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Species multidimensional effects explain idiosyncratic responses of communities to environmental change

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

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.

Environmental conditions vary through space and time and influence whether ecological 22 communities contain a mix of rare and abundant species or be composed of species with similar 23 biomasses (or abundances) $^{1-3}$. Temperature is one such condition but its effects on different 24 species' biomasses are often inconsistent⁴. While some species can increase in biomass and 25 others decrease as a function of temperature, the same species can also decrease or increase in 26 biomass depending on the presence of other species 5-10. Importantly, understanding how 27 temperature influences species' performance (i.e., a species' ability to transform external 28 resources into its own biomass) and interactions can provide one approach for explaining such 20 apparently inconsistent effects of temperature 5,11 . Indeed, temperature often alters interactions 30 among plants and animals⁵ and species' interactions can even shift from negative to positive in 31 different temperature environments^{12–14}. Mathematical analyses and empirical results show 32 that indirect effects of temperature mediated by species' interactions can be large relative to 33 direct ones^{15,16}. Hence understanding how temperature affects species' interactions while at the 34

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

One approach for understanding and predicting effects of temperature on species' performances 37 and on direct interactions is metabolic theory, in which biological rates scale with body size and 38 temperature⁴. Predictions based on metabolic theory often assume common effects of 39 temperature on all species (i.e., one common set of activation energies¹⁷⁻¹⁹, although variation 40 in the distribution of activation energies can be substantial and skewed 20). Coupled with the 41 relatively large effects of species' interactions, the effect of temperature on species' growth rates 42 has the potential to create the appearance of idiosyncratic community responses under changing 43 environments, and to explain such variation in effects if understood and accounted for. How 44 temperature affects the distribution of indirect species' interactions is, however, currently quite 45 unclear, as are implications of interaction distributions for species' responses to environmental 46 change. This multidimensional and changing factors have impaired our ability to understand or 47 predict the effect of temperature on population and community dynamics 21-23. 48

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

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67 Results

68 Theoretical results and predictions

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

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

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 together ²⁷ (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 feasibility domain as $\theta_n = \theta(0.5 - \Omega(\mathbf{A}))$, where 0.5 is the maximum size of any feasibility domain²⁵ (see Methods for further details). Thus, we estimated the relationship between species evenness when grown together and the relative performance in isolation by the correlation between J and Ω_n .

As we previously mentioned, species' interactions (a_{ij}) can differ in sign as well as strength. 103 Moreover, a community can be characterized by a combination of direct and indirect species' 104 interactions²⁴. Thus, to provide a well-defined community-level characterization of species' 105 interactions, we calculate the asymmetry $(\phi(\mathbf{A}))$ of the feasibility domain. Geometrically, this 106 corresponds to the variability across the column vectors (known as spanning vectors 25) of the 107 interaction matrix **A**. Recall that these columns vectors can be interpreted as the species' 108 multidimensional effects on the community (see Figure 1 for a conceptual representation of 109 these equivalences). Formally, $\phi(\mathbf{A}) = \mathrm{SD}(\|\boldsymbol{v_1}\|, \dots, \|\boldsymbol{v_S}\|)$, where SD corresponds to the 110 standard deviation, $\mathbf{v_i}$ is the *i*th column vector of the interaction matrix \mathbf{A} with S species, and 111 $\|\cdot\|$ corresponds to the L_2 norm. 112

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

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

131 Empirical results

¹³² We tested these hypotheses against aquatic microbial communities grown in

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

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

157 Discussion

The close match between our empirical findings and our hypotheses corroborates our structural theory of community responses to environmental change. Specifically, the relationship between species evenness when grown together and their relative performance when grown in isolation. This confirms that changes in species' performances due to external perturbations insufficiently explain changes in community composition². Instead, we need to also know the shape (asymmetry) of the feasibility domain. Yet, in order to explore the generality of our findings, we
need considerably more empirical research examining how temperature, and other
environmental factors, affect species' multidimensional effects across communities.

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

Our results also corroborate theoretical findings on the link between species evenness and 179 productivity²⁷: communities maximize their tolerance to random external perturbation when 180 their compositions are described by a high species evenness and an intermediate level of 181 productivity. This corroboration shows that diversification of species' interactions can be a 182 plausible consequence of different mechanisms responsible for maintaining the tolerance to 183 environmental changes. For example, the observed increase in the asymmetry of the feasibility 184 domains is a likely consequence of the multidimensional interaction effect of interspecific 185 variation in thermal sensitivity, differences in thermal range or thermal optima, and differences 186 in adaptation or plasticity to novel temperatures⁷. Importantly, these results suggest that 187 direct and indirect temperature effects are essential to understand (and potentially predict) 188 community dynamics. Indirect effects that complexity brings, whereby change in the abundance 189 of a species affects the abundance of another via a third can be larger compared to direct effects 190 ¹⁵. Our results also suggest that mechanistic models must include the structure of interactions 191 among organisms and not only the direct effects of temperature 33 . 192

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

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other ecosystems and environments. Such work should explicitly include comparison of
theoretical and experimental work, and involve estimation of responses of species' performances
and interactions to environmental change. It could also relax some of the assumptions made in
our study, such as temporally invariant performances and interaction strengths, and that
species' performances are independent of community composition. Also important is to
investigate the effects of temporally varying environmental conditions, including increasing
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 $D_F(\mathbf{A}) = \{\mathbf{K} = N_1^* \mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + N_S^* \mathbf{v}_S, \text{ with } N_1^* > 0, \ldots, N_S^* > 0\},$ 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 $\mathbf{K}_c = \frac{1}{S} \mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + \frac{1}{S} \mathbf{v}_S$ 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., $P_i = N_i^* / \sum_j^S N_j^*$. 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 $\phi(\mathbf{A}) = \text{SD}(||\mathbf{v}_1||, \ldots, ||\mathbf{v}_S||)$, 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 $\theta = \arccos\left(\frac{\mathbf{K}\cdot\mathbf{K}_c}{\|\mathbf{K}\|\cdot\|\mathbf{K}_c\|}\right)$, 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 $\Omega(\mathbb{A})$ 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 \mathbb{A} . Formally, it is calculated as $\Omega(\mathbf{A}) = \frac{\operatorname{vol}(D_F(A) \cap \mathbb{B}^S)}{\operatorname{vol}(\mathbb{B}^S)} \in [0, 0.5]^{25}$.

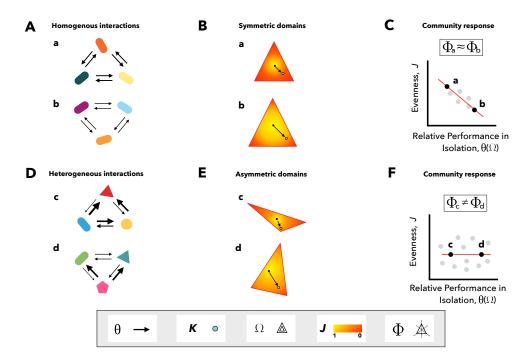


Figure 1: Theory relating differences in species' performances in isolation and species evenness when grown together. Hypothetical 3-species communities in which symbols and colors correspond to different species, while the thickness of arrows represents the direct pairwise interaction strengths. Communities 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 \mathbf{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 \mathbf{C}). Bottom row: a scenario in which communities have heterogeneous interaction (Panel \mathbf{D}) that result in asymmetric feasibility domains (Panel E), which lead to an unpredictable outcome between species evenness and relative performance in isolation (Panel \mathbf{F}).

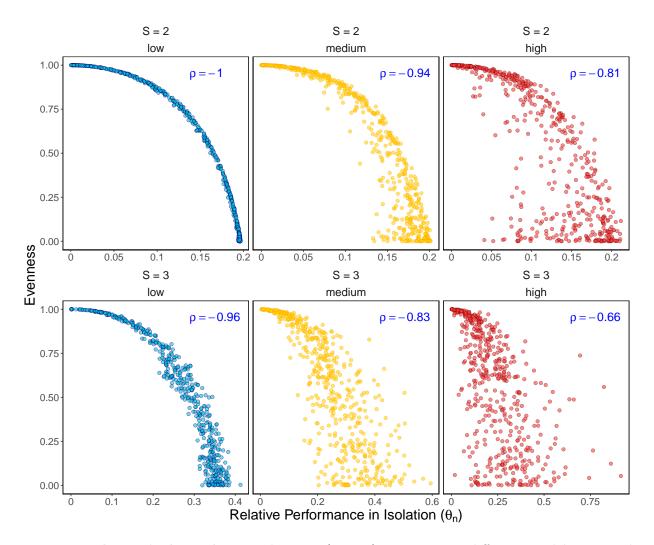


Figure 2: Theoretical results. Each point (n=500) represents a different model-generated community with two species (top row) or three species (bottom row) under different asymmetry values of feasibility domains $\phi(\mathbf{A})$ (low=0.1, medium=0.5 and high=0.9) marked at the top of each panel. We 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.

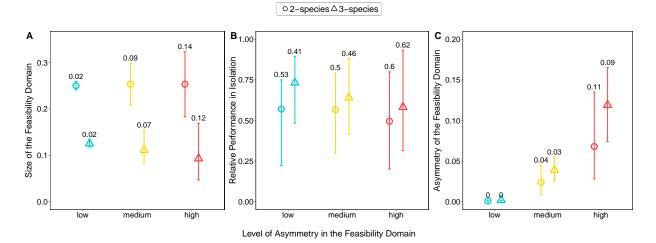


Figure 3: Theoretical distribution of structural measures. Circles and triangles represent the median values of 2- and 3-species model-generated communities, respectively. The x-axes show different asymmetry values of feasibility domains. All communities are characterized by randomlygenerated interaction 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.

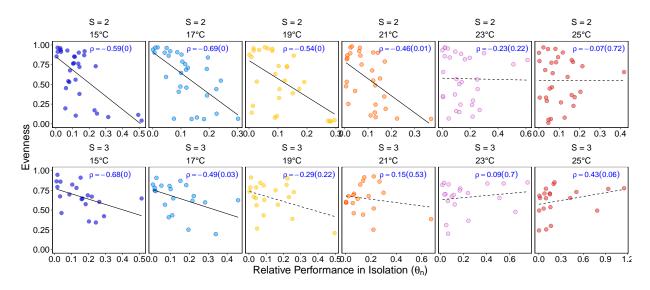


Figure 4: **Empirical results.** This figure shows experimental microbial communities formed by different combinations of 2 (**A**) and 3 (**B**) protist species under different temperatures. The first column corresponds to communities under a control temperature of 15 °C, whereas the other columns correspond 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.

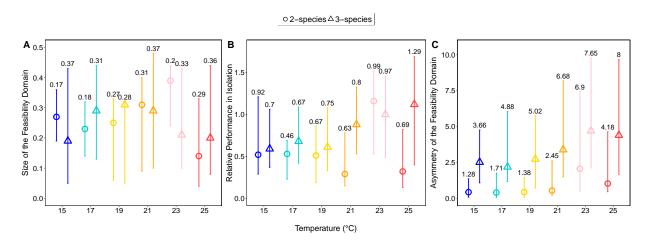


Figure 5: Empirical distribution of structural measures across temperatures. Distribution of the size of the feasibility domain (Ω) , relative performance in isolation (θ_n) and asymmetry of the the feasibility domain (ϕ) across temperatures. Circles (2-species communities) and triangles (3-species communities) 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

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

Recent work²⁹ has shown that in any model topologically equivalent to the LV model, the structure of species interactions (embedded in the interaction matrix **A**) defines a unique relationship between parameters K and the community composition at equilibrium N^* (where $\dot{N} = 0$). This relationship is established by the feasibility domain, which corresponds to a convex region $D_F(\mathbf{A})$ within the parameter space, from which is possible to link uniquely a set of K_i to a set of feasible (positive) solutions $N_i^* > 0$ (see Box 1 for further details). Formally, this feasibility domain can be written as

 $D_F(\mathbb{A}) = \left\{ \mathbf{K} = N_1^* \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + N_S^* \mathbf{v}_S, \text{ with } N_1^* > 0, \dots, N_S^* > 0 \right\}, \text{ where } \mathbf{N}^* \text{ are the positive}$ 224 solutions of the system, v_i are the column vectors of the interaction matrix A, and S is the 225 number of species in the community. This definition implies that the feasibility domain of an 226 interaction matrix can be geometrically represented as an algebraic cone by normalizing the 227 parameter space under any norm²⁵. An algebraic cone is defined as the space spanned by 228 positive linear combinations of S linearly independent vectors v_i . Then, the size of the feasibility 229 domain can be estimated by normalizing the solid angle generated by the feasibility domain, 230 such that it is equal to one for the whole unit sphere (using the L2 norm) \mathbb{B}^S . This normalized 231 angle can be analytically calculated by $\Omega = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{S/2}\sqrt{|\det(\alpha)|}} \int \cdots \int_{N^* \ge 0} e^{-\frac{1}{2}N^*^{\mathrm{T}}\alpha^{\mathrm{T}}\alpha N^*} \,\mathrm{d}\,N^*$, and is 232 computed via a quasi-Monte Carlo method^{24,34} 233

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

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

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

265 Empirical methods

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

gradient is recommended to harness the power of a regression design, while still allowing to test 270 for a nonlinear temperature effect³⁵. Long-term protist cultures are kept at 15°C, representing 271 the control temperature to which the species used in the experiment are adapted. Warming 272 usually decreases their carrying capacities but increases growth rates³⁶. Experimental 273 communities were created by growing protists to their respective carrying capacities at 20° C in 274 1L of bacterized medium. The medium consisted of protist pellets (Carolina Biological Supplies, 275 Burlington, NC, USA) at a concentration of 0.055 gL^{-1} of Chalkley's medium in which the 276 bacterium Serratia fonticola was grown as common resource for the bactivorous protists. Two 277 autoclaved wheat seeds were added to each bottle for slow nutrient release. Monocultures were 278 initiated at a density of 3 individuals mL^{-1} in a total of 100 mL medium. Communities were 279 initiated with a total of 40 mL protist culture topped up with 60 mL fresh medium (100 mL 280 culture in total). The 40 mL culture were assembled by adding a fixed fraction (i.e. 20 mL for 281 two species, 13.33 for three species) of each species at their specific carrying capacity, adopting 282 a substitutive design. Each experimental community was cultivated in 250 mL Duran bottle. 283 Since the number of possible species compositions exceeded the number of feasible experimental 284 units, we used all possible compositions only for the monocultures (6 compositions, 3 replicates) 285 and two species communities (15 compositions, 2 replicates). For three species communities, ten 286 compositions (2 replicates) were randomly selected from the set of all possible compositions 287 such that all species occurred the same number of times. This generated a total of 68 288 experimental units per temperature. Microcosms were sampled 19 times over 36 days to 289 measure community dynamics. To do so, a microcosm was taken out of the incubator, gently 290 stirred to homogenize the culture, and a fixed sample pipetted into a counting chamber. The 291 height of the sampling chamber was 600 μ m and the area filmed 68.7 mm² resulting in 41.2 μ L 292 sampled. The counting chamber was covered with a lid and a 5 second video was taken under 293 the microscope. The videos were subsequently processed with the R package $BEMOVI^{37}$ to 294 extract morphological and behavioural traits. Individuals in polycultures were classified into 295 species by a random forest classifier trained on trait information obtained from the monoculture 296 data³⁸. We derived the biomass of each species by summing the biovolume of all individuals of 297 a given species in a given community and multiplying biovolume with a constant density equal 298 to water (i.e. 1 g/cm^3). 290

300 Estimation of species interactions

We fitted a topologically equivalent model to the classic LV model²⁹ to our observations using 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 us to gradually enter more nonlinear forms of functional responses ($\beta \in [0, 2]$ by step size 0.1).

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

328 Data and code availability

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

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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 $(2018)^{39}$.

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109 November (2018).

415 Extended Data

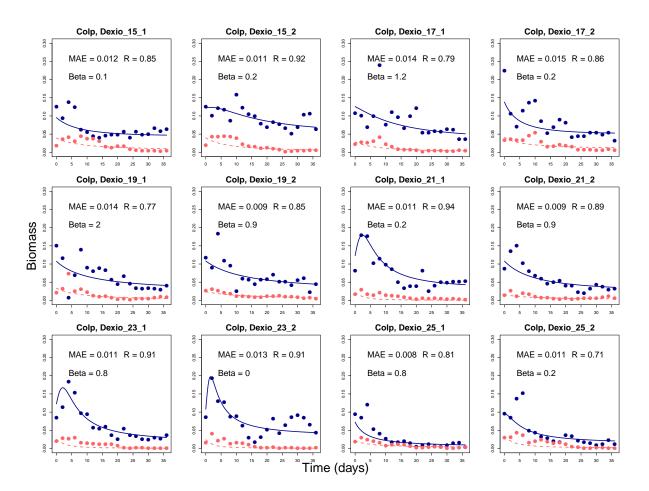


Figure S1: **Example of fitting 2-species GLV model across temperature.** Illustration using time series of interacting *Colpidium* (blue) and *Dexiostoma* (red) as an example. Each panel shows a different temperature-replicate combination. Dots are the observations and the corresponding lines indicate 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.

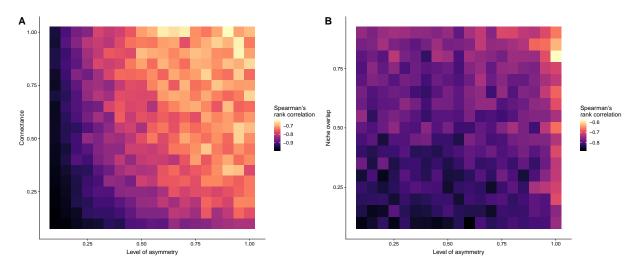


Figure S2: The effect of (A) connectance, (B) niche overlap and asymmetry on the relationship (measured as the Spearman's rank correlation) between species evenness and relative performance in isolation in 10-species communities. Panel (A) shows a strong interaction between asymmetry and connectance, 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 framework ²⁷, where all interaction coefficients are negative (competitive). Here, similarly to panel (A) high asymmetry and niche overlap lead to the weakest correlation.

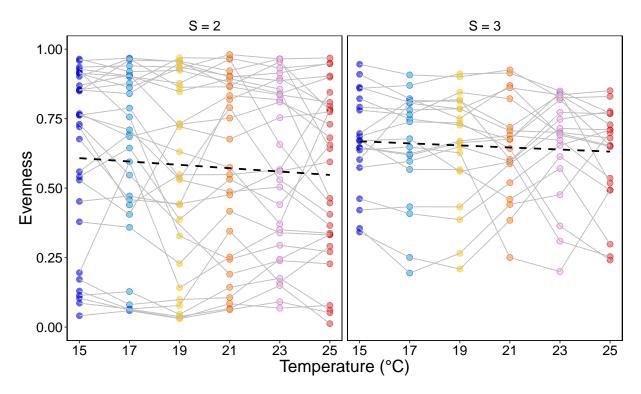


Figure S3: The relationship between species evenness and temperature empirically measured in 2- and 3-species microbial communities. Species evenness was measured as the median evenness of the time series for each community. There was no statistical relationship found between species evenness and temperature.

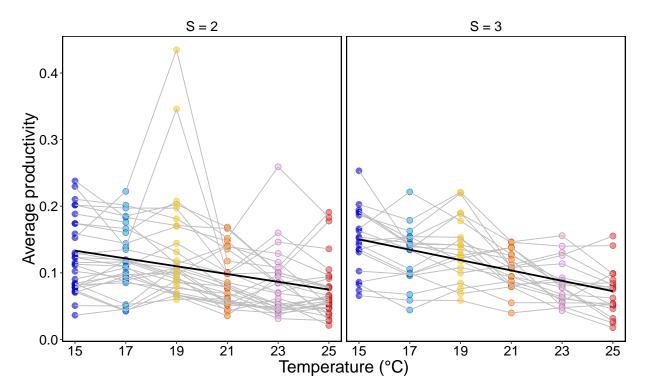


Figure S4: The relationship between average productivity and temperature empirically measured in 2- and 3-species microbial communities. Average productivity was measured as the median of the time series of total biomass for each community. Average productivity declined with increasing temperature in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