

1 **A bite force database of 654 insect species**

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10 **Abstract**

11 Bite force is a decisive performance trait in animals because it plays a role for numerous life
12 history components such as food consumption, inter- and intraspecific interactions, and
13 reproductive success. Bite force has been studied across a wide range of vertebrate species,
14 but only for 20 species of insects, the most speciose animal lineage. Here we present the insect
15 bite force database with bite force measurements for 654 insect species covering 111 families
16 and 13 orders with body lengths ranging from 4.2 - 180.1 mm. In total we recorded 1906 bite
17 force series from 1290 specimens, and, in addition, present basal head, body, and wing
18 metrics. As such, the database will facilitate a wide range of studies on the characteristics,
19 predictors, and macroevolution of bite force in the largest clade of the animal kingdom and
20 may serve as a basis to further our understanding of macroevolutionary processes in relation
21 to bite force across all biting metazoans.

22

23 **Background & Summary**

24 Bite force is a performance trait which may decide on an animal's ability to acquire food, win
25 inter- and intra-specific fights and successfully reproduce¹⁻⁵. In vertebrates, maximum bite
26 forces are well studied across a wide diversity of taxa such as bony fishes^{6,7}, crocodylians (e.g.
27 ⁸), birds (e.g. ⁹), turtles (e.g. ¹⁰), squamates (e.g. ^{11,12}), frogs¹³, marsupials¹⁴, and mammals (e.g.
28 ¹⁵⁻¹⁸).

29 Fundamental knowledge on the variation, predictors and evolution of bite forces within the
30 omnipresent insects is, however, lacking. Even though more than half a million insect species
31 belong to orders that possess biting-chewing mouthparts^{19,20}, existing literature only yields
32 bite force measurements on five dragonflies^{21,22}, one cockroach²³, and 14 beetles^{24,25}. This is
33 despite the fact that biting-chewing insects include the most destructive plant eating animals
34 and occupy crucial roles in the world's ecosystems as soil-building detritivores²⁶.

35 So far, measuring bite forces of insects was hampered by their small size, but the recently
36 published measurement setup "forceX" ²⁷ overcame this limitation to some extent by allowing
37 minimally invasive *in vivo* bite force measurements of animals with gape sizes more than ten
38 times smaller than previous setups (e.g. ²⁸). Using forceX, we measured bite forces of 654
39 insect species from 111 families and 13 orders, collected on four continents and from
40 numerous breeding cultures. Instead of gathering maximum force values only, as most
41 previous bite force studies have done (but see ^{25,23,21,22,29}), we also recorded force curves. In
42 addition, the bite force database contains head, wing and body metrics of each specimen to
43 assess morphological predictors for bite force in insects. Thus, the database will facilitate
44 investigations on the macroevolution of maximum bite force, bite lengths, bite frequencies,
45 muscle activation patterns, and bite curve shapes across the megadiverse insects and will
46 facilitate comparisons with all biting metazoan taxa.

47 **Methods**

48 **Collection and material**

49 A total of 1290 insect specimens representing 654 species from 111 families and 13 orders
50 were collected in Australia, China, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Panama and Slovenia
51 using light traps, insect nets, pitfall traps, or directly by hand. All specimens were collected
52 under the respective regulations in effect (see Acknowledgements). Additionally, we
53 measured specimens from numerous scientific, private and commercial insect breeders and
54 traders (Online-only Table 1 and Acknowledgements).

55 **Size measurements**

56 Head width, head length, head height, thorax width, forewing length and body length
57 measurements were performed to the nearest 0.01 mm using a digital caliper (77001,
58 Wentronic GmbH, Braunschweig, Germany). For the head width, the longest distance from left
59 to right was measured, including protruding eyes if applicable (Fig. 1a). Head height in
60 orthognathous insects was measured from the clypeo-labral ridge to the dorsal end of the
61 head (Fig. 1a,b). In prognathous insects, head length was measured from the clypeo-labral
62 ridge to the posterior end of the head (Fig. 1c). Thorax width was measured on the prothorax
63 (Fig. 1d) and excluded lateral protrusions as found e.g. in many cockroaches and praying
64 mantises. Body length measurements excluded cerci, ovipositors, or other abdominal
65 appendages (Fig. 1e).

66 **Bite force measurements**

67 All measurements were carried out with the metal-turned version of the forceX setup as
68 described in ²⁷. In short, life and conscious animals were held between two fingers, rotated by
69 90° along their body axis and allowed to voluntarily bite on the tip elements of the forceX.

70 Different tip element designs²⁷ and distances between them were used to accommodate
71 different animal gape sizes. During measurements, animals were observed through the Junior
72 Stereo 3D microscope (Bresser GmbH, Rhede, Germany) that is part of the forceX setup to
73 ensure that gape sizes are suitable and that the insects bite at the edge of the tip elements so
74 that the ratio of the forceX lever remains at a constant 0.538^{27,30}. We also checked if the
75 animals bit with the distal-most incisivi of their mandibles to ensure that measurements
76 remain comparable³⁰. Non-distal bites or wrongly placed bites on the tip elements were
77 discarded. If animals did not start biting by themselves, we used the tip element protrusions
78 to insert the tip elements between the mandibles and/or used a fine brush to touch the
79 animal's cerci, head or abdomen²³. Amplified analogue voltage signals were converted to a
80 digital signal by a 12-bit USB data acquisition device (U3-HV, LabJack Corporation, Lakewood,
81 Colorado, US) and recorded with the LJStreamUD v1.19 measurement software (LabJack
82 Corporation) on a computer.

83 Data curation

84 Subsequent data curation was performed in the software environment 'R' v.4.03³¹ using the
85 package 'forceR' v.1.0.0²⁷. Since the forceR package was written to analyse data generated
86 with the forceX setup, we used, if not stated otherwise, the default settings of the package
87 functions. First, time series were converted from the output format of LJStreamUD to a *.csv
88 file containing only a time and a voltage column (without changing measurement values) using
89 the forceR function 'convert_measurement()'. Then, all measurements were manually
90 cropped using 'crop_measurement()' to exclude regions without bite data at the beginning
91 and end of each measurement. Next, 'amp_drift_corr()' was used to correct for the logarithmic
92 drift of the analogue charge amplifier (see Rühr and Blanke²⁷ for details). When using the high
93 amplification setting (20 V/N) to amplify the miniscule voltage signals of the piezoelectric force
94 transducer at small bite forces, the zero-voltage-line ('baseline') may drift notably during a

95 measurement. Therefore, a PDF file depicting all input raw data and their amplifier drift-
96 corrected data graphs (available at Zenodo, s. Data Records) was visually inspected, and, if
97 necessary, the function 'baseline_corr()' was used in its automatic mode to correct for this
98 drift. In some of these cases, however, especially when the test animals showed long, plateau-
99 like bite curve shapes, the automatic mode of 'baseline_corr()' failed to find the baseline, and
100 the manual mode was used. All corrections can be retraced in the PDF file and reproduced
101 using the log files that were created during corrections and which are stored at Zenodo. With
102 the function 'reduce_frq()' we then reduced the sampling rate of all time series to 200 Hz, a
103 value found to be sufficient to represent insect bite force curves^{25,23,22,22} to reduce the amount
104 of data for further analyses. As a last curating step, voltage values were converted into force
105 data [N] with the forceR function 'y_to_force()' that considers the amplification level of each
106 measurement and the lever mechanics of the measurement system. Online-only Table 1
107 shows all measurement settings, taxonomic classifications and information on which
108 correction procedures have been performed on which measurements.

109 Maximum force value extraction for specimens and species

110 To extract maximum force values of each specimen and each species and calculate the
111 standard deviations of these values we used the function 'summarize_measurements()' of
112 forceR and custom code, heavily on the packages 'dplyr' v.1.0.7³². We then plotted the log10-
113 transformed average maximum bite force per specimen (grey dots in Fig. 2) and per species
114 (black dots) against the log10-transformed average body length (Fig. 2a) and head width (Fig.
115 2b) using 'ggplot2' v.3.3.5³³ and 'ggExtra' v.0.9³⁴. Linear regressions through the log10-
116 transformed species-wise data showed significant allometric relationships between body size
117 and head width ($p < 0.001$) with explanatory values of $r^2 = 0.43$ and $r^2 = 0.56$, respectively. Due
118 to the expected logarithmic relationship between size and bite force³⁵, means were

119 calculated as geometric means. Calculations with the regular mean, however, yielded similar
120 results ($p < 0.001$, $r^2 = 0.44$ and $r^2 = 0.56$; Supplementary Figure 1).

121 Comparison to previous insect bite force measurements

122 Previous studies on insect bite forces covered maximum bite force values for 20
123 species^{24,23,21,22}. To check if these measurements follow similar allometric slopes as our data,
124 we extracted all available insect bite force data from the literature and added them to the
125 scatterplot in Figure 2b. We then tested if our data and the literature data differ in their
126 allometric slopes by comparing a linear model with the null hypothesis of different slopes
127 ($\log_{10}(\text{bite.force}) \sim \log_{10}(\text{head.width}) * \text{source}$) versus a linear model with the null hypothesis
128 of common slopes ($\log_{10}(\text{bite.force}) \sim \log_{10}(\text{head.width}) + \text{source}$). Both model fits were
129 compared with an ANOVA to find out if they differ significantly.

130 Assessment of geographical coverage

131 Climate zone data (Köppen–Geiger classification system^{36–38}) was gathered for each species
132 based on the GPS coordinates of its collection localities (Online-only Table 1) with the function
133 ‘LookupCZ()’ of the R package ‘kgc’ v.1.0.0.2³⁹. Percentages of species in the database for each
134 country and climate zone were calculated.

135 Assessment of phylogenetic coverage

136 To assess the phylogenetic coverage of the bite force database we compared the number of
137 species with database entries to the number of species listed by the Open Tree of Life⁴⁰,
138 accessed on 2022/02/05 with the function ‘tol_node_info()’ of the package ‘rotl’ v.3.0.11⁴¹.
139 Comparisons were carried out for all insect orders and families that are present in the bite
140 force database.

141 **Data Records**

142 All raw measurements, the cleaned time series, and the PDF and log files created during the
143 conversion of the raw data to the final database are available in comma-separated format at
144 Zenodo: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5782922>). Online-only table 1 is also stored in the
145 same repository.

146 **Technical Validation**

147 Visual inspection of the scatter plot of bite force against head width (black dots in Fig. 2b) and
148 all literature data points (orange diamonds) revealed that the literature data lies close to the
149 regression through all data points of our database. This impression is corroborated by the
150 comparison of the allometric slopes of the insect bite force database and the literature data,
151 which yielded no statistically significant difference (ANOVA: $F = 0.102$, $p = 0.75$).

152 Geographical assessment of the collected animals showed that most species of the insect bite
153 force database were collected in Australia (30.7%), Germany (19.1%), and Panama (16.4%).
154 23.2% of the species were obtained from breeding cultures. The remaining 10.6% of the
155 species were collected in Greece, Slovenia, France, China, and Denmark. Climate region
156 assessment revealed that most species were collected in temperate (54%) and tropical (43.2%)
157 regions. 2.8% came from dry and continental regions combined (Fig. 3b). We did not consider
158 the original geographic distribution of those species obtained from breeding cultures.

159 A total of 13 biting-chewing insect orders are present in the database (Fig. 3d). We could not
160 obtain live animals from the orders Zoraptera and Grylloblattodea. Bite force measurements
161 of the few species of Plecoptera, Mecoptera, and Trichoptera that were available failed
162 because no voluntary biting could be elicited in these specimens. We did not attempt
163 measuring available representatives of Psocoptera and the biting-chewing “mandibulate
164 archaic moths” (Lepidoptera: Micropterigoidea) due to their minute size. The assessment of

165 phylogenetic coverage of the orders and families showed that most families are represented
166 by less than one species entry per 100 estimated species (Fig. 3c). While orders were sampled
167 in proportion to their taxonomic diversity (Fig. 3d), we were only able to measure at least 1%
168 of the described species in Mantophasmatodea, Phasmatodea and Mantodea (dots left of
169 dashed line in Fig. 3a). Accordingly, bite forces of only a fraction of all insect species were
170 measured so far. Nevertheless, the database exceeds all previous studies combined in species
171 numbers (30-fold in insects, 3.5-fold in amniotes), marking just the beginning of research on
172 this performance trait in the most species-ridge metazoan clade.

173 **Usage Notes**

174 The forceR package²⁷ was used to create the insect bite force database, which contains
175 cleaned measurement time series and maximum bite forces of insects. The same package may
176 be used to expand the scarce knowledge on insect bite forces by tackling questions regarding
177 the evolution of bite lengths, frequencies, and bite curve shapes by semi-automatically
178 extracting individual bite curves from these measurements. Additionally, the maximum bite
179 force values presented in Online-only table 1 can be used for a wide range of in-depth studies
180 on the morphological and ecological predictors and macroevolution of this important
181 performance trait in the megadiverse insects.

182 **Code Availability**

183 The R code to convert the raw measurements into the final database and to create all tables
184 and figures used in this publication can be found at [https://github.com/Peter-T-
185 Ruehr/Insect_Bite_Force_Database](https://github.com/Peter-T-Ruehr/Insect_Bite_Force_Database).

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211 **Author contributions**

212 PTR wrote all code, prepared the figures, lead the dataset creation and drafted the manuscript.

213 PTR and AB conceived the study and refined the manuscript. CE, MF and AB contributed to the

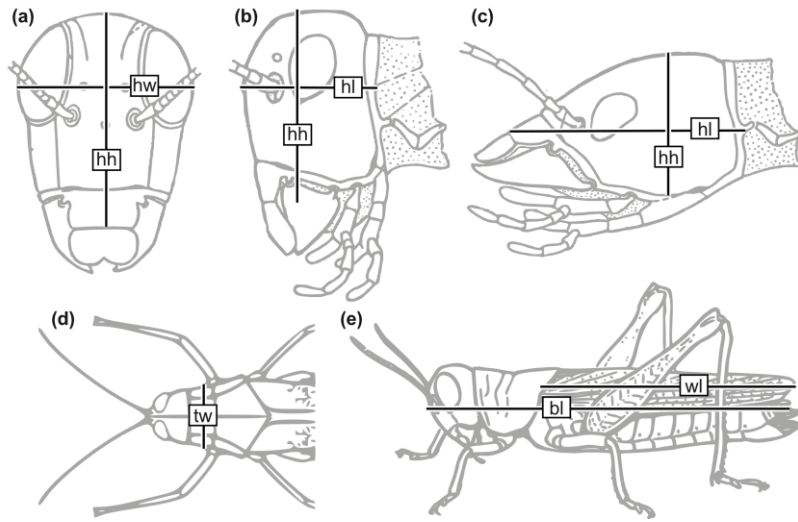
214 dataset creation. All authors reviewed the manuscript and gave final approval for publication.

215 **Competing interests**

216 The authors declare no competing interests.

217

218 **Figures**



219

220 **Fig. 1:** Insect length measurements. **(a-b)** Head of an orthognathous insect in frontal (a) and

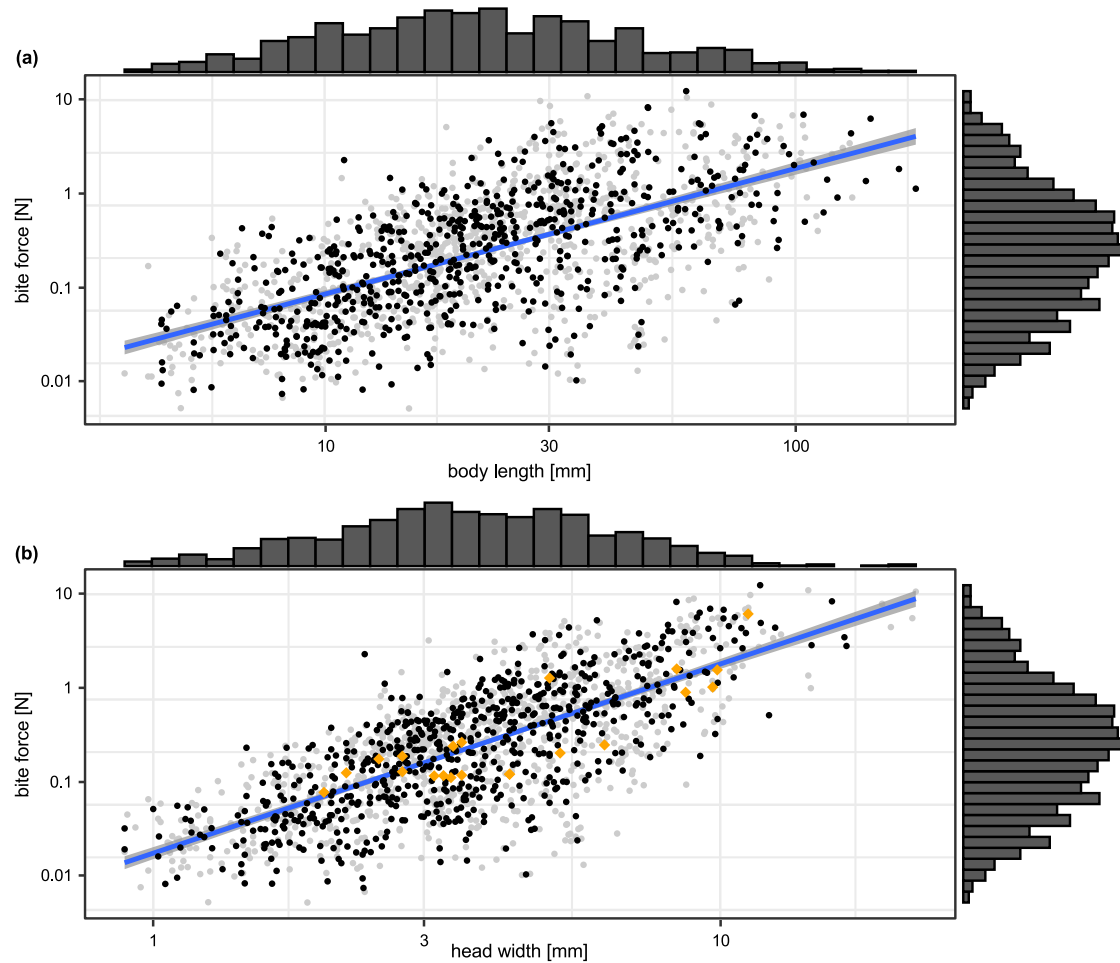
221 lateral view (b). **(c)** Head of prognathous insect in lateral view. **(d)** Frontal part of an

222 orthognathous insect in dorsal view. **(e)** Orthognathous insect habitus in lateral view.

223 Abbreviations: **bl**, body length; **hh**, head height; **hl**, head length; **hw**, head width; **wt**, thorax

224 width; **wl**, forewing length. a,b,c after Snodgrass⁴²; e after Snodgrass⁴³.

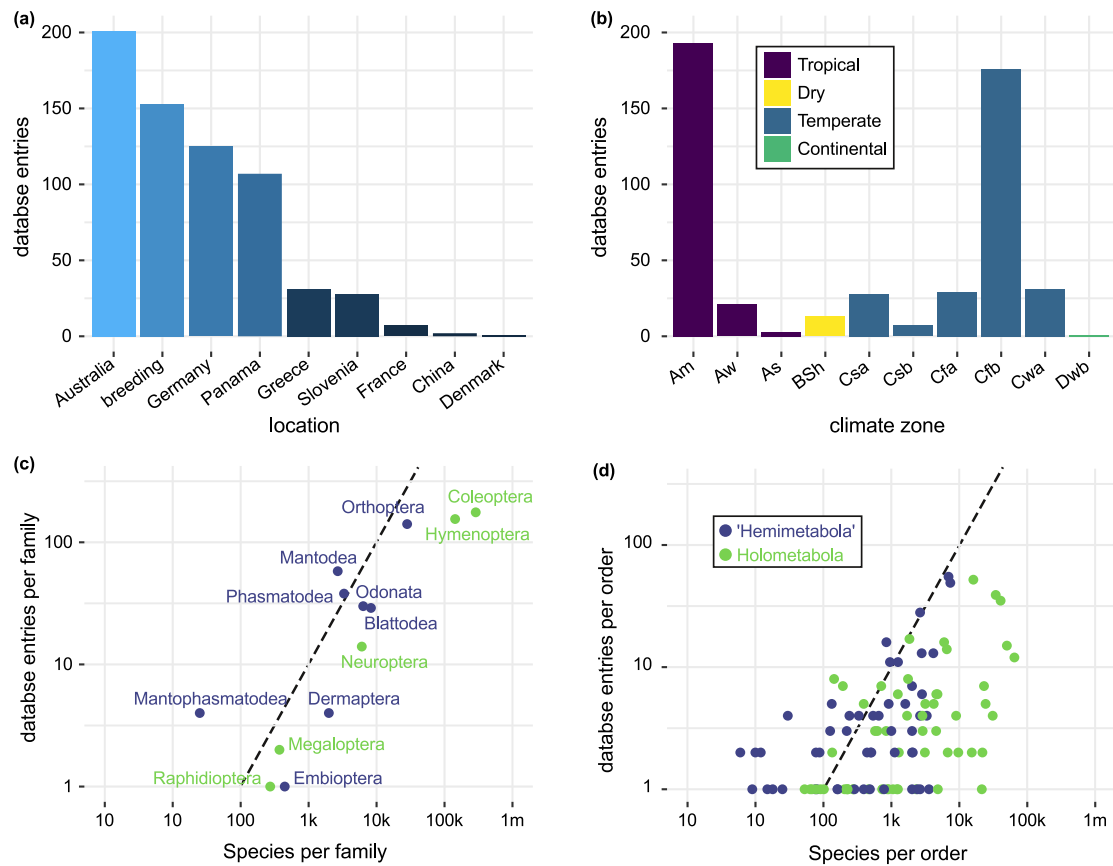
225



226

227 **Fig. 2:** Maximum bite force against body length (a) and head width (b). Grey dots show
228 geometric means of all maximum bite forces per specimen, black dots show geometric means
229 of all length measurements and maximum bite forces of all specimens per species. Marginal
230 histograms at the x- and y-axes show mean size and mean bite force distribution per specimen,
231 respectively. Regression lines and coefficients refer to log₁₀-linear models of species-wise bite
232 force against body length (a) or head width (b). Orange diamonds in (b) show bite force
233 measurements available in previous literature. All axes are log₁₀-transformed.

234



235

236 **Fig. 3:** Geographical and phylogenetic coverage of the bite force database. **(a)** Species entries

237 per collection location (country or breeding). **(b)** Species entries per Köppen–Geiger climate

238 zone with specimens sourced from breeding cultures excluded. **(c)** Ratio of database entries

239 compared to species estimated in all insect families present in the database. **(d)** Ratio of

240 database entries compared to species estimated in all insect orders present in the database.

241 The dashed lines in (c,d) mark a ratio of 1 data base entry per 100 estimated species.

242 Abbreviations: **Am**: tropical monsoon; **Aw**: tropical savanna with dry-winter characteristics;

243 **As**: tropical savanna with dry-summer characteristics; **BSh**: semi-arid (steppe) hot; **Csa**:

244 mediterranean hot summer; **Csb**: mediterranean warm/cool summer; **Cfa**: humid subtropical;

245 **Cfb**: oceanic; **Cwa**: dry-winter humid subtropical; **Dwb**: warm summer continental.

246

247

248 **Tables**

249 **Online-only Table 1:** Insect bite force database summary. Taxonomic classification, maximum
250 bite force per measurement (iBite), specimen and species (ID), regular and geometric mean
251 bite force per specimen and species, voltage amplification setting, length measurements,
252 collection coordinates, country, and climate zone for each bite fore measurement.

253

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