

1 **50 important research questions in microbial ecology**

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- 37
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41 **Abstract**

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

57

58 **Introduction**

59 In recent years, there has been an explosion in microbial ecological research, which is reflected in
60 broad-scale research projects such as the Human Microbiome Project and the Earth Microbiome
61 Project, as well as in the peer-reviewed literature (e.g. Boers *et al.*, 2016). Recent rapid technological
62 advances, including next-generation sequencing, (meta)genomics, metabolomics,
63 (meta)transcriptomics and (meta)proteomics, have vastly increased our ability to study microbial
64 community complexity and function (Morris *et al.*, 2002; Hiraoka *et al.*, 2016). These provide
65 unprecedented opportunities to assess genomic potential, gene regulation, expression and function *in*
66 *situ* (Schneider *et al.*, 2012, Franzosa *et al.*, 2015), especially when combined with detailed knowledge
67 of natural history and environmental parameters (Peay, 2014). Such techniques have been applied to
68 a vast range of fields within the scope of 'microbial ecology' in order to better understand how
69 microorganisms interact with and affect their environment, each other, and other organisms.

70 With an overwhelming and ever-growing number of potential and critical research avenues in
71 microbial ecology, it is timely to identify major questions and research priorities that would progress
72 the field. Here we present the results of a workshop hosted by the British Ecological Society's
73 Microbial Ecology Special Interest Group in June 2016, which used a discussion and voting-based
74 system to identify 50 research questions of importance to the field of microbial ecology. Similar
75 exercises identifying important research questions have been conducted in conservation (Sutherland
76 *et al.*, 2009, Dicks *et al.* 2012), pure ecology (Sutherland *et al.*, 2013a), marine biodiversity (Parsons
77 *et al.*, 2014), sustainability (Dicks *et al.*, 2013; Jones *et al.* 2014), and non-ecological subjects
78 including UK poverty (Sutherland *et al.*, 2013b). These papers have been widely accessed and are
79 directly applicable to the development of policy, as highlighted by Jones *et al.* (2014).

80

81

82 **Methods**

83 *Participants*

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

87 British Ecological Society's membership mailing list and through social media (Twitter and Facebook).
88 In total, 34 participants from 20 institutions attended and contributed to the development of the 50
89 questions listed below, with the majority listed as authors on this paper.

90

91 *Questions*

92 Prior to the workshop, attendees were asked to submit questions via an online form that they thought
93 most closely met the following brief:

94 "We are aiming to identify 50 questions that, if answered, will make a considerable
95 difference to the use of microbial ecology by practitioners and policy makers, or to
96 the fundamentals of the field of microbial ecology. These should be questions that
97 are unanswered, could be answered, and could be tackled by a research
98 programme. This is expected to set the agenda for future research in the field of
99 microbial ecology."

100

101 A total of 244 questions were submitted by attendees (see Supplementary Information), and assigned
102 (by R.E. Antwis and S.M. Griffiths) to the following themes;

103 1) *Host-Microbiome Interactions;*

104 2) *Health and Infectious Diseases;*

105 3) *Food Security and Human Health;*

106 4) *Microbial Ecology in a Changing World;*

107 5) *Environmental Processes;*

108 6) *Functional Diversity;*

109 7) *Evolutionary Processes.*

110

111 An additional eighth theme named '*Society and Policy*' was created to capture a number of questions
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*.

115

116 *Question selection process*

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

124 Three sets of parallel sessions were run at the workshop, with participants free to select which
125 theme sessions they attended. Questions were discussed in order of lowest ranking to highest, with
126 duplicates removed and questions reworded as necessary. For each theme, a final set of 'gold' (~15%
127 of questions, total of 47 questions across all themes) and 'silver' questions (~10% of questions, total of
128 29 questions) were identified. Where necessary, a show of hands was used to ensure the democratic
129 process was upheld.

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

135

136 *Limitations*

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

141 currently collaborate in, research projects on non-UK ecosystems and species, and therefore the
142 questions proposed are drawn from considerable knowledge and experience of the field
143 internationally. Additionally, although most individuals were from academic institutions, many
144 individuals had previous or on-going collaborations with industrial partners and governmental/non-
145 governmental organisations.

146

147 **Results**

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

155

156 ***Host-Microbiome Interactions***

157 Host-microbiome interactions determine many host life history traits such as behaviour, reproduction,
158 physiological processes, and disease susceptibility (Archie and Theis, 2011; Willing *et al.*, 2011; Koch
159 & Schmidt-Hempel, 2011; Daskin & Alford, 2012; King *et al.*, 2016). Increasingly, we are discovering
160 that host-microbiome interactions produce complex and dynamic communities that fluctuate in
161 compositional abundance correlated with factors as diverse as host genotype, developmental stage,
162 diet, and temporal changes, among others (e.g. Spor *et al.*, 2011). Even in otherwise well studied
163 organisms, very little is known about the consequences of microbiome variation for host processes,
164 particularly across different spatial and temporal scales. Considerations of host microbiomes are also
165 likely important for global issues, such as the efficacy of conservation efforts including species
166 reintroduction programmes (reviewed in Redford *et al.*, 2012; McFall-Ngai, 2015). Additionally,
167 interactions between native and non-native species are correlated with transmission of microbiota,
168 often determined by relatedness or diet type (Ley *et al.*, 2008), and the microbiome plays a key role in
169 the control and competence of insect crop pests and vectors of disease (reviewed in Weiss & Aksoy,

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
188 (e.g. Tasmanian devil face tumour disease, avian malaria, amphibian chytridiomycosis; reviewed in
189 Tompkins *et al.*, 2015) and plants (e.g. sudden oak and larch death, ash dieback; Pautasso *et al.*,
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 (e.g. Rebollar *et al.*, 2016).

197 While for many disease states the paradigm holds true that one microorganism causes one
198 disease, polymicrobial infections are becoming more apparent through metagenomic and
199 metatranscriptomic sequencing of disease-associated microbial communities (Gilbert *et al.*, 2016).
200 Consequently, the “pathobiome” concept, where a disease state is influenced by complex interactions
201 between commensal and pathogenic microorganisms, presents new challenges for applying Koch’s
202 postulates to diseases arising from polymicrobial interactions (Vayssier-Taussat *et al.*, 2014), such as
203 black band disease (BBD) in corals (Sato *et al.*, 2016) and olive knot disease (Buonaurio *et al.*, 2015).

204 In this theme we have identified research questions relating to the microbial ecology of
205 infectious diseases and host health. Although much can be learnt from the comparatively high number
206 of studies in the human and biomedical literature (*e.g.* using network approaches in epidemiology), the
207 questions selected in this theme predominantly relate to non-human animals and plants, as humans
208 are covered later (*‘Food Security and Human Health’*).

209

210 9. How can we better track the source and dispersal of particular microorganisms in real time?

211 10. Many microorganisms are unculturable, and many microbiome studies reveal that diseases are
212 polymicrobial; how can we re-evaluate Koch’s postulates in this context?

213 11. Which factors trigger ‘covert’ infections to become ‘overt’, impacting host health?

214 12. At the population level, how is the burden and shedding intensity of intracellular microbes affected
215 by co-infection by extracellular parasites?

216 13. What is the ecological relevance of the internalization of bacterial pathogens by protozoa in terms
217 of their survival and spread?

218 14. How can network theory best be used to predict and manage infectious disease outbreaks in
219 animals and plants?

220 15. Can microbiomes of wildlife (plants and animals) be used or manipulated to enhance health and/or
221 disease resistance?

222

223 ***Food Security and Human Health***

224 With the human population due to exceed eight billion by 2024, food security and human health are
225 high on political and scientific agendas. The human microbiome has been the focus of intense
226 research efforts in recent years, (e.g. Walter & Ley, 2011; Spor *et al.*, 2011; Mueller *et al.*, 2012),
227 because gut symbionts shape the immune response (Round *et al.*, 2009), and diversity fluctuates
228 through chronic conditions and infectious diseases including diabetes, obesity (Serino *et al.* 2016;
229 Baothman *et al.*, 2016; Ridaura *et al.*, 2013), asthma (Smits *et al.* 2016), and HIV (Lozupone *et al.*,
230 2013). Improving our understanding of the core human microbiome and individual variation will
231 underpin pharmomicrobiomics, enabling development of novel therapeutic treatments and, ultimately,
232 personalised medicine (e.g. Ubeda *et al.*, 2013).

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

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

253

- 254 16. How can human microbiome studies improve personalised medicine?
- 255 17. What ecological principles can be applied in the search for new antibiotics and alternatives?
- 256 18. What are the main determinants of waterborne infection outbreaks, and what is the best strategy
257 to control these in water distribution systems?
- 258 19. What are the consequences of antibiotic and pharmaceutical use in human medicine on microbial
259 communities in freshwater and soil environments?
- 260 20. To what extent are microbial species distributions influenced by climate, and what are the
261 consequences for food security and human health?
- 262 21. How much microbial diversity in the soil has been lost through monoculture and what is the
263 importance of this?
- 264 22. Intensive farming may involve high levels of agrochemicals and broad-spectrum antibiotic usage -
265 what will be the long-term effects on microbial communities?
- 266 23. How best can we harness microbial communities to enhance food production?

267

268 ***Microbial Ecology in a Changing World***

269 Global changes resulting from human activity impact almost every Earth habitat. It is imperative that
270 we focus efforts on understanding the impacts of human activities such as climate change,
271 urbanisation, agriculture, and industrial processes on microbial communities, ecosystem functioning
272 equilibrium, and host health. Microbial populations have a tremendous capacity to adapt to changes in
273 their abiotic environment, yet the functional implications of these transitions in microbial ecology are
274 still poorly understood and characterised (Bissett *et al.*, 2013), and the role of microbes in mediating
275 the response of larger organisms to change is equally understudied. Global environmental changes
276 (GECs) are complex and multifaceted. Human activities such as urbanisation, land-use change and
277 introduction of invasive species have played a role in shifting global ecosystems via desertification,
278 climate change and habitat degradation. Although such changes have been quantified in aquatic and
279 terrestrial habitats (*e.g.* Haberl *et al.*, 2007; Halpern *et al.*, 2008), their effects on microbial
280 communities and impacts on ecosystem function are often hindered by a lack of characterisation of
281 communities, or limited understanding of microbial functional traits. Shifts in basic nutrients and gases

282 such as CO₂, 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?

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 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 al.*,
307 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 application, particularly in

310 extremophiles, which frequently reveal metabolic capabilities and evolutionary solutions not witnessed
311 elsewhere in the microbial world (Coker et al. 2016). However, it is rarely possible to directly link the
312 presence of a specific microbial taxon to a particular ecological process. Other methodological
313 challenges include establishing the relative importance of biotic and abiotic factors in microbial
314 ecosystem function, and determining the appropriate spatial and temporal scale necessary to
315 discriminate links between microbiota and their ecological functions (Bissett *et al.*, 2013).
316 Concurrently, a deeper understanding is required of human-induced impacts on the global microbiome
317 through urbanisation, habitat degradation, climate change, and the introduction of invasive species,
318 amongst others.

319

320 30. How do we successfully establish microbial communities used in bioremediation?

321 31. How important is the rare microbiome in ecosystem function, and how does this change with
322 stochastic events?

323 32. To what extent is microbial community diversity and function resilient to short- and long-term
324 perturbations?

325 33. What is the importance of spatial and temporal variation in microbial community structure and
326 function to key environmental processes and geochemical cycles?

327 34. How can we accurately measure microbial biomass in a reproducible manner?

328 35. Which mechanisms do extremophiles use for survival and how can they be exploited?

329

330 **Functional Diversity**

331 Ecologists are increasingly turning their attention to classifying species based on their activity
332 (function) within an ecosystem, rather than their genotype (Crowther *et al.*, 2014). This is particularly
333 relevant for microbial ecology, in which species are hard to define, horizontal gene transfer is rife, and
334 taxonomy is often blurred. Understanding how membership within complex and dynamic microbial
335 communities relates to the function of that community is one of the key challenges facing microbial
336 ecology (Widder *et al.*, 2016). This is true across a vast range of spatial scales, from microbial dyads
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 or hologenome of
339 a microbial community (and in some cases, its host) relates to metabolic capacities. Conversely, there
340 is also a need to understand how ecosystems depend on a particular organism or group of organisms
341 for any given process and function. This section describes the need to move from simply describing
342 microbial diversity to understanding what these organisms are doing, how they are doing it, and what
343 biotic and abiotic drivers are controlling their activity. Each question may derive a suite of different
344 answers, 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 inferring theories about microbial community dynamics
361 and function?

362

363

364 ***Evolutionary Processes***

365 The role of microorganisms in determining evolutionary outcomes of hosts is being investigated in
366 increasing detail (McFall-Ngai *et al.*, 2013). Experimental evolution studies represent a powerful
367 means of quantifying host-microbe and microbe-microbe coevolution, and have highlighted the
368 extraordinary capacity of microbes to act as key mediators of host fitness (e.g. King *et al.* 2016). Whilst
369 experimental coevolution studies provide a framework for linking dyadic interactions to community-
370 scale dynamics (Brockhurst & Koskella, 2013), evolutionary principles stemming from macro-ecology
371 are being applied to microbial communities of humans (Robinson *et al.*, 2010). However, fundamental
372 biological questions that are well-studied in macrobiology remain controversial for microbial ecology,
373 for example the species concept remains a source of debate (Freudenstein *et al.* 2016). The
374 operational taxonomic unit (OTU) has become the standard unit for identifying bacteria at the highest
375 taxonomic resolution possible, yet it is hard to clearly define where taxonomic boundaries lie between
376 two bacteria, and what an OTU really represents in biological terms. This is especially problematic in
377 the context of horizontal gene transfer, which is commonly observed in bacteria and has turned our
378 understanding of evolutionary processes upside down. This section relates to how general ecological
379 principles influence microbial evolution and *vice versa*, what this means for global biodiversity, and
380 whether evolutionary principles can be utilised for anthropogenic gain.

381

382 45. How can a bacterial 'species' be defined?

383 46. To what extent is faunal and floral biodiversity influenced by microbial communities?

384 47. To what extent do microbial communities have an equivalent to keystone 'species'?

385 48. Does the structure of microbial communities conform to the same ecological rules/principles as in
386 other types of communities?

387 49. How do fundamental shifts in environmental conditions impact the trajectory of microbial
388 evolution?

389 50. What are the relative selective forces favouring microbial genome expansion or reduction?

390 **Society and Policy**

391 We need to find ways to apply fundamental biological research to the benefit of society and policy. For
392 example, collaboration with social scientists is crucial when investigating public understanding of

393 microbial ecology, as well as using citizen science approaches to tackle microbial ecology research
394 questions. Many questions relating to this area were discussed at the workshop, and here we present
395 four additional questions that were developed at the meeting that relate to societal and policy-based
396 aspects of microbial ecology.

397

- 398 • How can we best address supply and demand of information about microbial ecology between
399 researchers, clinicians, policy makers and practitioners?
- 400 • How can we best use social and traditional mass media for early identification of emerging
401 threats to animal and plant health?
- 402 • How can we develop an open access data repository or integrate existing databases to create
403 a centralised and standardised method for data and methods sharing in microbial ecology?
- 404 • How can we replace fear-based regulation with risk-based regulation, specifically with regard
405 to the use of microbes in bioremediation and bioaugmentation?

406

407 **Discussion**

408 Here we present 50 important research questions across a number of themes relating to the field of
409 microbial ecology. Although there are many other research issues worthy of investigation, it is
410 intended that these questions will be used to inform and direct future research programmes and
411 agendas, particularly in areas where microbial ecology has not previously been considered or applied.
412 In many cases, these questions are deliberately broad to allow researchers to adapt them to their own
413 areas of interest, for example across different systems, or to varying spatial scales. Across many
414 questions there was strong recognition of the vast metabolic capabilities of microorganisms and
415 microbial communities, and the need to harness this power to improve human and animal health and
416 wellbeing. Some themes addressed various existing mechanisms for exploiting microbial processes,
417 namely bioremediation, soil improvement, water treatment and probiotic suppression of pathogen
418 resistance. As these are already active areas of research, the questions posed here are structured to
419 provide a framework by which these efforts can be directed in the future.

420 A predominant theme that emerged was the need to integrate knowledge between different
421 research areas, for example the application of information from human microbiome studies to the
422 study of other non-model host organisms, and the potential to apply macro-ecological frameworks to
423 micro-ecological concepts. Many fundamental biological questions that are well-studied in classical
424 ecology remain controversial for microbial ecology, and the species concept (Freudenstein *et al.*
425 2016), taxonomy, and how the OTU should be defined for microorganisms, generated multiple
426 questions (e.g. see '*Evolutionary Processes*' theme). Classical community ecology concepts should
427 not be overlooked when considering microbial dynamics (Rynkiewicz *et al.*, 2015) and, conversely,
428 microbial communities may prove useful models for general ecology due to their short generation
429 times, reproducibility, and ease of use in the laboratory environment (Brockhurst & Koskella, 2013;
430 Libberton *et al.*, 2015; King *et al.*, 2016). There have been a number of calls for the medical profession
431 to look to ecological and evolutionary tools when seeking to understand epidemiology (Johnson *et al.*,
432 2015), investigating novel antibacterial agents (Vale *et al.*, 2016), and considering multi-host, multi-
433 agent disease systems (Buhnerkempe *et al.*, 2015).

434 The '*Host-Microbiome Interactions*' theme considered the need to understand factors
435 influencing microbiome composition, which in turn have consequences for a myriad of host traits,
436 including disease susceptibility and host evolution (Chisholm *et al.*, 2006; Archie & Theis, 2011; Spor
437 *et al.*, 2011; Cho & Blaser, 2012; McFall-Ngai *et al.*, 2013; McFall-Ngai, 2015; Zilber-Rosenberg &
438 Rosenberg, 2008). As this theme considered microbiota from the perspective of the host, there was
439 some overlap with the '*Health and Infectious Diseases*' and '*Evolutionary Processes*' themes.
440 Probiotics were discussed as a viable and promising alternative to current strategies in a number of
441 contexts in these themes, not only to improve individual health, but also to decrease disease
442 susceptibility of humans and other animals, to enhance nutritional quality of food, and to mitigate the
443 negative impacts of antibiotic use across humans, livestock, aquaculture and agriculture (Martín *et al.*,
444 2013; Newaj-Fyzul *et al.*, 2014; Smith, 2014; Fox, 2015). Developing personalized probiotic-based
445 therapies requires complementary diversity and functional-based studies in order to elucidate the
446 specific roles of microbiota in health and disease, and thus how microbial communities can be
447 manipulated.

448 Questions considered in both the '*Functional Diversity*' theme and the '*Environmental*
449 *Processes*' theme raised a common need to understand changes in microbial community structure

450 and function across spatial and temporal scales (Carmona *et al.*, 2016). Establishing appropriate
451 spatial scales for studying microbial processes is an outstanding challenge: micro-organisms can
452 orchestrate ecosystem functioning across whole biomes (Sheffer *et al.*, 2015), yet fungi exhibit low
453 mobility on tree barks (Koufopanou *et al.* 2006, Robinson *et al.*, 2016), and an air void in soil can be
454 an insuperable barrier for a bacterium. Similarly, drawing meaningful conclusions about microbial
455 processes requires understanding of their temporal variability; for example, diurnal influences
456 (Shurpali *et al.*, 2016), or lags behind changes in ecosystem drivers (Allison and Martiny, 2008).

457 A subject common to a number of themes was the role of individual species *versus* consortia
458 in community functioning. The question of defining bacterial species is a contentious topic, and the
459 issue remains whether some microbial taxa act as keystones in ecosystem functions. Many microbial
460 surveys carry the implicit assumption that the most abundant taxa are also the most important, yet
461 rare species can be hugely significant if they are highly active and/or monopolise a particular process
462 (Lynch and Neufeld, 2015). The collective metabolic capabilities of micro-organisms have great
463 potential for *in situ* applications such as bioremediation, particularly when used in multi-species
464 consortia (Mikesková *et al.*, 2012). Successful bioremediation and environmental management
465 requires the introduction of new assemblages into an established community, or stimulation of key
466 members of the community *in situ*. In turn, predicting the successful establishment of deliberately
467 introduced organisms depends on an understanding of the principles underlying microbial community
468 formation and structure (Rillig *et al.*, 2015). Despite these challenges, functional diversity modelling
469 has successfully been applied to the ecological restoration of some plant communities (Laughlin,
470 2014). Closely linked to this is the issue of functional redundancy, and to what extent it is possible to
471 lose species without affecting ecosystem functions. Already there is evidence that microbial
472 communities may be less functionally redundant than macro-organism communities (Delgado-
473 Baquerizo *et al.*, 2016). This issue ties into fundamental ecological concepts, such as niche theory
474 (Carmona *et al.*, 2016); if multiple organisms are carrying out the same process, apparently
475 interchangeably, how do they avoid competitively excluding one another? The concept of keystone
476 species has been shown to be applicable to microbes (Neufeld *et al.*, 2008; Pester *et al.*, 2010; Ze *et*
477 *al.*, 2012; Yu *et al.*, 2016), yet further work is needed to characterise the extent to which keystone
478 functions occur in different environments and whether these can be consistently identified (Anderson,
479 2003; Pester *et al.*, 2010).

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

498 The 50 questions identified here cover a broad range of topics, but some over-arching themes
499 recur across multiple questions, including a recognition that microbes play an important role in a
500 variety of different processes and systems, which may be harnessed to solve real-world problems.
501 There were some similarities between the questions identified here and those identified by previous
502 workshops of a similar nature. For example, questions relating to soil health and biodiversity (Dicks *et*
503 *al.* 2013), a requirement for developing a theoretical understanding of micro- and macro- ecological
504 concepts (Prosser *et al.* 2007, Sutherland *et al.* 2013a) and disease dynamics (Prosser *et al.* 2007,
505 Sutherland *et al.* 2013a) have a degree of commonality with this list. This indicates that the ecological
506 theory underpinning many research questions transcends scientific disciplines, and that there is still
507 much work to be done at both theoretical and applied levels. Within these 50 questions, we have tried
508 to provide a focus for researchers addressing scientific questions from a microbial perspective,
509 regardless of their background. It is expected that these questions will facilitate interesting discussion

510 and new, exciting, interdisciplinary research. The list is by no means exhaustive, and we recognise
511 that the questions presented here are relatively community-centric, primarily due to the recent
512 expansion in methodological approaches that have improved our understanding of microbial
513 community diversity and function. That said, other areas of microbial ecology should not be ignored or
514 forgotten. Given the rapidly evolving field of microbial ecology, it is expected that future workshops
515 with a wide draw will be held to ensure that the identification of research priorities and areas of interest
516 is a continuing process.

517

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525

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530

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