

1   **Describing macroecological patterns in microbes: Approaches for comparative**  
2   **analyses of operational taxonomic unit read number distribution with a case study**  
3   **of global oceanic bacteria**

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5   Running title: OTU read number distributions in microbes

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23   Keywords: Species abundance distribution, Skewness, Weibull distribution, Whittaker  
24   plot

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31 **Author contributions**

32 RN conceived of the study, analyzed the data, and wrote the first draft; RN, YO, and  
33 SM discussed the results and their interpretation and contributed significantly to the  
34 final text.

35

36 **Conflict of interest**

37 The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

38

39 **Abstract**

40 Describing the variation in commonness and rarity in a community is a fundamental  
41 method of evaluating biodiversity. Such patterns have been studied in the context of  
42 species abundance distributions (SADs) among macroscopic organisms in numerous  
43 communities. Recently, models for analyzing variation in local SAD shapes along  
44 environmental gradients have been constructed. The recent development of  
45 high-throughput sequencing enables evaluation of commonness and rarity in local  
46 communities of microbes using operational taxonomic unit (OTU) read number  
47 distributions (ORDs), which are conceptually similar to SADs. However, few studies  
48 have explored the variation in local microbial ORD shapes along environmental  
49 gradients. Therefore, the similarities and differences between SADs and ORDs are  
50 unclear, clouding any universal rules of global biodiversity patterns. We investigated  
51 the similarities and differences in ORD shapes vs. SADs, and how well environmental  
52 variables explain the variation in ORDs along latitudinal and depth gradients. Herein,  
53 we integrate ORDs into recent comparative analysis methods for SAD shape using  
54 datasets generated on the Tara Oceans expedition. About 56% of the variance in  
55 skewness of ORDs among global oceanic bacterial communities was explained with this  
56 method. Moreover, we confirmed that the parameter combination constraints of Weibull  
57 distributions were shared by ORDs of bacterial communities and SADs of tree  
58 communities, suggesting common long-term limitation processes such as adaptation and  
59 community persistence acting on current abundance variation. On the other hand,  
60 skewness was significantly greater for bacterial communities than tree communities,  
61 and many ecological predictions did not apply to bacterial communities, suggesting  
62 differences in the community assembly rules for microbes and macroscopic organisms.  
63 Approaches based on ORDs provide opportunities to quantify macroecological patterns  
64 of microbes under the same framework as macroscopic organisms.

65    **Keywords:** Species abundance distribution, Skewness, Weibull distribution, Whittaker

66    plot

67

68 **Introduction**

69 Species diversity patterns, which are characterized by numbers of species and  
70 individuals, provide great opportunities for understanding the ecological and  
71 evolutionary processes that drive global biodiversity (Rabinowitz, 1981; Ricklefs, 2000;  
72 Hubbell, 2001, 2013; Loza *et al.*, 2017). In general, certain species are dominant while  
73 others are rare locally and globally. The processes determining locally common and rare  
74 species have been studied in the context of the species abundance distribution (SAD),  
75 which is one of the most fundamental methods of describing local diversity (Motomura,  
76 1932; MacArthur, 1960; McGill *et al.*, 2007; Doi and Mori, 2013; Ulrich *et al.*, 2018b).  
77 SAD studies focus on the rarity and commonness of species in a local community, and  
78 attempt to reconstruct the background processes that led to those patterns. To date,  
79 numerous SAD models have been proposed (reviewed in McGill *et al.*, 2007).  
80 MacArthur (1957, 1960) developed the broken stick model based on the hypothesized  
81 niche portioning process, and Hubbell *et al.* (2001) provided a mechanistic  
82 interpretation of observed abundance distributions with well-defined ecological  
83 parameters such as dispersal, speciation rate, local abundance, and meta-community  
84 size, under the premise of ecological drift. Using these models, we estimated  
85 background processes from SAD patterns. Previous SAD investigations have been  
86 conducted mainly in plants and animals (e.g., Ulrich *et al.*, 2010; Baldridge *et al.*, 2016),  
87 because large datasets and specific criteria for species delimitation are necessary for  
88 SAD. Therefore, the SAD approach has been applied less to studies of microorganisms  
89 than those of macroscopic species.

90 The recent development of molecular techniques, in particular high-throughput  
91 sequencing, has made it dramatically easier to capture biodiversity patterns in microbes  
92 as well as larger organisms (Lynch and Neufeld, 2015; Schloss *et al.*, 2016; Shade *et al.*,  
93 2018). High-throughput sequencing technology has revealed that the microbial  
94 ecosystem is inhabited by a large number of rare microbial lineages (Fuhrman, 2009),

95 collectively referred to as the “rare biosphere” (Sogin *et al.*, 2006; Galand *et al.*, 2009;  
96 Ser-Giacomi *et al.*, 2018; reviewed in Lynch and Neufeld, 2015). The existence of rare  
97 lineages strongly impacts community structure and diversity patterns, although their  
98 ecological roles and the processes structuring the rare biosphere remain poorly  
99 understood (Ser-Giacomi *et al.*, 2018). The relationships between operational  
100 taxonomic units (OTUs; reviewed in Blaxter *et al.*, 2005) and read number have been  
101 studied in microbes based on concepts similar to SAD (e.g., Livermore and Jones,  
102 2015). Hereafter, we consider OTU read number distributions (ORDs), corresponding  
103 conceptually to the rank abundance curve, as being distinct from SADs. OTUs are  
104 generally defined as groups based on sequence similarity in marker genes (e.g., SSU  
105 rRNA in bacteria and ITS in fungi) (Bálint *et al.*, 2016). Numerous previous studies  
106 have attempted to identify a general best-fit model for ORD in a particular habitat by  
107 comparing various traditional SAD models (e.g., log-series, lognormal, and power-law  
108 distributions) (Shade *et al.*, 2012, Sherrill-Mix *et al.*, 2016, Shoemaker *et al.*, 2017,  
109 Louca *et al.*, 2019). However, few studies have focused on the continuous variation in  
110 ORD shape within microbial communities along geographical and environmental  
111 gradients (however, see Stegen *et al.*, 2016), which has been a major recent trend in  
112 SAD studies of macroecological patterns and their assembly processes.

113 In recent years, methods for analyzing macroecological patterns and community  
114 assembly by comparing SAD shapes have been developed to overcome the limitations  
115 of conventional SAD modeling. Specifically, researchers have recently recognized that  
116 multiple processes can generate similar SAD shapes, resulting in the fit of a given SAD  
117 model not providing clear evidence to support a particular theory (Mathews *et al.*, 2017).  
118 An alternative approach to comparing changes in parameter value(s) for a given SAD  
119 model or the fits of different SAD models to data from a single site is the collection of  
120 abundance data from a variety of sites followed by construction of models to analyze  
121 how SAD properties vary with predictor variables (i.e., comparative analyses of SAD

122 shape; White *et al.*, 2012, Ulrich *et al.*, 2016a, b, Fattorini *et al.*, 2016; Borda-de-Águia  
123 *et al.*, 2017, Guerin *et al.*, 2017, Mathews *et al.*, 2019; reviewed in Mathews *et al.*,  
124 2017). Many methods have been developed to evaluate SAD shape. For example,  $\rho_{\text{norm}}$   
125 has been used to evaluate the relative fits of log-series and lognormal distributions  
126 (Ulrich *et al.*, 2016 a, b). However, the fits of both log-series and lognormal  
127 distributions to community data often weaken with increasing species richness (Ulrich  
128 *et al.*, 2016a, b, also see Fig. S2), which makes the interpretation of these fits  
129 inconsistent along species richness gradients in community data. The gambin  
130 distribution (Ugland *et al.*, 2007) is often used to evaluate SAD shape (Mathews *et al.*,  
131 2014, 2017, 2019), but creation of the gambin distribution requires binning the  
132 abundance data into octaves prior to fitting, losing species-level abundance information.  
133 In addition, the current criterion used to fit the model is the chi-square test, which  
134 generally has a strong dependence on sample size, which makes it difficult to apply the  
135 gambin distribution to high-throughput sequencing data with large numbers of both  
136 OTUs and reads.

137 The comparative analysis approaches used for SAD shape provide two new insights.  
138 First, estimating the constraints of community assembly involves analyzing  
139 macroecological patterns. Ulrich *et al.* (2018b) proposed the concept of ‘forbidden  
140 communities’ in SAD shapes, placing limitations on the possible combinations of  $\lambda$   
141 (scale parameter) and  $\eta$  (shape parameter). The parameter  $\lambda$  can therefore be interpreted  
142 as a measure of SAD shape-specific evenness. The shape parameter  $\eta$  is associated with  
143 an excess of either highly abundant species (low  $\eta$ ) or rare species (high  $\eta$ ). Specifically,  
144 Ulrich *et al.* (2018b) argued that the combination of high  $\eta$  and low  $\lambda$  generates SADs  
145 very similar to the well-known broken stick distribution (MacArthur 1957), but those  
146 distributions rarely occur in nature. Ulrich *et al.* (2018b) showed that the shape and  
147 scale parameters of this distribution have precise ecological interpretations, with the  
148 first acting as a measure of the excess of either rare or common species and the second

149 quantifying the proportion of persistent species in the focal community. In addition,  
150 Ulrich *et al.* (2018b) showed that the scale parameter is linearly correlated with failure  
151 time mathematically, and that it indicates the relative proportion of adapted species in a  
152 community that may be persistent. Thus, these forbidden communities may indicate  
153 limited long-term processes such as adaptation and the persistence of the community  
154 characterized by the current abundance variation.

155 Recently, biogeographic and macroecological studies on geographical and climatic  
156 variation in SADs have employed large datasets, mainly for plants (White *et al.*, 2012;  
157 Ulrich *et al.*, 2016a, b; Guerin *et al.*, 2017). Indeed, large-scale SAD studies have  
158 recently gained attention due to the accessibility of databases. A large amount of species  
159 abundance data collected across a broad range of environments is available for  
160 large-scale comparative SAD research (Fattorini *et al.*, 2016; Borda-de-Águia *et al.*,  
161 2017). For example, Ulrich *et al.* (2016a) showed latitudinal patterns of SAD shape and  
162 discussed the processes behind these patterns using a climatic dataset, while Guerin *et*  
163 *al.* (2017) reported that geographical and climatic gradients affect SAD shapes and  
164 discussed future changes in their shapes expected as a consequence of climate change,  
165 with changes in diversity and ecosystem function.

166 Here, we integrate recent approaches used for comparative analyses of SAD shape  
167 into ORDs. As a case study, we used community datasets generated from the Tara  
168 Oceans expedition (Sunagawa *et al.*, 2015). Tara Oceans is a project that profiled  
169 planktonic and microbial communities in the global ocean using high-throughput  
170 sequencing. We investigated the drivers of variation in ORDs from local bacterial  
171 communities along a geographic gradient, and assessed the similarities and differences  
172 between the geographical patterns of microbes and macroscopic organisms, comparing  
173 the ORDs of bacterial communities with those of macroscopic communities. In  
174 particular, we studied the similarities and differences in ORD and SAD shapes, with a  
175 particular focus on skewness and parameter combinations of the Weibull distribution,

176 and the extent to which environmental variables explain the variation in ORDs along  
177 latitudinal and depth gradients. This approach could support further acceleration of  
178 microbial studies by revealing the drivers of variation in ORD shape and making  
179 comparisons between microbes and macroscopic species.

180

## 181 **Materials and Methods**

### 182 *Empirical data*

183 We used 139 oceanic bacterial community datasets generated from the Tara Oceans  
184 expedition (Sunagawa *et al.*, 2015). Sunagawa *et al.* (2015) extracted merged  
185 metagenomic Illumina reads (miTAGs) containing signatures of the 16S rRNA gene  
186 (Logares *et al.*, 2013), which were mapped to the SILVA SSU rRNA gene sequence  
187 database (Quast *et al.*, 2013) and clustered into OTUs at the 97% similarity level. The  
188 range of total reads per sample was 34,081–184,190, with an average of  $90,103.06 \pm$   
189 28,240.38. The OTU count table was summarized at multiple taxonomic levels and can  
190 be downloaded from <http://ocean-microbiome.embl.de/companion.html> (Sunagawa *et*  
191 *al.*, 2015). We extracted OTUs representing the domain Bacteria for analyses.

192 We calculated the skewness  $\gamma$  of log-transformed relative read numbers to assess the  
193 degree of lower curvature (Ulrich *et al.*, 2016a), which was compared to a symmetrical  
194 lognormal distribution. Negative values of  $\gamma$  indicate an excess of rare OTUs, while  
195 positive values represent an excess of abundant OTUs compared to a lognormal  
196 distribution that is symmetrical around the mean. Thus, the symmetrical lognormal  
197 distribution is not skewed. Asymmetrical lognormal SADs nearly always indicate an  
198 excess of rare OTUs, and consequently have negative skewness (McGill, 2003). The  
199 log-series model shows an excess of relatively abundant OTUs (associated with positive  
200 skewness). We used the parametric function  $SE(\gamma) = (6/n)^{1/2}$  (Tabachnick and Fidell,  
201 1996) to test for significant skewness in SADs (Ulrich *et al.*, 2016a). In this bacterial  
202 community dataset, skewness is positively correlated with the number of rare OTUs

203 (rare biosphere: <0.1 or <0.01, criteria based on Galand *et al.*, 2009, Pedrós-Alió *et al.*,  
204 2012) (Fig. S1). The relationships among  $\rho_{\text{norm}}$ , the alpha parameter of the gamin  
205 distribution, and skewness are shown in Fig. S3.

206

207 *Comparison between ORDs of microbes and SADs of forest plots*

208 To reveal differences between the ORD shapes of microbes and SAD shapes of  
209 macroscopic organisms, we first compared the skewness values of bacterial  
210 communities with those of tree communities published in Appendix 1 of Ulrich *et al.*  
211 (2016a). In addition, we compared the two-parameter Weibull distribution, which was  
212 recently suggested by Ulrich *et al.* (2018b) as a flexible descriptive model for SAD  
213 shapes. Ulrich *et al.* (2018b) suggested that the shape and scale parameters of the  
214 Weibull distribution have precise ecological interpretations, with the first being a  
215 measure of the excess of either rare or common species, and the second quantifying the  
216 proportion of persistent species in the focal community. To identify any similar  
217 limitations of parameter combinations in bacterial communities, we fitted  
218 two-parameter Weibull distributions to datasets of oceanic bacterial communities and  
219 compared the ORD shapes for microbes with the empirical results from 534 tree  
220 communities worldwide, presented in Ulrich *et al.* (2018a). If the ORDs of bacterial  
221 communities show similar constraints, community structuring processes are likely  
222 shared between the bacterial and tree communities, although the specific mechanisms  
223 are unknown. We used the reduced major axis fitting method, following Ulrich *et al.*  
224 (2018b). Values of  $fit < 0.05$  indicate an excellent fit, while  $fit > 0.3$  is poor. We used  
225 the updated stand-alone application RAD 2.0 (Ulrich *et al.*, 2010) for fitting of the  
226 two-parameter Weibull distributions.

227

228 *Explanatory variables for skewness in ORDs*

229 We propose three hypotheses for determining skewness in microbial communities  
230 based on existing studies in macroscopic organisms. First, climatic and geographic  
231 factors, which are directly associated with local productivity, drive skewness  
232 (productivity hypothesis), with higher productivity facilitating lower skewness  
233 (Whittaker, 1975; Hubbell, 1979; Ulrich *et al.*, 2016a). Second, local concentrations of  
234 nutrients in water negatively affect skewness (nutrient hypothesis), and thus a more  
235 eutrophic environment exhibits lower skewness. Last, characteristics of microbial life  
236 cycle strategies (i.e., longevity and persistence) negatively influence skewness (r-K  
237 strategy hypothesis), with shorter generation times leading to greater skewness. More  
238 detailed explanations of those hypotheses and predictions are provided in Table 1. The  
239 original dataset from Sunagawa *et al.* (2015) is also included with information about  
240 each sample.

241 In the multi-regression model, we set latitude, squared latitude, water depth (m),  
242 nitrite concentration ( $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ), phosphate concentration ( $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ), and minimum  
243 potential generation time (h) as explanatory variables for the variation in skewness. The  
244 minimum potential generation times of microbial communities, which were determined  
245 from codon usage biases (for detailed methods, see Vieira-Silva and Rocha 2010), were  
246 used as an index of r-K strategy at the community level. Minimum potential generation  
247 time data are also included the original dataset (Sunagawa *et al.*, 2015). The data output  
248 from high-throughput sequencing generally contains different sequencing depths (i.e.,  
249 uneven sampling effort) for each sample. Sampling effort influences observed SAD  
250 shape (Preston, 1948). Therefore, to account for the effects of biases in the sampled data,  
251 we added the OTU richness and total read number of each sample as covariates in the  
252 regression models. To avoid nonlinear effects, we used ln-transformed data for water  
253 depth, species richness, and total abundance.

254 The level of collinearity between these explanatory variables was determined by  
255 calculating the variance inflation factor (VIF). All variables were standardized to zero

256 mean and unit variance prior to parameter estimation. We selected explanatory variables  
257 according to a threshold VIF value, where  $VIF > 10$  indicates that the model has a  
258 collinearity problem (Quinn and Keough, 2002, Neves *et al.*, 2015). VIF ranged from  
259 1.10 to 8.26, suggesting a lack of multicollinearity in this multi-regression model.  
260 However, the effects of temperature on skewness showed the opposite trends compared  
261 to the results of simple correlation (Fig. S4). We excluded temperature from the final  
262 analyses, causing the VIFs to range from 1.07 to 3.06. We use the ‘car’ package of R  
263 (Fox *et al.*, 2007) to calculate VIFs and the ‘rsq’ package (Zhang, 2018) to calculate  
264 partial r-square coefficients.

265

## 266 **Results**

267 The mean of skewness was  $0.81 \pm 0.17$  among 139 samples. All communities showed  
268 significant positively skewed trends compared to the symmetric lognormal model  
269 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996; Ulrich *et al.*, 2016a), indicating that all ORD shapes are  
270 significantly more similar to log-series distributions than lognormal distributions. Based  
271 on the results of t-test, bacterial communities are significantly more skewed than tree  
272 communities (Welch’s t-test;  $p < 0.0001$ ), and thus more similar to the log-series  
273 distribution in shape.

274 Weibull distribution fits to 137 of the 139 communities (98.6%) were moderate ( $fit <$   
275 0.3), while only two (1.4%) were comparatively poor ( $fit > 0.3$ ). The parameter  
276 combinations in bacterial communities did not exceed the parameter space for tree  
277 communities (Fig. 1), suggesting constraints on ORD shape (Ulrich *et al.*, 2018a).

278 In total, the model explained about 56% of the variance in skewness in 131 ORDs  
279 (Table 2). Eight communities lacked some data and were excluded from the analyses of  
280 ORD shapes. Skewness increased with increasing minimum potential generation time,  
281 and was not associated with productivity, nutrients or r-K strategy, as shown in Table 1.

282

283 **Discussion**

284 We fit the two-parameter Weibull distribution and clearly showed that the parameters of  
285 the bacterial communities were not outside of the limited space described in Ulrich *et al.*  
286 (2018b), suggesting some limitation on community assembly processes that is shared  
287 between SADs and ORDs. We could explain about 56% of skewness variation in ORDs,  
288 revealing the drivers of skewness. Therefore, we conclude that comparative analyses of  
289 ORDs shape are also useful for identifying drivers and background processes, and that  
290 ORD shapes have similar constraints to those described in Ulrich *et al.* (2018b). These  
291 findings emphasize the applicability of comparative analyses of ORD shape in  
292 microbial communities. However, the number of case studies using this method remains  
293 small, so further empirical studies are needed to fully elucidate ORD patterns and their  
294 drivers.

295

296 *Similarities and differences between SADs and ORDs*

297 Comparison of SADs and ORDs has been suggested as a useful approach to identify  
298 general rules across microbial and macroscopic communities (Shade *et al.*, 2018). In the  
299 present study, we compared SADs of tree communities with ORDs of microbial  
300 communities using the two fitted parameters (shape parameter [ $\eta$ ] and scale parameter  
301 [ $\lambda$ ]) of the Weibull distribution. We confirmed similar constraints of parameter  
302 combinations in ORDs and SADs of tree communities of  $\eta < 3$  and  $\lambda < 6$ , as originally  
303 proposed in Ulrich *et al.* (2018b). These constraints on community structure may  
304 indicate limitation due to long-term processes such as adaptation and persistence of the  
305 community on variation in abundance (Ulrich *et al.* 2018b). Locey and Lennon (2016)  
306 found similar scaling of commonness and rarity across microbes and macroscopic plants  
307 and animals, and proposed a universal dominance scaling law that holds true over 30  
308 orders of magnitude. We suggest that the concept of forbidden communities presented  
309 by Ulrich *et al.* (2018b) is related to the scaling law (e.g., community persistence is

310 regulated by metabolic rate). Further comparisons of SADs and ORDs may reveal  
311 whether similar constraints exist in other taxonomic groups and habitats.

312 We emphasize that ORDs should have similar dataset properties as SADs. We also  
313 take a negative view of the common practice of referring to ORDs as SADs and their  
314 inclusion in SAD studies. In our analyses, the skewness of bacterial communities was  
315 significantly greater than that of tree communities, indicating a larger proportion of rare  
316 OTUs among bacteria than among trees. Previous studies in macroscopic organisms  
317 have reported that persistent species (i.e., stable communities driven mainly by habitat  
318 filtering) exhibit a lognormal SAD (i.e., smaller skewness), while transient species (i.e.,  
319 dispersal-driven communities that vary over time) are best modeled with the log-series  
320 (i.e., high skewness) distribution (Magurran and Henderson, 2003; Ulrich and Ollik,  
321 2004; Ulrich *et al.*, 2010, 2016a). Therefore, our results indicate that bacterial  
322 communities include larger proportions of transient OTUs if we interpret the results  
323 based on findings from macroscopic organisms.

324 There are two major factors that should be taken into consideration to inclusion of  
325 ORDs in SAD studies. The first issue is associated with delimitation of species and  
326 individuals in microbes (reviewed in Hason *et al.*, 2012). Empirically, 97% similarity in  
327 (partial) 16S rRNA gene sequences has commonly been used to characterize  
328 prokaryotic species-level phylogenetic diversity. However this resolution leads to  
329 underestimation of genomic (i.e., species) diversity (Rodriguez-R *et al.*, 2018). In tree  
330 communities, Hubbell (2013) found differences in SAD shape among taxonomic  
331 resolutions (i.e., species, genus, and family) in tropical forest data; specifically, the tail  
332 length (rare species) decreased with lower taxonomic resolution. Moreover, researchers  
333 generally treat the read number of OTUs as an abundance metric. However, the results  
334 of 16S rRNA gene sequencing reveal relative, rather than absolute, abundances of  
335 individual lineages. In addition, these results may be biased due to differences in PCR

336 primer specificity and gene copy number among lineages. Thus, care should be taken  
337 when comparing those patterns with actual abundance data.

338 The second issue is associated with the community characteristics. In SAD studies,  
339 researchers generally focus on a horizontal community composed of a single trophic  
340 level, such as “tree community” and “herbivore community” (but see Mathews *et al.*,  
341 2019). However, the sequencing data based on a marker gene contains DNA of the  
342 entire assemblage in a sample, which makes it impossible to categorize the trophic  
343 levels of all microbes and ontogenetic stages. The presence of a persistent microbial  
344 seed bank (i.e., *in situ* populations of long-lived rare OTUs) might affect  
345 community-level patterns (Gibbs *et al.*, 2013), making it difficult to interpret the  
346 relationship between the proportion of rare OTUs and minimum potential generation  
347 time. In other words, microbial community datasets include different life stages as one  
348 category, analogous to grouping “seed in the soil,” “mature tree,” and “dead tree” in a  
349 dataset of trees. Above, we noted the possibility that bacterial communities include  
350 larger proportions of transient OTUs when interpreted based on data for macroscopic  
351 organisms. If we consider that long-lived rare OTUs are present *in situ*, the  
352 interpretation of a larger proportion of transient OTUs in microbes is directly  
353 contradicted. Therefore, it may be difficult to apply ecological rules that were  
354 developed in horizontal communities of macroscopic species (Vellend *et al.*, 2010,  
355 Vellend 2016) to DNA-based microbial datasets, at least those related to the community  
356 properties of persistence and transience.

357

358 *Extent to which environmental variables explain variation in ORD shapes in oceanic*  
359 *bacteria worldwide*

360 The multi-regression model explained about 56% of skewness variation in ORDs. Using  
361 data from oceanic bacterial communities, we confirmed that the patterns predicted from  
362 hypotheses based on macroscopic studies were not supported, as shown in Table 1.

363 Furthermore, the skewness was significantly and positively affected by the minimum  
364 potential generation time within bacterial communities. This result is in opposition to  
365 the prediction based on research in macroscopic organisms (Table 1, 2). To explain the  
366 opposing trends in bacterial communities compared to predictions for macroscopic  
367 species, we could interpret this result as showing that competitive exclusion is less  
368 likely occur in bacteria than in macroscopic communities. In macroscopic organisms,  
369 species are adapted to the environment as a community, which makes the relationship  
370 between the environment and community structure clear. In animals and plants, when  
371 suitable species are present in an environment, unsuitable species are excluded from the  
372 community, and the relationship between the environment and community structure is  
373 simple. On the other hand, bacteria under unsuitable conditions may continue existing  
374 (e.g., enter dormancy), thus appearing in high-throughput sequencing data. Campbell *et*  
375 *al.* (2011) compared DNA-based patterns with those based on RNA (i.e.,  
376 transcriptionally active OTUs), and suggested that about 12% of amplicon sequences of  
377 oceanic bacteria are always inactive.

378

### 379 **Conclusions and perspectives**

380 Comparative analyses of skewness,  $\rho_{\text{norm}}$ , and the Weibull and gamin parameters,  
381 which are major approaches used recently in SADs, provide researchers a basis for  
382 discussing similarities and differences between microbial and macroscopic life. In the  
383 near future, comparative approaches between microbes and macroscopic organisms,  
384 including environmental DNA (eDNA) metabarcoding studies (e.g., Doi *et al.*, 2019),  
385 may reveal universal rules determining global biodiversity patterns. Further theoretical  
386 frameworks focused specifically on microbes and multi-trophic data are needed, with  
387 macroscopic ecology studies such as Hubbell *et al.* (2001) as a starting point for  
388 discussion (Rosindell *et al.*, 2012). We encourage construction of microbe-specific  
389 ecological rules, such as rules explicitly considering the metabolic versatility of

390 microbes in community assembly processes, as the properties necessary for inclusion in  
391 datasets differs from those for macroscopic organisms. At the same time, further  
392 comparative analyses may reveal the detailed drivers and facilitate a better  
393 understanding of the similarities and differences between the quantitative patterns of  
394 macroscopic and microbial communities.

395

#### 396 **Data Accessibility Statement**

397 All environmental factors, calculated data, and the OTU table used for analyses are  
398 presented in Tables S1 and S2, and the original data were published in Sunagawa *et al.*  
399 (2015) and <http://ocean-microbiome.embl.de/companion.html>. The Weibull parameters  
400 and skewness of global tree communities published in Ulrich *et al.* (2018a) are available  
401 from [https://figshare.com/articles/Weibull\\_fits/5975098](https://figshare.com/articles/Weibull_fits/5975098) and Appendix 1 of Ulrich *et al.*  
402 (2016a), respectively.

403

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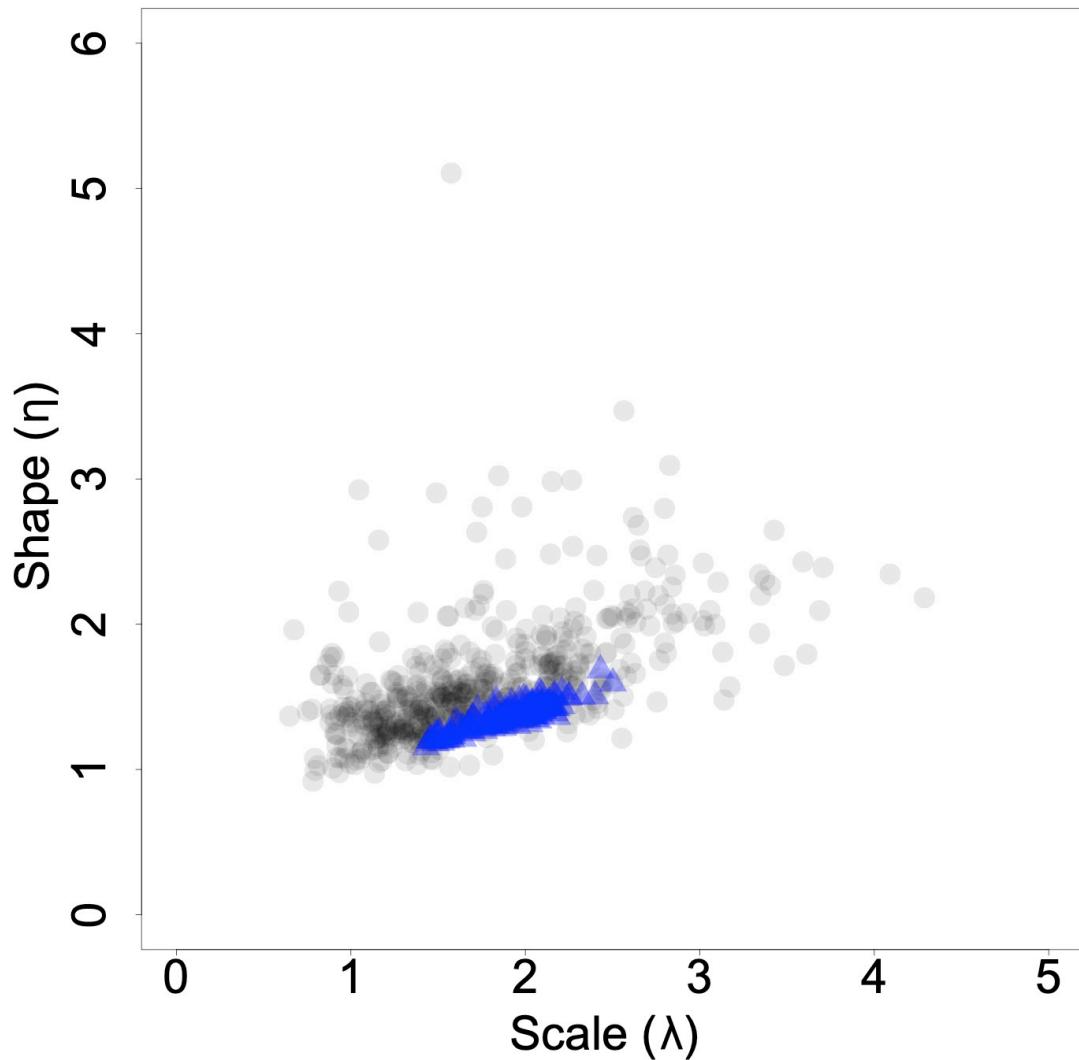
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576 **Figure legend**

577 Figure 1 Relationship between shape ( $\eta$ ) and scale ( $\lambda$ ) parameters. Blue circles indicate  
578 the parameters of 139 bacterial communities analyzed in this study. Gray circles  
579 indicate the parameters of 534 empirical global tree communities published in Ulrich *et*  
580 *al.* (2018a) and [https://figshare.com/articles/Weibull\\_fits/5975098](https://figshare.com/articles/Weibull_fits/5975098). The parameters of  
581 bacterial communities did not exceed the parameter space of tree communities.

582

583 Figure 1



584

585 Table 1 Major hypotheses and predictions associated with skewness tested in this study

Hypothesis	Prediction	Related variables	References
(i) Low productivity conditions facilitate skewness (productivity hypothesis).	Skewness decreases toward lower-latitude, deeper, and cooler conditions.	Latitude, Water depth, Temperature	Whittaker (1975), Hubbell (1979), Ulrich <i>et al.</i> (2016a)
(ii) Nutrient limitation facilitates skewness (nutrient hypothesis).	Skewness increases toward lower-nutrient conditions.	NO <sub>2</sub> , PO <sub>4</sub>	Ulrich <i>et al.</i> (2016a)
(iii) Dominance of r strategists facilitates skewness (r-K strategy hypothesis).	Skewness decreases with increasing long-lived OTUs.	Minimum potential generation time	Magurran & Henderson (2003), Ulrich & Ollik (2004), Ulrich <i>et al.</i> (2016a)

586 **Table 2 Results of the multi-regression model for skewness.**

	$\beta$	$r^2_{par}$	$P$	
Latitude	-0.0425	0.0034	0.5190	
Latitude <sup>2</sup>	0.0817	0.0150	0.1740	
ln(Water depth)	0.0304	0.0007	0.7660	
NO <sub>2</sub>	0.0530	0.0064	0.3770	
PO <sub>4</sub>	0.1397	0.0120	0.1180	
Minimum potential generation time	0.3884	0.1634	<0.0001	***
ln(Total read number)	0.0190	0.0006	0.7830	
ln(OTUs richness)	0.3863	0.1335	<0.0001	***
Whole model		<i>adj. R</i> <sup>2</sup>	$P$	
		0.5591	<0.0001	***

587 Significance: \* $<0.05$ , \*\* $<0.01$ , \*\*\* $<0.001$

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591 Figure S1 Positive correlations between skewness and rare OTU richness ((a) *adj. R*<sup>2</sup> =  
592 0.3951, *p* < 0.0001, (b) *adj. R*<sup>2</sup> = 0.3966, *p* < 0.0001).  
593 Figure S2 Relationship between lognormal and log-series fits ((a) *adj. R*<sup>2</sup> = -0.0045, *p* =  
594 0.5387, (b) *adj. R*<sup>2</sup> = 0.1243, *p* < 0.0001, (c) *adj. R*<sup>2</sup> = 0.0840, *p* = 0.0003). We followed  
595 the methods of Ulrich *et al.* (2016a) for calculating both log-series and lognormal fits.  
596 Figure S3 Comparison among  $\rho_{\text{norm}}$ , gamin alpha, and skewness. We calculated two  
597 indices used for comparative analyses of SAD shapes,  $\rho_{\text{norm}}$  and gamin alpha. ((a) *adj.*  
598  $R^2$  = 0.3173, *p* < 0.0001, (b) *adj. R*<sup>2</sup> = 0.4440, *p* < 0.0001, (c) *adj. R*<sup>2</sup> = 0.7773, *p*  
599 < 0.0001). We followed the methods of Ulrich *et al.* (2016a) and Mathews *et al.* (2014)  
600 to calculate  $\rho_{\text{norm}}$  and gamin alpha, respectively.  
601 Figure S4 Results of simple correlation testing. Significance: \* < 0.05, \*\* < 0.01,  
602 \*\*\* < 0.001, ■ < 0.1  
603 Table S1 Extracted bacterial OTU table published in Sunagawa *et al.* 2015.  
604 Table S2 Environmental variables and calculated indices used in this study.  
605 Supplementary text 1 Multimodality of the gamin distribution.  
606  
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