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50 important research questions in microbial ecology

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Reid, William; Newcastle University, School of Biology Robinson, Heather; University of Manchester, Faculty of Life Sciences Wilson, Ken; Lancaster University, Lancaster Environment Centre Sutherland, William; University of Cambridge, Department of Zoology environmental processes, evolutionary processes, functional diversity, Keywords: host-microbiome interactions, priority setting, research agenda **SCHOLARONE**[™] Manuscripts This is a pre-copyedited, author-produced version of an article accepted for publication in FEMS Microbiology Ecology following peer review. The version of record Antwis et al. (2017) is available online via: https://doi.org/10.1093/femsec/ fix044



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- 39 environmental processes, evolutionary processes, functional diversity, host-microbiome interactions,
- 40 priority setting, research agenda

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41 Abstract

Microbial ecology provides insights into the ecological and evolutionary dynamics of microbial communities underpinning every ecosystem on Earth. Microbial communities can now be investigated in unprecedented detail, although there is still a wealth of open questions to be tackled. Here we identify 50 research questions of fundamental importance to the science or application of microbial ecology, with the intention of summarising the field and bringing focus to new research avenues. Questions are categorised into seven themes: Host-Microbiome Interactions; Health and Infectious Diseases; Human Health and Food Security; Microbial Ecology in a Changing World; Environmental Processes; Functional Diversity; and Evolutionary Processes. Many questions recognise that microbes provide an extraordinary array of functional diversity that can be harnessed to solve real-world problems. Our limited knowledge of spatial and temporal variation in microbial diversity and function is also reflected, as is the need to integrate micro- and macro-ecological concepts, and knowledge derived from studies with humans and diverse other organisms. Certain methods remain inadequate and currently limit progress in the field. Although not exhaustive, the questions presented are intended to stimulate discussion and provide focus for researchers, funders, and policy makers, informing the future research agenda in microbial ecology.

58 Introduction

 In recent years, there has been an explosion in microbial ecological research, which is reflected in broad-scale research projects such as the Human Microbiome Project and the Earth Microbiome Project, as well as in the peer-reviewed literature (e.g. Boers et al., 2016). Recent rapid technological advances, including next-generation sequencing, (meta)genomics, metabolomics, (meta)transcriptomics and (meta)proteomics, have vastly increased our ability to study microbial community complexity and function (Morris et al., 2002; Hiraoka et al., 2016). These provide unprecedented opportunities to assess genomic potential, gene regulation, expression and function in situ (Schneider et al., 2012, Franzosa et al., 2015), especially when combined with detailed knowledge of natural history and environmental parameters (Peay, 2014). Such techniques have been applied to a vast range of fields within the scope of 'microbial ecology' in order to better understand how microorganisms interact with and affect their environment, each other, and other organisms. With an overwhelming and ever-growing number of potential and critical research avenues in microbial ecology, it is timely to identify major questions and research priorities that would progress the field. Here we present the results of a workshop hosted by the British Ecological Society's Microbial Ecology Special Interest Group in June 2016, which used a discussion and voting-based system to identify 50 research questions of importance to the field of microbial ecology. Similar exercises identifying important research questions have been conducted in conservation (Sutherland et al., 2009, Dicks et al. 2012), pure ecology (Sutherland et al., 2013a), marine biodiversity (Parsons et al., 2014), sustainability (Dicks et al., 2013; Jones et al. 2014), and non-ecological subjects including UK poverty (Sutherland et al., 2013b). These papers have been widely accessed and are directly applicable to the development of policy, as highlighted by Jones et al. (2014). Methods Participants

The methods used here were based broadly on those presented in Sutherland *et al.* (2011). A one-day workshop was held by the British Ecological Society's Microbial Ecology Special Interest Group at the University of Salford (UK) in June 2016. Invitations to attend the meeting were distributed via the

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3	87	British Ecological Society's membership mailing list and through social media (Twitter and Facebook).
4 5	88	In total, 34 participants from 20 institutions attended and contributed to the development of the 50
6 7	89	questions listed below, with the majority listed as authors on this paper.
8 9 10	90	
10 11 12	91	Questions
13 14	92	Prior to the workshop, attendees were asked to submit questions via an online form that they thought
15 16	93	most closely met the following brief:
17 18	94	"We are aiming to identify 50 questions that, if answered, will make a considerable
19 20	95	difference to the use of microbial ecology by practitioners and policy makers, or to
21 22	96	the fundamentals of the field of microbial ecology. These should be questions that
23 24	97	are unanswered, could be answered, and could be tackled by a research
25	98	programme. This is expected to set the agenda for future research in the field of
26 27	99	microbial ecology."
28 29 30	100	
31 32	101	A total of 244 questions were submitted by attendees (see Supplementary Information), and assigned
33 34	102	(by R.E. Antwis and S.M. Griffiths) to the following themes;
35 36 37	103	1) Host-Microbiome Interactions;
38 39	104	2) Health and Infectious Diseases;
40 41	105	3) Human Health and Food Security;
42 43 44	106	4) Microbial Ecology in a Changing World;
45 46	107	5) Environmental Processes;
47 48	108	6) Functional Diversity;
49 50 51	109	7) Evolutionary Processes.
52 53	110	
54 55	111	An additional eighth theme named 'Society and Policy' was created to capture a number of questions
56 57 58 59 60	112	that were generally applicable across the biological sciences, as well as a number of questions

113 specific to the field of microbial ecology which could not necessarily be addressed through laboratory

- 114 based microbial ecology research, *per se*.

Question selection process

Prior to the workshop, participants were asked to identify the top ~20% of questions in each theme that most closely aligned with the brief (selection of 5-11 questions from a total of 26-57 questions per theme via online form; Supplementary Information). Participants were asked to consider all questions within a theme and to select questions based on the theme's context and the brief for the workshop. Some questions were included in more than one theme to encourage discussion and to increase the likelihood that pertinent questions remained in the selection process. Questions were then ranked according to the number of online votes they received, and this formed the material for the workshop.

Three sets of parallel sessions were run at the workshop, with participants free to select which theme sessions they attended. Questions were discussed in order of lowest ranking to highest, with duplicates removed and questions reworded as necessary. For each theme, a final set of 'gold' (~15% of questions, total of 47 questions across all themes) and 'silver' questions (~10% of questions, total of 29 questions) were identified. Where necessary, a show of hands was used to ensure the democratic process was upheld.

A final plenary session was held in which all gold and silver questions were discussed. For gold questions, duplicates among categories were removed and questions reworded to reflect the discussion in the room, resulting in 43 gold questions. A similar process was then completed for silver questions, and a show of hands used to vote for seven questions that could be elevated to gold status to form the final set of 50 questions.

136 Limitations

All but four participants were from British universities, although there were representatives from a
range of nationalities and research areas. The manner in which this paper was developed (*i.e.* through
a physical workshop and via the British Ecological Society) means that, without a substantial travel
budget, a bias towards UK institutions was inevitable. However, many participants have worked on, or

1		
3	141	currently collaborate in, research projects on non-UK ecosystems and species, and therefore the
4 5	142	questions proposed are drawn from considerable knowledge and experience of the field
6 7	143	internationally. Additionally, although most individuals were from academic institutions, many
8 9	144	individuals had previous or on-going collaborations with industrial partners and governmental/non-
10	145	governmental organisations.
12 13	146	
14 15 16	147	Results
17 18	148	The following 50 questions are presented by theme, and are not ordered according to relevance or
19	149	importance. Due to the nature of the process, some questions may appear similar across themes, but
21	150	within the context of each theme can take on a different meaning. Some questions may relate to
22 23	151	research areas that are already somewhat active, and these serve to highlight the importance of and
24 25	152	encourage further work in these areas. Some of these questions apply across multiple biomes and
26 27	153	ecosystems, and can be considered in the context of multiple host organisms and across varying
28 29	154	temporal and spatial scales.
30 31	155	
32 33 34	156	Host-Microbiome Interactions
35 36	157	Host-microbiome interactions determine many host life history traits such as behaviour, reproduction,
07		
30	158	physiological processes, and disease susceptibility (Archie and Theis, 2011; Willing et al., 2011; Koch
37 38 39	158 159	physiological processes, and disease susceptibility (Archie and Theis, 2011; Willing <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Koch & Schmidt-Hempel, 2011; Daskin & Alford, 2012; King <i>et al.</i> , 2016). Increasingly, we are discovering
37 38 39 40 41	158 159 160	physiological processes, and disease susceptibility (Archie and Theis, 2011; Willing <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Koch & Schmidt-Hempel, 2011; Daskin & Alford, 2012; King <i>et al.</i> , 2016). Increasingly, we are discovering that host-microbiome interactions produce complex and dynamic communities that fluctuate in
37 38 39 40 41 42 43	158 159 160 161	physiological processes, and disease susceptibility (Archie and Theis, 2011; Willing <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Koch & Schmidt-Hempel, 2011; Daskin & Alford, 2012; King <i>et al.</i> , 2016). Increasingly, we are discovering that host-microbiome interactions produce complex and dynamic communities that fluctuate in compositional abundance correlated with factors as diverse as host genotype, developmental stage,
37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45	158 159 160 161 162	physiological processes, and disease susceptibility (Archie and Theis, 2011; Willing <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Koch & Schmidt-Hempel, 2011; Daskin & Alford, 2012; King <i>et al.</i> , 2016). Increasingly, we are discovering that host-microbiome interactions produce complex and dynamic communities that fluctuate in compositional abundance correlated with factors as diverse as host genotype, developmental stage, diet, and temporal changes, among others (e.g. Spor <i>et al.</i> , 2011). Even in otherwise well studied
37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47	158 159 160 161 162 163	physiological processes, and disease susceptibility (Archie and Theis, 2011; Willing <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Koch & Schmidt-Hempel, 2011; Daskin & Alford, 2012; King <i>et al.</i> , 2016). Increasingly, we are discovering that host-microbiome interactions produce complex and dynamic communities that fluctuate in compositional abundance correlated with factors as diverse as host genotype, developmental stage, diet, and temporal changes, among others (e.g. Spor <i>et al.</i> , 2011). Even in otherwise well studied organisms, very little is known about the consequences of microbiome variation for host processes,
37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49	158 159 160 161 162 163 164	physiological processes, and disease susceptibility (Archie and Theis, 2011; Willing <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Koch & Schmidt-Hempel, 2011; Daskin & Alford, 2012; King <i>et al.</i> , 2016). Increasingly, we are discovering that host-microbiome interactions produce complex and dynamic communities that fluctuate in compositional abundance correlated with factors as diverse as host genotype, developmental stage, diet, and temporal changes, among others (e.g. Spor <i>et al.</i> , 2011). Even in otherwise well studied organisms, very little is known about the consequences of microbiome variation for host processes, particularly across different spatial and temporal scales. Considerations of host microbiomes are also
37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50	158 159 160 161 162 163 164 165	physiological processes, and disease susceptibility (Archie and Theis, 2011; Willing <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Koch & Schmidt-Hempel, 2011; Daskin & Alford, 2012; King <i>et al.</i> , 2016). Increasingly, we are discovering that host-microbiome interactions produce complex and dynamic communities that fluctuate in compositional abundance correlated with factors as diverse as host genotype, developmental stage, diet, and temporal changes, among others (e.g. Spor <i>et al.</i> , 2011). Even in otherwise well studied organisms, very little is known about the consequences of microbiome variation for host processes, particularly across different spatial and temporal scales. Considerations of host microbiomes are also likely important for global issues, such as the efficacy of conservation efforts including species
37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 52	158 159 160 161 162 163 164 165 166	physiological processes, and disease susceptibility (Archie and Theis, 2011; Willing <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Koch & Schmidt-Hempel, 2011; Daskin & Alford, 2012; King <i>et al.</i> , 2016). Increasingly, we are discovering that host-microbiome interactions produce complex and dynamic communities that fluctuate in compositional abundance correlated with factors as diverse as host genotype, developmental stage, diet, and temporal changes, among others (e.g. Spor <i>et al.</i> , 2011). Even in otherwise well studied organisms, very little is known about the consequences of microbiome variation for host processes, particularly across different spatial and temporal scales. Considerations of host microbiomes are also likely important for global issues, such as the efficacy of conservation efforts including species reintroduction programmes (reviewed in Redford <i>et al.</i> , 2012; McFall-Ngai, 2015). Additionally,
37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54	158 159 160 161 162 163 164 165 166 167	physiological processes, and disease susceptibility (Archie and Theis, 2011; Willing <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Koch & Schmidt-Hempel, 2011; Daskin & Alford, 2012; King <i>et al.</i> , 2016). Increasingly, we are discovering that host-microbiome interactions produce complex and dynamic communities that fluctuate in compositional abundance correlated with factors as diverse as host genotype, developmental stage, diet, and temporal changes, among others (e.g. Spor <i>et al.</i> , 2011). Even in otherwise well studied organisms, very little is known about the consequences of microbiome variation for host processes, particularly across different spatial and temporal scales. Considerations of host microbiomes are also likely important for global issues, such as the efficacy of conservation efforts including species reintroduction programmes (reviewed in Redford <i>et al.</i> , 2012; McFall-Ngai, 2015). Additionally, interactions between native and non-native species are correlated with transmission of microbiota,
37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56	158 159 160 161 162 163 164 165 166 167 168	physiological processes, and disease susceptibility (Archie and Theis, 2011; Willing <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Koch & Schmidt-Hempel, 2011; Daskin & Alford, 2012; King <i>et al.</i> , 2016). Increasingly, we are discovering that host-microbiome interactions produce complex and dynamic communities that fluctuate in compositional abundance correlated with factors as diverse as host genotype, developmental stage, diet, and temporal changes, among others (e.g. Spor <i>et al.</i> , 2011). Even in otherwise well studied organisms, very little is known about the consequences of microbiome variation for host processes, particularly across different spatial and temporal scales. Considerations of host microbiomes are also likely important for global issues, such as the efficacy of conservation efforts including species reintroduction programmes (reviewed in Redford <i>et al.</i> , 2012; McFall-Ngai, 2015). Additionally, interactions between native and non-native species are correlated with transmission of microbiota, often determined by relatedness or diet type (Ley <i>et al.</i> , 2008), and the microbiome plays a key role in

170	2011). The following questions aim to address the shortfall in our understanding of the interactions
171	between microbiomes and their human and non-human hosts.
172	
173	1.What are the primary mechanisms within a host that mediate microbe-microbe and host-microbe
174	interactions?
175	2. What are the relative contributions of host-associated and environmental factors in determining host
176	microbial community composition?
177	3. How do microbial communities function to affect the phenotype of the host?
178	4. Can compositional or evolutionary changes in microbiomes help hosts adapt to environmental
179	change within the lifetime of the host?
180	5. What is the role of the microbiota in host speciation processes?
181	6. How can the associated microbiota be effectively included in risk assessments of Invasive Non-
182	Native Species?
183	7. How does the microbiome of captive animals affect the success of reintroduction programmes?
184	8. How can a 'systems biology' approach improve our understanding of host-microbe interactions?
185	
186	Health and Infectious Diseases
187	The last 50 years have seen the emergence of several hypervirulent wildlife pathogens in animals
107	
100	(e.g. Tasmanian devirtace tumour disease, avian maiana, amphibian chytridiomycosis; reviewed in
189	Tompkins <i>et al.</i> , 2015) and plants (e.g. sudden oak and larch death, ash dieback; Pautasso <i>et al.</i> ,
190	2015). Although the role of microorganisms as pathogens is well known, the importance of host-
191	associated microbiomes in regulating disease susceptibility is becoming more apparent (Koch &
192	Schmidt-Hempel, 2011; Daskin & Alford, 2012; King et al., 2016). A major outstanding research goal is
193	to understand how within-host interactions among microbes and invading pathogens may shape
194	patterns of infection intensity and disease progression (see also Evolutionary Processes). Several
195	studies have sought to determine how manipulation of host microbiomes may ameliorate the spread
196	and impact of such diseases (<i>e.g.</i> Rebollar <i>et al.,</i> 2016).

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3	197	While for many disease states the paradigm holds true that one microorganism causes one
4 5	198	disease, polymicrobial infections are becoming more apparent through metagenomic and
6 7	199	metatranscriptomic sequencing of disease-associated microbial communities (Gilbert et al., 2016).
8 9	200	Consequently, the 'pathobiome' concept, where a disease state is influenced by complex interactions
10	201	between commensal and pathogenic microorganisms, presents new challenges for applying Koch's
12	202	postulates to diseases arising from polymicrobial interactions (Vayssier-Taussat et al., 2014), such as
13 14 15	203	black band disease (BBD) in corals (Sato et al., 2016) and olive knot disease (Buonaurio et al., 2015).
16 17	204	In this theme we have identified research questions relating to the microbial ecology of
18 19	205	infectious diseases and host health. Although much can be learnt from the comparatively high number
20	206	of studies in the human and biomedical literature (e.g. using network approaches in epidemiology), the
21	207	questions selected in this theme predominantly relate to non-human animals and plants, as humans
23 24	208	are covered later ('Human Health and Food Security').
25 26 27	209	
28 29	210	9. How can we better track the source and dispersal of particular microorganisms in real time?
30 31	211	10. Many microorganisms are unculturable, and many microbiome studies reveal that diseases are
32 33	212	polymicrobial; how can we re-evaluate Koch's postulates in this context?
34 35 36	213	11. Which factors trigger 'covert' infections to become 'overt', impacting host health?
37 38	214	12. At the population level, how is the burden and shedding intensity of intracellular microbes affected
39 40	215	by co-infection by extracellular parasites?
41 42	216	13. What is the ecological relevance of the internalization of bacterial pathogens by protozoa in terms
43 44	217	of their survival and spread?
45 46	218	14. How can network theory best be used to predict and manage infectious disease outbreaks in
47 48	219	animals and plants?
49 50	220	15. Can microbiomes of wildlife (plants and animals) be used or manipulated to enhance health and/or
51 52	221	disease resistance?
55 55	222	
56 57 58 59 60	223	Human Health and Food Security

With the human population due to exceed eight billion by 2024, food security and human health are high on political and scientific agendas. The human microbiome has been the focus of intense research efforts in recent years, (e.g. Walter & Ley, 2011; Spor et al., 2011; Mueller et al., 2012), because gut symbionts shape the immune response (Round et al., 2009), and diversity fluctuates through chronic conditions and infectious diseases including diabetes, obesity (Serino et al. 2016; Baothman et al., 2016; Ridaura et al., 2013), asthma (Smits et al. 2016), and HIV (Lozupone et al., 2013). Improving our understanding of the core human microbiome and individual variation will underpin pharmomicrobiomics, enabling development of novel therapeutic treatments and, ultimately, personalised medicine (e.g. Ubeda et al., 2013).

Antibiotic resistance resulting from selective pressures generated by the use and misuse of antibiotics is a global threat to public health (Levy, 1997; Tam et al., 2012). The volume of antibiotics used in agriculture now exceeds the amount used in human medicine in many countries (WHO, 2011). Antibiotics are still widely used in livestock for prophylaxis and growth promotion, often at sub-therapeutic concentrations, exacerbating resistance (Krishnasamy et al., 2015). The impact of the leaching of antibiotics into the natural environment and subsequent impacts on natural microbial communities remains poorly characterised (Franklin et al., 2016). Current practices of growing high-intensity monoculture crops have a negative impact on the microbial biodiversity of soils through a combination of tillage, subsequent erosion and chemical applications (Helgason et al., 1998; Jacobsen and Hjelmsø, 2014; Zuber and Villamil, 2016), which imposes selection pressures on pathogenic microbes, fungal symbiotic partners and plant growth promoting bacteria (Chapparo et al., 2012; Hartmann et al., 2015). Thus, there is a need to maintain and enhance microbial populations of crop ecosystems, especially in light of antibiotic resistance (Ellouze et al., 2014). As antibiotic resistance increases, along with our concern about potential impact on both human and animal health, there is an increasing drive to find new forms of antibiotics.

Though the remit for this section is relatively broad, the questions focus on two central themes: i) studying the human microbiome to improve the treatment of disease, including the development of personalized medicine and novel antibiotics; and ii) understanding how *current* antibiotic regimes and farming practices may negatively impact the diversity of the environmental microbiome and food production capacity.

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2 3	254	16. How can human microbiome studies improve personalised medicine?
4 5 6	255	17. What ecological principles can be applied in the search for new antibiotics and alternatives?
7 8	256	18. What are the main determinants of waterborne infection outbreaks, and what is the best strategy
9 10	257	to control these in water distribution systems?
11 12	258	19. What are the consequences of antibiotic and pharmaceutical use in human medicine on microbial
13 14	259	communities in freshwater and soil environments?
15 16	260	20. To what extent are microbial species distributions influenced by climate, and what are the
17 18	261	consequences for food security and human health?
20 21	262	21. How much microbial diversity in the soil has been lost through monoculture and what is the
22	263	importance of this?
24 25	264	22. Intensive farming may involve high levels of agrochemicals and broad-spectrum antibiotic usage -
26 27	265	what will be the long-term effects on microbial communities?
28 29	266	23. How best can we harness microbial communities to enhance food production?
30 31	267	
32 33	268	Microbial Ecology in a Changing World
34 35 36	269	Global changes resulting from human activity impact almost every habitat on earth. It is imperative that
37 38	270	we focus efforts on understanding the impacts of human activities such as climate change,
39 40	271	urbanisation, agriculture, and industrial processes on microbial communities, ecosystem functioning
41	272	equilibrium, and host health. Microbial populations have a tremendous capacity to adapt to changes in
42	273	their abiotic environment, yet the functional implications of these transitions in microbial ecology are
44 45	274	still poorly understood and characterised (Bissett et al., 2013), and the role of microbes in mediating
46 47	275	the response of larger organisms to change is equally understudied. Global environmental changes
48 49	276	(GECs) are complex and multifaceted. Human activities such as urbanisation, land-use change and
50 51	277	introduction of invasive species have played a role in shifting global ecosystems via desertification,
52 52	278	climate change and habitat degradation. Although such changes have been quantified in aquatic and
54	279	terrestrial habitats (e.g. Haberl et al., 2007; Halpern et al., 2008), their effects on microbial
55 56	280	communities and impacts on ecosystem function are often hindered by a lack of characterisation of
57 58 59	281	communities, or limited understanding of microbial functional traits. Shifts in basic nutrients and gases

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282	such as CO ₂ , along with temperature fluctuations and water availability, greatly influence the
283	distribution and behaviour of species (Tylianakis et al., 2008). GECs can alter host fitness or
284	ecosystem functioning (Shay et al., 2015; Webster et al. 2016) and are likely to occur in combination.
285	While there is a great deal of research into the effects of each of these on microbial communities
286	(Schimel et al., 2007; Shurin et al., 2012; Lloret et al., 2014), literature considering the effect of
287	multiple GECs is sparser, and these have complicated and often unpredictable consequences when
288	combined (although see Hutchins et al., 2009; Ryalls et al., 2013). In this section, we consider how
289	human activities directly and indirectly influence the microbial world. Where applicable, these
290	questions can be considered across multiple biomes and ecosystems, with reference to resulting
291	trophic cascades, in addition to the impacts on multiple biogeochemical processes. We also consider
292	how microbes can be used as a tool for mitigation or bioremediation of human-induced environmental
293	changes, and the ways in which microbes can be included in current evaluations of global change.
294	
295	24. How can we integrate microbial communities into models of global change?
275	24. Now can we integrate microbial communities into models of global change:
296	25. Will ocean acidification, temperature increases and rising sea levels lead to changes in microbial
297	diversity or function, and what will the cascading effects of this be?
298	26. How do human activities, such as oil and gas drilling, influence the sub-surface microbiome(s)?
299	27. How will increasing urbanisation affect environmental and host-associated microbial communities?
300	28. How resilient are different microbial functional groups to ecosystem disturbance?
301	29. Can we manipulate microbial succession in species-poor soils to encourage repopulation by flora
302	and fauna?
303	
304	Environmental Processes
305	Microbes play a fundamental role in environmental processes and ecosystem services, including
306	nutrient cycling and organic matter decomposition (Chin et al. 2016; Creamer et al., 2015; Weider et
307	al., 2013), bioremediation of contaminated habitats or waste systems (Haritash & Kaushik, 2009; Oller
308	et al., 2011), and influencing greenhouse gas emissions (Singh et al., 2010; Bragazza et al., 2013; Hu
309	et al, 2015). The ability to harness these processes has great potential for societal and environmental

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3	310	applications, particularly in extremophiles, which frequently reveal metabolic capabilities and
4 5	311	evolutionary solutions not witnessed elsewhere in the microbial world (Coker et al. 2016). However, it
6 7	312	is rarely possible to directly link the presence of a specific microbial taxon to a particular ecological
8 9	313	process. Other methodological challenges include establishing the relative importance of biotic and
10 11	314	abiotic factors in microbial ecosystem function, and determining the appropriate spatial and temporal
12 13	315	scale necessary to discriminate links between microbiota and their ecological functions (Bissett et al.,
10 14 15	316	2013). Concurrently, a deeper understanding is required of human-induced impacts on the global
16	317	microbiome through urbanisation, habitat degradation, climate change, and the introduction of invasive
17 18	318	species, amongst others.
19 20 21	319	
22 23	320	30. How do we successfully establish microbial communities used in bioremediation?
24 25	321	31. How important is the rare microbiome in ecosystem function, and how does this change with
26 27	322	stochastic events?
29	323	32. To what extent is microbial community diversity and function resilient to short- and long-term
30 31	324	perturbations?
32 33	325	33. What is the importance of spatial and temporal variation in microbial community structure and
34 35 36	326	function to key environmental processes and geochemical cycles?
37 38	327	34. How can we accurately measure microbial biomass in a reproducible manner?
39 40	328	35. Which mechanisms do extremophiles use for survival and how can they be exploited?
41 42	329	
43 44	220	
45	330	Functional Diversity
40	331	Ecologists are increasingly turning their attention to classifying species based on their activity
48 49	332	(function) within an ecosystem, rather than their genotype (Crowther et al., 2014). This is particularly
50 51	333	relevant for microbial ecology, in which species are hard to define, horizontal gene transfer is rife, and
52 53	334	taxonomy is often blurred. Understanding how membership within complex and dynamic microbial
54 55	335	communities relates to the function of that community is one of the key challenges facing microbial
56 57	336	ecology (Widder et al., 2016). This is true across a vast range of spatial scales, from microbial dyads
57 58 59 60	337	to the gut of a Drosophila fly, to ancient trees and their associated ecosystems, right through to global

338	biogeochemical processes. There is an urgent need to understand how the genome of a microbial
339	community (and in some cases, its host) relates to metabolic capacities. Conversely, there is also a
340	need to understand how ecosystems depend on a particular organism or group of organisms for any
341	given process and function. This section describes the need to move from simply describing microbial
342	diversity to understanding what these organisms are doing, how they are doing it, and what biotic and
343	abiotic drivers are controlling their activity. Each question may derive a suite of different answers,
344	depending on the group of organisms, the habitat and the process.
345	
346	36. What are the mechanisms driving microbial community structure and function, and are these
347	conserved across ecosystems?
348	37. What is the relative importance of stochastic vs. determinative processes in microbial community
349	assembly?
350	38. How conserved are microbial functions across different spatial and temporal scales?
351	39. What is the relative importance of individual 'species' for the functioning of microbial communities?
352	40. How much functional redundancy is there in microbial communities, and how does functional
353	redundancy affect measures of diversity and niche overlap?
354	41. How often are functional traits of microbes successfully conferred through horizontal gene
355	transfer?
356	42. What methods can we use to marry microbial diversity with function; how do we link
357	transcriptomics, proteomics and metabolomics?
358	43. How do we move beyond correlation to develop predictive models that advance our understanding
359	of microbial community function and dynamics?"
360	44. How useful are synthetic communities for testing theories about microbial community dynamics
361	and function?
362	
363	Evolutionary Processes
364	The role of microorganisms in determining evolutionary outcomes of hosts is being investigated in

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3	365	increasing detail (McFall-Ngai et al., 2013). Experimental evolution studies represent a powerful
4 5	366	means of quantifying host-microbe and microbe-microbe coevolution, and have highlighted the
6 7	367	extraordinary capacity of microbes to act as key mediators of host fitness (e.g. King et al 2016). Whilst
8 9	368	experimental coevolution studies provide a framework for linking dyadic interactions to community-
10	369	scale dynamics (Brockhurst & Koskella, 2013), evolutionary principles stemming from macro-ecology
12	370	are being applied to microbial communities of humans (Robinson et al., 2010). However, fundamental
13 14	371	biological questions that are well-studied in macrobiology remain controversial for microbial ecology,
15 16	372	for example the species concept remains a source of debate (Freudenstein et al. 2016). The
17 18	373	operational taxonomic unit (OTU) has become the standard unit for identifying bacteria at the highest
19 20	374	taxonomic resolution possible, yet it is hard to clearly define where taxonomic boundaries lie between
21	375	two bacteria, and what an OTU really represents in biological terms. This is especially problematic in
23	376	the context of horizontal gene transfer, which is commonly observed in bacteria and has turned our
24 25	377	understanding of evolutionary processes upside down. This section relates to how general ecological
26 27	378	principles influence microbial evolution and vice versa, what this means for global biodiversity, and
28 29	379	whether evolutionary principles can be utilised for anthropogenic gain.
30 31 32	380	
33 34	381	45. How can a bacterial 'species' be defined?
35 36 37	382	46. To what extent is faunal and floral biodiversity influenced by microbial communities?
38 39	383	47. To what extent do microbial communities have an equivalent to keystone 'species'?
40 41	384	48. Does the structure of microbial communities conform to the same ecological rules/principles as in
42 43	385	other types of communities?
44	386	49. How do fundamental shifts in environmental conditions impact the trajectory of microbial
46 47	387	evolution?
47 48	200	50. What are the valative calenting foreca for uning microhial company or participation?
49 50	300	50. What are the relative selective forces rayouting microbial genome expansion of reduction?
51 52	389	Society and Policy
53 54	390	We need to find ways to apply fundamental biological research to the benefit of society and policy. For
55 56	391	example, collaboration with social scientists is crucial when investigating public understanding of
57 58 59	392	microbial ecology, as well as using citizen science approaches to tackle microbial ecology research
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 questions. Many questions relating to this area were discussed at the workshop, and here we present four additional questions that were developed at the meeting that relate to societal and policy-based aspects of microbial ecology. How can we best address supply and demand of information about microbial ecology between researchers, clinicians, policy makers and practitioners? How can we best use social and traditional mass media for early identification of emerging threats to animal and plant health? How can we develop an open access data repository or integrate existing databases to create • a centralised and standardised method for data and methods sharing in microbial ecology? How can we replace fear-based regulation with risk-based regulation, specifically with regard • to the use of microbes in bioremediation and bioaugmentation? Discussion Here we present 50 important research questions across a number of themes relating to the field of microbial ecology. Although there are many other research issues worthy of investigation, it is intended that these questions will be used to inform and direct future research programmes and agendas, particularly in areas where microbial ecology has not previously been considered or applied. In many cases, these questions are deliberately broad to allow researchers to adapt them to their own areas of interest, for example across different systems, or to varying spatial scales. Across many questions there was strong recognition of the vast metabolic capabilities of microorganisms and microbial communities, and the need to harness this power to improve human and animal health and wellbeing. Some themes addressed various existing mechanisms for exploiting microbial processes, namely bioremediation, soil improvement, water treatment and probiotic suppression of pathogen resistance. As these are already active areas of research, the questions posed here are structured to provide a framework by which these efforts can be directed in the future. A predominant theme that emerged was the need to integrate knowledge between different research areas, for example the application of information from human microbiome studies to the

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study of other non-model host organisms, and the potential to apply macro-ecological frameworks to micro-ecological concepts. Many fundamental biological questions that are well-studied in classical ecology remain controversial for microbial ecology, and the species concept (Freudenstein et al. 2016), taxonomy, and how the OTU should be defined for microorganisms, generated multiple questions (e.g. see 'Evolutionary Processes' theme). Classical community ecology concepts should not be overlooked when considering microbial dynamics (Rynkiewicz et al., 2015) and, conversely, microbial communities may prove useful models for general ecology due to their short generation times, reproducibility, and ease of use in the laboratory environment (Brockhurst & Koskella, 2013; Libberton et al., 2015; King et al., 2016). There have been a number of calls for the medical profession to look to ecological and evolutionary tools when seeking to understand epidemiology (Johnson et al., 2015), investigating novel antibacterial agents (Vale et al., 2016), and considering multi-host, multi-agent disease systems (Buhnerkempe et al., 2015). The 'Host-Microbiome Interactions' theme considered the need to understand factors influencing microbiome composition, which in turn have consequences for a myriad of host traits, including disease susceptibility and host evolution (Chisholm et al., 2006; Archie & Theis, 2011; Spor et al., 2011; Cho & Blaser, 2012; McFall-Ngai et al., 2013; McFall-Ngai, 2015; Zilber-Rosenberg & Rosenberg, 2008). As this theme considered microbiota from the perspective of the host, there was some overlap with the 'Health and Infectious Diseases' and 'Evolutionary Processes' themes. Probiotics were discussed as a viable and promising alternative to current strategies in a number of

contexts in these themes, not only to improve individual health, but also to decrease disease
susceptibility of humans and other animals, to enhance nutritional quality of food, and to mitigate the
negative impacts of antibiotic use across humans, livestock, aquaculture and agriculture (Martín et al.,
2013; Newaj-Fyzul et al., 2014; Smith, 2014; Fox, 2015). Developing personalized probiotic-based
therapies requires complementary diversity and functional-based studies in order to elucidate the
specific roles of microbiota in health and disease, and thus how microbial communities can be
manipulated.

Questions considered in both the '*Functional Diversity*' theme and the '*Environmental Processes*' theme raised a common need to understand changes in microbial community structure
and function across spatial and temporal scales (Carmona *et al.*, 2016). Establishing appropriate
spatial scales for studying microbial processes is an outstanding challenge: micro-organisms can

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orchestrate ecosystem functioning across whole biomes (Sheffer *et al.*, 2015), yet fungi exhibit low
mobility on tree barks (Koufopanou *et al.* 2006, Robinson *et al.*, 2016), and an air void in soil can be
an insuperable barrier for a bacterium. Similarly, drawing meaningful conclusions about microbial
processes requires understanding of their temporal variability; for example, diurnal influences
(Shurpali *et al.*, 2016), or lags behind changes in ecosystem drivers (Allison and Martiny, 2008).

A subject common to a number of themes was the role of individual species versus consortia in community functioning. The question of defining bacterial species is a contentious topic, and the issue remains whether some microbial taxa act as keystones in ecosystem functions. Many microbial surveys carry the implicit assumption that the most abundant taxa are also the most important, yet rare species can be hugely significant if they are highly active and/or monopolise a particular process (Lynch and Neufeld, 2015). The collective metabolic capabilities of micro-organisms have great potential for *in situ* applications such as bioremediation, particularly when used in multi-species consortia (Mikesková et al., 2012). Successful bioremediation and environmental management requires the introduction of new assemblages into an established community, or stimulation of key members of the community in situ (Rillig et al., 2015). In turn, predicting the successful establishment of deliberately introduced organisms depends on an understanding of the principles underlying microbial community formation and structure. Despite these challenges, functional diversity modelling has successfully been applied to the ecological restoration of some plant communities (Laughlin, 2014). Closely linked to this is the issue of functional redundancy, and to what extent it is possible to lose species without affecting ecosystem functions. Already there is evidence that microbial communities may be less functionally redundant than macro-organism communities (Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2016). This issue ties into fundamental ecological concepts, such as niche theory (Carmona et al., 2016); if multiple organisms are carrying out the same process, apparently interchangeably, how do they avoid competitively excluding one another? The concept of keystone species has been shown to be applicable to microbes (Neufeld et al., 2008; Pester et al., 2010; Ze et al., 2012; Yu et al., 2016), yet further work is needed to characterise the extent to which keystone functions occur in different environments and whether these can be consistently identified (Anderson, 2003; Pester et al., 2010).

479 The need for open access databases and repositories, both in the context of data sharing as
480 well as for methods and protocols, was reflected in the questions shortlisted for the *'Society and*

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Policy' theme. Discussions included the benefits of forming collaborative and open research communities, and the need to ensure the legacy of academic research through improving regulation and policy and engagement with the public. Fear-based regulation of research, grounded in alarmist or populist campaigns, as opposed to risk-based regulation built upon evidence, was identified as a possible obstacle to progress, which could be addressed through greater interaction between microbial ecologists and the public at both governmental and grass roots levels. Large scale assessments of ecosystem services and degradation acknowledge the paucity of data on microbial impacts, presumably because there are no convincing large-scale messages that can be derived at this stage (Norris et al., 2011). Microbial diversity is therefore rarely considered when estimates of biodiversity are required for policy or management decisions. That said, the increasing recognition of the fundamental impact of the microbial world on the functioning of larger-scale processes has made the deliberate manipulation of the microbial world a controversial subject, which was reflected in the number of draft questions submitted related to bioremediation and bioaugmentation (see Supplementary Information). Collaboration with social scientists was identified as crucial in gauging the public understanding of microbial ecology, and citizen science approaches were considered as tools to tackle key microbial ecology research questions.

The 50 questions identified here cover a broad range of topics, but some over-arching themes recur across multiple questions, including a recognition that microbes play an important role in a variety of different processes and systems, which may be harnessed to solve real-world problems. There were some similarities between the questions identified here and those identified by previous workshops of a similar nature. For example, questions relating to soil health and biodiversity (Dicks et al. 2013), a requirement for developing a theoretical understanding of micro- and macro- ecological concepts (Prosser et al. 2007, Sutherland et al. 2013a) and disease dynamics (Prosser et al. 2007, Sutherland et al. 2013a) have a degree of commonality with this list. This indicates that the ecological theory underpinning many research questions transcends scientific disciplines, and that there is still much work to be done at both theoretical and applied levels. Within these 50 questions, we have tried to provide a focus for researchers addressing scientific questions from a microbial perspective, regardless of their background. It is expected that these guestions will facilitate interesting discussion and new, exciting, interdisciplinary research. The list is by no means exhaustive, and we recognise that the questions presented here are relatively community-centric, primarily due to the recent

511	expansion in methodological approaches that have improved our understanding of microbial
512	community diversity and function. That said, other areas of microbial ecology should not be ignored or
513	forgotten. Given the rapidly evolving field of microbial ecology, it is expected that future workshops
514	with a wide draw will be held to ensure that the identification of research priorities and areas of interest
515	is a continuing process.
516	
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524	
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529	
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6 7 8	1	50 important research questions in microbial ecology	
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27 28	36		
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31 32	38	Keywords:	
33 34	39	environmental processes, evolutionary processes, functional diversity, host-microbiome interactions,	
35 36	40	methods, priority setting, research agenda	
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41 Abstract

> Microbial ecology provides insights into the ecological and evolutionary dynamics of microbial communities underpinning every ecosystem on Earth. Microbial communities can now be investigated in unprecedented detail, although there is still a wealth of open questions to be tackled. Here we identify 50 research questions of fundamental importance to the science or application of microbial ecology, with the intention of summarising the field and bringing focus to new research avenues. Questions are categorised into eight seven themes: Host-Microbiome Interactions; Health and Infectious Diseases; Food Security and Human Health and Food Security; Microbial Ecology in a Changing World; Environmental Processes; Functional Diversity; and Evolutionary Processes; and Methods in Microbial Ecology. Many questions recognise that microbes provide an extraordinary array of functional diversity that can be harnessed to solve real-world problems. Our limited knowledge of spatial and temporal variation in microbial diversity and function is also reflected, as is the need to integrate micro- and macro-ecological concepts, and knowledge derived from studies with humans and diverse other organisms. Certain methods remain inadequate and currently limit progress in the field. Although not exhaustive, the questions presented are intended to stimulate discussion and provide focus for researchers, funders, and policy makers, informing the future research agenda in microbial ecology.
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7 | 59 | Introduction |
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9 | 60 | In recent years, there has been an explosion in microbial ecological research, which is reflected in |
| 10 | 61 | broad-scale research projects such as the Human Microbiome Project and the Earth Microbiome |
| 12 | 62 | Project, as well as in the peer-reviewed literature (e.g. Boers et al., 2016). Recent rapid technological |
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1∡ | 63 | advances, including next-generation sequencing, (meta)genomics, metabolomics, |
| 15 | 64 | (meta)transcriptomics and (meta)proteomics, have vastly increased our ability to study microbial |
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19 | 65 | community complexity and function (Morris et al., 2002; Hiraoka et al., 2016). These provide |
| | 66 | unprecedented opportunities to assess genomic potential, gene regulation, expression and function in |
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22 | 68 | of natural history and environmental parameters (Peay, 2014). Such techniques have been applied to |
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35 | 69 | a vast range of fields within the scope of 'microbial ecology' in order to better understand how |
| | 70 | microorganisms interact with and affect their environment, each other, and other organisms. |
| | 71 | With an overwhelming and ever-growing number of potential and critical research avenues in |
| | 72 | microbial ecology, it is timely to identify major questions and research priorities that would progress |
| | 73 | the field. Here we present the results of a workshop hosted by the British Ecological Society's |
| | 74 | Microbial Ecology Special Interest Group in June 2016, which used a discussion and voting-based |
| | 75 | system to identify 50 research questions of importance to the field of microbial ecology. Similar |
| | 76 | exercises identifying important research questions have been conducted in conservation (Sutherland |
| 36 | 77 | et al., 2009, Dicks et al. 2012), pure ecology (Sutherland et al., 2013a), marine biodiversity (Parsons |
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38 | 78 | et al., 2014), sustainability (Dicks et al., 2013; Jones et al. 2014), and non-ecological subjects |
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40 | 79 | including UK poverty (Sutherland et al., 2013b). These papers have been widely accessed and are |
| 41
42 | 80 | directly applicable to the development of policy, as highlighted by Jones et al. (2014). |
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| | 83 | Methods |
| | 84 | Participants |
| 51 | 85 | The methods used here were based broadly on those presented in Sutherland et al. (2011). A one-day |
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53 | 86 | workshop was held by the British Ecological Society's Microbial Ecology Special Interest Group at the |
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55 | 87 | University of Salford (UK) in June 2016. Invitations to attend the meeting were distributed via the |
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6 7	88	British Ecological Society's membership mailing list and through social media (Twitter and Facebook).
8 9	89	In total, 34 participants from 20 institutions attended and contributed to the development of the 50
10 11	90	questions listed below, with the majority listed as authors on this paper.
12	91	
13 14 15	92	Questions
16	93	Prior to the workshop, attendees were asked to submit questions via an online form that they thought
17 18	94	most closely met the following brief:
19 20	95	"We are aiming to identify 50 questions that, if answered, will make a considerable
21	96	difference to the use of microbial ecology by practitioners and policy makers, or to
22 23	97	the fundamentals of the field of microbial ecology. These should be questions that
24 25	98	are unanswered, could be answered, and could be tackled by a research
25 26 27 28	99	programme. This is expected to set the agenda for future research in the field of
	100	microbial ecology."
29 30	101	
31 32	102	A total of 244 questions were submitted by attendees (see Supplementary Information), and assigned
33 34	103	(by R.E. Antwis and S.M. Griffiths) to the following eight t hemes;
35 36	104	1) Host-Microbiome Interactions;
37 38	105	2) Health and Infectious Diseases;
39 40	106	3) Food Security and Human Health and Food Security;
41 42	107	4) Microbial Ecology in a Changing World;
43 44	108	5) Environmental Processes;
45 46	109	6) Functional Diversity;
47 48	110	7) Evolutionary Processes.
49 50	111	8) Methods in Microbial Ecology.
51 52	112	
53 54	113	An additional ninth eighth theme named 'Society and Policy' was created to capture a number of
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6 7	114	questions that were generally applicable across the biological sciences, as well as a number of
8 9	115	questions specific to the field of microbial ecology which could not necessarily be addressed through
10	116	laboratory based microbial ecology research, per se.
11 12	117	
13 14	118	Question selection process
15 16	119	Prior to the workshop, participants were asked to identify the top ~20% of questions in each theme
17 18	120	that most closely aligned with the brief (selection of 5-11 questions from a total of 26-57 questions per
19	121	theme via online form; Supplementary Information). Participants were asked to consider all questions
20 21	122	within a theme and to select questions based on the theme's context and the brief for the workshop.
22 23	123	Some questions were included in more than one theme to encourage discussion and to increase the
24	124	likelihood that pertinent questions remained in the selection process. Questions were then ranked
25 26	125	according to the number of online votes they received, and this formed the material for the workshop.
27 28	126	Three sets of parallel sessions were run at the workshop, with participants free to select which
29 20	127	theme sessions they attended. Questions were discussed in order of lowest ranking to highest, with
30 31	128	duplicates removed and questions reworded as necessary. For each theme, a final set of 'gold' (~15%
32 33	129	of questions, total of 47 questions across all themes) and 'silver' questions (~10% of questions, total of
34	130	29 questions) were identified. Where necessary, a show of hands was used to ensure the democratic
35	131	process was upheld.
37 38	132	A final plenary session was held in which all gold and silver questions were discussed. For
39 40	133	gold questions, duplicates among categories were removed and questions reworded to reflect the
40	134	discussion in the room, resulting in 43 gold questions. A similar process was then completed for silver
42 43	135	questions, and a show of hands used to vote for seven questions that could be elevated to gold status
44 45	136	to form the final set of 50 questions across the eight themes.
46 47	137	
47 48 49	138	Limitations
50	139	All but four participants were from British universities, although there were representatives from a
51 52	140	range of nationalities and research areas. The manner in which this paper was developed (<i>i.e.</i> through
53 54	141	a physical workshop and via the British Ecological Society) means that, without a substantial travel
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budget, a bias towards UK institutions was inevitable. However, many participants have worked on, or
currently collaborate in, research projects on non-UK ecosystems and species, and therefore the
questions proposed are drawn from considerable knowledge and experience of the field
internationally. Additionally, although most individuals were from academic institutions, many
individuals had previous or on-going collaborations with industrial partners and governmental/nongovernmental organisations.

149 Results

The following 50 questions are presented by theme, and are not ordered according to relevance or importance. Due to the nature of the process, some questions may appear similar across themes, but within the context of each theme can take on a different meaning. Some questions may relate to research areas that are already somewhat active, and these serve to highlight the importance of and encourage further work in these areas. Some of these questions apply across multiple biomes and ecosystems, and can be considered in the context of multiple host organisms and across varying temporal and spatial scales.

158 Host-Microbiome Interactions

Host-microbiome interactions determine many host life history traits such as behaviour, reproduction, physiological processes, and disease susceptibility (Archie and Theis, 2011; Willing et al., 2011; Koch & Schmidt-Hempel, 2011; Daskin & Alford, 2012; King et al., 2016). The 'hologenome theory' suggests that the microbiome be considered an integral part of the host system, with the evolution of an individual's own genetic material and that of the associated microbiota intrinsically linked (Zilber-Rosenberg & Rosenberg, 2008; Daskin & Alford, 2012). Increasingly, we are discovering that host-microbiome interactions produce complex and dynamic communities that fluctuate in compositional abundance influenced by correlated with factors as diverse as host genotype, developmental stage, diet, and temporal changes, among others (e.g. Spor et al., 2011). Even in otherwise well studied organisms, very little is known about the consequences of microbiome variation for host processes, particularly across different spatial and temporal scales. Considerations of host microbiomes are also likely important for global issues, such as the efficacy of conservation efforts including species

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5 6	171	reintroduction programmes (reviewed in Redford <i>et al.</i> 2012: McEall-Ngai 2015). Additionally	
7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16	172	interactions between native and non-native species are affected by correlated with transmission of	
	173	microhiota, often determined by relatedness or diet type (Ley et al. 2008), and the microhiome plays a	
	174	key role in the control and competence of insect crop pasts and vectors of disease (reviewed in Weiss	
	174	A know 2014). The following questions size to address the shortfoll is our understanding of the	
	175	& Aksoy, 2011). The following questions aim to address the shortfall in our understanding of the	
	1/6	interactions between microbiomes and their human and non-human hosts.	
17	177		
18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 31 23 34 35 36 37 8 9 40 41 42	178		
	179	1.1 What are the primary mechanisms within a host that mediate microbe microbe and host-microbe	
	100		Font color: Text 1
	180	interactions?	
	181	2. What are the relative contributions of host-associated and environmental factors in determining host	Formatted: Font: (Default) Arial, 10 pt,
	182	microbial community composition?	
	183	32. How do microbial communities function to affect the phenotype of the host?	
	184	43. Can compositional or evolutionary changes in microbiomes help hosts adapt to environmental	
	185	change within the lifetime of the host?	
	186	54. What is the role of the microbiota in host speciation processes?	
	187	65. How can the associated microbiota be effectively included in risk assessments of Invasive Non-	
	188	Native Species?	
	189	76. How does the microbiome of captive and head-started animals affect the success of reintroduction	
	190	programmes?	
	101		
43 44	191	8. How can a 'systems biology' approach improve our understanding of host-microbe interactions?	
45	192		
46 47	193		
48 49	194	Health and Infectious Diseases	
50 51	195	The last 50 years have seen the emergence of several hypervirulent wildlife nathogens in animals	
51 52	196		
53 54	197	Tompking et al. 2015) and plants (a.g. sudden oak and larch death, ach disback: Pautosso et al.	
55	177	rompions of al., 2010 and plants (c.y. sudden oak and larch death, ash dieback, Faulasso et al.,	
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6	198	2015). Although the role of microorganisms as pathogens is well known, the importance of host-	
8	199	associated microbiomes in regulating disease susceptibility is becoming more apparent (Koch &	
9 10	200	Schmidt-Hempel, 2011; Daskin & Alford, 2012; King et al., 2016). A major outstanding research goal is	
11	201	to understand how within-host interactions among microbes and invading pathogens may shape	
12 13	202	patterns of infection intensity and disease progression (see also Evolutionary Processes). Several	
14 15	203	studies have sought to determine how manipulation of host microbiomes may ameliorate the spread	
16 17	204	and impact of such diseases (<i>e.g.</i> Rebollar <i>et al.,</i> 2016).	
18	205	While for many disease states the paradigm holds true that one microorganism causes one	
19 20	206	disease, polymicrobial infections are becoming more apparent through metagenomic and	
21 22	207	metatranscriptomic sequencing of disease-associated microbial communities (Gilbert et al., 2016).	
23	208	Consequently, the "pathobiome"concept, where a disease state is influenced by complex	
24 25	209	interactions between commensal and pathogenic microorganisms, presents new challenges for	
26	210	applying Koch's postulates to diseases arising from polymicrobial interactions (Vayssier-Taussat et al.,	
28	211	2014), such as black band disease (BBD) in corals (Sato et al., 2016) and olive knot disease	
29 30	212	(Buonaurio <i>et al.,</i> 2015).	
31	213	In this section-theme we have identified research questions relating to the microbial ecology of	
32 33	214	infectious diseases and host health. Although much can be learnt from the comparatively high number	
34 35	215	of studies in the human and biomedical literature (e.g. using network approaches in epidemiology), the	
36	216	questions selected in this theme predominantly relate to non-human animals and plants, as humans	
37 38	217	are covered later ('Food Security and Human Health and' Food Security').	
39 40	218		
41 42	219	948. How can we better track the source and dispersal of particular microorganisms in real time?	
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46 47	221	-	Formatted: None
48	222	107. Many microorganisms are unculturable, and many microbiome studies reveal that diseases are	
49 50	223	polymicrobial; how can we re-evaluate Koch's postulates in this context?	
51 52	224	118. Which factors trigger 'covert' infections to become 'overt', impacting host health?	
53 54	225	<u>129</u> . At the population level, how is the burden and shedding intensity of intracellular microbes	
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6 7	226	affected by co-infection by extracellular parasites?
8 9	227	1310. What is the ecological relevance of the internalization of bacterial pathogens by protozoa in
10 11	228	terms of their survival and spread?
12	229	1 <u>41</u> . How can network theory best be used to predict and manage infectious disease outbreaks in
13 14	230	animals and plants?
15 16	231	1 <u>5</u> 2. Can microbiomes of wildlife (plants and animals) be used or manipulated to enhance health
17	232	and/or disease resistance?
18 10	252	
20	233	
21 22	234	<u>Human Health and <mark>Human Health and</mark> Food Security and Human Health</u>
23 24	235	With the human population due to exceed eight billion by 2024, food security and human health are
24 25	236	high on political and scientific agendas. Though the remit for this section is relatively broad, the
26 27	237	questions focus on two central themes: i) studying the human microbiome to improve the treatment of
28 20	238	disease, including the development of personalized medicine and novel antibiotics; and ii)
29 30 31 32	239	understanding how current antibiotic regimes and farming practices may negatively impact the
	240	diversity of the environmental microbiome and food production capacity.
33 34	241	The human microbiome has been the focus of intense research efforts in recent years, (e.g. Walter & Formatted: Level 1, Indent: First line: 0"
35	242	Ley, 2011; Spor et al., 2011; Mueller et al., 2012), because gut symbionts shape the immune
36 37	243	response (Round et al., 2009), and diversity fluctuates through chronic conditions and infectious
38 30	244	diseases including diabetes, obesity (Serino et al. 2016; Baothman et al., 2016; Ridaura et al., 2013),
40	245	asthma (Smits et al. 2016), and HIV (Lozupone et al., 2013). Improving our understanding of the core
41 42	246	human microbiome and individual variation will underpin pharmomicrobiomics, enabling development
43	247	of novel therapeutic treatments and, ultimately, personalised medicine (e.g. Ubeda et al., 2013).
44 45	248	There was a strong interest in maintaining and enhancing the microbial populations of crop
46 47	249	ecosystems, especially in light of antibiotic resistance (Ellouze et al., 2014). As antibiotic resistance
48	250	increases along with our concern about potential impact on both human and animal health, there is an
49 50	251	increasing drive to find new forms of antibiotics.
51 52	252	Antibiotic resistance resulting from selective pressures generated by the use and misuse of
53 54	253	antibiotics is a global threat to public health (Levy, 1997; Tam <i>et al.</i> , 2012). The volume of antibiotics
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used in agriculture now exceeds the amount used in human medicine in many countries (WHO, 2011).
Antibiotics are still widely used in livestock for prophylaxis and growth promotion, often at sub-therapeutic concentrations, exacerbating resistance (Krishnasamy *et al.*, 2015). The impact of the leaching of antibiotics into the natural environment and subsequent impacts on natural microbial communities remains poorly characterised (Franklin *et al.*, 2016). Current practices of growing high-intensity monoculture crops have a negative impact on the microbial biodiversity of soils through a combination of tillage, subsequent erosion and chemical applications (Helgason *et al.*, 1998; Jacobsen and Hjelmsø, 2014; Zuber and Villamil, 2016), which imposes selection pressures on pathogenic microbes, fungal symbiotic partners and plant growth promoting bacteria (Chapparo *et al.*, 2012;
Hartmann *et al.*, 2015). Thus, there iwas a strong interest inneed to maintaining and enhanceing the microbial populations of crop ecosystems, especially in light of antibiotic resistance (Ellouze *et al.*, 2014). As antibiotic resistance increases, along with our concern about potential impact on both human and animal health, there is an increasing drive to find new forms of antibiotics.

Though the remit for this section is relatively broad, the questions focus on two central themes: i) studying the human microbiome to improve the treatment of disease, including the development of personalized medicine and novel antibiotics; and ii) understanding how *current* antibiotic regimes and farming practices may negatively impact the diversity of the environmental microbiome and food production capacity. This section examines ways in which we can harness microbial functions to improve overall human health through managing gut microbiota, and improve the soil and plant microbiome, thus increasing yields and associated biodiversity.

1<u>6</u>3. How can human microbiome studies improve personalised medicine?

1<u>7</u>4. What ecological principles can be applied in the search for new antibiotics and alternatives?
1<u>8</u>5. What are the main determinants of waterborne infection outbreaks, and what is the best strategy to control these in water distribution systems?

196. What are the consequences of antibiotic and pharmaceutical use in human medicine on microbial communities in freshwater and soil environments?

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6 7	282	20. To what extent are microbial species distributions influenced by climate, and what are the
8 9	283	consequences for food security and human health?
10	284	2117. How much microbial diversity in the soil has been lost through monoculture and what is the
12	285	importance of this?
13 14	286	2218. Intensive farming may involve high levels of agrochemicals and broad-spectrum antibiotic usage
15 16	287	- what will be the long-term effects on microbial communities?
17 18	288	2319. How best can we harness microbial communities to enhance food production?
19	289	
20 21	200	Microbial Ecology in a Changing World
22 23	200	
24	291	Global changes resulting from human activity impact almost every Earth-habitat on earth. It is
25 26	292	imperative that we focus efforts on understanding the impacts of human activities such as climate
27	293	change, urbanisation, agriculture, and industrial processes on microbial communities, ecosystem
28 29	294	functioning equilibrium, and host health. Microbial populations have a tremendous capacity to adapt to
30	295	changes in their abiotic environment, yet the functional implications of these transitions in microbial
31	296	ecology are still poorly understood and characterised (Bissett et al., 2013), and the role of microbes in
33	297	mediating the response of larger organisms to change is equally understudied. Plant associated
34 35	298	microbial communities can alter the performance of subsequent generations of plants, and can
36 37	299	themselves be subject to the concomitant effects of abiotic change (van der Putten et al., 2013). Such
38	300	plant-soil feedbacks can reduce yield and alter the community composition and invasibility of whole
39 40	301	areas of grassland (van der Putten <i>et al.,</i> 2013). Global environmental changes (GECs) are complex
41 42	302	and multifaceted. Human activities such as urbanisation, land-use change and introduction of invasive
43	303	species have played a role in shifting global ecosystems via desertification, climate change and
44 45 46 47 48 49 50	304	habitat degradation. Although such changes have been quantified in aquatic and terrestrial habitats
	305	(e.g. Haberl et al., 2007; Halpern et al., 2008), their effects on microbial communities and impacts on
	306	ecosystem function are often hindered by a lack of characterisation of communities, or limited
	307	understanding of microbial functional traits. Shifts in basic nutrients and gases such as CO ₂ , along
51	308	with temperature fluctuations and water availability, greatly influence the distribution and behaviour of
52 53	309	species (Tylianakis et al., 2008). GECs can alter host fitness or ecosystem functioning (Shay et al.,
54 55	310	2015; Webster et al. 2016) and are likely to occur in combination. While there is a great deal of
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6 7	311	research into the effects of each of these on microbial communities (Schimel et al., 2007; Shurin et al.,
8	312	2012; Lloret et al., 2014), literature considering the effect of multiple GECs is more sparsesparser, and
9 10	313	these have complicated and often unpredictable consequences when combined (although see
11	314	Hutchins et al., 2009; Ryalls et al., 2013). In this section, we consider how human activities directly
12 13	315	and indirectly influence the microbial world. Where applicable, these questions can be considered
14 15	316	across multiple biomes and ecosystems, with reference to resulting trophic cascades, in addition to
16	317	the impacts on multiple biogeochemical processes. We also consider how microbes can be used as a
17 18	318	tool for mitigation or bioremediation of human-induced environmental changes, and the ways in which
19	319	microbes can be included in current evaluations of global change.
20 21	220	
22	520	
23 24	321	240. How can we integrate microbial communities into models of global change?
25 26	322	254. Will ocean acidification, temperature increases and rising sea levels lead to changes in microbial
27	323	diversity or function, and what will the cascading effects of this be?
29	324	2 <u>6</u> 2. How do human activities, such as oil and gas drilling, influence the sub-surface microbiome(s)?
30 31	325	273. How will increasing urbanisation affect environmental and host-associated microbial
32 33	326	communities?
34 35	327	28. How resilient are different microbial functional groups to ecosystem disturbance?
36	220	
37 38	328	294. Can we manipulate microbial succession in species-poor soils to encourage repopulation by flora
39	329	and fauna?
40 41	330	
42 43	331	Environmental Processes
44 45	332	Microbes play a fundamental role in environmental processes and ecosystem services, including
46 47 48	333	nutrient cycling and organic matter decomposition (Chin et al. 2016; Creamer et al., 2015; Weider et
	334	al., 2013), bioremediation of contaminated habitats or waste systems (Haritash & Kaushik, 2009; Oller
49 50	335	et al., 2011), and influencing greenhouse gas emissions (Singh et al., 2010; Bragazza et al., 2013; Hu
51	336	et al, 2015). The ability to harness these processes has great potential for societal and environmental
52 53	337	applications, particularly in extremophiles, which frequently reveal metabolic capabilities and
54 55	338	evolutionary solutions not witnessed elsewhere in the microbial world (Coker et al. 2016). However, it
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6 7	339	is rarely possible to directly link the presence of a specific microbial taxon to a particular ecological
8	340	process. Other methodological challenges include establishing the relative importance of biotic and
9 10	341	abiotic factors in microbial ecosystem function, and determining the appropriate spatial and temporal
11 12	342	scale necessary to discriminate links between microbiota and their ecological functions (Bissett et al.,
13	343	2013). Concurrently, a deeper understanding is required of human-induced impacts on the global
14 15	344	microbiome through urbanisation, habitat degradation, climate change, and the introduction of invasive
16 17	345	species, amongst others.
18 19	346	
20 21	347	<u>30</u> 25. How do we successfully establish microbial communities used in bioremediation?
22 23	348	<u>31</u> 26. How important is the rare microbiome in ecosystem function, and how does this change with
24	349	stochastic events?
25 26 27	350	3227. To what extent is microbial community diversity and function resilient to short- and long-term
28	351	perturbations?
29 30	352	3328. What is the importance of spatial and temporal variation in microbial community structure and
31 32	353	function to key environmental processes and geochemical cycles?
33 34	354	3449. How can we accurately measure microbial biomass in a reproducible manner?
35 36	355	
37 38	356	3529. Which mechanisms do extremophiles use for survival and how can they be exploited?
39 40	357	
41	358	Functional Diversity
42 43	359	Ecologists are increasingly turning their attention to classifying species based on their activity
44 45	360	(function) within an ecosystem, rather than their genotype (Crowther et al., 2014). This is particularly
46 47	361	relevant for microbial ecology, in which species are hard to define, horizontal gene transfer is rife, and
47 48	362	taxonomy is often blurred. Understanding how membership within complex and dynamic microbial
49 50	363	communities relates to the function of that community is one of the key challenges facing microbial
51	364	ecology (Widder et al., 2016). This is true across a vast range of spatial scales, from microbial dyads
52 53 54	365	to the gut of a Drosophila fly, to ancient trees and their associated ecosystems, right through to global
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366	biogeochemical processes. There is an urgent need to understand how the genome or hologenomeof
367	of a microbial community (and in some cases, its host) relates to metabolic capacities. Conversely,
368	there is also a need to understand how ecosystems depend on a particular organism or group of
369	organisms for any given process and function. This section describes the need to move from simply
370	describing microbial diversity to understanding what these organisms are doing, how they are doing it,
371	and what biotic and abiotic drivers are controlling their activity. Each question may derive a suite of
372	different answers, depending on the group of organisms, the habitat and the process.
373	
374	360. What are the mechanisms driving microbial community structure and function, and are these
375	conserved across ecosystems?
376	37. What is the relative importance of stochastic vs. determinative processes in microbial community
377	assembly?
378	384. How conserved are microbial functions across different spatial and temporal scales?
379	392. What is the relative importance of individual 'species' for the functioning of microbial
380	communities?
381	4033. How much functional redundancy is there in microbial communities, and how does functional
382	redundancy affect measures of diversity and niche overlap?
383	4134. How often are functional traits of microbes successfully conferred through horizontal gene
384	transfer?
385	4242. What methods can we use to marry microbial diversity with function: how do we link
386	transcriptomics, proteomics and metabolomics?
387	13. How do we may a bay and correlation to day alap predictive models that advance our understanding
388	of microbial community function and dynamics?"
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389	4450. How useful are synthetic communities for testinginferring theories about microbial community
390	dynamics and function?
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10	395	Evolutionary Processes
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13	396	The role of microorganisms in determining evolutionary outcomes of hosts is being investigated in
14	397	increasing detail (McFall-Ngai et al., 2013). Experimental evolution studies represent a powerful
15 16	398	means of quantifying host-microbe and microbe-microbe coevolution, and have highlighted the
17	399	extraordinary capacity of microbes to act as key mediators of host fitness (e.g. King et al 2016). Whilst
18	400	experimental coevolution studies provide a framework for linking dyadic interactions to community-
20	401	scale dynamics (Brockhurst & Koskella 2013) evolutionary principles stemming from macro-ecology
21 22	402	scale dynamics (blocknurst & Roskeila, 2013), evolutionary principles stemming norm macro-ecology
23	402	are being applied to microbial communities of humans (Robinson <i>et al.</i> , 2010). However, fundamental
24	403	biological questions that are well-studied in macrobiology remain controversial for microbial ecology,
25 26	404	for example the species concept remains a source of debate (Freudenstein et al. 2016). The
27	405	operational taxonomic unit (OTU) has become the standard unit for identifying bacteria at the highest
28 29	406	taxonomic resolution possible, yet it is hard to clearly define where taxonomic boundaries lie between
30	407	two bacteria, and what an OTU really represents in biological terms. This is especially problematic in
31 32	408	the context of horizontal gene transfer, which is commonly observed in bacteria and has turned our
33 24	409	understanding of evolutionary processes upside down. This section relates to how general ecological
34 35	410	principles influence microbial evolution and vice versa, what this means for global biodiversity, and
36 37	411	whether evolutionary principles can be utilised for anthropogenic gain.
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39	412	
40 41	413	4535. How can a bacterial 'species' be defined?
42		
43	414	<u>46</u> 36. To what extent is faunal and floral biodiversity influenced by microbial communities?
44 45	415	4737. To what extent do microbial communities have an equivalent to keystone 'species'?
46		
47 49	416	<u>48</u> 38. Does the structure of microbial communities conform to the same ecological rules/principles as
40 49	417	in other types of communities?
50	418	439. How do fundamental shifts in environmental conditions impact the trajectory of microbial
51 52	419	evolution?
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54 55	420	5040. What are the relative selective forces favouring microbial genome expansion or reduction?
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41. Can experimental evolution predict how antimicrobial resistance evolves <u>in vivo</u>?
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Methods for assessing microbial diversity and community function have rapidly advanced in recent

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years, with a major shift from culture-dependent to molecular-based techniques that produce vast quantities of data (Rohwer, 2007; Biteen et al., 2015). Advances in technologies for the analysis of (meta)genomes, (meta)transcriptomes, (meta)proteomes and metabolomes, with associated computational biology tools, have revolutionised our understanding of microbial diversity and function, with multi-'omics' approaches providing unprecedented opportunities to assess genomic potential, gene regulation, expression and functionality in situ. There are still many challenges relating to methods for analysing and describing microbiomes, elucidating the roles these microorganisms play both individually and as a community, and how this relates to wider organismal function and environmental processes (Robinson et al., 2010). Amplicon studies also raise the problem of how to link taxonomic identity to functional ability. The vast datasets produced by the 'omics' technologies present unique statistical challenges, requiring new analytical techniques and approaches (Weiss et al., 2016ab). Simultaneously, high throughput culture based methods are being re-invented for applications such as antibiotic discovery (Ling et al., 2015; Oberhardt et al., 2015). There is no onesize-fits-all method for a given type of study, but it is desirable to have a suite of robust methods that can be applied in a comparable manner to achieve results with a high level of confidence (Bustin et al., 2009). As contemporary technological advancements improve the accessibility, throughput, resolution and cost of microbiome analysis, this section explores some of the new challenges that to rapid advancements within the field, and other research 42. What methods can we use to marry microbial diversity with function; how do we link transcriptomics, proteomics and metabolomics? 43. How can we handle the unassigned sequences that dominate metagenome datasets? How can we develop a standardized best practice method for analysing sequence data to estimate

relative abundance?

Methods in Microbial Ecology

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8 9	450	compositions?			
10 11	451	46. How can systems approaches improve our understanding of host-microbe interactions?			
12 13	452	47. How do we move beyond correlations to determine cause and effect in microbial			
14	453	communities/ecosystems?			
16	454	48. How can we better track the source and dispersal of particular microorganisms in real time?			
18	455	49. How can we accurately measure microbial biomass in a reproducible manner?			
19 20	456	50. How useful are synthetic communities for inferring theories about microbial community dynamics?			
21 22	457				
23 24 25	458	Society and Policy			
25 26	459	We need to find ways to apply fundamental biological research to the benefit of society and policy. For			
27	460	example, collaboration with social scientists is crucial when investigating public understanding of			
29 30	461	microbial ecology, as well as using citizen science approaches to tackle microbial ecology research			
31	462	questions. Many questions relating to this area were discussed at the workshop, and here we present			
32 33	463	four additional questions that were developed at the meeting that relate to societal and policy-based			
34 35	464	aspects of microbial ecology.			
36 37	465				
38 39	466	How can we best address supply and demand of information about microbial ecology between			
40 41	467	researchers, clinicians, policy makers and practitioners?			
42	468	How can we best use social and traditional mass media for early identification of emerging			
43 44 45	469	threats to animal and plant health?			
45 46	470	How can we develop an open access data repository or integrate existing databases to create			
47	471	a centralised and standardised method for data and methods sharing in microbial ecology?			
49 50	472	How can we replace fear-based regulation with risk-based regulation, specifically with regard			
51 52	473	to the use of microbes in bioremediation and bioaugmentation?			
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Discussion

Here we present 50 important research questions across eight a number of themes relating to the field of microbial ecology. Although there are many other research issues worthy of investigation, it is intended that these questions will be used to inform and direct future research programmes and agendas, particularly in areas where microbial ecology has not previously been considered or applied. In many cases, these questions are deliberately broad to allow researchers to adapt them to their own areas of interest, for example across different systems, or to varying spatial scales. Across many questions there was strong recognition of the vast metabolic capabilities of microorganisms and microbial communities, and the need to harness this power to improve human and animal health and wellbeing. Some themes addressed various existing mechanisms for exploiting microbial processes, namely bioremediation, soil improvement, water treatment and probiotic suppression of pathogen resistance. As these are already active areas of research, the guestions posed here are structured to provide a framework by which these efforts can be directed in the future. A predominant theme that emerged was the need to integrate knowledge between different research areas, for example the application of information from human microbiome studies to the study of other non-model host organisms, and the potential to apply macro-ecological frameworks to micro-ecological concepts. Many fundamental biological questions that are well-studied in classical ecology remain controversial for microbial ecology, and the species concept (Freudenstein et al. 2016), taxonomy, and how the OTU should be defined for microorganisms, generated multiple questions (e.g. see 'Evolutionary Processes' theme). Classical community ecology concepts should not be overlooked when considering microbial dynamics (Rynkiewicz et al., 2015) and, conversely, microbial communities may prove useful models for general ecology due to their short generation times, reproducibility, and ease of use in the laboratory environment (Brockhurst & Koskella, 2013; Libberton et al., 2015; King et al., 2016). There have been a number of calls for the medical profession to look to ecological and evolutionary tools when seeking to understand epidemiology (Johnson et al., 2015), investigating novel antibacterial agents (Vale et al., 2016), and considering multi-host, multi-agent disease systems (Buhnerkempe et al., 2015).

The 'Host-Microbiome Interactions' theme considered the need to understand factors influencing microbiome composition, which in turn have consequences for a myriad of host traits, including disease susceptibility and host evolution (Chisholm et al., 2006; Archie & Theis, 2011; Spor

et al., 2011; Cho & Blaser, 2012; McFall-Ngai et al., 2013; McFall-Ngai, 2015; Zilber-Rosenberg & Rosenberg, 2008). As this theme considered microbiota from the perspective of the host, there was some overlap with the 'Health and Infectious Diseases' and 'Evolutionary Processes' themes. Probiotics were discussed as a viable and promising alternative to current strategies in a number of contexts in these themes, not only to improve individual health, but also to decrease disease susceptibility of humans and other animals, to enhance nutritional quality of food, and to mitigate the negative impacts of antibiotic use across humans, livestock, aquaculture and agriculture (Martín et al., 2013; Newaj-Fyzul et al., 2014; Smith, 2014; Fox, 2015). Developing personalized probiotic-based therapies requires complementary diversity and functional-based studies in order to elucidate the specific roles of microbiota in health and disease, and thus how microbial communities can be manipulated. Likewise, gQuestions considered in both the 'Functional Diversity' theme and the 'Environmental Processes' theme raised a common need to understand changes in microbial community structure and function across spatial and temporal scales (Carmona et al., 2016). Establishing appropriate spatial scales for studying microbial processes is an outstanding challenge: micro-organisms can orchestrate ecosystem functioning across whole biomes (Sheffer et al., 2015), yet fungi exhibit low mobility on tree barks (Koufopanou et al. 2006, Robinson et al., 2016), and an air void in soil can be an insuperable barrier for a bacterium. Similarly, drawing meaningful conclusions about microbial processes requires understanding of their temporal variability; for exampleexample, diurnal influences (Shurpali et al., 2016), or lags behind changes in ecosystem drivers (Allison and Martiny, 2008). These concerns were ultimately addressed in a single question (question 28). Questions identified in this paper highlighted the need for knowledge that informs antibiotic use and production, and to optimise the sustainability of food production through improved soil fertility. There was a strong interest in maintaining and enhancing the microbial populations of crop ecosystems, especially in light of antibiotic resistance (Ellouze et al., 2014). As antibiotic resistance increases along with our concern about potential impact on both human and animal health, there is an increasing drive to find new forms of antibiotics.

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Probiotics were discussed as a viable and promising alternative (Martín et al., 2013; Newaj-Fyzul et al., 2014; Smith, 2014; Fox, 2015), not only to improve individual health, but also to decrease disease susceptibility, enhance nutritional quality of food, and to mitigate the negative impacts of antibiotic use across humans, livestock, aquaculture and agriculture(Martín et al., 2013; Newaj Fyzul et al., 2014; Smith, 2014; Fox, 2015). Developing personalized probiotic-based therapies requires complementary diversity and functional-based studies in order to elucidate the specific roles of microbiota in health and disease, and thus how microbial communities can be manipulated.

Global changes resulting from human activity impact almost every Earth habitat. It is imperative that we focus efforts on understanding the impacts of human activities such as climate change, urbanisation, agriculture, and industrial processes on microbial communities, ecosystem functioning equilibrium, and host health. Microbial populations have a tremendous capacity to adapt to changes in their abiotic environment, yet the functional implications of these transitions in microbial ecology are still poorly understood and characterised (Bissett of al., 2013), and the role of microbes in mediating the response of larger organisms to change is equally understudied. Plant-associated microbial communities can alter the performance of subsequent generations of plants, and can themselves be subject to the concomitant effects of abiotic change (van der Putten ot al., 2013). Such plant-soil feedbacks can reduce yield and alter the community composition and invasibility of whole areas of grassland (van der Putten et al., 2013). Discussions resulting from the 'Functional Diversity' theme (questions 30-34) addressed the need to move from simply describing microbial diversity to understanding what organisms are doing, how they are doing it, and which biotic and abiotic drivers control this activity. Each of these questions will likely derive a suite of different answers, depending on the group of organisms, the habitat and the process; the guestions presented in this section were therefore some of the broadest discussed.

Large scale assessments of ecosystem services and degradation acknowledge the paucity of data on microbial impacts, presumably because there are no convincing large-scale messages that can be derived at this stage (Norris *et al.*, 2011). Microbial diversity is therefore rarely considered when estimates of biodiversity are required for policy or management decisions. Microbial diversity, abundance and influence on the biodegradation of important naturally produced atmospheric hydrocarbons such as isoprene, have recently been studied to determine which micro-organisms are important in the sink of this global climate altering gas (Dumont & Murrell, 2015; El Khawand *et al.*

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2016). Another key greenhouse gas that needs further study is methane, the flux of which is regulated by methanotrophic bacteria and methanogenic Archaea, and can substantially alter the carbon balance of a system and have grave consequences for global climate change (e.g. Schuur *et al.* 2015; James *et al.* 2016). Solving these types of questions will help us to understand the impact of human activities on microbial ecology, and to find new solutions to the environmental and health problems we are currently facing and will continue to face in the future.

A subject common to a number of themes was the role of individual species versus consortia in ecosystem community functioning. The question of defining bacterial species is a contentious topic, and the issue remains whether some microbial taxa act as keystones in ecosystem functions. Many microbial surveys carry the implicit assumption that the most abundant taxa are also the most important, yet rare species can be hugely significant if they are highly active and/or monopolise a particular process (Lynch and Neufeld, 2015). The collective metabolic capabilities of micro-organisms have great potential for in situ applications such as bioremediation, particularly when used in multi-species consortia (Mikesková et al., 2012). Successful bioremediation and environmental management requires the introduction of new assemblages wholesale into an established community, or stimulation of key members of the community in situ (Rillig et al., 2015). In turn, predicting the successful establishment of deliberately introduced organisms depends on an understanding of the principles underlying microbial community formation and structure (Rillig et al., 2015). Despite these challenges, functional diversity modelling has successfully been applied to the ecological restoration of some plant communities (Laughlin, 2014). Closely linked to this is the issue of functional redundancy, and to what extent it is possible to lose species without affecting ecosystem functions. Already there is evidence that microbial communities may be less functionally redundant than macro-organism communities (Delgado-Baguerizo et al., 2016). This issue ties into fundamental ecological concepts, such as niche theory (Carmona et al., 2016); if multiple organisms are carrying out the same process, apparently interchangeably, how do they avoid competitively excluding one another? The concept of keystone species has been shown to be applicable to microbes (Neufeld et al., 2008; Pester et al., 2010; Ze et al., 2012; Yu et al., 2016), yet further work is needed to characterise the extent to which keystone functions occur in different environments and whether these can be consistently identified (Anderson, 2003; Pester et al., 2010).

Recent major technological and analytical advancements have made previously inaccessible

taxa and ecosystems amenable to study. Despite the opportunities afforded by big data however, there are huge challenges when handling next generation sequencing data, both in the size of the datasets and the spurious inter-correlation (compositionality) inherent to the sequencing process (Weiss *et al.*, 2016a). There is community wide recognition that current methods of analysis are not adequate to deal with the big data produced by next-generation sequencing, and a number of groups have already attempted to establish standardised analysis methods (*e.g.* amplicon sequencing of bacterial and fungal communities (Thomas *et al.*, 2012; Smith & Peay, 2014), and bioinformatics of targeted and shotgun metagenomics (Bokulich *et al.*, 2013; McMurdie & Holmes, 2014; Oulas *et al.*, 2015, Randle Boggis *et al.*, 2016). These methods now require validation under different contexts to keep analyses with similar aims and methods comparable (Weiss *et al.*, 2016a,b). This is no easy task given the plethora of decisions made throughout research design, from sample collection and storage to lab work and data analysis (Callahan *et al.*, 2016), each of which introduce complexity to a study's approach.

The need for open access databases and repositories, both in the context of data sharing as well as for methods and protocols, was reflected in the questions shortlisted for the 'Society and Policy' theme. Discussions included the benefits of forming collaborative and open research communities, and the need to ensure the legacy of academic research through improving regulation and policy and engagement with the public. Fear-based regulation of research, grounded in alarmist or populist campaigns, as opposed to risk-based regulation built upon evidence, was identified as a possible obstacle to progress, which could be addressed through greater interaction between microbial ecologists and the public at both governmental and grass roots levels. Large scale assessments of ecosystem services and degradation acknowledge the paucity of data on microbial impacts, presumably because there are no convincing large-scale messages that can be derived at this stage (Norris et al., 2011). Microbial diversity is therefore rarely considered when estimates of biodiversity are required for policy or management decisions. That said, -<u>Ft</u>he increasing recognition of the fundamental impact of the microbial world on the functioning of larger-scale processes has made the deliberate manipulation of the microbial world a controversial subject, which was reflected in the number of draft questions submitted related to bioremediation and bioaugmentation (see Supplementary Information). Collaboration with social scientists was identified as crucial in gauging the public understanding of microbial ecology, and citizen science approaches were considered as

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6 7	623	tools to tackle key microbial ecology research questions.	Formatted: Font:
8 9	624	The 50 questions identified here cover a broad range of topics, but some over-arching themes	
10	625	recur across multiple questions, including a recognition that microbes play an important role in a	
12	626	variety of different processes and systems, which may be harnessed to solve real-world problems.	
13 14	627	There were some similarities between the questions identified here and those identified by previous	
15	628	workshops of a similar nature. For example, questions relating to soil health and biodiversity (Dicks et	
16 17	629	al. 2013), a requirement for developing a theoretical understanding of micro- and macro- ecological	
18	630	concepts (Prosser et al. 2007, Sutherland et al. 2013a) and disease dynamics (Prosser et al. 2007,	
19 20	631	Sutherland et al. 2013a) have a degree of commonality with this list. This indicates that the ecological	Formatted: Font: English (U.K.)
21 22	632	theory underpinning many research questions transcends scientific disciplines, and that there is still	
23	633	much work to be done at both theoretical and applied levels. Within these 50 questions, we have tried	
24 25	634	to provide a focus for researchers addressing scientific questions from a microbial perspective,	
26	635	regardless of their background. It is expected that these questions will facilitate interesting discussion	
27 28	636	and new, exciting, interdisciplinary research. The list is by no means exhaustive, and we recognise	
29 30	637	that the questions presented here are relatively community-centric, primarily due to the recent	
31	638	expansion in methodological approaches that have improved our understanding of microbial	
32 33	639	community diversity and function. That said, other areas of microbial ecology should not be ignored or	
34 35	640	forgotten. and gGiven the rapidly evolving field of microbial ecology, it is expected that future	
36	641	workshops with a wide draw will be held to ensure that the identification of research priorities and	
37 38	642	areas of interest is a continuing process.	
39	643		
40 41			
42 43	644	Funding	
44	645	This work was supported by contributions from the British Ecological Society and the University of	
45 46	646	Salford towards funding the workshop. SRJ is funded by NERC studentship NE/L501773/1, KMF by	
47	647	the Finnish Cultural Foundation, NLMF is funded by Colciencias, MCM by Earth and Life Systems	
48 49	648	Alliance, and WJS by Arcadia. The positions and opinions presented in this article are those of the	
50 51	649	authors alone and are not intended to represent the views or scientific works of the European Food	
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2	Are all families of bacteria capable of acquiring pathogenicity or are there barriers to the exchange of cer
3	Are all functional traits horizontally transmissible?
4 5	Are comparisons of microbial community composition at phylum level overused and uninformative?
6	Are faunal and floral biodiversity driven by microbial communities?
7	Are outdated species and subspecies definitions impeding our understanding of microbial ecosystems?
8	Are prosperous and diverse microbial communities that can auto-regulate less harmful, or risk-prone, the
10	Are social scientists and economists going to be present in the panels on animal and plant health of the F
11	Are species just a handful of relatively stable lineages within gene pools in which horizontal gene transfer
12	Are studies which consider microbes by gonus adequate in light of observed interspecies variation?
13	Are supported interview to be a support of the supp
14	Are the sense valeted with restable is function wortically on being stably in bering dynamics?
16	Are the genes related with metabolic function vertically or norizontally innerited
17	Are there any unexplored 'microbial frontiers'?
18	Are there difference in microbiomes of heather under different management regimes?
20	Are there differences between skin microbiome of rural compared to urban amphibians?
21	Are there species or just highly integrated microbial communities?
22	As climate change continues to impact the global ecology, can monitoring microbial communities give an
23	As climate change effects soils including salinity, water levels and temperature, will this impact on food p
24	As extreme environments are being perceived as offering the best option for novel antimicrobials what h
26	As fracking looks increasingly likely to happen in the UK, what will be the effect on the surrounding micro
27	As it is may already have gone past the tipping point for climate change, can evolution be monitored in er
28 20	At what spatial scale do we need to study microbial communities to answer applied or globally important
30	Can a better understanding of microbial ecology give us clues on how complex larger ecosystems function
31	Can bacteriophages be used to eliminate certain bacteria in an environmental sample?
32	Can bioinnoculation based bioremediation techniques be deployed more successfully as a result of omics
33 34	Can endoby the lacteria positively impact the environment through their host?
35	Can host community assemblages be used to predict parasite (micro and macro) community composition
36	Can media monitoring be used for early identification of new emerging threats to animal and plant health
37 38	Can metaganama analysis completely replace phylogenetic markers to describe diversity in microbiomes
39	Can micro organisms be sultivated directly in soils using greenbourses?
40	Can micro-organisms be cultivated directly in sons using greenhouses?
41	Can microbes prime each other to degrade organic matter?
42 43	Can microbes go extinct?
44	Can microbial communities ever be considered stable or is stability an artefact of the spatial scale by which
45	Can microbial ecology provide an alternative to antibiotics?
46 47	Can microbial ecology tell us anything about non-microbial ecology?
47 48	Can probiotic microbiota mitigate water-stress induced plant disease?
49	Can regional outbreaks of exotic tree diseases become opportunities for nature conservation?
50	Can the gut mirobione be manipulated to enhance health?
51 52	Can understanding the relationship between ash die back disease and microbial community be used in sp
53	Can we come up with a standardized method for estimating relative abundance of high-throughput data
54	Can we distinguish individual from interactive microbial effects? e.g. microbes that "turn on" (or off) path
55 56	Can we effectively synthesize microbial communities specialized in decomposing waste and recycling for
วง 57	Can we genetically engineer endohyphal bacteria that are known to be the cause of plant disease to exer
58	Can we integrate our understanding of different microbiomes?
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2 Can we manipulate migratory bacteria in soil in a way that it's useful for applications other than biorement З Can we predict the functioning of communities from data on individual species within it (e.g. metabolic ca 4 Can we quantify the role of microbes in the major global geochemical cycles (e.g. carbon, nitrogen, methi 5 6 Can we study ancient microbial communities, and use that information to predict microbial community e 7 Do different functional clades have differing critical thresholds with regards to ecosystem disturbance? 8 Do ecological interactions have role in bacterial plasticity? 9 Do metagenomics and amplicon sequencing provide useful information about the actual functionality of 10 11 Do microbial communities have keystone species or an equivalent e.g. a keystone functional clade 12 Do microbial ecologists know enough microbiology? 13 14 Do specific global ecosystems warrant particular focus and further study? 15 Do the tenets of prokaryotic microbial ecology hold true for eukaryotic species and genera? 16 Do we need models in microbial ecology? 17 18 Do we see similar biogeographical patterns for microbes as for 'macrobes'? If not, why not? 19 Does Applied Microbial Ecology exist? 20 Does microbial ecology require more specialist lab equipment? 21 22 Does the biodiversity of rhizosphere microorganisms change according to the type of root, depth of the r 23 does the microbiota affect host behaviour? 24 Does the presence of introduced fish in high mountain lakes impact on water quality and microbial comr 25 26 For a given microbial process, what spatial scale(s) does it operate at? 27 Fracking releases the groundwater and may cause increase in pollutants, how will this effect groundwate 28 Fungi can be found in various extreme environments. Why haven't we found many deep-sea fungi that ar 29 30 Gaia theory - is there more to be explained by microbial ecology? 31 How accurate are our measurements and understanding of in situ processes or are we extrapolating from 32 How best can we harness insect microbial pathogens for biological control of crop pests? 33 34 How best do we validate models of microbiomes through experiments and collecting samples from the fi 35 How can a bacterial 'species' be defined? 36 How can amplicon data be produced and analysed in a robust and comparable way? 37 38 How can deep-sea fungi adapt to the lack of light and autotrophic organisms? 39 How can mcrobial ecology inform conservation studies? 40 How can microbial ecology best support the advancement of agriculture? 41 42 How can microbiome studies improve personal medicine? 43 How can systems approaches improve our understanding of host-microbe interactions? 44 How can the economic and social relevance of microbial ecology be reinforced with funding and decision 45 46 How can we account for variations in genome length when measuring variations in abundance and divers 47 How can we accurately measure soil microbial biomass in a reproducible manner? 48 How can we advance our screening methods to map microbes from "extreme" environments? 49 50 How can we apply modelling techniques to analyse the risks of ecological and agricultural probiotics? 51 How can we assess the role of the unculturable microbiome in the ecology of real habitats? 52 How can we better measure dispersal capacities of microbes? 53 54 How can we better track particular microbes in communities? 55 How can we compare the roles of decomposition between terrestrial and aquatic fungi? 56 How can we culture communities of environmental microbes in situ? 57 58 How can we develop suitable software programmes, tools, statistical approaches and databases to analy: 59 60

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1	
2	How can we examine ecological processes (e.g. N mineralisation) on a scale relevant to microbes?
3	How can we get young people interested in invisible, boring microbes?
5	How can we identify microbial species in the environment in real-time?
6	How can we improve the proportion of microbial diversity that is isolated and held in pure culture?
7	How can we interpret Koch's postulates in relation to polymicrobial infections as revealed by microbiome
8	How can we make microbial ecology relevant to policy makers?
10	How can we measure the hidden diversity? Overcoming arbitrary cut off values in next-generation seque
11	How can we prove that microbes have ecosystem-scale impacts?
12	How can we relate large-scale taxonomic information to fine-scale function?
13 14	How can we solve the most pressing career issues affecting early stage researchers in microbial ecology?
15	How can we stop pathogens from forming highlins?
16	How certain is genetic decay in a symbiont
1/ 18	How cosmonolitan are microorganisms?
19	
20	How diverse is a community r
21	How do differences in microbial communities in numan and animal microbiomes relate to different disea
22	How do gut bacterial communities interact with viral infections? Can we classify communities as "neutral
24	How do microbial communities interact to effect the phenotype of the host?
25	How do plant endophytes enter, become active in, and influence their hosts?
26	How do protists influence fungi in soil?
27	How do skin microbiota and UV interact in amphibians, especially at high altitude?
29	How do soil bacteria, viruses and archaea interact?
30	How do virus influence microbial ecology?
31	How do we establish effective sample sizes for studies of poorly characterised microorganism?
33	How do we sample environmental variables at an appropriate scale that are proximate to microbial comr
34	How does individual microbiota affect others at a community level
35	How does the environment select?
30	How does the microbiome influence health?
38	How important is the "rare" microbiome in ecosystem function?
39	How important is the microbiota in mediating adaptation that results in species invasions?
40 41	How is best to study the changing resource environment of microbial communities?
42	How is climate change going to affect the microbial communities in the drinking water distribution system
43	How much functional redundancy is there in microbes relative to higher taxa?
44 45	How much functional redundancy is there in microbial communities, and how does that interact with div
40	How much functional redundancy is there in the host microbiome?
47	How much intra- vs inter-specific trait variation is there?
48	How much microbial diversity in the soil has been lest through monoculture and what is the importance (
49 50	How problematic is DCP amplification bias?
51	How similar are is the rhizographere highly argin of migrobas from the same species of tree located in differences
52	How similar are is the mizosphere blouversity of microbes from the same species of thee located in unrel
53 54	How stable are microbial communities, and now can we assess their stability, particularly in changing envi
55	How to roster interdisciplinary approaches in and around microbial ecology?
56	How to solve the leaky pipeline of female microbial ecologists in academia?
57	How to solve the peer reviewer crisis in microbial ecology?
58 59	How well do current species distribution models developed with microbial systems predict the distributic
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1 2 How will different temperature and humidity regimes reflecting likely climate change scenarios affect lea З How will predicted climate changes influence the free-living stages of terrestrial and aquatic helminths? 4 Intensive farming may involve high levels of broad spectrum antibiotic usage. This in turn will end up in t 5 6 Is Alan McCarthy the oldest microbial ecologist on the planet? 7 Is everything everywhere? 8 Is it necessary/important to document microbial diversity? Should it be done at the genus/species level? 9 Is it still relevant to dig for antibiotics? 10 11 Is it syntrophy the main metabolic mechanism sustaining microbial cooperation 12 Is it time to stop cataloguing bacterial community compositions in different habitats and put a bit more e 13 14 Is microbial abundance and/or diversity driving ecosystem functioning? 15 Is microbial ecology restricted by the red tape surrounding releasing microbes into the environment? 16 Is the carbon source used in general/selective media the limiting factor for some un-culturable micro-org 17 18 Is the growth in microbial ecology publication sustainable? 19 Is there a relationship between microbial community and ecosystem functioning, and is it observed acros 20 Is there a way to overcome big data? 21 22 Is there any point in doing comparative metagenomics? 23 Is there going to be an improvement in the file-drawer problem (i.e. the tendency of positive results to be 24 Is there such thing as a microbial pathogen? 25 26 Is virus burden and shedding intensity in mammals amplified when co-infected by helminths? 27 Many hands make light work? What is the role of functional redundancy in ecosystem processes? 28 mechanisms extremophiles utilise for survival and potential uses elsewhere 29 30 No biome is an island. As interest in this area increases, how do microbiomes interact outside the microk 31 Not Waving but Drowning; how much evidence do we need to fully interpret omics data? 32 One size fits all? Is there a relationship between microbial and "macrobial" ecology? 33 34 Pathogens get a lot of mainstream attention. Should researchers do more to promote positive microbial (35 plant host interactions, symbiotic relationships 36 Rapid detection and identification of microbes 37 38 Sequencing data has increased significantly in the last 15 years, will bioinformatics be the future of our st 39 Should new species descriptions based entirely on sequences be allowed? 40 Should researchers place greater emphasis on evaluating microbe functional traits (applied aspects), and 41 42 Should we be concerned about the extinction of microbial species? 43 Should we couple microbial ecology with Invasive Non-Native Species (INNS) risk assessments? 44 Society and policy makers; do they value microbial ecosystem services? 45 46 Soil microbial communities and the role they play 47 Soil microbial communities and the role they play 48 Soil profiling has been done for many years, can we estimate the type of organisms in a soil using only inf 49 50 Taxonomy vs function: Do functional groups exist and in a world of horizontal gene transfer. Do 16S sequ 51 The rare biosphere; waiting in the wings or ghosts in the machine? 52 There are many factors that alter and select which organisms belong in a specific environment, througho 53 54 To what extent are microbial species distributions influenced by climate? what would the consequences (55 To what extent do microbial communities return to their "original" state after short-term perturbations? 56 To what extent does microbial community composition reflect functional redundancy in a habitat or ecos 57 58 To what extent is among human or animal variability in microbiome related to evolutionary processes oc 59 60

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2	To what extent is animal health and welfare influenced by their microbiome and does this have the poter
3	Universal sequence primers - can they ever exist?
5	What are the biggest gains in microbial ecology of the last decade and what are their implications for the
6	What are the consequences of antibiotic use in microbial communities in freshwater and soil environmer
7	What are the environmental hazards associated with bioremediation and biocontrol, and what can we dc
9	What are the likely impacts of climate change on plant diseases in understudied regions such as Africa, th
10	What are the links between microbial genomics and metabolomics?
11	What are the main biotic and abiotic determinants of population structure in microbial communities in w
12	What are the main mechanisms by which nutrients accumulated by saprotrophs are released to the envir
14	What are the major constraints on microbial life on land and water, and how do they differ?
15	What are the mechanisms by which the gut microbiota protects its host from pathogens?
10	What are the mechanisms used by mycoviruses to confer host fitness to its environment?
18	What are the microbial ecology consequences of the cultivation of exotic tree species?
19	What are the most successful applications of microbial ecology in the real world?
20	What are the opportunities to determine cause or effect relationships in microbiome studies?
22	What are the primary mechanisms that mediate microbial interactions within a host? and the strength of
23	What are the survival implications of skin and gut microbiomes of captive bred or head-started animals?
24 25	What are the traits of microbial species that are a) globally ubiquitous b) endemic to certain areas?
26	What can animal, human and plant health policy-makers learn from evolutionary ecology?
27	What effect will rising water levels have on coastal microbes and their diversity?
28 29	What is the 'functioning' of a microbial community?
30	What is the acceptable amount of disease in a healthy forest ecosystem?
31	What is the actual relevance of Black Queen Hypothesis
32	What is the average carbon footprint of a paper in microbial ecology and how can it be reduced?
34	What is the best method to assess the contribution of rare vs abundant species in a microbial community
35	What is the best strategy to control and stop waterborne outbreaks?
36 37	What is the best way of monitoring drinking water safety?
38	What is the ecological meaning of an OTU?
39	What is the ecological relevance of the internalization of bacterial pathogens by protozoa in terms of the
40 41	What is the importance of biotic vs abiotic characteristics in determining microbial community composition
42	What is the importance of photosynthetic symbionts of larval amphibians?
43	What is the relative importance of inter- and intra-specific diversity in fungal communities?
44 45	What is the relative importance of stochastic vs. determinative processes in fungal community assembly?
46	What is the relative role of competition versus cooperation for microbial biodiversity
47	What is the role of bacteriophages in biofilm dynamics in natural environments?
48 49	What is the role of the microbiota in speciation processes?
50	What is the true link between diversity and function in an ecosystem?
51	What mechanisms are distinct in microbial ecology as opposed to conventional ecology?
52 53	What methodological processes do we need to develop to give a holistic view of microbial diversity and f
54	What methods can we use to marry microbial diversity with function. what role could proteomics play?
55	What new sequencing techniques do we need to improve our understanding of microbial ecology?
50 57	What new technologies are available to detect cross-feeders in an environmental sample?
58	What proportion of fungi carry endobacteria, and what effect does this have?
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2	What scales are appropriate for studying microbes?
3	What selection pressures does the modern world place on evolving microbes?
4 5	What technologies are needed to advance microbial ecology?
6	What's the best way to manipulate the microflora?
7	Which factors determine the host range of microbial pathogens?
8	Which factors determine the structure of gut microhiomes?
9 10	Which factors determine whether Wolhachia increases or decreases its host's suscentibility to nathogens
11	Which factors trigger 'covert' infections to become 'evert' impacting best bealth?
12	Which factors trigger the emergence of new microbial nathogons in humans and wildlife?
13	Which factors trigger the emergence of new microbial pathogens in humans and whome?
14 15	which is the most effective way of disinfecting drinking water?
16	Why are some microbial pathogens often 'covert'?
17	Why do genomes contain redundant copies of genes
18	Will 16S rRNA be supplanted as the key phylogenetic identifier
19 20	Will fungal underrepresentation in the life sciences keep on decreasing as was the case over the last two
21	Will metagenomics ever supplant next generation sequencing?
22	Will metaproteomics ever become an important major methodology in microbial ecology?
23	Will microbes become commonly used as biological control agents of invasive alien plants in Europe?
25	Will ocean acidification or temperature increase provide the greatest selective pressure for microbial ma
26	Will the challenge of fungal genomics to the dogma of name-based biosecurity be taken on board by phy
27	Will the culturing of the other 99% of bacteria be possible with increasing understanding of syntrophy an
28 29	Will the flood of new papers on climate change and microbial ecology lead to increased specialization and
30	Will the use of network theory in plant epidemiology help prevent plant health emergencies such as Euro
31	Will there be substantial funding for research and management of tree diseases over the next decades, o
32	Will there ever he a cohesive species concent which applies to bacteria?
33 34	Will there ever be a unified V 16S rRNA region set of primers to capture total diversity
35	Will we be able to find new antibiotics in microbial species? Should we prioritics funding for this?
36	Will we over he able to differentially monitor infective and non infective viruses in the environment?
37	With energific reference to non-model expensions. We know metazed bothours diverse error of microbial
39	With the amount of antice control of antice control of a metal of
40	with the amount of -omics sequence information coming out every week, now can scientists is it worth t
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2	tain genetic elements which are required?
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q	an disinfected zones whereby resistant microbes have the potential to thrive and be pathogenic?
10	uronean Food Safety Authority?
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12	r is rife?
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22	insight into adaptability?
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24	roduction?
25	appens next?
26	ubial nonulation?
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28	merging species in response to extreme changes?
29	t questions? For example, waste water bioremediation and carbon cycling.
30	n? Inversely, can current ecological theories inform us on microbial ecology?
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33	s based techniques?
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43	ch the community is investigated?
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50 50	ecies conservation?
52	? And will there be a way to measure absolute abundance using current sequencing methods?
50	second the second and second about a bound and a sing current sequencing methods;
55	logenicity in other microbes?
56	industrial purposes?
57	t positive effects instead?
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diation? apacities. genomes)?
ane, etc)? What are the implications of microbial species loss in these cycles? volution?
microbial communities or do this methods get bias from collecting too much material from dead
oot, size of the whole tree, maturity of the tree?
nunity in streams?
r microbiota?
re presumably barophilic?
n experimental artifacts?
eld?
making bodies sity in soil microbial ecosystems?
se †~big data' projects?
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a studies?
ncing
se conditions?
ising" and "enhancing"?
nunities which allows us to progress our understanding of what is structuring these communities
ns and therefore drinking water safety?
ersity and niche overlap?
of this?
rent places? What are the factors that affect this community most significantly?
vironments (e.g. seasonal tidal subject to frequent disturbance)?
יוו טווווכוונג נכ.צ. גבמגטוומו, נועמו, געטובנג נט וובקעצווג עוגנעו שמונצו:
ons of microbes?could new software improve on these limitations?
ons of microbes?could new software improve on these limitations?

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f microbiota of umbrella species?

he faecal matter of livestock and deposit on the land. What will be the long term effect on micro ffort into virus and microeukaryote ecology? anisms? ss ecosystems (e.g. marine, freshwater, terrestrial, gut microbiota)? bia e more easily published than negative ones) in microbial ecology? piome environment? effects? udies of microbial ecology? less on documenting diversity? ormation about the abiotic factors of a soil? ences mean anything? ut the years we have established the importance of temperature, pH, moisture, basic factors…

;ystem? curring within an individual's microbiome?

of any resulting microbiome shift for agriculture and biodiversity?

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2	ntial to affect conservation efforts?
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4	future of the field?
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6	its and how they influence human health?
7) to prevent them?
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decades?

rine organisms?

tosanitary regulators?

d the rise of metabolomic and transcriptomic studies

d communication problems within the field?

pean ash dieback?

r is the recent surge in the UK a short-lived burst?

diversity. How can changes in microbial communities, either through changes in community com he while for scientists to create alliances so this information can be quickly available for other science.

cells?

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bial population as a driver for antibiotic resistance?

which are the new most important factors that are of interest to microbial ecologists?

position or microbial evolution, help long lived (annual +) animals adapt to rapidly changing envir entists that might be interested in the same information? Joining forces throughout societies.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22		
$\begin{array}{c} 11 \\ 12 \\ 13 \\ 14 \\ 15 \\ 16 \\ 17 \\ 18 \\ 19 \\ 20 \\ 12 \\ 23 \\ 24 \\ 25 \\ 26 \\ 27 \\ 28 \\ 29 \\ 30 \\ 13 \\ 23 \\ 34 \\ 56 \\ 37 \\ 38 \\ 90 \\ 41 \\ 23 \\ 44 \\ 56 \\ 47 \\ 48 \\ 90 \\ 51 \\ 23 \\ 55 \\ 56 \\ 57 \\ 89 \\ 60 \end{array}$	onments?	