

1 **A Community-Trait-Phylogenetic Framework: Ecological and Evolutionary Integration for**
2 **Soil Microarthropod Assembly**

3

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11 **Abstract**

12 Why does a single square meter of forest soil harbour thousands of animal species? Fifty years
13 after Jonathan M. Anderson raised this question, soil ecology still struggles with a fragmented
14 view on the coexistence of species. Researchers often study taxonomy, functional traits, and
15 phylogeny in isolation. Each approach adds insight but leaves gaps in the picture of soil
16 biodiversity.

17 In this paper, I propose a Community-Trait-Phylogenetic Ecology framework that integrates
18 evolutionary and ecological perspectives to explain how soil animal communities form and
19 persist. The framework combines three research fields:

- 20 - Biogeography – describes species composition across local, regional, and global scales.
- 21 - Functional traits – divided into α -niche traits (resource use) and β -niche traits (environmental
22 tolerance), showing whether resource partitioning or filtering by environment drives community
23 assembly.
- 24 - Phylogeny – shapes trait expression and defines the pool of species.

25 Evidence from the dominant soil microarthropods, springtails (Collembola, Hexapoda) and
26 oribatid mites (Oribatida, Acari), shows the value of this framework. Global data synthesis
27 reveals a mismatch between density and diversity, which challenges traditional biogeographic
28 predictions. Trait analyses show that environmental filtering occurs at global scales. At regional
29 and local scales, cryptic species that diverged millions of years ago coexist with distinct habitat
30 preferences. In addition, ancient and recent lineages coexist across elevations. Morphological
31 and physiological traits usually follow phylogenetic constraints. In contrast, trophic traits show
32 high flexibility, which allows closely related species to coexist.

33 This integrative view shifts soil animal ecology from describing patterns to understanding the
34 mechanisms responsible for them. It also supports predictions of community responses to
35 climate change and land-use change. Finally, it can guide conservation strategies for soil
36 habitats that protect species, functional, and evolutionary diversity of soil biota.

37

38 **Keywords:** coexistence mechanisms; community assembly; environmental filtering; evolution;
39 ecology; functional traits; niche; phylogenetic comparative methods; resource partitioning; soil
40 arthropods; soil biodiversity; soil macroecology; species pool

41 Fifty years ago, British ecologist Jonathan M. Anderson posed a deceptively simple yet
42 profoundly difficult question: *Why can a single square meter of forest soil harbour thousands of*
43 *animal species comprising millions of individuals* (Anderson, 1975)? This question challenges
44 our understanding of biodiversity and species coexistence mechanisms, revealing the complex
45 and delicate balance of natural forces.

46

47 **The Astonishing Complexity of Soil Life**

48 In a temperate deciduous forest just one square meter of litter and soil contains 10,000 to
49 200,000 tiny animals, often overlooked by the naked eye. These animal communities comprise
50 roughly 60-200 mesofauna species, each measuring about 0.2mm to 2mm in width (Petersen
51 and Luxton, 1982). Unlike microfauna such as nematodes that inhabit water films, mesofauna
52 like microarthropods occupy the air-filled pore space of the soil matrix. This distinct porosphere
53 subjects them to unique selection pressures on morphology and environmental tolerance. Within
54 soil pores and litter, springtails (Collembola, Hexapoda) and oribatid mites (Oribatida, Acari)
55 stand out for their remarkable abundance and ecological importance. These two taxa account
56 for approximately 95% of global soil arthropod abundance (Rosenberg et al., 2023) and rank
57 among the most diverse soil animal taxa with over 9000 and 11,000 described species,
58 respectively (Potapov et al., 2020; Subías, 2022). Despite sharing the same habitat and feeding
59 on similar resources, hundreds of these species coexist without apparent conflict. This is a
60 phenomenon that traditional soil ecology cannot fully explain. How is it possible? The answer
61 requires understanding of soil biodiversity from three complementary perspectives.

62

63 **Limitations and Breakthroughs of Traditional Approaches**

64 **Community ecology and biogeography** take species as the units. They focus on how
65 environmental factors, such as temperature, moisture, and soil pH, correlate with species
66 occurrence, and how species interactions and dispersal limitations shape local community
67 composition (Potapov et al., 2023). Although precise, this taxonomy-based approach is labour-
68 intensive and time-consuming. Species determination requires considerable training. It is also
69 defective because, though it indicates which species adapt to which environments (i.e. habitat

70 niches), it struggles to explain how they adapt to the environment and how species achieve
71 coexistence. Thus, the traditional species-centred perspective describes the patterns of
72 coexistence but not the mechanisms responsible for coexistence.

73 **Functional trait ecology** brought a breakthrough. Rather than treating each species as an
74 independent entity, it identifies niche dimensions based on specific attributes of the organisms
75 (i.e. traits) (Winemiller et al., 2015). Different species differ in multiple traits, such as morphology
76 (body size, colouration), life history (reproductive strategy, development rate), and resource
77 utilization (diet). These traits are assumed to be functional and to affect their fitness (but see
78 Gould and Lewontin, 1979). Through analysing functional traits, it is possible to predict which
79 species are able to coexist and how communities change along environmental gradients
80 (Brousseau et al., 2018). However, even this perspective has shortcomings, as it typically
81 overlooks the influence of evolutionary legacy on traits. Traits do not appear from nowhere but
82 are the result of millions of years of evolution (van Straalen, 2021).

83 **Phylogenetic and comparative methods** reveal the deep shared evolutionary history of
84 species. The evolutionary past of species influences which traits they possess and how
85 ecological roles are constrained. Related species tend to resemble each other, and such a
86 pattern is called "phylogenetic signal" (Silvertown et al., 2005). However, until today evolutionary
87 perspectives are little considered by soil ecologists as it requires specific conceptual and
88 practical skills. As a consequence, soil animal research typically treats ecology and evolution as
89 separate domains (but see Ponge, 2020 and van Straalen, 2021).

90

91 **An Integrative Perspective: The Community-Trait-Phylogenetic Ecology 92 Framework**

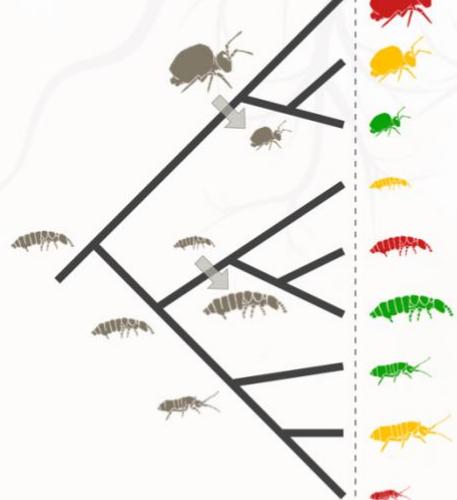
93 To overcome the limitations of the three traditional approaches and to better understand soil
94 animal communities, I propose a "Community-Trait-Phylogenetic Ecology" (CTPE) framework
95 (**Figure 1**). This framework attempts a more holistic understanding of the complex mechanisms
96 driving the composition of soil animal communities.

Past

Present

Processes

Speciation; changes over time



Phylogeny of

Species pool

Processes

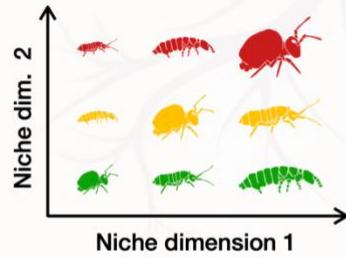
Dispersal; selection (e.g. filtering & partitioning) via

 α -niche traits

Resource exploitation

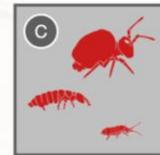
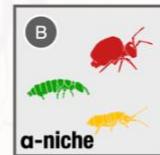
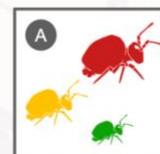
 β -niche traits

Environmental tolerance



Traits

Patterns



Communities Environments

Phylogenetic Comparative Methods

Trait-Based Ecological Approaches

Environmental gradients; habitat contrasts

97

98 **Figure 1.** The "Community-Trait-Phylogenetic Ecology" (CTPE) Framework: Ecological and Evolutionary
 99 integration for Soil Animal Diversity. The CTPE framework integrates ecological and evolutionary processes
 100 to understand mechanisms driving soil biodiversity across spatial scales. The spatial distribution of soil
 101 communities is the central focus of biogeography (right, red panel). Even when species richness remains
 102 constant, species composition often changes along environmental gradients, leading to local communities that
 103 differ in their trait composition (for example, body size, colour and shape). Functional traits reflect
 104 multidimensional ecological niches and help explain species occurrence in particular habitats. For examples,
 105 community A occurs at high elevation where solar radiation is strong, while community C is located at low-
 106 elevation forest cover with dense canopy cover. By examining functional traits, defined as α -niche traits
 107 (associated with resource use and partitioning) and β -niche traits (related to environmental tolerance), this
 108 framework can infer the processes shaping community patterns and predict community responses to
 109 environmental changes (middle, green panel). In community A, springtail species share a similar body shape

110 but differ in body size and colour, whereas in community C, species are similar in colour but differ in the other
111 two traits. Patterns in trait distributions, when compared to null expectations, reveal the underlying
112 deterministic processes of community assembly. With phylogenetic comparative methods, the CTPE
113 framework also infers the evolutionary processes that have generated present-day trait variation among
114 species, offering a historical context for contemporary ecological patterns (left, yellow panel). Over
115 evolutionary time, species have diversified from common ancestors by shifting traits (for example, from large
116 to small body size, or *vice versa*). Speciation and trait evolution have thus shaped the regional species pool
117 from which local communities assemble under the combined influence of environmental filtering and niche
118 partitioning.

119

120 This framework comprises three elements.

121 The first element is the **species level - multiscale variation in community composition**.
122 Variations in soil animal community is reflected not only in differences in species richness but
123 also in species composition and their distribution across space and time (biogeographic patterns;
124 e.g. Gao et al., 2014; Potapov et al., 2023; Junggebauer et al., 2024). To understand changes
125 in soil animal diversity, it is necessary to ask what patterns characterize communities at local,
126 regional, and global scales.

127 The second element is the **functional level - two niche processes reflected by traits**.
128 Functional traits of species may be divided into two categories, α - and β -niche traits (Ackerly
129 and Cornwell, 2007). Each category refers to different yet complementary community assembly
130 processes (Chen et al., 2017; Noske et al., 2024). The β -niche traits reflect species
131 environmental tolerances, such as body surface pigmentation (affecting thermoregulation and
132 UV resistance; Xie et al., 2022) and temperature-moisture tolerance (Janion-Scheepers et al.,
133 2018). Coexisting species typically resemble each other in these traits, indicating that they
134 tolerate similar environmental conditions. By contrast, the α -niche traits reflect resource
135 utilization strategies of species. Despite sharing the same habitat in soil, springtails and oribatid
136 mites may exploit different food resources, including plant roots and exudates, organic matter,
137 bacteria, fungi, lichens, mosses, algae, and even other soil animals (Potapov et al., 2022).
138 Differences in the use of these resources are likely to reduce competition, thereby allowing to
139 coexist locally. Therefore, the distinction between β - and α -niche traits helps predict which
140 species are able to coexist and how communities change along environmental gradients.

141 Third is the **phylogenetic level – evolutionary constraints and possibilities**. Evolutionary
142 history not only provides context for trait variation but also constrains ecological possibilities.
143 Combining molecular techniques (such as mitochondrial genome sequencing; Xie et al., 2022)
144 with comparative methods (such as phylogenetic signal testing; Revell, 2024) makes it possible
145 to determine the nature of traits. These methods allow to identify which traits are of ancient
146 evolutionary origin and which evolved recently in response to contemporary selection processes,
147 or which traits are novel or have changed their original functions so that species exploit novel
148 niches. Morphological and physiological traits typically show strong phylogenetic signal;
149 conversely, trophic traits (resource utilization) often lack phylogenetic signal (Chen et al., 2017;
150 Gong et al., 2018; Xie et al., 2022; Noske et al. 2024). These patterns suggest that environmental
151 tolerance is evolutionarily constrained and that resource utilization strategies have evolved
152 independently multiple times, allowing closely related species to partition resources and coexist.

153

154 **Evidence from Springtails and Oribatid Mites: from Global to Local**

155 The international collaboration, the Global Collembola Initiative (#GlobalCollembola; Potapov et
156 al., 2020), compiled nearly 3000 community composition records. These records cover eight
157 biogeographic regions and 10 biomes from the tropics to the poles (Potapov et al., 2024). This
158 unprecedented dataset reveals a striking mismatch between density and diversity. Polar regions
159 show high density but only moderate species richness, temperate forests are characterized by
160 moderate density yet highest richness, tropical regions show lowest density but highest richness,
161 and arid systems show both low density and low richness (Potapov et al., 2023). This "density-
162 diversity mismatch" challenges traditional perspectives.

163 Recent compilation of data by the Global Collembola Initiative on 10 different traits from over
164 7000 springtail species and the ongoing global-scale trait distribution analyses, provide evidence
165 for the effect of environment on traits. The compilation indicates that springtail body pigmentation,
166 colour patterns, ommatidia number, furca development, and body size are differentially
167 influenced by habitat type, latitude, biome, and local density (Chen, T.-W. et al., unpubl. data).
168 This suggests that environmental filtering operates at global scales, selecting particular trait
169 combinations.

170 At the regional level, recent biogeographic research on soil animals of Changbai Mountain in
171 Northeast Asia tracked variation in isotomid springtail communities across 1400m of elevation
172 (Xie et al., 2022). This study found that soil nitrogen content, changing with elevation, acts as a
173 key environmental filter selecting particular pigmentation patterns and trait combinations. This
174 mountain study also raises an evolutionary puzzle: are mountains "cradles" of speciation? Or
175 are they "museums" preserving ancient lineages? Linking phylogeny with geological events
176 reveals that both scenarios apply to isotomid springtails. Ancient lineages persist while new
177 species have emerged alongside mountain uplift. These patterns provide the basis for inferring
178 historical speciation and diversification processes that shaped the current species pools from
179 which local communities are assembled (Vasconcelos et al., 2022).

180 At local scales, ongoing research on the winter springtail communities in the wetlands,
181 secondary forests, farmlands, and plantations of northeastern China, revealed different
182 dominant community assembly processes across habitats (Chen, T.-W., unpubl. data). Even
183 within a single community, species are simultaneously influenced by both filtering and
184 partitioning processes, depending on the traits considered. For example, compared to forests,
185 farmland springtails show similarity in furca and eye traits presumably due to environmental
186 filtering, while body size, pigmentation, and colour patterns reveal niche partitioning among
187 coexisting species. This suggests how trait-based perspectives on two niche processes can
188 operate simultaneously within the same community.

189

190 **The Multidimensional View of Trophic Ecology: Soil Animal Diets are 191 Complex**

192 Even though morphological traits can reflect partitioning processes, traits more directly related
193 to the use of food resources (α -niche) are usually derived from food-web methods that
194 characterize soil animal diet or food resources (i.e. trophic niches; Potapov et al., 2021). Gut
195 contents, digestive enzymes, neutral lipid fatty acids, and stable isotopes (^{15}N and ^{13}C), each
196 provide complementary information on the diet of consumers. Most pairwise correlations of
197 trophic niche parameters deduced from these methods are weak, indicating that each method
198 captures different dimensions of the trophic niche (Potapov et al., 2021). Stable isotope values

199 and gut microbiota of winter-active springtails show that they actually feed on resources on snow
200 cover (such as cyanobacteria) rather than from litter (Hao et al., 2020). These results indicate
201 that by combining multiple methods can we truly understand soil animal diets and reveal their
202 realized trophic niches.

203 Furthermore, microbiota associated with soil animals can be viewed as a special type of trait
204 (Gong et al., 2018, 2022; Hao et al., 2025). The study on bacteria and fungi associated with
205 oribatid mites reveal subtle differences in how evolutionary history and trophic ecology of oribatid
206 mites influence their microbial communities (Gong et al., 2018). Variations in fungal communities
207 are better explained by stable isotope differences than by phylogenetic distance between mite
208 species, suggesting fungi as food resources. Bacterial communities, in contrast, are more
209 strongly related to host phylogeny than to trophic niche differences, indicating that closely related
210 mites harbour similar bacteria, presumably shaped by host physiology. This suggests that mite-
211 bacteria associations evolved interdependently. The ancient coevolution between animal hosts
212 and gut symbionts results in a phylogenetic signal of bacterial communities across soil oribatid
213 mite species.

214 Neutral lipid fatty acids also reveal the distinction between trait evolutionary dependence and
215 resource flexibility (Chen et al., 2017). In this study we measured neutral lipid fatty acid
216 composition in springtails and found closely related species to share similar fatty acid profiles.
217 Long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids, which are related to physiological function (β -niche),
218 show a strong phylogenetic signal, while fatty acid biomarkers representing food resources
219 (bacteria, fungi, and plants; α -niche) show almost no signal. This means that β -niche
220 physiological functions are evolutionarily constrained, whereas α -niche resource utilization is
221 highly flexible, indicating closely related species evolve different feeding strategies.

222

223 **From Deep Time to Present: Multiscale Coupling of Evolution and Ecology**

224 The CTPE framework reveals how evolution and ecology interact across different temporal
225 scales. Springtails and oribatid mites have persisted since the Paleozoic (Schaefer et al., 2010;
226 Yu et al., 2024). At hundred-million-year scales, they diversified alongside plant evolution and
227 geological events (such as continental drift and mountain building), forming regional species

228 pools (Schaefer and Caruso, 2019; Xie et al., 2022). At million-year scales, even cryptic species
229 indistinguishable morphologically have long diverged at the genetic level (Heethoff et al., 2007;
230 Zhang et al., 2018). For example, three lineages of the springtail *Lepidocyrtus lanuginosus*
231 diverged about 15.9 to 9.7 million years ago (Miocene), yet still coexist in the same region today,
232 each preferring different habitats (forest, grassland, or farmland; Zhang et al., 2018). Different
233 lineages of the oribatid mite *Oppiella nova* likewise occupy distinct ecotones, having diverged
234 about 16 to 6 million years ago (von Saltzwedel et al., 2014). These studies demonstrate that
235 both persistence of old lineages and environmental filtering are at work. At contemporary
236 ecological timescales, in addition to long evolutionary paths, present community composition
237 remains highly determined by current environmental conditions and resource availability.
238 Evolution provides the "toolbox" (traits), while contemporary ecological conditions determine
239 which "tools are selected" (species coexistence). This phenomenon indicates a close
240 evolutionary-ecological coupling in soil animals, where species that diverged in deep time now
241 coexist through particular mechanisms. Trait evolution enables environmental (β -niche)
242 differentiation at large spatial and long evolutionary time scales but resource (α -niche)
243 partitioning at both small spatial and temporal scales.

244

245 **Insights and Significance of the CTPE Framework**

246 This integrative framework brings several novel insights to the explanation of soil biodiversity.
247 First, traits reveal ecological processes. Measuring functional traits is not merely for describing
248 patterns but reveal which ecological processes dominate in communities. Environmental filtering
249 is usually revealed by similar β -niche traits, while partitioning processes can be shown in different
250 resources (α -niche) used by coexisting species. Second, evolutionary history reveals constraints
251 and opportunities. Physiological functions are usually evolutionarily constrained and exhibit a
252 phylogenetic signal. In contrast, resource utilization strategies are less evolutionarily constrained.
253 They usually display flexibility between species (e.g. convergent evolution; Schaefer and Caruso,
254 2019) and even within species (e.g. trophic plasticity; Krause et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2025). In
255 combination, contemporary ecological processes reshape soil microarthropod communities via
256 existing traits and coexistence arises from multiple overlapping mechanisms. Evolution adds trait
257 diversity, the environment selects particular traits, and resource differentiation enables local

258 diversity. Importantly, this integrative framework can extend beyond soil microarthropods to
259 explain diversity patterns across multiple scales, systems, and taxa (Junker et al., 2022; Luza et
260 al., 2023). Soil animals are far more complex than previously recognized. They occupy diverse
261 niches, display remarkable adaptability, and utilize various resources. They are not merely
262 microscopic detritivores but multitaskers with specific effect traits (Bonfanti et al., 2025), ensuring
263 ecosystem functioning through redundancy and complementarity.

264

265 **Future Applications: from Understanding to Prediction and Conservation**

266 By integrating species distribution and community patterns, multiple trait measurements, and
267 phylogenetic analyses, we are making progress toward understanding the enigma Jonathan M.
268 Anderson posed fifty years ago (Anderson, 1975). This understanding is essential for predicting
269 consequences of global change: Climate change alters temperature and moisture regimes,
270 thereby changing directions and strengths of environmental filtering and selecting different trait
271 combinations (Ferrín et al., 2023). Land-use change may fragment communities and limit
272 connectivity (Susanti et al., 2021). Invasive species may disrupt the existing functional and
273 phylogenetic structures of communities (Janion-Scheepers et al., 2018). Understanding which
274 traits confer ecosystem resistance and resilience (Bonfanti et al., 2022), and which are shaped
275 by evolution (Noske et al., 2024), enables the prediction of structural and functional changes of
276 soil animal communities under these scenarios. This allows to identify key species and
277 vulnerable taxa, thereby providing the basis for optimizing conservation strategies that maintain
278 multidimensional diversity. The CTPE framework, thus, also emphasizes that protecting soil
279 functioning is not just a matter of species numbers but requires maintaining multiple levels of
280 diversity including trait diversity, functional diversity, and evolutionary diversity (Véron et al.,
281 2019). Insights gained from the CTPE framework are useful for global soil conservation policy.

282

283 **Why This Matters**

284 Soil animals differ in their sensitivity to environmental stress, making them valuable bioindicators
285 of ecosystem health (Shimano, 2011; Yin et al., 2020). They contribute to essential ecosystem
286 functions by regulating nutrient cycling, supporting plant production, and mediating carbon

287 sequestration (Bardgett and van der Putten, 2014; Bonfanti et al., 2025). Fifty years after
288 Anderson's original formulation, researchers now have new tools, new theories, and new
289 frameworks to solve this enigma. Advances in high-throughput sequencing, stable isotope
290 analysis, fatty acid and amino acid profiling, and computational methods now enable
291 unprecedented data integration and synthesis. The coming decade of soil biodiversity research
292 will elucidate the mechanisms that generate and maintain soil biodiversity and help predict how
293 it responds to climate change, land-use alteration, and other global pressures. Now we can
294 integrate ecological processes, functional traits, and evolutionary history to better understand
295 and predict soil biodiversity. Soil will no longer be a black box but a kaleidoscope revealing the
296 hidden wealth of life beneath our feet (Andrén and Balandreau, 1999; van Straalen, 2023).

297

298 **Concluding Remarks**

- 299 • The integrated "community-trait-phylogenetic" framework depicts soil biodiversity as a
300 multidimensional pattern shaped by ancient evolutionary processes and maintained by
301 contemporary ecological processes. Community coexistence depends on multiple mechanisms
302 operating in parallel: environmental filtering, resource differentiation, and evolutionary
303 constraints and novelty.
- 304 • Past environmental conditions shaped ancient lineages with specific traits and their
305 descendants now display unique preferences in contemporary habitats.
- 306 • β -niche traits (such as morphological and physiological traits which reflect environmental
307 tolerance) often show a strong phylogenetic signal, indicating evolutionary constraints.
308 Coexisting species in communities typically are characterized by trait similarity, reflecting
309 contemporary environmental filtering.
- 310 • α -niche traits (such as multidimensional trophic niche parameters which reflect resource
311 utilization) can be revealed through complementary diet methods. These traits typically show no,
312 or a weak, phylogenetic signal, highlighting ecological opportunity.
- 313 • Microbiota associated with soil animals can be viewed as functional traits. Bacteria (especially
314 symbionts) are closely tied to host evolutionary history, while fungi serve primarily as food

315 resources, reflecting the trophic niches of the animals.

316 • Integrating knowledge of community ecology, functional traits, and evolutionary history helps
317 predict soil biodiversity responses to global change and their effects on ecosystem functioning.

318

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339

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