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## **Handbook of protocols for standardized measurement of terrestrial invertebrate functional traits**

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## 42 Summary

- 43 1. Trait-based approaches are increasingly being used to test mechanisms underlying species  
44 assemblages and biotic interactions across a wide range of organisms including terrestrial  
45 arthropods and to investigate consequences for ecosystem processes. Such an approach relies on  
46 the standardized measurement of functional traits that can be applied across taxa and regions.  
47 Currently, however, unified methods of trait measurements are lacking for terrestrial arthropods and  
48 related macroinvertebrates (terrestrial invertebrates hereafter).
- 49 2. Here, we present a comprehensive review and detailed protocol for a set of 29 traits known to be  
50 sensitive to global stressors and to affect ecosystem processes and services. We give  
51 recommendations how to measure these traits under standardized conditions across various  
52 terrestrial invertebrate taxonomic groups.
- 53 3. We provide considerations and approaches that apply to almost all traits described, such as the  
54 selection of species and individuals needed for the measurements, the importance of intraspecific  
55 trait variability, how many populations or communities to sample and over which spatial scales.
- 56 4. The approaches outlined here provide a means to improve the reliability and predictive power of  
57 functional traits to explain community assembly, species diversity patterns, and ecosystem  
58 processes and services within and across taxa and trophic levels, allowing comparison of studies  
59 and running meta-analyses across regions and ecosystems.
- 60 5. This handbook is a crucial first step towards standardizing trait methodology across the most  
61 studied terrestrial invertebrate groups, and the protocols are aimed to balance general applicability  
62 and requirements for special cases or particular taxa. Therefore, we envision this handbook as a  
63 common platform to which researches can further provide methodological input for additional  
64 special cases.

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66 **Key-words:** species features, species characteristics, physiology, morphology, feeding, behaviour,  
67 life-history, functional diversity.

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## 70 Introduction

71 Over the last decade strong calls have been made to shift the research focus of community ecology  
72 from purely species-based approaches to trait-based ones (among others Lavorel & Garnier 2002;  
73 McGill *et al.* 2006; Diaz *et al.* 2007b; Suding *et al.* 2008; Webb *et al.* 2010; Chown 2012; Mouillot *et*  
74 *al.* 2013). Despite early work (e.g. Shelford 1911), this call is driven by an increasing awareness that  
75 trait-based approaches can significantly enhance our mechanistic understanding and predictive  
76 capabilities of the processes that play a major role in community ecology. Moving from a taxonomic  
77 approach to a functional trait approach reduces context dependency and therefore enables  
78 generalization across communities and ecosystems that is needed to address macro-ecological  
79 questions (McGill *et al.* 2006; Suding *et al.* 2008; Hortal *et al.* 2015; Kunstler *et al.* 2016). For  
80 example, traits can help explain the effects of climate change on species distribution and range shift  
81 (e.g., Kaustuv *et al.* 2001; Berg *et al.* 2010; Diamond *et al.* 2011), environmental gradients and  
82 stressors on the distribution of species and community (dis)assembly (e.g., Dias *et al.* 2013; Astor *et*  
83 *al.* 2014; Woodcock *et al.* 2014), as well as the effect of community composition on ecosystem  
84 processes and the provision of ecosystem services across ecological scales (Naeem & Wright 2003;  
85 Messier, McGill & Lechowicz 2010; Luck *et al.* 2012; Brittain *et al.* 2013; Deraison *et al.* 2015).  
86 Trait-based approaches have recently also been advocated as promising tools also in ecotoxicology  
87 and environmental risk assessment of chemical substances (Rubach *et al.* 2011; Van den Brink *et al.*  
88 2013).

89         Recent developments in trait-based ecology have been led by plant ecologists, as plant traits  
90 have become effective predictors of community assembly (Götzenberger *et al.* 2012; HilleRisLambers  
91 *et al.* 2012) and ecosystem processes (Lavorel 2013), and are now widely used. The prime utilization  
92 of plant functional traits is to identify abiotic and biotic mechanisms that determine species  
93 composition, ecosystem processes and service delivery (Lavorel & Garnier 2002; Diaz *et al.* 2007a;  
94 Luck *et al.* 2009; de Bello *et al.* 2010; Lavorel *et al.* 2013). Plant ecologists have been able to scale up  
95 successfully from individual plant physiological traits to vegetation processes, such as competition and  
96 environmental filtering, as well as ecosystem processes such as decomposition,  
97 across a wide range of plant communities (Diaz *et al.* 2004; Cornwell *et al.* 2008; Kunstler *et al.*

98 2016), and link trait variability to global carbon cycle and climate models (Atkin *et al.* 2015). The  
99 early success of the plant trait approach has fuelled the discussion about which traits need to be  
100 measured and how they should be quantified in a standardized way. The development of large online  
101 trait databases in plant ecology, such as LEDA (Kleyer *et al.* 2008) and TRY (Kattge *et al.* 2011), now  
102 provide quick access to plant trait values, allowing comparisons even between ecosystems and biomes.  
103 Despite potential limitations of using these databases (Cordlandwehr *et al.* 2013), such  
104 success in plant ecology has fostered and increasing interest ecologists to adopt a similar trait-based  
105 approach in other taxonomic groups (e.g., Poff *et al.* 2006; Vandewalle *et al.* 2010; Aubin *et al.* 2013;  
106 Pakeman & Stockan 2014; Pey, Laporte & Hedde 2014; Fournier *et al.* 2015; Schemara *et al.* 2015).  
107 Particularly for terrestrial invertebrates, attempts to develop trait frameworks for specific taxa, e.g.,  
108 Fountain-Jones, Baker & Jordan (2015) for beetles, or to construct trait databases for snails (Falkner *et*  
109 *al.* (2001), Bouget, Brustel & Zagatti (2008) for saproxylic beetles, Speight & Castella (2010) for  
110 hoverflies, Bertelsmeier *et al.* (2013) for ants (see also Yates *et al.* 2014), Homburg *et al.* (2014) for  
111 carabid beetles, and Pey, Laporte & Hedde (2014) for soil invertebrates), as well as new statistical  
112 developments (e.g., Brown *et al.* 2014) have been published.

113         Invertebrates have crucial roles as consumers of primary producers (e.g., herbivores,  
114 fungivores, granivores etc.) and the afterlife products of animals and plants (i.e., detritivores, such as  
115 feeding on leaf-litter, dead wood, dung and carrion), they provide a staple food for higher trophic  
116 levels (e.g., for predators, parasites and parasitoids) and are recognised as both facilitators of primary  
117 production (i.e. pollinators and detritivores) and as ecosystem engineers (e.g., soil bioturbators; see  
118 Gagic *et al.* 2015 for an overview). Hence, knowledge of invertebrate traits are key to understanding  
119 multi-trophic processes and ecosystem functioning (e.g., Lavorel *et al.* 2013; Schmitz *et al.* 2015).  
120 Current terrestrial invertebrate trait databases are often built around a set of basic traits from a mixture  
121 of studies and observations, that are obtained without uniform methodology and with little consistency  
122 in which traits were chosen for measurements. In addition, functional traits, such as species  
123 temperature tolerance and drought resistance, are often missing or inferred from the abiotic conditions  
124 at the (micro)habitats where they have been observed and not measured directly on individuals.  
125 However, (micro)habitat selection of species and realized niche in general might result from

126 interactions between species rather than physiological and phenological characteristics of single  
127 individuals and populations (Colwell & Fuentes 1975; Ellers, Dias & Berg 2010; Araujo *et al.* 2013;  
128 Colas *et al.* 2014; He & Bertness 2014), but see also Warren, Giladi & Bradford (2010). The use of  
129 such inferred traits as predictors of community and ecosystem processes has been strongly  
130 discouraged (Violle *et al.* 2007), advocating for traits to be measured on individual organisms. The  
131 arguments above raise the urgent need for reliable and unified methods to measure functional traits  
132 that are directly linked to species performance. A coherent, unified and standardized trait approach for  
133 various types of terrestrial invertebrates requires consensus on 1) what the basic set of functional traits  
134 would be and, particularly, on 2) how they should be measured. A key element in the advance of plant  
135 trait-based approaches has been the provision of a handbook of standardized functional traits that  
136 detail the methods and definitions of key traits worldwide (Cornelissen *et al.* 2003), and its recent  
137 update with additional traits and measuring techniques (Pérez-Harguindeguy *et al.* 2013). Such an  
138 effort is therefore required in other key organisms such as terrestrial invertebrates. The present work  
139 aims to provide such incentive to trait-based approaches for this broad and diversified group of  
140 species, by describing a set of standardized trait measurements to improve the reliability and general  
141 applicability of functional traits.

142

#### 143 *Overall approach to the handbook*

144 This handbook aims to provide a set of protocols for trait measurements that can be used across a wide  
145 range of terrestrial invertebrate species, including the major taxonomic groups of Insecta, Collembola,  
146 Aranea, Crustaceae, Myriapoda, Gastropoda and Oligochaeta. We selected the terrestrial environment  
147 as a circumscribed habitat that differs in key features from aquatic ones – rate of temperature change,  
148 threat of desiccation, very different osmoregulatory challenges, much greater temperature variability  
149 on average and over the short term. We chose these groups of organisms because they are similar  
150 enough in lifestyle to apply our protocols to. The handbook does not include specific methods for  
151 measuring traits of nematodes, parasites and (semi-)aquatic invertebrates, although some of the  
152 protocols may be used for these groups too.

153 We recognise that the wide variety of life forms encompassed by the present handbook makes it a  
154 challenging undertaking. In general, invertebrate traits, overall, may incorporate greater complexity  
155 than plant traits, because animals can respond to environmental changes by movement and behaviour.  
156 Therefore, the trait protocols contain recommendations for adjustments to accommodate the biology of  
157 particular taxonomic groups, while maintaining comparability and standardization across taxa.

158 The handbook is meant as a first step to advance the trait-based approach to groups other than  
159 plants and vertebrates and to stimulate discussion about additional traits that should be included in the  
160 handbook for terrestrial invertebrates. We foresee that this set of traits might be expanded in the future  
161 as the use of the functional approach becomes increasingly used among animal ecologists. Moreover,  
162 the trait protocols are designed for standardized measurement of traits to facilitate a widespread use  
163 and to allow high-throughput phenotyping to enable measurements on large numbers of species. For  
164 this reason, some of the most advanced technological methods that are currently used by specialized  
165 research groups only and for few specific taxonomic groups are not part of the standardized methods,  
166 but included as special cases in the protocols. We would like to emphasize that the handbook's main  
167 purpose is to maximize comparability of measurements across a wide range of taxa. Below, we first  
168 provide an overview of the criteria and concepts used for selecting the set of traits, subsequently we  
169 describe the standard format of the protocols, followed by several general recommendations. The  
170 protocols themselves are provided as electronic [Supporting Information](#).

171

## 172 *Trait selection*

173 We reviewed the literature on ecology of terrestrial invertebrates, and selected the 29 traits (see Table  
174 1) for which we found clear evidence that they directly link organism performance with environmental  
175 conditions or ecosystem processes. These traits have been then further discussed among a group of  
176 specialist scientists working on the ecology, ecophysiology, and evolutionary aspects of predominantly  
177 terrestrial invertebrate fauna at different trophic levels with the aim to standardize the methods for  
178 their unambiguous use in any terrestrial biome and for the majority of its constituents.

179 Overall, the selected set of traits largely covers the primary functions related to species  
180 performance, assembly processes, and interactions between trophic levels at various spatial scales

181 from plots to landscapes and even biomes. For this first step in generalizing traits across taxonomic  
182 groups we excluded traits that are specific to single groups (e.g., pollen transport mode in bees, web  
183 construction strategy in spiders, or chemical and physical defenses in ants or some caterpillars) and  
184 cannot be standardized across taxa. Selected traits can be ~~separated into~~ considered either response  
185 traits (i.e., determining the response of the species to an environmental change or to an  
186 interaction with another organism from the same or different trophic level) or effect traits (i.e.  
187 contributing) to the effect of the species on an ecosystem function or the interaction with the another  
188 trophic level, or both (Lavorel & Garnier 2002; Naeem & Wright 2003; Sunding & Goldstein 2008;  
189 Lavorel *et al.* 2013). We focus on several traits which, based on the existing literature, are among the most  
190 widely used or are in urgent need of standardized measurement protocols that can be applied across  
191 taxa. From the user perspective, trait selection is often one of the crucial aspects in trait-based  
192 approaches and it has to be based clearly bearing the research question being asked (Rosado *et al.*  
193 2013; Shipley *et al.* 2016). We do refer to the known functionality of traits considered in our protocols.

194 Most of the selected traits are quantitative and directly measurable on an individual under  
195 standardized conditions; others are categorical (e.g., activity time and feeding guild) or ordinal (e.g.,  
196 ontogeny and respiration system). Broadly, the selected traits can be grouped into five categories, i.e.,  
197 morphology, feeding, life history, physiology, and behaviour. *Morphological traits* such as eye  
198 morphology, body pigmentation or body size are important features of an organism's interaction with  
199 the abiotic and biotic environment. For example, body size across different taxonomic groups is a  
200 predictor of multiple ecological processes, such as decomposition and mineralization by soil macro-  
201 detritivores, pollination by bees or water regulation by earthworms (de Bello *et al.* 2010), and strongly  
202 correlated with an individual's metabolic rate (Chown *et al.* 2007). Body size also scales with many  
203 other life history traits (Ellers & Jervis 2003) and determines the structure and function of ecological  
204 networks (Peters 1983; Brown *et al.* 2004; Woodward *et al.* 2005). *Feeding traits* are related to the  
205 trophic position of a species and describe aspects of the morphology and behaviour associated with  
206 their diet. Feeding related traits can therefore be important for understanding niche partitioning,

207 trophic interactions and the way the structure of ecological networks is shaped (Stang *et al.* 2009;  
208 Ibanez 2012; Ibanez *et al.* 2013).

209 *Life history traits* describe the age schedule of reproduction of an organism, including key  
210 reproductive aspects such as age at maturity, clutch size, voltinism, and life span (Stearns 1992). These  
211 traits have strong links to fitness and are expected to be among the most sensitive to environmental  
212 stress, making them useful to assess the vulnerability of species to global change. For instance, egg  
213 size varies enormously between species (Fox & Czesak 2000) and affects hatching success (Fischer *et al.*  
214 *al.* 2006) and resistance to desiccation (Fischer *et al.* 2006) and heat (Liefting *et al.* 2010). Moreover,  
215 trade-offs exist between reproductive traits and dispersal (Guerra 2011), leading to a reduced  
216 reproductive investment in some insects with strong range expansion under the influence of global  
217 warming (Hughes, Hill & Dytham 2003).

218 *Physiological traits* refer to features that allow species to tolerate variations in abiotic  
219 conditions (resistance adaptations), as well as biochemical modifications that adjust the rate of  
220 metabolic function (capacity adaptations) in response to environmental changes (Cossins & Bowler  
221 1987; Somero 1992). Physiological tolerance traits, such as heat tolerance and desiccation resistance  
222 have been successfully applied in predicting species distribution patterns along  
223 temperature and humidity gradients (Dias *et al.* 2013), while growth rate can determine an  
224 individuals' susceptibility to predation (Denno *et al.* 2002; Coley, Bateman & Kursar 2006) and  
225 temperature fluctuations (Fordyce & Shapiro 2003). Further, physiological tolerances can be affected  
226 by changes in diet (Verdu *et al.* 2010).

228 Finally, *Behavioural traits* enable flexible, rapid responses to environmental change without  
229 any associated changes to physiological or morphological phenotypes. Traits such as activity time,  
230 aggregation, and locomotion enable organisms to seek out preferred microhabitats and to avoid  
231 (a)biotic stress. Behavioural strategies can also increase tolerance to abiotic stresses, for instance  
232 through adopting flight strategies that maximize heat dissipation (Verdu, Alba-Tercedor & Jimenez-  
233 Manrique 2012) or by choosing specific microhabitats to achieve nutritional homeostasis (Clissold,  
234 Coggan & Simpson 2013) or escape adverse climatic conditions. Yet in soil fauna species,  
235 stratification in soil interacts with other traits, such as physiological traits, thus modifying the

236 individual response to changes in environmental conditions (Cloudsley-Thompson 1962) and  
237 vulnerability to extreme temperature events (van Dooremalen *et al.* 2012).

238

### 239 **The handbook protocols**

240 The trait protocols are described using a standard format aimed to facilitate comparisons among traits  
241 The protocols are provided as Supporting Information to this study. Each protocol includes four main  
242 sections. The section *Definition and relevance* provides a formal definition and a short, non-exhaustive  
243 justification why that particular trait is of ecological significance based on its role in responding to  
244 stressors and/or effecting trophic interactions or ecosystem processes. This section also describes the  
245 main approaches to measure a particular trait. The section *What and how to measure* describes the  
246 standardized method, and provides the units of expression and, if applicable, mathematical formulas  
247 for trait value calculations. The section *Additional notes* contains, if available, alternative techniques,  
248 often more expensive and challenging, and mainly used by more specialized research groups to answer  
249 deeper questions. This section may also list modifications of the methods for specific taxonomic  
250 groups and draws attention to potential caveats and improvements. Finally, the *References* list a  
251 number of key papers which are cited in the protocol.

252

### 253 *Standardization of measurements and acclimation of animals*

254 Organisms respond to a multitude of external environmental factors, leading to differences in trait  
255 values due to trait plasticity, learning and shifts in physiological status. As a consequence, trait values  
256 may depend on the immediate conditions an organism is subjected to at the place or time of collection.  
257 To achieve standardized trait measurements it is necessary to provide the comparable conditions for all  
258 individuals measured, which for many traits requires an acclimation period in order to minimize the  
259 effect of local conditions (Cornelissen *et al.* 2003). By doing this, the trait variability within species  
260 will more tightly reflect genetic rather than environmental effect and information about intraspecific  
261 trait variability can become valuable (see below). Therefore, the handbook starts off with a  
262 standardization protocol that describes recommendations for pre-treating and acclimating animals to  
263 obtain comparable values within and among species for all taxonomic groups. Here, the importance of

264 static conditions relative to fluctuating ones (e.g. Colinet *et al.* 2015), which reflect the natural  
265 environment more closely, are discussed. The matter is not a straightforward one (Chown & Gaston  
266 2016) because the introduction of variable conditions in a standard protocol setting implies that  
267 assessments, and subsequent comparisons, have to be made across regimes that differ in mean values,  
268 and variation that is described by amplitude, frequency and predictability of a condition (see Angilletta  
269 *et al.* 2006; Chown & Terblanche 2007).

270 For traits which are expressed in terms of survival time as the unit of measurement, such as  
271 inundation resistance, all individuals should have the same nutritional status at the start of the  
272 measurements and should either be fully fed or subjected to a short starvation period to empty their gut  
273 prior to trait measurements. When measuring feeding traits (e.g., food preference, ingestion rate) it is  
274 necessary that all individuals are acquainted with the food items used during the feeding assays. For  
275 traits that are strongly temperature-dependent such as metabolic rate, food ingestion rate and  
276 locomotion speed, thermal acclimation is absolutely necessary, although the acclimation time depends  
277 on the organisms and specific life cycles, as well as on the trait and ontogenetic stage of interest. As  
278 trait plasticity can occur during an organism's ontogeny (e.g. Wilson & Franklin 2002), it might be  
279 sometimes necessary to raise animals under controlled conditions (controlled environmental rooms)  
280 and measure traits in individuals born into these rooms. Obviously, in cases where the research interest  
281 is focused on the actual survival time when animals are exposed to drought in their habitat, the actual  
282 diet composition in the field, or the dispersal distance under natural conditions, then standardized  
283 measurements will not need to be imposed, except perhaps for serving as a baseline to measure the  
284 extent by which field conditions depart from basal adaptations.

285

#### 286 *Selection of specimens and number of individuals per species*

287 A key consideration is selecting the appropriate specimens for trait measurements. Aiming to compare  
288 standardized trait measurements across studies and taxa of any developmental stage and sex, we  
289 recommend selecting healthy, well-shaped, and fully-developed individuals of the ontogenetic stage of  
290 interest, without any signs of damage and diseases, an approach already suggested in plant-trait  
291 analyses (Cornelissen *et al.* 2003). The use of interception trapping devices, such as pitfall traps,

292 windowpane traps and Malaise traps to collect species for trait measurements should be regarded with  
293 caution as the quality of the captured individuals depends on construction, location, time of day,  
294 season or year, weather, and trap clearance frequency (Gibb & Oseto 2006), and, importantly, they  
295 might be selective for specimen with certain traits. We recommend therefore that the sampling  
296 methods should be reported in detail and that additional information on trapping efficiency should be  
297 provided together with the trait measurements.

298         When laboratory strains are used for measurements, care should be taken as laboratory  
299 adaptation may cause spurious changes in life history and physiological traits of species (Sgrò &  
300 Partridge 2001; Griffiths, Schiffer & Hoffmann 2005). The type of culturing method, the size of the  
301 stock population and the length of the period of laboratory culture are all factors that determine the  
302 magnitude of selection response in laboratory population, and therefore these factors need to be  
303 reported meticulously with the trait measurements.

304         Sample size is a general issue in trait-based approaches and has already been covered in other  
305 publications, although mainly on plants (e.g., Pakeman & Quested 2007; Bolnick *et al.* 2011; de Bello  
306 *et al.* 2011; Fu *et al.* 2013; Pérez-Harguindeguy *et al.* 2013). If one would like to capture the full  
307 spatiotemporal variability of a species trait mean, a proportional number of individuals should be  
308 measured from different populations, seasons, communities, and ecosystems (Pakeman & Quested  
309 2007; de Bello *et al.* 2011; Violle *et al.* 2012). This number will further increase if other sources of  
310 intraspecific variation will be included, e.g. polymorphism, sexual dimorphism and ontogenetic stages  
311 (Yang & Rudolf 2010; Violle *et al.* 2012), which are all particularly important among invertebrates. In  
312 general, the minimal number of individuals to be measured for a given species will depend on the  
313 variation of the trait values. The higher the variation, e.g., in case of behavioural traits, the higher the  
314 numbers of individuals to be measured for reliable estimates of the species mean trait value.

315

### 316 **Future perspectives**

317 This handbook is a first step towards standardizing trait methodology across some of the most well-  
318 investigated terrestrial invertebrate groups. We are aware that its protocols do not cover all special  
319 cases and may miss information for particular taxa. Below we highlight three fields that we hope will

320 be developed further with the aid of this handbook and offer a perspective on these fields of trait  
321 research.

322

### 323 *Incorporating intraspecific trait variability*

324 Evidence is increasing that intraspecific trait variability plays a significant role in demography and  
325 community assembly, and has (Bolnick *et al.* 2011; de Bello *et al.* 2011; Violle *et al.* 2012; Siefert *et*  
326 *al.* 2015). Within-species variability may originate from spatial variability in trait values within a  
327 species range, or may be due to genetic or environmental variation within a population at a single site.  
328 Information on both types of variability is extremely valuable, e.g. for understanding the mechanisms  
329 underlying community assembly or as input for models on functional consequences of global drivers  
330 (Gaston, Chown & Evans 2008; Yang & Rudolf 2010). Until now the lack of standardized  
331 measurements for invertebrate traits, as well as the tiny sample size for many traits, has prohibited a  
332 clear indication of the trait variability beyond the single species level. We believe that the use of the  
333 standardized protocols can overcome this gap and we recommend not to report only species trait  
334 means for the traits measured, but also measures such a standard deviation (Carmona *et al.* 2016).

335

### 336 *Definition and validation of effect traits*

337 Quantifying community functional trait structure such as the variation in response traits, the diversity  
338 and redundancy among species sharing similar effect traits, and the overlap between response and  
339 effect traits is important for enhancing predictability of ecosystem functioning under environmental  
340 change (Folke, Holling & Perrings 1996; Elmquist *et al.* 2003; Mori, Furukawa & Sasaki 2013). While  
341 our knowledge on response traits of terrestrial invertebrates is relatively good, information on the  
342 extent to which response traits and effect traits can be linked within taxa, either via trait correlations or  
343 trait trade-offs, is still largely lacking. Even less is known about response-to-effect models across  
344 trophic levels (Schmitz 2008; Lavorel *et al.* 2013; Moretti *et al.* 2013; Pakeman & Stockan 2014;  
345 Deraison *et al.* 2015), although the degree of overlap between the two types of traits will determine  
346 our ability to predict changes in key ecosystem processes under variable environmental conditions.

347 The current definition of response and effect traits in terrestrial invertebrates is based on literature and  
 348 expert knowledge, but validation based on controlled experiments is urgently needed.

349

### 350 *Construction of a trait database for terrestrial invertebrates*

351 The benefits of standardized trait measurements to the research community can be amplified if this  
 352 information is compiled in a communal database. Following the successful example of the worldwide  
 353 TRY initiative (Kattge *et al.* 2011), we propose that increased access to trait information collected with  
 354 standardized protocols will promote the interest to use this data. For many research questions, traits  
 355 obtained from trait databases can be used as a first step to test hypotheses (Cordlandwehr *et al.* 2013)  
 356 and for analyses at broad spatial scales (Hortal *et al.* 2015). In plant ecology this has been a very  
 357 successful approach, sometimes leading to additional trait measurements at different spatial scales (de  
 358 Bello *et al.* 2009) or with a stronger focus on intraspecific trait variability (Bolnick *et al.* 2011).  
 359 However, the construction and maintenance of such a large database is a major undertaking that likely  
 360 requires a dedicated staff and long-term funding. We hope that an enthusiastic and regular use of this  
 361 first handbook of protocols for standardized measurement of terrestrial invertebrate functional traits  
 362 will encourage researchers and funding agencies alike to taking this crucial long term option.

363

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639

640 **Table 1** – List of the terrestrial invertebrate traits selected for the handbook and considered to be key in responding to the environment and/or effecting ecosystem processes and services at various scales from local plots, to landscapes and biomes.

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<i>Trait type</i> Trait	Definition	Comment
<b><i>Morphology</i></b>		
Body size	Size of the body. It includes body length, body width, body mass, and body volume	Environmental conditions affect body size which will influence amount and composition of resources used
Eye morphology	Form of the eye. It includes: eye number, eye size, eye sight	Eye morphology can be filtered by environmental conditions which will reflect prey and/or predator recognition
Respiration system	Structures developed to perform gas exchange	Type of respiration mode directly affect drought tolerance and desiccation resistance
Hairiness	Degree of hair coverage. It includes: hair length and hair density	Abiotic condition and biotic interactions (pollination) affect hairiness providing fitness and performance
Colour	Body coloration. It includes: colour, intensity, contrast	Abiotic condition and biotic interactions (e.g. predation) affect pigmentation providing fitness and performance
<b><i>Feeding</i></b>		
Feeding guild	Food type, upon which species feed. It informs about “who eats what or whom”	Feeding guild is a good surrogate for trophic level and position in the food web. It determines the quality of resources, which influences a species growth, reproduction and survival
Ingestion rate	Quantity of food consumed in a given period	The rate of food ingested by an organism reflects its nutritional and energetic requirements and is related to species responses to food quality

Biting force	Biomechanical force exerted on food items by the tip of the mouth-parts, claws or fore legs	Biting force mainly determines the effect on trophic network interactions and thus on ecosystem function
<b><i>Life history</i></b>		
Ontogeny	Developmental history. It includes type and number of developmental stages	Response to environmental stressors and effects on the ecosystem can change significantly across an organism's life history. Changes in environmental conditions can affect ontogeny and ecosystem processes
Clutch size	Number of eggs or juveniles produced in one reproductive event	Clutch size respond significantly to environmental conditions which affect number of offspring and their impact on the ecosystems
Egg size	Size dimension or mass of an egg	Resistance to environmental and particularly climatic conditions increase with egg size, which indirectly determines impact on the ecosystem via changes in population sizes
Life span	Amount of time an adult individual lives, from emergence from last instar until death	Stressors can heavily affect life span which is reflected in different ecosystem functions
Age at maturity	Age at first reproductive event	Time of first reproductive event can be changed under environmental stress, with consequences for population size and ecosystem processes
Parity	The number of times a females lays eggs or gives birth	The spreading of reproductive events over a life time has fitness consequences that are related to the trade-off between current and future reproduction
Reproduction mode	Mode by which new offspring are produced (sexual or asexual)	Mode of reproduction can be changed under environmental stress, with consequences for population sizes and ecosystem processes
Voltinism	The number of generations an organism completes in a single year.	Voltinism is under genetic and environmental control, being mostly influenced by the photoperiod, the local climatic conditions.
<b><i>Physiology</i></b>		

Resting metabolic rate	Amount of energy expended by an organism at rest	Metabolic rate is related to several organism features such as behaviour, longevity and reproduction output and its reaction norm with temperature can indicate how organisms differ in their response to environmental changes
Relative growth rate	Increasing in mass of an organism per unit of time	Relative growth rate is related to other several life history traits, such as body size and age at maturity. Therefore, growth rate can influence different fitness components such as fecundity and survival
Desiccation resistance	Ability to withstand dry conditions	Physiological capacity to resist dry conditions is related to species distribution along water availability gradients and to species response to changes in water availability
Inundation resistance	Ability of terrestrial organisms to survive under water	Flooding and increased frequency and intensity of extreme precipitation can impose strong restrictions on survival
Salinity resistance	Ability to withstand conditions of high salinity	Ability to withstand conditions of high salinity determines species survival under high salt stress and will influence growth and reproduction via trade-offs
Temperature tolerance	Ability to survive at any temperature. It includes: hot and cold	Tolerance of hot and cold temperatures determines species survival under stress and will influence growth and reproduction via trade-offs
pH resistance	Ability to withstand acidic or alkaline conditions	Ability to withstand acidic or alkaline conditions determines species survival under acidity stress and will influence growth and reproduction via trade-offs
<b><i>Behaviour</i></b>		
Activity time	Activity period of a species within 24h	Environmental conditions, e.g. climatic conditions, determine the activity time. This can affect ecosystem function through asynchrony, e.g. spatiotemporal mismatch in biotic interactions
Aggregation	Clustering of individuals	Clustering of individual reduces microclimatic stress, especially overcoming cold and drought and can locally result in enhanced ecosystem process rates via high population sizes

Dispersal mode	The form of self-directed movements an animal uses to move from one place to another	Dispersal mode influences access to new habitat, resources and suitable environments, mates, and shelters, and opportunities to escape adverse environmental conditions
Locomotion speed	The pace of self-propelled movement of an organism	Habitat conditions and biotic interactions influence locomotion speed which reflect behaviours critical for survival, including efficient use of resources, foraging, predator avoidance, fitness and survival
Sociality	Degree of interactive behaviour with other members of its species to the point of having a recognizable and distinct society	Disturbance and land use changes are expected to affect sociality. High levels of sociality are expected to have a bigger impact on ecosystem function
Annual activity time	Period in an organism's life cycle when growth, development, and physical activity are temporarily stopped	Offers the possibility to overcome unfavourable environmental conditions in a resting stage

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