1	Title:
2	Prevalence of multimodal species abundance distributions is linked to spatial and
3	taxonomic breadth
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41	Abstra	ct
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43	Aim: Species abundance distributions (SADs) are a synthetic measure of biodiversity and community
44	structure. Although typically described by unimodal logseries or lognormal distributions, empirical
45	SADs can also exhibit multiple modes. However, we do not know how prevalent multimodality is,
46	nor do we have an understanding of the factors leading to this pattern. Here we quantify the
47	prevalence of multimodality in SADs across a wide range of taxa, habitats and spatial extents.
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49	Location: Global.
50	
51	Methods: We used AIC _c and Likelihood Ratio tests (LRT) to test whether distributions with more
52	than one mode accurately describe the abundance distributions of the underlying communities. We
53	analysed 117 empirical datasets from intensely sampled communities, including taxa ranging from
54	birds, plants, fish and invertebrates, from terrestrial, marine and freshwater habitats.
55	
56	Results : We find evidence for multimodality in 14.5% of the SADs when using both AIC_c and LRT.
57	This is a conservative estimate, as AIC_c alone estimates a prevalence of multimodality of 22%. We
58	additionally show that the pattern is more common in data encompassing broader spatial scales and
59	greater taxonomic breadth, suggesting that multimodality increases with ecological heterogeneity.
60	
61	Main conclusions: We suggest that higher levels of ecological heterogeneity, underpinned by larger
62	spatial extent and higher taxonomic breadth, can yield multimodal SADs. Our analysis shows that
63	multimodality occurs with a prevalence that warrants its systematic consideration when assessing
64	SAD shape and emphasizes the need for macroecological theories to include multimodality in the
65	range of SADs they predict.

66 Introduction

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Species Abundance Distributions (SADs) depict the relative abundance of the species present in a 68 community and describe one of the most fundamental patterns of species diversity - most 69 70 communities contain many rare and only a few common species (McGill et al., 2007). Empirical datasets consistently produce species abundance distributions that are quasi-hyperbolic on an 71 arithmetic scale - the ubiquitous 'hollow curve'. However, on a logarithmic scale of abundance, 72 SADs exhibit more variability, with species abundance distributions alternately exhibiting no internal 73 mode - most species occur at the lowest abundance class (i.e. as singletons), one internal mode, or 74 75 multiple internal modes. Despite seven decades of study and dozens of different models proposed 76 (McGill et al., 2007), there is still no consensus about what drives variation in SADs shape, nor how it 77 might be connected to factors structuring ecological communities (Fisher *et al.*, 1943; Preston, 1948; 78 Magurran & Henderson, 2003; McGill, 2003b; Green & Plotkin, 2007; Dornelas et al., 2009). The 79 extent to which current biodiversity theories are able to accommodate and explain such variation is a 80 critical criterion to their evaluation and application (McGill et al., 2007).

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82 The two distributions recurrently proposed to describe SADs are the logseries (Fisher *et al.*, 1943) and 83 the lognormal (Preston, 1948) (Fig. 1). While many intensely sampled communities seem to follow a 84 lognormal distribution (Magurran, 2004), it has become increasingly clear that empirical SADs often deviate from a lognormal by having more than one internal mode (Ugland & Gray, 1982; Gray et al., 85 2005; Dornelas & Connolly, 2008). Multimodality is seldom reported and its implications little 86 explored (McGill et al., 2007), with some notable, but dispersed, exceptions. Ugland & Gray (1982) 87 proposed three lognormal distributions, corresponding to rare, intermediate abundant and common 88 species, to describe non-equilibrium marine benthic communities. Magurran & Henderson (2003) 89 'deconstructed' an estuarine fish community into two groups - 'core' and 'occasional', based on 90 species persistence and habitat preferences, where the first group was better fit by a lognormal, while 91 92 the 'occasional' group of rare species followed a logseries distribution. Gray et al. (2005) showed that

a mixture of two lognormal distributions provided a good fit to a marine benthos and a tropical tree
data, again separating the species into 'abundant' and 'rare'.

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In the first statistical analysis comparing the fit of distributions with varying numbers of modes, 96 97 Dornelas & Connolly (2008) showed that the SAD of an intensely sampled coral community was multimodal. However, the different modes could not be explained by mixture of species associated 98 99 with different habitats, and were only partially explained by different spatial aggregation. Recently, Matthews et al. (2014), using the same methodology for an arthropod community, showed that 100 multimodal distributions performed better for many of the samples analysed, and that grouping 101 102 ecologically different species leads to multimodality, with the rarest species mode containing a higher 103 proportion of satellite, introduced and species better adapted to other habitats. However, the effect of 104 dispersal ability was unclear, and a body size niche axis was unrelated to the multimodal patterns. The 105 commonality among these studies is that they indicate that multimodality is linked to ecological 106 heterogeneity, broadly defined as groups of species with different ecological or functional 107 characteristics. This suggests that multimodality should have higher prevalence among communities 108 with higher ecological heterogeneity. Our concept of ecological heterogeneity is intended to 109 encompass the spatial, environmental, taxonomic and functional aspects of ecological systems, rather 110 than simply the number of species or functional groups.

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The prevalence of multimodality in empirical SADs is as yet unknown. In a recent theoretical study, 112 Barabás et al. (2013) reported that stochastic versions of both resource partitioning and neutral models 113 can produce multimodal SADs with a 50% prevalence. The authors argue that in nature, individual 114 realizations are likely to differ from the mean predicted pattern due to stochastic processes, while 115 disputing that the Emergent Neutrality model proposed by Vergnon et al. (2012) is the only one able 116 to produce multimodal SADs. Thus, assessing the prevalence of multimodality in empirical datasets is 117 warranted to establish the generality of the pattern, as well as help elucidate how it can be related to 118 119 different ecological explanations.

121	Here, we undertake a comprehensive global assessment of the prevalence of multimodality for a wide
122	range of communities. This is, to our knowledge, the first assessment of the prevalence of multiple
123	modes in SADs. We improve the method of multimodality detection and show with high confidence
124	that multimodality occurs in 17 out of 117 assemblages. Additionally, we test the hypothesis that
125	more heterogeneous communities are more likely to exhibit multimodality. We show that
126	multimodality has higher prevalence for large scale or taxonomically heterogeneous communities.
127	Broader spatial extent and higher taxonomic breadth (as measured by family diversity) underpin
128	higher ecological heterogeneity, and hence we suggest these as potential explanations for
129	multimodality in SADs.
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132	Materials and Methods
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134	Model Selection
135	To test whether distributions with more than one mode accurately reflect the abundance distributions
136	of the underlying communities we used maximum likelihood methods to explicitly compare the fit of
137	mixtures of 1, 2 and 3 Poisson Lognormal distributions (1PLN, 2PLN and 3PLN, respectively)
138	(Pielou, 1969; Bulmer, 1974); a logseries distribution was also included (Fig. 1). All the calculations
139	were performed in the software R (R Core Team, 2013). Functions to fit the PLN mixtures and to
140	calculate maximum likelihood estimates (MLE) were adapted from Dornelas & Connolly (2008) but
141	using the dpoilog() function from poilog package (Grøtan & Engen, 2008); the log-likelihood
142	functions are otherwise similar and best fit parameters were found by minimizing the negative log-
143	likelihood (functions available in Appendix S1). Parameter estimation was performed using the R
144	optimization routine nlminb and parameter searches were initialized from multiple starting points due
145	to the possibility of several local maxima for more complex distributions (Dornelas & Connolly,
146	2008; Connolly & Dornelas, 2011).

148 Model comparison was performed under a multi-model information-theoretic framework (Burnham & Anderson, 2002), using the second order Akaike's information criterion for small sample sizes (AIC_c, 149 Burnham & Anderson, 2002) and Bayesian information criterion (BIC, Schwarz 1978). AIC_c was 150 used throughout as it converges to AIC when sample size is large (Burnham & Anderson, 2002, 151 152 2004). AIC and BIC are model selection tools that provide quantitative relative support for alternative hypotheses, while finding a compromise between goodness of fit and model complexity. AIC tends to 153 154 overestimate the number of distributions in mixture models, while BIC tends to underestimate them 155 (McLachlan & Peel, 2000; Henson et al., 2007). Hence, we evaluated the performance of these two 156 model selection criteria with a simulation study.

157

We evaluated model performance in slightly different ways in the empirical and simulation studies. 158 For the analysis of the empirical data, relative support for the models was calculated as ΔAIC , which 159 160 is the difference between the AIC_c of each model, and the lowest AIC_c in the model set. Differences larger than 2 indicate substantial evidence against the model with the higher AIC_c (or BIC) (Burnham 161 & Anderson, 2002). However, for the simulation study, the "true model" (the model used to generate 162 the simulated data) is known. Therefore, we calculated AIC differences relative to this true model, a 163 164 quantity we term AICdiff. Specifically, AICdiff is the AIC_c of the true model, minus the smallest AIC_c of the remaining models. This quantity is negative whenever the *true* model is the best fitting 165 model (the one with the lowest AIC score). Conversely, if one or more of the alternative models 166 actually fits better than the true model does, then AICdiff will be positive (note that AICdiff=0 does 167 not indicate the best fitting model). An analogous quantity was calculated for BIC. 168

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171 Simulation Study

172 Because the *PLN-mixture* method has only been applied to specific datasets (Dornelas & Connolly,

173 2008; Vergnon *et al.*, 2012; Matthews *et al.*, 2014), we conducted a simulation study to assess how it

174 performed under a broad range of parameter combinations. We were specifically interested in

determining which conditions lead to selection of a model with the wrong number of internal modes.

176 We defined a *false positive* as simulated samples where a multimodal distribution was selected with high confidence when the *true* distribution generating the sample was not multimodal; and a *false* 177 178 negative as simulated samples where the true distribution was multimodal but for which a 'nonmultimodal' distribution was selected. A range of species richness and parameter values for the four 179 180 alternative abundance distributions models was used to generate simulated count data. The spectrum of parameters used was designed to cover a realistic range for species abundance data (Connolly & 181 182 Thibaut, 2012), and to provide a quantitative picture of whether and when the method fails to select 183 the *true* number of underlying modes. A total of 162 parameter combinations were examined; for each parameter combination, 100 simulated SAD samples were generated and the alternative log-likelihood 184 185 functions were fit (see Appendix S2 for more details and code).

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Parametric Bootstrap

Following the simulation study results, we identified some 1PLN parameter combinations where AIC_c 189 strongly selected a more complex model than the one generating the data with a frequency of up to 190 191 \sim 25% of the simulated samples (Fig. S2.2 in Appendix S2). We additionally calculated likelihood 192 ratio tests (LRT) to minimise the chance of a multimodal distribution being selected due to overfitting. Likelihood ratio tests assess if the improvement in goodness of fit of a more complex 193 194 models is greater than would be expected by chance, if the simpler model were true. LRT are only applicable to nested models, so the logseries was not included in this analysis. Because the null 195 distribution of LRT is known to occasionally deviate from a chi squared distribution (McLachlan, 196 1987; McLachlan & Peel, 2000), we generated null LRT frequency distributions from 1PLN 197 simulated communities. This allows calculating the equivalent of a p-value for the null hypothesis that 198 the sampled data are consistent with a 1PLN distribution, thus providing an alternative assessment of 199 200 whether a multimodal model provided the best-fit for that parameter combination. For the simulation study, we illustrate this by comparing LRT distributions for two parameter combinations, one from 201 the parameter space where AIC_c successfully selected 1PLN, and the other from the space where AIC_c 202 203 has a higher probability of selecting a more complex model.

205	For the empirical data, we conducted a parametric bootstrap likelihood ratio test (PBLRT; see Knape
206	& de Valpine 2012 for an example) for all the SADs selected as multimodal by AIC _c . The parametric
207	bootstrap procedure consisted of randomly generating species abundance values from a 1PLN density
208	function parameterized using the model's maximum likelihood estimates for that empirical dataset
209	(Connolly et al., 2009). As these analyses are very computationally intensive (Dornelas & Connolly,
210	2008; Connolly & Dornelas, 2011), 100 parametric bootstrap samples were generated for each
211	dataset, using $\hat{\mu}$ and $\hat{\sigma}$ (the estimated mean and standard deviation of log-abundances) and sample size
212	as the observed number of species, and the log-likelihood functions were fit (details and code in
213	Appendix S2). This procedure allowed comparing the <i>empirical</i> likelihood ratio, calculated from the
214	empirical SAD fitting, with the frequency distribution expected under the null hypothesis that the data
215	are actually a single PLN.
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218	Empirical Data
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232	originated from plots or sampling stations within less than 1° latitude/longitude, as Regional when
233	data comprised larger areas (e.g. countrywide or larger biome patches), and as Continental when data
234	spanned broader areas such as the whole eastern North American coast or Antarctica. Regarding
235	taxonomic breadth, we used the number of families to quantify this variable. We analysed whether the
236	prevalence of multimodality was influenced by spatial extent and taxonomic breadth (and their
237	interaction) using two models: first, we used a binomial generalised linear model (GLM), aggregating
238	1PLN and logseries as 'non-multimodal'. Additionally, we used a multinomial Bayesian generalised
239	linear model to assess the prevalence of multimodality, 1PLN and logseries separately. We performed
240	the Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) estimation using the R package MCMCglmm (Hadfield,
241	2010). We fitted a model with a random intercept to obtain improved parameter estimates for each
242	level of the fixed effects (see MCMCglmm vignette (Hadfield, 2010) and Gelman & Hill, 2007),
243	running 5,000,000 iterations with a burn-in of 100,000 and a thinning interval of 25.
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communities was multimodal but for which a 'non-multimodal' distribution was selected as best fit,

was 25% for AIC_c and 39% for BIC. For 2PLN and 3PLN simulations, the *true* model was selected when the modes were clearly separated, for smaller σ values and for higher species richness. BIC started to select a simpler model as the distance between the modes decreased 'earlier' than AIC_c, which was still able to select the *true* model for closer modes. Overall, the position of the modes, species richness and particularly σ values showed strong effects in the best-fit model selection, for both AIC_c and BIC, sometimes with different directions (see Appendix S2 for more detailed results and figures for each set of simulations).

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268 When likelihood ratio tests were used in addition to AIC_c, the chance of selecting a more complex model decreased compared to when using AIC_c alone (Fig. S2.5 in Appendix S2). For the parameter 269 space where AIC_c very rarely selected a multimodal distribution, the LRT distribution overlapped 270 271 with the AIC_c selection pattern (Fig. S2.5 a and b). When AIC_c had a higher false positive frequency, 272 using the LRT reduced the chance of erroneously selecting a multimodal model. Furthermore, the parametric bootstrap p-value is more conservative than the critical value from a chi squared 273 distribution for the latter case (Fig. S2.5 c and d). Hence, both AIC_c and PBLRT were used to analyse 274 the empirical SADs, as the high false negative frequency for BIC suggests that it might not effectively 275 276 detect multimodality.

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278

279 Empirical Data

Of the 117 SADs analysed, AIC_c selected a multimodal distribution for 47 SADs, 26 of which with high confidence. For many SADs, estimated 1PLN parameters fell within the parameter space for which AIC_c often selects a multimodal model with high confidence when the true distribution is unimodal (specifically with an estimated standard deviation of log abundance, $\hat{\sigma}$, of about 2). On the other hand, all the SADs selected as logseries also had estimated $\sigma \ge 2$ for the 1PLN model. This suggests that the method is not overfitting generally, but can occasionally select a more complex model. On visual inspection, none of the fitted curves seemed to be odd-looking or out of phase with

287	the empirical SAD (Figs. 3 and S3.1 in Appendix S3), although it is possible that SADs that appear
288	unimodal are better fit by multimodal distributions, and vice-versa (Matthews et al., 2014).
289	
290	For the SADs selected as multimodal, PBLRT supported AIC _c model selection for 17 SADs
291	(empirical likelihood ratio values were higher than the bootstrap p-value from the PBLRT
292	distribution; Fig. 3 and Table S2.2). For the cases where the PBLRT results did not support
293	multimodality, the second best model was assumed to be the best model (either logseries or 1PLN).
294	Overall, 17 SADs are multimodal with high confidence, 1PLN was the best model for 54 and for 46 it
295	was logseries. None of the datasets selected as logseries had continental spatial scale (Table S3.1).
296	
297	Both spatial extent and taxonomic breadth have a positive effect on the prevalence of multimodality
298	(Table 1). For the binomial GLM, SADs with Local spatial extent were significantly less likely to be
299	multimodal (p= 0.0073) vs Continental and Regional scales, and there is a positive effect of the
300	interaction between number of families and the Local scale ($p=0.00407$). When using the
301	multinomial GLM, SADs with Local spatial extent were again significantly less likely to be
302	multimodal vs 1PLN (Fig. 4; pMCMC= 0.01943), but not at Continental and Regional scales. There is
303	a positive effect of the interaction between number of families and the Local scale, with the
304	proportion of multimodality vs 1PLN increasing as the number of families increases (pMCMC=
305	0.00106). In other words, relative to 1PLN, multimodality is significantly less prevalent at Local
306	scales and low family richness, compared to when family richness is higher or spatial extent is
307	Regional or Continental. Conversely, logseries is less prevalent vs 1PLN at Continental scales
308	(pMCMC= 0.01636), and more prevalent at Regional and Local scales (pMCMC= 0.00923 and
309	pMCMC= 0.01578, respectively; Table 1). These effects are independent of number of families,
310	which does not influence significantly the proportion of logseries vs 1PLN.
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313	Discussion

Here we show that 17 out of 117 SADs are multimodal with high confidence (~15%). Further, there is
a higher prevalence of multimodality for communities with broader spatial scale or higher taxonomic
breadth, suggesting that multimodality increases with ecological heterogeneity. This warrants
systematic consideration of multimodality in the quantification of SAD shape.

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Our analysis across different taxa, biomes and species richness indicates that multimodality is not an 320 artefact of particular SADs. The only particularity of the SADs analysed is that they were intensely 321 322 sampled, and there is no reason to suspect that this holds any influence as to whether the underlying ecological community is multimodal. Furthermore, because each empirical SAD analysed 323 corresponds to only one year of sampling, multimodality reflects the structure of the community at a 324 325 particular point in time. Additionally, we infer multimodality only when it is supported by both AIC_c 326 and PBLRT. Given that false negatives were more prevalent than false positives in our simulation 327 study, this renders our conclusions highly conservative. A caveat of our study is that the SADs 328 analysed here do not fully represent the spectrum of community variability in terms of spatial and taxonomic coverage; furthermore, our sample of SADs was not intended to be representative of taxa, 329 330 habitat, climatic regions or even realm. Nevertheless, our results show a positive effect of both spatial 331 scale and taxonomic breadth on the prevalence of multimodality, regardless of taxa and realm.

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333 The prevalence of multimodality we found differs from that suggested by Barabás et al. (2013). Our simulation study showed that depending on the parameter combination, sampled communities from a 334 single PLN can indeed produce apparently multimodal SADs, as the authors suggested. However, we 335 believe that the method developed here improves our ability to test for multimodality. Despite there 336 being no direct correspondence between Barabás et al.'s parameterization and ours, their Fig. 4 337 suggests that the mode of the average unimodal distributions is located around octave 6 of the SAD, 338 with the distributions spanning 11 octaves. This could be compared to our 1PLN simulations for 339 larger μ , σ and species richness values, which fall in the parameter space for which AIC_c has a higher 340 chance of erroneously selecting multimodality. Thus it would be interesting to investigate whether 341

performing the additional LRT to the SADs generated using Barabás *et al.*'s parameterization would
still yield similar multimodality frequencies.

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General explanations for multimodality

Scale is fundamental to understanding biodiversity patterns (Levin, 1992; McGill, 2010). Our results 347 indicate that multimodality is more likely to occur for regional to continental-scale SADs, albeit not 348 exclusively. Some SADs selected as multimodal consist of local samples or plots, but all of these are 349 taxonomically diverse (between 12 and 76 families): ID3 consists of macrobenthos samples from the 350 Belgian Continental Shelf; IDs 95 and 96 of tropical forest plots in Malaysia, ID99 in Thailand, and 351 IDs 101 and 102 of tropical plots in Brazil and Colombia, respectively; and IDs 45, 92 and 108 352 353 consist of vegetation plots in the USA (desert, shortgrass steppe and dune vegetation, respectively). 354 This matches our regression analysis, for which local SADs with low family richness exhibited lower 355 prevalence of multimodality than it did at high family richness or broad spatial scales.

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357 The explanatory variables we analysed here mirror the spatial and organizational scales suggested by 358 Levin (1992) as underpinning the variability of ecological patterns, and they support previous 359 explanations for multimodality. Multimodality has been proposed to arise as consequence of species 360 differences in ecological or functional characteristics (e.g. Magurran & Henderson 2003; Alonso et al. 2008) and of environmental heterogeneity (Dornelas et al., 2009). Both of these explanations are 361 consistent with a greater prevalence of multimodality in communities with greater spatial extent or 362 taxonomic diversity. Our goal was not to develop a predictive model for multimodality, but to 363 quantify its prevalence and test its association with relevant ecological variables. We believe that 364 exploring in more detail the effects of environmental heterogeneity, functional diversity, and core-365 transient species will prove a fruitful avenue to further understand what aspects of ecological 366 heterogeneity affect SAD shape and lead to multimodality. 367

369 An additional interesting research question is how temporal variability in the species abundances might affect SADs' shapes over time. In the present study, we were interested in removing the 370 371 potential effect of temporal fluctuations of the relative abundances of species across years, to avoid the possibility that multimodality could arise as an artefact of a single mode changing position over 372 373 time. In principle, it is also possible that pooling could reduce multimodality, if changes in the position of modes over time make multiple modes more difficult to detect (for instance, if 374 multimodality arises as a transient feature of communities, as an effect of particular stochastic 375 376 environmental effects). Because the models we use implicitly account for sampling effects, and require actual counts (number of individuals sampled), an investigation into the effects of temporal 377 378 averaging would require the development of an alternative statistical approach.

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381 Rarity and commonness

382 SAD studies have often focused on the left-hand side of the distribution and on different theoretical models' ability to accommodate the rarest species mode (e.g. Hubbell 2001; McGill 2003b), and 383 384 several studies have described the rarer mode as the one leading to a multimodal pattern (Magurran & Henderson, 2003; Borda-de-Água et al., 2012; Matthews et al., 2014). Although a mode was often 385 fitted to the rarest species, some of the empirical SAD also exhibited modes for very abundant species 386 387 (e.g. IDs 30, 92, 99 and 108 in Fig. 3). This highlights the observation that communities characterized by very high abundances of the most abundant species might not be accommodated within a single 388 389 lognormal SAD, and a multimodal distribution provides a better description, similarly to communities with a very high prevalence of rare species. While the majority of species are rare and the universal 390 'hollow-curve' SAD is the definitive description of this, the few most common species 391 disproportionately dominate communities in terms of abundance and ecological processes (Gaston, 392 2010, 2011), and might also have considerable influence on SAD shape (e.g. Connolly et al. 2014). 393 394 Logseries distributions were selected as best model relatively frequently, despite all of the data 395

coming from intensely sampled communities. This suggests that, even for high sampling intensity,

397	some communities are characterized by a very high proportion of rare species. The logseries was
398	more often selected for communities encompassing smaller spatial scales, a finding consistent with
399	our regression analysis results. Additionally, visual inspection suggests that there was a slight
400	tendency for the logseries to be favoured when species richness was lower (not shown), and in our
401	analysis logseries was never the model with the best absolute fit (in terms of negative log-likelihood
402	values only; c.f. Baldridge et al., 2015). Interestingly, none of the SADs selected as logseries had the
403	largest spatial extent, contrasting with the predictions of neutral theory with point-mutation speciation
404	(Hubbell, 2001), which predicts a logseries SAD for the metacommunity. On the other hand, the
405	maximum entropy theory of ecology (METE, Harte et al. 2008) predicts a logseries SAD, contrasting
406	with the support for multimodality we found, and with the effect of spatial scale and taxonomic
407	breadth on model frequency.
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	Model selection tools
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410 411	The simulation study showed that the position of the modes, species richness and particularly σ values
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424 modes generally, and that model selection criteria might be affected by parameter values in a

425	nondirectional fashion. As noted before for SADs, comparative measures of goodness of fit can often
426	produce conflicting results (McGill, 2003a; McGill et al., 2007). We showed that additionally
427	calculating LRT frequency distributions further reduces the probability of erroneously selecting
428	multimodality when compared to using AIC _c alone.
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430	
431	Conclusions
432	Multimodal SADs occur at a non-negligible frequency. Larger spatial scale or higher taxonomic
433	breadth can yield multimodal SADs. Greater spatial scale and taxonomic breadth of the communities
434	imply higher ecological heterogeneity. In turn, this is expressed as different levels of species
435	abundance, thus being reflected in the SAD shape and informing on community structure. Here we
436	show that the dichotomy between logseries and lognormal as the sole adequate descriptors of SAD
437	should be expanded to include multimodal models. This will enhance our ability to use SADs to
438	detect the effects of ecological or functional mechanisms affecting the communities. Furthermore,
439	differences in SAD shape across different scales provide important insights to the current endeavour
440	of biodiversity scaling.

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455	Supporting information
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456 457	Appendix S1 – Log-likelihood functions (R code for fitting mixtures of 1, 2 and 3 PLN distributions).
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457 458	Appendix S2 – S2 A: Simulation study details and results;
457 458 459	Appendix S2 – S2 A: Simulation study details and results; S2 B: Likelihood Ratio Test code and results;
457 458 459 460	 Appendix S2 – S2 A: Simulation study details and results; S2 B: Likelihood Ratio Test code and results; Appendix S3 – S3 A: Empirical data selection criteria and non-multimodal SADs plots;
457 458 459 460 461	 Appendix S2 – S2 A: Simulation study details and results; S2 B: Likelihood Ratio Test code and results; Appendix S3 – S3 A: Empirical data selection criteria and non-multimodal SADs plots; S3 B: Data sources and empirical datasets information & ΔAIC values and Akaike
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457 458 459 460 461 462 463 464	 Appendix S2 – S2 A: Simulation study details and results; S2 B: Likelihood Ratio Test code and results; Appendix S3 – S3 A: Empirical data selection criteria and non-multimodal SADs plots; S3 B: Data sources and empirical datasets information & ΔAIC values and Akaike weights for the empirical SADs (provided as csv files).
457 458 459 460 461 462 463 464 465	 Appendix S2 – S2 A: Simulation study details and results; S2 B: Likelihood Ratio Test code and results; Appendix S3 – S3 A: Empirical data selection criteria and non-multimodal SADs plots; S3 B: Data sources and empirical datasets information & ΔAIC values and Akaike weights for the empirical SADs (provided as csv files). Biosketch

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471 Author contributions

- 472 LHA assembled the datasets and performed all the analyses and modeling work. SC and MD
- 473 contributed to the modeling development and analysis of the results. LHA wrote the first draft of the
- 474 manuscript; all authors have discussed the results and contributed extensively to improved revisions.

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1005	community metastability of a subtropical forest: compound effects of natural disturbance and
1006	human land use. Landscape Ecology, 25, 1099–1111.

List of tables 1007

- 1008 Table 1. Binomial and multinomial Bayesian generalised linear model fitting results, showing a
- positive effect of spatial scale or higher taxonomic breadth on the prevalence of multimodality. For 1009
- 1010 the Bayesian GLM, the posterior mean estimates, the 95% credible intervals and the pMCMC
- (MCMC p-values) values are shown. The parameter estimates were considered statistically significant 1011
- when pMCMC values < 0.05, and the 95% credible intervals did not include 0. The term 1012
- "Multimodality : SpatialExtent.Continental : NumberFamilies" refers to the estimation of 1013
- 1014 multimodality vs 1PLN at the Continental scale with the interaction with number of families.

Binomial GLM	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	$Pr(\geq z)$
SpatialExtent.Continental	-0.2207	1.0135	-0.2180	0.8277
SpatialExtent.Regional	-1.5511	1.2830	-1.2090	0.2267
SpatialExtent.Local	-3.7396	1.3940	-2.6830	0.0073
NumberFamilies	-0.0127	0.0154	-0.8230	0.4105
SpatialExtent.Regional : NumberFamilies	0.0060	0.0247	0.2430	0.8084
SpatialExtent.Local : NumberFamilies	0.0747	0.0260	2.8730	0.0041

Multinomial GLM

Multinomial GLM					
Reference: 1PLN-SpatialExtent.Continental	Posterior	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	pMCMC	
	mean	CI	CI	piviCiviC	
Multimodality : SpatialExtent.Continental	-0.0013	-2.4390	2.3690	0.9930	
Multimodality : SpatialExtent.Regional	0.0183	-3.1700	3.2370	0.9944	
Multimodality : SpatialExtent.Local	-3.7030	-6.9170	-0.5603	0.0194	
Multimodality : SpatialExtent.Continental : NumberFamilies	-0.0248	-0.0669	0.0098	0.1597	
Multimodality : SpatialExtent.Regional : NumberFamilies	-0.0124	-0.0805	0.0541	0.7079	
Multimodality : SpatialExtent.Local : NumberFamilies	0.0897	0.0301	0.1519	0.0011	
Logser : SpatialExtent.Continental	-186.0000	-336.7000	-0.4936	0.0164	
Logser : SpatialExtent.Regional	188.1000	1.9480	338.0000	0.0092	
Logser : SpatialExtent.Local	186.2000	1.4960	337.8000	0.0158	
Logser : SpatialExtent.Continental : NumberFamilies	-1.7840	-4.5770	0.7772	0.3401	
Logser : SpatialExtent.Regional : NumberFamilies	1.7330	-0.8160	4.5390	0.3565	
Logser : SpatialExtent.Local : NumberFamilies	1.7650	-0.8011	4.5560	0.3454	

1015 List of figures

1016

1017 Figure 1. Examples of a logseries distribution, a single Lognormal Poisson (1PLN), and mixtures of 1018 two and three Lognormal Poisson distributions (2PLN and 3PLN, respectively). For the logseries 1019 distribution, the single parameter is Fisher's alpha. For the PLN models, μ and σ are the mean and standard deviation of log-abundance for one of the underlying lognormal community abundance 1020 distributions (one pair of parameters for each mode), and ρ_n is the probability that a species comes 1021 1022 from distribution n. The parameters used to generate the sampled abundance data for each distribution are shown, and the species pool size was S=100 (the code to generate the 2PLN example can be found 1023 1024 in Appendix S2).

1025

Figure 2. Map showing the 117 empirical SADs sampling locations and the model selected as best fit(each point corresponds to the mean latitude-longitude).

1028

1029 Figure 3. Species abundance distributions (SADs) of the empirical datasets selected as multimodal 1030 with high confidence, identified by the corresponding ID. All the fitting routines were run on non-1031 binned data. SADs were plotted with bins representing true doubling classes of abundance, following 1032 Gray et al. (2006). For all SADs the yy axis is the number of species and the xx axis is the species 1033 abundance in log2 classes (the first bar represents species with abundance 1, the second one species 1034 with abundances 2-3, then 4-7, 8-15, etc). The fitted curves are red line for the logseries, bold blue 1035 line for 1PLN, dashed green line for 2PLN and dotted orange line for 3PLN. The leftmost column 1036 shows SADs for birds, the second column for terrestrial plants, and the taxon is identified for the 1037 remaining SADs. The symbols indicate SADs locations: ★ in Asia, ▲ in Europe, ◆ in North 1038 America and **O** in South America.

1039

Figure 4. Model selection frequency vs SADs classification for spatial extent and taxonomic breadth
as number of families (the xx-axis was truncated at 80 for better visualization; the 4 SADs with higher

- 1042 number of families not shown were best fit by 1PLN). The absolute number of SADs per spatial
- 1043 extent is 11 Continental, 42 Regional and 64 Local.