# 1 Fundamental questions in meiofauna—how small but ubiquitous animals can help to better

# 2 understand Nature

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#### 110 Abstract

111 Meiofauna—a collective term to define microscopic animals—represent a numerically important 112 component of biodiversity in most of Earth's ecosystems and play a crucial role in biogeochemical 113 cycles. Meiofauna have also been used as models to understand fundamental adaptive processes, 114 have contributed to a better understanding of the animal's Tree of Life, and are believed to be a 115 treasure trove for future genomic studies. To celebrate the diversity of research topics brought to 116 us by the term "meiofauna", we gathered a multidisciplinary team of 42 ecologists, taxonomists, 117 morphologists, biogeographers, molecular biologists, and scientific disseminators to list 194 fundamental questions in meiofaunal research. Then, through an online survey, 251 scientists, 118 119 administrators, students, and stakeholders assisted us in reducing this list to 50 top-priority 120 questions. Applied topics related to anthropogenic impact and climate change received the 121 highest scores, whereas questions related to areas in development such as genomics or 122 adaptations, received less attention. Whereas we might not be exploiting meiofauna's full 123 potential yet, more and more integrative approaches and technological developments will create 124 opportunities to employ these fascinating organisms to answer broad and important questions, 125 despite of their impediments related to their small body size. Meiofauna research agenda should 126 balance amongst investigating general questions, addressing more specialized research topics, and 127 generating primary data on distribution, taxonomy, traits, and DNA sequences. The geographical 128 and taxonomic biases that have historically affected meiofaunal research can be alleviated by 129 promoting international cooperation, open data sharing, and an increase effort in education, 130 taxonomic training, as well as scientific communication. We hope that this will get both 131 researchers and the general public intrigued by those small critters that constantly lurk unseen in 132 front of us.

#### 133 **1. Introduction**

134 Our knowledge on Earth's biodiversity is biased towards relatively large organisms, particularly if 135 they are charismatic, colourful, useful, or threatening to humans (Miralles et al., 2019; Mammola 136 et al., 2023). Whether this skew derives from the fact that we, humans, are relatively large 137 mammals, which navigate the world mainly using visual stimuli, or because we respond to other 138 biological, cultural, or socioeconomic factors remains an open question (Adamo et al., 2022). Yet, 139 the consequences of this bias permeate scientific inquiry, not only by affecting our perception of 140 nature but also by driving the way we administer resources for research or design conservation 141 policies (Adamo et al., 2022).

142 As a corollary, small-sized animals and their roles in ecosystems tend to be overlooked, not 143 only by the general public, but also by the scientific community. Consequently, small animals are 144 typically under-represented in the conservation agenda (Adamo et al., 2022; Mammola et al., 145 2020b) and in biodiversity research at different scales (Troudet et al., 2017). Among these small 146 but functionally important creatures, those whose body size ranges between 10<sup>3</sup> and10<sup>5</sup> metres 147 are usually referred to as "meiofauna" (Fig. 1). In fact, the term "meiofauna" is used with two 148 different meanings depending on the context. In ecological studies, "meiofauna" refers to the 149 fraction of the animal and protist community that is retained between sieves with a mesh size of 150 0.5–1 mm on the upper and 0.030–0.063 mm on the lower end of the scale (Schmidt-Rhaesa, 151 2020). The term was originally introduced by ecologists to describe the communities dwelling in 152 marine sediments ("meiobenthos", Warwick & Clarke, 1984), but it soon was generalized across a 153 broader range of habitats, such as springs (Fattorini et al., 2016), aquifers (Korbel et al., 2019), 154 soils (Müller et al., 2019), rivers (Schmidt-Araya et al., 2020), lakes (Traunspurger et al., 2020), or 155 even the water-filled cavities of terrestrial plant (Almeida & Souza, 2020). Alternatively, 156 evolutionary biologists and zoologists often use the term "meiofauna" to describe animals that are 157 invisible to a naked eye, thereby establishing a correspondence between the term meiofauna and 158 microscopic animals (Rundell et al., 2010). Although similar, these two meanings cannot be 159 interchanged without caveats (Fontaneto, 2011). On the one hand, some of the individuals within 160 the meiofaunal fraction of a community are not microscopic, can even reach several millimetres in length, but are still retained within the meiofaunal fraction due to their elongated and thin bodies 161 162 (Ptatscheck et al., 2020). Consequently, properties attributed to microscopic animals are not 163 always applicable across all the species found in the meiofaunal fraction of a community (Cerca et 164 al., 2018). On the other hand, some organisms qualify as meiofauna during part of their life cycles,

enforcing a distinction between the so-called *temporary* and *permanent* meiofauna that is not
easily established across all species of a meiofaunal community, such as annelids (Worsaae et al.,
2021) or platyhelminths (Curini-Galletti et al., 2023).

168 Notwithstanding these caveats, the term "meiofauna" has facilitated a common 169 framework of discussion for scientists across geological and life sciences, who otherwise would 170 hardly interact and discuss their world views. Since the pioneering studies conducted in the first 171 half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Swedmark, 1964), meiofauna research has gained momentum only in 172 recent years (Giere & Schratzberger 2023). It is now evident that meiofauna represent not only an 173 important component of biodiversity in most of Earth's ecosystems (Fonseca et al., 2010), but a 174 crucial player in carbon and nitrogen cycling throughout aquatic trophic networks (Bonaglia et al., 175 2014; Schratzberger & Ingels, 2018; Bonaglia & Nascimento, 2023; Maciute et al., 2023). Several 176 studies have highlighted meiofauna as sentinels for early detection of potential sources of 177 pollution or climate change (Zeppilli et al., 2018; Ridall & Ingels, 2021), as well as a fundamental 178 service provider (Schratzberger & Ingels, 2018). Meanwhile, microscopic meiofaunal animals 179 continue to pose fascinating research questions and provide tools to test general eco-evolutionary 180 hypotheses (Fonseca et al., 2018; Giere & Schratzberger, 2023). For example, it remains an open 181 question whether microscopic animals respond to ecological drivers similarly to their macroscopic 182 counterparts, challenging the generality of many ecological and evolutionary principles derived from the study of larger organisms (Fontaneto, 2011); or how universal scaling laws can apply to 183 184 them due to their small body size (Hatton et al., 2019). Furthermore, many ancient metazoan 185 lineages that are only represented today by microscopic animals exhibit an interesting 186 combination of potentially ancestral characters and adaptations to having a small body size 187 (Cannon et al., 2016; Laumer et al., 2015, 2019; Marlétaz et al 2019), thereby providing an insight 188 into the microscopic animals that likely inhabited ancient marine ecosystems (Worsaae et al., 189 2023). Indeed, whereas most meiofauna are too tiny and fragile to leave any recoverable trace in 190 fossil sites (Parry et al., 2017), those bearing calcareous structures, such as ostracods or 191 foraminifera, have left extensive fossil record, valuable for palaeontological, biostratigraphical and 192 paleoecological studies and reconstructions, both in academia and industry (Jones, 2013; Perrier 193 et al., 2015). Meiofauna also yield potential to understand processes of ecological filtering, 194 adaptation, and morphological change, at both lineage (Martín-Durán et al., 2021) and community 195 levels (Martínez et al., 2021; Vieira et al., 2021). Some microscopic animals have dormant stages 196 able to withstand extreme environmental conditions, even in space (Ricci et al., 2005; Persson et

*al.,* 2011), whereas others have been used as model organisms in pioneering cancer research
(Kirienko et al., 2011)

199 In an era in which we strive to make research as diverse, multidisciplinary, and 200 international as possible (Cardoso et al., 2022), we should cherish terms such as meiofauna insofar 201 as they provide unique opportunities to address timely and broad scientific questions from 202 different angles across the natural sciences (Parker et al., 2016). To celebrate all the research 203 opportunities brought to us by the term "meiofauna", we gathered a multidisciplinary team of 204 researchers to list the most fundamental questions that we can address using meiofauna. Then, 205 we evaluated the broader interests of these questions through an online survey targeting 206 scientists, administrators, students, and stakeholders. With this exercise, we first wanted to 207 highlight the questions that could interest a broad audience; and secondly, we wanted to identify 208 significant medium- and long-term goals within different scientific fields addressed by researchers 209 using meiofauna research (Sutherland & Woodroof, 2009). We structured the discussion of our 210 results under three overarching questions: (1) Are we exploiting the full potential that meiofauna 211 offer as model to address questions of broad scientific and societal importance? (2) What are the 212 critical research priorities as perceived by researchers working with meiofauna? (3) Which biases 213 currently affect meiofauna research and how can we overcome them to move forwards in our 214 research agenda?

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## 216 **2. Horizontal scanning protocol**

217 To select fundamental questions that can be addressed using meiofauna, we followed a 218 horizon scanning methodology (Sutherland et al., 2011), as it was successfully applied in similar 219 surveys (Patiño et al., 2017; Mammola et al., 2020a). Survey coordinators (Martínez and 220 Fontaneto) defined eight panels corresponding to research areas within the published research in 221 meiofauna: (i) Systematics and taxonomy; (ii) Macroecology and biogeography; (iii) Morphology 222 and adaptation; (iv) Genome biology and evolution; (v) Anthropogenic impacts and global change; (vi) Population and community ecology; (vii) Biogeochemistry and applied topics; and (viii) Science 223 224 communication and other topics. The goal of the latter was to identify additional questions that did not fit in the remaining seven topics and might therefore have been overlooked. For each 225 226 panel, the survey coordinators invited one panel coordinator (Table 1), whose task was to 227 establish an international panel of experts to formulate a pool of initial fundamental questions

within the topic. In assembling each panel, panel coordinators invited: (i) two internationally
recognized meiofaunal experts, (ii) one early career researcher (*i.e.*, a post-doc or researcher with
less than 10 years of experience), and (iii) one external expert with internationally recognized
expertise in the research area, but without a specialized background in meiofauna. Inviting an
early career researcher provided a multigenerational view of each topic, whereas external experts
were asked to emphasize the relevance of the questions outside the meiofaunal paradigms.

234 The panels initially assembled a list of 253 questions. The survey coordinators curated this 235 list by removing duplicated questions, improving readability (Plavén-Sigray et al., 2017), and 236 removing unnecessary jargon (Martínez and Mammola, 2021) and acronyms (Barnett & 237 Doubleday, 2020) (Table S1). After language editing and removal of duplicates, we kept 194 238 questions (hereafter List #1). List #1 was submitted to an initial scrutiny by panel members, who 239 scored each question from 1 to 10 according to its importance. We randomized the order of the 240 questions for each participant. Based on the bimodal distribution of total scores obtained by the 241 questions, all the 117 questions that scored above 205 were included in the final list, referred to 242 from now on as List #2.

243 We then subjected List #2 to online voting (Public Survey) by inviting a broad community of 244 researchers, ranging from researchers with a strong background in meiofaunal studies to 245 researchers without any knowledge of meiofauna, as well as students and stakeholders. We 246 achieved that by promoting the survey using several channels, which included direct e-mails to 247 peers, promotion through social media (Facebook, Twitter, and ResearchGate) and in workshops 248 and meetings, as well as advertising the survey in different mailing lists, scientific societies, and 249 newsletters. The latter included newsletters such as Psammonalia, and those of the Brazilian and 250 the Japanese meiobenthologists associations; as well as different email lists such as the rotifer-251 family@listserv, Annelida list, the mailing lists of the members of the International Society for 252 Subterranean Biology, the Italian Ecological Society, and the Ecological Society of India. Finally, the 253 questionnaire was also distributed to the students in the courses that some of the panel members 254 are teaching (see below).

255 Several caveats need to be considered when interpreting the results of a horizon scan 256 survey (Sutherland *et al.*, 2011, 2013; Patiño *et al.*, 2017; Mammola *et al.*, 2020a). A summary of 257 those as well as the countermeasures we adopted to cope with them, are included in the 258 Supplementary methods.

#### **3. Summary of the horizon scan**

In the internal survey, involving only the 32 panel members and 2 survey coordinators (total 34 voters), the number of scores ranged from 266 (top-voted question) to 120 (least-voted question). In the public online survey, 251 voters participated including researchers with and without a primary interest in meiofauna. The highest ranked question (*"How does meiofaunal biodiversity contribute to ecosystem function, integrity, and sustainability in the context of anthropogenic activities and global change?"*) scored 2257, whereas the lowest ranked question (*"Is the process of secondary miniaturization irreversible?"*) scored 1640.

267 Voters were mostly reached by peer-to-peer messages targeting colleagues and experts 268 (123 voters, 43%), followed by newsletters (80 voters, 28%). Other participants discovered the 269 survey using social media (28 voters, 10%), during scientific meetings or workshops (20 voters, 270 7%), or were panel members (34 voters, 12%). Also including the panel members, voters' gender 271 was slightly skewed toward males (166 identified themselves as men (58%), 116 as women (41%), 272 and 3 (1%) participants identified otherwise). We gathered votes from all the continents, although 273 mostly from Europe (168 voters, 57.5%), followed by South and North America (55 and 38 voters, 274 representing 19% and 13% respectively) (Fig. 2). 93 participants (32%) identified themselves as 275 experts in meiofauna (expertise level 5/5 or 4/5), whereas 87 (30%) declared that they have none 276 or very little experience (expertise level 0/5 or 1/5). The remaining 105 members recognized an 277 intermediate level of expertise (2/5 or 3/5). Participants identified primarily as interested in 278 ecology (30%), followed by taxonomy (15%), morphology (13%), conservation science (10%), 279 evolutionary biology (9%), molecular biology (6%), geochemistry (6%), and microbiology (4%). 280 Most of the voters were experienced researchers (152 voters, 53%), but the voters' pool also 281 included students (71 voters, 25%), post-docs (44 voters, 15%) and colleagues employed outside 282 academia (18 voters, 6%). The patterns of answers were only marginally affected by the different 283 areas of expertise of the voters, as well as the demographic parameters (gender and age), 284 explaining less than the 11% of the total variance of the answers (Fig. 3A, 3B; see Supplementary 285 results). In other words, voters seemingly scored the questions without prioritizing those related 286 to their own backgrounds (Fig. 3C). The readability and number of words of each question did not 287 significantly affect the scores that questions received (but see Supplementary Results for details).

In the following sections, we discuss the results of the voting panel by panel, focusing on each panel's 5 highest-scoring questions. We decided to discussed the 5 highest-scoring questions instead of those entering the top-50, so we can still discuss the results of all panels, even when none of the questions of the panels "Genome Biology and Evolution" and "Morphology and
Adaptation" entered the top-50. When the top-5 questions in each panel belonged to the 50
most-voted questions overall, their number and points were highlighted in bold. Details on the
survey scores, along with the anonymous voters' metadata are included in the Supplementary
Table S2.

## 296 **3.1.** Panel I. Systematics and taxonomy

297 Systematics and taxonomy are the backbone for any scientific discipline focusing on 298 biodiversity. Agreed-upon and stable species names are fundamental for ensuring reproducibility 299 of biological studies, given that misidentifications or taxonomic changes may deeply affect 300 conclusions (Vink et al., 2012). Unsurprisingly, most of the 50 top-priority questions depend on a 301 reliable taxonomic background and robust species identifications (Table 2). Unfortunately, the 302 "Linnean shortfall," which refers to the small fraction of species that has been described by 303 science compared to the number of extant species (Hortal et al., 2015), is particularly prominent in 304 meiofauna research (Fonseca et al., 2018). This has been attributed to the time-consuming 305 process of describing minute and often delicate organisms, which requires specialized training and 306 high-end microscopy for documentation (Schmidt-Rhaesa 2020), but also to the general 307 preference of many researchers to study larger species (Mammola et al., 2023). This has led to a 308 shortage in trained taxonomists compared to the vast amount of still undiscovered or yet 309 undescribed meiofaunal diversity (Curini-Galletti et al., 2012).

310 Awareness of the current biodiversity crisis calls for efficient conservation approaches 311 (Minteer et al., 2012; Jefferson et al., 2021), even when it has been suggested that meiofauna is 312 less likely to go locally extinct than larger faunas (Schratzberger et al., 2023 and references 313 therein). An accurate assessment of meiofaunal species diversity is entirely dependent on the 314 development of more efficient and reliable taxonomic procedures (Q #12). While each community 315 of taxonomists can develop their common standards in specimen identification, species 316 delimitation, and description (see e.g., González-Casarrubios et al., 2023), recent advancements in 317 integrative taxonomy with (semi-)automated pipelines of species delineation and description 318 using DNA have considerably accelerated the taxonomic work (*e.g.*, Fontaneto *et al.*, 2015; Jörger 319 & Schrödl, 2013; Vences et al., 2021). These advances seem particularly urgent in certain groups, 320 such as nematodes, in which the huge diversity of species renders the species identification 321 unpractical, restricting most ecological analyses done with the groups to the genus level (Moens et 322 al., 2013).

323 DNA metabarcoding is becoming increasingly popular and promising in biodiversity 324 assessments using meiofauna (e.g., Creer et al., 2010; Fonseca et al., 2017; de Faria et al., 2018; 325 Broman et al., 2019; Atherton & Jondelius, 2020; Fais et al., 2020; Martínez et al., 2020, Castro et 326 al., 2021). However, methodological limitations and database biases currently still exist (see e.g., 327 Leasi *et al.*, 2018). Firstly, biodiversity estimations are sensitive to the target genes and rely on the 328 development of *in vitro* and *in silico* workflows capable of dealing with low population density, 329 small body mass, and uncertain genetic diversity (Gielings et al., 2021). Secondly, metabarcoding 330 should be calibrated against reference databases curated by taxonomists to ensure 331 correspondence between barcoding molecular operational taxonomic units (MOTUs) and species 332 hypotheses. Thirdly, a general consensus on a standardized metabarcoding pipeline is needed for 333 comparability of the generated data in subsequent ecological studies (Gielings et al., 2021). 334 Finally, most of the currently available methods for massive DNA sequencing produce 335 comparatively short sequences. Short sequences, together with the deep phylogenetic divergence 336 time and the high substitution rates that are present across meiofaunal species, particularly for 337 some loci (e.g. mitochondrial loci), hamper species identification and complicates the design of 338 universal primers (e.g., Fontaneto et al., 2015; Bhadury & Austen, 2010; Macher et al., 2021).

339 Standardized taxonomic approaches (e.g., Curini-Galletti et al., 2012) and metabarcoding 340 (e.g., Atherton & Jondelius, 2020) have boosted overall biodiversity estimates even in areas where meiofauna has been long studied. This urges for a strong community effort with joined initiatives, 341 342 such as regional workshops (Wilhems et al., 2009; Curini-Galletti et al., 2012; Fonseca et al., 2014; 343 Martínez et al., 2019; Jörger et al., 2021), to reveal how many species of meiofauna are present on 344 different regional and global scales (Q#21). Comparative analyses across different regions and 345 habitats might reveal putative areas of endemism and biodiversity hotspots contributing towards 346 the overall goal of identifying patterns of diversity in meiofauna across different taxa (Q#37) (see 347 Panel II). This is particularly relevant for testing the "everything is everywhere" hypothesis 348 (Fenchel & Finlay, 2004), and the question on whether widely distributed species truly exist or are 349 just an artefact of poor taxonomic resolution (Q#31). Wide distribution ranges are common in 350 several meiofaunal groups with dormancy capabilities allowing long-distance passive dispersal, 351 such as rotifers, nematodes, and tardigrades (Frisch et al., 2007; Fontaneto, 2019). However, 352 many other meiofaunal groups lack such dispersal stages and are thus generally considered poor 353 dispersers, making reported cosmopolitan distributions in these taxa a yet to be explained 354 "meiofaunal paradox" (Giere, 2009). Most recent studies re-examining putative cosmopolitan

species in these poor dispersing groups (*e.g.*, nemerteans, molluscs, annelids, tardigrades, or
nemertodermatids) based on morphological and molecular methods have revealed complexes of
species with high degree of molecular divergence with geographically restricted distributional
ranges (*e.g.*, Meyer-Wachsmuth *et al.*, 2014; Leasi *et al.*, 2016; Cerca *et al.*, 2020; Morek *et al.*,
2021), although some species also exhibit broad distribution patterns regardless the approaches
applied (de Oliveira *et al.*, 2017; Worsaae *et al.*, 2019) (Panel II).

361 Enhancing biodiversity surveys points towards a specific problem in meiofauna research, 362 that is the re-identification of species, *i.e.*, assigning them to existing names in the classificatory 363 system. Advances in high-end morphological and molecular approaches for species delineation 364 have outdated older descriptions, and type material – if it exists – is often inaccessible for reexamination via modern methods. This problem prevails in "soft-bodied" meiofauna (e.g. Fig. 1A-365 366 F) that requires the study of living animals to retrieve diagnostic characters, or in delicate 367 specimens, which are frequently destroyed or lost during investigation (Garraffoni et al., 2019). 368 This has led to a heated debate on type requirements in "soft-bodied" meiofauna and the role of 369 photomicrography-based taxonomy in "type-less species descriptions" (Ceríaco et al., 2016; 370 Garraffoni et al., 2019) (Q#60). In many taxa, a combination of a photomicrographic taxonomy is 371 needed, ideally combined with subsequent deposition of a voucher suitable for molecular analyses 372 or DNA reference sequence along with the original description. Unfortunately, thorough 373 morphological documentation might lead to the (partial) destruction of the documented type to-374 be, which at least might be left as a "DNA-type" as voucher material, in agreement with the 375 International Code of Zoological Nomenclature (Jörger & Schrödl, 2013; Félix et al., 2014).

## 376 **3.2.** Panel II. Macroecology and Biogeography

377 Research on meiofaunal animals might provide opportunities for testing the generality of global 378 biodiversity patterns beyond large organisms such as plants, insects, and vertebrates (e.g., 379 Hillebrand & Azovsky 2001; Azovsky et al., 2020). Being geographically widespread and 380 ecologically ubiquitous, meiofauna present good model systems for investigating global scale 381 biogeographical patterns and processes, gaining insights into historical events and current 382 ecological processes that shape diversity across most of Earth's biomes (Zeppilli et al., 2018; Majdi 383 et al., 2020; García-Gómez et al., 2021). Furthermore, meiofauna encompasses species across 384 most animal phyla, allowing the formulation of general inferences through a large fraction of the 385 animal Tree of Life (Rundell & Leander, 2010). Indeed, our survey highlights that voters appreciate the importance of performing such studies on meiofauna, given that seven questions of this panelentered the 50 top-priority list (Table 2).

388 Despite these premises, large-scale studies on meiofauna remain out of reach. Meiofauna 389 research needs standardized sampling protocols to obtain comparable data worldwide (Q#8). Long 390 implemented in larger organisms, international protocols and common data-sharing practices are 391 lacking for most meiofaunal groups (Somerfield & Warwick 2013, De Pooter et al., 2017). This might 392 be because meiofauna remains to be recognized as a tool for assessment of environmental quality 393 by international directives, but it is probably also inherent to the small body size of meiofauna, their 394 morphological traits, and their ecological preferences, which demand the use of specific sampling 395 protocols, handling procedures, and equipment (Giere 2009; Schmidt-Rhaesa 2020). Some of these 396 impediments might be alleviated by molecular techniques (e.g., metabarcoding), but those still 397 demand a solid reference library and comprehensive global sampling campaigns to explore patterns 398 of diversity (e.g., Castro et al., 2021, Leasi et al., 2018, Martínez et al., 2020; Panel I), not to mention 399 that metabarcoding datasets alone do not inform on the relative abundance of different species of 400 metazoans (Fontaneto et al., 2015).

401 Furthermore, the ubiquity of undescribed species and the practice of working at higher 402 taxonomic levels across meiofaunal groups hamper robust estimations of taxonomic diversity (see 403 Panel I) (Q#13). Our overall knowledge on meiofaunal biodiversity remains poor and strongly biased 404 towards regions with a long history in biodiversity research (*e.g.*, Europe), as a significant portion of 405 the world remains terra incognita on the global meiofauna map (Garraffoni et al., 2021). This uneven 406 distribution of information is also germane to relatively well-investigated areas, such as Europe, 407 where most species records concentrate nearby research infrastructures such as marine field stations or laboratories; and even within these areas, researchers tend to look for animals in 408 409 habitats where they are more abundant, confounding ecological knowledge about species habitat 410 breadths (Rubio-López et al., 2023). The organization of workshops in different parts of the world 411 has alleviated this problem only partially, given that they only cover limited areas within otherwise 412 largely unexplored regions. In contrast, all we know about meiofauna in vast regions of the world is 413 limited to punctual, nearly anecdotical, sampling efforts (Fontaneto *et al.*, 2012).

Our level of ignorance is even greater regarding functional and genetic diversity (Fonseca *et al.*, 2017). This is problematic because these alternative biodiversity metrics might enable more meaningful interpretations of biological patterns and help us better understand the biogeography of certain groups (Leasi *et al.*, 2018; Martínez *et al.*, in review). Knowledge of traits, phylogeny, or

418 abiotic ranges might help identifying the factors determining species dispersal (Q#16), especially for 419 complexes of morphologically similar species, which may exhibit different habitat preferences or 420 play a different ecological role within the same area (De Meester et al., 2011, 2015). Recent 421 evidence indicates that dispersal limitation is a key driver of meiofauna distribution, which might be 422 influenced by morphological traits—such as body size, dormancy, presence, absence or mobility of 423 larvae, asexuality, or presence of adhesive properties (Curini-Galletti et al., 2012; Fontaneto, 424 2019)—or ecological preferences, such as specific habitat turbulence, or adaptations to cave or 425 deep-sea habitats (Martínez et al., 2019; Azovsky et al., 2020) (Q#16). Different scenarios might help 426 to explain long-distance dispersal in these groups, such as rafting (Jokiel, 1990), phoresy (Corrêa et 427 al., 2014; Ingels et al., 2020), wind and rain-mediated transport (Ptatscheck et al., 2018), or 428 accidental transport within ballast water of ships (Radziejewska et al., 2006). Understanding the 429 dynamics of meiofauna dispersal will contribute to defining to what extent emergent ecological 430 patterns result from the present physical barriers or ecological limitations and whether it is related 431 to meiofaunal body size.

432 The need for comparable datasets (Q#8) and knowledge synthesis (Q#13) highlights a 433 demand for information to explore large-scale drivers of meiofaunal biodiversity (Q#24, Q#38). 434 Many such works rely on data mining from published studies, mostly based on morphological 435 identification (e.g., Vanreusel et al., 2010; Azovsky et al., 2012; Fonseca & Netto 2015; Brustolin et 436 al., 2018; Azovsky et al., 2020; Garrafoni et al., 2021). Meiofaunal records are generally scarce in 437 general distribution databases (e.g. Global Biodiversity Information Facility, GBIF), and lack 438 taxonomic validation beyond the submitter's capability. For some lineages, such as ostracods or 439 mites (Fig. 1W,Z), even the taxonomic backbone provided by those platforms is largely incomplete. 440 In contrast, comprehensive global databases are available for certain groups, such as acoels 441 (Jondelius, 2023), platyhelminths (Tyler et al., 2022), tardigrades (Michalczyk & Kaczmarek, 2013; 442 Kaczmarek et al., 2015), and gastrotrichs (Hummond, 2010), geographical areas (Garlaschè et al., 443 2020, García-Herrero et al., 2021, Rubio-López et al., 2022, Curini-Galletti et al., 2023, Ferrari et al., 444 2023; Fresno-López et al., 2023) and habitats (Martínez et al., 2018; García-Gómez et al., 2022). Unfortunately, there are no global datasets available for nematodes (Fig. 10-S), copepods (Fig. 1X-445 446 Y) and foraminifera, despite of their abundance in sediments worldwide (Giere, 2008). Future efforts 447 should focus on interoperability (Feng et al., 2022), i.e., unifying those databases in terms of data 448 format and underlying terminology, as well as combining them with other sources of information,

such as genes (Weigand & Macher, 2018), or traits (Cifoni *et al.*, 2021; Chapman *et al.*, 2019), so
that future research driven by big data can be streamlined.

## 451 3.3. Panel III. Morphology and adaptation

The advent of advanced microscopy and imaging technologies, coupled with the ongoing challenges posed by rapid climate change and biodiversity decline, has heightened the significance and urgency of understanding both morphology and the mechanisms and outcomes of adaptive changes (Merilä & Hendry, 2014). Yet, none of the questions proposed by the panel entered the top 50 priority list (Table 2). This can be attributed to the voters' preference for applied research or to the fact that many questions of this panel focused on specific processes that may be unknown to broader audiences.

459 Three of the panel's five most-voted questions emphasize the mechanisms and limitations 460 of convergent adaptation (Q#74, Q#80, Q#84). Investigating adaptations over long phylogenetic timescales necessitates the use of comparative phylogenetic methods, which are highly sensitive 461 462 to the chosen phylogenetic reconstruction method and rely on the available data—scarce for most 463 meiofaunal lineages (Panels I, II and IV). In this context, the potential adaptive significance of 464 small body size has been a subject of prolonged discussion (Q#80). Small body size might 465 represent the ancestral condition in various animal lineages (Laumer et al., 2015, but see Marlétaz 466 et al. 2019), while in other lineages small size has more likely evolved secondarily and 467 independently through miniaturization processes (Worsaae et al., 2023).

468 Investigations into adaptations over shorter evolutionary timescales rely on comparing the 469 variability of traits across populations exposed to different ecological conditions and accounting 470 for their genetic variation (Merilä & Hendry, 2014) (Q#92). Consequently, it becomes crucial to 471 dissect the role of gene expression plasticity in acclimation versus genetic differentiation in 472 adaptation when evaluating the type, function, and magnitude of phenotypic traits suitable for 473 persisting in changing environments (Hoekstra & Coyne, 2007). Studies on these topics focusing on 474 meiofauna arecomparatively limited and lag behind compared to those on large-bodied animals (Miller et al., 2022). Despite that, recent collaborative efforts among phylogenetists, 475 476 morphologists, and systematists have significantly enhanced our capacity to integrate morphological and genomic data (Fonseca et al., 2017; Smythe et al., 2019; Martín-Durán et al., 477 478 2021; Herranz et al., 2022).

479 The adaptive role of behaviour remains unclear in meiofauna (Giere, 2009). As in larger 480 organisms, spatial patterns observed in meiofauna might arise from the collective behaviour of 481 individuals within a population, resulting from their integrated responses to stimuli (Guden et al., 482 2018, 2021) (Q#90). For example, the complex spatial patterns formed by populations of the 483 nematode Caenorhabditis elegans result from their individual foraging strategies, which are 484 optimized to maximize sensory information about the target and follow predictable trails (Ding et 485 al., 2020; Demir et al., 2020). Exploring common behavioural responses across other groups might 486 reveal how the patchy distribution patterns exhibited by meiofauna at small spatial scales might 487 arise in relation to the distribution of resources or microvariations of the environmental 488 parameters. Behavioural studies often demand controlled experiments, which can be difficult to 489 conduct due to the limited ability to culture most meiofaunal organisms (Brinke et al., 2011). 490 Nonetheless, recent advancements in technologies such as 3D bio-printing, novel imaging 491 techniques incorporating fluorescent nano-sensors, and microfluidic chambers hold promise for enabling in situ observations of behaviours with respect to environmental parameters at the 492 493 relevant microscale (Kathol *et al.,* 2011).

Morphological investigations play a fundamental role in integrative studies aimed at comprehending an organism's behaviour, life history, functional genomics, and physiology. Advancing our understanding in these aspects is valuable from a theoretical perspective but also serves as an initial step in multidisciplinary research endeavours. As a result, we anticipate that the growth of integrative studies involving meiofauna, coupled with technological advancements such as Micro-CT and Nano-CT (Ferstil *et al.*, 2020), will reinvigorate the recognition and expand the application of morphological studies in meiofauna research.

## 501 **3.4.** Panel IV. Genome biology and evolution

502 Genomic tools have advanced our knowledge of the evolutionary history of many animal 503 lineages (e.g., Guijarro-Clarke et al., 2020; Fernández & Gabaldón, 2020), helped link genotype to 504 phenotype (Frisch et al., 2020; Evans et al., 2021), and offered resources for conservation 505 (Theissinger et al., 2023). Even though the meiofaunal nematode species Caenorhabditis elegans is 506 one of the most studied model organisms in biology, meiofaunal organisms still suffer from a 507 scarcity of genomic data. This paucity of genomic resources for meiofauna limits the integration of 508 their evolution and ecology, which has, however, become commonplace in studies of larger 509 organisms (Paps et al., 2023).

510 Obtaining genomic data for meiofauna has been technically challenging due to their small size. 511 However, recent advances in complementary DNA library synthesis and amplification have 512 facilitated the acquisition high-quality transcriptomes from meiofaunal animals (e.g., Smythe et 513 al., 2019; Herranz et al., 2022). Whole-genome sequencing remains a challenge, but commercially 514 available kits to produce long-read sequencing libraries from as little as 5 nanograms of high-515 molecular-weight DNA have successfully been used to produce high-quality genomes from 516 individual small animals such as mosquitos (Kingan et al., 2019) and springtails (Schneider et al., 517 2021). Furthermore, both multiple-displacement amplification-based techniques and long-range 518 PCR library amplification techniques are in development and might be suitable for generating 519 long-read sequencing data leading to high quality, well-annotated genome assemblies from single 520 meiofaunal specimens or, even, their diapause eggs (O'Grady et al., 2022). When such single-521 specimen sample preparation techniques become widely used, the sheer species and phylogenetic 522 diversity of meiofauna will make them a fruitful source of comparative and population genomic inquiries for decades to come. The comparatively low ranking of genomic questions in this horizon 523 524 scanning effort may therefore reflect only the status quo of a field that is on the cusp of dramatic 525 changes soon to come. Anticipating this change, several international initiatives are currently 526 working on increasing the number of high-quality genomic data available across the Tree of Life, 527 such as the Darwin Tree of Life (darwintreeoflife.org), the European Reference Genome Atlas 528 (erga-biodiversity.eu) and Earth BioGenome (EBP) projects, and will surely play an important role 529 also in adding to our knowledge on meiofauna.

530 To date, genomic tools applied to meiofaunal systems have primarily been used to resolve 531 the phylogenetic positions of these taxa. Microscopic animals branch off from near the root of 532 Bilateria and various other positions within Spiralia (=Lophotrochozoa) and Ecdysozoa (Giribet & 533 Edgecombe, 2020). Phylogenetic efforts with meiofaunal taxa are challenging due to the fast rates 534 of molecular evolution and long branches of some of these groups (*i.e.*, highly divergent molecular 535 sequences with extensive accumulation of substitutions) (Q#101) that can lead to artificial 536 groupings (Telford & Copley, 2005, 2016; Struck et al., 2014; Kocot, 2016; Laumer et al., 2019). It 537 remains unclear whether these long branches might be explained, at least partially, by intrinsic 538 features of meiofaunal taxa, such as small body size, short generation times, potentially large 539 effective population sizes (Cutter et al., 2013) (Q#82), and geographical (e.g., latitudinal) effects 540 on genome evolution (Q#99).

541 Genomic tools will be essential to understand the evolutionary processes and biological 542 mechanisms responsible for biotic and abiotic adaptations in meiofauna. The analysis of genomic 543 data will also be paramount in calculating the speed of evolutionary change and the history of 544 morphologically cryptic species complexes (Q#88) (Bickford et al., 2007; Felix et al., 2014; Struck et 545 al., 2018; Cerca et al., 2021) (see Panel I); but also, to understand the genetic basis for adaptation 546 (Savolainen et al., 2013; Martín-Durán et al., 2021). Hand-in-hand with cryptic species inference 547 using population genomic approaches is the interrogation of gene flow among populations and 548 incipient species (*i.e.*, hybrid introgression) and the drivers of its restrictions (Q#85). By combining 549 genomic inferences about gene flow and genetic differentiation (Feder et al., 2012; Papakostas et 550 al., 2016) with experimental measures of reproductive isolation (Coyne & Orr, 2004; Cutter, 2018), 551 meiofauna will provide complementary test cases to assess the generality of evolutionary 552 hypotheses beyond large-bodied organisms. Seascape genomics, the marine counterpart to 553 landscape genomics, seeks to associate allele frequencies within and among marine populations 554 with environmental conditions to study adaptation, connectivity, and speciation in the sea as well 555 as to develop biodiversity conservation strategies (Riginos et al., 2016; Nielsen et al., 2020), and 556 we anticipate these methods will eventually be applied to elucidate evolutionary ecology of 557 marine meiofauna.

## 558 **3.5.** Panel V. Anthropogenic impacts and global chang

We are in the midst of a global climatic emergency (Ripple *et al.*, 2019) and an accelerating
biodiversity crisis driven by multiple anthropogenic impacts (Cowie *et al.*, 2022). Hence,
understanding how global change will impact meiofauna is perhaps an obvious, yet pressing need.
Indeed, questions pertaining to meiofauna research that focus on anthropogenic impacts and
global change received overwhelming attention in our survey, with twenty-two questions entering
the 50 top-priority and 7 questions making it to the Top-10 (Table 2).

565 This result seems to be independent from the expertise held by the voters (but see 566 Material and Methods, Fig. 2), but might be related to the fact that funding landscape increasingly 567 favours urgent questions related to the pervasive ecological changes and disturbances caused by 568 anthropogenic activities, such as rising sea levels, climate change, pollution events, etc., or 569 research activities that address management, restoration, and conservation, sometimes referred 570 to as "actionable science" (Cvitanovic *et al.*, 2021). In this context, meiofauna have long been 571 proved to assess impacts and disturbances in aquatic environments (Moore & Bett, 1989; Kennedy 572 & Jacoby, 1999; Ridall & Ingels, 2021). Meiobenthic organisms often entirely depend on the

573 interstitial space they reside in, lacking the means for movement or active limnetic or pelagic 574 dispersal beyond their immediate environment—although passive dispersal may be more 575 common than previously assumed (Ingels et al., 2020; Ptatscheck & Traunspurger, 2020). Benthic 576 meiofauna are therefore reliant on the microscale patterns and variations in the environment and 577 hence also subject to the pervasive changes that aquatic ecosystems are experiencing. In addition, 578 meiofauna show high production/biomass ratios and relatively rapid reproduction compared to 579 larger organisms, which allow for quick responses to environmental changes and pollution 580 (Schratzberger & Ingels 2018; Baldrighi et al., 2019; Vafeiadou et al., 2018). Looking at the scores 581 of the 22 most popular questions in this section, two obvious breaks on the distribution of the 582 scores can be observed; one that separates the panel's three top-voted question, and another 583 that separates the four questions at the lower range of score. These latter four questions focus on 584 a specific field of study or type of disturbance, and hence may be less interesting to a broad 585 audience than the research questions that have more general applicability. The four lowest-586 scoring questions of the panel focused on differences between the temporary and permanent 587 meiofauna and the implications for impact assessments and monitoring (Q#47), and the effects of 588 microplastics (Q#48), physical disturbance (Q#58), and deep-sea mining (Q#60), respectively.

589 The two highest-ranked questions (Q#1, Q#2) relate to diversity. Diversity is often linked to 590 stability of ecosystems, and usually declines when impacted by disturbances, although exceptions 591 have been observed in the context of adaptation to pollution and long-term recovery where a 592 combination of persistent and opportunistic taxa co-occur (Franzo et al., 2022). Taxonomic and 593 functional diversity may respond differently to pollution or other types of disturbance (Stark et al., 594 2017). Meiofaunal communities are diverse, exhibit high generational turnover, and usually 595 comprise dozens of species within a very small sample size at any one point in time. This suggests 596 that variations in community structure are easily manifested, even following very small 597 environmental changes such as a small discrepancy in average temperature (Pontes et al., 2021; 598 Vafeiadou & Moens, 2021). In other words, in a large pool of meiofaunal species, the trade-offs 599 between species that have adapted or have a greater ability to cope with change and those that 600 are ill-equipped to deal with a changing environment are expressed rapidly and detected with 601 relatively low research effort (Losi et al., 2021; Franzo et al., 2022). Improving our understanding 602 of how meiofaunal biodiversity is linked to ecosystems' functioning is important to mechanistically 603 understand its contribution to the resilience and sustainability of disturbed ecosystems. We know 604 that meiofaunal taxonomic and functional biodiversity responds to anthropogenic impacts

(including global change), but whether these are important in the assessment of anthropogenic
impacts and global change is still a matter of contention (Schratzberger *et al.,* 2007).

607 The next two questions (Q#3, Q#5) relate to using meiofauna as bioindicators. Meiofauna 608 have the potential to be excellent bioindicators of anthropogenic impacts because of several 609 characteristics (Moreno et al., 2011; da Silva et al., 2022). Because of direct development, 610 meiofaunal organisms have limited mobility and are continuously exposed to anthropogenic 611 impacts throughout all or part their life cycles. Being small, meiofauna are easy to sample in large 612 numbers using adequate techniques. Finally, being highly diverse, changes in taxonomic or 613 functional diversity potentially produced by disturbances might be easy to detect a (e.g. 614 disturbances typically cause declines in sensitive species, while tolerant species mantain or 615 increase their abundances), thus making meiofaunal organisms good bioindicators to detect 616 environmental change (Kennedy & Jacoby, 1999; Zeppilli et al., 2015). However, whether 617 meiofaunal organisms are useful indicators of ecosystem quality and function is relatively 618 unknown, mainly hampered by the lack of information on how community composition relates to 619 other ecosystem metrics.

620 The last top-voted question (Q#6) is about resilience, which has become an important 621 avenue of research with respect to global change. We need to know how to promote the ability of 622 communities and ecosystems to recover disturbance events, whether those are "pulsed events", 623 such as large storm or a catastrophic pollution event, or slow "press events", such as the drain of 624 pollutants in the environment. Since they reproduce and grow rapidly and may tolerate 625 disturbances, meiofauna should include good candidates for measure ecosystem resilience, at 626 least to a certain extent (Bonaglia et al., 2019). Furthermore, meiofauna pioneer successional 627 events in disturbed ecosystems (often in close relationship with microbial communities), 628 facilitating ecosystem's recovery before larger organisms arrive and grow (Gaudes et al., 2010; 629 Fleeger *et al.,* 2015).

In the past few decades, research focused on meiofauna responses to anthropogenic
disturbance and global change and their use as indicators has increased substantially. However,
most of these studies were limited to the interpretation of patterns and evoking knowledge from,
for instance, autecological, physiological, or behavioural response studies to explain the observed
patterns (Giere and Schratzberger, 2023). As our efforts increase to laern how and why meiofauna
fulfil their roles in ecosystems, answers to the questions above will gradually become clearer.

#### 636 **3.6.** Panel VI. Population and community ecology

637 The study of population and community ecology using meiofauna is a challenging endeavour. First, 638 there are biological impediments connected to the small size of the organisms under study, the 639 fact that many of these possess soft bodies and cannot be identified after traditional fixation 640 methods (Balsamo et al., 2020; Leasi & Cline, 2022), and that a few, ubiquitous species might 641 dominate in the community showing limited environmental specialization (Gansfort et al., 2020), 642 although with notable exceptions in certain oligotrophic environments (Michiels & Traunspurger, 643 2005; Traunspurger et al., 2020; Martínez, 2023). Second, understanding population and 644 community ecology in meiofauna is dwarfed by technical impediments, mirroring some of those 645 that ecologists face when documenting and understanding biodiversity patterns in other systems. 646 One of such impediments is to assemble meaningful data required to bring out the characteristic 647 features of biodiversity patterns at such small spatial scales, while ensuring these patterns are not 648 biased by sampling effort and by how the human observer perceives this microscopic 649 environment. Another of such impediments is to combine multiple sampling techniques, species 650 identification methods, and biodiversity metrics in a meaningful way. Given all these difficulties, it 651 is no surprising that the study of community ecology in meiofauna is still in its infancy, and that 652 only four rather general questions entered the 50 top-priority list (Table 2). These questions 653 highlighted the need to advance understanding of meiofaunal species interactions and 654 connections across multiple scales, identifying the importance of feedback from individual 655 functioning and interactions to ecosystem dynamics (Baldrighi & Manini, 2015; Corte et al., 2017).

656 Understanding the influence of connectivity on meiofaunal diversity patterns was scored as 657 the most important deficit in population/community ecology (Q#20). Studying connectivity is 658 essential to predict the effectiveness of dispersion through ecological corridors and steppingstone 659 habitats (Baum et al., 2004), as well as to infer the extent to which meta-population dynamics 660 affect meiofauna (Gansfort et al., 2020). Importantly, the connectivity among habitats at different 661 spatial and temporal scales is essential to develop effective conservation strategies for different 662 ecosystems, particularly in partially isolated habitats such as hydrothermal vents (Gollner et al., 663 2020) or aquifers (Korbel et al., 2019), which might be predominantly reached via migration from 664 local refuge areas by those meiofauna taxa that lack dispersal stages.

665 Another question that entered the 50 top-priority questions revolved around the 666 possibility to transfer ecological theories developed for macroscopic organisms (especially 667 vertebrates) to a microscopic context (Q#30). This topic highly connects with the need of 668 understanding how these microscopic organisms sense the environment (Q#32) and interact with 669 one another within a selective abiotic setting (Q#40) (Cronin-O'Reilly et al., 2018). At the individual level, meiofaunal organisms show complex behaviours in response to environmental stimuli, as is 670 671 the case for their macrofaunal counterparts (Panel III) (Demir *et al.,* 2020; Ding *et al.,* 2021). 672 However, since they live in a microscopic world, meiofaunal organisms experience their 673 environments differently than larger animals, mainly using chemo- and mechanoreceptors to 674 orient and find food (Parry et al., 2017). As the well-studied "quorum-sensing" in microbial 675 biofilms, chemical cues could be an important communication pathway for meiofauna. For 676 example, there is strong evidence that volatile organic compounds can trigger attraction towards 677 food patches (Höckelmann et al., 2004), and food quality and quantity seem to be critical triggers for feeding behaviours (Ingels et al., 2011), overruling other triggers such as competition or 678 679 predation risk (Kreuzinger-Janik et al., 2022). But meiofauna can also respond to other types of 680 stimuli. For example, the free-living nematode Chromadorina bioculata has been found to show a 681 positive photo-response (Croll & Zullini 1972), probably due to its search for algae. Finally, at the 682 scale of meiofauna, water has a higher apparent viscosity than at macroscopic scale, thus changes 683 in osmotic concentration, shear-stress or hydrostatic pressure could also be fairly well sensed by 684 meiofauna (Yeates Steyaert et al., 2007). Some meiofauna are highly effective predators, 685 particularly amongst acoels and platyhelminths, and are provided with pharyngeal structures 686 specialized to capture certain preys (Curini-Galletti *et al.*, 2023).

687 Many animals modify their surroundings to increase their chances of survival (Moens et al., 688 2005; Meysman *et al.*, 2006). These changes sometimes imply nurturing their potential preys to ensure a continuous food supply—a process called "gardening" in an analogy to human strategies. 689 690 Evidence shows that meiofaunal organisms "garden" their favourite food (Q#51) as well. For 691 example, bacterial-grazing nematodes promote the mobility of microbial colonies, while their 692 burrows, pellets, or other mucus-driven micro-structures maintain microbial populations near 693 exponential growth (Jensen, 1987). Laboratory experiments show that increasing numbers of 694 bacterial-feeding nematodes stimulate rather than limit bacterial activity (Traunspurger et al., 695 1997), and that increasing numbers of algal-feeding nematodes stimulate rather than limit 696 photosynthesis as well (Mathieu *et al.,* 2007, d'Hondt *et al.,* 2018). Kinorhynchs might also secrete 697 mucus to "garden" and trap bacteria, diatoms, microalgae that they would then use as potential 698 food (Adrianov, 1991); whereas Stilbonematinae nematodes (Fig. 1S), gutless clitellates Olavius

and nerillid polychaete *Meganerilla bactericola* entirely depend on symbiotic bacteria to survive in
reduced anoxic sediments (Ott *et al.*, 2004; Dubilier *et al.*, 2001) or dysoxic deep sea basins
(Müller *et al.*, 2001). The manipulation of microbial assemblages by meiofauna might even have
large-scale implications that remain to be understood, given the tight relationships between
microbes, their meiofaunal predators (or gardeners), and ecosystem processes such as
denitrification in marine sediments or demineralization of organic matter (Nascimento *et al.*,
2012; Bonaglia *et al.*, 2014).

706 Finally, it is interesting to draw a parallel with a classic paper by Sutherland et al., (2013) on 707 the 100 fundamental questions in ecology, primarily developed by researchers working on birds 708 and mammals and largely revolving around the importance of advancing our understanding of 709 dynamics of environmental change and complex ecosystem interactions, as well as the 710 interactions between ecology and evolution. Both historically and today, some of the most 711 discussed paradigms in meiofauna are "Meiofauna paradox" (Giere, 1993), "Meiofauna ubiquity" 712 (Fenchel & Finlay, 2004), and "Is everything small everywhere?" (Fontaneto, 2011), which may 713 actually reflect either the absence of general patterns or the lack of a feasible meiofauna 714 definition. For example, the processes that determine community assembly developed for plants 715 (HilleRisLambers et al., 2012) show that abiotic and biotic components of the environment, trait-716 phylogeny-environment relationships, and frequency-dependent population growth strongly 717 influence species fitness and the outcome of community assembly. Simulations that combine 718 niche and dispersion measures of species have demonstrated that the same model that explains 719 plant community assembly also explains marine nematodes assemblages (Vieira & Fonseca, 2019). 720 Likewise, using species traits in community ecology showed to be a promising way to move 721 forward from the "Everything small is everywhere" paradigm (Martínez et al., 2021). Furthermore, 722 the individual phenotype, behaviour, and how meiofauna sense and react to the contemporary 723 environment are essential to understand the functional diversity of meiofauna (Takola & 724 Schielzeth, 2022). Combining current approaches derived from the terrestrial community and 725 population ecology may represent our best chance of achieving several of these goals while 726 developing unified conceptual ecological theories.

727

## 728 **3.7.** Panel VII. Biogeochemistry and applied topics [1006 words]

729 Meiofaunal organisms distinctly shape soils and sediments worldwide, including their role as 730 catalyst of globally important benthic ecosystem processes (Schratzberger & Ingels, 2018, 731 Schratzberger et al., 2019). Therefore, it is not surprising that the topic received a high score, with 732 nine of the proposed questions entering the 50 top-priority list. However, our knowledge of how 733 meiofauna directly and indirectly affect biogeochemical cycles is scant, making this scientific area 734 underexplored compared to topics other panels were charged with. Thus, these high scores may 735 also imply that we urgently need more studies in this emerging field, particularly regarding 736 multidisciplinary studies to understand and quantify how microbes-meiofauna interactions affect 737 carbon cycling and, in particular, carbon sequestration under climate change.

738 Organisms living in soils and sediments alter their habitat by constructing and maintaining 739 burrows, by ingestion and egestion, and by burrow flushing with overlying water for respiratory 740 and feeding purposes (Giere and Schratzberger, 2023). Bioturbation includes all these three 741 processes and may directly or indirectly affect biogeochemical cycles (Kristensen et al., 2012). 742 Meiofauna bioturbation was first recognized to play a significant role in shaping sediment several 743 decades ago (Cullen, 1973). Due to high abundance and widespread distribution, bioturbation by 744 meiofauna is potentially important in every aquatic benthic environment, from lake shores to 745 intertidal mudflats and the deep-sea floor. However, scientific literature on how meiofauna 746 directly and indirectly influence sediment biogeochemistry remains sparse (Schratzberger & Ingels 747 2018). One question addressed the influence of meiofauna on global carbon cycling and 748 sequestration (Q#27). The direct contribution of meiofauna biomass to total sediment carbon 749 stocks may be small (Krishnapriya et al., 2021). However, meiofauna activity indirectly modifies 750 carbon exchange at the sediment water-interface, where it can increase the rate of bacterial 751 carbon mineralization by up to 50% (Nascimento et al., 2012). By contributing between 3 and 33% 752 of total oxygen uptake in coastal sediments (Maciute et al., 2023), meiofauna activity responds to, 753 and influences, the overlying seawater carbon chemistry. As a result, meiofauna might alter the 754 ultimate sequestration of carbon in sediments over large spatial scales (Ravaglioli et al., 2020), 755 although their net effect on carbon sequestration remains to be quantified.

The critical roles of meiofauna on nutrient cycling and on biogeochemistry were the
subject of two questions (Q#9, Q#28). Meiofauna primarily influences oxygen, sulphur, and
nutrient cycles through direct solute uptake and bioturbation (Aller & Aller 1992; Berg *et al.*, 2001;
Maciute *et al.*, 2021), by stimulating nitrogen cycling microbes (Bonaglia *et al.*, 2014), and via
interactions with millimeter-long cable bacteria (Bonaglia *et al.*, 2020) in coastal sulphide-rich

761 sediments. Thus, meiofauna can influence ecosystem functions also in anoxic and sulfidic 762 sediments (Q#46). Several factors determine how the roles of meiofauna differ between 763 ecosystems. Most meiofauna need relatively high levels of oxygen and organic matter, which 764 makes the upper millimetres or centimetres of soils and sediments more populated and more 765 affected by meiofauna bioturbation than the deeper ones (Bonaglia & Nascimento 2023). 766 Respiration rates of meiofauna significantly decrease in response to decreasing ambient oxygen 767 levels (Braeckman et al., 2013, Maciute et al., 2023). Muddy, fine-particle sediments dominate 768 most of the seafloor and can be rich in organic matter promoting active meiofauna bioturbation, 769 which, in turn, affects solute advection and microbial community structure (Bonaglia et al., 2014; 770 Nascimento et al., 2012; Bonaglia et al., 2020; Maciute et al., 2023). In contrast, foraminifera can 771 promote sediment reworking in sandy sediments, rich in granulated materials and more common 772 in intertidal and shelf (Bouchet & Seuront 2020; Deldicq et al., 2023). In general, we still lack 773 understanding of the role of meiofauna in other ecosystems, such as the deep sea, where the 774 relative importance of macrofauna lessens (Rex et al., 2006). Also, it remains unclear whether 775 meiobenthos influence cycling of other macro nutrients, such as phosphorus.

776 Two questions focused on the ecological interactions between meiofauna and prokaryotes 777 (Q#35) and on whether meiofauna can drive organic contaminant degradation by microbes and 778 heavy metal distribution (Q#111). Past research has uncovered the largely unanticipated influence 779 that meiofaunal-prokaryotes interactions have on benthic ecosystem processes, including the 780 remineralization of organic matter (Nascimento et al., 2012) and degradation of organic pollutants 781 (Näslund et al., 2010; Louati et al., 2013). However, there is virtually no empirical data on the 782 effects of meiofauna on the fate and distribution of heavy metals. Outcomes from future 783 experimental and modelling studies are needed to better understand how meiofauna-prokaryote 784 interactions will evolve under anthropogenic stress, and whether meiofauna could be harnessed in 785 biodegradation processes, water treatments and other biotechnologies. Another ecological 786 interaction that received attention in our survey is that of fish predating on meiofauna (Q#49). 787 Some fishes predate exclusively on meiofauna. In estuarine environments, juvenile fishes primarily 788 feed only on harpacticoid copepod species (Carpentier et al., 2014). In the southern North Sea, 789 solenettes and gobies preferably prey on harpacticoids as well, but their predation rates decrease 790 with increasing fish size, attesting to the important role of meiofauna in juvenile fish diets 791 (Schückel et al., 2013). In coral reefs, sifting gobies efficiently separate meiobenthic prey from 792 heavier inorganic particles (Brodnicke *et al.*, 2022).

793 The potential effects of meiofaunal activity on microplastics (Q#41) have received little 794 attention to date. Annelids (Gusmão et al., 2016; Lagos et al., 2023) and nematodes (Kang et al., 795 2021; Fueser *et al.*, 2019; 2020) might accidentally ingest microplastics, but it remains unknown 796 how meiofaunal bioturbation affects microplastic transport and fate in the sediment. Finally, we 797 known that meiofauna community can mediate ecosystem processes in sediments with little or no 798 macrofauna, such as the deep sea (Danovaro et al., 2008) or certain areas in the Baltic Sea 799 (Bradshaw et al., 2006; Nascimento et al., 2012) (Q#45). Nascimento et al., (2012), for example, 800 found that organic matter mineralization in sediments with high meiofauna abundance did not 801 increase further when macrofauna were present. It follows that meiofauna communities can drive 802 organic matter mineralization in sediments with reduced macrofauna abundance. This increases 803 the resilience of those benthic biogeochemical processes that are essential for the continued 804 delivery of ecosystem services desired by society.

805

#### 806 **3.8. Panel VIII. Science communication and other topics**

807 It is challenging to promote awareness about organisms that are hardly visible to the naked eye.
808 Indeed, humans tend to choose their favourite species based on criteria rarely fit by meiofauna,
809 such as prettiness, size, and familiarity (Miralles *et al.*, 2019; Mammola *et al.*, 2023).

810 However, there are still venues to promote the interest for meiofauna among students and 811 young researchers (Q#4). Meiofauna stands out by their astonishing number of species and variety 812 of forms (Fig. 1), even in places where more conspicuous forms of life are scarce, such as sandy 813 beaches, temporal ponds, glaciers (Zawierucha et al., 2022), and extreme environments such as 814 anoxic deep-sea trenches (Danovaro et al., 2012), sulphide-rich sediments (Fenchel & Riedl, 1970; 815 Ott et al., 2004), or anchialine caves (Martínez et al., 2017; Worsaae et al. 2019) (Fig. 1X). The 816 rather high probability of finding new species might attract students with more taxonomic 817 aspirations; whereas the description of unexpected life forms, morphologies, and anatomies might 818 appeal those who want to make their ways into general zoological textbooks (Kristensen, 1983; 819 Kristensen & Funch, 2000). Students and researchers interested in applied sciences might be 820 drawn into working with meiofauna due to their practical role in ecosystem conservation and 821 management, for example, as sentinels in marine and freshwater ecosystems (Zeppilli et al., 2015; 822 Hägerbäumer et al., 2017) (Q#19) even at low level of anthropogenic impact (Michelet et al., 823 2021); or in habitats hardly reachable by humans (e.g. deep sea, Ingels et al., 2020) (Q#57). Finally,

from a theoretical perspective, microscopic animals help us understanding broader ecoevolutionary questions, once sufficient data regarding their biology, distribution, and genetics are
available (Panels I-IV). This diversity of topics allows to train students and young researchers in
complementary disciplines and stimulate a new generation of meiobiologists.

828 Students and young academics might more likely be engaged in meiofauna research if they 829 are introduced to the topic during their study programs (Q#44). Very few high-level programs 830 include courses related to meiofauna, but several summer schools and PhD courses have been 831 organized in recent years in which meiofauna has been a central element (Zeppilli & Sarrazin, 832 2013; Jörger *et al.*, 2021) (Fig. 4D). Those courses can also be combined with workshops, in which 833 internationally renowned researchers not only teachl,, but also collect and describe the local 834 biodiversity. This strategy often brings knowledge and resources to areas where biodiversity 835 research is lagging behind and might even lead to joint publications (Fonseca et al., 2014; Jörger et 836 al., 2021). Notably, this survey was used to introduce meiofauna to the students of the master and 837 bachelor Zoology courses of the University of Paraná (Brazil) and University Complutense of 838 Madrid (Spain), and some of them even took an active part in the voting process.

839 The interest exhibited by some early career researchers in the description of biodiversity 840 can also be channelled into building baseline data sets and catalogues of aquatic life, including 841 meiofauna (Q#22). Taxonomic impediment might be sped up by DNA-based taxonomy and 842 metabarcoding (Taberlet et al., 2012; Fontaneto et al., 2015), revitalizing taxonomy (Puillandre et 843 al., 2012) and initiating the development of fast fingerprinting techniques (Fonseca et al., 2010, 844 Cowart et al., 2015). Automated high-resolution imaging together with automated classification 845 through machine learning and artificial intelligence might to overcome the limitations of these 846 techniques (Panel I). These new approaches can process meiofaunal samples with convolutional 847 neural networks at a pace that exceeds manual human interrogation. A massive effort including 848 the combination of these newly developed technologies might allow, in a relatively short term, the 849 dispelling of the taxonomic impediment and finally to assess meiofauna diversity reliably. 850 Nevertheless, meiofauna can help increase general awareness about Earth's ecosystems, thereby 851 spotlighting the current biodiversity crisis., e.g. by organizing interactive talks and hands-on 852 activities targeting the general public (Fig. 4A-C). This can be organized in combination with 853 scientific workshops, so the public can interact and see scientists in action (Pardos et al., 2021) 854 (Fig. 4J) or conveyed through the exhibitions of natural history museum (Fig. 4L). The diversity of 855 meiofauna has been brilliantly illustrated by few books and fairytales written for the general

public, and particularly children (*e.g.*, Rajcak & Laverdunt, 2016; Zeppilli, 2022) (Fig. 4A-C).
Infrastructures provided by national parks and UNESCO Geoparks might support dissemination,
while integrating research projects in which scientific outreach is central (Martínez *et al.*, 2019;
2020; Brodnicke *et al.*, 2022) (Fig. 4E).

860 Remarkably, few microscopic animals have become part of Internet pop-culture through 861 memes and videos (Fig. 4F-I). For example, tardigrades are popular due to their resistance to 862 extreme temperature or space radiation (Persson et al., 2018) (Fig. 4K, N), whereas bdelloid 863 rotifers are famous by their lack of males (Fontaneto & Barraclough, 2015), and mud dragons and 864 penis worms don't cease surprise by their evocative body shapes and catchy vernacular names 865 (Herranz et al., 2019) (Fig. 4M). Indeed, naming new species in reference to peculiar features 866 (Cepeda et al., 2020) (Fig. 1M) or to famous artists, sportspeople, and the like (e.g., Worsaae et al., 867 2009; Di Domenico et al., 2019), might also bring them to the spotlight (but see Guedes et al., 868 2023). Some meiofaunal organisms, particularly *Caenorhabditis elegans*, have been used with the 869 goal of better understanding and eventually curing human diseases (Kato et al., 2008; Kirienko et al., 2010; Kyriakakis et al., 2015), whereas soil nematodes are fundamentally important in 870 871 agriculture (Puissant et al., 2021). Yet, they are rarely mentioned in relationship to the practical 872 importance of meiofauna, perhaps because many researchers emphasize meiofaunal organisms 873 associated with marine sediments.

874

# 875 4. Concluding remarks: the next generation of meiofauna research

4.1. Are we exploiting the full potential that meiofauna offer as a model to address questions ofbroad scientific and societal importance?

878 Not yet, but integrative approaches and technological developments have been creating 879 opportunities to employ these fascinating organisms to answer broad and important questions 880 (Giere and Schratzberger, 2023). Meiofauna have been used as models to understand 881 fundamental adaptive processes, have contributed to unravel the animal Tree of Life (Laumer et 882 al., 2015), are believed to be a treasure trove for future genomic studies (Martín-Durán et al., 883 2021), play a key role in ecosystem functioning and integrity (Bonaglia *et al.,* 2014; Schratzberger 884 & Ingels, 2018), and have been used as models delve deeper into human diseases (Kirienko et al., 885 2010). Meiofauna also represents a valuable biomonitoring tool for freshwater and marine 886 environments alike, even where larger-sized fauna has become depleted or absent (Zeppilli et al., 2015; Ridall & Ingels, 2021; Schratzberger et al., 2023). This very broad spectrum of topics is likely
just the tip of the iceberg, with new ideas and research avenues continuing to emerge as
technological developments and accumulation of information sheds light on the strange life of the
small, ubiquitous animals around us.

891

## 4.2. What are the critical research priorities as perceived by the meiofauna community?

893Our research agenda should balance between investigating general questions—sparking894the interest of a broad audience—and addressing specialized research topics focusing on895theoretical aspects concerning the meiofauna itself. The latter aspects, which often involve896generating primary data on distribution, taxonomy, traits, and DNA sequences, are not only crucial897to address some of the knowledge shortfalls that pervasively affect the development of the field898(Fonseca *et al.,* 2017), but also are foundational for supporting applied science.

899 The results of our survey, largely favouring questions with a more applied scope, contrast with the 900 diverse research topics initially proposed by our panels and traditionally tackled by meiofauna 901 researchers. These results were not influenced by the background of the voters (Fig. 2A, B; 902 Supplementary Methods), nor by the linguistic features of the questions (readability, length, use 903 of jargon and acronyms). Whether those preferences might be influenced by other factors not 904 controlled for in our analysis, such as the current funding landscape or the growing eco-anxiety 905 driven by widespread environmental problems, rests in the mind of each voter. Regardless, these 906 results should not be accepted uncritically as a roadmap guiding our research priorities; rather, 907 they should be considered as a diagnosis of how broad international audiences perceive the 908 importance of the different topics addressed traditionally within meiofauna.

909 4.3. Which biases currently affect meiofauna research and how can we overcome them to move910 forwards in our research agenda?

Geographical and taxonomic biases, as well as biases inherent to the small size of
meiofauna, have affected the development of the meiofauna research (Fonseca *et al.,* 2018).
Therefore, it is unsurprising that they were the focus of many top priority questions of every
panel.

915 Technological innovation might alleviate some of those biases. New imaging and 916 microscopical techniques, for example, have provided unprecedented insight to meiofauna, 917 whereas artificial intelligence and molecular methods might soon expedite sample processing and 918 analyses. Implementing these methods, though, requires urgent training of taxonomists to create 919 essential reference databases of images and DNA, as well as optimizing sequencing technologies 920 for small meiofaunal organisms. While reduced genome representation methods like 921 transcriptomics can offer interim solutions (Wang et al., 2009; Dodsworth, 2015), the full potential 922 lies in generating complete reference genomes. To achieve this, greater collaborative and 923 development efforts are essential, as demonstrated by initiatives like the Darwin Tree of Life, 924 Earth BioGenome Project, and European Genome Reference Atlas projects.

925 Geographical gaps will only be overcome through the establishment and reinforcement of 926 international collaborations (Menegotto & Rangel, 2018). This role has been already played by the 927 International Association of Meiobenthologists, as well as the periodically organized conferences 928 and thematic sessions of international meetings. Summer schools and regional workshops has 929 proven useful as well, especially in engaging local students and researchers from areas with 930 limited resources available to study meiofaunal organisms. For all these activities, improving our 931 communication skills is crucial in reaching diverse audiences and making our research community 932 even more international and diverse.

In conclusion, meiofauna have many desirable properties to answer a broad range of
research questions, but those are often overrun by multiple shortfalls and impediments. It is our
task as a research community to turn these impediments into exciting challenges, which
potentially get both researchers and the general public intrigued by those small critters that
constantly lurk unseen in front of us.

938

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945

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- **Table 1.** Subject areas, general topics addressed, panel member composition (\* = panel
- 1665 coordinator; + = postdoc or early career researcher, # = external expert), and number of questions
- 1666 included in the 50 top-priority final list out of the total retained in List #1. Panel members are
- 1667 listed alphabetically by surname
- 1668

Subject area	Topics	Members	N
I. Systematics and Taxonomy	Challenges in identifying new species of microscopic animals and main open questions in relation to new integrative taxonomic techniques and species concepts.	Katharina Jörger*, Ulf Jondelius, Nicolas Puillandre#, Martin V. Sørensen, Hiroshi Yamasaki+	4 of 18
II. Macroecology and Biogeography	Global diversity patterns, biogeography theory, and diversity drivers. Problems and discussion on meiofauna distribution and biogeography, including the "Everything is Everywhere" hypothesis, meiofaunal paradox, cryptic diversity, etc.	Gustavo Fonseca*, Marco Curini-Galletti, Simone Fattorini#, André Menegotto+, Torsten H. Struck	7 of 24
III. Morphology and adaptation	Morphological, physiological and behavioural evolution and adaptation to different environments. Miniaturization.	Francesca Leasi*, Alexandra Kerbl+, José Martín-Durán#, Andreas Schmidt-Rhaesa, Katrine Worsaae	0 of 24
IV. Genome biology and evolution	Genome evolution in meiofauna and the role of meiofauna in the development of genomic tools	Christopher Laumer*+, Asher D. Cutter, Dagmar Frisch, Kevin M. Kocot, Andreas Wallberg#	0 of 29
V. Anthropogenic impacts and Global Change	Climate change, pollution, microplastics, urbanization, deep sea mining and other anthropogenic perturbation that could affect meiofauna	Jeroen Ingels*, Sabine Gollner+, Paul Montagna#, Giovanni dos Santos, Federica Semprucci	22 of 34
VI. Population and community ecology	Abiotic and biotic interaction, functional traits, ecological niche occupation, spatial and temporal dynamics at the local scale, and ecological successions in meiofaunal communities	Maikon Di Domenico*, Nabil Majdi, Stefano Mammola#, Nuria Sánchez+, Paul J. Sommerfield	4 of 18

VII. Biogeochemistry	The role of meiofauna in biogeochemical	Stefano Bonaglia*, Francisco	9 of 29
and applied topics	cycles, as well as on describing meiofauna-	Nascimento, Isaac Santos#,	
	bacteria interactions. Questions regarding	Michaela Schratzberger,	
	potential applied uses of meiofauna might	Mauricio Shimabukuro+	
	also be considered.		
VIII. Science	Problems link to dissemination of meiofaunal	Daniela Zeppilli*, Elisa	4 of 18
Communication and	to the general public, stakeholders and	Baldrighi, Holly Bik#, Diego	
Other Topics	decision makers; other topics affecting the	Cepeda+, Anne Rognant	
	community of meiofaunal researchers		

- 1670 **Table 2.** Fundamental questions in meiofaunal research, including the Top-50 most voted
- 1671 questions (in bold), as well as the 5 highest ranked questions arranged by panel. Five highest
- 1672 ranked questions are also discussed so we do not dismiss panels without questions in the Top-50.
- 1673 Abbreviations: Q#, ranking position.
- 1674

# Panel I

How can we efficiently and reliably estimate and measure meiofaunal species diversity?

# [Q#12, 2151 points]

How species-rich are meiofauna on a regional and global scale? [Q#21, 2108 points] Do cosmopolitan meiofaunal species exist, do they represent complexes of cryptic species with narrower distributions, or are they just an artefact of poor taxonomy? [Q#31, 2077 points] What patterns of diversity exist and how do they vary among different groups of meiofauna? [Q#37, 2063 points]

How can we preserve the different groups of meiofauna for long-term storage to keep the reference material of a species available and valuable for future generations of meiofauna researchers? [Q#60, 1988 points]

# Panel II

*Can sampling protocols be standardized to gather comparable distribution and ecological data worldwide?* **[Q#8, 2162 points]** 

What are the main knowledge gaps in meiofaunal diversity? [Q#13, 2148 points]

Which are the main barriers for meiofaunal species dispersion/colonization? [Q#16, 2126

# points]

What drives patterns of meiofaunal diversity over large-scale gradients? **[Q#24, 2093 points]** What drives patterns of meiofaunal phylogenetic and functional diversity up to global scales? **[Q#38, 2063 points]** 

What are the environmental and biological mechanisms that drive dispersal distance in meiofaunal species? [Q#42, 2036 points]

What is the relative contribution of local versus regional ecological factors on the distribution of meiofaunal organisms? [Q#43, 2033 points]

Do distant lineages evolve convergent morphological adaptations to similar habitat and ecological conditions? [Q#74, 1923 points]

What are the adaptive limits and potentials of small body size? [Q#80, 1901 points] To what degree are common traits in meiofauna the product of convergent evolution due to a shared ecology or constrained by the ancestral condition? [Q#84, 1875 points] Are there any behavioural adaptations (aggregation, patchiness, negative phototaxis) that all/most meiofaunal animals have in common? [Q#90, 1843 points] What is the role of intra-specific variability in adaptive change? [Q#92, 1837 points]

#### Panel IV

How much fluctuation in effective population size do meiofaunal species experience as a function of life-history traits, abiotic perturbations, and ecological community interactions? [Q#82, 1879 points]

How restricted is gene flow among populations of meiofaunal species and what are the principal sources of gene flow restriction? [Q#85, 1868 points]

What kind and magnitude of genomic differences distinguish cryptic meiofaunal species? [Q#88, 1848 points]

Are there consistent geographical (for example, latitudinal) patterns in genome evolution across different meiofaunal taxa? [Q#99, 1805 points]

What biological factors (for example generation time, mutation rate, population size), if any, explain the observed long branch lengths seen for meiofaunal taxa in many molecular phylogenies? [Q#101, 1798 points]

Panel V

How does meiofaunal biodiversity contribute to ecosystem function, integrity, and sustainability in the context of anthropogenic activities and global change? [Q#1, 2257 points] Is meiofauna taxonomical and functional diversity important in assessing anthropogenic impacts and global change on ecosystems? [Q#2, 2210 points] Are meiofauna good indicators of ecosystem quality status and functioning or do they need support from additional sources of evidence? [Q#3, 2209 points] Can meiofauna be used to understand better how pollution impacts ecosystems as a whole? [Q#5, 2189 points] How do meiofauna contribute to ecosystem resilience, particularly after a disturbance? [Q#6,

# 2187 points]

What are the most damaging impacts for meiofauna (for example extraction of resources, modification of habitat, creation of man-made structures, pollution, warming, ocean acidification, deoxygenation, etc.)? [Q#7, 2177 points]

What are the main effects on meiofauna caused by anthropogenic pollution? [Q#10, 2157 points]

Are meiofaunal organisms a good tool in evaluating the success of habitat restoration projects in different ecosystems, for example, by assessing ecosystem function and health? [Q#11, 2154 points]

What are the roles of meiofauna in the natural restoration process that follow anthropogenic impacts? [Q#14, 2131 points]

Are meiofaunal species effective indicators for conventional pollutants and emerging contaminants (pharmaceuticals, pesticides, personal care products)? [Q#15, 2130 points] Are meiofauna more or less resilient compared to other benthic components in an ecosystem when under pressure of anthropogenic impacts and global change? [Q#17, 2124 points] What are the main effects on meiofauna caused by climate change? [Q#18, 2120 points] Do meiofauna in different habitats respond differently to similar anthropogenic impacts or global change? [Q#23, 2098 points]

Are there suitable early warning meiofaunal organisms, i.e. organisms useful to detect early stages of anthropogenic activities and global change? [Q#25, 2092 points]

What functional traits or adaptations make meiofauna resistant against the impacts of anthropogenic activities and global change? [Q#26, 2090 points]

*How will global change affect meiofauna distribution ranges and biogeography; for example, through contraction, expansion or shifts?* [Q#29, 2083 points]

Which are the most accurate monitoring protocols and tools, including meiofauna-based metrics and indices, to quantify meiofaunal changes in response to anthropogenic impacts and global change? [Q#33, 2071 points]

How do anthropogenic activities and global change affect the different levels of biological organization (for example genes, proteins and other compounds, cells, organs, organisms, life

stages, populations, communities) in meiofaunal communities, and how could they be use as indicators? [Q#34, 2069 points]

What is the best way to measure meiofauna diversity when assessing impacts from anthropogenic activities and global change? [Q#36, 2063 points]

Do permanent and temporary meiofauna respond differently to anthropogenic impact and global change and what are the implications of these differences in impact assessments and monitoring? [Q#47, 2018 points]

What are the main effects on meiofauna caused by microplastics? [Q#48, 2017 points] What are the main effects on meiofauna caused by physical disturbance? [Q#50, 2013 points]

## Panel VI

How does connectivity among different habitats affect meiofaunal diversity patterns across different spatial scales? [Q#20, 2110 points]

Are the ecological paradigms that we have developed for macroscopic organisms (for example, vertebrates, plants) transferable to a microscopic context, or do we need new theories and approaches to understand the population and community ecology of meiofauna?

## [Q#30, 2080 points]

How do meiofaunal animals sense and react to their environment? **[Q#32, 2072 points]** What is the relative contribution of abiotic features versus biotic interactions in determining community assembly in meiofauna? **[Q#40, 2057 points]** 

Are meiofauna predators or gardeners of microbial resources? [Q#51, 2011 points]

#### Panel VII

How and how much do meiofauna influence nutrient cycling in different ecosystems? [Q#9,

## 2160 points]

What do we know about the contribution of meiofauna to global carbon cycling and sequestration? [Q#27, 2086 points]

What are the most critical roles of meiofauna in biogeochemical cycling and how do they differ between different ecosystems? **[Q#28, 2084 points]** 

What is the relative importance of ecological interactions between meiofauna and prokaryotes, such as facilitation and predation, in ecosystem processes? **[Q#35, 2064 points]** Do meiofauna drive organic contaminant biodegradation and heavy metal distribution in different ecosystems? **[Q#39, 2060 points]**  How and how much do meiofauna bioturbation affect transport, transformation, and burial of marine litter and microplastics? [Q#41, 2048 points]

How would aquatic ecosystems function without meiofauna and to what extent can meiofauna sustain rates of key biogeochemical processes alone? [Q#45, 2030 points] How and how much do meiofauna living in anoxic and sulfidic sediment layers influence ecosystem functions? [Q#46, 2023 points]

Are the meiofauna a quantitively important food source for fish and other vertebrates? [Q#49, 2017 points]

# Panel VIII

How can we promote the interest for meiofauna amongst students and young researchers thereby ensuring the future of the field? **[Q#4, 2193 points]** 

How can we further promote and/or sustain the use of meiofauna as a tool or requirement in standard protocols for assessing and monitoring the quality status of ecosystems? [Q#19,

# 2119 points]

How can we strengthen collaboration to speed up the production of a joined global inventory of meiofaunal species in times of biodiversity crisis and global change? **[Q#22, 2106 points]** Which community efforts are needed to dispel the taxonomic impediment and train new generations of meiobenthologists? **[Q#44, 2030 points]** 

What types of messages related to the health of our aquatic ecosystems and, more generally, of our planet can we convey with the scientific topic of meiofauna? [Q#57, 1995 points]



1677 Figure 1. Examples of the diversity of meiofauna using different imagining techniques. A. Dalyella 1678 sp. (Platyhelminthes) from a cave in Toscana (Italy), 250 μm. **B.** Ototyphlonemertea aff. elenae (Nemertea), Santa Marta (Colombia), 1 mm. C. Schizorhynchia (Platyhelminthes), São Sebastião 1679 1680 (Brasil), 500 μm. **D.** *Flagellophora apelti* (Nemertodermatida) Helgoland (Germany), 700 μm. **E.** 1681 Paraproporus sp. (Acoela) Fort Pierce, 1.2 mm. F. Lindrilus flavocapitatus (Annelida), Odessa (Ukraine), 2 mm. G. Pontohedyle sp. (Gastropoda), Santa Marta (Colombia), 800 μm. H. 1682 1683 Pholidoskepia n. gen. n. sp. (Solenogastres) Friday Harbor (USA), 700 µm. I. Nematoplana sp. 1684 (Proseriata), Porto Sant'Elpidio (Italy), 2 mm. J. Otoplana sp. (Proseriata), São Sebastião (Brasil), 1685 750 μm. K. Notholca sp. (Rotifera) Katwijk (The Netherlands), 250 μm. L. Tubiluchus lemburgi (Priapulida), Tenerife (Spain), 1 mm. M. Leiocanthus satanicus (Kinorhyncha) Gulf of Mexico, 500 1686 1687 μm. **O.** *Paradraconema* sp. (Nematoda) São Sebastião (Brasil), 200 μm. **P.** *Hemicyclophora* sp. 1688 (Nematoda), Nordwijk (The Netherlands). Q. Enoplolaimus sp. (Nematoda) Nordwijk (The 1689 Netherlands). R. Neochromadora sp. (Nematoda) Scheveningen (The Netherlands). S. 1690 Stilbonematinae (Nematoda), Sardegna (Italy), 750 μm. **T.** *Draciculiteria* sp. (Gastrotricha) 1691 Helgoland (Germany), 200 μm. **U.** Turbanella cornuta (Gastrotricha), Katwijk (The Netherlands), 1692 400 μm. V. Halammohydra vermiformis (Cnidaria), Helgoland (Germany), 400 μm. W. Callistocypris 1693 sp. phytothelmata Siam Khan (Mexico), 500 μm. **X.** Palpophria aestheta, water column, Tunel de la 1694 Atlántida (Canary Islands), 400 µm. Y. Eucyclops n. sp. wells in Haria (Canary Islands), 750 µm. Z. 1695 Scaphognathus sp. (Acarii) Arousa (Galicia), 400 μm. A-E; G, I-K, O–V, light micrographs; F, 1696 drawing; H, L-M, Z, scanning electron micrographs; W-Y, maximal projections of confocal laser 1697 scanning stacks. Credits: A, D, E, Ulf Jondelius. B, G Alejandro Martínez (AM), Ana Milena Lagos 1698 and Maria Victoria León. C, J, O. Maikon Di Domenico. H. Kevin M. Kocot. I. Marco Curini-Galletti 1699 (MCC). K. Diego Fontaneto. L, T. Andreas Schmidt-Rhaesa (ASR). M. Nuria Sánchez. P-R, U. Marta 1700 García-Cobo, Jan Macher and Alejandro Martínez. S. MCC, AM. V. ASR and Lenke Tödler. W, Y. 1701 Nancy Mercado-Salas (NMC). X. AM, NMC, Terue Kihara. Z. Guillermo García-Gómez



1703 Figure 2. Summary of the survey to identify the top-50 questions in meiofaunal research. (A) List of panels and number of questions (N) proposed by the panel members, after editing and 1704 1705 removing duplicated questions. (B) Those 194 questions were reduced to 117 after the votation by 1706 the panel members and survey coordinators, and then (C) to 50 after a public survey. (D). Rresults 1707 of the public survey by panels. Brown circles represent the panel 5 most-voted questions, size is 1708 proportional the number of words. Numbers on the right show number of top-50 questions per 1709 panel (N). Lower panel shows the gender composition, geographical precedence, and how they 1710 declared they heard of our survey.

1711



1712

Figure 3. Redundancy analyses, showing the relationships between the voters demographic
parameters and their expertise (A), and between their scientific background (B): numbers
between parentheses refer to the numbers of the nine categories in C and D. (C). Percentage of
the votes received by each panel according to the scientific background of the voters. (D).
Scientific background of the voters.



1721 Figure 4. Dissemination and public engagement activities and items related to meiofauna. A. Book cover of "The invisible worlds of microscopic animals" by Laverdunt and Rajcak 1722 (lestigresgauchers.fr/category/livre/). B. Hélène Rajcak presenting her book to young public. C. 1723 Book cover of the fairy tale "In my sand castle", produced and donated to French primary school. 1724 1725 (Zeppilli, et al. 2015). D. Students and mentors from the Biodiversity and Integrative Taxonomy of Invertebrates (BITI) at Friday Harbor Labs, WA, USA on the RV Kittiwake. The course brought 1726 1727 together 12 world-expert taxonomists and 18 students who learned marine invertebrate diversity 1728 with an emphasis on meiofauna and both morphological and molecular techniques. E. Architect 1729 Patricia Betancort presents the permanent exhibition on cave meiofauna at Los Jameos del Agua (Lanzarote, Spain) (cactlanzarote.com/museo-casa-de-los-volcanes/). F. Tardigrate key holder 1730 1731 (www.GIANTmicrobes.com). G. Tardigrate t-shirt (www.facebook.com/aTardigrade). H. Cover of 1732 the single "A Grain of Sand" by the dark cabaret metal band "Tardigrate inferno" 1733 (www.tardigradeinferno.com/). I. A kinorhynch represented as American Northwest Coast 1734 indigenous artwork, by Rob Higgins. J. Meiobenthologist A. Todaro interacts with young public 1735 during a workshop organized at Naturalis Biodiversity Center (Photo by Jan Macher). K. Sand castle 1736 at the exposition "Cyclops, explorateur de l'océan", organized by Océanopolis for kids. L. 1737 Reconstruction of a loriciferan at the Natural History of Denmark. M. Greenlandic stamp showing 1738 Limnognathia maerski, a micrognatozoan endemic from the Isunngua thermal spring in 1739 Qeqertasuaq. N. Dissemination article by A. Mason (adriennemason.com), M. Garrison and A. 1740 Kingdom on Hakai Magazine (https://hakaimagazine.com/videos-visuals/life-interstitial/). O. 1741 Astronaut Luca Parmitano working with the Kubik 6 Incubator in the Columbus European 1742 Laboratory during Experiment Container installation for the Rotifer -B1 investigation. The Rotifer 1743 B-1 investigation examines the possible effects of spaceflight on gene expression using bdelloid 1744 rotifers (Photo credit: Nasa).



# 1746

1747 Figure 5. Conclusions. A. Applied questions received higher scores. B. Questions have emphasized 1748 the role of meiofauna as eco-evolutionary models, their importance in ecosystem functioning and 1749 diversity across spatial scales, as well as their properties as sentinels for biomonitoring. C. 1750 Knowledge shortfalls, geographical gaps, and the unbalanced preferences exhibited by researchers 1751 are major impediments putting forward meiofauna research agenda. D. Yet, we hope that 1752 technological advancements, as well as improving and generalising our taxonomic and 1753 communication skills as a community will alleviate those issues. Attracting more students and 1754 researchers with diverse backgrounds will greatly help us to overcome the challenges upon us. 1755

Table S1. Full list of questions, including the results of the surveys. The column "List" specifies
whether the questions made it to the List#1 or List#2 after the internal or the public survey;
"Panel" indicates the panel; "Question ID" includes the question's unique identificator; and
"Question" includes the question as it was presented in the surveys.

1760

Table S2. Scores of the surveys, including the scores received by each question (columns "Q001 to 1761 1762 Q230) as well as the voter's anonymous metadata. Column explanations: "Timestamp", date and 1763 time of the submission of the questionnaire, "Reached.by", how did the voters got to know about 1764 the questionnaire; "Reached.by(sorted)", previous column categorized to facilitated the analyses; 1765 "Birth", year of birth of the voter; "Country", voter's country of work; "Gender", gender of the 1766 voter; "Career", career status of the voter; "Field.Evolution", voter's declared expertise in 1767 evolutionary biology; "Field.Ecology", voter's expertise in ecology biology; "Field.Morphology", 1768 voter's expertise in morphology; "Field.Geochemistry" voter's expertise in biogeochemistry; 1769 "Field.Microbiology", voter's expertise in microbiology; "Field.Molecular" voter's expertise in 1770 molecular biology and genomics; "Field.Conservation", voter's expertise in conservation biology; 1771 "Field.Education", voter's expertise in education; "Expertise", voter's declared level of expertise in 1772 meiofauna, from 0-5.

#### **Supplementary methods and results**

#### 1775 **1. Data visualization**

1776 We visually displayed the distribution of voters in terms of expertise and career stage of the voters 1777 using bar plots generated with the function "geom\_bar". To illustrate the proportion of voters 1778 reached through different communication channels, we used the function "geom\_rect". 1779 Additionally, we plotted the number of voters per region using the function "geom\_sf" on the 1780 shapefile TDWG.level1, provided by the Biodiversity Information Standards (www.tdwg.org/). All 1781 three functions are included in the package ggplot2 version 3.4.1 (Wickham, 2016) in R 4.1.2 (R 1782 Core Team, 2023). The impact of the voters' demographics, their declared expertise on meiofauna, 1783 and scientific background on the voting results was graphically represented using redundancy 1784 analyses (RDA) with the function "rda" included in the package vegan 2.6-2 (Oksanen et al., 2022).

# 1785 **2.** Caveats on interpretation and counter measures

1786 Several caveats need to be considered when interpreting the results of a horizon scan 1787 survey (Sutherland et al., 2011, 2013; Patiño et al., 2017; Mammola et al., 2020a). Firstly, the 1788 background knowledge and preferences of the panel members and the voters might introduce 1789 subjectivity both in the formulation of the questions and throughout the voting process. This 1790 implies that lower scores do not necessarily reflect the importance or timeliness of a given 1791 question, but rather that experts in those topics may have been underrepresented amongst the 1792 voters. Indeed, meiofauna research has traditionally been dominated by ecologists and a large 1793 percentage of the researchers within the overall community are interested in the use of 1794 meiofauna for monitoring and as indicators of anthropogenic impacts. This imbalanced expertise 1795 may also explain the differences in how the votes were parsed across the panels. To control for 1796 these biases, we asked voters to indicate their scientific background in the survey form, so that we 1797 could incorporate this as a confounding factor in the analyses. Details on the panel composition 1798 are available in Table 1; whereas information on the methods followed in data visualization and 1799 the elaboration of the figures are included in the Supplementary methods.

Given the multidisciplinary character of meiofauna research, we were particularly mindful of maximizing the readability during the formulation of the questions (see above). Despite our efforts, some questions might have remained less readable than others, largely because of their intrinsic complexity. We therefore included the Flesch readability of the questions (Flesch, 1948), and the number of words as confounding factors in the analyses of the survey results. Finally, we implemented an additional countermeasure to further reduce bias, in addition to targeting a broad audience and using a diverse panel composition, by allowing voters to suggest additional questions when voting in the survey. We thereby empowered voters to expand the range of priority topics.

1809 2.1 Impact of voter's demographics and scientific backgrounds on the voting patterns.

1810 We evaluated the impact of voters' traits in the response matrix, using permanova. We 1811 used a Jaccard distance matrix calculated from the response of the surveys as a response variable, 1812 and demographic (*i.e.*, year of birth, gender, continent, and meiofauna background) and the 1813 background (*i.e.*, declared expertise in research areas of Evolution, Ecology, Systematics, 1814 Morphology, Geochemistry, Microbiology, Molecular, Conservation, and Education) traits of the 1815 voters as predictors. Career stage was omitted as it provides the same information as year of 1816 birth. Jaccard matrix was calculated using the function "vegdist" and the permanova was 1817 calculated with the function "adonis" by setting 999 permutations, both implemented in the R 1818 package "vegan" v. 2.6-2 (Oksanen et al. 2022).

The demographic predictors "year of birth" ( $R_2 = 0.01$ ; p = 0.008), "gender" ( $R_2 = 0.01$ ; p = 0.001), "continent" ( $R_2 = 0.03$ , p = 0.029) and expertise ( $R_2 = 0.01$ ; p = 0.003), and the expertise predictors "evolution" ( $R_2 = 0.02$ ; p = 0.001), "systematics" ( $R_2 = 0.02$ ; p = 0.001), and "ecology" ( $R_2 = 0.01$ ; p = 0.003) were significant, but the total amount of the variance explained by these predictors was very low ( $R_2 = 0.11$ ) (Table S3).

# 1824 2.2. Impact of question's properties on the voting scores

1825 We evaluated the impact of the length and readability of the questions using generalized 1826 linear models. The total score for each question was selected as the response variable, whereas 1827 the number of words, Flesch readability index, the panel, and the interactions between these 1828 variables were selected as predictors. We adjusted our model using a binomial distribution 1829 because scores are positive integers and exhibit overdispersion. Models were adjusted using the function "glm.nb" in the R package "MASS" version 7.3-57 (Venables & Ripley, 2002). 1830 1831 Overdispersion and the model's performance were evaluated using the functions 1832 "check\_overdispersion" and "check\_model" included in the R package "performance" version 1833 0.10.0 (Lüdecke et al. 2021). For the models that included a set of predictors with both categorical 1834 and continuous variables, we used Type II ANOVA tables using the function "Anova" in the R 1835 package car v. 3.0.10 (Fox & Weisberg, 2019) to produce output tables.

- 1836 Panel exhibited a significant effect on the question's score (LR  $\chi^2$  = 151.938, p < 0.0001), but
- 1837 not the number of words (estimate = 0.000, p = 0.811) nor the Flesch readability (estimate =
- 1838 0.000, p = 0.822). Interestingly, the interaction between readability and panel was also significant
- 1839 (LR  $\chi_2$  = 22.032; p = 0.002), suggesting that within a given topic, questions with different readability
- 1840 receive different scores (Table S4).
- 1841

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- 1872 New York. ISBN 0-387-95457-0
- 1873

- 1875 **Table S3.** Effect of voters' traits on the voting patterns across questions. Abbreviations: Df =
- 1876 degrees of freedom, SS = sum of squares; R2, and p values are reported. P values for significant
- 1877 predictors are marked in bold. Notice that the analysis is sensitive to the order of the predictors.

	Df	SS	R <sup>2</sup>	F	p-value
Birth	1	0.1585	0.00838	2.4125	0.008
Gender	1	0.2072	0.01095	3.1541	0.001
Continent	6	0.6467	0.03419	1.6407	0.029
Expertise	1	0.1766	0.00933	2.6879	0.003
Evolution	1	0.3419	0.01807	5.2045	0.001
Systematics	1	0.3526	0.01864	5.3673	0.001
Ecology	1	0.1924	0.01017	2.9289	0.003
Morphology	1	0.0943	0.00499	1.436	0.096
Geochemistry	1	0.0725	0.00383	1.1039	0.294
Microbiology	1	0.0526	0.00278	0.8005	0.646
Molecular	1	0.1052	0.00556	1.6014	0.055
Conservation	1	0.0734	0.00388	1.1179	0.289
Education	1	0.0858	0.00454	1.3068	0.171
Residual	249	16.3566	0.86469		
Total	267	18.9162	1		

1878

**Table S4** voter's declared expertise in evolutionary biology;. Output of the generalized linear1881model to test the effects of the question length (in number of words), readability, and panel in the1882scores. The output of a type II ANOVA table is reported for the model to include both categorical1883and continuous predictors. Abbreviations:  $\chi^2$  = chi-square values, Df = degrees of freedom,1884Std.Error = standard error; P-values and estimates for significant predictors are marked in bold

	$LR \ \chi_{^2}$	Df	estimate	Std.Error	z value	p-values
intercept	-	-	7.5560	0.0843	89.6650	< 0.0001
words	0.1320	1	-0.0011	0.0044	-0.2580	0.7167
flesch	0.2800	1	-0.0001	0.0023	-0.0580	0.5967
panel	200.4860	7	-	-	-	< 0.0001
words:Flesch	0.0100	1	-	-	-	0.9198
words:panel	10.0270	7	-	-	-	0.1870
Flesch:panel	22.0320	7	-	-	-	0.0025
words:Flesch:panel	6.8430	7	-	-	-	0.4454