A Mechanistically Integrated Model of Exploitative and Interference Competition over a Single Resource Produces Widespread Coexistence

Daniel J.B. Smith[1,2], Joanna Masel[2]

[1]Department of Integrative Biology, University of Texas at Austin, Austin, TX, 78701, USA
[2]Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, University of Arizona, Tucson, Arizona 85721, USA

Corresponding author: Daniel J.B. Smith smithdj4@utexas.edu

ABSTRACT

Many ecological models treat exploitative competition in isolation from interference competition. Corresponding theory centers around the R^* rule, according to which consumers who share a single limiting resource cannot coexist. Here we model motile consumers that directly interfere while handling resources, mechanistically capturing both exploitative and interference competition. Our analytical coexistence conditions show that interference competition readily promotes coexistence. In contrast to previous theory, coexistence does not require intra-specific interference propensities to exceed inter-specific interference propensities, nor for interference behaviors to carry a direct (rather than merely an opportunity) cost. The underlying mechanism of coexistence can resemble the hawk-dove game, the dominance-discovery trade-off (akin to the competition-colonization trade-off), or a novel trade-off we call the "dove-discovery trade-off", depending on parameter values. Competitive exclusion via the R^* rule occurs only when differences in exploitative abilities swamp other differences between species, and more easily when differences in R^* reflect different search speeds than when they reflect different handling times. Our model provides a mathematically tractable framework that integrates exploitative and interference competition, and synthesizes previous disparate models.

INTRODUCTION

The R^* rule (Armstrong and McGehee 1980; Tilman 1981; Tilman 1982) is a fundamental building block of theoretical ecology. Briefly, R^* theory equates the competitive ability of a focal species or genotype with its ability to deplete a limiting resource. Consider one species consuming a single limiting resource. The consumer's population grows until it depletes the resource concentration (R) down to the level (R^*) at which its growth stops. A species or genotype is predicted to exclude any competitors with higher R^*, because it drives the resource level too low for others to persist – this is referred to as the R^* rule.

R^* theory and the R^* rule thus focus on *exploitative competition*, in which consumers compete indirectly through shared use of a depletable resource (either biotic or abiotic). This emphasis on exploitation has often neglected *interference competition*, i.e. direct interactions between individuals at the same trophic level, via behavioral contests or chemical inhibition. Interference competition is common in natural communities (Boynton 2019; DeLong and Vasseur 2011; Drury et al. 2020; García-Bayona and Comstock 2018; Grether et al. 2017; Inderjit et al. 2011; Leighton et al. 2024; Schoener 1983; Ziv et al. 1993; Ziv and Kotler 2003) but is rarely emphasized in coexistence theory. For example, otherwise wide-ranging reviews of coexistence theory, replete with discussions of resource exploitation/partitioning and predation, lack a single direct mention of interference competition (e.g. Adler et al. 2013; Barabás et al. 2018; Chesson 2018; Letten et al. 2017). While informal, this reflects a lack of emphasis on interference.

Several previous models that highlight interference competition use phenomenological terms to summarize the strengths of intra-specific (or intra-type) and inter-specific (or inter-type) interference (Case and Gilpin 1974; Hsu 1982; Kishi and Nakazawa 2013; Schoener 1976; Schoener 1978; Vance 1984). These studies broadly conclude that interference can promote coexistence if intra-specific interference exceeds inter-specific

interference, but further insight is limited by the phenomenological nature of both terms.

Moreover, these studies generally model resources implicitly or non-dynamically, making

them incommensurable with R^* theory.

Amarasekare (2002) incorporates both resource dynamics and interference

competition to produce an R^*-related analysis of species coexistence. Amarasekare (2002)

concludes that interference competition can only maintain coexistence when one consumer

species engages in a interference mechanism that brings direct benefits to themselves, such as

intraguild predation or parasitism, while the second consumer is superior at exploitation.

Amarasekare (2002) explicitly argues that contests over resources that instead bear direct

costs (for which she explicitly lists food items or territories as examples) cannot promote

coexistence. Interpreting what is in its most direct effects a "beneficial" vs. a "costly"

interference mechanism is made more difficult by the fact that Amarasekare (2002) continues

the phenomenological tradition for modeling interference competition via Lotka-Volterra-like

competition coefficients, on top of a typical consumer-resource model. We do, however, note

that she models only inter-specific interference.

In contrast, in the hawk-dove game (Maynard Smith 1974; Maynard Smith 1982;

Maynard Smith and Price 1973), interference does promote coexistence. "Doves" abstain

from, while "hawks" participate in, contests (i.e., interference competition) for access to a

shared, implicitly modeled resource. Obtaining a resource yields benefit b, and losing a

contest yields cost c. When a hawk within a hawk-only population incurs more cost than

benefit from interference ($c/b > 1$), a dove that forgoes interference can invade, enabling

coexistence. This hawk-hawk interference does not occur in the model of Amarasekare

(2002), which corresponds to modeling hawk-dove interactions but not hawk-hawk nor dove-

dove interactions. We also note that hawk-dove coexistence does not require co-evolution as

in Grether and Okamoto (2022) (i.e., hawks and doves can coexist when each of the two

strategies is unchanging over time).

Surprisingly, the mechanistic insights from the hawk-dove game into how resource

interference shapes coexistence have not been fully incorporated into resource competition

theory. Several models incorporate hawk-dove-like dynamics into ecological models but,

because they continue the hawk-dove tradition of treating resources implicitly (e.g., Auger et

al. 1998; Moussaoui et al. 2014) cannot provide insights into resource competition. Other

models have incorporated explicit consumer-resource dynamics into the hawk-dove game by

having searching consumers interfere with resource handlers (Auger et al. 2006; Galanthay et

al. 2023; Kooi 2015; Křivan et al. 2018). However, these models have so far neglected

differences in exploitative abilities (e.g., search rates, handling times), and results were not

contextualized within R^* theory. Kuang (2003) and McPeek (2012) show that incorporating

intra-specific density-dependent terms (akin to hawk-hawk interference) into a consumer-

resource model can permit coexistence of species with different R^*s. However, the

phenomenological nature of these terms decouples interference from resource use (unlike the

hawk-dove game).

Here we consider mechanisms by which exploitation and interference interact. A

consumer's R^* is affected by its search rate (how quickly it encounters resources) and

handling time (how long it takes to utilize resources). Search and handling also affect

interference over resources. Specifically, long handling provides more vulnerability to

disruption by interference, and a faster searching consumer can initiate more contests.

Within ecological theory, the dominance-discovery trade-off offers mechanistic

insights into how interference can facilitate coexistence. The theory, describing a trade-off

between colonizing resource-rich patches (exploitation), and displacing heterospecifics from

patches (interference), was developed for ants, and seems to be used only in that context

(Adler et al. 2007; Davidson 1998; Fellers 1987; Holway 1999; Van Oudenhove et al. 2018).

Unlike consumer-resource models with phenomenological interference interaction terms

(e.g., Amarasekare 2002; Kuang et al. 2003) dominance-discovery models incorporate a

mechanism of interference (resource use disruption). The better known competition-

colonization trade-off (Hastings 1980; Horn and MacArthur 1972; Skellam 1951; Tilman

1994) is formally similar to the dominance-discovery trade-off, but inferior competitors are

interpreted as being displaced via locally superior exploitation (i.e. a per-patch version of the

R^* rule), rather than by interference that disrupts resource use. Key results on the

competition-colonization trade-off also apply to the dominance-discovery trade-off, because

of the formal similarity between the models.

While both the dominance-discovery trade-off and the hawk-dove game describe

interference/contests over a shared resource, they achieve coexistence in qualitatively

different ways. In the hawk-dove game, interference bears a direct fitness cost (c) that trades

off with the benefits of interference (b). Hawks and doves have identical exploitative ability

(e.g. Galanthay et al. 2023; Maynard Smith 1982). In contrast, dominance-discovery has

interference (contest-winning) ability trade off with exploitative (resource-discovery) ability

(Adler et al. 2007; Van Oudenhove et al. 2018). Interference is not costly in these models

beyond the trade-off in abilities. Rather, when one consumer encounters another handling a

resource, a contest occurs, and the winner reaps the benefit of stealing the resource without

incurring a potential cost. No existing theory unites the alternative interference-mediated

coexistence mechanisms outlined by hawk-dove and dominance-discovery models.

We develop a model of motile consumers that mechanistically treats both exploitative

and interference competition for an explicitly modeled resource. This unifies a continuum of

mechanisms that, depending on parameter values, may resemble the R^* rule, the hawk-dove

game, the dominance-discovery trade-off, or a novel coexistence mechanism that we call the

"dove-discovery" trade-off. We explore which parameter values lead to which regime, when

interference-exploitation trade-offs enable coexistence, and whether the R^* ratio for

competing species (or genotypes) is a reliable metric of competitive success given the

possibility of interference.

METHODS

Model

135   We extend a typical consumer-resource model to incorporate consumer-consumer

136 interference competition over a single shared resource. We consider the following set of

137 differential equations for a two consumer system:

138
$$\frac{dS_i}{dt} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{\tau_i}(1+e)H_i}_{\substack{\text{Handler } i \text{ grows / reproduces} \\ \text{and reinstates search} \\ \text{after consuming resource}}} + \underbrace{2\beta_i C_{ii}}_{\substack{\text{One of two} \\ i \text{ Contestants} \\ \text{gives up}}} + \underbrace{\beta_i(C_{ij}+C_{ji})}_{\substack{\text{Contestant } i \text{ gives} \\ \text{up against } j}} \underbrace{-m_i S_i}_{\substack{\text{Base} \\ \text{Mortality}}} - \underbrace{a_i S_i \sum_{j=1}^{2} H_j}_{\substack{\text{Searcher } i \\ \text{initiates contest}}}$$

139
$$- \underbrace{a_i S_i R}_{\substack{\text{Searcher } i \\ \text{finds unconstested} \\ \text{Resource}}}$$

140
$$\frac{dH_i}{dt} = \underbrace{a_i S_i R}_{\substack{\text{Searcher } i \\ \text{finds unconstested} \\ \text{Resource}}} + \underbrace{(2\beta_i + 2m_i + 2m_{Ci})C_{ii}}_{\substack{\text{One of two} \\ i \text{ Contestants} \\ \text{wins}}} + \underbrace{(\beta_j + m_j + m_{Cj})(C_{ij}+C_{ji})}_{\text{Contestant } i \text{ wins against } j} - \underbrace{m_i H_i}_{\substack{\text{Base} \\ \text{Mortality}}}$$

141
$$- \underbrace{H_i/\tau_i}_{\text{Consumption}} - \underbrace{H_i \sum_{j=1}^{2} a_j S_j}_{\substack{\text{New Contest} \\ \text{interrupts Handling}}}$$

142
$$\frac{dC_{ii}}{dt} = \underbrace{a_i S_i H_i}_{\substack{\text{Begin} \\ \text{Contest}}} - \underbrace{(2\beta_i + 2m_i + 2m_{Ci})C_{ii}}_{\text{End contest}} \tag{1}$$

143
$$\frac{dC_{\{ij\}}}{dt} = \underbrace{a_j S_j H_i + a_i S_i H_j}_{\substack{\text{Begin} \\ \text{Contest}}} - \underbrace{C_{ij}\left(\beta_i + \beta_j + m_i + m_j + m_{Ci} + m_{Cj}\right)}_{\text{End Contest}}$$

144
$$\frac{dR}{dt} = \underbrace{f(R)}_{\substack{\text{Resource} \\ \text{growth}}} - \underbrace{R\sum_{j=1}^{2} a_j S_j}_{\substack{\text{Consumer} \\ \text{acquires} \\ \text{Resource}}} + \underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^{2} m_j H_j}_{\substack{\text{Resource released when} \\ \text{Handling consume dies}}}$$

where $i = 1,2, j = 1,2, i \neq j$. While seemingly complex, the system of equations in (1)

straightforwardly describes mass action kinetics (i.e. approximating exponential distributions

of waiting times by using continuous, additive rates) that are most easily understood through

inspection of Fig. 1. Consumer types i and j could either be different species, or different

variants of a single polymorphic species.

Exploitation is shown in the green/left oval of Figure 1. Searching consumers S_i of

type i find Resources R at rate a_i and begin to handle them once encountered. Handlers H_i

consume resources at rate $1/\tau_i$ (Figure 1, right). We refer to τ as "handling time," although

we note that it differs from the transformed handling time (h) traditionally used in ecological

models with a type II functional response ($aR/(1 + ahR)$; Holling 1959) where h is a

composite parameter formally derived by splitting consumers into searching and handling

state variables and performing a separation of timescales (Huisman and De Boer 1997; Real

1977). Reproduction is proportional to resource consumption $e_i H_i/\tau_i$, with e_i as a conversion

factor.

Consumers die at base rate m_i, elevated by m_{Ci} during contests (see below). We treat

resources as discrete, such that τ specifies the probability that a resource is 0% vs 100%

consumed, rather than the degree to which a resource is consumed. When a consumer dies

while handling a resource, the resource returns to the resource pool (i.e., at rate $m_i H_i$; Fig. 1,

curved arrow below green/left oval).

Fig. 1: Model schema. Variables are in upper case, parameters in lower. Full dynamics of consumer i are shown; those of consumer j are symmetric and truncated from the lower portion of the figure for simplicity; Supplementary Figure I1 is not truncated. In green, Resources and type i Searchers ($R + S_i$) combine to form a Handler (H_i). Handlers of type i combine with Searchers (S_i or S_j) to form C_{ii} (blue) or $C_{\{ij\}} = C_{ij} + C_{ji}$ (peach) Contesting pairs, respectively. Rates are denoted as search a, base mortality m, additional mortality from contests m_C, giving up on contests β, and handling $1/\tau$.

Interference is shown in the blue and peach ovals of Figure 1. Contests begin when a Searcher encounters a Handler. C_{ii} represents the number of within-type contests of type i (Fig. 1, blue), and $C_{\{ij\}} = C_{ij} + C_{ji}$ ($j \neq i$) represents the number of between-type contests

(Fig. 1, peach). Future extensions might distinguish C_{ij}, in which type i found the resource

first, from C_{ji}, but we assume they are equivalent. Conflicts resolve either when a consumer

gives up at rate β_i, or dies at rate $m_i + m_{Ci}$. Because each unit of C_{ii} contains two individuals

of type i, victors re-enter the handling state at rate $(2\beta_i + 2m_i + 2m_{Ci})C_{ii}$. The losers

similarly re-enter the searching state at rate $2\beta_i C_{ii}$. $C_{\{ij\}}$ resolves into a type i victory at rate

$(\beta_j + m_j + m_{Cj})C_{\{ij\}}$, with losers of type i re-entering the searching state at rate $\beta_i C_{\{ij\}}$.

Intra-type interference propensity would exceed inter-type interference if type i gave

up more slowly against i than against j. We avoid this assumption, which is known to easily

produce coexistence (Vance 1984), by making giving up rates β_i depend only on the focal

type i and not on the opponent type j. Similarly, contest initiation occurs whenever a

Searcher encounters a Handler, regardless of their type.

Resource R grows according to a saturating function $f(R)$. We assume $f(R) =$

$r(K - R)$, representing a spontaneously regenerating consumable resource. We consider this

functional form because it avoids limit cycles in the 1-consumer-1-resource case

(Supplementary Materials A), which is not the case for a biological resource exhibiting

logistic growth (i.e. $f(R) = rR(1 - R/K)$) (Johnson and Amarasekare 2015; Rosenzweig

1971). The lack of oscillations simplifies our coexistence analyses, because oscillations

driven by nonlinear functional responses (i.e., handling time) can affect species coexistence

(Armstrong and McGehee 1980). However, numerical simulations suggest that results are not

qualitatively different with logistic resource growth (Supplement Materials B).

Our model (1) has similarities to several previous works. Kooi (2015) and Galanthay

et al. (2023) use a similar set of equations to model hawk-dove-like dynamics, in the special

case where types i and j have identical exploitative ability (a, τ, etc.). Adler et al. (2007)'s

model of the dominance-discovery trade-off corresponds to the limit of fast contests in our

model, which are not explicitly modeled in theirs, with outcomes instead resolved as soon as

one consumer encounters another.

Analysis

In the Supplementary Materials Sections D, F, and G, we solve for invasion criteria

(Turelli 1978) for the two-consumer one-resource system described by equations in (1). To

do so, we first solve the non-trivial equilibrium for each one-consumer one-resource system,

yielding S_i^*, H_i^*, C_{ii}^*, and R_i^*. We derive the 4×4 Jacobian matrix for the variables

S_j, H_j, C_{jj}, and $C_{\{ij\}}$ where $j \neq i$. We then compute the eigenvalues of the Jacobian matrix at

consumer i's non-trivial equilibrium when consumer j is a rare invader: $[S_i = S_i^*, H_i =$

$H_i^*, C_{ii} = C_{ii}^*, R_i^*, S_j = 0, H_j = 0, C_{jj} = 0, C_{\{ij\}} = 0]$. We derive the conditions for invasion

and coexistence both analytically and numerically using Mathematica version 13.2.

Consumer j will increase in abundance (invade) when rare if and only if at least one

eigenvalue is positive. Coexistence is inferred from mutual invasibility, which we validate

using numerical simulations of the system of differential equations in (1) (Supplementary

Materials Section C).

RESULTS

R^* rule in the absence of interference competition

218   The R^* rule is a limiting case of our model, which occurs when we remove

219   interference entirely. When a Searcher who encounters a Handler does not contest the

220   resource, the system of equations reduces to

221
$$\frac{dS_i}{dt} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{\tau_i}(1+e)H_i}_{\substack{\text{Handler } i \text{ grows/reproduces} \\ \text{and reinstates search} \\ \text{after consuming resource}}} - \underbrace{m_i S_i}_{\text{Mortality}} - \underbrace{a_i S_i R}_{\substack{\text{Searcher } i \\ \text{finds unconstested} \\ \text{Resource}}}$$

222
$$\frac{dH_i}{dt} = \underbrace{a_i S_i R}_{\substack{\text{Searcher } i \\ \text{finds Resource}}} - \underbrace{m_i H_i}_{\text{Mortality}} - \underbrace{H_i/\tau_i}_{\text{Consumption}}$$

223
$$\frac{dR}{dt} = \underbrace{f(R)}_{\substack{\text{Resource} \\ \text{growth}}} - R\underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^{2} a_j S_j}_{\substack{\text{Consumer} \\ \text{acquires} \\ \text{Resource}}} + \underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^{2} m_j H_j}_{\substack{\text{Resource released when} \\ \text{Handling consume dies}}}$$

224   Let $R_{i,E}^*$ denote the corresponding equilibrium resource abundance set by type i in

225   isolation, in this scenario when only <u>*Exploitative*</u> competition occurs. Assuming population

226   viability ($R_{i,E}^* > 0$):

227
$$R_{i,E}^* = \frac{m_i(m_i\tau_i + 1)}{a_i(e_i - m_i\tau_i)} \tag{2}$$

(Supplementary Materials Section D.3) which is biologically feasible when $e_i > \tau_i m_i$ and

$R_{i,E}^* < K$. We refer to $R_{i,E}^*$ as the *exploitative ability* of consumer i, and to $R_{i,E}^*/R_{j,E}^*$ as the

relative exploitative ability of i and j. $R_{i,E}^*$ also represents the minimum resource requirement

for consumer i.

Type i can invade a population of type j if and only if $R_{i,E}^*/R_{j,E}^* < 1$ (Supplementary

Materials Section D.4), and so mutual invasibility requires the unfulfillable condition:

234
$$1 < \frac{R_{i,E}^*}{R_{j,E}^*} < 1 \tag{3}$$

235   This is the R^* rule of Tilman (1982). Neutral coexistence is possible in the knife edge case of

236    $R_{i,E}^*/R_{j,E}^* = 1$. Equation (3) can be compared to our more general Equation (11).

Interference increases equilibrium resource density

238   Interference competition increases the equilibrium resource density set by a

239   consumer, setting the stage for deviations from the R^* rule. We denote the equilibrium

240   resource density set by consumer i in the 1-consumer-1-resource system when <u>I</u>nterference

241   occurs as (Supplementary Materials Section E):

242
$$R_{i,I}^* = R_{i,E}^* \frac{1 + K \frac{r\,a_i\tau_i}{\beta_i + m_i + m_{Ci}}\left(1 + \frac{m_{Ci}}{m_i}\right)}{1 + R_{i,E}^* \frac{r\,a_i\tau_i}{\beta_i + m_i + m_{Ci}}\left(1 + \frac{m_{Ci}}{m_i}\right)}. \tag{4}$$

Because $K > R_{i,E}^*$, Equation (4) implies $R_{i,I}^* > R_{i,E}^*$, with $R_{i,I}^* \to R_{i,E}^*$ as $\beta_i \to \infty$ (contests end

immediately, so they do not affect dynamics) or as $\tau_i \to 0$ (handling time is arbitrarily short,

so consumers have no opportunity to begin contests). $R_{i,E}^*$ continues to describe the minimum

resource requirement for i: interference thus decouples a consumer's resource requirement

from the resource abundance it sets at equilibrium.

There are two reasons why interference increases equilibrium resource density. First,

conflict-induced mortality m_{Ci} directly removes consumers, allowing the resource to grow.

The direct cost of contests c in the classic hawk-dove game can readily be interpreted in

terms of a probability of death per contest $c_i = \frac{m_{Ci}}{\beta_i + m_{Ci}}$ as $m_{Ci}, \beta_i \to \infty$ (contests are very fast

and lethal). In this limit, equation (4) becomes:

253
$$R_{i,I}^* = R_{i,E}^* \frac{1 + K c_i \frac{r a_i \tau_i}{m_i}}{1 + R_{i,E}^* c_i \frac{r a_i \tau_i}{m_i}}.$$

$R_{i,I}^*$ increases as the probability of contest mortality c_i increases.

Second, engaging in conflicts incurs an opportunity cost, because time spent in a

conflict is not available for searching or handling resources, allowing the resource to grow.

Consequently, $R^*_{i,I} \geq R^*_{i,E}$ even if contests do not increase death rates (substitute $m_{Ci} = 0$ into

Equation (4)). The extent to which opportunity costs increase resource density depends on

how the time spent in contests compares to the rate at which new resources appear.

Opportunity costs are large when contests begin frequently (large $a_i \tau_i$), when contests are

long (small β_i) and when resources renew rapidly (large r; see Equation (4)). Below, we

emphasize opportunity costs only (by assuming $m_{Ci} = 0$), but the same qualitative results

apply for direct costs.

Classifying outcomes when only one type interferes

Our main goal is to unify previously disparate mechanisms of interference and

exploitative competition over resources. To this end, we first consider a simplified version of

the set of equations in (1), with limiting cases that resemble the hawk-dove game and the

dominance-discovery trade-off. We consider two types of consumers: (1) a "hawk" h that

contests resources ($\beta_h < \infty$) and (2) a "dove" d that does not ($\beta_d = \infty$), replacing our

previous, more general notation of i and j. In later sections, we will consider the more

general asymmetric case of $\beta_h < \beta_d \leq \infty$. Note that the h indicating a "<u>h</u>awk" should not be

confused with the H indicating "Handlers".

Doves can invade a community of hawks if:

$$R^*_{d,E} < R^*_{h,I} P'_d \tag{5}$$

275 where

$$P'_d = \frac{1}{1 + \dfrac{a_h S^*_h}{1/\tau_d + m_d}}$$

is the probability that a dove does not experience hawk interference during handling

(Supplementary Materials Sections F.4.1 and F.5). Equation (5) represents the fact that doves

must be able to persist at a resource density ($R_{d,E}^*$) not just below the equilibrium set by the

hawks ($R_{h,I}^*$), but below a lower level that takes into account doves' inability to benefit from

resources that they relinquish to hawks ($P_d' R_{h,I}^*$). Note that from $\beta_d = \infty$, we have $R_{d,I}^* =$

$R_{d,E}^*$ (doves give up immediately, so dove-dove interference does not increase the equilibrium

resource density), in contrast to $R_{h,I}^* > R_{h,E}^*$ (because $\beta_h < \infty$, hawk-hawk interference

increases the equilibrium resource density). Hawk interference generates both a benefit

($R_{h,I}^* > R_{h,E}^*$) and a cost ($P_d' < 1$) to dove invasion.

Hawks can invade a resident dove population if:

$$R_{h,E}^* < R_{d,E}^* + H_d^* \tag{6}$$

288   (Supplementary Materials Section F.4.2). Equation (6) represents the fact that hawks must be

289   able to persist on resources that include both those currently unclaimed by doves ($R_{d,E}^*$), and

290   those currently held by doves that hawks can readily steal (H_d^*).

291   The two invasion criteria can be rearranged to form the mutual invasion criterion

$$\frac{1}{1 + H_d^*/R_{d,E}^*} < \frac{R_{d,E}^*}{R_{h,E}^*} < \frac{R_{h,I}^*}{R_{h,E}^*} P_d' \tag{7}$$

293   (Supplementary Materials Section F.4.3), which implies coexistence when fulfilled. Equation

294   (7) can be compared to Equation (3) describing exploitation alone.

Connection to the Classic Hawk-Dove Game

296   The traditional hawk-dove game is akin to a special case of our model, when hawks

297   and doves have identical exploitative ability ($R_{d,E}^*/R_{h,E}^* = 1$). In this scenario, the hawk can

298   always invade a dove population (from Equations (6) and (7)). The dove can also invade a

299   pure hawk population, implying coexistence, when:

$$300 \qquad\qquad 1 < \frac{R_{h,I}^*}{R_{h,E}^*} P_d' \qquad\qquad (8)$$

Akin to the classic hawk-dove game, the dove invades if the cost associated with hawk-hawk

interference ($R_{h,I}^*/R_{h,E}^* > 1$) more than compensates for hawk-dove resource theft ($P_d' < 1$).

Hawk-dove coexistence, if it occurs, thus stems from an "intra-type interference – inter-type

interference trade-off". Hawks benefit from stealing from doves (inter-type interference).

Doves invade due to the increase in resource density caused by hawk-hawk (intra-type)

interference.

Connection to the Dominance-Discovery Trade-off

In dominance-discovery models, contests resolve instantaneously and are not directly

costly. Our model can capture this by letting hawks finish contests arbitrarily fast ($\beta_h \to \infty$),

while always defeating doves ($\beta_h/\beta_d = 0$). This yields $R_{h,I}^* \to R_{h,E}^*$. The coexistence criteria

then become

$$312 \qquad\qquad \frac{1}{1 + H_d^*/R_{d,E}^*} < \frac{R_{d,E}^*}{R_{h,E}^*} < P_d'. \qquad\qquad (9)$$

The dove then needs to be superior at exploitation ($R_{d,E}^*/R_{h,E}^* < 1$) to invade (because

$P_d' \le 1$), offsetting the disadvantage of losing contests. The resemblance of this model limit

to the dominance-discovery trade-off is most intuitive when the dove's superior exploitation

comes from a higher search rate (a). The condition for dove invasion is then $a_d P_d' > a_h$, i.e.

faster resource discovery of doves must more than compensate for theft by hawks. However,

dove invasion can occur via any exploitative parameter(s) ($a, \tau, m,$ or e). Hawks can invade if

there are enough doves handling resources (H_d^*) that can be stolen, to compensate for hawks'

inferior exploitative ability. Coexistence, if it occurs, thus stems from an "exploitation –

inter-type-interference trade-off". For simplicity, and given complications when multiple

parameters differ between types, we refer to all such cases as dominance-discovery, although

we note that dove invasion driven by τ may be reasonably thought of as a dominance-

handling trade-off.

The dominance-discovery trade-off and hawk-dove coexistence differ with respect to

how doves invade. With hawk-dove coexistence, doves invade by taking advantage of

increased resource density due to hawk-hawk interference ($R_{h,I}^*/R_{h,E}^* > 1$). With the

dominance-discovery trade-off, doves invade because of superior exploitative ability

($R_{d,E}^*/R_{h,E}^* < 1$). Note each dove invasion criterion depends on the ratio of different R^*s.

Classifying outcomes when both types interfere

331   We generalize our above results by analyzing our model when both consumer types

332 interfere.

General Invasion Criteria

334   When both β_i and $\beta_j < \infty$, we refer to the consumer with the smaller β as the hawk

335 and that with the larger β as the dove based on their propensities to engage in interference

336 contests, although both are on a spectrum of hawkishness and dovishness. Generalizing

337 equations (5) and (6), j can invade i if and only if:

$$R_{j,E}^* < P_j\left(R_{i,I}^* + \omega_{ji}H_i^*\right). \tag{10}$$

339 (see Supplementary Materials Section G.3 for derivation). As before, $R_{i,I}^*$ is the resource

340 availability set by consumer i, including intra-type-i interference effects. The new term ω_{ji} is

341 the probability that invader j wins a contest against resident i:

$$\omega_{ji} = \frac{\beta_i + m_i}{\beta_i + \beta_j + m_i + m_j}.$$

(see Supplementary Section Materials G.5). $\omega_{ji}H_i^*$ represents resources that invader j steals

from handling residents of type i, i.e. type j's benefit from inter-type interference. $R_{i,I}^* +$

$\omega_j H_i^*$ is the total resource available to j.

P_j is a generalization of P_d' from equation (5). P_j quantifies the negative impact that

inter-type interference has on the invasion of type j ($0 \leq P_j \leq 1$) where

$$P_j = \cfrac{1}{1 + \underbrace{\cfrac{a_j H_i^*}{\beta_i + \beta_j + m_i + m_j}}_{\substack{\text{time spent in} \\ \text{contests started by } j}} + \underbrace{\cfrac{a_i S_i^*}{1/\tau_j + m_j}}_{\substack{i \text{ initates} \\ \text{contests}}} \left(\underbrace{\omega_{ij}}_{\substack{\text{theft} \\ \text{probability}}} + a_j \underbrace{\cfrac{H_i^* + R_{i,I}^*}{\beta_i + \beta_j + m_i + m_j}}_{\text{opportunity cost}} \right)}$$

See Supplementary Materials Section G.3 for a derivation.

The first non-unity term in the denominator of P_j captures the opportunity cost from

contests initiated by type j. The second term reflects costs from contests initiated by type i

against j. Costs are larger when resource theft by i is more likely (larger ω_{ij}) and when

opportunity costs of participation are greater. Opportunity costs increase with the resource

encounter rate, $a_j(H_i^* + R_{i,I}^*)$. This illustrates the key tension of hawkish behavior: giving up

slower (smaller β_j) decreases the probability of losing contests but increases opportunity

costs. Short handling time reduces the cost of interference; if type j rapidly handles resources

($\tau_j \to 0$), i cannot initiate contests with j and the second term in P_j disappears ($\frac{a_i S_i^*}{1/\tau_j + m_j} \to 0$).

Classifying coexistence and exclusion outcomes

Rearranging Equation (10) for each type (i and j) in Supplementary Material G.4, we

derive criteria for coexistence in terms of how invaders j and i experience interference

competition (I_{ji} and I_{ij}, respectively), and of relative exploitative competition ability E_{ji}:

$$\underbrace{\frac{1}{P_i\left(\dfrac{H_j^*}{R_{j,E}^*}\omega_{ij}+\dfrac{R_{j,I}^*}{R_{j,E}^*}\right)}}_{\substack{\text{Net impact of}\\\text{interference on the}\\\text{invasion of type } i\\(I_{ij})}} < \underbrace{\frac{R_{j,E}^*}{R_{i,E}^*}}_{\substack{\text{Relative}\\\text{exploitative}\\\text{ability}\\(E_{ji})}} < \underbrace{P_j\left(\dfrac{H_i^*}{R_{i,E}^*}\omega_{ji}+\dfrac{R_{i,I}^*}{R_{i,E}^*}\right)}_{\substack{\text{Net impact of}\\\text{interference on the}\\\text{invasion of type } j\\(I_{ji})}} \tag{11}$$

E_{ji} quantifies the exploitative ability of type j relative to type i, where $E_{ji} < 1$ indicates j is

the superior exploitative competitor (j has a lower R_E^*). Recall that we refer to "exploitative

ability" and "exploitative competition" purely in terms of R_E^* (and, thus E_{ji}). I_{ij} quantifies the

effect interference type i experiences while invading j (and vice versa for I_{ji}). i invades if the

left-hand side inequality is fulfilled ($1/I_{ij} < E_{ji}$) and j invades if the right-hand side

inequality is fulfilled ($E_{ji} < I_{ji}$). Equation (11) reduces to Equation (7) if j does not interfere

($\beta_j \rightarrow \infty$) and further reduces to the R^* rule (equation (3)) in the absence of interference (for

which $I_{ij} = I_{ji} = 1$). The interference terms (I_{ij}, I_{ji}) permit deviations from the R^* rule and

quantify the impact interference competition has on invasion.

We quantify the relative importance of interference competition (I_{ij}, I_{ji}) and relative

exploitative ability (E_{ji}) in determining outcomes by comparing their proportional deviations

from unity (1). For example, consider when type j invades with $E_{ji} < I_{ji}$. This may occur

because $E_{ji} < 1$ (j is a superior exploitative competitor) and/or because $I_{ji} > 1$ (j experiences

a benefit from interference). When both inequalities are true, this indicates that they both

contribute, and we determine which of them predominantly causes invasion by comparing the

extent to which E_{ji} vs. $1/I_{ji}$ proportionally deviates from 1 E_{ji} vs. $1/I_{ji}$. If $E_{ji} < 1/I_{ji}$, then

the benefit j experiences from superior exploitative ability predominantly allows invasion.

Conversely, if $E_{ji} > 1/I_{ji}$, interference contributes more to $j's$ invasion.

Similarly, the failure of j to invade with $E_{ji} > I_{ji}$ may be due to $E_{ji} > 1$ (j is a poorer

exploitative competitor) and/or to $I_{ji} < 1$ (j experiences a negative effect from interference).

When both inequalities are true, indicating that both contribute, we say that exploitative

disadvantage predominantly prevents invasion when $E_{ji} > 1/I_{ji}$ while interference

predominantly prevents invasion when $E_{ji} < 1/I_{ji}$.

We again substitute h (hawk) and d (dove) for i and j, where $\beta_h < \beta_d$. We compare

the magnitudes of I_{hd}, E_{dh}, and I_{dh} to distinguish six possible scenarios summarized in Table

1. For notational convenience, we also refer to $E_{hd} = 1/E_{dh}$ below.

Firstly, differences in exploitative ability may be predominantly responsible for

competitive exclusion of a consumer (the dove or hawk is excluded while $E_{dh} > 1/I_{dh}$ or

$E_{hd} > 1/I_{hd}$, respectively). This scenario resembles the R^* rule because the exploitative R_E^*

ratio predominantly underlies exclusion.

Secondly, interference competition can cause competitive exclusion. This can occur

via two mechanisms. (1) "Hawk victory" in which hawks exclude doves via inter-type

interference when $E_{dh} < 1/I_{dh}$. (2) "Dove victory" in which doves exclude hawks when the

opportunity costs from interference are too large, when $E_{hd} < 1/I_{hd}$. Unlike the simplified

case of $\beta_h = \infty$, the hawk may be excluded even if the dove is not superior at exploitation. It

is therefore possible for a consumer who is both superior at exploitation and more likely to

win contests to be competitively excluded.

Coexistence can occur via three mechanisms. Firstly, "hawk-dove coexistence"

describes when interference considerations enable invasion of both types: $E_{dh} > 1/I_{dh}$ and

$E_{hd} > 1/I_{hd}$. Those considerations are the hawk's gain from stealing (intra-type

interference), and the dove's gain from hawk-hawk contests (intra-type interference), which

exceed any benefit of superior exploitative ability. This generalizes the inter-type vs intra-

type interference trade-off beyond the previous section's treatment of $\beta_d = \infty$.

Coexistence can also occur via a trade-off between exploitative and interference

abilities. This trade-off occurs via two distinct mechanisms. First, doves invade primarily due

to superior exploitative ability ($E_{dh} < 1/I_{dh}$) while hawks invade predominantly due to

interference effects, meaning stealing resources from doves ($E_{hd} > 1/I_{hd}$). This scenario

resembles the dominance-discovery trade-off, generalizing our treatment above of the $\beta_d =$

∞ case. This scenario can also be thought of as a "hawk-discovery" trade-off.

The direction of the exploitative vs. interference trade-off is reversed in the second

mechanism: doves primarily invade due to the increase in resource density caused by hawk-

hawk interference ($E_{dh} > 1/I_{dh}$), while hawks invade primarily due to superior exploitative

ability ($E_{hd} < 1/I_{hd}$). This constitutes a novel intra-type-interference vs. exploitation trade-

off, which we call the "dove-discovery trade-off".

Scenario	Description	Condition
$\boldsymbol{R^*}$ Rule	Either type is excluded primarily due to its inferior exploitative ability.	$E_{dh} > I_{dh}$ <u>while</u> $E_{dh} > 1/I_{dh}$ OR $E_{hd} > I_{hd}$ <u>while</u> $E_{hd} > 1/I_{hd}$
Hawk victory	Dove is excluded primarily due to inter-type interference	$E_{dh} > I_{dh}$ <u>while</u> $E_{dh} < 1/I_{dh}$
Dove victory	Hawk is excluded primarily due to opportunity cost	$E_{hd} > I_{hd}$ <u>while</u> $E_{hd} < 1/I_{hd}$
Hawk-dove coexistence	Hawk invades due to inter-type interference, dove due to intra-hawk interference.	$1/I_h < E_{dh} < I_d$ <u>while</u> $E_{dh} > 1/I_{dh}$ and $E_{hd} > 1/I_{hd}$
Dominance-Discovery trade-off	Dove invades due to superior exploitation, hawk invades due to inter-type interference.	$1/I_h < E_{dh} < I_d$ <u>while</u> $E_{dh} < 1/I_{dh}$ and $E_{hd} > 1/I_{hd}$
Dove-Discovery trade-off	Hawk invades due to superior exploitation, dove invades due to intra-hawk interference.	$1/I_h < E_{dh} < I_d$ <u>while</u> $E_{dh} > 1/I_{dh}$ and $E_{hd} < 1/I_{hd}$

420 **Table 1**: Summary of the different scenarios, associated criteria for invasion or lack of
421 invasion, and the conditions that further distinguish scenarios beyond their invasion criteria.
422 h indexes the "hawk" and d the "dove" on the basis of $\beta_d > \beta_h$. Each scenario refers to the
423 *predominant* mechanism underlying the outcome. Expressions come from Equation (11).
424 Note that $E_{hd} = 1/E_{dh}$.

Finally, a priority effect (founder control) occurs when $1/I_{hd} > E_{dh} > I_{dh}$. However,

we do not discuss this scenario in detail, nor include it in Table 1 because priority effects

require unlikely parameter value choices in our model (Supplementary Materials Section H).

Fig. 2: The hawk-dove game for types that vary only in giving up rate β. Coexistence requires $\beta_h < \beta_0 < \beta_d$, where β_0 is shown as a yellow star. β_h and β_d strongly modify the ratio of resources set by each type at equilibrium, $R^*_{h,I}/R^*_{d,I}$. Coexistence occurs in the upper-left, where $R^*_{h,I}/R^*_{d,I}$ is the farthest from unity. Note the log scale for color. $\tau = 1, a = 0.1, m = 0.015, e = 0.035, m_C = 0, r = 0.26, K = 250$.

Outcome classification based on mechanistic parameters

I_{dh}, I_{hd}, and E_{dh} (Table 1) are not independent: changes to a single model parameter

alter multiple key properties ($R^*_E, R^*_I, \omega H^*, P$; Equations (10-11)). We next dig deeper into the

causal effects of mechanistic parameters on competitive outcomes and which scenario causes

them.

First, consider the relatively simple case of hawk and dove equal in all parameters

except giving up rate, β, resulting in equal exploitative abilities. Hawk-dove coexistence

(Table 1) occurs if and only if β_h and β_d are on either side of a central value (henceforth β_0;

Fig. 2, yellow star). β_0 is a complicated (though mathematically tractable) expression that

depends on every parameter of the model (Supplementary Materials Section G.6).

R^* theory predicts the exclusion of the consumer that sets a higher equilibrium

resource abundance. However, coexistence predominantly occurs when the equilibrium

resources abundances differ by a large factor (Fig. 2, top-left corner), while small differences

are associated with competitive exclusion. Coexistence corresponds to a greater R^* ratio

$(R_{h,I}^*/R_{d,I}^*)$ because dove invasion requires intra-hawk interference to increase the equilibrium

resource density set by the hawk. The ratio of equilibrium resources abundances $R_{h,I}^*/R_{d,I}^*$

should not be confused with the exploitative R^* ratio; $R_{d,E}^*/R_{h,E}^* = E_{dh} = 1$ throughout Fig.

2).

We now consider types that also differ in exploitative ability (in contrast to Fig. 2

above, in which all parameters except β were identical). Instead of denoting types by their

giving up rates as hawk h and dove d, we distinguish types by their relative exploitative

ability. We denote type 2 as better at exploitation than type 1 ($R_{1,E}^*/R_{2,E}^* > 1$); this implies

nothing about which type is the hawk vs. dove with respect to β. The sometimes dramatic

extent to which exploitative differences change the region of coexistence (Figs. 3-4), depends

on the relative impact of mechanistic parameters on interference vs. exploitative differences.

For example, rapid handling of resources (small τ) decreases the frequency of

contests, making exploitative competition relatively more important. Correspondingly, the

region of coexistence declines with decreasing τ (Fig. 3, left to right) given a constant

difference in exploitative ability (Fig. 3 bottom row, $R^*_{1,E}/R^*_{2,E} = 1.2$ via $a_2 > a_1$), but not

when exploitative ability is identical (Fig. 3 top row).

Fig. 3: Short handling time erodes coexistence when types differ in exploitative ability. Consumers 1
and 2 differ in search rate (a, in bottom row only) and giving up rate (β, both rows**).** Below the
dashed diagonal line, $\beta_1 > \beta_2$ makes type 1 the dove, while type 1 is the hawk above the line.
Columns vary the handling time. Panels A-C depict identical exploitative abilities; gold stars are as
defined in Fig. 2. In panels D-F, type 2 is better at exploitation ($a_2 = 0.12 > a_2 = 0.10$). Other
parameters are: $m_1 = m_2 = 0.015, e_1 = e_2 = 0.035, m_{C1} = m_{C2} = 0, r = 0.26, K = 250$.

Differences in exploitative ability can be mediated by different mechanistic

parameters (e.g. a vs. τ), which have different effects on interference competition, and hence

on competitive outcomes (Fig. 4). Faster search a slightly increases opportunities to interfere

with others, while shorter handling time τ dramatically decreases vulnerability to

interference. In contrast, in traditional R^* theory, only relative exploitative ability matters

(i.e., a and τ only matter insomuch as they affect $R^*_{1,E}/R^*_{2,E}$).

When different search rates are responsible for a moderate difference in exploitative

ability (e.g., $R_{1,E}^*/R_{2,E}^* = 1.2$ because $a_2 > a_1$; Fig 4B, 4H), outcomes are modestly different

from when there are no exploitative differences (compare Figs. 4A and 4B), at least when τ is

not very small (Fig. 3). However, the dominant mechanism behind the same outcome

(coexistence or competitive exclusion) may be different (compare Figs. 4G and 4H). When

giving up rates (β) are similar, the R^* rule is the most influential mechanism (Fig. 4H, 4I).

When coexistence occurs, different search rates shift the predominant mechanism from an

inter-type vs. intra-type interference trade-off (hawk-dove coexistence) to an exploitation-

interference trade-off (dominance-discovery or dove-discovery), noting mechanisms are not

mutually exclusive. Coexistence remains possible even with larger differences in exploitative

ability, e.g., when $R_{1,E}^*/R_{2,E}^* = 1.75$ via $a_2 > a_1$ in Fig 4C, 4I.

When differences in handling time τ drive the same difference in exploitative ability

(e.g. $R_{1,E}^*/R_{2,E}^* = 1.2$ via $\tau_2 < \tau_1$; $a_2 = a_1$), coexistence becomes less likely than when

driven by differences in search rate a (compare Figs. 4B with 4D and Figs. 4C with 4E).

Coexistence largely evaporates when large exploitative differences are caused by

τ ($R_{1,E}^*/R_{2,E}^* = 1.75$ in Fig. 4E). Hawk or dove victories dominate the parameter space in

which competitive exclusion occurs, rather than the R^* rule (compare Fig. 4I and Fig. 4K).

When differences in base mortality rate m or conversion efficiency e drive differences

in exploitative ability, coexistence patterns resemble those derived from differences in search

rate a (Supplementary Figure I2). In these scenarios, the R^* rule predominantly drives

competitive exclusion (Supplementary Figure I2, E-H), reflecting the fact that m and e have

minimal impact on interference.

The difference in exploitative ability ($R_{1,E}^*/R_{2,E}^*$) does not reliably explain outcomes.

Fig. 4F shows an example where type 1 is superior at exploitation ($R_{1,E}^*/R_{2,E}^* = 0.5$) yet is

excluded via interference by type 2, which searches more slowly ($a_1 > a_2$) but uses

resources faster ($\tau_2 < \tau_1$). Type 1 is excluded in this scenario irrespective of whether it has a

hawk or dove strategy (Fig. 4L). The disconnect between $R^*_{1,E}/R^*_{2,E}$ and outcomes reflects

how mechanistic parameters that affect R^*_E also impact interference.

Fig. 4: Differences in exploitative ability effected by search speed a permit more coexistence than those effected by handling time τ. Top row (A-F) depicts
outcomes, bottom row 2 (G-H) the corresponding dominant mechanism from Table 1. Type 1 is the dove below the dashed diagonal line, and is the hawk
above. The first column shows consumers that are identical in every exploitative parameter. The second and third columns show differences in search rate
($a_2 = 0.12$ or $a_2 = 0.175 > a_1 = 0.1$). The fourth and fifth columns show differences in handling rate ($\tau_2 = 1/1.35$ or $\tau_2 = 1/30 < \tau_1 = 1$). Both vary in
the rightmost column ($0.35 = a_1 > a_2 = 0.1$; $1/5.19 = \tau_2 < \tau_1 = 1$). When not specified above, $a_1 = a_2 = 0.1$, $\tau_1 = \tau_2 = 1$, $m_1 = m_2 = 0.015$, $e_1 =$
$e_2 = 0.035$, $m_{C1} = m_{C2} = 0$, $r = 0.26$, $K = 250$. Results are robust to alternative choices (Supplementary Figures I3-I10).

DISCUSSION

Exploitative resource competition is the foundation of much ecological theory, often in the form of R^* theory (Tilman 1982), but its co-occurrence with interference competition has received less focus. Here, we analyze a mechanistic framework in which consumers' handling of resources can be interrupted by interference from competitors, and time invested in contesting a resource incurs an opportunity cost of not searching for uncontested resources. Outcomes rarely follow R^* theory, whether R^* is interpreted as the equilibrium resource level (R_I^*) or as the hypothetical equilibrium resource level in the absence of interference (the minimum resource level required for persistence R_E^*). Coexistence can stem from a trade-off between inter-type interference and intra-type interference (hawk-dove coexistence), from a trade-off between exploitation and inter-type interference (dominance-discovery), or from a novel trade-off between exploitation and intra-type interference that we call dove-discovery. Which outcome occurs via which form(s) of competition is a complex outcome of parameter value combinations, with search rate and handling time simultaneously affecting both exploitation and interference.

Interference competition and R^* Theory

A key result of R^* theory – the R^* rule – breaks down with interference competition for two basic reasons. Firstly, interference allows the equilibrium resource density to rise, making the minimum tolerated resource density less important. Within R^* theory, the minimum tolerated resource density R_E^* is equal to the equilibrium resource density R_I^*. With interference, this is no longer true. Secondly, when invading consumers steal resources, their growth rate is higher than expected from the equilibrium density of free resources.

Our mechanistic terms for search rate and resource handling time affect not just exploitative ability, but also interference competition. Genotypes or species that achieve low

R_E^* by handling resources more rapidly also gain substantial protection from interference.

Genotypes or species that achieve the same low R_E^* through faster search benefit more

modestly from an increased ability to interfere with others. Previous models used handling

time to describe relative non-linearity in consumers' functional responses (Armstrong and

McGehee 1980), and explored its effects on intrinsically driven consumer-resource

oscillations (Johnson and Amarasekare 2015; Rosenzweig 1971). We emphasize for the first

time the effect of handling time on interference rather than exploitation.

R^* theory and the R^* rule hold within some regions of parameter space (Fig. 4,

Supplementary Figure I2); how common these are is an empirical question. While R^* theory

has experimental support (Wilson et al. 2007), this generally comes from well-mixed

chemostats. Interference invokes co-localization of at least two individuals and a resource;

well-mixed chemostats minimize the duration of co-localization in which a contest can occur.

Outside the laboratory, spatial structure is ubiquitous and interference competition is

widespread; perhaps most obviously in animals, often over territories (Drury et al. 2020;

Schoener 1983), but also among plants via soil interactions and allelopathy (Inderjit et al.

2011; Meiners et al. 2012; Rice 2012), and among microbes through mechanisms such as

stabbing and toxin-antitoxin systems (Böck et al. 2017; Boynton 2019; García-Bayona and

Comstock 2018; Ghoul and Mitri 2016).

Measuring outcomes plus exploitative ability provides insufficient evidence in favor

of the R^* rule, because the same consumer can also be favored by interference competition.

Ideally, experiments and models should be tailored to the mechanistic biology of the

organisms in question. Comparing R_E^* (e.g. as implied by measured trait values a, m, e, and

τ) to R_I^* (as measured by the equilibrium resource abundance) could quantify the strength of

negative intra-specific density-dependence driven by interference.

 Comparison with Past Coexistence Models

High consumer density in our model both depletes resources (exploitation), and

increases interaction frequency (interference). In contrast, because every round of the classic

hawk-dove game (Maynard Smith 1974) involves a contest, the payoff matrix does not

depend on density. Our direct dependence on consumer density also differs from payoff

matrices of interacting competitors that depend on environmental variables such as resource

density (Tilman et al. 2020). Our underlying model is more similar to work incorporating

density-dependence into game theory models, to position hawk-dove dynamics within more

ecologically realistic scenarios (Auger et al. 2006; Galanthay et al. 2023; Kooi 2015; Křivan

and Cressman 2022; Křivan et al. 2018). Our work formally connects this class of models

and, by extension, the hawk-dove game, to R^* theory.

We distinguish between two different exploitation-interference trade-offs. One

resembles the dominance-discovery trade-off described by Adler et al. (2007), in which inter-

type interference enables hawk invasion, and superior exploitation enables "dove" invasion

(typically via faster resource discovery/search rate). In contrast, it is intra-hawk interference

that enables dove invasion under hawk-dove coexistence. The dominance-discovery trade-off

can alternatively be thought of as a "hawk-discovery" trade-off in our model.

Competition-colonization trade-off models (Hastings 1980; Horn and MacArthur

1972; Tilman 1994) are formally similar. Our model has two key differences. Firstly, as in

Adler et al. (2007), we consider consumption of an exhaustible resource instead of durable

territories. Secondly, "competition" in our model is interpreted as interference, rather than as

local superiority in exploitation (e.g., a plant species with a lower R^* for nitrogen that locally

excludes its competitor on a patch of a metacommunity; Tilman 1994). Classically,

coexistence requires the inferior exploiter (with higher local R^* for nitrogen) to colonize

patches more rapidly. This can be interpreted as having a lower "global" R^*, despite higher

local R^*, where global R^* represents the equilibrium proportion of unoccupied patches set by

a species in monoculture. Coexistence in these classic models thus requires a trade-off

between local and global exploitation competition with corresponding R^*s. These local and

global R^*s should not be confused with R_E^* and R_I^* introduced in our model.

We discovered a second and perhaps counterintuitive exploitation-interference trade-

off: "dove-discovery". Here the hawk invades due to its superior exploitative abilities, in

addition to its (by definition) superiority at inter-type interference. The dove can nevertheless

invade because intra-hawk interference frees up resources. Hawk invasion can require an

exploitative advantage because winning inter-type contests might not be enough to counter

the high opportunity costs of those inter-type contests. This emphasizes how relatively

doveish behavior can yield a competitive advantage.

Dove-discovery complicates empirical efforts to detect and interpret trade-offs in

interference and exploitative abilities, e.g. in ants suspected to be subject to the discovery-

dominance trade-off (Davidson 1998; Fellers 1987; Holway 1999). Under dominance-

discovery, coexisting species/types who are better at obtaining resources are expected to be

less likely to win contests, at least in the absence of additional trade-offs (e.g., vulnerability

to parasitoids Adler et al. 2007; LeBrun 2005). However, under dove-discovery, species or

genotypes that are more likely to win contests are also better at obtaining resources – the

exact opposite pattern. Similarly, under hawk-dove coexistence, either the hawk or dove may

be superior at exploitation. Empirical investigations looking for trends consistent with

dominance-discovery and competition-colonization trade-offs (often yielding mixed support;

for a recent review, see Ferzoco and McCauley 2023) may therefore overlook key

interference-related coexistence mechanisms. Hawk-dove coexistence and the dove-discovery

trade-off have not received similar levels of attention in this context, perhaps because

previous theory had not outlined the conditions under which they occur. Hawk-dove and

dove-discovery make up a large region of coexistence space (Fig. 4) and may turn out to be

as or more important than dominance-discovery for maintaining coexistence in empirical

communities (although the mechanisms are not mutually exclusive).

Previous Models of Interference Competition

617   Most previous models of interference competition use Lotka-Volterra-like terms in

phenomenological models to summarize the strengths of intra- and inter-specific interference

(Case and Gilpin 1974; Hsu 1982; Schoener 1976; Schoener 1978; Vance 1984). Papers such

as Vance (1984) suggest that coexistence requires intra-specific interference to exceed inter-

specific interference. Our model shows this is not necessary: coexistence occurs even if both

the high-interference and the low-interference genotypes/species are each equally prone to

interfere with their own type as with the other type.

624   McPeek (2012) incorporated a phenomenological intra-specific density-dependent

625   term into a consumer-resource model, which increases the resource level set by a resident,

626   similarly producing $R_E^* < R_I^*$. Adding this term allows multi-consumer coexistence on a

627   single resource (also see Kuang et al., 2003). Our model provides a mechanistic basis by

628   which this might occur.

629   Amarasekare (2002) , analyzing a model similar to ours, assumed no intra-specific

interference (implying $R_E = R_I^*$), and concluded that (1) mutually costly forms of

interference (e.g., aggression, territoriality) cannot maintain coexistence, and (2) interference-

exploitation trade-offs can facilitate coexistence when interference is directly beneficial to the

inferior exploiter. Amarasekare (2002) then interprets directly beneficial interference as

intraguild predation or parasitism, to argue that the restricted nature of these scenarios limits

the role of interference in promoting coexistence. An alternative interpretation is that

aggression, territoriality, and interference over resources within dominance-discovery also

qualify as beneficial because the aggressor can profit from acquiring stolen resources.

Interference also promotes coexistence via hawk-dove dynamics and the dove-discovery

trade-off, which are not examined in Amarasekare (2002). This suggests that the breadth of

conditions under which costly interference competition maintains coexistence is much larger

than previously recognized.

Previous models of interference (e.g., Amarasekare 2002; Hsu 1982; Vance 1984)

found priority effects to be more prevalent than we did. Priority effects in these models were

driven by stronger inter-specific interference than intra-specific interference. We did not

depart from equal interference ($\beta_{ii} = \beta_{ij}$), because this was not part of our focus on

mechanistically linking R^* theory, the hawk-dove game, and the dominance-discovery trade-

off.

Interference, Character Displacement, and the Evolution of Niche Differences

Our theory provides foundations with which one might understand how interference

competition modifies character displacement and the evolution of niche differences (Brown

and Wilson 1956; Grant and Grant 2006). Classic work on character displacement focuses on

exploitative competition, an emphasis perhaps stemming from the remarkable associations of

beak size/shape and seed diet observed in Darwin's finches (Grant 1999; Grant and Grant

2006). However, several recent studies highlight so-called Agonistic Character Displacement

(ACD), broadly defined as phenotypic evolution due to interference competition among

sympatric species (Grether et al. 2013; Grether et al. 2009; Grether et al. 2017). ACD enjoys

growing empirical support (Anderson and Grether 2010; McEachin et al. 2024; Moran and

Fuller 2018). Our model provides a basis with which to contextualize the role of interference

competition, especially ACD, in niche evolution.

The fact that handling time modifies both exploitation and interference has

implications for niche evolution as depicted in classic ecological models that only consider

exploitative competition. For example, MacArthur's consumer–resource model (Chesson

1990; MacArthur 1970) describes a 2-consumer-multiple-resource exploitative competition

model in which niche differences are defined in terms of a trait (e.g., beak shape) that

determines its search rate for each resource (e.g., different seeds sizes/shapes). The evolution

of niche differences is construed as the selective pressure driven by inter-specific overlap in

resource exploitation (Pastore et al. 2021; Song et al. 2019). MacArthur's consumer–resource

model ignores handling time, which does not matter for exploitation-only models. However,

shorter handling times decrease vulnerability to interference. Many specialized

morphological features (e.g. bird beak morphology and its compatibility with seed

shape/size) do more to decrease handling time than to make search more rapid. Selection for

trait specialization might be driven in part by escaping interference.

Caveats, Future Directions, and Conclusion

We considered only two consumers competing for a single limiting resource. It

remains an open question precisely how much more diversity interference helps maintain in

more complex scenarios of more consumers and more resources.

Our model considers a spontaneously generated, consumable resource, rather than a

biotic resource that undergoes a replicative form of growth from a starting population. The

same general principles likely apply for other resource types, with an interesting caveat.

Because our model introduces resource handling, consumers have non-linear functional

responses (Holling 1965). For a replicating resource, this allows the possibility of stable limit

cycles. When different non-linear functional responses result in a trade-off between fitness in

low-resource environments (gleaners) and high-resource environments (opportunists),

resource oscillations may contribute to coexistence (Armstrong and McGehee 1980;

Yamamichi and Letten 2022).

Our modeling of interference as a delay before a motile organism "gives up" is not an

obvious fit to sessile plants, although it is, following precedent in classic game theory

(Maynard Smith and Price 1973), a good fit for motile animals (Ferzoco and McCauley 2023;

Rodríguez et al. 2007; Stanton et al. 2002). Specifically, temporal investment in interference

incurs an opportunity cost to foraging, facilitating coexistence. Plants also invest in local

interference strategies, e.g., root competition, overgrowth, undercutting, and allelopathy,

likely incurring an opportunity cost to reproduction and resource acquisition, rather than to

foraging. Such trade-offs are likely ubiquitous, and process-based models of interference

tailored to plant biology may yield results similar to our study.

Our model considers a consumable resource. Bertram and Masel (2019) considered

competition for a durable resource such as territory, via three traits within a variable-density

lottery model: the rate b that adults give birth to and disperse juveniles, juveniles' ability c to

contest each other to take possession of an unoccupied territory and thus become adults, and

adult survival $1/d$. Our searching term a is somewhat analogous to b, our persistence in

interference competition $1/\beta$ is somewhat analogous to c, and our mortality m is directly

analogous to d.

These similarities perhaps reveal profound patterns. (Grime 1977; Grime 1988; Grime

2006) hypothesized that trade-offs shaped species into three types of specialization:

"ruderals" tolerate low resource levels, "competitors" excel at interference competition, and

"colonizers" rapidly disperse to ephemeral resources. Grime's three-dimensional scheme is

often contrasted with R^* models of exploitative competition (the "Grime-Tilman debate";

(Aerts 1999; Craine 2005; Jabot and Pottier 2012). A major obstacle to synthesis has been the

lack of explicit mathematical models of Grime's scheme (Jabot and Pottier 2012; Tilman

2007). Our framework mathematically unites ideas of Grime with ideas of Tilman. Grime

imagined low density environments in which intraspecific competition (both interference and

exploitation) was weak and ruderals would prevail, whereas Tilman's view was that

organisms in apparently low density environments simply had larger territories, with resource

levels still set by consumption down to the lowest tolerated level. Our work provides loose

support for Grime's view, by highlighting that resource levels need not be set by exploitation

alone.

In the ant literature, Grime's colonizers are called discoverers, Grime's competitors

are called dominators, and a slightly different take on Grime's ruderals is known as the

insinuator foraging strategy (Hölldobler and Wilson 1990; LeBrun 2005). Insinuators adopt

non-aggressive strategies to capitalize on a small portion of resources. In our model,

discoverers are characterized by a high search rate, and dominators by a low giving up rate.

To incorporate insinuators, we could expand our model to include multiple resources of

differing quality. Discoverers are more likely to discover high-value resources, dominators to

steal them, while insinuators rely on low-quality resources that are not worth the handling

time of dominators and are therefore uncontested. Insinuators are thus characterized by both

non-aggressive behavior, and better yield from low value resources.

The aggressive behavior that we capture as lower β is likely to co-evolve with other

critical parameters (e.g. m, a, τ). Concerted trait combinations seem likely, including traits

not considered by our model. E.g., types may differ in intrinsic fighting abilities, as reflecting

in the death rate of their opponent. Physiological constraints might impose trade-offs, e.g.,

between fighting, reducing vulnerability to interference τ, dispersing a, and persisting at low

resource levels m and e. Incorporating these into adaptive dynamic models (Dieckmann et al.

2006; Leimar 2009) may help understand the evolution of aggression in motile organisms,

and which trade-offs promote or inhibit species coexistence.

CODE AVAILABILITY

All code is available in Supplementary Files and on GitHub:

https://github.com/DanielSmithEcology/R_Star_Interference_Competition

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Jason Bertram and Matt McCaskey for early conceptual work in this area, and
Sasha Dall for helpful discussions on conceptual issues related to the hawk-dove game. We
thank three anonymous reviewers and Gaku Takimoto for suggestions that greatly improved
the manuscript. We thank the John Templeton Foundation (62220) for funding. DJBS also
thanks the Peter O'Donnell Jr. Postdoc Fellowship for funding.

REFERENCES

Adler, F., E. LeBrun, and D. Feener Jr. 2007. Maintaining diversity in an ant community: modeling, extending, and testing the dominance-discovery trade-off. The American Naturalist 169:323-333.

Adler, P. B., A. Fajardo, A. R. Kleinhesselink, and N. J. Kraft. 2013. Trait-based tests of coexistence mechanisms. Ecology letters 16:1294-1306.

Aerts, R. 1999. Interspecific competition in natural plant communities: mechanisms, trade-offs and plant-soil feedbacks. Journal of experimental botany 50:29-37.

Amarasekare, P. 2002. Interference competition and species coexistence. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London. Series B: Biological Sciences 269:2541-2550.

Anderson, C. N., and G. F. Grether. 2010. Interspecific aggression and character displacement of competitor recognition in Hetaerina damselflies. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 277:549-555.

Armstrong, R. A., and R. McGehee. 1980. Competitive exclusion. The American Naturalist 115:151-170.

Auger, P., R. B. De La Parra, and E. Sánchez. 1998. Hawk-dove game and competition dynamics. Mathematical and computer modelling 27:89-98.

Auger, P., B. W. Kooi, R. B. de La Parra, and J.-C. Poggiale. 2006. Bifurcation analysis of a predator–prey model with predators using hawk and dove tactics. Journal of Theoretical Biology 238:597-607.

Barabás, G., R. D'Andrea, and S. M. Stump. 2018. Chesson's coexistence theory. Ecological monographs 88:277-303.

Bertram, J., and J. Masel. 2019. Density-dependent selection and the limits of relative fitness. Theoretical population biology 129:81-92.

Böck, D., J. M. Medeiros, H.-F. Tsao, T. Penz, G. L. Weiss, K. Aistleitner, M. Horn et al. 2017. In situ architecture, function, and evolution of a contractile injection system. Science 357:713-717.

Boynton, P. J. 2019. The ecology of killer yeasts: Interference competition in natural habitats. Yeast 36:473-485.

Brown, W. L., and E. O. Wilson. 1956. Character displacement. Systematic zoology 5:49-64.

Case, T. J., and M. E. Gilpin. 1974. Interference competition and niche theory. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 71:3073-3077.

Chesson, P. 1990. MacArthur's consumer-resource model. Theoretical Population Biology 37:26-38.

—. 2018. Updates on mechanisms of maintenance of species diversity. Journal of ecology 106:1773-1794.

Craine, J. M. 2005. Reconciling plant strategy theories of Grime and Tilman. Journal of ecology 93:1041-1052.

Davidson, D. W. 1998. Resource discovery versus resource domination in ants: a functional mechanism for breaking the trade-off. Ecological Entomology 23:484-490.

DeLong, J. P., and D. A. Vasseur. 2011. Mutual interference is common and mostly intermediate in magnitude. BMC ecology 11:1-8.

Dieckmann, U., M. Heino, and K. Parvinen. 2006. The adaptive dynamics of function-valued traits. Journal of theoretical Biology 241:370-389.

Drury, J. P., M. C. Cowen, and G. F. Grether. 2020. Competition and hybridization drive interspecific territoriality in birds. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 117:12923-12930.

Fellers, J. H. 1987. Interference and exploitation in a guild of woodland ants. Ecology 68:1466-1478.

Ferzoco, I. M. C., and S. J. McCauley. 2023. Breaking down the components of the competition-colonization trade-off: New insights into its role in diverse systems. Journal of Animal Ecology 92:352-366.

Galanthay, T. E., V. Křivan, R. Cressman, and T. A. Revilla. 2023. Evolution of Aggression in Consumer-Resource Models. Dynamic Games and Applications:1-17.

García-Bayona, L., and L. Comstock. 2018. Bacterial antagonism in host-associated microbial communities. Science 361: eaat2456.

Ghoul, M., and S. Mitri. 2016. The ecology and evolution of microbial competition. Trends in microbiology 24:833-845.

Grant, P. R. 1999, Ecology and Evolution of Darwin's Finches, Princeton University Press.

Grant, P. R., and B. R. Grant. 2006. Evolution of character displacement in Darwin's finches. science 313:224-226.

Grether, G. F., C. N. Anderson, J. P. Drury, A. N. Kirschel, N. Losin, K. Okamoto, and K. S. Peiman. 2013. The evolutionary consequences of interspecific aggression. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences 1289:48-68.

Grether, G. F., N. Losin, C. N. Anderson, and K. Okamoto. 2009. The role of interspecific interference competition in character displacement and the evolution of competitor recognition. Biological Reviews 84:617-635.

Grether, G. F., and K. W. Okamoto. 2022. Eco-evolutionary dynamics of interference competition. Ecology Letters 25:2167-2176.

Grether, G. F., K. S. Peiman, J. A. Tobias, and B. W. Robinson. 2017. Causes and consequences of behavioral interference between species. Trends in Ecology & Evolution 32:760-772.

Grime, J. P. 1977. Evidence for the existence of three primary strategies in plants and its relevance to ecological and evolutionary theory. The american naturalist 111:1169-1194.

—. 1988. The CSR model of primary plant strategies—origins, implications and tests, Pages 371-393 Plant evolutionary biology, Springer.

—. 2006, Plant strategies, vegetation processes, and ecosystem properties, John Wiley & Sons.

Hastings, A. 1980. Disturbance, coexistence, history, and competition for space. Theoretical population biology 18:363-373.

Hölldobler, B., and E. O. Wilson. 1990, The ants, Harvard University Press.

Holling, C. S. 1965. The functional response of predators to prey density and its role in mimicry and population regulation. The Memoirs of the Entomological Society of Canada 97:5-60.

821   Holway, D. A. 1999. Competitive mechanisms underlying the displacement of native ants by the
822   invasive Argentine ant. Ecology 80:238-251.

823   Horn, H. S., and R. H. MacArthur. 1972. Competition among fugitive species in a harlequin
824   environment. Ecology 53:749-752.

825   Hsu, S.-B. 1982. On a resource based ecological competition model with interference. Journal of
826   Mathematical Biology 12:45-52.

827   Huisman, G., and R. J. De Boer. 1997. A formal derivation of the "Beddington" functional response.
828   Journal of theoretical biology 185:389-400.

829   Inderjit, D. A. Wardle, R. Karban, and R. M. Callaway. 2011. The ecosystem and evolutionary contexts
830   of allelopathy. Trends in ecology & evolution 26:655-662.

831   Jabot, F., and J. Pottier. 2012. A general modelling framework for resource-ratio and CSR theories of
832   plant community dynamics. Journal of Ecology 100:1296-1302.

833   Johnson, C. A., and P. Amarasekare. 2015. A metric for quantifying the oscillatory tendency of
834   consumer-resource interactions. The American Naturalist 185:87-99.

835   Kishi, S., and T. Nakazawa. 2013. Analysis of species coexistence co-mediated by resource
836   competition and reproductive interference. Population ecology 55:305-313.

837   Kooi, B. 2015. Modelling the dynamics of traits involved in fighting-predators–prey system. Journal
838   of Mathematical Biology 71:1575-1605.

839   Křivan, V., and R. Cressman. 2022. The asymmetric Hawk-Dove game with costs measured as time
840   lost. Journal of Theoretical Biology 547:111162.

841   Křivan, V., T. E. Galanthay, and R. Cressman. 2018. Beyond replicator dynamics: From frequency to
842   density dependent models of evolutionary games. Journal of theoretical biology 455:232-
843   248.

844   Kuang, Y., W. F. Fagan, and I. Loladze. 2003. Biodiversity, habitat area, resource growth rate and
845   interference competition. Bulletin of mathematical biology 65:497-518.

846   LeBrun, E. G. 2005. Who is the top dog in ant communities? Resources, parasitoids, and multiple
847   competitive hierarchies. Oecologia 142:643-652.

848   Leighton, G. M., J. P. Drury, J. Small, and E. T. Miller. 2024. Unfamiliarity generates costly aggression
849   in interspecific avian dominance hierarchies. Nature Communications 15:335.

850   Leimar, O. 2009. Multidimensional convergence stability. Evolutionary Ecology Research 11:191-208.

851   Letten, A. D., P. J. Ke, and T. Fukami. 2017. Linking modern coexistence theory and contemporary
852   niche theory. Ecological Monographs 87:161-177.

853   MacArthur, R. 1970. Species packing and competitive equilibrium for many species. Theoretical
854   population biology 1:1-11.

855   Maynard Smith, J. 1974. The theory of games and the evolution of animal conflicts. Journal of
856   theoretical biology 47:209-221.

857   Maynard Smith, J. 1982, Evolution and the Theory of Games, Cambridge University Press.

858   Maynard Smith, J., and G. R. Price. 1973. The logic of animal conflict. Nature 246:15-18.

859   McEachin, S., J. P. Drury, and G. F. Grether. 2024. Competitive displacement and agonistic character
860   displacement, or the ghost of interference competition. The American Naturalist 203:335-
861   346.

862   McPeek, M. A. 2012. Intraspecific density dependence and a guild of consumers coexisting on one
863   resource. Ecology 93:2728-2735.

864   Meiners, S. J., C.-H. Kong, L. M. Ladwig, N. L. Pisula, and K. A. Lang. 2012. Developing an ecological
865   context for allelopathy. Plant Ecology 213:1221-1227.

866   Moran, R. L., and R. C. Fuller. 2018. Male-driven reproductive and agonistic character displacement
867   in darters and its implications for speciation in allopatry. Current Zoology 64:101-113.

868   Moussaoui, A., P. Auger, and B. Roche. 2014. Effect of hawk-dove game on the dynamics of two
869   competing species. Acta biotheoretica 62:385-404.

870   Pastore, A. I., G. Barabás, M. D. Bimler, M. M. Mayfield, and T. E. Miller. 2021. The evolution of niche
871   overlap and competitive differences. Nature Ecology & Evolution 5:330-337.

Real, L. A. 1977. The kinetics of functional response. The American Naturalist 111:289-300.
Rice, E. L. 2012. Allelopathy.
Rodríguez, A., G. Jansson, and H. Andrén. 2007. Composition of an avian guild in spatially structured
habitats supports a competition–colonization trade-off. Proceedings of the Royal Society B:
Biological Sciences 274:1403-1411.
Rosenzweig, M. L. 1971. Paradox of enrichment: destabilization of exploitation ecosystems in
ecological time. Science 171:385-387.
Schoener, T. W. 1976. Alternatives to Lotka-Volterra competition: models of intermediate
complexity. Theoretical population biology 10:309-333.
—. 1978. Effects of density-restricted food encounter on some single-level competition models.
Theoretical Population Biology 13:365-381.
—. 1983. Field experiments on interspecific competition. The american naturalist 122:240-285.
Skellam, J. G. 1951. Random dispersal in theoretical populations. Biometrika 38:196-218.
Song, C., G. Barabás, and S. Saavedra. 2019. On the consequences of the interdependence of
stabilizing and equalizing mechanisms. The American Naturalist 194:627-639.
Stanton, M., T. Palmer, and T. Young. 2002. Competition–colonization trade-offs in a guild of African
acacia-ants. Ecological Monographs 72:347-363.
Tilman, A. R., J. B. Plotkin, and E. Akçay. 2020. Evolutionary games with environmental feedbacks.
Nature communications 11:915.
Tilman, D. 1981. Tests of resource competition theory using four species of Lake Michigan algae.
Ecology 62:802-815.
—. 1982, Resource competition and community structure, Princeton university press.
—. 1994. Competition and biodiversity in spatially structured habitats. Ecology 75:2-16.
—. 2007. Resource competition and plant traits: a response to Craine et al. 2005. Journal of
Ecology:231-234.
Turelli, M. 1978. Does environmental variability limit niche overlap? Proceedings of the National
Academy of Sciences 75:5085-5089.
Van Oudenhove, L., X. Cerda, and C. Bernstein. 2018. Dominance-discovery and discovery-
exploitation trade-offs promote diversity in ant communities. PloS one 13:e0209596.
Vance, R. R. 1984. Interference competition and the coexistence of two competitors on a single
limiting resource. Ecology 65:1349-1357.
Wilson, J. B., E. Spijkerman, and J. Huisman. 2007. Is there really insufficient support for Tilman's R*
concept? A comment on Miller et al. The american naturalist 169:700-706.
Yamamichi, M., and A. D. Letten. 2022. Extending the gleaner–opportunist trade-off. Journal of
Animal Ecology 91:2163-2170.
Ziv, Y., Z. Abramsky, B. P. Kotler, and A. Subach. 1993. Interference competition and temporal and
habitat partitioning in two gerbil species. Oikos:237-246.
Ziv, Y., and B. P. Kotler. 2003. Giving-up densities of foraging gerbils: the effect of interspecific
competition on patch use. Evolutionary Ecology 17:333-347.

911