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28 Abstract

The European eel Anguilla anguilla (eel hereafter) is critically endangered and has a 29 30 catadromous lifecycle, which means adult eels that live in pumped catchments must 31 pass through pumps during their downstream spawning migration. We are currently 32 lacking detailed site-by-site eel distribution information in order to estimate the overall 33 impact of individual pumping stations on eel escapement, and as such lack the data to enable informed prioritisation of pumping station management and targeted 34 35 mitigation. In this study, we investigated whether environmental DNA (eDNA) 36 metabarcoding can provide increased detection sensitivity for eel and fish community structure in highly regulated pumped catchments, when compared directly to current 37 38 standard practice fish survey protocols (seine netting/electric fishing). Eels were detected in 14/17 sites (82.4%) using eDNA metabarcoding in contrast to 3/17 (17.6%) 39 using traditional catch methods. Additionally, when using eDNA monitoring species 40 41 richness was higher in 16/17 sites (94.1%) and site occupancy \geq traditional methods 42 for 23/26 of the fish species detected (88.5%). While eDNA methods presented 43 significantly higher average species richness and species site occupancy overall, eDNA and Catch methods were positively correlated in terms of species richness and 44 site occupancy. We therefore found that eDNA metabarcoding was a high sensitivity 45 method for detecting eels in pumped catchments, while also increasing the detection 46 47 of overall fish community structure compared to traditional catch methods. In addition, we highlight how eDNA monitoring is especially suited to increased detection of 48 49 particular species, with traditional methods sufficient for others. This high sensitivity, coupled with the ability to sample multiple sites in a short time frame suggests eDNA 50 51 metabarcoding could be an invaluable tool when prioritising pumping station 52 management.

53 KEYWORDS

54	Catadromous	migration,	Fish	community,	Habitat	fragmentation,	Lowland	rivers,
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71 1 | INTRODUCTION

The European eel (Anguilla anguilla) is a critically endangered catadromous fish 72 73 species which has faced significant declines in recent decades (Bilotta et al., 2011; 74 Jacoby & Gollock, 2014; Podgorniak et al., 2016; Correia et al., 2018). This marked 75 decline has resulted in specific EU legislation, requiring member states to adopt eel management plans (The EC Eel Regulation (1100/2007)). These regulations aim to 76 promote recovery by allowing >40% of the historic eel biomass prior to anthropogenic 77 impacts passage from inland waters to the sea to facilitate spawning activity (Aalto et 78 79 al., 2016). Despite these measures, The International Council for the Exploration of the Sea (ICES) Working Group on Eels (WGEEL) reports that current A. anguilla 80 recruitment remains consistently <2% in recent years, with recruitment at 1.9% and 81 1.4% in 2018 and 2019 respectively (ICES, 2019). Such declines, at least in part, are 82 a consequence of anthropogenic impacts on rivers - the focus here being societal 83 84 reliance on land-drainage pumping stations for water level management (Solomon & 85 Wright, 2012; Buysse et al., 2014, 2015; Bolland et al., 2019). These structures operate by pumping water against the natural gradient to a higher downstream river 86 87 elevation, regulating river levels in the upstream catchment. This is a requirement in many areas across the world to enable flood management, agricultural water supply, 88 and navigation (Solomon & Wright, 2012; Bolland et al., 2019; ICES, 2019). The 89 overall ecological impacts of operating pumps are not fully understood however, and 90 only recently have concerns regarding their adverse impacts on eels and whole fish 91 92 communities been highlighted (Solomon & Wright, 2012; Buysse et al., 2014, 2015; Bolland et al., 2019). 93

94 The ecology of A. anguilla makes this species particularly vulnerable to adverse impacts at pumping stations. As a catadromous species, A. anguilla must undertake 95 96 two transatlantic migrations between their European inland/estuarine occupancy range and spawning grounds located in the Sargasso sea (Bonhommeau et al., 2008; 97 Podgorniak et al., 2016; Correia et al., 2018). This life cycle means that in pumped 98 99 catchments, mature eels must pass through pumps in order to achieve escapement 100 and spawn. It is the necessity to pass through pumps, in addition to their elongated 101 morphology that makes A. anguilla especially susceptible to entrainment at pumping 102 stations (Buysse et al., 2014; Bolland et al., 2019). Buysse et al. (2014) found that 103 mortality rates were 97 \pm 5% for a propeller pump, 17 \pm 7% for a large Archimedes 104 screw pump, and 19 ± 11% for a small Archimedes screw pump respectively -105 indicating that mortality rates differ between pump types. However, Bolland et al. 106 (2019) highlighted the importance of accounting for indirect impacts such as reduced 107 fitness, delayed migration and increased predation when coming into contact with 108 pumps, which may prevent successful spawning. ICES (2019) provided a first estimate 109 of the total loss of eel biomass attributed to hydropower and land-drainage pumps, estimated at 444.4 tonnes per year in the UK alone, with a 'minimum estimate' of 110 111 1625.8 tonnes across Europe. While these figures suggest clear adverse impacts of 112 pumping, given the increased likelihood of flood events predicted under future climate 113 change scenarios (Team et al., 2014), we will likely be increasingly reliant on these 114 pumps for land drainage in the coming years. To mitigate this, highly efficient, non-115 delayed and safe downstream eel passage routes must be provided for pumped 116 catchments that contain A. anguilla.

Pumping stations regulate rivers where *A. anguilla* were undoubtedly once present but
flood risk management infrastructure (flood banks / levees, pipework and pumps) can

119 present a complete barrier to upstream migrating eels. We are currently lacking detailed site-by-site fish community information required to estimate the overall impact 120 121 of individual structures on eel spawning escapement, and as such lack the data to 122 enable informed prioritisation of pumping station management and perform targeted mitigation (ICES, 2019). Knowledge of the eel distribution and fish community present 123 124 at these sites is therefore valuable to water managers (Solomon & Wright, 2012), yet 125 due to sampling difficulties the probability of detecting rare and elusive species using 126 traditional methods is low - particularly in large river systems (Pont et al., 2018). 127 However, numerous studies in freshwater habitats have demonstrated that 128 environmental DNA (eDNA) monitoring methods can achieve higher detection 129 sensitivity than traditional monitoring techniques (Hänfling et al., 2016; Pont et al., 130 2018; Strickland & Roberts, 2018; Itakura et al., 2019; McDevitt et al., 2019). These 131 molecular monitoring methods are ideal for detecting species with patchy distributions or low abundances, often overlooked by traditional catch methods (Turner et al., 132 133 2015). Recent developments mean that PCR-based metabarcoding of eDNA is now 134 considered a powerful tool for monitoring entire ecological communities (Deiner et al. 2017; Hering et al. 2018), enabling vast amounts of data acquisition from a single 135 sampling visit. In addition, it has been reported that eDNA is applicable to river 136 137 systems, yielding higher detection rates, less sensitivity to sampling conditions and 138 increased efficiency (Pont et al., 2018; Strickland & Roberts, 2018). This suggests eDNA could be a useful tool for screening species composition in pumped catchments 139 - enabling multiple sites to be screened in a single survey. 140

In this study, we investigated whether eDNA metabarcoding (Hänfling *et al.*, 2016;
Bylemans *et al.*, 2018; Pont *et al.*, 2018; Li *et al.*, 2019) can be used as a tool to monitor
eel and fish presence in pumped catchments. While the application of species-specific

144 gPCR methods may reduce the likelihood of false negatives by avoiding "species masking" effects (Harper et al. 2018), the holistic understanding that is provided by 145 eDNA metabarcoding is integral to better inform management decisions (Ruppert et 146 147 al. 2019). If successful, eDNA metabarcoding could be applied to enable evidencebased management of pumping stations, facilitating the attainment of policy-based 148 objectives and conservation targets going forwards. However, it is important that this 149 150 method is validated in such fragmented lotic systems with highly regulated catchments and flows. Therefore here, eDNA metabarcoding data are directly compared to data 151 152 from standard practice traditional fish capture methods (seine netting/electrofishing) 153 gathered from the same sites in the same year. We hypothesised that eDNA 154 metabarcoding will enable increased detection sensitivity for our target species A. 155 anguilla, while also increasing our coverage of whole fish communities (indicated by species richness and species site occupancy). Furthermore, we expected eDNA and 156 Catch methods would be positively correlated for species richness and species site 157 158 occupancy, indicating agreement between the methods, and thus continuity in regard 159 to decision making.

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166 2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

167 2.1 | Study sites

168 This study was carried out in a low lying and heavily pumped section of the Fens, UK 169 (Figure 1). Our study system 'The Middle Level' is a complex network of heavily pumped waterways and drainage ditches. Due to peat shrinkage caused by historic 170 171 land drainage, ground levels have continued to sink meaning that there is no longer a 172 possibility for gravity drainage at the 70+ pumping stations required to drain the area 173 (Solomon and Wright 2012). Thus, all water transfer from this catchment to the sea is 174 pumped, often passing through multiple pumping stations as it is moved through the 175 system. There is little/no natural flow in the absence of pumping, meaning this system 176 transitions between a lentic and lotic state temporally. The 17 study sites had a routine 177 fish survey (performed by the Environment Agency between 07/04/2017 and 25/07/2017; seine netting = 15, electric fishing = 2 (Table 2, Supporting information)) 178 179 and an eDNA survey (collected between 23/10/2017 and 28/11/2017; 5 water samples 180 at each site (plus field blank)) carried out at identical points, allowing a direct 181 comparison between methods that same year. The eDNA sampling was carried out 182 later to enable the catchment to return to baseline conditions following the traditional survey season, and to ensure eDNA detection was not biased by an influx of glass eel 183 184 recruitment which peaks between March and June in the region (Kroes et al. 2020).

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186 2.2 | Water sampling

Five 2L surface water samples were taken at each site using sterile Gosselin[™] HDPE
plastic bottles (Fisher Scientific UK Ltd, UK). Each 2L sample consisted of 5 x 400ml

189 sub-samples taken a few metres apart to account for the stochastic distribution of eDNA. Samples were taken by hand from a small inflatable boat, sterile gloves were 190 191 worn by the sampler and changed between samples, the boat, oars, and waders were 192 cleaned with bleach (10%), rinsed, then sprayed with Virkon (Antec International) between sites in order to prevent cross-site contamination. Samples were taken 193 starting at the downstream end, then working upstream in 150m intervals with the mid-194 195 point being the national grid reference where traditional catch surveys were 196 conducted. For each site, a 2L field blank (purified water) was included and handled 197 alongside eDNA water samples to monitor for contamination.

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199 Upon collection, water samples were stored on ice in a bleach-sterilised cool box 200 during transit and taken back to our dedicated eDNA facility at the University of Hull for filtration. All samples and blanks were vacuum-filtered within 24 hours of collection. 201 All surfaces and equipment were sterilised using 10% v/v chlorine-based commercial 202 203 bleach solution (Elliott Hygiene Ltd, UK). Filtration equipment was immersed in 10% 204 bleach for 10 minutes, soaked in 5% v/v MicroSol detergent (Anachem, UK) for an 205 additional 10 minutes, then rinsed thoroughly with purified water between filtration runs. Whenever possible, the full 2L of water was vacuum-filtered through sterile 206 207 0.45µm cellulose nitrate membrane filters with pads (47mm diameter; Whatman, GE 208 Healthcare, UK) using Nalgene filtration units - with 2 filters per sample to reduce filter clogging. Filters were then removed from units using sterile tweezers, placed in sterile 209 210 50mm petri dishes (Fisher Scientific UK Ltd, UK), sealed with parafilm (Sigma-211 Aldrich[®], UK), and stored at -20° C until extraction.

213 2.3 | DNA extraction

DNA was extracted from filters at the University of Hull dedicated eDNA facility in a designated sterile extraction area using the DNeasy PowerWater Kit (QIAGEN, Germany) following the manufacturer's protocol. The duplicate filters from each sample were co-extracted by placing both filters back-to-back in a single tube for bead milling. Following extraction, the eluted DNA extracts (100µL) were quantified on a Qubit[™] 3.0 fluorometer using a Qubit[™] dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Invitrogen, UK) to confirm DNA was successfully isolated, then stored at -20°C.

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222 2.4 | eDNA metabarcoding

The eDNA library preparation and metabarcoding workflow applied here follows that 223 224 outlined in Harper et al. (2019), but with the following modifications: the first PCR used 2µL of template DNA, 7µL of ddH20, and 0.5µL of BSA (Q5 2x High Fidelity Master 225 226 Mix and primer volumes remained unchanged). The second PCR used 4µL of template 227 DNA and 15µL of ddH20 (Q5 2x High Fidelity Master Mix and primer volumes 228 remained unchanged). The second PCR thermocycling profile was also adapted as 229 follows: 95°C for 3 mins, 10 cycles of 98°C for 20s and 72°C for 1 min, followed by a 230 final elongation step at 72°C for 5 mins. The workflow is summarised below:

Nested metabarcoding using a two-step PCR protocol was performed, using multiplex identification (MID) tags in the first and second PCR step to enable sample identification as described in Kitson *et al.* (2019). The first PCR was performed in triplicate (i.e. 3× PCR replicates), amplifying a 106bp fragment using published 12S ribosomal RNA (rRNA) primers 12S-V5-F (5'-ACTGGGATTAGATACCCC-3') and 236 12S-V5-R (5'-TAGAACAGGCTCCTCTAG-3') (Kelly et al. 2014; Riaz et al. 2011). 237 These selected primers have been previously validated, in silico, in vitro and in situ for UK freshwater fish species showing that all UK freshwater species can be detected 238 239 reliably with the exceptions of distinctions between: Lampetra planeri / Lampetra fluviatilis, Perca fluviatilis / Sander lucioperca, three species of Asian carp 240 (Hypophthalmichthys nobilis, H. molitrix, Ctenopharyngodon idella), and species 241 242 within the genera Salvelinus and Coregonus (Hänfling et al. 2016). In our study, Lamprey were therefore assigned only to genus level, and Percidae assumed to be P. 243 244 fluviatilis. PCR negative controls (MGW) were used throughout, as were positive controls using DNA (0.05ng/µL) from the non-native cichlid Maylandia zebra. The three 245 246 replicates from the first PCR were pooled to create sub-libraries and purified with MagBIND® RxnPure Plus magnetic beads (Omega Bio-tek Inc., GA, USA), following 247 248 a double size selection protocol (Quail et al., 2009). Based on the ratios outlined in Harper et al. (2019), ratios of 0.9× and 0.15× magnetic beads to 100µL of amplified 249 250 DNA from each sub-library were used. Following this, a second shuttle PCR was 251 performed on the cleaned product to bind Illumina adapters to the sub-libraries. A second purification was then carried out on the PCR products with Mag-BIND® 252 RxnPure Plus magnetic beads (Omega Bio-tek Inc., GA, USA). Ratios of 0.7× and 253 254 0.15× magnetic beads to 50µL of each sub-library were used. Eluted DNA was then 255 refrigerated at 4°C until quantification and normalisation. Once pooled, the final library 256 was then purified again (following the same protocol as the second clean-up), quantified by qPCR using the NEBNext® Library Quant Kit for Illumina® (New England 257 258 Biolabs® Inc., MA, USA), and verified for fragment size (318bp) and purity using an Agilent 2200 TapeStation with High Sensitivity D1000 ScreenTape (Agilent 259 Technologies, CA, USA). Once verified, the library was loaded (mixed with 10% PhiX) 260

261 and sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq® using a MiSeq Reagent Kit v3 (600-cycle) (Illumina, Inc., CA, USA) at the University of Hull. Raw sequence output was 262 demultiplexed using a custom Python script, and our in-house bioinformatics pipeline 263 264 metaBEAT v0.97.13 (https://github.com/HullUni-bioinformatics/metaBEAT) was used for quality trimming, merging, chimera removal, clustering, and taxonomic assignment 265 266 of sequences against our curated UK fish reference database (Hänfling et al. 2016). 267 Taxonomic assignment here used a lowest common ancestor approach based on 268 BLAST matches that matched our reference database with minimum identity set at 269 98%.

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271 2.5 | Data analysis

272 During downstream analysis, data were analysed and visualised using R Version 3.6.3 273 (R Core Team, 2020). Reads assigned to family and genera containing only a single 274 UK species were manually reassigned and merged with that species. In order to reduce the likelihood of eDNA false positives, blanks were used throughout and a low-275 276 read frequency threshold applied. All field/filtration blanks, PCR negative, and PCR 277 positive controls were negative for A. anguilla, and the threshold applied at 0.001 to remove any reads making up less than 0.1% of total reads as previously applied with 278 279 this 12S marker (Hänfling et al. 2016; Handley et al. 2019).

Samples of interest for this study (N=85) were then subset, and the mean number of reads for each site (N=17) calculated based on the five samples per site. Initially, data from traditional catch surveys were converted into 'percentage catch' for each species at each site. This enabled direct visual comparisons of relative abundance between methods, based on 'percentage reads' and 'percentage catch', visualised as bubble 285 plots using ggplot2 3.2.0 (Wickham, 2016). Differences between survey methods were then compared statistically, based on the species richness and species occupancy 286 287 obtained. Richness and Occupancy data were screened for normality, in order to meet 288 assumptions a paired t-test was applied to species richness data, and a paired Wilcoxon signed rank test to species site occupancy data to test for significant 289 differences between survey methods (McDonald, 2014). Correlations between eDNA 290 291 and traditional catch methods were then tested for using Pearson's and Spearman's 292 tests, for richness and site occupancy respectively (McDonald, 2014), and visualised 293 using ggpubr (Kassambara, 2020).

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295 3 | RESULTS

296 3.1 | Eel distribution

The total average eDNA reads across all study sites was 842,159, of which 8,830 297 298 (1.05%) were assigned to A. anguilla. The total number of individual fish caught using 299 traditional catch methods across study sites was 14,102, of which 3 (0.02%) were A. 300 anguilla. This comparison of survey methods shows that eDNA metabarcoding yielded an overall higher detection rate for A. anguilla than traditional catch methods. The 301 302 eDNA metabarcoding approach detected A. anguilla in 14/17 (82.4%) of the sites 303 surveyed, whereas traditional methods captured A. anguilla in 3/17 (17.6%) of sites 304 (Figure 1). Both approaches tested positive for *A. anguilla* in three sites (7, 21 and 23), and both negative for another three sites (2, 3, and 17); agreement between methods 305 306 in 6/17 sites (35.3%). The other 11/17 (64.7%) sites however did not agree, with 307 traditional methods capturing no A. anguilla in sites where eDNA surveys tested positive. 308

309 3.2 | Species composition

Overall, 26 fish species were detected in this study; eDNA metabarcoding detected 310 311 25/26 fish species (96.2%) across the 17 study sites, whereas traditional methods 312 captured 16/26 fish species (61.5%). Of the 26 species detected, 15 (57.7%) were 313 detected in both eDNA and traditional catch methods, whereas 10 (38.5%) were 314 detected only using eDNA and one (3.85%) species was detected only using traditional capture methods (Figure 2). There were visual consistencies between 315 species with higher % Reads (eDNA) and % Catch (traditional methods), including 316 317 Abramis brama, Esox lucius, Perca fluviatilis and Rutilus rutilus (Figure 2).

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319 3.3 | Species richness

eDNA metabarcoding yielded a higher species richness than traditional catch methods in 16/17 sites, with the exception being site 1. Additionally, eDNA (M=11.06) reported significantly higher mean species richness than traditional methods (M=7.47) (paired t-test; t = -5.0355, df = 16, p = 0.0001) (Figure 3a). While a Pearson's product-moment correlation test showed the two methods were significantly correlated (R = 0.6, p = 0.011) (Figure 3b).

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327 3.4 | Species site occupancy

eDNA metabarcoding reported a site occupancy \geq traditional catch methods for 23/26 of the fish species detected, with *Alburnus alburnus*, *Rhodeus amarus* and *Gobio gobio* being the exceptions (Table 1). Additionally, eDNA (M=7.23) reported

significantly higher mean site occupancy than traditional methods (M=4.88) (paired Wilcoxon test; V = 29.5, p = 0. 001607) (Figure 4a). While a Spearman's rank correlation test showed the two methods were significantly correlated (R = 0.76, p = 5.762e-06) (Figure 4b).

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336 4 | DISCUSSION

To our knowledge, this study is the first to validate eDNA metabarcoding of fish 337 communities specifically within heavily regulated pumped river catchments. We found 338 339 that eDNA metabarcoding consistently outperformed standard practice methods, in 340 terms of increased detection for our target species A. anguilla and enhancing fish 341 community structure knowledge at our study sites, while revealing presence of additional elusive species. Here, we discuss these findings and what they mean for 342 343 eDNA as a tool for stakeholders to inform management decisions in pumped river catchments. 344

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346 4.1 | Detecting A. anguilla in pumped catchments

When considering pumping station management *A. anguilla* is a key species given they are critically endangered and have specific legislation to protect them from human-mediated activities (Council Regulation (EC) No. 1100/2007) (Buysse *et al.*, 2014, 2015; Bolland *et al.*, 2019). In this study, all three sites where traditional methods captured *A. anguilla* had positive eDNA signals, while the three eDNA negative sites were also negative for traditional catch methods. Most notably, eDNA metabarcoding detected *A. anguilla* at 11 additional sites where traditional capture methods did not. 354 We therefore conclude that eDNA metabarcoding was more sensitive for detecting A. anguilla in managed pumped catchments than traditional methods. This was not 355 356 unexpected, given the documented challenges in sampling eels from aquatic 357 environments using seine netting and electric fishing (Naismith & Knights, 1990; Degerman et al., 2019). Similarly, a recent study by Itakura et al. (2019) found that 358 single species qPCR based eDNA monitoring had a greater detection sensitivity for 359 360 the Japanese eel Anguilla japonica than electrofishing in rivers in Japan. One 361 consideration in our study however, is that silver eel migration generally begins in 362 autumn when water temperature decreases (Acou et al. 2008), this corresponds with our eDNA sampling and could potentially enhance detection as these mature eels 363 migrate downstream. Based on our results, we recommend eDNA metabarcoding as 364 365 a complimentary/alternative method to traditional catch when eel presence/absence data is required for informing management decisions in pumped catchments. 366

367 **4.2 | Fish community detection in pumped catchments**

While the priority species for this study was *A. anguilla*, the composition and structure of the fish community as a whole remains an important factor in management decision making and is of interest to wider stakeholders (Solomon & Wright, 2012; Pont *et al.*, 2019). It is therefore important that eDNA monitoring is able to produce data on these should it be implemented as a standardised monitoring framework.

We observed that eDNA methods were able to detect significantly more species in pumped catchments than standard practice catch methods, as indicated by the total number of species detected (25 and 16, respectively) and increased species richness at individual sites. Previous studies have clearly shown that eDNA metabarcoding is a highly sensitive method for detection of freshwater fish which outperforms traditional survey techniques in lentic environments (Hänfling *et al.*, 2016; Handley *et al.*, 2019; Li *et al.*, 2019). This study adds to the mounting evidence that this is also true in lotic environments with unregulated (Bylemans *et al.*, 2018; Pont *et al.*, 2018) and regulated flows (McDevitt *et al.*, 2019). Despite the underestimation of true species richness in traditional surveys, when compared to eDNA metabarcoding there was a strong positive correlation between both methods, and thus the relative importance of sites based on species richness for both methods were related.

Of course, not all species are equally weighted when it comes to making management 385 386 decisions (Solomon & Wright, 2012; Nunn et al., 2014; Beng & Corlett, 2020; Sepulveda et al., 2020), and so it is important to consider the potential for any method 387 388 biases (preferential detections or underrepresented species). We found that overall 389 eDNA had significantly higher mean site occupancy than traditional methods, and thus was more sensitive to individual species detections, while site occupancy was 390 positively correlated between methods. Here we observed that species missed by 391 392 catch methods were low in percentage reads and site occupancy using eDNA methods (Figure 2), suggesting low abundance species may be overlooked by catch methods, 393 394 whereas agreement between methods is higher for abundant species (Figure 4b). This increased sensitivity could enable a more targeted focus to conservation species 395 396 management, enabling increased detection of priority species such as Cobitis Taenia 397 notable in our study (Nunn *et al.*, 2014). However, while eDNA site occupancy was ≥ traditional methods for 23/26 of the fish species detected. Two species A. alburnus 398 399 and *R. amarus* had a higher detection rate using traditional methods, while *G. gobio* was not detected using eDNA metabarcoding at all, despite being identified on two 400 401 occasions using traditional methods. While this could be due to the morphological 402 identification bias of traditional surveys (Li et al., 2019), the influences of reference

403 databases and species ecology should be considered with eDNA metabarcoding in such instances (Bylemans et al., 2018). In our case primers and reference databases 404 405 had been previously validated showing that this species can be reliably detected 406 (Hänfling et al. 2016). Furthermore, while G.gobio was not detected in this study, it was present in other samples in this workflow which were not part of this study. This 407 408 suggests species ecology, sampling conditions, or misidentification from catch surveys 409 as possible explanations. Previous comparisons of detection rates from eDNA and 410 traditional surveys have found that species detectability increases for both methods 411 based on the density of target organisms (Hering et al. 2018). However, it must be considered that detectability remains imperfect for both methods. While the detection 412 rate in our study was on average higher for eDNA this is not true for all species. We 413 414 observed increased stochasticity for rare species with lower detection rates across methods, meaning that some species may genuinely have higher detection rates with 415 conventional survey designs, or may be overlooked by both methods. It has been 416 417 noted in the literature for example, that traditional surveys are prone to over-estimation of sub-surface species, and under-estimation of benthic and rare species when 418 compared to eDNA (Pont et al. 2019). This could explain why eDNA was more 419 420 sensitive for A.anguilla in our study, while traditional catch methods yielded higher 421 detection for *A.alburnus*. Here, we highlight the importance of understanding potential 422 limitations or biases of species detectability, prior to using any type of monitoring data to inform management decisions. 423

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In order to enable direct comparisons between methods we used naïve occupancy,
which does not account for imperfect detection (Ficetola *et al.* 2015). This can lead to

427 underestimation of species distribution if replication is low (Sutter and Kinziger 2019), vet risk false positives if replication is large and false positive rate is high. While a 428 conservative approach to occupancy can reduce false positives, many true positives 429 430 are also discarded (Ficetola et al. 2015). Our study therefore applied a low-frequency threshold to reduce eDNA false positive rates, rather than use a conservative 431 approach to occupancy and risk overlooking rare and elusive species. Based on this 432 433 and our blanks, the potential for unfiltered false positives in our data is reduced. 434 However, false positives due to environmental contamination remain a potential 435 source of error which could be reflected in species detected in single sites. In our study these included Carassius auratus, Leuciscus idus, and Oncorhynchus mykiss; the 436 species with only a single positive eDNA sample. These species are all considered 437 non-native but introduced to the UK (Table 1), but this does not mean we can rule out 438 environmental contamination, and as such decision-support schematics should 439 440 account for such scenarios based on local management plans (Sepulveda et al. 2020).

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442 **4.3 | Conclusions**

While eDNA has been well validated in lentic systems (Hänfling et al., 2016; Handley 443 et al., 2019; Li et al., 2019), it is acknowledged that downstream transportation of 444 445 eDNA and fluctuations in river flow can influence eDNA detection and spatial resolution in lotic systems (Turner et al., 2015; Bylemans et al., 2018; Pont et al., 2018; 446 447 Itakura et al., 2019; Milhau et al., 2019; Laporte et al., 2020). Pumped catchments are prone to binary fluctuations in flow, changing from a lentic to a lotic water body with 448 pump operation to regulate river level (Solomon & Wright, 2012; Buysse et al., 2014; 449 450 Bolland et al., 2019). As pump operation, in most instances, is influenced by rainfall,

451 there are likely seasonal trends to consider as well as smaller scale temporal variation in pumping regimes with currently unknown influences on species detectability. It may 452 453 be that pump operation acts as a conveyor belt for eDNA diversity, as described in 454 (Deiner et al., 2016), and sampling at a pumping station after a pumping event can reduce eDNA stochasticity and reduce the number of spatial replicates required. 455 Alternatively, small pumped catchments may be diluted by heavy rainfall events and 456 457 pump operation flushing the system, reducing the detectability of prevailing fish. A 458 study by Shogren et al. (2017) however, investigated the impact of eDNA transport in 459 controlled streams - highlighting the complexities of applying predictive models to variable environments. In respect to our highly variable study site, any eel detected 460 upstream of a sampling point would eventually have to pass through downstream 461 462 pumps in order to achieve seaward migration, and so such effects would be negligible on the interpretation of results from a management perspective. These factors should 463 464 however be considered in regard to study/sampling design, and complexity of the study system when making additional inferences from results in pumped catchments. 465 466 As such, future research into the influence of seasonal and daily variation in pump 467 activity on eDNA performance in pumped catchments is recommended.

While further consideration may be required before applying this method as a 468 standardised tool in management frameworks, this study demonstrates successful 469 application of eDNA as a high sensitivity tool to screen for eel and fish in pumped 470 471 catchments. In addition to increased detection sensitivity, significant correlations 472 between eDNA and Catch methods further evidence increased confidence in eDNA based decision making (Jerde, 2019). Validating eDNA metabarcoding as a non-473 474 invasive method with decreased sampling effort and higher detection rates of target 475 species. Sepulveda et al. (2020) suggests that the reliability of eDNA methods is not

a barrier, the problem is that we often lack the tools to integrate inherent uncertainty
into decision-making frameworks. These molecular methods could be applied
methodically to work with such frameworks, but should be integrated in a manner
which could fill existing knowledge gaps while accounting for related uncertainty. We
therefore conclude that this workflow could be optimised as a method to inform
management for pumped catchments in Europe and beyond.

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501 **Contributions**

N.P.G carried out bioinformatics, data analysis and manuscript preparation. L.A.M
coordinated fieldwork and sample collection. R.K.D and H.V.W carried out lab work.
J.B, R.W, and B.H conceived the study, acquired funding and supported with
manuscript preparation/ideas.

506

507 Data accessibility

508 Raw sequence reads have been archived on the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA)

under BioProject: PRJNA646357; BioSamples: SAMN15541168 - SAMN15541275;

510 SRA accessions: SRR12232432 - SRR12232539. R scripts, Jupyter notebooks and

511 corresponding data have been made available in a dedicated GitHub repository, which

- 512 is permanently archived at (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3951418).
- 513 Supporting Information
- 514

515 **Table 2.** An overview of Environment Agency Catch methods applied at each site,

516 including Date, Area fished, Survey method, Survey strategy and Number of runs.

517 This is tabulated and available as a .csv file.

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Table 1. A comparison of the species site occupancy obtained from eDNA metabarcoding and traditional catch methods. In the species column, UK BAP (Biodiversity action plan) species (+) and non-native/introduced species (*) are indicated.

Species	eDNA	Catch
Abramis brama	17	14
Alburnus alburnus	4	7
Anguilla anguilla +	14	3
Barbatula barbatula	2	0
Blicca bjoerkna	9	8
Carassius auratus *	1	0
Cobitis taenia +	11	3
Cottus gobio	4	0
Cyprinus carpio *	1	0
Esox lucius	14	14
Gasterosteus aculeatus	7	0
Gobio gobio	0	2
Gymnocephalus cernua	14	11
Lampetra +	2	0
Leuciscus idus *	1	0
Leuciscus leuciscus	2	1
Oncorhynchus mykiss *	1	0
Osmerus eperlanus +	1	0
Perca fluviatilis	17	17
Platichthys flesus	1	1
Pungitius pungitius	11	1
Rhodeus amarus *	1	2
Rutilus rutilus	17	17
Scardinius erythrophthalmus	16	14
Squalius cephalus	3	0
Tinca tinca	17	12



Figure 1. A map depicting the presence/absence and overall distribution of *Anguilla anguilla* across study sites based on eDNA surveys (circle) and traditional catch surveys (diamond). Net flow direction is indicated by the black arrow, while the pumping direction of major pumping stations (PS) is indicated by the direction of red triangles. Interacting pumping stations are also highlighted here (black dot), these pumps are connected to the main channel but pump drainage ditches into the river catchment (blue line), and thus are unlikely to entrain species present at our survey sites.



Figure 2. Bubble plot depicting % Reads/Catch (circle size) of each species detected at each site using eDNA metabarcoding (green fill, left) and traditional catch (blue fill, right). Presenting a visual comparison of relative abundance between methods, with total species richness at each site on the bottom row.



Figure 3. Box plot (a) of species richness at each site for each survey method, including p-value (paired t-test). Scatter plot (b) comparing site species richness between eDNA and traditional methods, including the Pearson correlation test output and associated regression line to visualise correlations between methods. The dashed red line indicates species richness equilibrium, where points above the line had a higher species richness using eDNA, while points below had higher Catch species richness.

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Figure 4. Box plot (a) of species site occupancy at each site for each survey method, including p-value (paired Wilcoxon test). Scatter plot (b) comparing species-specific site occupancy between eDNA and traditional methods, including the Spearman's rank correlation test output, and a smooth curve (loess) to visualise associations. The dashed red line indicates site occupancy equilibrium, where points above the line indicate a species was detected at more sites using eDNA and points below the line indicate a species was captured at more sites using traditional methods (text label indicates our target species *A. anguilla*).