

1 **TITLE**

2 **Holistic monitoring of freshwater and terrestrial vertebrates by cam-**
3 **era trapping and environmental DNA**

4
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- 39 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships
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41 **Holistic monitoring of aquatic and terrestrial vertebrates by camera** 42 **trapping and environmental DNA**

43

44

Abstract

45 The anthropogenic impact on the world's ecosystems is severe and the need for non-inva-
46 sive, cost-effective tools for monitoring and understanding those impacts are therefore ur-
47 gent. Here we combine two such methods in a comprehensive multi-year study; camera trap-
48 ping (CT) and analysis of environmental DNA (eDNA), in river marginal zones of a temper-
49 ate, wetland Nature Park in Denmark. CT was performed from 2015 to 2019 for a total of
50 8,778 camera trap days and yielded 24,376 animal observations. The CT observations cov-
51 ered 87 taxa, of which 78 were identified to species level, and 73 were wild native species.
52 For eDNA metabarcoding, a total of 114 freshwater samples were collected from eight sites
53 in all four seasons from 2017 to 2018. The eDNA results yielded a total detection of 80 taxa,
54 of which 74 were identified to species level, and 65 were wild native species. While the
55 number of taxa detected with the two methods were comparable, the species overlap was
56 only 20 %. In combination, CT and eDNA monitoring thus yielded a total of 115 wild spe-
57 cies (20 fishes, four amphibians, one snake, 23 mammals and 67 birds), representing half of
58 the species found via conventional surveys over the last ca. 20 years (83% of fishes, 68 % of
59 mammals, 67 % of amphibians, 41 % of birds and 20 % of reptiles). Our study demonstrates
60 that a holistic approach combining two non-invasive methods, CT and eDNA metabarcod-
61 ing, has great potential as a cost-effective biomonitoring tool for vertebrates.

62

63 **Keywords**

64 Denmark, metabarcoding, monitoring, biodiversity, eDNA.

65 **1 Introduction**

66 Freshwater ecosystems and their bordering terrestrial habitats cover a small fraction of the Earth's
67 surface yet support about a third of all known vertebrate species (Strayer & Dudgeon, 2010). These
68 habitats are highly vulnerable to human activities, such as urban development, agriculture, nutrient
69 and waste-water runoff, aquaculture, fisheries and damming (Arthington et al., 2006; Dudgeon et
70 al., 2006; Naiman et al., 2002), necessitating efficient methods for monitoring their biodiversity.
71 Conventional methods for such monitoring include direct visual or acoustic observations, or indirect
72 detections via e.g., tracks, scat or sloughed feathers or fur. In the past decades, camera trapping
73 (CT) has proven to be a minimally invasive and highly efficient method for detection and long-term
74 monitoring of vertebrate biodiversity (e.g., Ahumada et al., 2013; Mugerwa et al., 2013; Silveira et
75 al., 2003). The method allows detection of elusive (Trolle & Kéry, 2005), rare (Azlan and Lading,
76 2006) and novel species (Rovero et al., 2008), and while CTs are often used to study mammals in
77 tropical areas (Burton et al., 2015; Havmøller et al., 2019), they have also proven effective in tem-
78 perate forests and open areas (Rovero et al., 2014; Parsons et al., 2018). More recently, environ-
79 mental DNA (eDNA) analysis has emerged as another cost-effective and non-invasive method for
80 biodiversity monitoring (Ficetola et al., 2008; Taberlet et al., 2012; Thomsen & Willerslev, 2015).
81 This method has been used for species inventories across a wide range of habitat types, although
82 most applications to date are in aquatic systems (e.g., Pedersen et al., 2015; Goldberg et al., 2016;
83 Thomsen et al., 2012).

84

85 All biomonitoring methods have their strengths and weaknesses in terms of taxonomic coverage,
86 ease of use, survey effort and requirements of taxonomic expertise, and not one method can capture
87 the entire vertebrate diversity of an ecosystem. For instance, combining eDNA metabarcoding and
88 CTs for monitoring of marine fishes has resulted in detection of a larger richness than any of these

89 approaches alone (Stat et al., 2018; Boussarie et al., 2018). Similarly, metabarcoding analysis of
90 eDNA from stream water (Lyet et al., 2021) and terrestrial sediments (Leempoel et al., 2020) com-
91 bined with CTs has been found to be efficient for monitoring terrestrial mammals. The number of
92 such vertebrate studies combining water eDNA and CTs is growing rapidly, in covering all sorts of
93 habitats from reefs (Stat et al., 2018; Boussarie et al., 2018) to ponds (Mas-Carrió et al., 2022; Har-
94 per et al., 2019).

95 Here, we combine one year of aquatic eDNA sampling and four years of CT data collection to in-
96 vestigate the vertebrate fauna in a Danish wetland and Nature Park in temperate Northern Europe.
97 We provide an updated inventory of the diversity of species in the park, their commonness and con-
98 servation status, and evaluate the complementarity, strengths, and weaknesses of monitoring aquatic
99 eDNA versus monitoring with CTs and compare our results with baseline data for the same locality
100 collected by conventional biodiversity monitoring methods over the past two decades.

101

102 **2 Materials and methods**

103 **2.1 Study site**

104 Field work was performed at Nature Park Åmosen (hereafter referred to as Åmosen), West Zealand,
105 Denmark (N 55.618860, W 11.329161). Åmosen comprises a stream system of approximately 45
106 km from Undløse in the east to the Great Belt in the west (Figure 1). It consists of a mixed set of
107 habitats including streams, wetlands, forests, fens, meadows, bogs, and thickets, as well as agricul-
108 ture and some urban development. Åmosen holds a unique flora and fauna including several red-
109 listed species and about 80% of the park is designated as a Natura 2000 area (area no. 156, H137
110 and area no. 157, H138, F100) (Schmidt, 2017; Naturstyrelsen, 2016a; Naturstyrelsen, 2016b).

111

112 **2.2 Camera trapping**

113 We monitored the vertebrate fauna of Åmosen by deploying up to 16 camera traps (CTs) at six lo-
114 cations over a period of four years from the 20th of May 2015 to the 12th of August 2019 (Table 1).
115 The number of CTs varied by location and season, as some sites were more suitable for deployment
116 than others, and as cameras were occasionally lost due to theft and flooding. We used a water-re-
117 sistant CT model (IR PLUS BF HD) equipped with a passive infrared sensor and a 940 nm light-
118 emitting diode flash source. All CTs were placed facing the catchment area and angled to cover
119 both the stream and the opposite stream bank, as suggested by Matsubayashi et al., (2006). The CTs
120 were programmed to record photos and/or 10 second videos with normal sensitivity and no trigger
121 interval, and no bait or lures were used. Batteries and memory cards were replaced at regular inter-
122 vals.

123
124 Photos and videos from CTs were manually examined and identified to the lowest possible taxo-
125 nomic level based on morphological traits, movement patterns and sounds with help from taxo-
126 nomic experts at the Natural History Museum of Denmark. To avoid artificial inflation of observa-
127 tions, a camera event (CE) was defined as all detections of a certain species within 30 minutes at the
128 same location (O'Brien et al., 2003; Zimmermann & Rovero, 2016). To assess the commonness of
129 each taxon, we estimated the relative abundance index (RAI) as the number of CEs of a given taxon
130 per 100 camera trap days (O'Brien, 2011; Rovero et al., 2014), and the naïve occupancy (NO) as
131 the proportion of sites that recorded at least one CE of the target species (e.g., Jenks et al., 2011;
132 Rovero et al., 2014; Hedwig et al., 2017).

133

134 **2.3 Environmental DNA**

135 In addition to monitoring by CTs, we performed eDNA-based monitoring of vertebrates by collec-
136 tion of water samples from September 2017 to December 2018 (Table 1, Figure 1). At each sam-
137 pling event, two to three sample replicates were collected. Each sample replicate consisted of up to
138 500 ml of water taken with a 60 mL syringe (Soft-Ject, HSW, Tuttlingen, Germany) and filtered
139 through a Sterivex filter unit of 0.22 µm pore size (polyethersulfone, Merck Millipore, Germany).
140 The samples were transported in a cooler and stored at -18 °C until DNA extraction.

141

142 All laboratory work was performed in separate laboratories designated for DNA extraction, pre-
143 PCR, and post-PCR procedures, respectively. Environmental DNA was extracted from the filters
144 using the DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen GmbH, Hilsen, Germany) with a modified protocol
145 (Sigsgaard et al., 2020; Spens et al, 2017). Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification was per-
146 formed using the primer set Mamm01 (mamm01_F:5'-CCGCCCGTCACCCTCCT-3',
147 mamm01_R: 5'-GTAYRCTTACCWTGTTACGAC-3') (Taberlet et al., 2018), and the primer set
148 MiFish-U (MiFish-U_F: 5'-GTCGGTAAACTCGTGCCAGC-3', MiFish-U_R: 5'-
149 CATAGTGGGGTATCTAATCCCAGTTTG-3') (Miya et al., 2015). These primer sets target re-
150 gions of approximately 59 bp and 170 bp (excluding primers), respectively, around 390-400 bp
151 apart in the 12S mitochondrial gene. The DNA extracts of the three sample replicates from each site
152 were pooled into one sample. Subsequent analyses were done on the resulting 40 sample pools.
153 Setup of quantitative PCR (qPCR) and PCR for meta barcoding with reagents, volumes, concentra-
154 tions, and thermocycler conditions are provided in the supplementary material (supporting text A, B
155 and tables S1-S10). Each PCR setup included one PCR replicate of each eDNA sample pool, nega-
156 tive PCR controls and a positive mock sample comprising genomic DNA from 24 exotic species
157 unlikely to be found in Denmark, including mammals, fish, and a frog (Olds et al., 2016; Thomsen

158 et al., 2016), but we failed to include extraction controls. Six PCR replicates were run of each sam-
159 ple pool, for each primer set, giving a total of 12 libraries (supplementary material table S1-S8).

160

161 All PCR products were verified on a 2% agarose gel stained with GelRed (Biotium). From each of
162 the 12 libraries (2*3 replicates for MiFish-U and 2*3 replicates for Mamm01) (supplementary ma-
163 terial table S1-S8) we pooled 10 μ L to a total of 120 μ L. The 120 μ L was then purified using the
164 MinElute (Qiagen) PCR purification kit (cat. no. 28006), following the supplied protocol with mod-
165 ifications (supplementary material, supporting text C). Twelve 150 bp paired-end libraries (six for
166 the Mamm01 primer set and six for the MiFish-U primer set) were prepared with an Illumina
167 TruSeq DNA PCR-free LT Sample Prep kit (Illumina, San Diego, California), spiked with 8%
168 phiX, and sequenced on two Illumina MiSeq3 flow cells (six libraries on each, the Mamm01 librar-
169 ies on one flow cell, and the MiFish on another flow cell) at the GeoGenetics Sequencing Core,
170 University of Copenhagen, Denmark.

171

172 Sequence reads were demultiplexed using the software package Cutadapt (Martin, 2011) and a cus-
173 tom python script (available at [https://github.com/tobiasgf/Bioinformatic-tools/tree/mas-](https://github.com/tobiasgf/Bioinformatic-tools/tree/master/Eva_Sigsgaard_2018)
174 [ter/Eva_Sigsgaard_2018](https://github.com/tobiasgf/Bioinformatic-tools/tree/master/Eva_Sigsgaard_2018)) (Sigsgaard et al., 2020). Reads shorter than 10 bp or including ambigu-
175 ties or with >2 expected errors were removed (Sigsgaard et al., 2020). We then used DADA2 (Cal-
176 lahan et al., 2016) to correct PCR and sequencing errors in the raw sequencing output, and forward
177 and reverse reads with a minimum of 5 bp overlap and no mismatches were then merged. Se-
178 quences were blasted against the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) GenBank
179 database using BLASTn (Altschul et al., 1990) on the 20th of March 2020. BLASTn settings were
180 set to a maximum of 3000 hits per query (-max_target_seqs 3000), minimum thresholds of 90 %
181 query coverage per high-scoring segment pair (-qcov_hsp_perc 90), and 80 % sequence similarity (-

182 perc_identity 80). The output format was set to: -outfmt “6 std qlen qcovs sgi sseq ssciname
183 staxid”. BLAST hits displaying incomplete final query coverage were removed. We then classified
184 hits taxonomically in R v.3.6 (R Core team, 2020), using the package ‘taxize’ (Chamberlain and
185 Szocs, 2013). To reduce data processing time, BLAST hits were then compared against a list of re-
186 gional vertebrate species and hits to species that are exotic to northern Europe were removed (Fig-
187 ure 1). We removed exotic species with >95% match match with the mock species (supplementary
188 material Table S10). The naïve occupancy (NO) was calculated across all eDNA samples and for
189 each study site, respectively, as the number of eDNA sites/samples where a given taxon was de-
190 tected divided by the total number of eDNA sites/samples (Table 1).

191

192 **2.4 Method comparison**

193 To compare our CT- and eDNA-based species detections with previous biodiversity monitoring ef-
194 forts, we summarized data from conventional vertebrate surveys performed in Åmosen over the last
195 two decades (2000- 2020). Species presence data was compiled from BirdLife Denmark (DOF)
196 (Grell, 1998 and recent data from Michael Fink), Baagøe and Jensen (2007), Carl and Møller
197 (2012), and the Danish species portal Arter.dk, as well as from additional direct visual observations,
198 trapping, excrements, tracks, roadkill done during the CT and eDNA field work and museum col-
199 lections.

200

201 **3 Results**

202 **3.1 Camera trapping**

203 The camera trapping yielded a total of 8,778 camera days with 24,376 animal sightings across 8,674
204 CEs. These sightings represented 87 vertebrate taxa, of which 78 (90%) were identified to species
205 level (Table 1). While birds (57 taxa) and mammals (29 taxa) dominated a grass snake (*Natrix na-*
206 *trix*) and a northern pike (*Esox lucius*) caught by a grey heron (*Ardea cinerea*) were also observed

207 (Figure 2, 3, Supplementary Table S9). Most observed taxa were wild species, but domestic animals
208 such as cat (*Felis catus*), dog (*Canis lupus*), cattle (*Bos taurus*), chicken (*Gallus gallus*), and Mus-
209 covy duck (*Cairina moscata*) were also detected. The taxa differed markedly in detection frequency
210 with 53% of the taxa being detected in less than 10 CEs and only 18% of the taxa being observed at
211 more than 100 CEs (Figure 2a; Supplementary Table S9). The most observed bird was the mallard
212 (*Anas platyrhynchos*) with a total of 1,422 CEs, amounting to an RAI of 16.2 (detection at 16.2% of
213 all CEs on average) and an NO index of 1.0 (detection at all monitoring sites) (Figure 2b-c). Other
214 frequently and/or widely detected birds included common wood pigeon (*Columba palumbus*), grey
215 heron and Eurasian blackbird (*Turdus merula*). The mammal accounting for the most CEs was the
216 roe deer (*Capreolus capreolus*), although this species was only observed at half of the sites
217 (CEs=1172; RAI=13.4; NO=0.50), whereas the brown rat (*Rattus norvegicus*) was both frequently
218 and widely observed (CEs=719; RAI=8.2; NO=1.0). Other frequently and/or widely encountered
219 taxa included pine marten (*Martes martes*) and other mustelids, red squirrel (*Sciurus vulgaris*) and
220 red fox (*Vulpes vulpes*). A rare surprise was the Eurasian otter (*Lutra lutra*), thought to be locally
221 extinct at the time of the study but found here in 35 CEs, and first time May 28, 2016 (Figure 3).
222 Human activity was recorded at all six study sites, in a total of 472 sightings (472/24,376=2%) and
223 111 individual CEs (111/8,674=1%).

224

225 **3.2 Environmental DNA**

226 The Illumina MiSeq platform produced a total of 25,408,796 raw paired-end reads. After removing
227 mock sample species, non-target species (e.g., prokaryotes and fungi) and human reads, a total of
228 12,154,093 reads from target vertebrates remained, which 48% of the reads being retained. Across
229 the two primer sets, in the proportion of reads retained, matching vertebrates, 4% were identified as
230 non-target vertebrates: The proportion of non-vertebrate sequence reads was much higher for the

231 Mamm01 primer set (50-65%) than for the MiFish-U primer set (10-20 %). The retained sequence
232 reads represented 80 taxa, of which 74 were identified to species level (Table 1, Supplementary Ta-
233 ble S9). Both primer sets amplified mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) from amphibians, fish and mam-
234 mals, but while 49 taxa were identified by both primer sets, nine taxa were solely identified by the
235 Mamm01 primer set and 22 taxa solely by the MiFish-U primer set. As expected, the MiFish-U pri-
236 mer set yielded more fish species than the Mamm01 primer set, but the Mamm01 primer set did not
237 yield more mammal species (Supplementary Figure 1).

238 Humans were detected at all study sites, and nine of the detected species were domestic, including
239 cat, cattle, chicken, dog, horse (*Equus ferus*), Muscovy duck, pig (*Sus scrofa*), sheep (*Ovis aries*),
240 and turkey (*Meleagris gallopavo*). The common roach (*Rutilus rutilus*), and two other taxa domi-
241 nated the eDNA data with more than one million sequence reads per taxa, while 20 of the taxa were
242 detected in less than 1000 reads and five taxa in less than 100 reads (Figure 4a). The NO analysis
243 also revealed large differences in species occupancy with a few bird, (domestic) mammals and fish
244 taxa being detected at all eDNA study sites, including undetermined ducks, mallard (*Anser*
245 *platyrhynchos*), Eurasian coot (*Fulica atra*), cow, pig, dog, undetermined arvicolines (voles and
246 muskrats), common roach, Eurasian perch (*Perca fluviatilis*), ide (*Leuciscus idus*), northern pike,
247 European eel (*Anguilla anguilla*) and rudd (*Scardinius erythrophthalmus*) (Figure 4b; Supplemen-
248 tary Table S9).

249

250 **3.3 Method comparison**

251 Our review of conventional monitoring data from the Åmosen region yielded 263 wild vertebrate
252 species. Of these, 29 species were deemed outliers as they were e.g., presumed locally extinct or
253 were extremely rare visitors (supplementary table 11), resulting in a total of 234 final species for
254 comparison with our CT and eDNA data (Figure 5a; Supplementary Table S11). We detected 115

255 wild species with eDNA and CT combined, including 20 fish, four amphibians, one snake, 23 mam-
256 mals, and 67 birds (Figure 5, Table 1, Supplementary Table S9). Thus, the total number of wild spe-
257 cies we detected during roughly 15 months of eDNA and four years of CT vertebrate monitoring
258 comprise about half ($115/234 = 49\%$) of the species observed in the region through decades of more
259 conventional biomonitoring.

260

261 Only 30 species were detected with both eDNA and CTs, including one fish, seven mammals, and
262 15 birds (Figure 5 and 6). The aquatic eDNA detections were biased towards fish and amphibians,
263 whereas CT detections were limited to mammals and birds, except for a single fish detection, which
264 was a result of a grey heron (*Ardea cinerea*) catching a northern pike (*Esox lucius*) close to the cam-
265 era (Figure 3b). The 115 species detected by CT and aquatic eDNA represented a large diversity in
266 terms of body size, biomass, behaviour, life-history, habitat requirements and conservation status,
267 including 19 species (16.5%) categorised as vulnerable, endangered, or critically endangered on the
268 Danish Red List and seven species on the Natura 2000 list (EU Habitat Directive and/or Bird Di-
269 rective) (Moeslund et al., 2019; Supplementary Figure 7; Supplementary Table S9).

270

271

272 **4 Discussion**

273 Our study demonstrates that CT and eDNA sampling can serve as complementary methods for a
274 more holistic monitoring of the vertebrate fauna in temperate European wetland, nature park. We
275 were able to verify the presence of 115 vertebrate species, which is nearly half of the total reported
276 species from Åmosen (n=263) over the last 20 years (see suppl. Table S9 & S11). The taxa found
277 with both CT and eDNA monitoring represent nearly 50 % of the eDNA taxa and around 46 % of
278 the CT taxa, confirming the benefit of using the two methods in combination. These ratios are not
279 much different from a terrestrial study of vertebrates in southwestern Australia combining soil
280 eDNA and CT, with around half and one third of the total taxa occurring in eDNA and CTs, respec-
281 tively (Ryan et al., 2021). It should, however, be considered that the CTs in the present study
282 spanned across nearly four years and the eDNA monitoring only one year, making the comparison
283 somewhat unbalanced.

284 With CTs, contrary to eDNA monitoring studies, the life stage of detected species can sometimes be
285 determined, fx. juveniles of American mink (*Neovison vison*), mallard, pine marten, and stoat
286 (*Mustela erminea*) detected by CTs in the present study. Foraging behavior was observed in several
287 species including American mink, common wood pigeon, red fox, and white wagtail (*Motacilla*
288 *alba*). On the other hand, some species can be hard to detect by CT due to their behaviour, life
289 stage, or seasonal changes, potentially leading to biased results (Gotelli & Colwell, 2001). For such
290 elusive species, parallel monitoring of eDNA is especially relevant for complementing CT and tra-
291 ditional monitoring methods. Amphibians can be hard to detect as they differ greatly in behaviour
292 and appearance between life stages. Valentini et al., (2016) found that eDNA had a much higher de-
293 tection rate of amphibians than traditional survey methods, provided that the sampling of eDNA is
294 carried out while the amphibians are in their aquatic stage.

295 Monitoring of semi-aquatic animals, like Eurasian otter, can be problematic with CT (Lerone et al.,
296 2015), and proved challenging when monitoring eDNA. Even though the primer set Mamm01
297 (Taberlet et al., 2018) was found to have no mismatches with otter DNA sequences obtained from
298 NCBI GenBank database, we did not detect any eDNA from otter. Neither did we detect eDNA
299 from any of the other seven species of mustelids (Figure 6, Supplementary table 9) detected by CTs
300 even though comparison of the primers and the mtDNA target region in mustelid species did not
301 show mismatches. Our CT data show that almost all mammal species were in contact with the
302 freshwater stream at some point, and previous studies have shown that when terrestrial mammals
303 drink from, or are otherwise in contact with, a water body, their DNA is often detectable in water
304 samples (Matsubayashi et al., 2006; Rodgers and Mock, 2015; Ushio et al., 2017). Williams et al.,
305 (2017) found that even when only the snout of a pig was in contact with water, pig DNA could be
306 detected in the water afterwards. Past studies have also shown difficulties in detecting eDNA from
307 otter even when using a species-specific primer set (Thomsen et al., 2012; Andersen et al., 2018;
308 Harper et al., 2019). Of all the seven Danish mustelid species (supplementary table 9), otters spend
309 the most time in water (Baagøe and Jensen, 2007), but eDNA detection is likely challenging due to
310 low populations sizes and/or nocturnal behaviour. Only 8% of eDNA monitoring studies far have
311 targeted mammals (Tsuji et al., 2019), and future studies on monitoring eDNA from mammals
312 could focus on how monitoring of semi-aquatic and fully terrestrial mammals can be optimized.

313

314 *Future perspectives*

315 Efficient nature conservation and restoration increasingly requires non-invasive, cost-effective
316 methods for monitoring biodiversity. The two methods used in the current study are already very
317 useful for this task and they are still improving. CT is widely used for monitoring mammals, but
318 while standardized protocols have been developed to estimate e.g., densities of large carnivores as

319 well as factors affecting them (Havmøller et al., 2019), there is no single camera trap protocol that
320 enables full insight into a vertebrate community, and camera trapping will unavoidably have taxon-
321 specific biases (Burton et al., 2015). One of the most time-consuming factors with camera traps is
322 data annotation, which is still largely done manually, although there are advances with annotation
323 through machine learning (Whytock et al., 2021). In our study, 30% of all CT records contained an
324 animal, while the rest were recordings triggered by moving water, vegetation, or heat spots from the
325 sun. Camera traps are becoming cheaper and more efficient as the technology is developing. It is
326 still considered a somewhat costly method, as equipment costs can be high, but the approach is
327 comparatively cheap in the long-term. CT monitoring does not require experts in the field, but can
328 instead rely on locals and volunteers, which has also been shown to broaden environmental aware-
329 ness in local communities (Hönigsfeld-Adamic and Smole, 2011; Parsons et al., 2018).

330 Our study confirmed that the monitoring of eDNA is effective for monitoring the distribution and
331 occurrence of both aquatic and semi-aquatic vertebrates as shown in other studies (Thomsen et al.,
332 2012; Taberlet et al., 2018). Monitoring aquatic eDNA allowed for detection of all species of fish
333 known from the area with the exception of a few rare species. Of the undetected species, grass carp
334 (*Ctenopharyngodon idella*) and the Wels catfish (*Silurus glanis*) are known only from private ponds
335 near the stream; the flounder (*Plectichtys flesus*) is mainly a marine species that occasionally mi-
336 grates upstream to Tissø (Carl and Møller, 2012) and the burbut (*Lota lota*) went extinct in 1927
337 (Carl and Møller 2012). The only common species not detected was the Crucian carp (*Carsassius*
338 *carassius*), a species mostly found in lentic waters, which might explain its absence in the river wa-
339 ter samples. DNA metabarcoding is continuously being refined for more detailed multispecies de-
340 tection (Creer et al., 2016), but we consider the aquatic eDNA metabarcoding method ready for
341 large-scale monitoring of fish in European freshwater habitats. More terrestrial mammals might

342 have been detected if eDNA from soil, dung or air samples had been included as well (Leempoel et
343 al., 2020; Sales et al., 2020; Lynggaard et al., 2021; van der Heyde et al., 2021).

344 Like many other Danish nature parks and national parks, Nature Park Åmosen is a mosaic of cul-
345 tural landscapes and more natural habitats mixed with human installations, roads, cities and agricul-
346 ture. As demonstrated in the present study shows these parks can host a variety of wildlife, espe-
347 cially in small pockets of old forest and around near-natural rivers. Such a biodiversity hot-spot is
348 our sampling site Kattrup, with almost twice as many species as the other sites. This is also where
349 we first found the otter, which is extremely rare on the island of Zealand. Combining CTs and
350 eDNA metabarcoding could be an efficient future means for vertebrate biodiversity monitoring in
351 wetlands and other wildlife habitats.

352

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þ61

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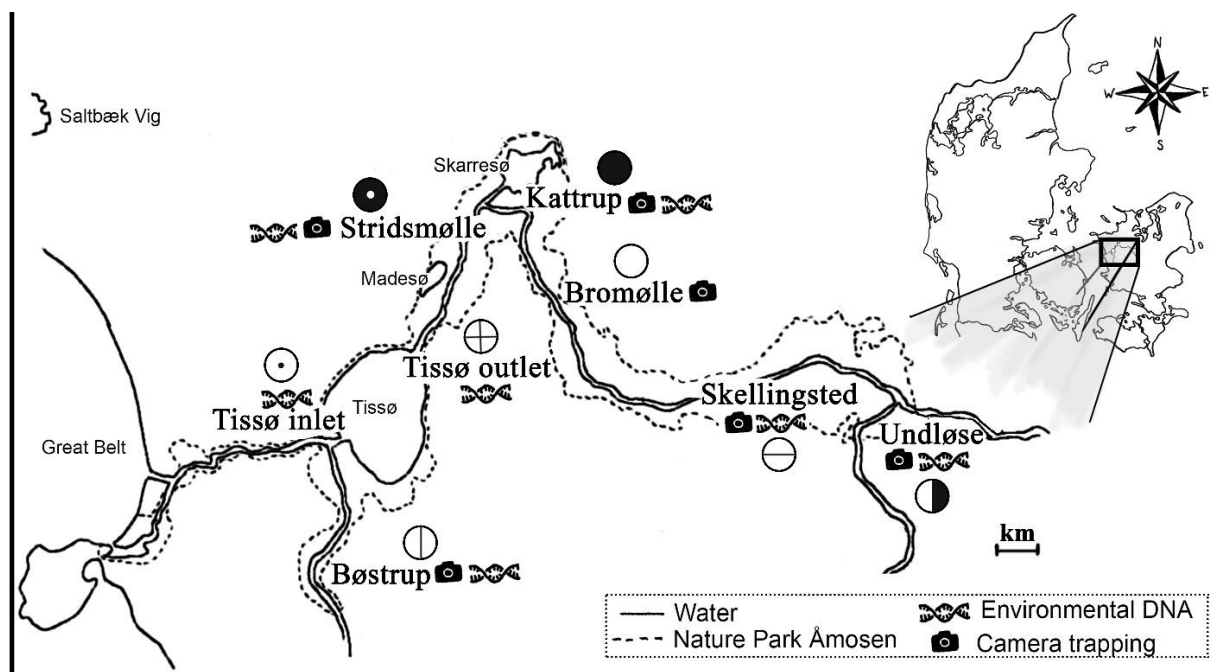
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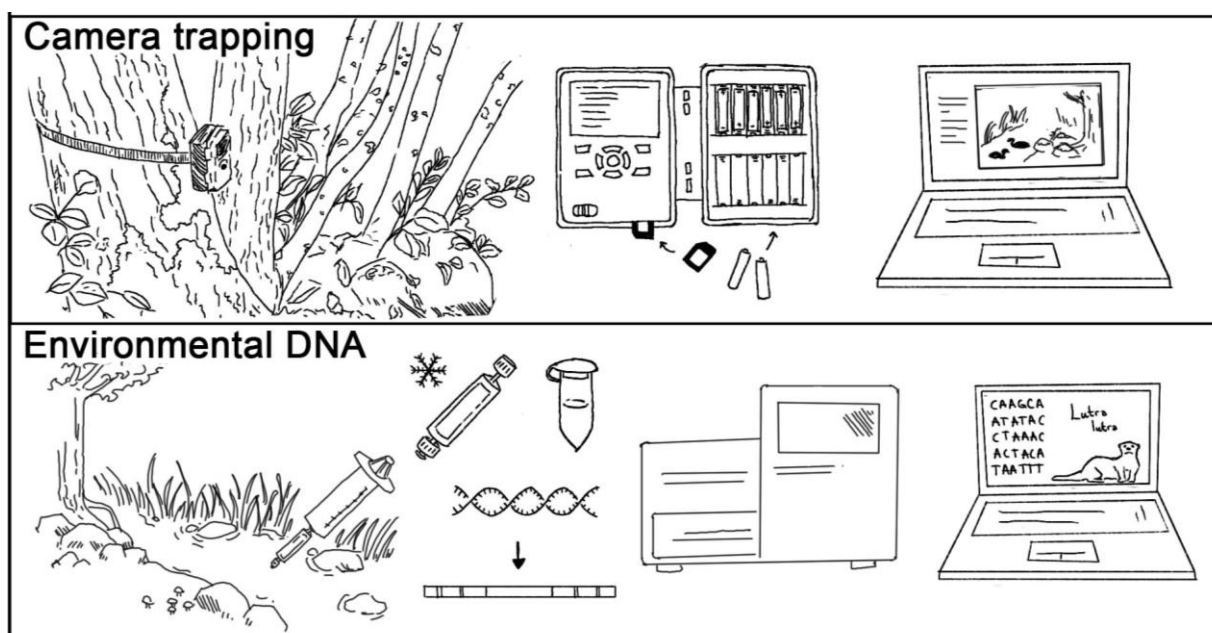
Table 1. Sampling details for each study site (see Figure 1) and overall. Number (N) of camera traps (CTs) at each study site, camera days (CDs) (collected from 20th of May 2015 to 12th of August 2019), and number of camera events (CE's) (observations of animal with at least a 30-minute interval). eDNA samples were collected all through 2018 (January*, February, March, May, September, and December), a few samples were taken in the end of 2017 (September** and October**). *only for Stridsmølle. **only for Katstrup and Stridsmølle.

		Bromølle	Bøstrup	Katstrup	Skellingsted	Stridsmølle	Tissø inlet	Tissø outlet	Undløse	All sites
		Stream, forest and settlements	Stream, reed beds and agriculture	Stream in forested landscape	Regulated stream in agricultural landscape	Stream in forested landscape	Lake in agricultural landscape	Lake in agricultural landscape	Regulated stream in agricultural landscape	
Site characteristics										
Camera	Period	6/4-2017-12/8-2019	6/4-2017-12/8-2019	20/5-2015-12/8-2019	6/4-2017-12/8-2019	20/5-2015-12/8-2019	-	-	6/4-2017-12/8-2019	
	N	4	1	8	2	1	-	-	2	18
	CDs	670	97	6,487	514	1,007	-	-	106	8881
	CEs	770	107	6907	546	578	-	-	181	9089
	Taxa	34	20	71	37	34	-	-	34	87
eDNA	Period	-	27/2-13/12-2018	27/9-2017-13/12-2018	27/2-13/12-2018	17/9-2017-13/12-2018	27/2-13/12-2018	27/2-13/12-2018	27/2-13/12-2018	
	N	-	15	19	15	22	14	14	15	114
	Taxa	-	40	50	46	49	45	46	42	50
Taxa	Aves	20	22	53	23	26	21	23	26	74
	Mammalia	14	9	24	20	17	7	5	15	29
	Actinopterygii	0	14	19	18	17	16	17	12	20
	Amphibia	0	2	1	1	3	1	1	3	4
	Squamata	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Domestic	2	4	7	4	4	4	3	4	9
	Total	34	47	97	63	63	45	46	56	137

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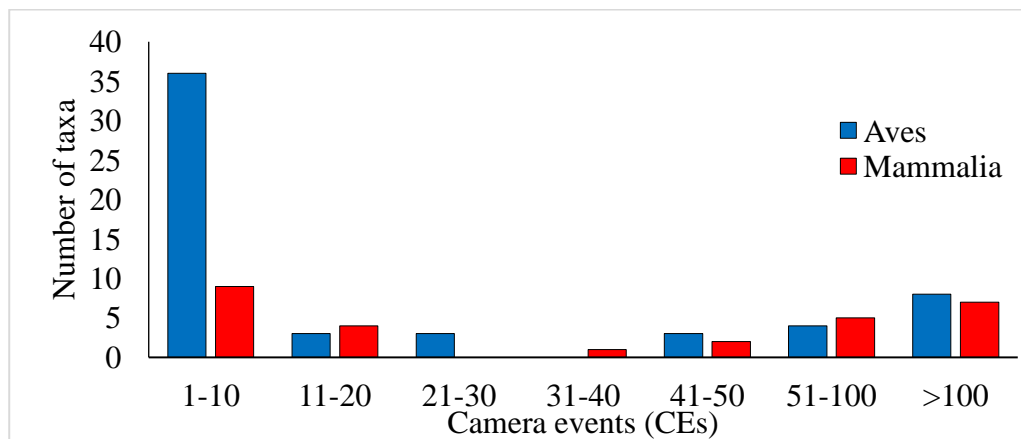
581 **FIGURE 1** The Åmosen Nature Park sampling sites as well as schematic illustration of the camera
582 trapping and environmental DNA methods used to monitor vertebrate diversity. Illustrations by
583 AMRH.

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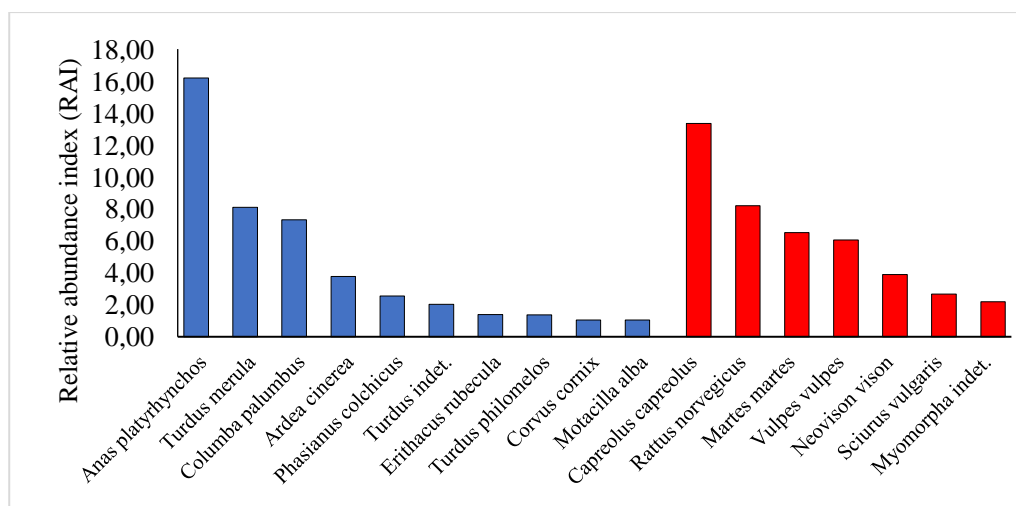
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587 (a)



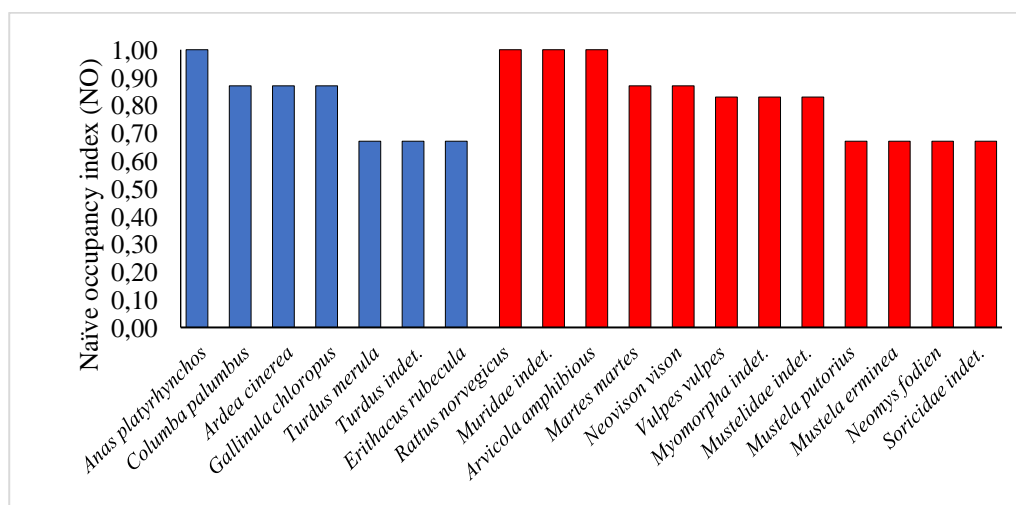
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589 (b)



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591 (c)



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593 **FIGURE 2** The bird and mammal taxa detected by camera traps differed greatly in their abundance
594 and occupancy. (a) The number of taxa in different CE categories with a few very common taxa and
595 many rare. (b) The most abundant bird and mammal taxa defined by a relative abundance index
596 $RAI > 1.0$. (c) The most common taxa defined by naïve occupancy index. A full species list is pro-
597 vided in Supplementary Table S9.

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601 A.



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610 B.



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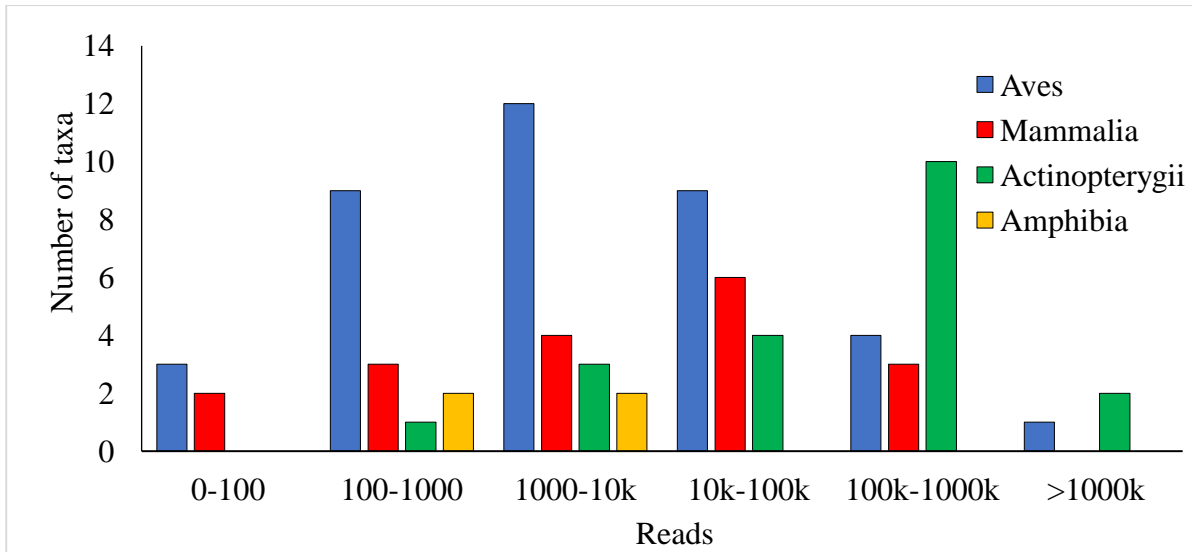
613 **FIGURE 3.** Examples of animals observed by CTs in Åmosen. (a) birds and fish 1. *Tachybaptus*
614 *ruficollis* and *Anas platyrhynchos*, 2. *Erithacus rubecula*, 3. *Phalacrocorax carbo*, 4. *Rallus aquat-*
615 *icus*, 5. *Buteo buteo*, 6. *Ardea cinerea* and *Esox lucius*, and (b) mammals (1. *Martes martes*, 2. *Rat-*
616 *tus rattus*, 3. *Lutra lutra*, 4. *Cervus elaphus*, 5. *Vulpes vulpes* and 6. *Meles meles*.

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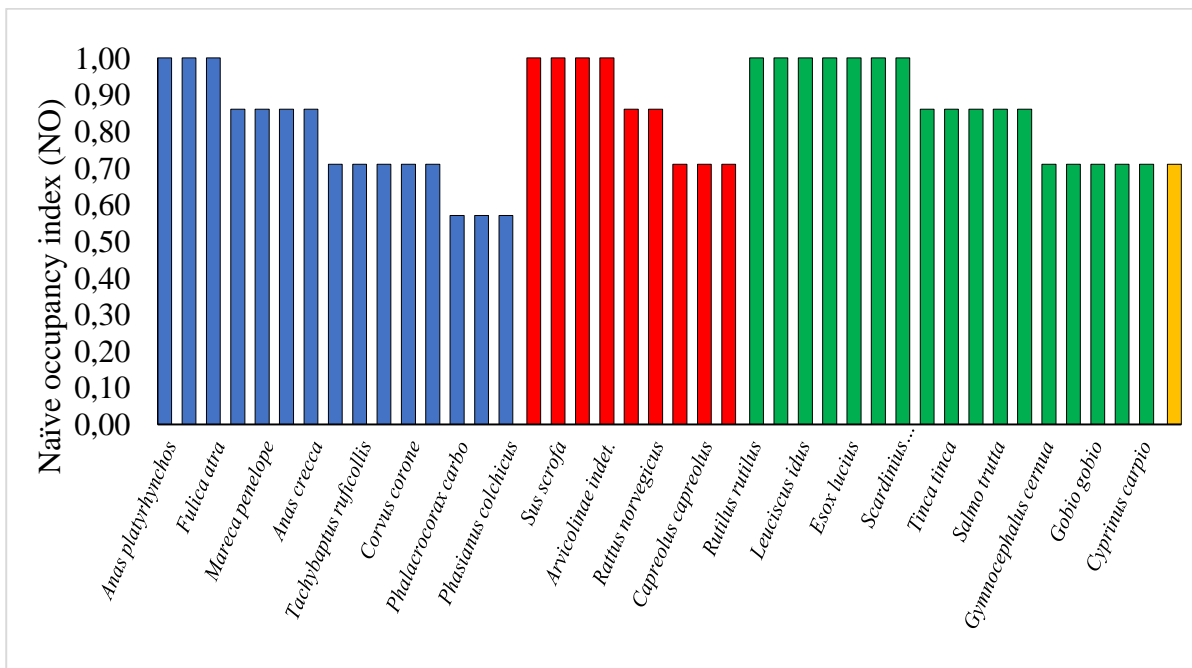
619

620 (a)



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622 (b)

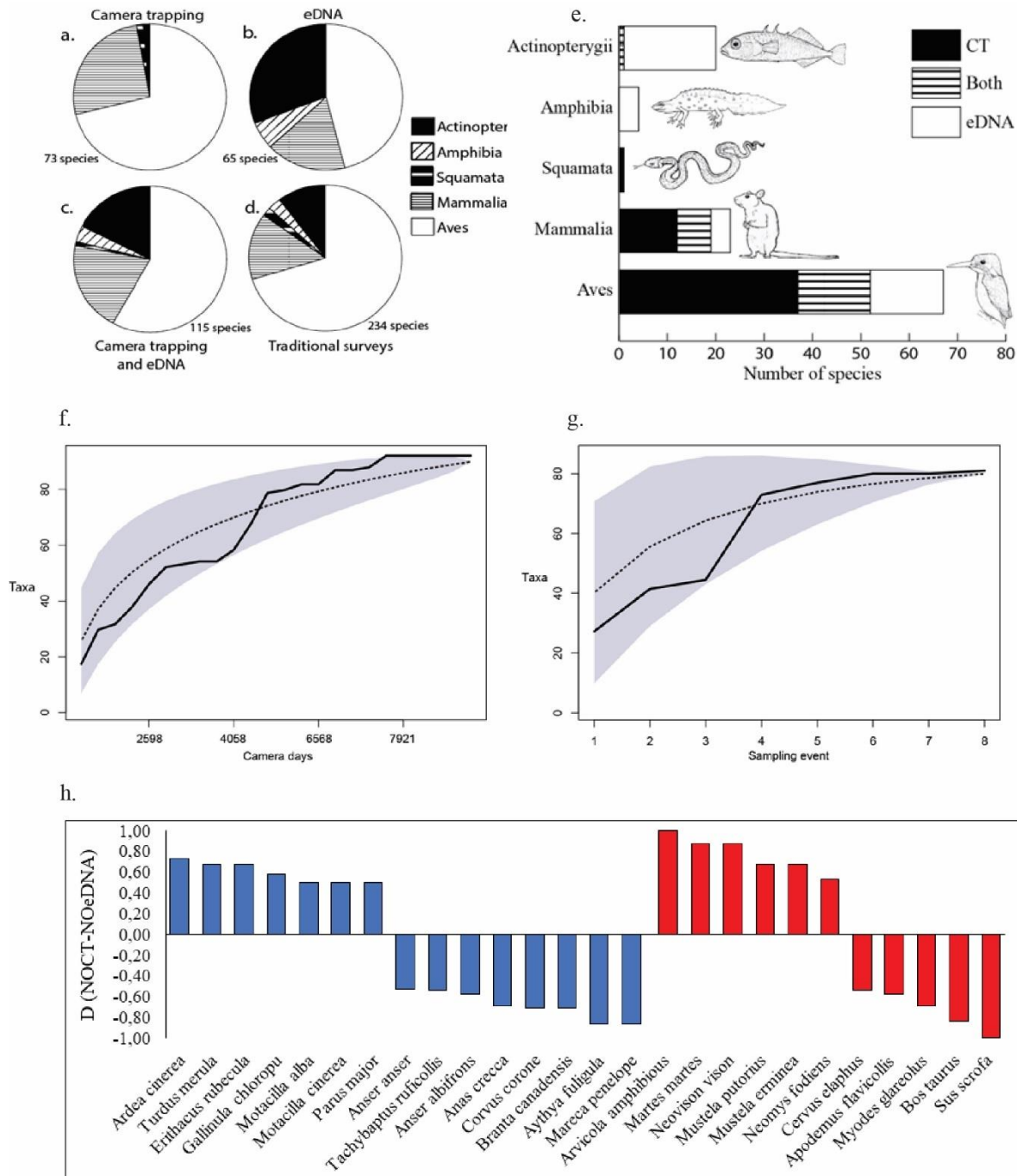


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624 **FIGURE 4.** The bird, mammal, fish and amphibian taxa detected by eDNA water sampling differed
 625 greatly in their frequency. (a) The number of taxa in different DNA sequence read categories. (b)
 626 The most common taxa defined by a naïve occupancy index defined as the proportion of sites where
 627 the species was detected. Notice that the three most detected mammals were domestic animals
 628 (cow, pig and dog). A full species list is provided in Supplementary Table S9.

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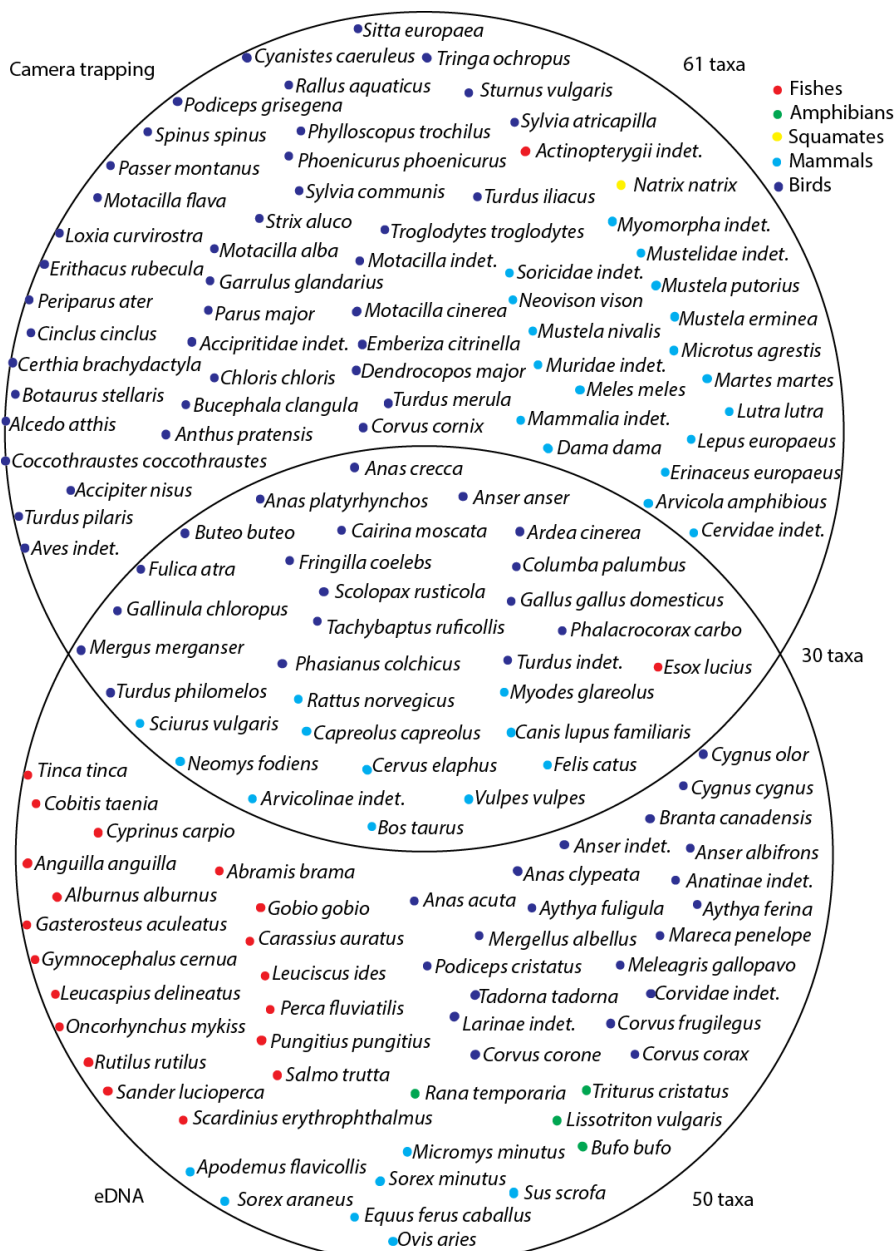
631

632 **FIGURE 5.** Evaluation of monitoring approach. (a) The number of taxa detected in Nature Park
 633 Åmosen for each vertebrate class as detected by camera trapping, (b) eDNA, (c) both methods, and
 634 (d) previous traditional surveys. (e) camera trapping and eDNA data compiled by each five verte-
 635 brate classes. (f-g) Species accumulation curves for vertebrate taxa detected in Åmosen by camera
 636 trapping and eDNA sampling. The black line are the detected taxa, stippled line is randomized

637 accumulation curve estimated in specaccum (vegan package in R), and light grey shading is the
 638 95% confidence intervals. h) Birds and mammals with large difference between camera trap naïve
 639 occupancy (NO_{CT}) and eDNA naïve occupancy (NO_{eDNA}). Species above or below the horizontal
 640 line are overrepresented in camera traps or eDNA, respectively. Illustrations by AMRH. A full spe-
 641 cies list is provided in Supplementary Table S9.

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646 **FIGURE 6.** Overview of taxa found from camera trapping and eDNA. *Venn diagram* showing the
647 overlap between the qualitative results obtained from camera trapping and eDNA metabarcoding of
648 freshwater in Åmosen. Both methods detected 30 taxa, while 50 taxa only were detected by eDNA
649 and 61 taxa only were detected by camera trapping.

650