



HAL
open science

Species multidimensional effects explain idiosyncratic responses of communities to environmental change

Andrea Tabi, Frank Pennekamp, Florian Altermatt, Roman Alther, Emanuel Fronhofer, Katherine Horgan, Elvira Mächler, Mikael Pontarp, Owen L Petchey, Serguei Saavedra

► To cite this version:

Andrea Tabi, Frank Pennekamp, Florian Altermatt, Roman Alther, Emanuel Fronhofer, et al.. Species multidimensional effects explain idiosyncratic responses of communities to environmental change. *Nature Ecology & Evolution*, 2020, 4, pp.1036-1043. 10.1038/s41559-020-1206-6 . hal-02878430

HAL Id: hal-02878430

<https://hal.umontpellier.fr/hal-02878430>

Submitted on 23 Jun 2020

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Species multidimensional effects explain idiosyncratic responses of communities to environmental change

Andrea Tabi¹, Frank Pennekamp¹, Florian Altermatt^{1,2}, Roman Alther^{1,2},
Emanuel A. Fronhofer^{1,2,3}, Katherine Horgan¹, Elvira Mächler^{1,2}, Mikael Pontarp¹,
Owen L. Petchey¹, Serguei Saavedra⁴

¹Department of Evolutionary Biology and Environmental Studies, University of Zurich, 190
Winterthurerstrasse, Zurich 8057, Switzerland

²Eawag, Swiss Federal Institute of Aquatic Science and Technology, Department of Aquatic Ecology,
Überlandstrasse 133, CH-8600 Dübendorf, Switzerland

³ISEM, Université de Montpellier, CNRS, IRD, EPHE, Montpellier, France

⁴Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, MIT, 77 Massachusetts Avenue, Cambridge,
Massachusetts 02139, USA

1 **Environmental change can alter species' abundances within communities**
2 **consistently, e.g., increasing all abundances by the same percentage, or more**
3 **idiosyncratically. Here, we show how comparing effects of temperature on species**
4 **grown in isolation and when grown together helps understand how ecological**
5 **communities more generally respond to environmental change. In particular, we**
6 **find that the shape of the feasibility domain (the parameter space of carrying**
7 **capacities compatible with positive species' abundances) helps explain the**
8 **composition of experimental microbial communities under changing environmental**
9 **conditions. We first introduce a measure to quantify the asymmetry of a**
10 **community's feasibility domain using the column vectors of the corresponding**
11 **interaction matrix. These column vectors describe the effects each species has on all**
12 **other species in the community (hereafter referred to as species' multidimensional**
13 **effects). We show that, as the asymmetry of the feasibility domain increases, the**
14 **relationship between species' abundance when grown together and when grown in**
15 **isolation weakens. We then show that microbial communities experiencing different**
16 **temperature environments exhibit patterns consistent with this theory.**
17 **Specifically, communities at warmer temperatures show relatively more asymmetry,**
18 **and thus the idiosyncrasy of responses is higher when compared to cooler**
19 **temperatures. These results suggest that while species' interactions are typically**
20 **defined at the pairwise level, multispecies dynamics can be better understood by**
21 **focusing on the effects of these interactions at the community level.**

22 Environmental conditions vary through space and time and influence whether ecological
23 communities contain a mix of rare and abundant species or be composed of species with similar
24 biomasses (or abundances)¹⁻³. Temperature is one such condition but its effects on different
25 species' biomasses are often inconsistent⁴. While some species can increase in biomass and
26 others decrease as a function of temperature, the same species can also decrease or increase in
27 biomass depending on the presence of other species⁵⁻¹⁰. Importantly, understanding how
28 temperature influences species' performance (i.e., a species' ability to transform external
29 resources into its own biomass) and interactions can provide one approach for explaining such
30 apparently inconsistent effects of temperature^{5,11}. Indeed, temperature often alters interactions
31 among plants and animals⁵ and species' interactions can even shift from negative to positive in
32 different temperature environments¹²⁻¹⁴. Mathematical analyses and empirical results show
33 that indirect effects of temperature mediated by species' interactions can be large relative to
34 direct ones^{15,16}. Hence understanding how temperature affects species' interactions while at the

35 same time accounting for its effects on species' performances has the potential to explain the
36 varied effects of temperature on community composition.

37 One approach for understanding and predicting effects of temperature on species' performances
38 and on direct interactions is metabolic theory, in which biological rates scale with body size and
39 temperature⁴. Predictions based on metabolic theory often assume common effects of
40 temperature on all species (i.e., one common set of activation energies^{17–19}, although variation
41 in the distribution of activation energies can be substantial and skewed²⁰). Coupled with the
42 relatively large effects of species' interactions, the effect of temperature on species' growth rates
43 has the potential to create the appearance of idiosyncratic community responses under changing
44 environments, and to explain such variation in effects if understood and accounted for. How
45 temperature affects the distribution of indirect species' interactions is, however, currently quite
46 unclear, as are implications of interaction distributions for species' responses to environmental
47 change. This multidimensional and changing factors have impaired our ability to understand or
48 predict the effect of temperature on population and community dynamics^{21–23}.

49 Here we use a structural approach to investigate why temperature inconsistently affects
50 communities as a function of species' interactions^{14,24}. This approach applies a geometric
51 perspective to Lotka-Volterra (LV) models of population dynamics to quantify the domain in
52 the space of carrying capacities compatible with positive species' abundances (the necessary
53 condition for species' coexistence) as a function of species' interactions—what is called the
54 feasibility domain^{24,25}. We focus on the effects of temperature on the community composition.
55 We study the effect on community composition by looking at how temperature affects the
56 relationship between species evenness when grown together and the position of species'
57 performance in isolation in the feasibility domain—what we call relative species' performance.
58 We first develop theory to study and measure asymmetry of the feasibility domain using the
59 variability within the column vectors of an interaction matrix. These column vectors describe
60 the effects each species has on all other species in the community, i.e., species' multidimensional
61 effects. Then, we hypothesize that increasing the asymmetry of the feasibility domain decouples
62 species evenness when grown together from their relative performances in isolation. We then
63 present empirical results that corroborate this hypothesis, and that also show how and why
64 temperature have idiosyncratic effects on community responses: the idiosyncratic effects are, in
65 fact, expected by the effect of temperature on the asymmetry of the feasibility domain across
66 communities.

67 Results

68 Theoretical results and predictions

69 To establish our hypothesis, first we define with minimum use of mathematics the measures
70 that are used throughout our study (see Box 1 for mathematical details and Figure 1 for a
71 conceptual illustration). In our framework, we consider the performance of a species i in
72 isolation as its carrying capacity (K_i). Note that intrinsic growth rates (r_i) can also be used as
73 a measure of species' performance in isolation, depending on the dynamical model under
74 consideration^{26,27} (see Methods for further details). Then, we consider that a community of
75 species is characterized by an interaction matrix (\mathbf{A}), whose elements (a_{ij}) define the direct per
76 capita effect of a species j on the per capita growth rate of a species i . Note that a_{ij} and a_{ji} do
77 not need to be the same. Importantly, the interaction matrix (\mathbf{A}) of the community defines the
78 parameter-space region of carrying capacities (or intrinsic growth rates) under which all the
79 species within the community can have positive biomasses at equilibrium ($\mathbf{N}^* > 0$). This
80 parameter-space region is known as the feasibility domain ($D_F(\mathbf{A})$)²⁸. The size of the feasibility
81 domain ($\Omega(\mathbf{A})$) can be calculated by the proportion of such region inside the unit sphere (the
82 L2 norm)²⁵ (see Methods for further details). Larger feasibility domains represent larger
83 differences in species' performances (carrying capacities) that are compatible with feasibility.

84 Assuming that the dynamics of the community are governed by any model topologically
85 equivalent to a LV model²⁹, the location of the vector of carrying capacities observed in
86 monocultures (\mathbf{K}) inside the feasibility domain determines the specific distribution of species'
87 biomasses at equilibrium within the community²⁷. We quantify this distribution by the species
88 evenness ($J \in [0, 1]$). Thus, we define the position of species' performance in isolation in the
89 feasibility domain (i.e., the relative performance of species in isolation, θ) as the distance
90 between the observed vector of carrying capacities in monocultures and the vector that would
91 result in all species having the same biomass when grown together (i.e., having maximum
92 species evenness). This distance acts as a normalization factor given that only in the case when
93 species do not interact, the vector of carrying capacities (\mathbf{K}) is exactly proportional to the
94 species' biomasses at equilibrium (\mathbf{N}^*)^{27,30} (see Methods for further details).

95 Note that the geometric centroid of the feasibility domain corresponds to the vector of carrying
96 capacities leading to all species having the same biomass when grown together²⁷ (maximum
97 species evenness, $J = 1$). This further implies that in order to compare the performance of
98 species across communities, we need to normalize the relative performance (θ) by the size of the

99 feasibility domain as $\theta_n = \theta(0.5 - \Omega(\mathbf{A}))$, where 0.5 is the maximum size of any feasibility
100 domain²⁵ (see Methods for further details). Thus, we estimated the relationship between species
101 evenness when grown together and the relative performance in isolation by the correlation
102 between J and Ω_n .

103 As we previously mentioned, species' interactions (a_{ij}) can differ in sign as well as strength.
104 Moreover, a community can be characterized by a combination of direct and indirect species'
105 interactions²⁴. Thus, to provide a well-defined community-level characterization of species'
106 interactions, we calculate the asymmetry ($\phi(\mathbf{A})$) of the feasibility domain. Geometrically, this
107 corresponds to the variability across the column vectors (known as spanning vectors²⁵) of the
108 interaction matrix \mathbf{A} . Recall that these columns vectors can be interpreted as the species'
109 multidimensional effects on the community (see Figure 1 for a conceptual representation of
110 these equivalences). Formally, $\phi(\mathbf{A}) = \text{SD}(\|\mathbf{v}_1\|, \dots, \|\mathbf{v}_S\|)$, where SD corresponds to the
111 standard deviation, \mathbf{v}_i is the i th column vector of the interaction matrix \mathbf{A} with S species, and
112 $\|\cdot\|$ corresponds to the L_2 norm.

113 Based on the definitions above, we now turn to establish our hypothesis. We hypothesize
114 communities with more symmetric feasibility domains (i.e., small values of $\phi(\mathbf{A})$) generate more
115 homogeneous community responses. Among communities, this leads to relative performance in
116 isolation (θ_n) being tightly correlated with species evenness when grown together (J) (Figure
117 1C). Otherwise, differences across communities in the asymmetry of the feasibility domain can
118 increase the idiosyncrasy of community responses: weaken any potential association between θ_n
119 and J (Figure 1F). This verbal account of the theory is illustrated with simulations of model
120 communities (see Figures 2 & 3 and Methods Section).

121 How does all this relate to the effects of temperature on community responses? Based on this
122 theory, we can make contingent hypotheses. If temperature has proportionally similar effects on
123 interaction strengths across communities (i.e., if temperature does not affect the asymmetry of
124 the feasibility domains), then temperature will not affect the association of relative performance
125 in isolation and species evenness when grown together (i.e. Figure 1A-C). For example, if
126 temperature doubled the effect on all interactions (including self-regulation), it would not
127 change the shape of the feasibility domain nor its asymmetry. If, however, temperature has
128 different effects on interaction strengths (i.e., temperature increases the asymmetry of the
129 feasibility domain across communities), then temperature will create idiosyncratic community
130 responses (Figure 1D-F), weakening the correlation between θ_n and J .

131 Empirical results

132 We tested these hypotheses against aquatic microbial communities grown in
133 temperature-controlled environments. Each community contained one, two, or three of six
134 species of bacterivorous protists (*Colpidium striatum*, *Dexiostoma campylum*, *Loxocephalus sp.*,
135 *Paramecium caudatum*, *Spirostomum teres*, and *Tetrahymena thermophila*) competing for the
136 same food resource (the bacterium *Serratia fonticola*). Protists, as the most prevalent and
137 diverse organisms on Earth, are essential components of aquatic food webs providing various
138 ecosystem services and also excellent model organisms due to their fast generation and the ease
139 to control experimental conditions³¹. Furthermore, protist growth rates are strongly
140 temperature-dependent³², which allows for investigating the effects of different environmental
141 manipulations. Communities experienced either a control temperature (15 °C) which the
142 organisms had already experienced for many generations, or one of five elevated constant
143 temperatures (gradually increasing 2°C each level).

144 At control temperature (15°C), we observed a negative relationship between relative
145 performance in isolation (θ_n) and species evenness when grown together (J) in 2- and 3-species
146 communities (Figure 4), as expected when the feasibility domains are less asymmetric. These
147 negative relations persisted at 17, 19 and 21°C for 2-species communities, and at 17, and 19°C
148 for 3-species communities. Above these temperatures, there was little evidence of a negative
149 relationship, such that relative performance in isolation did not explain species evenness when
150 grown together. Additionally, we found no systematic directional change in the size of the
151 feasibility domain nor the relative performance across temperatures (Figure 5A & B).
152 Furthermore, and consistent with the theory, these weaker relationships at higher temperatures
153 are accompanied by more asymmetric feasibility domains (Figure 5C). Importantly, these
154 findings reveal that temperature primarily affected species' multidimensional effects on the
155 community, which affected the asymmetry of feasibility domains, which in turn created a weaker
156 relationship between the relative performance (θ_n) and species evenness (J).

157 Discussion

158 The close match between our empirical findings and our hypotheses corroborates our structural
159 theory of community responses to environmental change. Specifically, the relationship between
160 species evenness when grown together and their relative performance when grown in isolation.
161 This confirms that changes in species' performances due to external perturbations insufficiently
162 explain changes in community composition². Instead, we need to also know the shape

163 (asymmetry) of the feasibility domain. Yet, in order to explore the generality of our findings, we
164 need considerably more empirical research examining how temperature, and other
165 environmental factors, affect species' multidimensional effects across communities.

166 Importantly, our experiment shows that modest increases in temperature do not disrupt the
167 ability of relative performance in isolation to explain species evenness when grown together, but
168 that larger temperature increases do. The observed diversification of community responses
169 appears to be driven by differences in the asymmetry of feasibility domains. This determines a
170 mapping between composition and structural properties that depends on both responses of
171 species' performance and of interactions to environmental change. The increasing asymmetry of
172 feasibility domains with greater temperature change may explain why previous empirical work
173 has shown a lack of unidirectional community responses to warming⁷. Due to the increasing
174 asymmetry of the feasibility domain, species' performance and single pairwise interactions
175 become a less reliable explanatory variable of species evenness when grown together. These
176 results suggest that while species' interactions are typically defined at the pairwise level,
177 multispecies dynamics can be better understood by focusing on the multidimensional nature of
178 these interactions at the community level.

179 Our results also corroborate theoretical findings on the link between species evenness and
180 productivity²⁷: communities maximize their tolerance to random external perturbation when
181 their compositions are described by a high species evenness and an intermediate level of
182 productivity. This corroboration shows that diversification of species' interactions can be a
183 plausible consequence of different mechanisms responsible for maintaining the tolerance to
184 environmental changes. For example, the observed increase in the asymmetry of the feasibility
185 domains is a likely consequence of the multidimensional interaction effect of interspecific
186 variation in thermal sensitivity, differences in thermal range or thermal optima, and differences
187 in adaptation or plasticity to novel temperatures⁷. Importantly, these results suggest that
188 direct and indirect temperature effects are essential to understand (and potentially predict)
189 community dynamics. Indirect effects that complexity brings, whereby change in the abundance
190 of a species affects the abundance of another via a third can be larger compared to direct effects
191 ¹⁵. Our results also suggest that mechanistic models must include the structure of interactions
192 among organisms and not only the direct effects of temperature³³.

193 While our theoretical results hold under higher diversity and mechanistic models (see
194 Supplementary Information), in order to move to a general theory of community responses,
195 future experimental work needs to address communities with more than three species and in

196 other ecosystems and environments. Such work should explicitly include comparison of
197 theoretical and experimental work, and involve estimation of responses of species' performances
198 and interactions to environmental change. It could also relax some of the assumptions made in
199 our study, such as temporally invariant performances and interaction strengths, and that
200 species' performances are independent of community composition. Also important is to
201 investigate the effects of temporally varying environmental conditions, including increasing
202 variability and extremes in temperature.

Box 1: Theoretical framework

Species' performance measures the ability of a species to transform resources into its own biomass. This ability depends both on the species' traits and the species' environment. Species' performance is measured as the carrying capacity (K_i) of each species i in isolation or as the intrinsic growth rate (r_i), depending on the mathematical formalism (see Methods). Hereafter, we define all measures below in terms of carrying capacities.

Feasibility domain ($D_F(\mathbf{A})$) is a community's parameter space comprised by the carrying capacities that provide all species' populations with a positive equilibrium as a function of the interaction matrix \mathbf{A} . Formally, under LV dynamics, this feasibility domain corresponds to a convex region defined by $D_F(\mathbf{A}) = \{\mathbf{K} = N_1^* \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + N_S^* \mathbf{v}_S, \text{ with } N_1^* > 0, \dots, N_S^* > 0\}$, where \mathbf{N}^* are the positive solutions of the system, \mathbf{v}_i are the column vectors of the interaction matrix \mathbf{A} , and S is the number of species in the community. The column vectors of an interaction matrix can be ecologically interpreted as the multidimensional interaction effects of an individual species on the community. Recall that the elements (a_{ij}) of the interaction matrix (\mathbf{A}) define the direct per capita effect of a species j on the per capita growth rate of a species i .

Geometric centroid of the feasibility domain (\mathbf{K}_c) corresponds to the point of maximum species evenness whenever the columns of the interaction matrix have been normalized under any norm²⁵. This is true given that in this case, the centroid is equivalent to the center of mass of a convex object with n vertices all having the same mass. Formally, the centroid is calculated as $\mathbf{K}_c = \frac{1}{S} \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + \frac{1}{S} \mathbf{v}_S$ which corresponds to the conditions under all species have the same biomass at equilibrium.

Species evenness (J) is a description of the distribution of species biomasses within a community. Formally, it is defined as $J(N^*) = -\sum_{i=1}^S P_i \log(P_i) / \log(S) \in [0, 1]$, where P_i is the relative biomass of species i at equilibrium, i.e., $P_i = N_i^* / \sum_j N_j^*$. Note that $J(N^*) = 1$ is the case when all species have the same biomass.

Asymmetry of the feasibility domain ($\phi(\mathbf{A})$) is the variation across all the column vectors of an interaction matrix \mathbf{A} . Note that the column vectors correspond to the spanning vectors of the feasibility domain $D_F(\mathbf{A})$, implying that $\phi(\mathbf{A})$ represents geometrically the asymmetry of the feasibility domain. Mathematically, it is given by $\phi(\mathbf{A}) = \text{SD}(\|\mathbf{v}_1\|, \dots, \|\mathbf{v}_S\|)$, where SD corresponds to the standard deviation and $\|\cdot\|$ corresponds to the L_2 norm. The higher the value of $\phi(\mathbf{A})$, the more asymmetric the feasibility domain.

Relative performance in isolation (θ) is defined as the distance between the vector of carrying capacities observed in monoculture (\mathbf{K}) and the vector of carrying capacities that would result in all species having the same biomass when grown together (i.e., the geometric centroid (\mathbf{K}_c) of the feasibility domain). Simply put, this measure captures the position of performances in isolation in the feasibility domain. Formally, it is measured as $\theta = \arccos\left(\frac{\mathbf{K} \cdot \mathbf{K}_c}{\|\mathbf{K}\| \|\mathbf{K}_c\|}\right)$, where $\|\cdot\|$ corresponds to the L_2 norm. Note that this distance normalizes species' performances by the interaction matrix \mathbf{A} , given that the geometric centroid (\mathbf{K}_c) is particular of every interaction matrix.

Size of the feasibility domain ($\Omega(\mathbf{A})$) is the proportion of the unit sphere of carrying capacities that provide positive equilibria for all populations in the community. That is, the size corresponds to the normalized solid angle generated by the feasibility domain $D_F(\mathbf{A})$, such that it is equal to one for the whole unit sphere \mathbb{B}^S . The normalized solid angle $\Omega(\mathbf{A})$ is equal to the probability of sampling uniformly a vector of carrying capacities on the unit sphere inside the feasibility domain of an interaction matrix \mathbf{A} . Formally, it is calculated as $\Omega(\mathbf{A}) = \frac{\text{vol}(D_F(\mathbf{A}) \cap \mathbb{B}^S)}{\text{vol}(\mathbb{B}^S)} \in [0, 0.5]$ ²⁵.

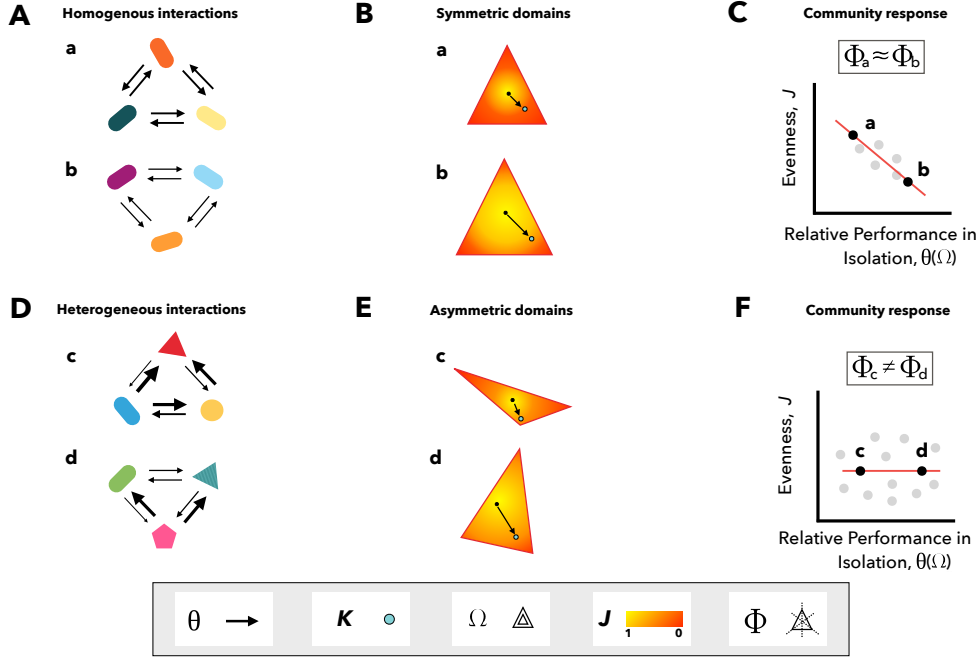


Figure 1: **Theory relating differences in species' performances in isolation and species evenness when grown together.** Hypothetical 3-species communities in which symbols and colors correspond to different species, while the thickness of arrows represents the direct pairwise interaction strengths. Communities *a* and *b* have more variability in the strength of species' interactions and communities *c* and *d* have less variability. The triangles in panel B & E show a 2-dimensional simplex (projection) of a 3-dimensional cone generated by the column vectors of the interaction matrix. This simplex corresponds to the feasibility domain—region encapsulating all the vectors of the carrying capacities K (or intrinsic growth rates, r) leading to positive biomasses at equilibrium (see Box 1 for further details). The yellow and red areas inside the feasibility domain represent higher and lower levels of species evenness J , respectively. The size and asymmetry of the feasibility domain are represented by Ω and ϕ , respectively. Note that the distribution of species' biomasses has maximum evenness ($J = 1$) at the centroid of the feasibility domain (black circle). Instead, the corner defines the location of perfect unevenness ($J = 0$), whereas at the border one has partial unevenness. The blue circle inside a feasibility domain corresponds to the vector of carrying capacities observed in monocultures, K . The arrows show the distance between the observed vector K (or r) and the centroid of the feasibility domain. We call this distance the relative performance in isolation (θ). Top row: a scenario in which different communities have homogeneous interactions (Panel **A**), which can be translated into a symmetric feasibility domain (Panel **B**), which leads to a strong negative relationship between species evenness when grown together (as a measure of the distribution of species biomasses) and the relative performance in isolation (Panel **C**). Bottom row: a scenario in which communities have heterogeneous interaction (Panel **D**) that result in asymmetric feasibility domains (Panel **E**), which lead to an unpredictable outcome between species evenness and relative performance in isolation (Panel **F**).

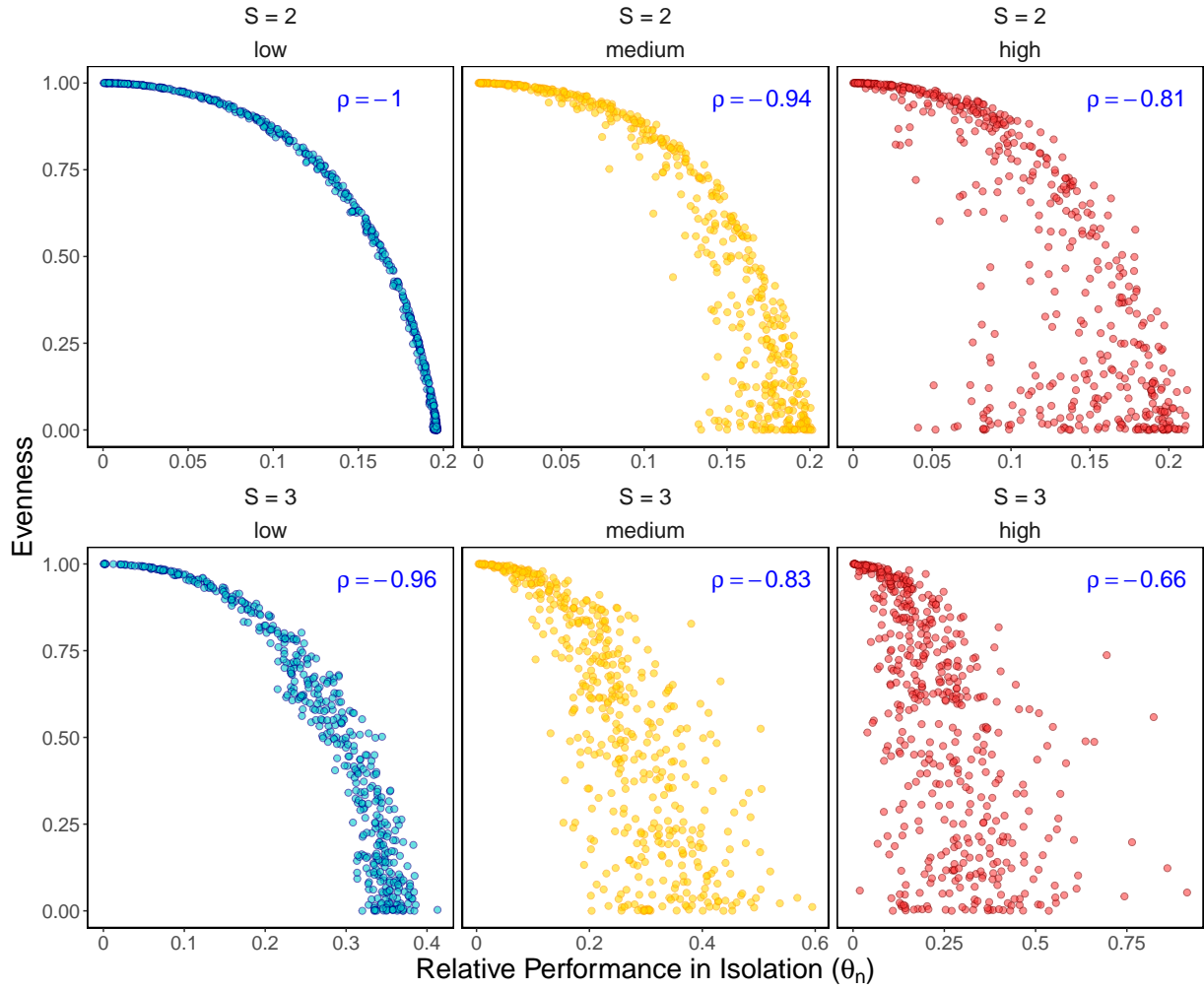


Figure 2: **Theoretical results.** Each point ($n=500$) represents a different model-generated community with two species (top row) or three species (bottom row) under different asymmetry values of feasibility domains $\phi(\mathbf{A})$ (low=0.1, medium=0.5 and high=0.9) marked at the top of each panel. We calculated species evenness at equilibrium ($J(\mathbf{N}^*)$) and the relative performance in isolation (θ_n). We also report the Spearman's rank correlation coefficients (ρ), all p-values are < 0.001 . See Methods for full details.

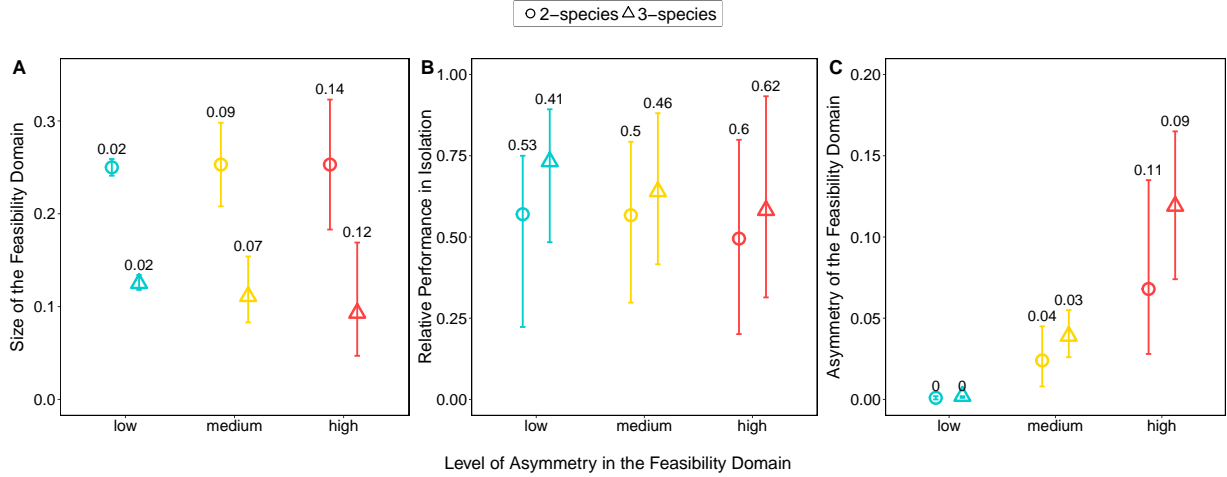


Figure 3: **Theoretical distribution of structural measures.** Circles and triangles represent the median values of 2- and 3-species model-generated communities, respectively. The x-axes show different asymmetry values of feasibility domains. All communities are characterized by randomly-generated interaction matrices using a normal distribution with zero mean and different values of standard deviations which were drawn from a uniform distribution ranging between 0.1, 1, and 10. For each model-generated community and level of standard deviation, we sampled a random vector of carrying capacities \mathbf{K} within its size of feasibility domain Ω . The interquartile ranges are shown on the top of each intervals. Panels (A-C) correspond to the size of the feasibility domain (Ω), the relative performance in isolation (θ_n), and the asymmetry of the feasibility domain (ϕ), respectively. See Methods for full details.

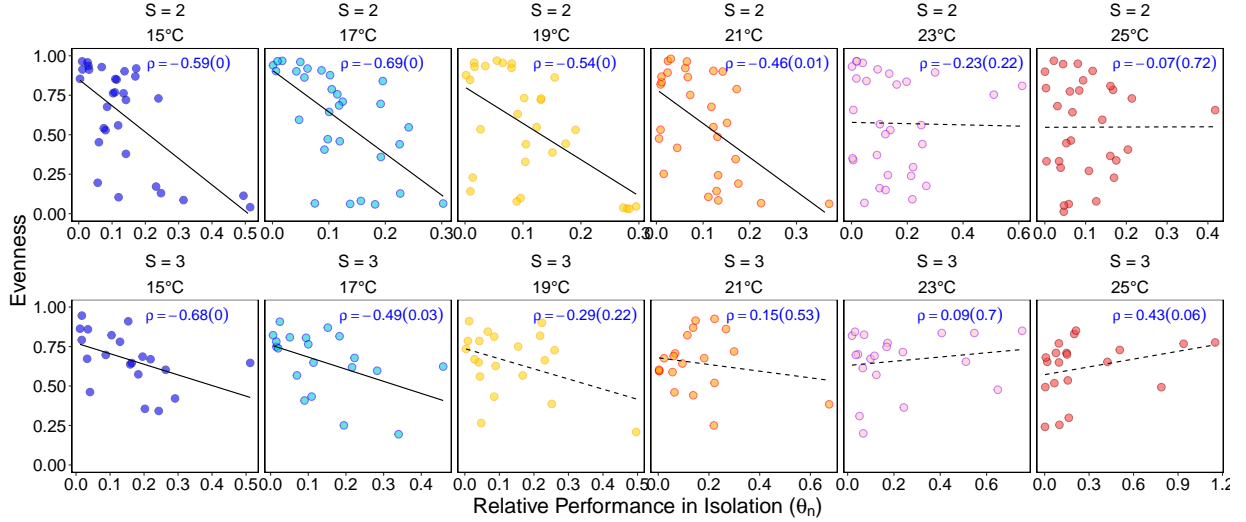


Figure 4: **Empirical results.** This figure shows experimental microbial communities formed by different combinations of 2 (A) and 3 (B) protist species under different temperatures. The first column corresponds to communities under a control temperature of 15 °C, whereas the other columns correspond to the communities at elevated constant temperatures. Panels show the relationship between the observed species evenness (J) and the inferred relative performance in isolation (θ_n). Inside the panels, we report the Spearman's rank correlation coefficients (ρ) with corresponding p-values inside parentheses among all experimentally-generated communities. Solid and dotted lines correspond to slopes that are statistically distinguishable and non-distinguishable from zero, respectively. See Methods for full details.

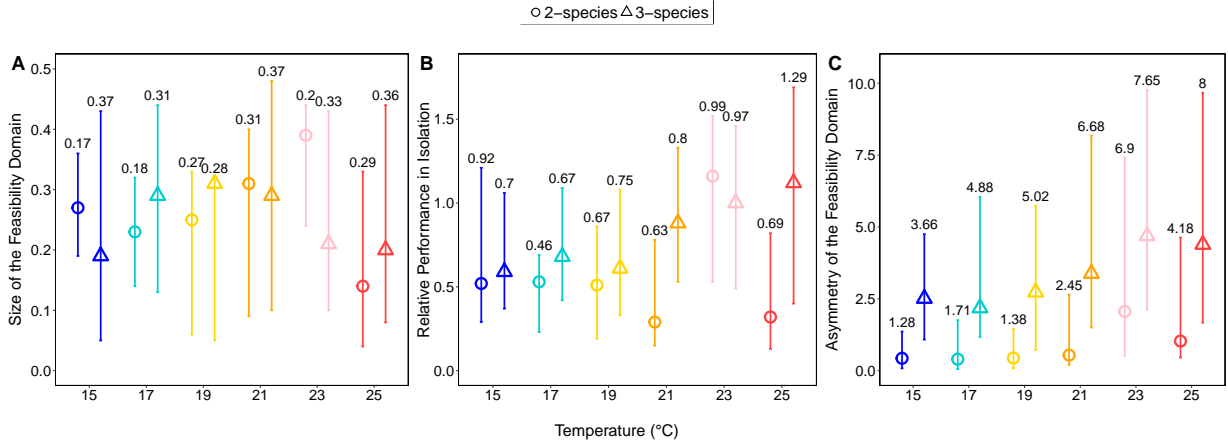


Figure 5: **Empirical distribution of structural measures across temperatures.** Distribution of the size of the feasibility domain (Ω), relative performance in isolation (θ_n) and asymmetry of the the feasibility domain (ϕ) across temperatures. Circles (2-species communities) and triangles (3-species communities) denote the median of the corresponding measures calculated from the observations and the error bars denote the 0.25 and 0.75 quartiles obtained from bootstrapping. The numbers on error bars show the magnitude of the interquartile range. See Methods for full details.

204 Methods

205 Theory and simulations

206 For our theoretical investigation, we defined the population dynamics given by the classic
207 Lotka-Volterra (LV) model using the K-formalism $\dot{N}_i = N_i \frac{r_i}{K_i} \left(K_i - \sum_{j=1}^S a_{ij} N_j \right)$, where N_i is
208 the biomass of species i , r_i is the intrinsic growth rate of species i , and a_{ij} is the direct per
209 capita effect of species j on i . The biomasses at equilibrium are calculated as $\mathbf{N}^* = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{K}$.
210 Note that the carrying capacity of species i is defined as $K_i = r_i / \alpha_{ii}$. That is, the model can be
211 written in the r-formalism as $\dot{N}_i = N_i \left(r_i - \sum_{j=1}^S \alpha_{ij} N_j \right)$, where $\mathbf{N}^* = \boldsymbol{\alpha}^{-1} \mathbf{r}$. That is, in the
212 K-formalism, the carrying capacities modulate the equilibrium points, whereas in the
213 r-formalism is the intrinsic growth rates which determine the equilibrium points. Note, however,
214 that \mathbf{A} and $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ do not have the same units. Here we used the K-formalism to illustrate our work;
215 however, both formalisms are interchangeable for our purposes and their use should depend on
216 data availability.

217 Recent work²⁹ has shown that in any model topologically equivalent to the LV model, the
218 structure of species interactions (embedded in the interaction matrix \mathbf{A}) defines a unique
219 relationship between parameters \mathbf{K} and the community composition at equilibrium \mathbf{N}^* (where
220 $\dot{\mathbf{N}} = 0$). This relationship is established by the feasibility domain, which corresponds to a
221 convex region $D_F(\mathbf{A})$ within the parameter space, from which is possible to link uniquely a set
222 of K_i to a set of feasible (positive) solutions $N_i^* > 0$ (see Box 1 for further details). Formally,
223 this feasibility domain can be written as
224 $D_F(\mathbb{A}) = \{ \mathbf{K} = N_1^* \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + N_S^* \mathbf{v}_S, \text{ with } N_1^* > 0, \dots, N_S^* > 0 \}$, where \mathbf{N}^* are the positive
225 solutions of the system, \mathbf{v}_i are the column vectors of the interaction matrix \mathbf{A} , and S is the
226 number of species in the community. This definition implies that the feasibility domain of an
227 interaction matrix can be geometrically represented as an algebraic cone by normalizing the
228 parameter space under any norm²⁵. An algebraic cone is defined as the space spanned by
229 positive linear combinations of S linearly independent vectors \mathbf{v}_i . Then, the size of the feasibility
230 domain can be estimated by normalizing the solid angle generated by the feasibility domain,
231 such that it is equal to one for the whole unit sphere (using the L2 norm) \mathbb{B}^S . This normalized
232 angle can be analytically calculated by $\Omega = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{S/2} \sqrt{|\det(\boldsymbol{\alpha})|}} \int \dots \int_{N^* \geq 0} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{N}^{*T} \boldsymbol{\alpha}^T \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mathbf{N}^*} \mathbf{d} N^*$, and is
233 computed via a quasi-Monte Carlo method^{24,34}.

234 To theoretically investigate the relationship between species evenness and the relative
235 performance in isolation, we generated 2- and 3-species communities by randomly sampling
236 interaction matrices following a uniform distribution $U[-P, P]$. We used a tuning parameter

237 (P), where the larger the values of P, the larger the asymmetry of the interaction matrix is. By
238 including positive and negative interaction coefficients, we ensured the comparability to our
239 empirical results. All intra-specific coefficients are set to $a_{ii} = -1$, such that each species
240 saturates to its carrying capacity in isolation. This is an important consideration to take into
241 account given that if one aims to change all pairwise interactions in a community, these values
242 would have to be normalized such that the diagonal elements are always equal to one. Our
243 results are qualitatively robust to the choice of distribution³⁴. We assumed a fully-connected
244 interaction structure for both 2- and 3-species communities (i.e. connectance is 1).
245 Parameterizations of K_i inside the feasibility domain are sampled by $K_i = \sum_{j=1}^S N_j^* v_{ij}$, where
246 N_j^* are all values in $(0, 1)$ and $\sum_{i=1}^S N_i^* = 1$.

247 We then calculated the size of the feasibility domain (Ω), relative performance in isolation θ , the
248 asymmetry of the feasibility domain ϕ , and the species evenness $J(N^*)$ of the
249 randomly-generated communities (see Box 1 for definitions). We studied how species evenness
250 $J(N^*)$ changed as a function of the relative performance in isolation θ across different values of
251 asymmetry. Figure 3 confirms that the higher the asymmetry, the higher the variation
252 (measured as the interquartile range) of Ω , θ , and ϕ across communities. Additionally,
253 regardless of the asymmetry, Ω and θ were positively correlated, while ϕ was not correlated with
254 any measure. This confirmed that the relative performance in isolation needs to be normalized
255 by the size of the feasibility domain in order to be compared across communities: we normalized
256 it as $\theta_n = \theta(0.5 - \Omega)$ (note that 0.5 is the least upper bound of Ω)²⁵. In turn, Figure 2 confirms
257 that $J(N^*)$ and θ_n are negatively correlated under low asymmetry. However, the higher the
258 asymmetry, the more the relationship between $J(N^*)$ and θ_n weakens, indicating that the
259 relative performance in isolation becomes less and less a reliable indicator of species evenness.
260 Importantly, these differences are driven by the asymmetry of the feasibility domains ϕ .
261 Importantly, the asymmetry is size dependent and can be modulated by the structure of a
262 community, e.g., changing the connectance within a community. Yet, the effect of asymmetry on
263 the relationship between relative performance in isolation and species evenness when grown
264 together remains (see Supplementary Information).

265 Empirical methods

266 We factorially manipulated temperature (15, 17, 19, 21, 23 and 25°C) and community
267 composition (31 unique compositions). Each of the six temperature treatments was controlled
268 by two independent incubators. Prior testing showed low temperature variation of the liquid
269 medium (set-point temperature varied by 0.1°C). Measuring temperature with a replicated

270 gradient is recommended to harness the power of a regression design, while still allowing to test
271 for a nonlinear temperature effect³⁵. Long-term protist cultures are kept at 15°C, representing
272 the control temperature to which the species used in the experiment are adapted. Warming
273 usually decreases their carrying capacities but increases growth rates³⁶. Experimental
274 communities were created by growing protists to their respective carrying capacities at 20°C in
275 1L of bacterized medium. The medium consisted of protist pellets (Carolina Biological Supplies,
276 Burlington, NC, USA) at a concentration of 0.055 gL⁻¹ of Chalkley’s medium in which the
277 bacterium *Serratia fonticola* was grown as common resource for the bacterivorous protists. Two
278 autoclaved wheat seeds were added to each bottle for slow nutrient release. Monocultures were
279 initiated at a density of 3 individuals mL⁻¹ in a total of 100 mL medium. Communities were
280 initiated with a total of 40 mL protist culture topped up with 60 mL fresh medium (100 mL
281 culture in total). The 40 mL culture were assembled by adding a fixed fraction (i.e. 20 mL for
282 two species, 13.33 for three species) of each species at their specific carrying capacity, adopting
283 a substitutive design. Each experimental community was cultivated in 250 mL Duran bottle.
284 Since the number of possible species compositions exceeded the number of feasible experimental
285 units, we used all possible compositions only for the monocultures (6 compositions, 3 replicates)
286 and two species communities (15 compositions, 2 replicates). For three species communities, ten
287 compositions (2 replicates) were randomly selected from the set of all possible compositions
288 such that all species occurred the same number of times. This generated a total of 68
289 experimental units per temperature. Microcosms were sampled 19 times over 36 days to
290 measure community dynamics. To do so, a microcosm was taken out of the incubator, gently
291 stirred to homogenize the culture, and a fixed sample pipetted into a counting chamber. The
292 height of the sampling chamber was 600 μm and the area filmed 68.7 mm² resulting in 41.2 μL
293 sampled. The counting chamber was covered with a lid and a 5 second video was taken under
294 the microscope. The videos were subsequently processed with the R package BEMOVI³⁷ to
295 extract morphological and behavioural traits. Individuals in polycultures were classified into
296 species by a random forest classifier trained on trait information obtained from the monoculture
297 data³⁸. We derived the biomass of each species by summing the biovolume of all individuals of
298 a given species in a given community and multiplying biovolume with a constant density equal
299 to water (i.e. 1 g/cm³).

300 Estimation of species interactions

301 We fitted a topologically equivalent model to the classic LV model²⁹ to our observations using
302 the following form $\dot{N}_i = N_i \frac{r_i}{K_i} (K_i - \sum_{j=1}^S a_{ij} \frac{2N_j}{(1+N_j^\beta)})$, where β is a tuning parameter that allows
303 us to gradually enter more nonlinear forms of functional responses ($\beta \in [0, 2]$ by step size 0.1).

304 Note that $\beta = 0$ results in a linear functional response. These models were fitted to 178 out of
305 180 combinations (due to early extinctions) where all possible pair combinations were
306 represented (composition (15) x temperature (6) x replicate (2)) and to 120 three-species
307 communities where also all possible species pairs were contained (not all possible three-way
308 combinations). The model parameters (carrying capacities K_i and growth rates r_i) were
309 obtained by fitting logistic growth models to 36 monoculture time series using the following
310 form: $\dot{N}_i = N_i \frac{r_i}{K_i} (K_i - \frac{2N_i}{(1+N_i^\beta)})$. Growth rates were fitted to the average biomass (of three
311 replicates) at each time point. Carrying capacities were calculated as the median biomass from
312 the observed time series. Fitting was performed with temperature-specific K_i as an
313 environment-dependent parameter for each species i resulting in temperature-specific r_i values.
314 Using these parameters, the fitting was performed to 2-species and 3-species mixtures as well as
315 to each replicate (see Fig. S1 as an example). We used the Nelder-Mead algorithm for
316 optimizing the mean absolute error (MAE) between observations and predictions.
317 The model selection was based on maximizing the partial correlation between the fitted and
318 observed time series data (controlling for time). We selected the simplest model (with the
319 lowest β) from a 5% deviation interval from the highest partial correlation coefficient. This
320 procedure resulted in the selection of the linear LV model 77% of cases for 2-species mixtures
321 and 51% of cases for 3-species mixtures. Note that r_i and K_i are inferred from monocultures,
322 we set $a_{ii} = 1$ in consistency with the K-formalism²⁶, and all cases yield topologically similar
323 models to the LV model²⁹. We also tested the robustness of this relationship by bootstrapping
324 the time series 100 times using a uniform sampling within $\pm 1\%$ of each data point and
325 recalculating all our measures from these slightly perturbed time series. This sensitivity analysis
326 provided appropriate confidence intervals for each variation and regression coefficient given that
327 observational noise is unavoidable.

328 Data and code availability

329 Data and analysis code will be made available in a FAIR compliant repository upon publication.

330 Acknowledgements

331 The University of Zurich Research Priority Programme on Global Change and Biodiversity
332 supported this research. Furthermore, funding came from the Swiss National Science
333 Foundation (grant 31003A_159498 to OP). Funding was also provided by the Mitsui Chair (SS).
334 We thank Yves Choffat, Pravin Ganesanandamoorthy, Aurelie Garnier, Jason I. Griffiths,
335 Suzanne Greene, Thomas M. Massie, Gian Marco Palamara and Mathew Seymour for help with

336 the data collection. We also thank Mohammad AlAdwani, Simone Cenci, and Chuliang Song for
337 insightful discussions about this study.

338 **Contributions**

339 A.T. and S.S. conceived the study, analyzed and interpreted the data. Other authors
340 contributed to the experiment from which data is used as stated in Pennekamp et al (2018)³⁹.

References

1. Fukami, T. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics* **46** (2015).
2. Cenci, S., Song, C., and Saavedra, S. *Ecology and Evolution* **8**, 6852–6859 (2018).
3. Hutchins, L. W. *Ecological Monographs* **17**(3), 325–335 February (1947).
4. Brown, J. H., Gillooly, J. F., Allen, A. P., Savage, V. M., and West, G. B. *Ecology* **85**(7), 1771–1789 July (2004).
5. Tylianakis, J. M., Didham, R. K., Bascompte, J., and Wardle, D. A. *Ecology Letters* **11**(12), 1351–1363 December (2008).
6. Jiang, L. and Morin, P. J. *Journal of Animal Ecology* **73**(3), 569–576 May (2004).
7. Kordas, R. L., Harley, C. D. G., and O’Connor, M. I. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology* **400**(1), 218–226 April (2011).
8. O’Connor, M. I., Pihler, M. F., Leech, D. M., Anton, A., and Bruno, J. F. *PLOS Biol* **7**(8), e1000178 August (2009).
9. Petchey, O. L., McPhearson, P. T., Casey, T. M., and Morin, P. J. *Nature* **402**(6757), 69–72 November (1999).
10. Sentis, A., Hemptinne, J.-L., and Brodeur, J. *Ecology Letters* **17**(7), 785–793 July (2014).
11. Wootton, J. T. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics* **25**, 443–466 (1994).
12. Bruno, J. F., Stachowicz, J. J., and Bertness, M. D. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* **18**(3), 119–125 March (2003).
13. Koltz, A. M., Classen, A. T., and Wright, J. P. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **115**(32), E7541–E7549 August (2018).
14. Song, C., Ahn, S. V., Rohr, R. P., and Saavedra, S. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* **in press**, No. 2641 (2020).
15. Montoya, J., Woodward, G., Emmerson, M. C., and Solé, R. V. *Ecology* **90**(9), 2426–2433 September (2009).
16. Higashi, M. and Patten, B. C. *The American Naturalist* **133**(2), 288–302 (1989).
17. Binzer, A., Guill, C., Brose, U., and Rall, B. C. *Phil. Trans. R. Soc. B* **367**(1605), 2935–2944 November (2012).

- 369 18. Binzer, A., Guill, C., Rall, B. C., and Brose, U. *Global Change Biology* **22**(1), 220–227
370 January (2016).
- 371 19. Sentis, A., Binzer, A., and Boukal, D. S. *Ecology Letters* **20**(7), 852–862 July (2017).
- 372 20. Dell, A. I., Pawar, S., and Savage, V. M. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*
373 *of the United States of America* **108**(26), 10591–10596 June (2011).
- 374 21. Davis, A. J., Jenkinson, L. S., Lawton, J. H., Shorrocks, B., and Wood, S. *Nature*
375 **391**(6669), 783–786 February (1998).
- 376 22. Allison, S. D., Lu, Y., Weihe, C., Goulden, M. L., Martiny, A. C., Treseder, K. K., and
377 Martiny, J. B. H. *Ecology* **94**(3), 714–725 March (2013).
- 378 23. Widder, S., Allen, R. J., Pfeiffer, T., Curtis, T. P., Wiuf, C., Sloan, W. T., Cordero, O. X.,
379 Brown, S. P., Momeni, B., Shou, W., Kettle, H., Flint, H. J., Haas, A. F., Laroche, B.,
380 Kreft, J.-U., Rainey, P. B., Freilich, S., Schuster, S., Milferstedt, K., Meer, J. R. v. d.,
381 Gropkopf, T., Huisman, J., Free, A., Picioreanu, C., Quince, C., Klapper, I., Labarthe, S.,
382 Smets, B. F., Wang, H., Fellows, I. N. I., and Soyer, O. S. *The ISME Journal* **10**(11),
383 2557–2568 November (2016).
- 384 24. Saavedra, S., Rohr, R. P., Bascompte, J., Godoy, O., Kraft, N. J. B., and Levine, J. M.
385 *Ecological Monographs* **87**(3), 470–486 August (2017).
- 386 25. Song, C., Rohr, R. P., and Saavedra, S. *Journal of Theoretical Biology* **450**, 30–36 August
387 (2018).
- 388 26. Vandermeer, J. H. *Science* **188**(4185), 253–255 (1975).
- 389 27. Rohr, R. P., Saavedra, S., Peralta, G., Frost, C. M., Bersier, L.-F., Bascompte, J., and
390 Tylianakis, J. M. *The American Naturalist* August (2016).
- 391 28. Logofet, D. O. *Stability Problems in Mathematical Ecology, CRC, Boca Ratón, FL* (1993).
- 392 29. Cenci, S. and Saavedra, S. *Physical Review E* **97**(1), 012401 January (2018).
- 393 30. Saavedra, S., Rohr, R. P., Gilarranz, L. J., and Bascompte, J. *J. R. Soc. Interface* **11**,
394 20140693 (2014).
- 395 31. Altermatt, F., Fronhofer, E. A., Garnier, A., Giometto, A., Hammes, F., Klecka, J.,
396 Legrand, D., Mächler, E., Massie, T. M., Pennekamp, F., Plebani, M., Pontarp, M.,
397 Schtickzelle, N., Thuillier, V., and Petchey, O. L. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* **6**(2),
398 218–231 February (2015).

- 399 32. Fox, J. W. and Morin, P. J. *Journal of Animal Ecology* **70**(1), 80–90 January (2001).
- 400 33. Van der Putten, W. H., Macel, M., and Visser, M. E. *Philosophical Transactions of the*
401 *Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* **365**(1549), 2025–2034 July (2010).
- 402 34. Song, C. and Saavedra, S. *Ecology* **99**(3), 743–751 December (2017).
- 403 35. Cottingham, K. L., Lennon, J. T., and Brown, B. L. *Frontiers in Ecology and the*
404 *Environment* **3**(3), 145–152 (2005).
- 405 36. Leary, D. J. and Petchey, O. L. *Journal of Animal Ecology* **78**(6), 1143–1151 November
406 (2009).
- 407 37. Pennekamp, F., Schtickzelle, N., and Petchey, O. L. *Ecology and Evolution* **5**(13),
408 2584–2595 July (2015).
- 409 38. Pennekamp, F., Griffiths, J. I., Fronhofer, E. A., Garnier, A., Seymour, M., Altermatt, F.,
410 and Petchey, O. L. *PLOS ONE* **12**(5), e0176682 May (2017).
- 411 39. Pennekamp, F., Pontarp, M., Tabi, A., Altermatt, F., Alther, R., Choffat, Y., Fronhofer,
412 E. A., Ganesanandamoorthy, P., Garnier, A., Griffiths, J. I., Greene, S., Horgan, K., Massie,
413 T. M., Mächler, E., Palamara, G. M., Seymour, M., and Petchey, O. L. *Nature* **563**(7729),
414 109 November (2018).

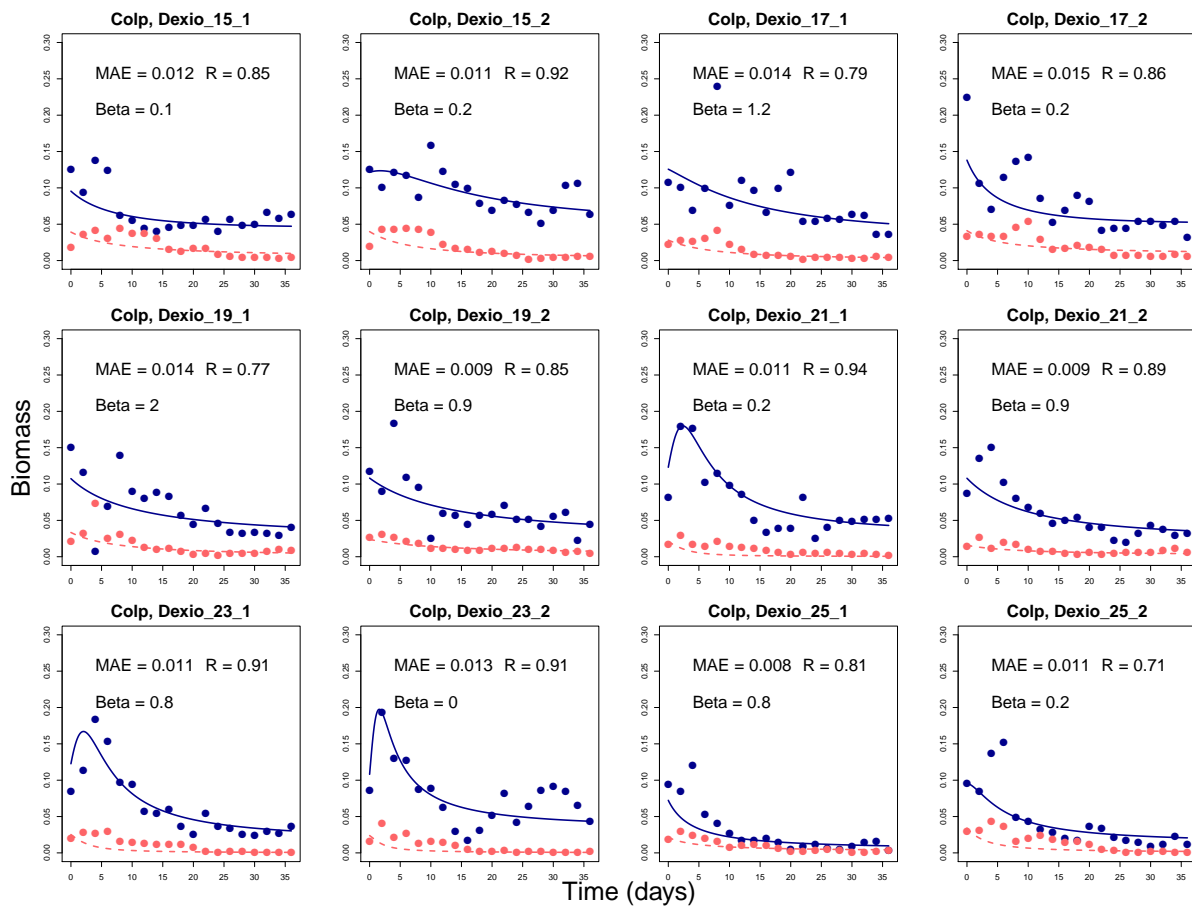


Figure S1: **Example of fitting 2-species GLV model across temperature.** Illustration using time series of interacting *Colpidium* (blue) and *Dexiostoma* (red) as an example. Each panel shows a different temperature-replicate combination. Dots are the observations and the corresponding lines indicate the prediction of the best fitting model. The mean absolute error (MAE), partial correlation (R) and the tuning parameter (β) of the best fit are also plotted in each graph.

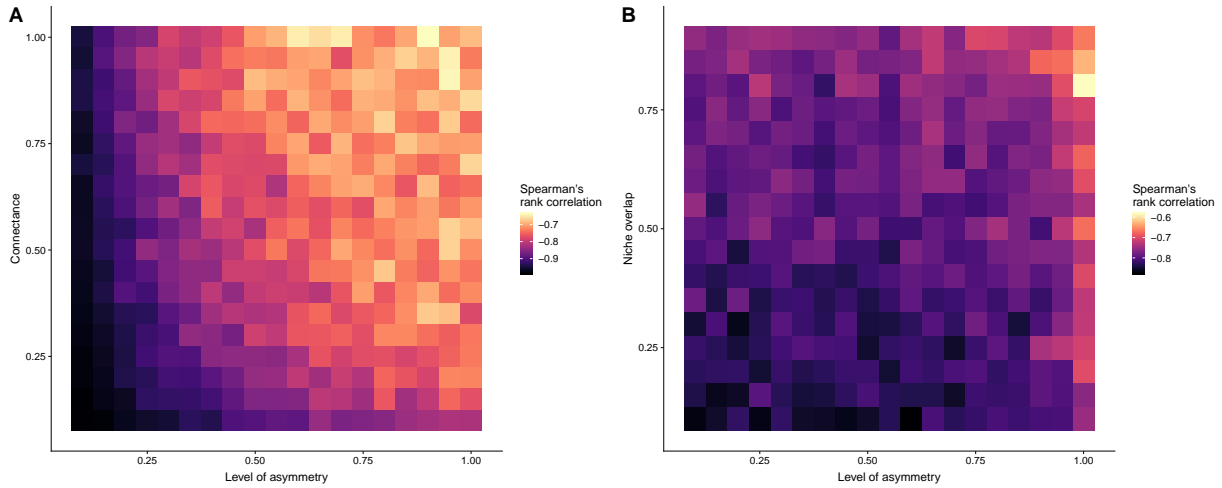


Figure S2: The effect of (A) connectance, (B) niche overlap and asymmetry on the relationship (measured as the Spearman's rank correlation) between species evenness and relative performance in isolation in 10-species communities. Panel (A) shows a strong interaction between asymmetry and connectance, i.e. high asymmetry and connectance leads to the weaker negative correlation between species evenness and the relative performance in isolation. Connectance is measured as the fraction of non-zero coefficients and modeled following Ref.³⁴. Note that the value of asymmetry corresponds to the tuning parameter P used in the sampling of the interaction matrix (see Methods). In panel (B), we generated the interaction matrices based on a niche framework²⁷, where all interaction coefficients are negative (competitive). Here, similarly to panel (A) high asymmetry and niche overlap lead to the weakest correlation.

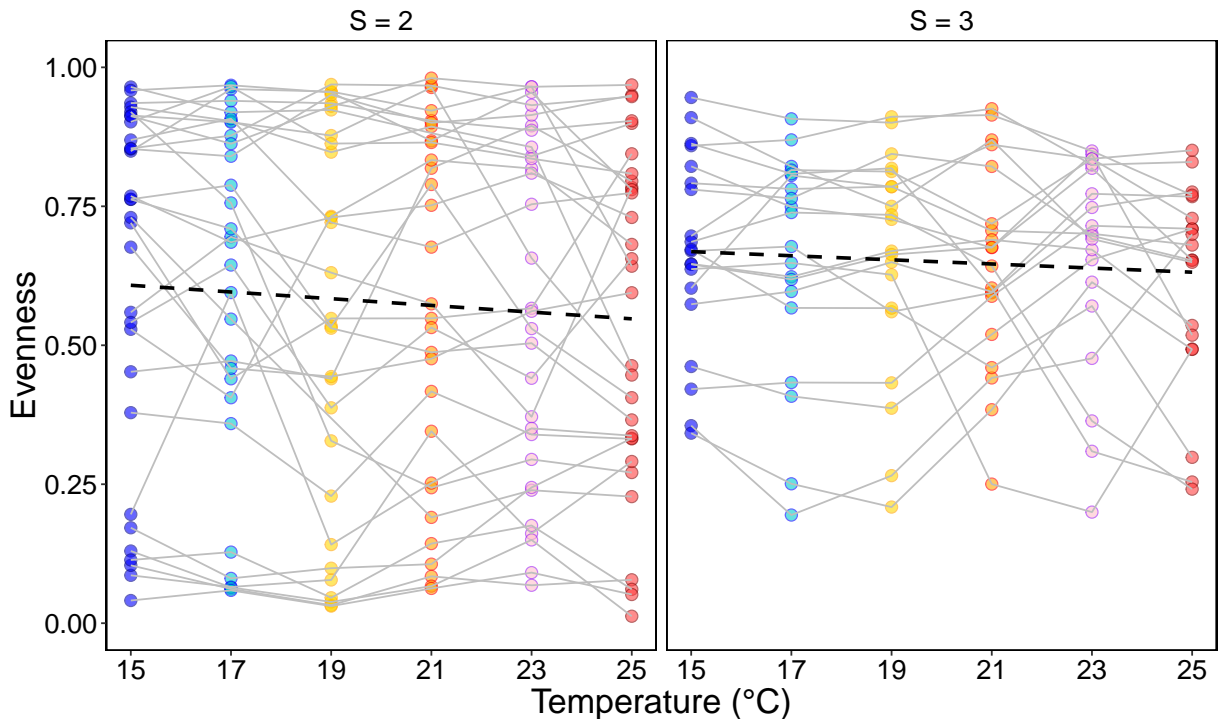


Figure S3: The relationship between species evenness and temperature empirically measured in 2- and 3-species microbial communities. Species evenness was measured as the median evenness of the time series for each community. There was no statistical relationship found between species evenness and temperature.

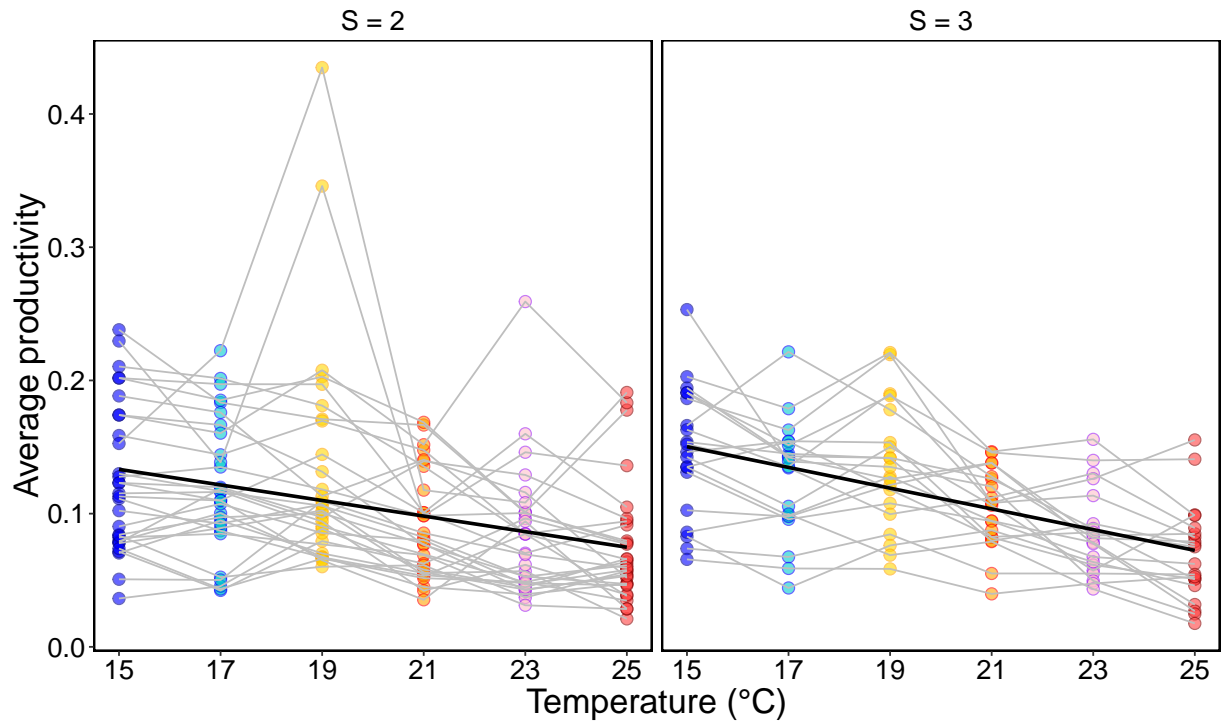


Figure S4: The relationship between average productivity and temperature empirically measured in 2- and 3-species microbial communities. Average productivity was measured as the median of the time series of total biomass for each community. Average productivity declined with increasing temperature in 2- and 3-species communities as well.