the CCA. The first axis was positively correlated with plant species richness and negatively correlated with coarse sand content of the soil. While, the second axis was positively correlated with barren area and negatively correlated with the percentage of soil moisture followed by calcium carbonates (CaCO₃). Since the first two axes explained only 29% of the beetle community, the third axis was plotted "Figure 4a". The third axis was positively correlated with total organic matter and negatively correlated with soil Hydrogen number (pH) Figure "4b". The first four axes explained 64.6% of the beetle fauna. The permutation results created a Trace value of 1.614 and Trace p-value of 0.49; species were not linearly related to the environmental variables.

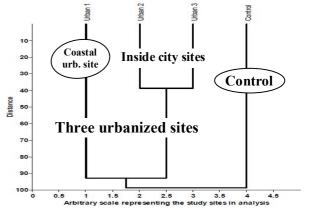


Figure 2: Hierarchical Cluster analysis of Euclidian coefficient using linkage method (Ward's Algorithm) grouping sites depending up on the similarity distances.

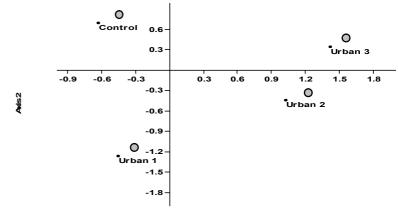


Figure 3: Detrended Correspondence Analysis (DCA) ordination study sites on axes 1 and 2 as classified by cluster analysis.

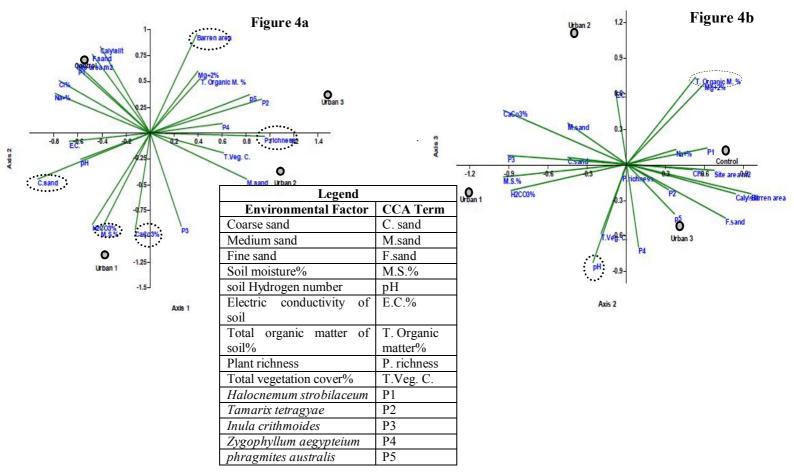


Figure 4: Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA) results* for the environmental variables, a) Axis 1 and 2 b) Axis 2 and 3. *Longer the line (and more parallel) is with an axis, the more important that variable(s) is for structuring the beetles species composition.

Table 2: CCA results of the three axes for the environmental variables. Bold numbers represent the most important variable for that axis.

				Continuous CCA results				
CCA term	Axis 1	Axis 2	Axis3	CCA term	Axis 1	Axis 2	Axis3	
Coarse sand	-0.9539605	-0.449176	0.0585506	Soil moisture %	-0.411545	-0.953828	-0.103557	
Medium sand	0.80524	-0.448428	0.347918	Electric conductivity of soil	-0.674766	-0.08225	0.622265	
Fine sand	-0.483462	0.757001	-0.452191	Barren area	0.389389	0.95661	-0.24606	
Clay\silt	-0.417392	0.834999	-0.249507	Site area m ²	-0.61399	0.6697	-0.04823	
CaCo3%	-0.12346	-0.950445	0.460143	Vegetation cover	0.611339	-0.194352	-0.584633	
H ₂ CO ₃ %	-0.482441	-0.886019	-0.222075	Plant richness	0.952132	-0.031678	-0.08066	
Cl%	-0.759827	0.505559	-0.0424174	Halocnemum strobilaceum	-0.59992	0.619401	0.141016	
Na+%	-0.795768	0.380673	0.128799	Tamarix tetragyae	0.928449	0.322685	-0.215188	
Mg+2%	0.39548	0.597663	0.68574	Inula crithmoides	0.259161	-0.907972	0.0747404	
pН	-0.58051	-0.256046	-0.829438	Zygophyllum aegypteium	0.59886	0.09217	-0.698049	
T. organic matter%	0.420362	0.527713	0.813336	phragmites australis	0.826239	0.366724	-0.420263	

4. Discussion

Over the last century, Mediterranean ecosystems have undergone important alterations as a result of extensive changes in land-use, although the Mediterranean Basin has long been recognized as one of the biologically richest regions in the world (Blondel & Aronson, 1999). New Damietta city, Egypt is one of Mediterranean's cities that has been witnessed urban development for tourism and changes in its natural view. Beetle diversity was used to evaluate the impact of urbanization on the biodiversity in this city during this study.

In the current study, the beetle community was dominated with species of Tenebrionidae. The same finding was reported from Cyprus (Taraslia et al., 2009) and Spain (Piñero et al., 2011). This result may be explained by the microhabitats of coastal Mediterranean Sea region that characterized with sandy and arid environments (Taraslia et al., 2009; Piñero et al., 2011), high electric conductivity, organic matter (Colombini et al., 2008), and wild plant species of sand dunes. Species of the mentioned family exhibit morphological adaptations (loss of pigmentation, straight bristles, burrowing legs, winglessness) and ecophysiological adaptations (resistance to drought, and to high and largely fluctuating temperatures), which allow these very specialized species to set up permanent populations in sand dunes (Bigot et al. 1982; Ponel 1986).

Simpson and Shannon diversity measures, which are based on the assumption that the adverse effects of human activities are reflected by a reduction in richness or a change in the relative abundances of species and species assemblages, are sensitive indicators of human land use (Samways, 1989; Human & Gordon, 1997). In the current study, species richness, abundance and diversity registered their highest values at the control site in the comparing with urbanized sites. In addition, an increasing of the species number was recorded throughout the study period at the control site in the comparing to the urbanized sites. A possible explanation for these results is related to the increasing of the habitat heterogeneity, vegetation, food availability and complexity and open habitats in the natural sites more than urbanized sites, which characterized by reduction of habitat heterogeneity (Gonzalez-Megias et al., 2007; D'Amato et al., 2009).

On the other hand, the intensity of urbanization displayed gradient impacts on the species richness among the three urbanized sites. Where, low intensity (at site 3) was accompanied with high species richness throughout the study period, while low species richness was found at sites with high intensity (sites 1 & 2). The suitable explanation of this

gradient is the characteristics of urbanized site (3) where large area of nonurban habitat, increasing of plant species richness that increase the suitability and heterogeneity of habitat supporting habitat for more species than the other urbanized sites. Also, Benton et al. (2003) and Gaublomme et al. (2008) were explained the same results by the difference of the correlated factors with urbanized sites such as the intensity of urbanization impact, area of remaining natural habitat, degree of heterogeneity, size of open spaces, the suitability of habitat characteristics and conditions surrounding patches such as building density.

It is the wideness that beetle composition discriminated between the disturbed and undisturbed sites even when species were grouped into higher taxonomic levels, which may be a way of overcoming the difficulty of identifying arthropod species from poorly studied, species-rich ecosystems (Uehara-Prado et al. 2009). Throughout the current results of Hierarchical Cluster Analysis and Detrended Correspondence Analysis (DCA), natural control site, where species of Graphipterus serrator (Forsskål, 1775), Amara cottyi Coquerel, 1859, Daptus vittatus Fischer von Waldheim, 1823 (Carabidae), Phtora apicilaevis Marseul, 1876 and Scelosodis castaneus Eschscholtz, 1831 (Tenebrionidae) have been registered only there, and so they separated far away the three urbanized sites. These may be due to habitat alteration and elimination of the combination of factors necessary for specialists of beetles, which caused by urbanization (Magura et al. 2004, 2008& 2010). In addition, this explanation may confirm the hypothesis that is related to the 'increasing disturbance hypothesis' (Gray, 1989).

On the other hand, the more closed relationships between the two urbanized sites 2 and 3 than the third site (Urban 1) was demonstrated in the result of cluster analysis at the second phase. Although the two axes of DCA displayed the separation among the four sites. Where, it showed the nearest similarity between urbanized sites 2 and 3 in positive part and the control site and urbanized site 1 in the negative part of the axis 1 and urbanized site 3 and control one on the upper side and urbanized 1 and 2 on the lower side of the axis 2. The pattern of CCA indicated the similarity of sites distribution with the DCA ordination and cluster analysis for confirmation that sites also correlated with environmental factors. The electric conductivity, Na⁺ and Cl⁻ ions (axis1), site area (axis1& 2) detected their characterized increasing toward control site. Also, increasing of barren area, fine sand, clay/silt (axis2), and organic matter (axis3) were indicated towards the control site and urbanized site (3), respectively. Plant species richness (axis1), presence with high relative cover of Tamarix tetragyae and Phragmites australis (axis 1) towards urbanized sites 2 and 3; coarse sand in soil (axis 1) and the relative cover of Halocnemum strobilaceum (axis 2) toward the control site and urbanized site1. Finally, soil moisture, calcium carbonates (CaCO₃), bicarbonate (H₂CO₃%) (axis 2 correlation) and soil Hydrogen number (pH) (axis 3 correlation) towards urbanized sites 1 and 2. These results revealed the causes of the clustering and ordination of sites and indicated that the similarity of some environmental factors can lead to the similarity in some species among sites. These are consistent with the view of Jana et al. (2005) who stated that homogeneity of environment is behind the similarity of arboreal and flying arthropods.

Also, the correlation between the species and their environment was illustrated by the three axes of CCA results, explaining 64.6% of the beetle species correlation. Seven important environmental factors from 22 factors were clearly highly correlated. The first axis was positively correlated with plant species richness and negatively correlated with coarse sand content of soil. The second axis was positively correlated with barren area and negatively correlated with the percentage of soil moisture followed by calcium carbonates (CaCO₃). While the third axis was positively correlated with total organic matter % and negatively correlated with soil Hydrogen number (pH). Positive and negative correlation of environmental factors with the beetle community in addition the characteristics of sites that were revealed by CCA, explained the increasing of the species richness and diversity in control site and urbanized site 3 respectively unlike other urbanized sites. The positive relationships between environmental factors and species have been documented by different studies (Hunter and Price, 1992; Vohland et al., 2006; Colombini et al. 2008; Shaban, 2009), where the increasing the variety, plenty food and surface foraging for beetle community. Oppositely, the revealed negative correlations with beetle species, which indicated their increasing toward both urbanized sites (1& 2), come co-according to the study of Liu et al. (2009) who stated a negative correlation with soil alkalinity and explained this result with soil alkalinity that gradually decreased, while electrical conductivity, total nitrogen, and organic matter markedly increased. The abundance of three species of beetles Carabus hortensis, Pterostichus melanarius and Abax parallelepipedus decreased as the CaCO₃ content of the soil increased as detected by Magura et al. (2002). While, increasing of the coarse sand particles in the soil will leading to high temperatures, and a scarcity of

accessible water and nutrients for the soil as mentioned by (Ranwell, 1972).

In conclusion, urbanization has recently been the master throughout the changes of species richness, diversity and dispersal of species in many ecosystems and leads to the threats on biodiversity. Therefore, it has been necessary to refine the ecosystem case and tackle the conservation program to keep peace on other species and achieve a significant reduction in the rate of loss of biodiversity.

5. Acknowledgements

The authors would like to express their sincere gratitude and appreciation to all persons helped and guided in field excursions. Our gratitude is also extended to Wael M. El Sayed, Graduate School of Science and Technology, Kanazawa University, Kakuma, Kanazawa, Japan, for providing us with program (PAST V. 1.92 software) and advices and Prof. Mamdouh S. Serag, Botany Department, Damietta Faculty of Science, Mansoura University, for identification the plant specimens.

6. Reference

1. Alaruikka D, Kotze DJ, Matveinen K & Niemelä J: Carabid beetle assemblages along a forested urbanrural gradient in southern Finland. Journal of Insect Conservation 2002; 6(4): 195–206.

2. Barbour M G, Burk J H, Pitts W D, Gilliam FS & Schwartz MW :Terrestrial plant ecology (3rd edition). Addison, Wesley, and Longman, Inc., Menlo Park, California. 1999; 649 pp.

3. Benton TG, Vickery JA & Wilson J D: Farmland biodiversity: Is habitat heterogeneity the key? Trends Ecological Evolution2003; 18: 182-188.

4. Bigot L, Picard J, Roman ML: Contribution à l'étude des peuplements des invertébrés des milieux extrêmes, la plage et les dunes vives de l'Espiguette (Grau-du-Roi, Gard). Ecol Mediter 1982; 8:3–29.

5. Blair RB: The effects of urban sprawl on birds at multiple levels of biological organization. Ecology and Society. 2004; http://www.ecology and society.org/vol9/iss5/art2.

6. Blondel J & Aronson J: Biology and wildlife of the Mediterranean region. Oxford University Press, Oxford. 2004.

7. Bolund P & Hunhammar S: Ecosystem services in urban areas. Ecological Economics 1999; 29: 293–301.

8. Colombini I, Chaouti A, Fallaci M, Gagnarli E, Bayed A. & Chelazzi L: An assessment of sandy beach macroinvertebrates inhabiting the coastal fringe of the Oued Laou river catchment area (Northern Morocco). In: Bayed A. & Ater M. (Eds) Du bassin versant vers la mer: Analyse multidisciplinaire pour une gestion durable. Travaux de l'Institut Scientifique, Rabat, série générale 2008; 5: 81-91.

9. D'Amato A, Orwig D & Foster D: Understory vegetation in old growth and second growth Tsuga canadensis forests in western Massachusetts. Forest Ecology and Management 2009; 257: 1043–1052.

10. Elek Z & Lovei GL: Patterns in Ground Beetle (Coleoptera: Carabidae) Assemblages along an Urbanization Gradient in Denmark. Acta Oecologica 2007; 32:104-111.

11. Fattorini S: Insect rarity, extinction and conservation in urban Rome (Italy): a 120-year-long study of tenebrionid Beetles. Insect Conservation & Diversity2011; 4(4): 307-315.

12. Gaston KJ, Warren P H, Thompson K & Smith RM: Urban domestic gardens (IV): the extent of the resource and its associated features. Biodiversity& Conservation2005; 14: 3327–3349.

13. Gaublomme E, HendrickxF, Dhuyvetter H &Desender K: The effects of forest patch size and matrix type on changes in carabid beetle assemblages in an urbanized landscape. Biological Conservation2008; 141: 2585-2596.

14. Gonzalez-Megias A, Gínez JM & Sanchez-Piero F: Diversity-habitat heterogeneity relationship at different spatial and temporal scales. Ecography 2007; 30: 31–41.

15. Gray JS: Effects of environmental stress on species rich assemblages. Journal of Biological Linnean Society 1989; 37: 19–32.

16. Hammer O, Harper DAT & Ryan PD: PAST: Paleontological Statistics Software Package for Education and Data Analysis. Palaeontologia Electronica2001; 4(1): 9pp.

17. Hill MO & Gauch Jr., HG: Detrended Correspondence analysis: an improved ordination technique. Vegetation1980; 42:47-58.

18. Human, K. G. & Gordon, D. M. 1997. Effects of Argentine ants on invertebrate biodiversity in northern California. Conservation Biology 11: 1242-1248.

19. Hunter MD & Price PW: Playing chutes and ladders: heterogeneity and the relative roles of bottom-up and top-down forces in natural communities. Ecology1992; 73: 724–732.

20. Jackson, M L: Soil Chemical Analysis. Constable and Co. Itd. London. 1962; 296 pp.

21. Jana G, Tamili DK, Misra KK & Bhattacharya T: Insects and their host-plant relationship between industrial and non-industrial areas. Proceeding of zoological society, Calcutta 2005; 58: 9–19.

22. Kinzig AP & Grove JM: Urban–suburban ecology. In: Levin, S.A. (ed.), Encyclopaedia of Biodiversity. Academic Press, San Diego, 2001; 7: 733–745.

23. Lande R: Statistics and partitioning of species diversity, and similarity among multiple communities. Oikos 1996; 76: 5-13.

24. Leraut P: Le guide entomologique: Delachaux et Niestlé, Paris, 2003; 527 pp.

25. Liu R, Halin Zhao H, Zhao X, Zuo X & Drake S: Soil macrofaunal response to sand dune conversion from mobile dunes to fixed dunes in Horqin sandy land, northern China. European Journal of Soil Biology 2009; 45 (5-6): 417-422.

26. Magura T, Elek Z & Tóthmérész B: Impacts of non-native spruce reforestation on ground beetles. European Journal of Soil Biology2002; 38 (3-4): 291-295.

27. Magura T, Lovei GL & Tothmeresz B: Time-Consistent Rearrangement of Carabid Beetle Assemblages by an Urbanization Gradient in Hungary. Acta Oecologica2008; 34: 233- 243.

28. Magura T, Lovei GL & Tothmeresz B: Does urbanization decrease diversity in ground beetle (Carabidae) assemblages? Global Ecology & Biogeography 2010; 19: 16–26.

29. Magura T, Tothmeresz B& Lovei GL: Body size inequality of carabids along an urbanization gradient. Basic and Applied Ecology 2006; 7: 472-482.

30. Magura T, Tothmeresz B& Molnar T: Changes in carabid beetle assemblages along an urbanization gradient in the city of Debrecen, Hungary. Landscape Ecology 2004; 19: 747–759.

31. Magurran AE: Ecological diversity and its measurement. Princeton University Press, Princeton, USA. 1988; 192 pp.

32. McCune B & Mefford MJ: PC-ORD for windows. Multivariate Analysis of Ecological Data, Version 414. MjM Software, Gleneden Beach, OR, USA. 1999.

33. McDonald RI.: Global urbanization, can ecologists identify a sustainable way forward? Frontiers in Ecology and Environment 2008; 6: 99–104.

34. McKinney ML: Urbanization, Biodiversity, and Conservation. BioScience 2002; 52 (10): 883–890.

McKinney ML: Urbanization as a major cause of biotic homogenization. Conservation Biology 2006; 127(3): 247–260.

35. Miller JR & Hobbs RJ: Conservation Where People Live and Work. Conservation Biology 2002; 16(2): 330–337.

36. Miller JR: Biodiversity conservation and the extinction of experience. Trends in Ecology & Evolution 2005; 20(8): 430–434.

37. Peet RK: The measurement of species diversity. Annual Review of Ecology and Systematic 1974; 5: 285-307.

38. Piñero FS, Tinaut A, Aguirre-Segura A, Miñano J, Lencina JL, Ortiz-Sánchez FJ, Pérez-López FJ:

Terrestrial arthropod fauna of arid areas of SE Spain: Diversity, biogeography, and conservation. Journal of Arid Environments 2011; 75: 1321-1332.

39. Piper CS: Soil and Plant Analysis, Interscience Publisher Inc. New York 1947.

40. Ponel P: Les communautés des Arthropodes des dunes littorales de Provence: composition, structure, dynamique spatio-temporelle. Thèse Université Aix-Marseille III, 1986.

41. Purvis G & Fadl A: The influence of cropping rotations and soil cultivation practice on the population ecology of carabids (Coleoptera: Carabidae) in arable land. Pedobiologia 2002; 46: 452-474.

42. Ranwell DS: Ecology of Salt Marshes and Sand Dunes, Chapman and Hall, London 1972.

Rowell, DL: Soil science methods and applications. British library cataloguing in publication data. 1994; 350 pp.

43. Samways MJ: Insect conservation and landscape ecology: a case-history of bush crickets (Tettigonidae) in Southern France. Environmental Conservation 1989; 16: 217-216.

44. Sarkar S & Margules CR: Operationalizing biodiversity for conservation planning. Journal of Bioscience 2002; 27: 299-308.

45. Shaban A: Anthropogenic activity impact on the biodiversity of ground fauna in Port Said, Egypt. Ph. D. Thesis, Suez Canal University2009.

46. Southwood TRE & Henderson PA: Ecological methods. 3rd edition. Blackwell Science, Oxford. 2000; 575pp.

47. Sukopp H & Starfinger U: Disturbance in urban ecosystems. In: Walker, L.R. (ed.), and Ecosystems of the World 16. Ecosystems of Disturbed Ground. Elsevier Science, Amsterdam, 1999; pp. 397–412.

48. Taraslia V, Zotos S & Legakis A: Ecology of soil invertebrates in a dune ecosystem of Cyprus.11th international congress on the zoogeography and ecology of Greece and adjacent region, Herakleion. 2009; Pp. 1.

49. ter Braak CJF: Canonical community ordination. Part 1. Basic theory and linear methods. EcoScience 1994; 1: 127–140.

50. Uehara-Prado M, Fernandes J, Bello A, Machado G, Santos A, Vaz-de-Mello F & Freitas A: Selecting terrestrial arthropods as indicators of small-scale disturbance: A first approach in the Brazilian Atlantic Forest. Biological Conservation 2009; 142 (6): 1220-1228.

51. United Nations: World Urbanization Prospects: The 2005 Revision. United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division: New York. 2006.

52. Venn SJ, Kotze DJ &Niemelä J: Urbanization effects on carabid diversity in boreal forests. European Journal of Entomology 2003; 100: 73–80.

53. Vohland K, Uhlig M, Marais E, Hoffmann A & Zeller U: Impact of different grazing systems on diversity, abundance and biomass of beetles (Coleoptera), a study from southern Namibia. Mitt. Mus. Nat.kd. Berl., Zool. Reihe 2006;81 (2): 131–143.