

Functional coexistence theory: a mechanistic framework linking biodiversity to ecosystem function

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May 5, 2024

Total word count for abstract: 243

Total word count for main text: 9843

Number of color figures: 7

Number of boxes: 3

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Number of appendices: 9

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1 **Abstract**

2 Theory and experiments show that diverse ecosystems often have higher levels of function
3 (for instance, biomass production), yet it remains challenging to identify the biological
4 mechanisms responsible. We synthesize developments in coexistence theory into a gen-
5 eral theoretical framework linking community coexistence to ecosystem function. Our
6 framework, which we term functional coexistence theory, identifies three components
7 determining the total function of a community of coexisting species. The first component
8 directly corresponds to the niche differences that enable pairwise species coexistence, and
9 to the complementarity component from the additive partition of biodiversity effects. The
10 second component measures whether higher functioning species also have higher com-
11 petitive fitness, providing a missing link between the additive partition's selection effect
12 and modern coexistence theory's concept of equalization. The third component is least
13 well-studied: reducing functional imbalances between species increases niche difference's
14 positive effect on function. Using a mechanistic model of resource competition, we show
15 that our framework can identify how traits drive the effect of competition on productivity,
16 and confirm our theoretical expectations by fitting this model to data from a classic plant
17 competition experiment. Furthermore, we apply our framework to simulations of commu-
18 nities with multiple ecosystem functions or more than two species, demonstrating that
19 relationships between niche, fitness, and function also predict total function beyond the
20 case studied by classical theory. Taken together, our results highlight fundamental links
21 between species coexistence and its consequences for ecosystem function, providing an
22 avenue towards a predictive theory of community–ecosystem feedbacks.

23 **Keywords**

24 Coexistence, Complementarity, Fitness difference, Mechanistic model, Multifunctionality,
25 Niche difference, Selection, Transgressive overyielding

26 1 Introduction

27 All living systems obey the same set of physical laws, yet any individual ecosystem en-
28 compasses a unique assembly of organisms and interactions. This fundamental contrast is
29 embodied by a traditional division within ecology: ecosystem ecology focuses on the flow
30 of energy and nutrients as common currencies, while community ecology aims to explain
31 the diversity of organisms. However, understanding ecosystems requires ecologists to
32 acknowledge the fundamental links between these aspects: ecosystem flows affect commu-
33 nity composition; in turn, ecological communities control ecosystem cycles of energy and
34 nutrients. Thus, general theories of ecosystems must account for the feedback between
35 ecosystem and community processes. As human activity simultaneously perturbs global
36 element cycles and threatens local biodiversity, understanding such feedback is a funda-
37 mental ecological challenge with enormous practical consequences for understanding and
38 mitigating global change.

39 One successful body of research, termed *biodiversity–ecosystem function*, studies this
40 feedback by asking how diversity at the community level affects function at the ecosystem
41 level (e.g. biomass production, nutrient cycling, or ecosystem services). This field has com-
42 bined manipulative experiments (Hector, Bazeley-White, et al. 2002; Hooper, Chapin III,
43 et al. 2005) and theoretical analyses (Connolly et al. 2013; Loreau and Hector 2001; Turnbull
44 et al. 2013) to highlight the effect of biodiversity on ecosystem processes such as primary
45 productivity, nutrient cycling, and ecosystem services (Hector, Bazeley-White, et al. 2002;
46 Isbell et al. 2017). The effect of biodiversity on ecosystem function can be partitioned into
47 two components: *complementarity*, which measures whether species function better on
48 average within communities versus growing alone (e.g., due to underlying niche differenti-
49 ation) and *selection*, which measures whether higher-functioning species disproportionately
50 dominate a community (Loreau and Hector 2001). This approach, termed the *additive*
51 *partition* of biodiversity effects, and subsequent related frameworks (Bannar-Martin et al.
52 2018; Connolly et al. 2013; Fox 2005; Liang, Zhou, et al. 2015) have been applied to a variety
53 of experiments and empirical studies. Taking advantage of this theoretical–empirical syn-
54 thesis, a cross-scale perspective has emerged (Cardinale, Hillebrand, et al. 2009; Hooper,
55 Adair, et al. 2012; O’Connor et al. 2017) emphasizing the positive effects that biodiversity
56 often has on ecosystem function.

57 Nonetheless, the degree to which biodiversity promotes community-level functioning
58 varies greatly between systems (O’Connor et al. 2017). While most work has focused
59 on biomass production in terrestrial plants, the positive diversity–function relationships
60 observed there may not generalize across ecosystem types (O’Connor et al. 2017) with

61 different species pools, environmental conditions (Spaak, Baert, et al. 2017), or community
62 structures (Hordijk et al. 2023). Indeed, in certain highly competitive systems, consistently
63 negative diversity–function relationships may be the norm (Maynard et al. 2017). Further-
64 more, even within systems, biodiversity effects vary during community succession (Weis
65 et al. 2007), suggesting that observed biodiversity effects may only be transient (Turnbull
66 et al. 2013). Accordingly, though recent empirical (Gonzalez et al. 2020; Liang, Crowther,
67 et al. 2016) and modeling work (Pavlick et al. 2013) has begun to focus on applying the in-
68 sights of diversity–function studies at large scales, synthesizing a general predictive theory
69 of ecosystem function remains challenging. Thus, an important current challenge for un-
70 derstanding and predicting community–ecosystem feedbacks is identifying the underlying
71 ecological mechanisms—that is, interactions between species and their environment—
72 through which diversity affects function (Hector, Bell, et al. 2009; Loreau 2010; Loreau,
73 Sapijanskas, et al. 2012; Mouquet et al. 2002).

74 Just as the additive partition has provided a unifying tool for linking diversity to
75 ecosystem function, a body of theory known as *modern coexistence theory* has provided a
76 general framework for understanding and predicting the maintenance of diversity itself.
77 As a quantitative currency for coexistence, the theory identifies two processes: *stabilization*,
78 which prevents competitive exclusion by reducing species’ relative negative effects on each
79 other (and thus is also termed *niche difference*), and *equalization*, which reduces competitive
80 imbalances between species (termed *fitness differences*) such that stabilization can ensure
81 coexistence (Chesson 2000; Ke and Letten 2018). In contrast to the additive partition
82 approach, which was developed to test empirical hypotheses in biodiversity–ecosystem
83 function experiments (Loreau and Hector 2001, 2019; Wagg et al. 2019), modern coexistence
84 theory was first proposed to provide mechanistic predictions of coexistence in theoretical
85 models (Chesson 2000). Indeed, its metrics have successfully been applied to predict how
86 a variety of specific biological mechanisms contribute to coexistence in theoretical (Ke and
87 Wan 2020; Letten, Ke, et al. 2017; Spaak, Ke, et al. 2023) and empirical studies (Godoy and
88 Levine 2014; Johnson et al. 2022; Petry et al. 2018). Accordingly, studies have related niche
89 and fitness measures from modern existence theory to ecosystem function (Carroll et al.
90 2011; Turnbull et al. 2013), though subsequent debate has questioned the generality and
91 applicability of this approach (Loreau and Hector 2019; Loreau, Sapijanskas, et al. 2012;
92 Pillai and Gouhier 2019; Wagg et al. 2019). Thus, despite calls to adopt a more mechanistic
93 view of biodiversity–function relationships (Ratcliffe et al. 2017; Wang et al. 2024) and
94 recent work comparing these relationships to niche and fitness metrics (Godoy, Gómez-
95 Aparicio, et al. 2020), there is no general framework extending the predictive power of
96 coexistence theory to address communities’ total function.

97 Building upon this emerging synthesis, we apply modern coexistence theory to provide
98 a general mechanistic framework for biodiversity effects. Our approach, which we term
99 *functional coexistence theory*, highlights the importance of considering species' functional
100 imbalances in tandem with their classical niche and fitness differences. Integrating these
101 components, researchers can quantify the mechanisms governing coexistence between
102 species in order to predict how the resulting community is likely to function. First, we
103 use classic competition models to illustrate our framework (section "Extending modern
104 coexistence theory to predict function") by deriving conditions for one kind of biodiversity
105 effect (transgressive overyielding). Accordingly, we identify three processes determining
106 the total function of a community: stabilizing niche difference, fitness–function relation-
107 ships, and functional equalization. Next, we place our functional coexistence framework
108 within the context of the rich literature on biodiversity–ecosystem function to show that
109 the two approaches are compatible despite their quantitative differences (section "Placing
110 functional coexistence theory in the context of the biodiversity–function literature"). More-
111 over, we show how our framework can identify mechanistic drivers of ecosystem function
112 (section "Linking functional coexistence theory to biological mechanism"). Using a general
113 trait-based model of resource competition, we show how functional coexistence theory can
114 predict the effect of traits on total function, and confirm these predictions by reinterpreting
115 a classic plant competition experiment with our framework (Wedin and Tilman 1993).
116 Finally, we demonstrate how our theory holds when expanded to study multifunctional-
117 ity and multispecies communities (section "Beyond classic theory: applying functional
118 coexistence theory to multiple functions and species"). Taken as a whole, our proposed
119 framework clarifies the fundamental links between coexistence and ecosystem function.
120 Thus, by synthesizing a mechanistic understanding of diversity–function relationships,
121 our results can help predict how ecosystems, along with the key services they provide,
122 will respond to change.

123 **2 Extending modern coexistence theory to predict function**

124 In this section, we illustrate how modern coexistence theory's niche and fitness measures
125 can be integrated with measures of species' function in order to predict ecosystem function,
126 beginning with a quantitative two-species framework frequently employed in empirical
127 studies of coexistence. Just as modern coexistence theory classifies processes affecting
128 coexistence into stabilizing and equalizing components (section "Modern coexistence
129 theory: two components maintaining diversity"), our functional coexistence framework
130 identifies three components contributing to the total function of communities. We illustrate

131 these components by considering biomass production in the two-species model (Box 1 and
132 section “Functional coexistence theory: three components driving overyielding”), focusing
133 specifically on *transgressive overyielding*, which occurs when a community’s total function
134 exceeds that of its most productive species (Loreau 2010).

135 **2.1 Modern coexistence theory: two components maintaining diversity**

136 Modern coexistence theory highlights that differences between species can affect coexis-
137 tence in two ways: they may promote coexistence by helping all species in a community
138 invade (i.e., recover from low abundance), or hinder coexistence by favoring certain species
139 over others. Accordingly, species coexistence can be predicted from two metrics summa-
140 rizing these roles: niche differences (ND) promote coexistence, while fitness differences
141 (FD) hinder coexistence. Stated conceptually, coexistence occurs when niche differences
142 are greater than fitness differences ($ND > |FD|$), allowing all species to attain positive
143 invasion growth rates (Barabás et al. 2018). Following the framework of Ke and Letten
144 (2018) and Letten, Ke, et al. (2017), we depict these requirements for a two-species system
145 in Figure 1a.

146 Thus, processes maintaining diversity can be classified according to these two com-
147 ponents. The first, *stabilization*, increases niche differences (Figure 1a, blue arrow); to
148 clarify their role in coexistence, niche differences are therefore sometimes termed *stabilizing*
149 *niche differences*. The second, *equalization* (Figure 1a, orange arrows), makes species more
150 similar in fitness, thereby reducing competitive hierarchy and preventing exclusion (Fig-
151 ure 1a, orange arrows). This stabilizing–equalizing framework does not directly quantify
152 biological mechanism because its components do not directly correspond to concrete
153 biological processes: Barabás et al. 2018; Loreau, Sapijanskas, et al. 2012. However, applied
154 to mechanistic models, it provides a powerful tool for summarizing how coexistence can
155 arise through processes ranging from abiotic interactions such resource use (Letten, Ke,
156 et al. 2017; Song et al. 2019) to biotic interactions such as pollination (Johnson et al. 2022),
157 mutualism (Kandlikar et al. 2019; Ke and Wan 2020), or disease (Mordecai 2011).

Box 1. Linking modern coexistence theory to ecosystem function

For a class of commonly-used competition models, we can use the niche and fitness components of modern coexistence theory to calculate total ecosystem function. As a representative example, we consider conditions for transgressive overyielding in the classic Lotka–Volterra model, where the dynamics of species i ’s population N_i

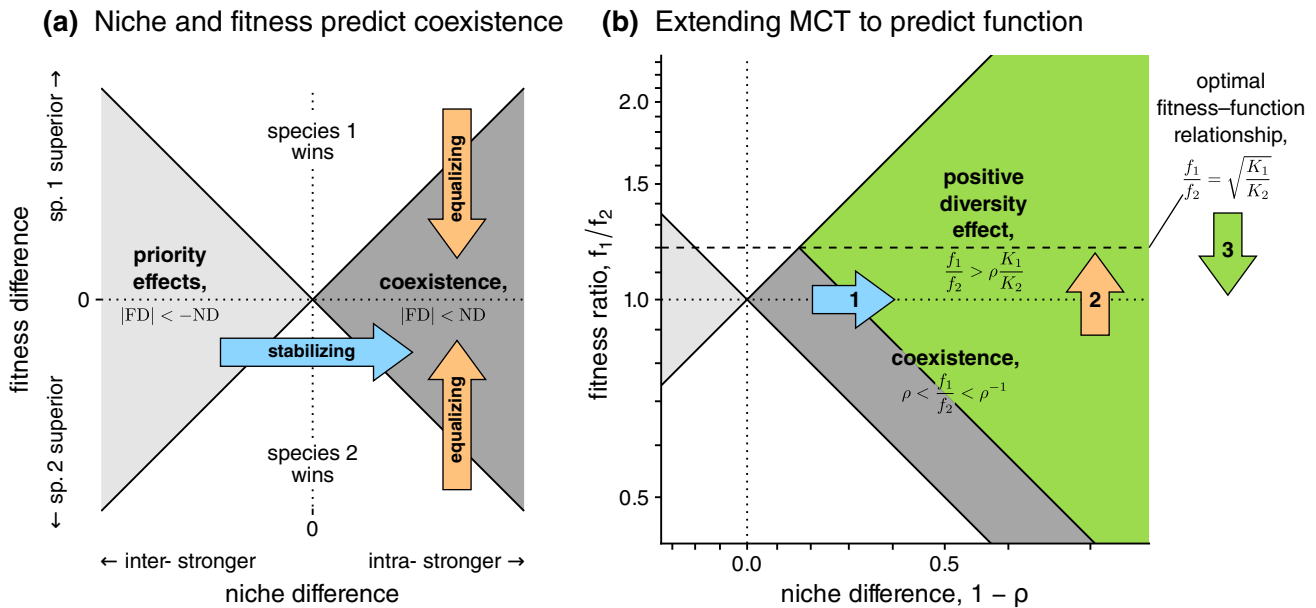


Figure 1: Modern coexistence theory and its functional extension. (a) Modern coexistence theory: niche and fitness differences predict coexistence. Coexistence outcomes between two species depend on niche difference, ND (horizontal axis), and fitness difference, FD (vertical axis; panel adapted from Mordecai 2011). Coexistence (dark gray) requires niche difference to be positive ($ND > 0$) and large enough to overcome fitness difference ($ND > |FD|$). Any process promoting coexistence can be partitioned into two components: stabilizing (blue arrow), i.e., increasing niche difference, and equalizing (orange arrows), i.e., decreasing the magnitude of fitness difference towards zero. Here, ND and FD are notated conceptually, but can be quantified for specific models, as discussed below. **(b) Functional coexistence theory: extending the modern coexistence framework to predict function.** We now use niche and fitness to predict whether species interactions cause a community to outperform the best single species, termed *transgressive overyielding*. To match panel (a), axes are logarithmically transformed ($-\log \rho$ and $\log f_1/f_2$), but we label corresponding values of the more familiar measures from the literature ($1 - \rho$ and f_1/f_2). On top of the conditions for coexistence, a positive diversity effect (green region) only occurs when the higher yielding species (here, species 1) also has sufficiently high fitness ($f_1/f_2 > \rho \cdot K_1/K_2$) or equivalently, when niche difference and 1's fitness advantage are in excess of those required for coexistence ($ND - \Delta > |FD - \Delta|$, where $\Delta = \frac{1}{2} \log K_1/K_2$). Accordingly, processes affecting function can be partitioned into effects on niche (arrow 1) and fitness (arrow 2), as previously, but also on functional imbalance between the species (arrow 3).

Box 1 (continued)

follow:

$$\frac{1}{N_i} \cdot \frac{dN_i}{dt} = r_i \left(1 - \sum_j \alpha_{ij} N_j \right), \quad (1)$$

where r_i is species i 's intrinsic rate of increase and α_{ij} is the per-capita competitive effect of species j on species i . A more general analysis and full derivations are given in Appendix S1, and conditions for other outcomes in Appendix S2; we also show in Appendix S3 that the results can be extended to models with nonlinear competitive effects. Note that we discuss biomass here for simplicity, but that results are fully analogous for any function Φ instead of biomass K , as discussed in Appendix S8.

Modern coexistence theory: niche and fitness measures In a two-species community, the niche and fitness components are (per Chesson and Kuang 2008):

$$\rho = \sqrt{\frac{\alpha_{12}\alpha_{21}}{\alpha_{11}\alpha_{22}}} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{f_1}{f_2} = \sqrt{\frac{\alpha_{21}\alpha_{22}}{\alpha_{12}\alpha_{11}}}, \quad (2)$$

which respectively give the niche overlap and fitness ratio between species 1 and 2. Two conditions allow the species to stably coexist, each corresponding to one of the coexistence components in modern coexistence theory. First, species must experience niche differentiation: $\rho < 1$, ensuring that within-species competition is stronger than between-species competition. Second, species must be sufficiently similar in competitive ability:

$$\rho < \frac{f_1}{f_2} < \rho^{-1}, \quad (3)$$

ensuring that the fitness ratio between species is not too imbalanced relative to niche differentiation. We illustrate these conditions in Figure 1a; since ρ and f_1/f_2 are ratios, we take logarithms to obtain niche and fitness differences corresponding to the conceptual discussion in section 2.1 (ND = $-\log \rho$ and FD = $\log f_1/f_2$; Johnson et al. 2022; Yamamichi et al. 2022), where coexistence requires ND > |FD|, though we label the axes with the more familiar units of $1 - \rho$ and f_1/f_2 .

Fitness determines species' contributions to total function To link these measures to function, we first focus on \hat{N}_i , the biomass that species i contributes to the community. We show that each species' biomass is proportional to its intrinsic yield $K_i = \alpha_{ii}^{-1}$ (i.e., carrying capacity) and to its scaled invasion growth rate $F_i = 1 - \alpha_{ij}/\alpha_{jj}$ (i.e.,

Box 1 (continued)

its invasion growth rate divided by r_i). This gives a straightforward expression for biomass of species i at equilibrium,

$$\hat{N}_i = \frac{F_i K_i}{1 - \rho^2}. \quad (4)$$

Here, as in more general versions of modern coexistence theory (Barabás et al. 2018), F_i measures a species' fitness—its ability to persist under competition with the rest of its community. We apply F_i to simplify the derivation of our results and emphasize their link to invasion analysis (Grainger et al. 2019). Though the wide applicability of modern coexistence theory is underpinned by invasion analysis, which considers dynamics when one species is rare (Grainger et al. 2019), the theory gains considerable predictive power because invasion growth rates also predict a system's long-term trajectory and properties (Arnoldi et al. 2022; Barabás et al. 2018). Accordingly, the traditionally-defined Lotka–Volterra fitness ratio f_1/f_2 quantifies two species' imbalance in F as $\sqrt{(1 - F_2) / (1 - F_1)}$ while niche overlap ρ quantifies competitive reduction in both species' F as $\sqrt{(1 - F_1) \cdot (1 - F_2)}$, and we can apply the identity

$$F_i = 1 - \rho \cdot f_j / f_i \quad (5)$$

to relate the two sets of measures.

Degree of transgressive overyielding Using equation 4 to write total biomass as $\hat{N}_1 + \hat{N}_2 = (F_1 K_1 + F_2 K_2) / (1 - \rho^2)$, we can investigate the relative degree of transgressive overyielding, i.e., the difference between the biomass of the total community and that of its highest-yielding single species. Without loss of generality, we designate species 1 as the highest-yielding single species ($K_1 > K_2$). In order to understand the conditions promoting transgressive overyielding, we can rewrite the total biomass as

$$\hat{N}_1 + \hat{N}_2 = K_1 \cdot \frac{F_1 + \frac{K_2}{K_1} \cdot F_2}{1 - \rho^2}, \quad (6)$$

There are three ways to change the value of this expression relative to K_1 , the baseline for transgressive overyielding: (1) changing *stabilization*, i.e., how close ρ is to 0; (2) changing *fitness imbalance*, i.e., the relative magnitudes of F_1 and F_2 for a particular value of ρ ; and (3) changing *yield imbalance*, i.e., how close the yield ratio K_2/K_1 is to 1. Note that these components are not fully independent due to the relationship

Box 1 (continued)

between ρ , F_1 , and F_2 .

Conditions for overyielding Our analysis allows us to derive simple conditions for transgressive overyielding. Solving the conditions under which total biomass (equation 6) is greater than the best intrinsic yield K_1 (and rewriting ρ in terms of F_1, F_2) gives $F_1 > 1 - K_2/K_1$. In other words, transgressive overyielding requires the higher yielding species to also have sufficiently high fitness—a *fitness–function relationship*. Rewriting this in terms of ρ and f_1/f_2 (Appendix S1) gives the *functional coexistence theory* condition for transgressive overyielding:

$$\rho \cdot \frac{K_1}{K_2} < \frac{f_1}{f_2} < \rho^{-1}, \quad (7)$$

where $K_1/K_2 > 1$, and the upper bound of ρ^{-1} is due to the fact that coexistence is a prerequisite for transgressive overyielding. As niche overlap ρ decreases (i.e. species experience increasing niche differentiation), transgressive overyielding first becomes possible when $\rho \cdot K_1/K_2 = f_1/f_2 = \rho^{-1}$ and thus at

$$\frac{f_1}{f_2} = \sqrt{\frac{K_1}{K_2}}, \quad (8)$$

which, as we show in Appendix S1, is also more generally the fitness ratio maximizing total biomass. Illustrated in Figure 1b, these conditions are closely related to the coexistence condition from modern coexistence theory (equation 3). Simply put, transgressive overyielding requires that the niche difference and fitness advantage felt by the higher yielding species are in excess of those required for coexistence: in the conceptual notation of Section 2.1 and Figure 1a, $ND - \Delta > |FD - \Delta|$, where ND, FD are defined logarithmically as above, and $\Delta = \frac{1}{2} \log K_1/K_2$ measures the yield imbalance to be overcome (Appendix S1).

2.2 Functional coexistence theory: three components driving overyielding

In Box 1, we extend modern coexistence theory in order to include ecosystem function by relating its niche and fitness measures to the total function of the community. As a

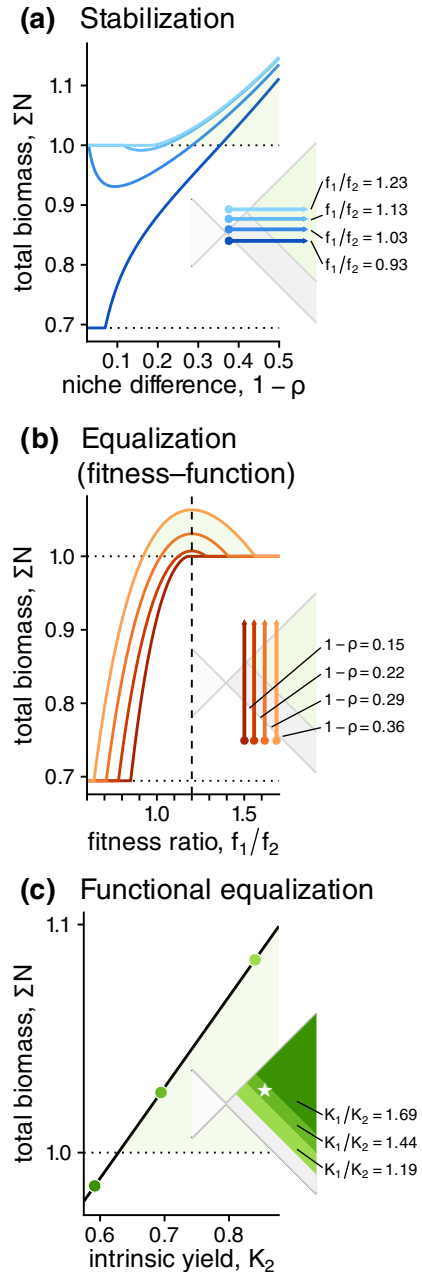


Figure 2: Illustrating causes for positive diversity effects using the Lotka–Volterra model. In each panel, we show the effect (solid lines/points) of varying a component (horizontal axis) on total biomass (vertical axis) as compared to the biomass of each species growing alone (dotted horizontal lines; set to 0.7 for the less-productive species 2 and 1.0 for the more-productive species 1). Insets show parameter values and positions on the coexistence space plot in Figure 1b. **(a) Stabilizing niche differences.** Increasing niche difference $1 - \rho$ eventually results in total biomass exceeding the yield of the best species (transgressive overyielding), regardless of fitness difference (line color), though biomass may decrease when niche difference is low. Note that the line for $f_1/f_2 = 1.23$ overlaps or is slightly above that for $f_1/f_2 = 1.13$. **(b) Fitness-function relationship.** Transgressive overyielding occurs and total biomass is maximized at the optimal fitness ratio $f_1/f_2 = \sqrt{K_1/K_2} = 1.2$ (vertical dotted line), provided niche difference (line color) is high enough to allow coexistence at this fitness ratio. **(c) Functional equalization.** Making species more equal in function by increasing productivity of the inferior species K_2 while niche and fitness remain fixed (star in inset) increases total biomass by increasing the potential for transgressive overyielding (different green regions in inset). See Appendix S9 for parameter values.

162 representative example, we consider the conditions under which the community's biomass
163 production shows *transgressive overyielding*; that is, when total biomass at equilibrium
164 exceeds the biomass of each species growing alone (Loreau 2010). While we use the familiar
165 Lotka–Volterra model as an illustration, our results (Appendix S1) rest upon a more general
166 finding that in many models of competition, a species' relative contribution to total biomass
167 can be determined from two quantities: (1) its intrinsic yield K_i , or biomass produced
168 when growing alone, and (2) its fitness F_i , or ability to persist under competition (Box 1:
169 equation 4). This includes, in addition to the Lotka–Volterra model used in Box 1, many
170 models with nonlinear competitive responses such as the Beverton–Holt model (Beverton
171 and Holt 1957) used to study annual plant competition (Levine and HilleRisLambers 2009)
172 and Tilman (1982)'s substitutable resource competition model (Letten, Ke, et al. 2017).
173 Furthermore, this relationship is approximately true in an even broader class of models
174 (Arnoldi et al. 2022), enabling further generalizations (for instance, nonlinear competitive
175 responses, which we illustrate in Appendix S3).

176 Using this result, we combine the niche and fitness measures from modern coexistence
177 theory (here, ρ and f_1/f_2) with each species' intrinsic yield (K_1, K_2) to fully predict total
178 biomass and how it responds to community coexistence (Box 1: equation 7).

179 We identify three processes that enable transgressive overyielding, where the commu-
180 nity outperforms its best single species (Loreau 2010), as depicted in Figure 1b. The first
181 is simply stabilizing niche differences: increasing niche difference (decreasing ρ towards
182 zero) tends to increase total biomass (arrow 1). The second concerns the relationship
183 between fitness and function: transgressive overyielding occurs when the higher yielding
184 species has a competitive advantage in excess of that needed for it to persist (arrow 2). The
185 third component can be termed *functional equalization*: making the species more similar
186 in intrinsic yield (decreasing K_1/K_2 towards 1) increases the potential for transgressive
187 overyielding (arrow 3). In this section, we simulate how these components affect total
188 biomass in the Lotka–Volterra model (Figure 2) and use these results to illustrate the
189 interpretation of each process.

190 **Stabilizing niche differences** In the pairwise models we consider, niche difference (and
191 equivalently, stabilization) can be interpreted as the tendency for intraspecific interactions
192 to be more negative than interspecific ones: that is, for species to limit themselves more
193 strongly than they limit each other. Confirming previous results (Carroll et al. 2011), we
194 find that such niche differences tend to promote total biomass yield (Figure 2a). However,
195 we caution that functional and competitive imbalances can complicate this relationship:
196 when the higher-yielding species had only moderately higher fitness than its competi-

197 tor ($f_1/f_2 = 1.03$ and 1.13), increasing niche difference just enough to allow coexistence
198 decreased total biomass. Thus, transgressive overyielding generally requires niche dif-
199 ferentiation in excess of that simply required for coexistence (e.g., Figure 1b, where the
200 transgressive boundary for overyielding lies to the right of the coexistence boundary).
201 Nonetheless, regardless of the fitness ratio between coexisting species, sufficiently high
202 niche difference always eventually enabled transgressive overyielding. Accordingly, we
203 follow previous work in emphasizing that niche differentiation plays an essential role in
204 allowing diversity to promote ecosystem function.

205 **Fitness–function relationship** Modern coexistence theory highlights the role of competi-
206 tive fitness (F_i or f_i/f_j), the ability for a species to persist in a community (as measured by
207 invasion analysis); indeed, without the context provided by fitness differences, predicting
208 coexistence is impossible (Adler, HilleRisLambers, et al. 2007; Kandlikar et al. 2019). Going
209 further, our functional framework highlights that fitness also determines the degree to
210 which each species contributes to total ecosystem function. We find that transgressive
211 overyielding requires precise relationships between fitness and function: namely, a species
212 with a higher function (here, intrinsic yield for biomass K) must also have a sufficiently
213 high competitive ability (as measured by F_i or f_i/f_j ; Figure 2b). In other words, higher-
214 functioning species must have fitness in excess of that required for coexistence (by a factor
215 of K_1/K_2 ; equation 7). Our simulations highlight that this component can be viewed
216 as a version of modern coexistence theory’s equalization: regardless of niche difference,
217 bringing fitness ratio towards its optimum value (vertical dashed line, $\sqrt{K_1/K_2}$; equation 8)
218 always promoted transgressive overyielding, just as bringing it towards 1 would have
219 promoted coexistence. Thus, our functional framework generalizes modern coexistence
220 theory by showing that fitness differences also determine ecosystem function.

221 **Functional equalization** Finally, we identify a driver of diversity effects with no direct
222 equivalent from modern coexistence theory: functional equalization, which increases
223 ecosystem function by reducing functional imbalances between species (e.g., low vs. high
224 biomass production). As our simulations illustrate (Figure 2c), making coexisting species
225 more equal in function always promotes transgressive overyielding because it reduces the
226 opportunity for competition to select (i.e., increase the relative abundance of) functionally
227 inferior species (i.e., the gray region in the inset becomes smaller). Functional equalization
228 amplifies the effect of stabilizing niche differences: when species have equal function,
229 transgressive overyielding always occurs as a consequence of stable coexistence. In this
230 extreme, the previous fitness–function relationships become irrelevant because species do

231 not differ in function, a scenario implicitly considered by classic experimental analyses
232 designed for communities where species have similar intrinsic yields (e.g., the relative
233 yield total approach: de Wit 1960). While functional imbalance has been discussed as a
234 caveat for the interpretation of such studies (Schmid et al. 2008; Wagg et al. 2019), it has
235 received little attention as an explanation of biodiversity effects in its own right; thus, we
236 highlight its importance in predicting the total function of a community.

237 **3 Placing functional coexistence theory in the context of the** 238 **biodiversity–function literature**

239 Although previous work has used concepts from coexistence theory to examine ques-
240 tions from the biodiversity–function literature, it has remained unclear whether these
241 two approaches can be reconciled. In this section, we place functional coexistence theory
242 within the context of the biodiversity–ecosystem function literature in order to show how
243 it complements previous approaches. We begin by briefly summarizing the interpretation
244 of the additive partition’s complementarity and selection components: though their respec-
245 tive links with niche and fitness have long been noted, the broader compatibility of the
246 two frameworks has remained contentious (subsection “Previous attempts to synthesize
247 diversity–function and theories of coexistence”). After quantitatively relating and niche
248 and fitness measures to the complementarity and selection components (Box 2), we high-
249 light how the perspective of functional coexistence theory resolves apparent contradictions
250 between the theories (subsection “Comparing the niche–fitness and additive partition
251 frameworks”). Although our presentation of functional coexistence theory has focused
252 on transgressive overyielding, we then show how it can be applied to predict other out-
253 comes, highlighting its flexibility as a predictive framework for total community function
254 (subsection “Predicting different outcomes using niche, fitness, and function”).

255 **3.1 Previous attempts to synthesize diversity–function and theories of** 256 **coexistence**

257 The links between productivity and the processes allowing species to coexist have been
258 noted since early efforts to quantify competition (de Wit 1960), culminating in quantitative
259 descriptions of niche partitioning between species (e.g., MacArthur 1970). Building upon
260 this perspective, studies from the biodiversity–ecosystem function literature (reviewed
261 in Hooper, Chapin III, et al. 2005) have hypothesized that such niche partitioning effects
262 may explain widely-observed positive effects from diversity manipulation experiments.

263 To synthesize the diversity of metrics and hypotheses from this field, Loreau and Hector
264 (2001) proposed the *additive partition* of such biodiversity effects into two components. The
265 first, *complementarity*, is an average indicating how much more species tend to yield in
266 communities than growing alone, which can serve to quantify the role of niche partitioning
267 and other interactions such as facilitation (Hooper, Chapin III, et al. 2005; Loreau 2004;
268 Loreau, Sapijanskas, et al. 2012; Turnbull et al. 2013). The second component, *selection*,
269 measures effects that depend on species identity by quantifying the tendency for species
270 with higher intrinsic yield to contribute more to communities. As Loreau and Hector (2001)
271 originally suggested (and later refined by Fox 2005), this selection component measures
272 competitive differences in a manner analogous to fitness in evolutionary studies (Price
273 1995). Thanks to its generality, the additive partition has successfully summarized a large
274 and diverse set of experimental studies (Cardinale, Matulich, et al. 2011). Nonetheless, as
275 long noted (Hooper, Chapin III, et al. 2005; Loreau and Hector 2001; Mouquet et al. 2002),
276 it does not identify specific biological processes driving biodiversity effects, nor does it
277 predict how they might change with respect to time or environmental context.

278 More recent work has suggested that modern coexistence theory may help address
279 limitations of the additive partition by helping to detect the biological mechanisms re-
280 sponsible for biodiversity effects (Carroll et al. 2011; Godoy, Gómez-Aparicio, et al. 2020;
281 Turnbull et al. 2013). Indeed, the framework formalizes the same ecological concepts as
282 the additive partition: like complementarity, niche difference measures processes reducing
283 the importance of competition between species; like selection, fitness measures processes
284 favoring one species over another (Adler, HilleRisLambers, et al. 2007). Accordingly,
285 theoretical work has aimed to relate the approaches (Turnbull et al. 2013); towards this
286 goal, Carroll et al. (2011) suggested the additive partition may misrepresent underlying
287 mechanisms (e.g., resource partitioning), and proposed using niche difference as an alter-
288 native metric for diversity–function studies. However, a subsequent exchange questioned
289 whether either approach appropriately indexes underlying mechanisms (Carroll et al. 2012;
290 Loreau, Sapijanskas, et al. 2012), while more recent debate has stressed their different and
291 potentially incompatible conceptual aims (Loreau and Hector 2019; Pillai and Gouhier
292 2019; Wagg et al. 2019). Thus, despite recent calls to harness ecological theory to identify
293 mechanisms for biodiversity effects (Godoy, Gómez-Aparicio, et al. 2020; Ratcliffe et al.
294 2017; Wang et al. 2024), it remains unclear how to integrate the general insights offered by
295 modern coexistence theory within the field of biodiversity–ecosystem function.

Box 2. Relating functional coexistence to other frameworks for diversity effects

Loreau and Hector (2001) defined the *additive partition of biodiversity effects* by showing that ΔY , the difference between observed total yield and expected yield Y_E , can be written as

$$\Delta Y = \underbrace{n \cdot \overline{\Delta RY} \cdot \bar{K}}_{\text{complementarity}} + \underbrace{n \cdot \text{cov}(\Delta RY, K)}_{\text{selection}}, \quad (9)$$

where n is the number of species, K is intrinsic yield or function when growing alone, RY_i is relative yield (a species' yield within the community divided by its intrinsic yield), and $\bar{\cdot}$, $\text{cov}(\cdot, \cdot)$, and $\Delta \cdot$ respectively denote these quantities' mean, covariance, and deviation from experimenters' expectations. Expected yield is the weighted average of intrinsic yields according to expected relative yields ($Y_E = \sum_i RY_{E,i} K_i$); a typical choice of $RY_{E,i}$ is species' proportions at the beginning of an experiment, but equation 9 is valid for any choice of expected relative yield. Here, following previous studies (Carroll et al. 2011; Loreau 2010), we consider changes relative to average intrinsic yield \bar{K} (corresponding to $RY_{E,i} = 1/n$); note that this differs from the derivation in Box 1, which focused on transgressive overyielding (i.e., relative to K_1).

Relating the additive partition to niche and fitness We relate the additive partition to niche and fitness measures for Box 1's competition models (Appendix S4) by considering the coexistence equilibrium. Noting that RY_i is our \hat{N}_i/K_i , we find that complementarity is $[\sum F / (1 - \rho^2) - 1] \cdot \bar{K}$, regardless of the choice of expected relative yield, and selection is $n \cdot \text{cov}(F, K) / (1 - \rho^2)$, provided all expected relative yields are equal, i.e., $RY_{E,i} = 1/n$. In this case, expected yield is simply average intrinsic yield \bar{K} and we can write these expressions out in full for the equilibrium abundances of (coexisting) species 1 and 2 as:

$$\Delta Y = \sum \hat{N} - \bar{K} = \underbrace{\frac{F_1 \cdot F_2}{1 - \rho^2} \cdot \frac{K_1 + K_2}{2}}_{\text{complementarity}} + \underbrace{\frac{F_1 - F_2}{1 - \rho^2} \cdot \frac{K_1 - K_2}{2}}_{\text{selection}}, \quad (10)$$

corresponding to previous results (Carroll et al. 2011; Loreau, Sapijanskas, et al. 2012) except that we have simplified the expression by keeping F_1, F_2 . As previously noted by Carroll et al. (2011), these expressions have complicated relationships with ρ and f_1/f_2 ; nonetheless, the form of equation 10 suggests that complementarity is related to the tendency of both F_1 and F_2 to be large, while selection is related to the

Box 2 (continued)

difference between F_1 and F_2 . We conform these expectations in Figure 3a–c; using equation 5, we can also show them to hold exactly (Appendix S4).

Overyielding relative to average intrinsic yield As exemplified by the additive partition's freely chosen Y_E , there are many ways to quantify overyielding; Appendix S2 considers these in a fully general way. Here, we demonstrate the case where the community outperforms species' average intrinsic yield \bar{K} , corresponding to the choice of $RY_{E,i} = 1/n$ in the additive partition, used above and previously in the literature (Carroll et al. 2011; Loreau, Sapijanskas, et al. 2012). Solving for the condition under which equation 10 is positive gives the inequality

$$F_2^{-1} - F_1^{-1} > -\frac{K_1 + K_2}{K_1 - K_2}, \quad (11)$$

where the left hand side measures whether species 1 has a greater value of F_i . This condition is illustrated as the dashed line in Figure 3d and can be rewritten in terms of f_1/f_2 and ρ using equation 5 (see more complicated expression in Appendix S2).

3.2 Comparing the niche–fitness and additive partition frameworks

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In Box 2 (and Appendix S4), we calculate how complementarity and selection are related to the niche, fitness, and function components from functional coexistence theory, finding conceptual agreement between the frameworks despite quantitative differences. We show these in Figure 3 by calculating the complementarity and selection components for the same scenarios originally simulated in Figure 2; we also provide general proofs of these findings in Appendix S4. As we increased niche difference (Figure 3a), complementarity always increased with increasing niche difference, while selection did not change in a consistent direction: it either increased ($f_1/f_2 = -0.93$) or decreased (other values of f_1/f_2) depending on the underlying fitness difference. Meanwhile, increasing fitness ratio (Figure 3b) caused complementarity to increase until $f_1/f_2 = 1$ and then decrease; this effect occurred at all niche difference values. On the other hand, regardless of niche difference, selection consistently increased with fitness ratio: it was negative when fitness favored the lower yielding species 2, increasing to 0 when $f_1/f_2 = 1$, and becoming positive when the fitness ratio favored the higher yielding species 1. Finally, increasing the intrinsic yield of the lower yielding species K_2 (Figure 3c) slightly increased complementarity (though

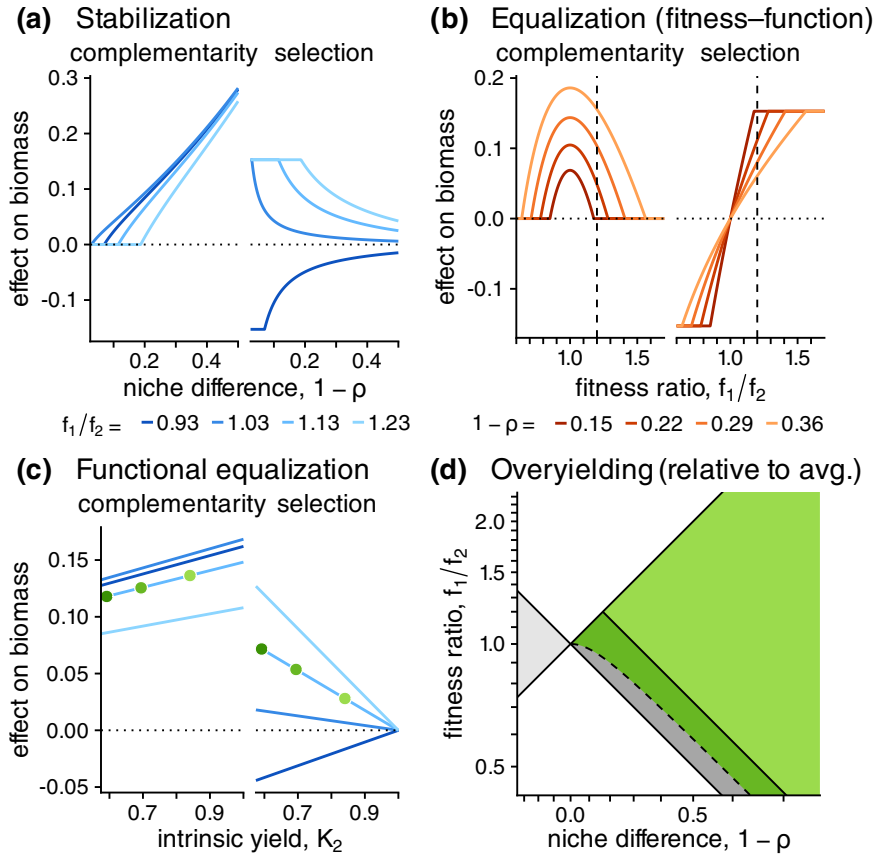


Figure 3: Linking functional coexistence theory components with previous approaches. (a)–(c) Relating stabilization, fitness-function, and functional equalization to the additive partition. Following the simulations in Figure 2 (matching parameter values and legends), we show how each of the components of functional coexistence theory are related to the additive partition by using species’ equilibrium biomass to calculate the complementarity and selection effects as in Box 2. Instead of only showing one set of niche and fitness values (as in Figure 2c), panel (c) uses the same four values of f_1/f_2 (line color) as in panel (a). **(d) Conditions for overyielding relative to average intrinsic yield.** On top of the niche–fitness space in Figure 1b, we visualize the conditions for overyielding relative to \bar{K} , the average of species 1 and 2’s intrinsic yields (dark green region); the boundary (dashed line) is the full condition given in Box 2. This defines a curve that becomes nearly parallel to the transgressive overyielding and coexistence boundaries at high enough niche difference.

312 this effect would disappear when standardizing by the average intrinsic yield: see general
313 result in Appendix S4). Regardless of the fitness ratio, doing so also reduced the magnitude
314 of selection, such that selection was always 0 when $K_2 = K_1 = 1$.

315 Thus, we conclude that the coexistence theory and additive partition components are
316 closely linked: increased stabilization consistently corresponds to increased complemen-
317 tarity, while increasing the fitness ratio in favor of the higher yielding species consistently
318 corresponds to increased selection. Meanwhile, reducing functional imbalance reduces se-
319 lection effects, which vary in sign depending on species' fitness, leaving complementarity,
320 which is always positive for coexisting species. This confirms previous suggestions that
321 stabilization and complementarity are closely linked (Carroll et al. 2011; Loreau 2004), and
322 that selection is related to fitness (Fox 2005). Indeed, it is possible to show that selection
323 can be interpreted as a niche difference metric for modern coexistence theory, closely
324 related to previously proposed metrics based on arithmetic means of invasion growth
325 rates (Barabás et al. 2018; Chesson 2003; Spaak, Ke, et al. 2023; Zhao et al. 2016); we
326 show this result in Appendix S5. Furthermore, despite quantitative differences, the two
327 approaches made similar inferences regarding the primary drivers of total function: the
328 fact that increasing niche difference always eventually increases total yield enough to allow
329 transgressive overyielding (Figure 2a) must necessarily be attributed to its positive effect
330 on complementarity, not to its inconsistent effect on selection (Figure 3a). Similarly, the
331 tendency of increasing fitness ratio in favor of species 1 to promote overyielding (Figure 2b)
332 must be attributed to the selection effect, which always increased in this scenario, not
333 complementarity, which decreased when fitness ratio rose above 1 (Figure 3b).

334 In contrast to previous investigations focusing on quantitative differences in the magni-
335 tudes of the components of the modern coexistence and additive partition frameworks (Car-
336 roll et al. 2011; Loreau, Sapijanskas, et al. 2012), our analysis shows qualitative correspon-
337 dence between changes in each set of metrics. Indeed, studies aiming to identify mecha-
338 nisms underpinning productivity changes along environmental gradients (e.g., Fridley
339 2002; Q.-G. Zhang and D.-Y. Zhang 2006) have focused predominantly on the sign of
340 changes in additive partition or modern coexistence components, which we have shown
341 are compatible between the two frameworks. Accordingly, in one of the few studies to com-
342 pare the frameworks, Godoy, Gómez-Aparicio, et al. (2020) manipulated water availability
343 for an annual plant community and found that niche differences and complementarity
344 tended to simultaneously increase, while large fitness differences were associated with
345 large selection effects.

346 **3.3 Predicting different outcomes using niche, fitness, and function**

347 Loreau and Hector (2001)'s partition was developed to generalize different metrics studied
348 by biodiversity experiments (e.g., relative yield total: de Wit 1960; transgressive overyield-
349 ing: Schmid et al. 2008; approaches meant to address sampling effects: Loreau 1998), which
350 either closely correspond to additive partition components (e.g., relative yield total is
351 simply scaled complementarity: Loreau and Hector 2001) or can be obtained through an
352 appropriate choice of expected relative yields $RY_{E,i}$. We show here that our components
353 (stabilizing niche difference, fitness–function relationships, and functional equalization)
354 similarly generalize to a variety of outcomes and metrics considered in the literature
355 (Appendix S4).

356 To demonstrate this generalizability, Box 2 highlights the condition for overyielding
357 relative to the average intrinsic yield \bar{K} , which also corresponds to the case used to analyze
358 the additive partition. We graphically analyze this condition by visualizing it in the niche–
359 fitness space alongside the condition for transgressive overyielding (Figure 3d). These
360 requirements are less stringent than those for transgressive overyielding: for instance,
361 equalizing fitness difference towards $f_1/f_2 = 1$ always allows a coexisting community to
362 overyield the average intrinsic yield (proven generally in Appendix S4). Nonetheless, the
363 two conditions are closely related—in fact, the boundaries become parallel at high enough
364 niche difference, and the distance between the boundaries is determined by imbalance in
365 intrinsic yield (K_1/\bar{K} , as opposed to K_1/K_2 for transgressive overyielding: Appendix S4).
366 Put simply, all forms of overyielding require stabilization and a fitness advantage for the
367 higher yielding competitor in excess of that required for coexistence alone, and the extent
368 of this excess requirement is determined by the degree of imbalance in intrinsic yield.

369 Broadly speaking, we suggest that functional coexistence theory offers a generalizable
370 theory for addressing the total function of communities. While the previous results of Car-
371 roll et al. (2011) focused on expressing the complementarity and selection components in
372 terms of the niche and fitness difference, our focus is on using niche and fitness to provide
373 quantitative predictions of total function. Accordingly, the present framework can predict
374 of arbitrary forms of overyielding, as well as the conditions that maximize total function
375 (as discussed above: equation 8, Figure 1b). Addressing previous warnings (e.g., Loreau,
376 Sapijanskas, et al. 2012) that niche and fitness measures may not be suitable as quantitative
377 predictors because they do not provide information about yield, functional coexistence
378 theory incorporates intrinsic yield as the missing link enabling modern coexistence theory
379 to satisfactorily predict species' contribution to function (equation 4).

380 4 Linking functional coexistence theory to biological mech- 381 anism

382 Mechanistic models of competition offer a way towards a more complete understand-
383 ing of ecosystem dynamics. In particular, the well-studied consumer–resource models
384 provide an opportunity to unify community and ecosystem dynamics (Chase and Lei-
385 bold 2003; Tilman 1982). Long used to elucidate the role of the niche in species coex-
386 istence (MacArthur 1970), these models predict the dynamics of competing species by
387 representing their interactions with a set of shared resources (or limiting factors). From an
388 ecosystem perspective, consumer–resource models often reflect fundamental constraints
389 on nutrient cycling, resulting in more realistic dynamics (Gross 2008); from a community
390 perspective, they can succinctly capture species dynamics using a minimum of measure-
391 ments or parameters (Letten and Stouffer 2019). Therefore, such models may be able to
392 simultaneously explain the composition and function of diverse communities, and have
393 been applied to explore links between the biodiversity–ecosystem paradigm and other
394 theories of biodiversity (Cardinale, Hillebrand, et al. 2009; Carroll et al. 2011; Turnbull et al.
395 2013).

396 In this section, we show how to quantitatively apply the functional coexistence frame-
397 work to summarize mechanistic models, directly identifying biological mechanisms driv-
398 ing biodiversity effects. Using a trait-based model where species interfere with other
399 species’ ability to use a limiting resource (Box 3), we show how species traits determine the
400 niche, fitness, and function components of our framework and affect ecosystem function;
401 in particular, we predict that resource level should not enable transgressive overyielding
402 (subsection “Applying functional coexistence theory to a mechanistic model”). Using
403 data from a classic plant competition experiment across a soil nitrogen gradient (Wedin
404 and Tilman 1993), we fit the model and confirm our predictions regarding overyielding
405 (subsection “Explaining productivity in a classic plant competition experiment”).

Box 3. Identifying mechanisms for diversity effects in a consumer–resource model

We generalize a one-resource competition model from Tilman (1980) to an arbitrary number of species. Assuming that there is a single primary limiting factor R in the system, we then allow species to interfere with each other’s resource uptake in order to implicitly capture the effect of additional limiting factors. We consider n species, each with biomass N_i , and a single limiting resource R (Figure 4a). The dynamics of

Box 3 (continued)

the general model are given by the following equations:

$$\frac{dN_i}{dt} = N_i [\varepsilon_i u_i (R, N_1, \dots, N_n) - m_i (N_1, \dots, N_n)] \quad (12)$$

$$\frac{dR}{dt} = g(R) - \sum_{i=1}^n N_i u_i (R, N_1, \dots, N_n) + \sum_{i=1}^n \varphi_i N_i m_i (N_1, \dots, N_n) \quad (13)$$

Here, a species' growth depends on its resource use efficiency ε_i and its per-capita resource uptake u_i (a function of the abundance of the resource and of other species), and it experiences mortality according to some function m_i . Resource dynamics are governed by some resource supply function g , uptake by consumers, and return from dead biomass, where φ_i is the resource returned per unit of species i 's dead biomass.

Linking the model to functional coexistence theory To link our consumer–resource model to the general results above, we analyze a specific version of the model where species i 's resource uptake is reduced by interference: $u_i = v_i R / \left(1 + \sum_{j=1}^n \beta_{ij} N_j\right)$, where v_i is i 's intrinsic uptake ability and β_{ij} is the strength of resource uptake interference by species j on species i ; note that response to interference follows a functional form identical to that of competition in the Beverton–Holt model (Beverton and Holt 1957). Assuming constant species mortality ($m_i = \mu_i$) and a closed system ($g(R) = 0$) with complete resource return ($\varphi_i = \varepsilon_i^{-1}$), the total amount of resource in the system (i.e., in R and biomass) is constant and we can derive population dynamics as:

$$\frac{dN_i}{dt} = N_i \left[\frac{\varepsilon_i v_i \left(R_0 - \sum_{j=1}^n \varepsilon_j^{-1} N_j \right)}{1 + \sum_{j=1}^n \beta_{ij} N_j} - \mu_i \right], \quad (14)$$

where the conserved quantity $R_0 \equiv R + \sum_i \varepsilon_i^{-1} N_i$ is the total amount of resource in the system (i.e., in the R pool or in biomass); we give the derivation in detail in Appendix S6 and show that it can also be interpreted as a first-order approximation to more complex resource dynamics. Since this form corresponds to the class of models considered in Box 1 and Appendix S1, we can derive the quantities necessary to apply functional coexistence theory (see full derivations in Appendix S6). Namely,

Box 3 (continued)

we show that the coexistence components are

$$\rho = \sqrt{\frac{b_{12}b_{21}}{b_{11}b_{22}}} \quad \text{and} \quad (15)$$

$$\frac{f_1}{f_2} = \frac{R_0 - R_1^*}{R_0 - R_2^*} \sqrt{\frac{b_{21}b_{22}}{b_{12}b_{11}}}, \quad (16)$$

where $R_i^* \equiv \mu_i / (\varepsilon_i v_i)$ directly corresponds to Tilman (1980)'s R^* , the minimum resource concentration at which species i can maintain positive population growth, and $b_{ij} \equiv R_i^* \beta_{ij} + \varepsilon_j^{-1}$ measures the competitive effect of species j on i via interference and the amount of resource it removes from the pool. On the other hand, intrinsic yield is

$$K_i = \frac{R_0 - R_i^*}{b_{ii}} \quad (17)$$

Note that b_{ij} is independent of total resource level, and thus a species' actual sensitivity to competition (*sensu* Box 1) further depends on total resource level (Appendix S6), contributing the $R_0 - R_i^*$ term to the expressions above.

Conditions for transgressive overyielding Applying equation 7, we find straightforwardly that transgressive overyielding requires

$$\frac{f_1}{f_2} > \frac{R_0 - R_1^*}{R_0 - R_2^*} \cdot \frac{b_{22}}{b_{11}} \cdot \rho, \quad (18)$$

where only the first term depends on total resource level; in fact, the same ratio also determines the dependence of fitness on total resource level in equation 16. In other words, changing resource level always affects fitness ratio and yield ratio in the same way. Simplifying equation 18 to eliminate this factor shows that transgressive overyielding requires the higher yielding species to be more sensitive to conspecific than to heterospecific competitors ($b_{11} > b_{12}$). In terms of the mechanistic traits of the model, this can be written

$$\beta_{11} + \frac{v_1}{\mu_1} > \beta_{12} + \frac{\varepsilon_1}{\varepsilon_2} \cdot \frac{v_1}{\mu_1}, \quad (19)$$

indicating that transgressive overyielding is favored if the higher yielding species experiences stronger interference from conspecifics (higher β_{11}) or uses resources

Box 3 (continued)

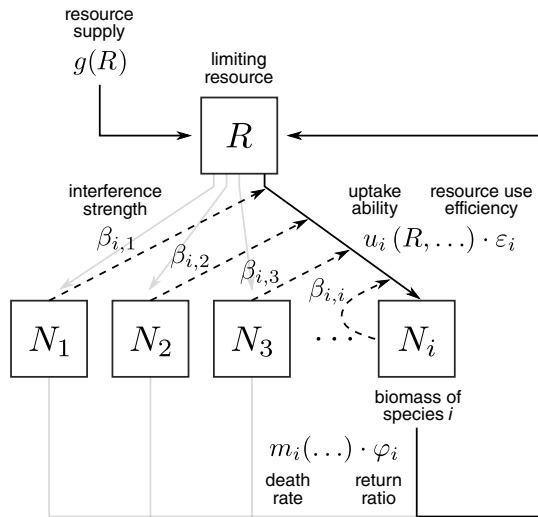
less efficiently (lower ε_1).

406 **4.1 Applying functional coexistence theory to a mechanistic model**

407 Defining a general trait-based resource competition model, we show that functional coex-
408 istence theory can be used to understand the drivers of ecosystem function in mechanistic
409 models. In Box 3, we provide the model in mathematical detail and calculate the niche,
410 fitness, and function measures needed to apply the functional coexistence framework.
411 Closely related to previous models of interference competition (Amarasekare 2002) and
412 facilitation (Gross 2008), our model (Figure 4a) considers an arbitrary number of species
413 N_i competing for a single shared limiting resource R ; in doing so, the model offers more
414 mechanistic insight than classic phenomenological models of competition. Species differ in
415 their ability v_i to obtain this resource, their resource use efficiency ε_i , and in their mortality
416 μ_i , creating a competitive hierarchy in resource competition. Furthermore, species interfere
417 with the resource uptake of conspecific and heterospecifics (β_{ii}, β_{ij}). Although the number
418 of distinct resources limits the number of coexisting species in models of pure resource
419 competition, this interference term allows an arbitrary number of species to coexist in
420 the present model (Supplemental Figure S6.1). Stated conceptually, the limiting factors
421 necessary for coexistence consist of the shared resource R , modelled mechanistically, and
422 additional species interactions β_{ij} , considered more phenomenologically. We suggest
423 that this may be an appropriate mechanistic model for systems where species interact
424 in diverse ways, but overall, interactions are strongly structured by competition for a
425 single shared resource. For instance, in a plant system, R could represent space (e.g., in
426 a forest ecosystem) or a limiting soil nutrient (e.g., nitrogen; Clark et al. 2018), while β_{ij}
427 could represent more specific factors such as allelopathy or shared pathogens (Ke and Wan
428 2020) that affect plants' ability to compete for the shared resource. Similarly, in a fungal
429 decomposer system, R could represent a common carbon substrate for which species
430 compete, while β_{ij} could represent the effect of chemical interference (Tyc et al. 2017) or
431 competition for other nutrients.

432 **Modern coexistence theory: linking mechanistic and phenomenological perspectives**
433 **on coexistence** Following the method of Letten, Ke, et al. (2017), we use the relationship
434 between the mechanistic model and the Lotka–Volterra model to derive niche and fitness
435 differences, thereby bridging mechanistic and phenomenological perspectives on coexis-

(a) Resource competition model



(b) Resource effect on overyielding conditions

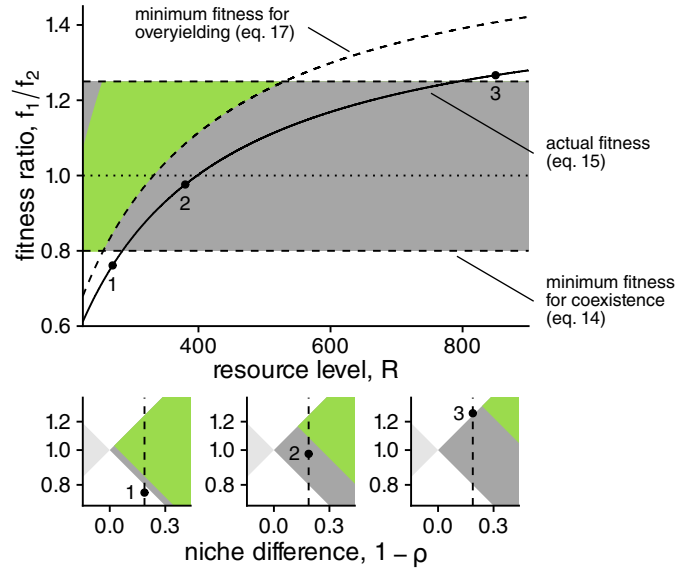


Figure 4: Applying the framework to a mechanistic competition model. We apply the functional coexistence framework to a general trait-based resource competition model. **(a) Model diagram.** A single limiting resource R is taken up by species $N_1, N_2, N_3, \dots, N_i$ differing in their uptake ability v_i and resource use efficiency ϵ_i , while species-specific mortality μ_i returns resources to the pool. Furthermore, species interfere with each other, reducing their ability to take up resources according to interference strength β_{ij} , which captures limitation by factors not explicitly represented in the model. **(b) Model predictions: changing resource level cannot drive overyielding.** For representative parameter values (Appendix S9), we show in the top panel how changing resource level affects fitness (solid line). In order to link this to coexistence outcomes, we shade the ratios at which coexistence (gray) and transgressive overyielding (green) could occur at each resource level. The minimum fitness ratio at which overyielding is possible (dashed curve) increases as resource level increases, while the conditions for coexistence (dashed horizontal lines) do not change. Regardless of resource level, the actual fitness ratio is never sufficiently high to allow overyielding. In the lower panels, we show how the communities at resource levels indicated 1–3 in the top diagram can be visualized in the niche and fitness space of Figure 1: points represent the actual niche and fitness difference, and the green region represents the changing requirements for overyielding.

436 tence. We find that the effect of competition can be broken down into two components. The
437 first depends on resource level: exactly as in Tilman's resource-ratio theory (Tilman 1982),
438 resource competition ability is captured by the quantity R_i^* (i.e., the minimum resource
439 level at which a species can maintain positive growth), and species i 's total sensitivity to
440 competition is inversely related to $R_0 - R_i^*$ (i.e., the portion of the resource pool available
441 to it; Appendix S6). The second component is a resource-independent quantity a_{ij} (Box 3),
442 which measures the overall effect of one species on another through interference and
443 monopolization of resources. Accordingly, as Letten, Ke, et al. (2017) found in a similar
444 consumer-resource model, niche difference depends only on species traits (equation 15),
445 but fitness difference also depends on total resource level (equation 16). In particular, by
446 bringing the term $(R_0 - R_i^*)/(R_0 - R_j^*)$ closer to unity, increasing total resource level re-
447 duces the importance of species' differences in R^* and can act to equalize fitness differences
448 in this model (Figure 4b, solid line), potentially allowing coexistence (gray region).

449 **Functional coexistence theory: despite coexistence, changing resource level cannot**
450 **drive overyielding** Applying our calculations for niche, fitness, and function, we can
451 predict diversity-function relationships in the mechanistic model. Though each trait affects
452 multiple components (Appendix S6), reflecting a general challenge in working with the
453 components of modern coexistence theory (Barabás et al. 2018; Song et al. 2019), these
454 components offer a considerably simpler picture of coexistence and its consequences.
455 As an example, we calculate the effect of changing total resource level on the system
456 (Figure 4b). As expected, doing so changes the fitness of the competing species (solid
457 curve) but not the niche difference (horizontal dashed lines), driving a shift from the
458 competitive exclusion of species 1 at low resource levels to coexistence or exclusion of
459 species 2 at higher resource levels (Letten, Ke, et al. 2017). However, the system never
460 shows transgressive overyielding (green): because increasing resource level increases a
461 species' intrinsic yield at the same time as its fitness, fitness never becomes higher than the
462 condition imposed by yield imbalance (curved dashed line), preventing the system from
463 entering the region where transgressive overyielding would occur (green). In fact, this is a
464 fully general result for our model (Box 3; formulae in Figure 4b): provided species coexist,
465 transgressive overyielding is determined solely by species' intrinsic traits and varying
466 total resource level cannot overturn the presence/absence of transgressive overyielding
467 (equation 19). In the general terms of our functional coexistence framework, resource level
468 can affect fitness, but its parallel effect on yield keeps the fitness-function relationship
469 fixed.

470 **Identifying biological mechanisms for overyielding** We have shown that functional
471 coexistence theory provides a useful tool for predicting the outcome of the resource compe-
472 tition model. Going one step further, we highlight that it also clarifies the actual biological
473 mechanisms for these outcomes. For instance, an extensive body of work (Fridley 2002;
474 Godoy, Gómez-Aparicio, et al. 2020; Ratcliffe et al. 2017; Turnbull et al. 2013; Q.-G. Zhang
475 and D.-Y. Zhang 2006) has sought to identify whether changes in resource limitation can
476 explain variation in diversity–function relationships. However, our model suggests that
477 resource limitation alone cannot change the relationship between fitness and intrinsic yield
478 unless other forms of competition also change (i.e., our model’s β_{ij}). Thus, we suggest that
479 contrasting findings regarding the effect of resource gradients on diversity–function rela-
480 tionships can be reconciled by understanding that these results reflect changes in the nature
481 of competition, which may be system specific, rather than some general effect of resource
482 limitation itself. Meanwhile, another classic question from the biodiversity–ecosystem
483 function literature concerns the apparent rarity of transgressive overyielding (Schmid et al.
484 2008), especially given theoretical expectations that the general condition should not be
485 highly restrictive: higher functioning species should be more limited by conspecific than
486 by heterospecific competitors (Loreau 2004). Translating the condition in our model to
487 specific conditions on species traits (equation 19), we identify one potential mechanistic
488 explanation: the same traits that confer high intrinsic yield (e.g., low sensitivity to conspe-
489 cific interference β_{ii} and high resource use efficiency ε_i) tend to make species less limited
490 by conspecifics (e.g., b_{ii} and the left-hand side of equation 19).

491 **4.2 Explaining productivity in a classic plant competition experiment**

492 In order to demonstrate how functional coexistence theory can help integrate theory and
493 experiment, we test the theoretical predictions of our resource competition model by
494 fitting our resource competition model to biomass data from an experiment quantifying
495 plant competition across a soil nitrogen gradient (Figure 5). Working in an extensively
496 studied grassland system (Cedar Creek, Minnesota, USA), the classic study of Wedin and
497 Tilman (1993) competed four pairs of grass species while experimentally manipulating
498 soil nitrogen, the nutrient shown to limit productivity in this system. We selected this
499 study because it directly manipulated limiting resources (corresponding to R_0 in our
500 model); furthermore, extensive mechanistic data collected by the authors alongside their
501 competition experiment provide an opportunity to validate our biological inferences. We
502 applied the functional coexistence framework to investigate overyielding between the
503 only species pair that showed robust coexistence: the grasses *Poa pratensis* and *Agropyron*

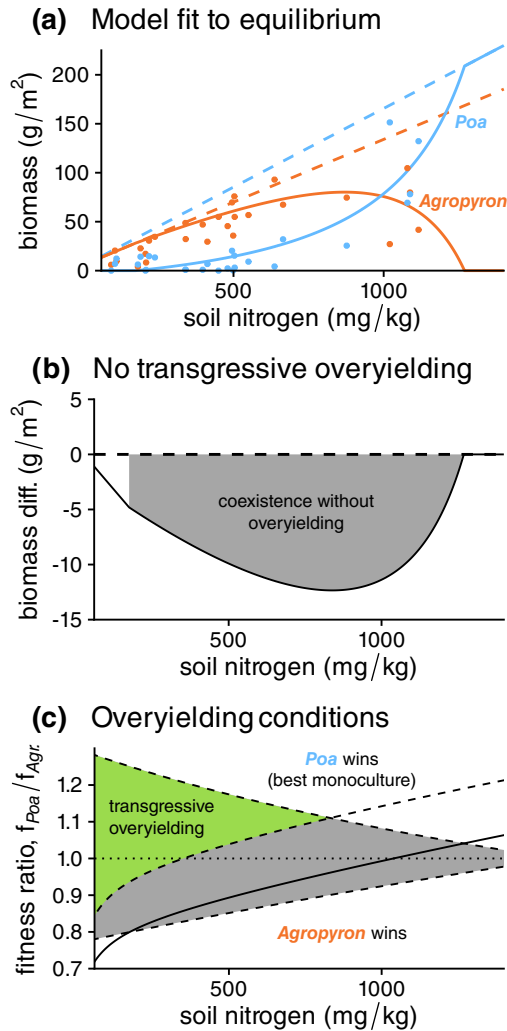


Figure 5: Applying functional coexistence theory to a plant competition experiment. We parameterize our resource competition model and identify drivers of pairwise community biomass using experimental data: Wedin and Tilman (1993) competed two grass species, *Poa pratensis* and *Agropyron repens*, across a soil nitrogen gradient (horizontal axis, all panels). Detailed methods are given in Appendix S7. **(a) Fitting the resource competition model.** After determining R^* and monoculture biomass of *Poa* (blue dashed line) and *Agropyron* (orange dashed line) from single-species growth, we fit our model to the plot-level equilibrium biomass of each species (points) across the soil nitrogen gradient. Model predictions (solid lines) capture the shift between *Agropyron* and *Poa* as nitrogen increases. **(b) Competitive effect on yield.** Using the fitted parameters, we calculate the equilibrium of the pairwise community and quantified transgressive overyielding (black line) as the difference between the community's biomass and that of its highest yielding species (*Poa*); we shade the portion of this curve where the outcome was coexistence without transgressive overyielding (gray). **(c) Niche and fitness components.** We show the predictions of functional coexistence theory for this system, calculating the range of fitness ratios (vertical axis) that would allow transgressive overyielding (green) or just coexistence (gray) across the nitrogen gradient. The solid line shows the actual fitness ratio between the species; the dashed lines show the three boundaries as in Figure 4b.

504 *repens*. Using measurements of the species' biomass production in monocultures, we first
505 parameterized each species' R^* and the resource-independent intraspecific interaction
506 parameter b_{ii} ; next, since detailed time series data was not available, we fit the resource-
507 independent interspecific interaction parameter b_{ij} to biomass in competition treatments.
508 We then used the fitted parameters to quantify transgressive overyielding and the niche,
509 fitness, and function measures (Figure 5; full methods and parameter fits in Appendix S7).

510 **Resource model captures yield and competitive outcomes** The model provided a close
511 fit to monoculture yields, showing that *Poa* had higher yield than *Agropyron* (Figure 5a,
512 dashed lines; Supplemental Figure S7.1), and that increasing nitrogen availability amplified
513 this difference; however, species differed little in R^* (Supplemental Table S7.1). Model
514 fits successfully predicted changes in competition biomass along the nitrogen gradient
515 (Figure 5a, solid lines), though we found evidence that *Poa*'s sensitivity to competition from
516 *Agropyron* ($a_{Poa,Agr.}$) intensified with increasing nitrogen (Supplemental Figure S7.2), a de-
517 parture from the theoretical derivation in Box 3. Following observed shifts in biomass with
518 increasing nitrogen, our model predicts a shift from competitive exclusion by *Agropyron* to
519 coexistence with increasing dominance by *Poa*. However, this competitive shift towards
520 the higher yielding species did not enable transgressive overyielding at any nitrogen
521 level (Figure 5b).

522 **Explaining lack of overyielding using functional coexistence theory** We explain this
523 finding using the functional coexistence components in Figure 5c, which visualizes the
524 fitness ratios enabling coexistence (gray) and transgressive overyielding (green) across the
525 nitrogen gradient. The competitive shift was explained by an equalizing effect of resource
526 availability: higher soil nitrogen increased the fitness ratio in favor of *Poa* (Figure 5c,
527 solid line). While stabilizing niche differences would have been sufficient for transgres-
528 sive overyielding at low nitrogen (green region; < ca. 700 mg/kg), the fitness-function
529 relationship was far from optimal: the higher yielding *Poa* was competitively inferior
530 under these conditions (solid line). Although increasing nitrogen favored *Poa*, it simultane-
531 ously amplified imbalance in the species' intrinsic yields, thus decreasing the potential
532 for overyielding (vertical distance of the green region). This closely corresponds to the
533 predictions by our theoretical analysis (as simulated in Figure 4b): varying soil nitrogen
534 did not change the relationship between actual fitness and the overyielding boundary
535 (solid and dashed curved lines). We therefore conclude that at Cedar Creek, *Poa* lacks the
536 excess niche difference and fitness advantage which would have allowed transgressive
537 overyielding when it competes with *Agropyron*.

538 Complementing the insights available from other methodologies (e.g., selection and
539 complementarity: Supplemental Figure S7.3), our functional coexistence analysis clarifies
540 how competitive processes underpin the lack of transgressive overyielding in this system.
541 Indeed, the mechanistic measurements from Wedin and Tilman (1993) indicated high
542 similarity between *Poa* and *Agropyron*, both in terms of R^* (independently estimated by
543 measuring ability to draw down soil nitrogen) and in resource use traits, providing ecolog-
544 ical context for our finding that the system lacked the excess niche difference required for
545 transgressive overyielding. Furthermore, though the dataset did not allow us to directly
546 fit underlying resource use parameters, the authors' independent finding that the species
547 had a similar ability to draw down soil nitrogen corroborates our model's R^* fits. This
548 suggests that differences in intrinsic yield may have been driven by *Poa* experiencing
549 less self-limitation from other factors (corresponding to lower $\beta_{Poa,Poa}$), or by it producing
550 more biomass from available nitrogen (higher ε_{Poa}), both of which we predicted should
551 prevent transgressive overyielding (equation 19). Thus, we highlight that, in tandem with
552 manipulative experiments, our functional coexistence approach can identify the biological
553 mechanisms responsible for changes in community function.

544 **5 Beyond classic theory: applying functional coexistence** 555 **theory to multiple functions and species**

556 Thanks to conceptual synthesis within each field, literature on diversity–function rela-
557 tionships and on coexistence has addressed increasingly sophisticated questions. By
558 integrating these two fields, our functional coexistence framework is also poised to address
559 these contemporary research questions. Accordingly, we show that, because it explicitly
560 predicts how competition affects individual species, functional coexistence theory can be
561 applied to understand drivers of ecosystem multifunctionality (subsection “Highlighting
562 the importance of niche difference for multifunctionality”). Meanwhile, we show that
563 the niche, fitness, and productivity components we investigated in the pairwise case also
564 provide information on function in multispecies communities, highlighting its potential
565 as a unifying theory for biodiversity studies (subsection “Niche, fitness, and function in
566 multispecies communities”)

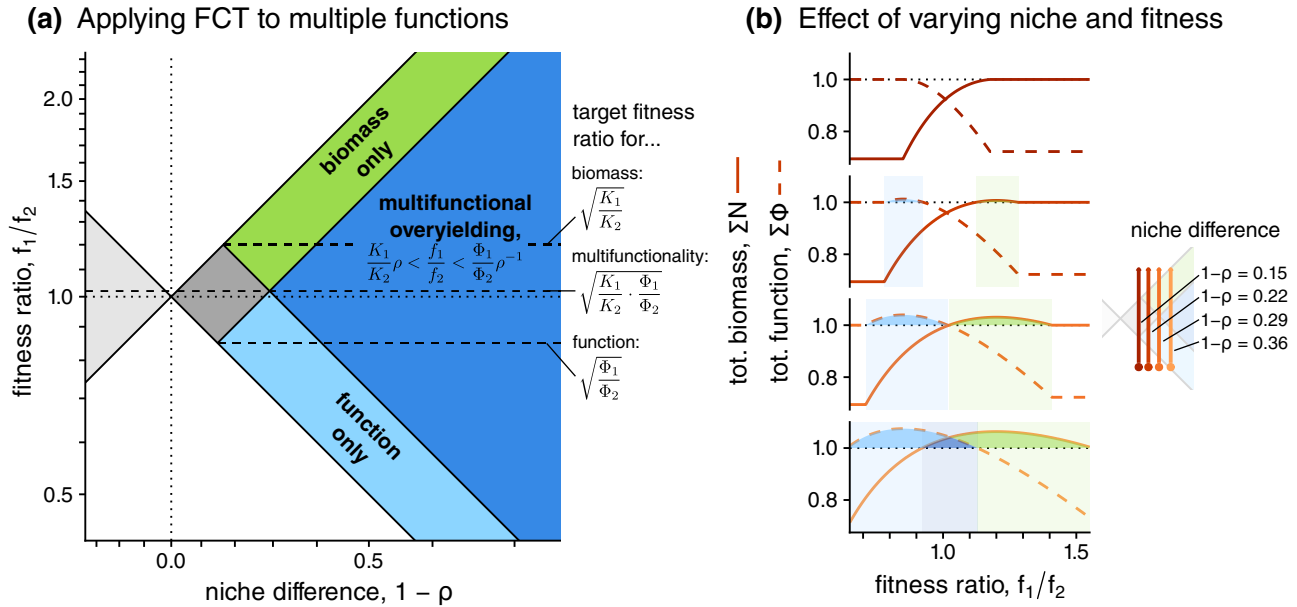


Figure 6: Applying the framework to multiple ecosystem functions. Using the same parameter values as Figures 1–2, we also allow the species to differ in a second function such that $\Phi_1/\Phi_2 = 0.72/1$, favoring species 2, as opposed to biomass where species 1 has higher intrinsic yield ($K_1/K_2 = 1/0.694$). **(a) Applying functional coexistence theory to predict multiple functions.** As in Figure 2a, we show niche–fitness combinations where species coexist without showing transgressive overyielding (dark gray region) and where species transgressively overyield in terms of biomass (green). We additionally show the new possibilities when considering a second function: transgressive overyielding in terms of that function only (light blue) or simultaneously for both functions (dark blue). We also indicate the target fitness ratio values for each form of overyielding, as derived in Appendix S1. **(b) Effect of varying niche difference and fitness ratio.** Each subpanel shows the effect of fitness ratio (horizontal axis) on biomass (solid line) and function (dashed line) under different values of niche difference, also indicated by line color; the inset shows values of niche difference and trajectories in the niche–fitness space. At lower niche differences, only one form of transgressive overyielding is possible (light blue or green shading), but at the highest niche difference, the community can simultaneously overyield in terms of both functions (dark blue shading). See Appendix S9 for parameter values.

567 **5.1 Highlighting the importance of niche difference for multifunction-** 568 **ality**

569 Though our derivations and examples focus on processes promoting biomass production,
570 we stress that the results of functional coexistence theory can apply to any ecosystem
571 function (e.g., nutrient cycling: Godoy, Gómez-Aparicio, et al. 2020 or other ecosystem
572 services: Hooper, Chapin III, et al. 2005), as we prove in Appendix S8. Moreover, going
573 beyond previous approaches, functional coexistence theory can consider these functions
574 simultaneously, allowing it to address an emerging synthesis considering biodiversity's
575 effect on *multifunctionality*, the ability for ecosystems to maintain multiple processes or
576 services (Hector and Bagchi 2007). Accordingly, we apply our results to emphasize that just
577 as it promotes individual functions, niche difference is also indispensable for ecosystem
578 multifunctionality. To show this, we begin by noting that since equation 4 for species'
579 biomass contributions to the community can be multiplied by function per unit biomass at
580 equilibrium φ_i to obtain functional contribution, the quantitative results of the framework
581 can be generalized by considering $\Phi_i = K_i \cdot \varphi_i$ instead of K_i . Under the assumption that
582 function per unit biomass is constant, Φ_i is simply a species' intrinsic yield *in terms of*
583 *function*, instead of *biomass* yield.

584 With this extension, we can now consider conditions for simultaneous overyielding. In
585 Figure 6, we add a second function (e.g., litter decomposition) to our biomass simulations
586 (Figures 1–2) and consider the conditions promoting transgressive overyielding for both
587 functions. In particular, we consider the case where the species follow a tradeoff between
588 the two functions: in isolation, species 1 produces more biomass but species 2 has a higher
589 level of the other function ($K_1/K_2 > 1$, but $\Phi_1/\Phi_2 < 1$). Accordingly, each function is
590 maximized at a different fitness ratio (Figure 6a). Nonetheless, stabilization and equaliza-
591 tion remain important for multifunctionality: though Figure 6b shows that lower niche
592 difference values ($1 - \rho = 0.15$ to 0.29) only allowed transgressive overyielding for one
593 function that corresponds to the competitively dominant species, higher niche difference
594 ($1 - \rho = 0.36$) allowed simultaneous transgressive overyielding for both functions. Put
595 conceptually, since competitive outcomes favor functions associated with fitter species,
596 communities may display the same functional tradeoffs as their component species. How-
597 ever, niche differences in excess of those required for coexistence can overcome these
598 tradeoffs, allowing communities to outperform individual species across multiple func-
599 tions.

600 Though it has been suggested that communities consisting of species performing
601 different functions should show multifunctionality (Hector and Bagchi 2007), functional

602 coexistence theory shows that this depends on stabilization and equalization between these
603 species. Our more general theoretical analysis (summarized for two functions in Figure 6a
604 and given in full in Appendix S8) clarifies that outcomes depend on the pair of functions
605 showing the strongest tradeoff (i.e., with the most dissimilar yield ratios): the stronger
606 the tradeoff between functions, the more stabilization is required for multifunctionality.
607 More specifically, transgressive overyielding for multiple functions is possible when niche
608 differences provide strong enough stabilization to overcome this dissimilarity, and when
609 the fitness ratio is sufficiently equalized (i.e., close enough to the geometric mean of these
610 two yield ratios). Indeed, in an experimental test of the relationship between coexistence
611 components and multiple ecosystem functions, Godoy, Gómez-Aparicio, et al. (2020) found
612 that high niche difference and similarity in fitness increased both biomass production and
613 litter decomposition rate in diverse plant communities, emphasizing the importance of
614 excess niche difference for multifunctionality. Agreeing with these empirical findings, our
615 results shed light on the general importance of stabilization and equalization for ecosystem
616 function.

617 **5.2 Niche, fitness, and function in multispecies communities**

618 Previous debates (Loreau, Sapijanskas, et al. 2012) have highlighted a key limitation of
619 modern coexistence theory for understanding biodiversity effects: typically, the theory has
620 focused on small communities, in contrast to the larger numbers of species considered
621 in many biodiversity experiments (Hooper, Chapin III, et al. 2005) and in real systems.
622 Fortunately, recent theory increasingly provides tools for understanding the maintenance
623 of diversity in multispecies communities (Barbier, Arnoldi, et al. 2018; Saavedra et al.
624 2017). We suggest that synthesizing functional coexistence theory with these emerging
625 frameworks may allow it to address these questions. As a motivating case study, we show
626 that our pairwise metrics also predict total function in multispecies communities.

627 In Figure 7, we simulate the resource interference model from Box 3 for $n = 20$ species,
628 starting with a reference community where each mechanistic trait was drawn from a
629 random distribution (starred points; parameter values in Appendix S9). To investigate
630 the role of our functional coexistence components, we varied the interspecific interference
631 parameter β_{ij} in order to vary the median niche difference (i.e., stabilization; Figure 7a)
632 or median fitness advantage of the higher yielding species (fitness–function relationship;
633 Figure 7b). Additionally, we manipulated functional equalization (Figure 7c) by varying
634 the β_{ii} to change the range of intrinsic productivities in the system, while keeping the
635 maximum fixed (since it is the reference point for transgressive overyielding). Detailed

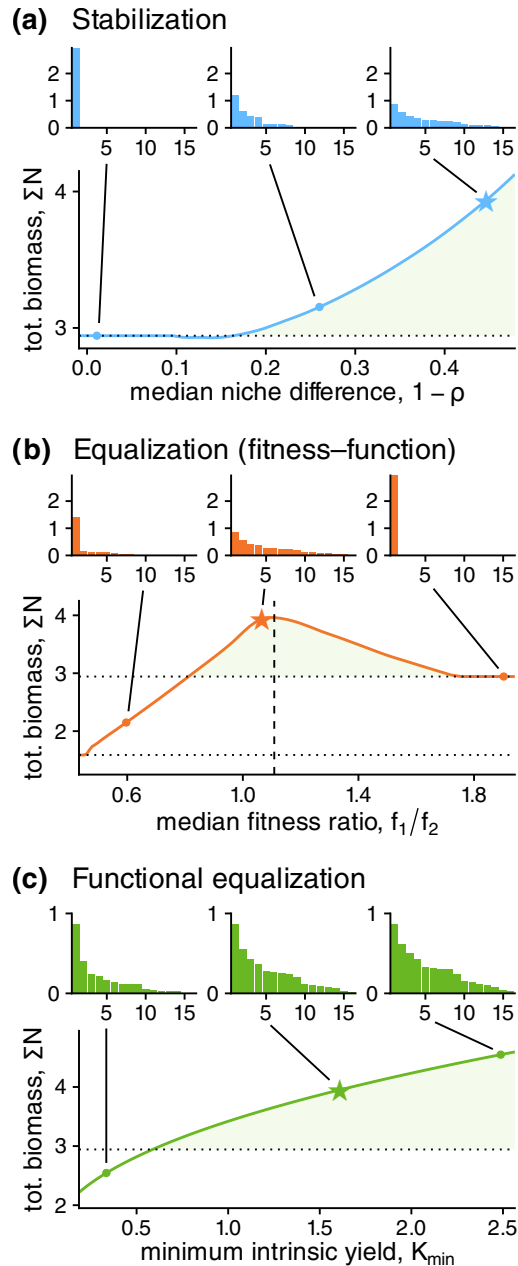


Figure 7: Functional coexistence components in multispecies communities. We consider a multispecies community ($n = 20$) under the mechanistic resource competition model in Box 3, with traits randomly drawn from statistical distributions (details in Appendix S9). Starting from this reference community, we vary the interference terms β_{ij} in order to manipulate **(a) stabilization**, i.e. the median pairwise niche difference, **(b) fitness–function relationship**, i.e. the median pairwise fitness ratio for a higher yielding species versus its competitor, or **(c) functional equalization**, i.e. the minimum intrinsic yield. Each main panel shows the total biomass of the community as the strength of the component is varied; the green region highlights transgressive overyielding (relative to the highest yielding monoculture, indicated with a dotted line). For each scenario, we show the community’s rank abundance curve (i.e., plotting species rank on the horizontal axis against abundance on the vertical axis) for three representative points. We indicate the reference community, which is the same in all three panels, with a star.

636 methods for these manipulations are given in Appendix S9.

637 We quantified the effect of each process on equilibrium community structure (rank
638 abundance curves shown in insets) and transgressive overyielding (green shaded areas
639 in main panels). Stabilization played a similar role in the two-species and multispecies
640 models (Figure 7a). Sufficient niche difference was required for species coexistence (panel
641 a), but just as in the two-species case, values just enough to enable coexistence actually
642 slightly decreased total biomass (more clearly visualized in Supplemental Figure S9.2).
643 Nonetheless, as before, further stabilization was able to create transgressive overyielding
644 (point 3). Meanwhile, we also confirmed the effects of the fitness–function relationship
645 (Figure 7b). The traits in our reference model (point 2) created a positive fitness–function
646 relationship for most species pairs (Supplemental Figure S9.1), allowing overyielding.
647 Slightly increasing pairwise fitness ratios in favor of more productive species (dashed line:
648 median $f_1/f_2 = 1.10$) resulted in the highest total biomass. Meanwhile, more imbalanced
649 fitness ratios resulted in the extinction of species from the system and reduced total
650 biomass (points 1 and 3), resulting in competitive dominance by the lowest or highest
651 yielding species. Finally, we found an analogous role for functional equalization (Figure 7c):
652 bringing the minimum intrinsic yield (horizontal axis) closer to the maximum (horizontal
653 dashed line) allowed transgressive overyielding in the system; we also confirmed this
654 was the case when the median, not the maximum, intrinsic yield was kept constant
655 (Supplemental Figure S9.4).

656 These results confirm the close link between coexistence and total function, and suggest
657 that the measures predicting transgressive yielding in two-species systems also provide
658 useful context for understanding multispecies systems. Indeed, there was approximate
659 quantitative correspondence between pairwise metrics and multispecies outcomes: for
660 instance, in the equalizing scenario (Figure 7b), coexistence of two or more species occurred
661 when pairwise fitness was approximately within the range determined by median niche
662 difference (Supplemental Figure S9.3) and total biomass was optimized near the value
663 predicted from median pairwise yield ratio (median $\sqrt{K_1/K_2} = 1.08$; Supplemental Fig-
664 ure S9.1). This finding broadly agrees with other studies finding correspondence between
665 pairwise modern coexistence theory measures and overall community outcomes (Advani
666 et al. 2018; Carroll et al. 2011; Godoy, Gómez-Aparicio, et al. 2020). Like Carroll et al.
667 (2011), who provided a similar multispecies analysis using the non-mechanistic Lotka–
668 Volterra model, we emphasize the importance of stabilization for promoting overyielding;
669 addressing the critique of Loreau, Sapijanskas, et al. (2012), we also clarify the importance
670 of role of fitness and productivity variation, which were not considered there.

671 Despite the insight offered by functional coexistence theory into the results of our

672 multispecies simulations, we caution that the calculations presented here do not yet offer a
673 quantitative framework directly predicting multispecies yield as it does in the two-species
674 case. Nonetheless, the pairwise theory may offer a valuable starting point from which
675 recently developed multispecies theory can build (Advani et al. 2018; Barbier and Arnoldi
676 2017; Saavedra et al. 2017). Indeed, our pairwise result that competitive fitness and intrinsic
677 yield jointly predict species' contributions to the community (i.e., equation 4) also holds
678 approximately for these simulations (Supplemental Figure S9.5), as it does for several
679 theoretical multispecies models (Advani et al. 2018; Gibbs et al. 2022). Accordingly, we
680 anticipate a growing role for multispecies theories of species coexistence in providing a
681 predictive quantitative synthesis between community ecology and ecosystem function.

682 **6 Conclusion: towards mechanistic understanding of biodi-** 683 **versity–function relationships**

684 By showing fundamental links between modern coexistence theory and ecosystem func-
685 tion, our findings link community and ecosystem processes. We show that a simple
686 condition predicts when coexistence increases the total function of a community: species
687 must experience niche differences and fitness advantages in excess of those required for
688 coexistence. Thus, our theoretical framework, which we term functional coexistence the-
689 ory, explicitly identifies three processes that explain biodiversity–function relationships:
690 stabilizing niche differences, fitness–function relationships, and functional equalization,
691 which we demonstrate can be applied to mechanistic models and experimental data, and
692 to multiple ecosystem functions and species.

693 By demonstrating the compatibility of the components of modern coexistence theory
694 with the additive partition from the biodiversity–ecosystem function literature, our work
695 adds to a growing shift from particular metrics to a focus on the conceptual processes
696 encoded by these metrics (Godwin et al. 2020; Loreau and Hector 2019). For instance,
697 recent work has highlighted that, despite apparent quantitative disagreement, different
698 formulae for the components of modern coexistence theory generally encode shared
699 intuition regarding how biological processes affect species' abilities to persist (Godwin
700 et al. 2020; Spaak, Ke, et al. 2023). Similarly, we found that complementarity measures
701 the same conceptual process as niche difference: reduction in the amount of competition
702 species experience from heterospecifics, quantified using the invasion growth rate (our
703 F_i) as a “common currency” (Box 2, Appendix S5; Grainger et al. 2019). Our findings
704 take advantage of a more general relationship between invasion growth rate and species'

705 contributions to the community (Appendices S1 and S3; Arnoldi et al. 2022; Gibbs et al.
706 2022), which provides a general conceptual foundation for the link between coexistence
707 and function, and allows for further quantitative extensions of the framework.

708 Like modern coexistence theory itself (Godwin et al. 2020), our functional coexistence
709 framework relies on information about competitive processes which may not be available
710 in all systems. Thus, while it offers new insights for testing the hypothesis that coexistence-
711 promoting processes are integral to biodiversity–function relationships, it may not be
712 applicable to the wide range of systems and datasets covered by previous quantitative
713 methods (Bannar-Martin et al. 2018; Fox 2005; Loreau and Hector 2001). Moreover, as
714 previously noted (Loreau, Sapijanskas, et al. 2012), these empirically-motivated methods
715 differ fundamentally in scope from the modern coexistence theory research program and
716 its more theoretical aims: the additive partition, for instance, aims to explain differences
717 observed over the course of a study (which may not correspond to equilibrium dynam-
718 ics; Wagg et al. 2019), while coexistence theory considers an abstractly defined system and
719 its long-term trajectory (i.e., the stable equilibria or attractors of a system; Barabás et al.
720 2018).

721 Nonetheless, we expect that the two approaches will be complementary as considering
722 competition is necessary in order to understand how ecosystem function may change
723 with time or environmental context (Wan and Crowther 2022). To do so, our functional
724 coexistence theory integrates the predictive framework of modern coexistence theory with
725 information regarding differences in species' intrinsic yield (i.e. level of function). Previous
726 work has often cited yield variation as a methodological consideration for biodiversity–
727 function experiments (de Wit 1960; Schmid et al. 2008). However, much as the stabilizing–
728 equalizing framework highlighted differences in fitness as indispensable for predicting
729 coexistence (Adler, HilleRisLambers, et al. 2007), our framework suggests that functional
730 imbalance deserves increased attention in its own right as a predictor of ecosystem function.
731 Furthermore, though it has long been noted that species with higher function in isolation
732 may not perform better under competition (de Wit 1960; Gustafsson 1951; Montgomery
733 1912), our framework's focus on fitness–function relationships highlights the quantitative
734 consequences such tradeoffs have for community function. Thus, as a growing functional
735 paradigm in community and ecosystem ecology highlights (Clark et al. 2018; Treseder
736 and Lennon 2015), identifying tradeoffs between competitive processes and functional
737 outcomes may provide a route towards more generally predicting of ecosystem function.

738 More broadly, we echo recent suggestions that moving forward in biodiversity–function
739 research requires searching for the shared mechanisms that structure both communities
740 and ecosystems (Hooper, Chapin III, et al. 2005; Loreau 2010; Mayor et al. 2024). The

741 framework presented here bridges the questions of biodiversity–function literature with
742 the rich theoretical foundations of the modern coexistence theory literature. Indeed, stud-
743 ies in hundreds of systems have quantified niche and fitness differences (Buche et al. 2022)
744 and attributed them to specific biological mechanisms (e.g., Yan et al. 2022), often finding
745 stabilizing and equalizing forces in excess of the requirements of coexistence (Adler, Ellner,
746 et al. 2010; Buche et al. 2022; Levine and HilleRisLambers 2009). Our framework clarifies
747 that these excesses—Adler, Ellner, et al. (2010)’s “embarrassment of niches”—should work
748 to maximize the total functioning of a community. As empirical work increasingly seeks
749 to identify the specific biological mechanisms driving ecosystem function, the modern
750 coexistence literature can thus offer a valuable starting point (Godoy, Gómez-Aparicio,
751 et al. 2020; Wang et al. 2024). Accordingly, we emphasize the utility of ecological theory for
752 addressing today’s pressing challenges. By integrating established theory from community
753 and ecosystem ecology, we repurpose well-studied tools in order to provide a fundamen-
754 tal understanding of the relationship between coexistence and ecosystem functioning.
755 Adding to a growing synthesis of ecological theory across scales to address anthropogenic
756 environmental change (Mayor et al. 2024; Wan and Crowther 2022), we hope the functional
757 coexistence framework presented here will help build a more predictive understanding of
758 Earth’s ecosystems and their roles in a changing world.

759 **Acknowledgments**

760 We thank Tom W. N. Walker, Marcel van der Heijden, and Jukka Jokela for their comments
761 on the study and for discussions that helped clarify our framing of the project. Additionally,
762 we would like to acknowledge Ching-Lin Huang and Yu-Pei Tseng for feedback that helped
763 us improve the clarity of the manuscript.

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Statements and Declarations

Funding

JW is funded by NTU Directives for Postdoctoral Researcher Subsidies (113L4000-1). PJK is funded by the Taiwan MOE Yushan scholar program (NTU-110VV010) and the Taiwan MOST (111-2621-B-002-001-MY3). IH is funded by ERC Advanced Grant PANTROP (834775). LBM and TWC are funded by DOB Ecology and the Bernina Initiative.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

Author Contributions

JW and TWC conceived the study. JW and IH designed the resource competition model, and JW and PJK designed the remaining analyses with input from all authors. JW wrote analysis code and derived the theoretical results. JW and PJK drafted the manuscript with equal contributions, and all authors contributed to revisions.

Data Availability

No original data were presented in this manuscript. All code and inputs required for the simulations and re-analyses in this manuscript are publicly available at <https://github.com/joe-wan/functional-coexistence-code/>.