Extending sampling approaches for great crested newt (*Triturus cristatus*) eDNA monitoring

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Abstract

1. Environmental DNA (eDNA) monitoring has been used for great crested newt (*Triturus cristatus*) survey in the UK since the publication of a Defra-funded trial in 2014. If eDNA results are to be used in support of a great crested newt licence, surveys must be performed during a 76-day survey window (15 April – 30 June) to coincide with peak great crested newt activity, and must follow the approved protocol for collection of 6 x 15 mL subsamples for ethanol precipitation. However, filtration may be a more effective and sustainable method of eDNA capture than ethanol precipitation, and detection may be possible outside of the current survey window.

2. We investigated whether the great crested newt eDNA survey season could be extended and filtration could be used for great crested newt eDNA capture by reviewing the available evidence and conducting a field study from April to October 2022. Paired water samples for ethanol precipitation (600 mL collected and 90 mL processed) and filtration (2.5 L collected and up to 2.5 L processed) were collected from ponds once a month, resulting in 124 ethanol precipitation kits and 124 filtration kits from 25 ponds. All samples were analysed with the approved quantitative PCR assay for the great crested newt.

3. Our results indicate that great crested newts can be reliably detected using both eDNA capture methods from April to August, with detection rates decreasing in September and October. Great crested newt eDNA detection was comparable or higher with filtration than ethanol precipitation, thus filtration could be a reliable and more sustainable means for assessing great crested newt presence.

4. *Practical implication.* Inclusion of filtration as an accepted eDNA capture method for great crested newt eDNA surveys would allow more water to be processed for robust and reliable estimates of great crested newt presence. Extending the great crested newt eDNA survey season to August would allow more waterbodies to be surveyed for great crested newt presence (but not absence), and identification of sites that provide important habitat for great crested newts outside of the breeding season. This would also remove logistical challenges and

costs associated with completing great crested newt surveys and laboratory
analysis within 10 weeks, improving performance of surveyors and laboratories
as well as quality of results. Furthermore, great crested newt eDNA surveys
could be carried out alongside monitoring for other species, which would enable
infrastructure projects to develop more effective mitigation measures as well as
reduce time required from surveyors and survey costs.

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70   **Keywords:** amphibian, environmental DNA, ethanol precipitation, filtration, freshwater,
71   northern crested newt, ponds

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1. Introduction

Great crested newts (*Triturus cristatus*) are a European protected species, meaning
individuals, their eggs, their breeding sites, and their resting places are protected by
law. In the UK, licences must be obtained for activities affecting great crested newts,
including development and mitigation, from the appropriate statutory authority, e.g.
Natural England, NatureScot or Natural Resources Wales. Where records suggest great
crested newts may be present, there is suitable aquatic habitat, or suitable terrestrial
habitat at or in the vicinity of a proposed development site, surveys are required to
assess species distribution and abundance in order to take appropriate measures to
avoid, mitigate or compensate for any negative effects on great crested newts.
Traditionally, great crested newts were monitored using methods such as torchlight
counts, bottle trapping, netting and egg searches to confirm presence or likely absence
in waterbodies (Langton et al., 2001). Since 2015, environmental DNA (eDNA) analysis
has offered a non-invasive, time-efficient and cost-effective alternative (Biggs et al.,
2015; Rees et al., 2014), but within a regulated 76-day survey window (15 April – 30
June) to coincide with peak breeding activity and maximise chance of detection (Biggs
et al., 2014).

Previous UK studies have shown that great crested newts can be successfully detected
with eDNA analysis outside this regulated survey window (Buxton et al., 2017, 2018a;
Gorman et al., 2020; Rees et al., 2017), possibly due to juveniles remaining beyond the
breeding season, and juveniles and adults overwintering in waterbodies (Rees et al.,
2023). Across Europe where the same regulations do not apply, eDNA surveys for great
crested newts have also occurred over summer months (Knudsen et al., 2023; Strand et
al., 2022). Extension of this survey window would allow more potential great crested
newt waterbodies to be surveyed for robust and reliable estimates of great crested newt
presence. It would also allow great crested newt eDNA surveys to be carried out
alongside monitoring for other species, such as smooth newt (*Lissotriton vulgaris*),
chytrid fungus (*Batrachochytrium dendrobaditis*; Taugbøl et al., 2021, 2025), and white-
clawed crayfish (*Austropotamobius pallipes*; Troth et al., 2020), or amphibian
assemblages (Charvoz et al., 2021; Davison et al., 2025; Dufresnes et al., 2019; Strand
et al., 2022; Svenningsen et al., 2022) or whole vertebrate communities (L. R. Harper et
al., 2018). This would enable infrastructure projects to develop more effective mitigation
measures as well as reduce survey time and costs. However, additional evidence is
needed to support extension of the great crested newt eDNA survey window and
regulatory change (Rees et al., 2017, 2023).

Technical guidance published by Biggs et al. (2014) and approved by Natural England
underpins the widely adopted protocol (WC1067) for great crested newt eDNA surveys
in the UK. This guidance was based on a project conducted in 2013/14 that established
the performance of and produced a technical advice note on eDNA techniques for the
great crested newt. In accordance with this guidance, all great crested newt eDNA
sampling kits produced by different commercial eDNA providers capture eDNA via
ethanol precipitation (hereafter EP). This method purifies and concentrates DNA by
adding salt and ethanol to water samples, which forces the precipitation of DNA out of
the solution. The DNA can then be separated from the rest of the solution by
centrifugation. EP is restricted to small water volumes (e.g. 90 mL), susceptible to
contamination during laboratory processing, and expensive due to taxes, dangerous
goods shipping and specialist waste disposal required for ethanol, especially for small

numbers of kits. EP kits also potentially present a risk to ecologists and any others who
have to store and transport a large number of kits (Bruce et al., 2021; Rees et al.,
2023).

Since 2014, eDNA applications have been continually evolving and multiple studies
have identified that filtration may provide more efficient species detection than EP (e.g.
Hinlo et al., 2017; Minamoto et al., 2015; Peixoto et al., 2020; Spens et al., 2016; Troth
et al., 2020), although the optimal capture method can depend on environment sampled
and inhibitor concentrations (Minamoto et al., 2015; Troth et al., 2020). Filtration
separates DNA from water using a filter medium (e.g. paper, gauze) that allows the
solution to pass through but not the DNA. Filters can process litres of water for higher
detection rates, albeit less water may be processed and/or processing may take longer
for turbid water samples (Andreou et al., 2023; Minamoto et al., 2015). Unlike EP
samples, filters are self-contained and quicker to extract for lower contamination risk
and reduced labour costs. There is minimal risk to ecologists and any others who have
to store and transport them, meaning standard couriers can be used for shipping. They
can also be stored at ambient temperature before and after (if a preservative solution is
added to the filter) use, making storage of collected samples easier and less expensive
(Bruce et al., 2021; Rees et al., 2023). In contrast, EP kits must be stored at 2-4°C if
they cannot be delivered to a laboratory on the same day as sample collection (Biggs et
al., 2014).

Here, we reviewed the evidence for extending the great crested newt eDNA survey
season and using filtration for great crested newt eDNA capture. We performed a field
comparison of in-season (April to June) versus out-of-season (July to October) eDNA
survey, and EP versus filtration for great crested newt eDNA detection. We
hypothesised that great crested newts would be detected beyond 30 June, and that
filtration would outperform EP for great crested newt eDNA detection. We provide
evidence-based recommendations for regulatory changes to evolve and streamline
great crested newt eDNA surveys.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Literature review

A literature review was undertaken in June 2022 to synthesise published and grey literature on using filtration for great crested newt eDNA capture and great crested newt eDNA detection out-of-season. Published literature was searched with Google Scholar using the search terms "environmental DNA", "eDNA", "ethanol precipitation", "filtration", "qPCR", "great crested newt", "*Triturus cristatus*", "GCN", and "amphibians". Literature was restricted to those referencing great crested newts as well as incorporating filtration and/or out-of-season eDNA surveys. Grey literature was sought by contacting a range of regulatory agencies, non-governmental organisations, and ecological consultancies. Nineteen organisations were contacted, including five regulatory agencies, three non-governmental organisations, and 11 ecological consultancies. Of these, 12 responded, including three which had relevant data but only two provided. Cited literature within studies returned by searches, including previous literature reviews and reports, was also accessed and assessed for relevance. Information extracted from each source was summarised in Microsoft Excel (Supporting Information: Appendix 1).

2.2. Field study

Ponds across three sites in Buckinghamshire, England, were selected based on results of previous surveys conducted on behalf of HS2 Ltd within the last four years but dating back to 2013 for some ponds (Table 1, Figure 1). Surveys had not been undertaken for two ponds included in the present study. Most ponds were created as part of ecological mitigation works and were receptor sites for great crested newt translocation. Ponds were located near Newton Purcell (Ponds 1-4), Great Missenden (Ponds 5-8), and Aylesbury (Ponds 9-25). The Newton Purcell and Great Missenden sites were over 35 km apart, with the Aylesbury site in between (over 20 km from Newton Purcell site and

185 over 15 km from Great Missenden site). Therefore, great crested newt dispersal
186 between the three sites is highly unlikely. However, most ponds within each site were
187 less than 500 m apart and within similar proximity to other ponds not included in this
188 study, therefore great crested newts at each site could move between ponds in
189 response to environmental and social cues (Unglaub, Cayuela et al., 2021).
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193 **Figure 1.** Maps of study ponds in Buckinghamshire. All ponds are shown relative to the
194 wider landscape (a), then by clusters near Newton Purcell (b), Aylesbury (c), and Great
195 Missenden (d). Points are coloured by previous great crested newt status, where
196 orange is positive, black is negative, and grey is unknown.
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Table 1. Characteristics of study ponds based on the ten suitability indices (SI) that are used to calculate the Habitat Suitability Index (HSI) for great crested newts (Oldham et al., 2000), and define pond suitability (ARG-UK, 2010). SI1: Geographic location (Zone A = optimal, Zone B = marginal, Zone C = unsuitable). SI2: Pond area (rectangle/ellipse/irregular – m^2). SI3: Permanence (never dries/rarely dries/sometimes dries/dries annually). SI4: Water quality (good/moderate/poor/bad). SI5: Shade (percentage of margin shaded 1 m from bank). SI6: Waterfowl (absent/minor/major). SI7: Fish (absent/possible/minor/major). SI8: Pond count (number of ponds within 1 km). SI9: Terrestrial habitat (good/moderate/poor/none). SI10: Macrophytes (percentage of the pond surface area occupied by macrophyte cover).

Pond	Site	Great crested newt status prior to 2022	SI1	SI2	SI3	SI4	SI5	SI6	SI7	SI8	SI9	SI10	HSI score	Pond suitability	Population size assessment
1 *†	Newton Purcell	Unknown	A	Irregular – 400	Sometimes dries	Poor	0	Minor	Absent	13	Moderate	0	0.42	Average	None
2 *†	Newton Purcell	Unknown	A	Irregular – 300	Dries annually	Poor	0	Minor	Absent	13	Moderate	0	0.35	Below average	None
3 *	Newton Purcell	Negative	A	Irregular – 15	Dries annually	Moderate	0	Absent	Absent	13	Moderate	10	0.3	Poor	None
4 *	Newton Purcell	Negative	A	Irregular – 2770	Never dries	Moderate	70	Minor	Major	13	Moderate	15	0.46	Poor	None
5	Great Missenden	Positive	A	Irregular – 120	Rarely dries	Good	0	Minor	Absent	3 (within exclusion fencing)	Good	30	0.76	Good	Bottle trapping, torching, refuge checks
6	Great Missenden	Positive	A	Irregular – 230	Rarely dries	Good	0	Minor	Absent	3 (within exclusion fencing)	Good	60	0.84	Excellent	Bottle trapping, torching, refuge checks
7	Great Missenden	Positive	A	Irregular – 80	Rarely dries	Good	0	Minor	Absent	3 (within exclusion fencing)	Good	40	0.74	Good	Bottle trapping, torching, refuge checks
8 §	Great Missenden	Positive	A	Irregular – 20	Sometimes dries	Good	0	Minor	Absent	3 (within exclusion fencing)	Good	60	0.62	Average	Bottle trapping, torching, refuge checks

9 §	Aylesbury	Positive	A	Irregular – 35	Dries annually	Good	0	Minor	Absent	13	Good	30	0.56	Below average	Torching, refuge checks, netting
10	Aylesbury	Positive	A	Irregular – 180	Never dries	Good	0	Minor	Absent	13	Good	40	0.83	Excellent	Torching, refuge checks, netting
11	Aylesbury	Positive	A	Irregular – 120	Rarely dries	Good	0	Minor	Absent	13	Good	50	0.82	Excellent	Torching, refuge checks, netting
12	Aylesbury	Positive	A	Irregular - 200	Never dries	good	0	minor	absent	13	Good	50	0.85	Excellent	Torching, refuge checks, netting
13	Aylesbury	Positive	A	Irregular – 50	Sometimes dries	Good	0	Minor	Absent	13	Good	30	0.68	Average	Refuge checks, netting
14	Aylesbury	Positive	A	Irregular – 80	Rarely dries	Good	0	Minor	Absent	13	Good	40	0.77	Good	Torching, refuge checks, netting
15	Aylesbury	Positive	A	Irregular – 60	Rarely dries	Good	0	Minor	Absent	13	Good	30	0.74	Good	Torching, refuge checks, netting
16	Aylesbury	Positive	A	Irregular – 100	Rarely dries	Good	0	Minor	Absent	13	Good	25	0.77	Good	Refuge checks, netting
17 †§	Aylesbury	Positive	A	Irregular – 10	Dries annually	Good	0	Minor	Absent	13	Good	100	0.5	Below average	Torching, refuge checks, netting (assessed before pond dried in May)
18 †‖	Aylesbury	Positive	A	Irregular – 150	Sometimes dries	Poor	50	Minor	Possible	1 (only pond not separated by roads or fencing)	Good	60	0.62	Average	None
19 †‖	Aylesbury	Positive	A	Irregular – 2	Dries annually	Good	0	Minor	Absent	13	Good	0	0.39	Poor	None
20	Aylesbury	Positive	A	Irregular – 50	Rarely dries	Good	0	Minor	Absent	13	Good	50	0.75	Good	Torching, refuge checks, netting
21 †§	Aylesbury	Positive	A	Irregular – 20	Sometimes dries	Good	0	Minor	Absent	13	Good	50	0.64	Average	Torching, refuge

															checks, netting
22 §	Aylesbury	Positive	A	Irregular – 50	Rarely dries	Good	0	Minor	Absent	13	Good	25	0.72	Good	Torching, refuge checks, netting
23 †‖	Aylesbury	Positive	A	Irregular – 25	Sometimes dries	Good	0	Minor	Absent	13	Good	50	0.65	Average	None
24 *‡	Aylesbury	Negative	A	Irregular – 750	Never dries	Moderate	20	Minor	Possible	13	Good	30	0.83	Excellent	None
25 ‡¶	Aylesbury	Positive	A	Irregular – 150	Rarely dries	Good	0	Minor	Possible	13	Good	70	0.82	Excellent	Refuge checks, netting (out-of-season only)

* Control pond where great crested newt absence was confirmed or suspected and no population size assessment performed.

† Pond with in-season eDNA survey only.

‡ Pond with out-of-season eDNA survey only.

§ Pond subject to in-season population size assessment only as no eDNA survey able to be undertaken in October.

‖ Pond dried out before in-season population size assessment could be performed.

¶ Pond subject to out-of-season population size assessment only as no in-season eDNA survey.

Initially, 21 ponds were sampled in April 2022 to ensure 17 positive ponds and three
negative ponds (i.e. control ponds) for great crested newts. From May onwards, 20
ponds were selected for repeat surveys. Ponds from the same three sites were added
to replace any that dried and/or became unsafe to access, but ultimately the total
number of ponds decreased each month (Supporting Information: Appendix 2).Each
pond was sampled by AtkinsRéalis ecologists once each month using both
NatureMetrics Great Crested Newt eDNA Kits (EP) and Pump Aquatic eDNA Kits
(filtration; Figure 2).

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Figure 2. AtkinsRéalis ecologists **(a)** collecting water for filtration and **(b)** processing
water using an EP kit.

The latter included a sterile 0.8 µm pore size polyethersulfone filter and a 5 µm glass
fibre pre-filter inside a 50 mm polypropylene capsule with luer lock fitting connections.
Water was filtered and the filter air-dried using a Bürkle Vampire Sampler (a peristaltic
pump with a flow rate of up to 2 L per minute) and a piece of silicone hose (1 m) with
luer lock adapter. The hose was placed inside the sampling bag, filled with sample

water, then the filter capsule was attached to the adapter before continuing to run the

pump. Once all water had been filtered or the filter clogged, the hose was removed from

the sampling bag and pump run until no more water exited the filter. The filter capsule

was detached from the hose, following which the capsule was filled with 1.5 mL of

Longmire's solution for DNA preservation (Longmire et al., 1997). A new kit and a new

piece of silicone hose (1 m) with luer lock adapter were used for each pond. Field

blanks (one of each kit type using mineral water instead of pond water) were included

from May onwards to assess potential field contamination risk.

The water sampling protocol established by Biggs et al. (2014) was used for both eDNA

capture methods with minor modifications for filtration. For EP, 20 x 30 mL subsamples

were collected at equidistant intervals around the pond perimeter then pooled into a

single 900 mL sampling bag for homogenisation, following which 6 x 15 mL aliquots

were added to tubes containing 33 mL of absolute ethanol and 1.5 mL of sodium

acetate (3 M). For filtration, 20 x 125 mL subsamples were collected at equidistant

intervals around the pond perimeter and pooled into a single 3.5 L sampling bag for

homogenisation, following which as much water as possible was filtered. For EP, 600

mL of water was always collected, and 90 mL invariably processed. For filtration, 2.5 L

of water was always collected, with up to 2.5 L filtered but volumes varied for each pond

in each month (Supporting Information: Appendix 2, Figure S3). Water sampling for EP

or filtration took the same amount of time (20-30 minutes), but water processing was

typically faster with the EP kit (~10 minutes) than the filtration kit (~20 minutes) due to

the greater volumes of water being processed with filtration (Supporting Information:

Appendix 2, Figure S3). EP samples were stored at ambient temperature for same-day

courier collection or refrigerated until courier collection. Filtration samples were stored at

ambient temperature.

Where possible, population size class assessment surveys were performed for each

pond that was positive for great crested newt prior to 2022 (i.e. generally based on

surveys within the last four years for most ponds but occasionally based on surveys

dating back to 2013 for some ponds). These were based on six visits from May to June

and one visit in October using different combinations of bottle trapping, torchlight

survey, refuge searching and netting. Bottle trapping could not be used where protected

mammal species were present and torchlight could not be used for ponds with

extensive vegetation cover (Table 1). Further details on each of these survey methods

can be found in Langton et al. (2001). Pond 25 was subject to an out-of-season

population survey only as this pond was included from July onwards as a replacement

for an eDNA positive pond which became dry. Ponds 8, 9, 17, 21 and 22 were subject

to an in-season population survey only as these ponds had dried out and/or become

unsafe to access by October. Ponds 1-4 and 24 were not assessed as these were

control ponds known or suspected to be negative for great crested newt, and Ponds 18,

19 and 23 were not assessed as they dried before population survey could occur.

2.3. Laboratory analysis

At NatureMetrics, eDNA was precipitated via centrifugation at 14,000 x g for EP kits and

processed in accordance with Biggs et al. (2014). Briefly, resulting pellets from EP kits

and lysate from filtration kits were extracted using Qiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissue

kits following the manufacturer protocol, with elution in 200 µL of Buffer AE. All samples

were tested for degradation and inhibition using two commercial quantitative PCR

(qPCR) kits that target two separate synthetic Internal Positive Controls (IPC). One IPC

was included in the ethanol and sodium acetate of EP kits or the preservative solution of

filtration kits to test for degradation, and one IPC was added to DNA extracts to test for

inhibition. qPCR amplification for each IPC was carried out in duplicate on each sample.

qPCR amplification was then carried out in 12 technical replicates per sample using

species-specific primers and probe for the great crested newt, developed by Thomsen

et al. (2012) and adopted by Biggs et al. (2014), in the presence of extraction negative

controls, qPCR positive controls, and qPCR negative controls. The great crested newt

qPCR reagents (and their concentrations and volumes) and conditions were as

specified in the WC1067 protocol (Biggs et al., 2014), with 3 µL of template DNA used

in each reaction. A score is given for the number of positive technical replicates out of

12, i.e. eDNA score. A sample is deemed positive for great crested newts if the eDNA

score is 1 or higher. Results from the great crested newt qPCR assay are considered to

have a high confidence rating according to the Confidence Assessment Tool for eDNA

qPCR Results (K. J. Harper et al., 2021). Quality control methods included the use of

field blanks, kit blanks, extraction negative and qPCR negative controls, and qPCR

positive controls. The qPCR positive controls are standards of known great crested

newt DNA concentration amplified in triplicate to determine correct amplifications.

305   2.4. Data analysis

307   Data were analysed in R v4.2.2 (R Core Team, 2022), and all plots were produced

308   using the packages ggplot2 v3.5.1 (Wickham, 2016), ggpubr v0.6.0 (Kassambara,

309   2020), and patchwork v1.3.0 (Pedersen, 2024). Control ponds (ponds 1-4 and 24) and

310   negative process controls were assessed for any evidence of contamination, then these

311   were removed from the data set.

313   2.4.1. Generalised Linear Mixed-effect Models

Great crested newt detection success (both detection rate and eDNA scores) with EP

and filtration in each month was statistically compared for Ponds 5-23 and 25. Next, for

ponds with both in-season (April to June) and out-of-season (July to October) data

(Ponds 5-16, 20 and 22), months were grouped as in-season or out-of-season to

statistically compare detection success with EP and filtration between these two time

periods. We examined the influence that September and October results had on in-

season vs. out-of-season detection by repeating the statistical comparison without these

data, i.e. only July and August results grouped as out-of-season (see Supporting

Information for results of in-season vs. out-of-season comparisons).

Generalised Linear Mixed-effects Models (GLMMs) with binomial error family were used

for these analyses. eDNA scores were converted to proportional eDNA scores (i.e.

ranging from 0 to 1) for modelling. These GLMMs included an interaction term between

eDNA capture method and month or time period, but the interaction term was dropped if

it was not significant. eDNA capture method and month or time period were retained as
fixed effects. We also examined the influence of volume of water filtered on proportional
eDNA scores using a GLMM with binomial error family (see Supporting Information).

In-season population sizes for Ponds 5-17 and 20-22 were available as quantitative
(peak adult counts) or qualitative (class) measurements. Classes were 'small' (up to 10
animals counted), 'medium' (11–100 animals counted) and 'high' (counts exceeding 100
animals) (English Nature, 2001). The population size and eDNA data for these ponds
were split by eDNA capture method. The EP and filtration subdatasets were each
analysed using three GLMMs with binomial error family, where both population size
measurements were included as fixed effects. The three GLMMs had different response
variables: (1) corresponding eDNA score, i.e. proportional eDNA score corresponding to
May when most in-season survey visits for population size assessment were made; (2)
average eDNA score, i.e. the average of proportional eDNA scores for in-season
months; and (3) peak eDNA score, i.e. the highest proportional eDNA score observed
across in-season months.

Pond number was included as a random effect in all GLMMs to account for repeat
visitation and unknown variation inherent to individual ponds. GLMMs, model
performance checks, extraction of model predictions, and post hoc analyses were
implemented using the packages glmmTMB v1.1.10 (Brooks et al., 2017), DHARMa
v0.4.7 (Hartig, 2022), easystats v0.7.3 (Lüdecke et al., 2022), arm v1.14-4 (Gelman &
Su, 2022), emmeans v1.10.5 (Lenth, 2022), and effects v4.2-2 (Fox & Weisberg, 2018;
Fox & Weisberg, 2019). If a significant effect was found for variables using the *drop1*
function from the package stats v4.2.2 (R Core Team, 2022), multiple pairwise
comparisons were performed using the *pairs* function from the package emmeans
v1.10.5. The full data set has been provided as Supporting Information: Appendix 2.

2.4.2. Occupancy models

A potential flaw with GLMMs is they do not account for imperfect detection via a hierarchical dependence structure like multi-scale occupancy models do. Like other monitoring methods, eDNA surveys do not always detect a species when it is present, i.e. false negative. The difference with eDNA surveys is false negatives can occur at different stages: species may not release enough DNA into the environment, eDNA may not be captured during sample collection, and/or eDNA may not be amplified during laboratory analysis (Dorazio & Erickson, 2018). Standard occupancy models assume no false positives, i.e. species is absent but recorded as present. This can occur with other survey methods where a surveyor mistakenly identifies a species based on visual or audio cues, but may be more pronounced with eDNA surveys where a species' eDNA can be transported to sites where the species is not present by surveyors or other wildlife, or contamination can occur in the laboratory (Griffin et al., 2020).

There are now several multi-scale occupancy models available for eDNA data, which account for false negative (and occasionally false positive) error in the field and the laboratory. However, each has advantages and disadvantages, including the type of error that can be estimated, the ability to specify different covariates at different levels, and the ability to account for repeat visits to the same sites using multiple survey methods. We applied three of these models to our data to examine false negative and false positive error rates across months and with different eDNA capture methods.

The Griffin et al. (2020) model, implemented via the package eDNAShinyApp v1.0 (Diana et al., 2021), enables false positive and false negative error rates to be estimated for eDNA surveys. This allows specification of covariates which may influence site occupancy and detection probability, but different covariates cannot be specified at different levels. In our case, we would expect eDNA capture method and month to influence eDNA detection probability in water samples (Stage 1, θ), but we would only expect eDNA capture method to influence eDNA detection probability in qPCR replicates (Stage 2, p) due to differences in DNA extraction. The Dorazio and Erickson

(2018) model, implemented with a Gibbs sampler via the package msocc v1.1.0 for
computational efficiency (Stratton et al., 2020), does allow different covariates to be
specified at different levels, but only provides estimates of false negative error. Neither
of these models account for repeat visits to the same site in the same way as a GLMM
with a random effect does. Instead, each visit is treated as a unique site. Multi-method
models (Nichols et al., 2008), implemented via the package RPresence v2.15.19
(MacKenzie & Hines, 2025), account for non-independence between sampling methods
at shared, local scale sampling locations (Nichols et al., 2008). However, these
implement a different hierarchical dependence structure (where Ψ is occupancy at
landscape scale, θ is local-scale occupancy, and p is probability of detection) and only
estimate false negative error rate.

Specification of each model is described in the Supporting Information. We present the
results of these models but note that none are particularly well-suited to our
experimental design, i.e. multiple eDNA sampling methods used on repeat visits to the
same sites.

3. Results

3.1. Literature review

Seven studies were identified in the published (four studies) and grey literature (three
studies) that used filtration for eDNA capture and/or out-of-season eDNA survey for
great crested newt detection. Only two studies used filtration for eDNA capture with the
remainder using EP, and up to 1 L of water was processed by those that used filtration.
Across these two studies, filtration recovered more great crested newt eDNA than EP in
a tank experiment but not in natural ponds where eDNA concentration was similar
between methods (Buxton et al., 2017; 2018b). The remaining studies demonstrated
that out-of-season detection was possible, including a 2019 data set supplied by

AtkinsRéalis where every pond surveyed was positive for great crested newt eDNA in
September (Gorman et al., 2020). There were differences in sampling methodology
across all studies, but the eDNA capture conditions for EP and filtration, the DNA
extraction method, and the amplification method were consistent (see Supporting
Information: Appendix 1).

3.2. Field study

3.2.1. Quality control

Results of quality control checks are summarised in Figure 3 and Supporting
Information: Appendix 2. Of five control ponds (Ponds 1-4 and 24) known or suspected
to be negative for great crested newts based on previous surveys, three ponds were
also negative in 2022, but two ponds produced positive results from filters in June (Pond
4, eDNA score = 1) and October (Pond 24, eDNA score = 2) respectively. All samples
passed tests for degradation and inhibition except four filters in May (Pond 22),
September (Ponds 3 and 4) and October (Pond 24) which were inhibited despite
troubleshooting undertaken to resolve inhibition. Samples are analysed for great crested
newt regardless of inhibition and degradation being identified. Results from the two
filters for Ponds 22 and 24 were returned as positive rather than inconclusive because
great crested newt DNA amplified successfully, and therefore these samples were
retained. However, results for the two filters from Ponds 3 and 4 were returned as
inconclusive rather than negative because great crested newt DNA did not amplify
which could be due to inhibition or absence of great crested newt DNA in the sample.
One field blank (EP kit) also produced an inconclusive result in October because it
failed the inhibition test. All other negative process controls were negative for great
crested newt DNA and passed quality control.

3.2.2. Sample size

In total, 25 ponds were sampled from April to October (Table 1, Figure 3). Ponds 1 and 2 were newly created drainage ponds and produced negative eDNA results in 2022. Pond 3 was not previously found to support great crested newts and also produced negative eDNA results in 2022. Ponds 4 and 24 were negative for great crested newts until 2022 when they produced positive eDNA results. The remaining 20 ponds that were previously found to support great crested newts also produced positive eDNA results in 2022 (Figure 3; Supporting Information: Appendix 2).

Figure 3. Great crested newt status of ponds surveyed from April to October using ethanol precipitation (EP) kits and filtration (F) kits. A pond is classed as positive for positive for great crested newts if one or more of the qPCR replicates performed on the

eDNA sample are positive, i.e. eDNA score >= 1. Cells are shaded according to kit result (black = negative, orange = positive, grey = inconclusive), with positive results on a colour gradient according to eDNA score. White cells represent months where a pond was not surveyed due to drying out and/or health and safety concerns. Numbers in cells indicate proportional eDNA scores used for modelling.

Of the 25 ponds sampled that produced positive and negative results over the course of the study, 16 had in-season and out-of-season eDNA data, while seven had in-season eDNA data only (typically spanning 2 months) and two had out-of-season eDNA data only. Two ponds with both in-season and out-of-season eDNA data were control ponds. This left 14 ponds that were previously positive for great crested newts using conventional and eDNA surveys that also produced a positive eDNA result for at least one in-season month in 2022. All 14 ponds were surveyed in July, decreasing to 13 ponds in August and September, and 11 ponds in October due to ponds drying out and/or health and safety issues (Figure 3).

All control ponds and laboratory controls were excluded from downstream analysis. All remaining ponds (Ponds 5-23 and 25, n = 20) were all used in statistical comparisons of eDNA detection success in each month (sections 3.2.3 and 3.2.5). Great crested newt ponds with both in-season and out-of-season eDNA data (Ponds 5-16, 20 and 22, n = 14) were used in statistical comparisons of eDNA detection success in-season vs. out-of-season (Supporting Information). Great crested newt ponds with in-season eDNA and population data (Ponds 5-17 and 20-22, n = 16) were used in statistical analysis of eDNA score in relation to population size (section 3.2.4).

3.2.3. eDNA capture method and month

The number of positive ponds generated by each eDNA capture method in each month ranged from 1 to 17 (Figure 4a). The effect of eDNA capture method did not depend on month and vice versa as the interaction term was not significant ($X^2_6 = 9.101$, P = 0.168), but the individual effects of eDNA capture method ($X^2_1 = 8.030$, P = 0.005) and

month (X^2_6 = 61.959, P < 0.001) were significant (Table 2). Filtration (mean probability

of a positive eDNA result ± SE = 0.823 ± 0.057) consistently produced more positive

ponds than EP (0.608 ± 0.083) overall (z = -2.727, P = 0.006). May (0.924 ± 0.045) had

the highest number of positive ponds and significantly differed to September (0.484 ±

0.124, z = 3.382, P = 0.013) and October (0.075 ± 0.052, z = 5.039, P < 0.001) but not

other months (April and June to August: z = -0.969-1.353, P > 0.05). October had the

fewest positive ponds and significantly differed to all other months (April to August: z =

4.628-5.039, P < 0.001), although the difference between September and October was

on the cusp of significance (z = 2.981, P = 0.045; Figure 4b).

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Figure 4. The effects of eDNA capture method and month on GCN detection. In **(a)**,

bars show the number of ponds that were positive (orange) and negative (black) for

great crested newt each month with EP and filtration (F) kits. The number of ponds

corresponding to each category are displayed above bars. In **(b)**, square points

represent the model-predicted positive eDNA result probabilities with EP (black) and F

(white) in each month, and error bars show the 95% confidence intervals for these

predictions.

Table 2. Summary of GLMM and post hoc analysis performed to examine the influence of eDNA capture method and
month (as individual and interacting effects) on the GCN status of ponds. Significant p-values (<0.05) are in bold and df
denotes degrees of freedom.

GLMM					Post hoc analysis				
Formula	Variable	Effect			Levels	Mean probability ± SE	Pairwise comparison		
		X^2	df	P			Pair	z	P
GCN status ~ eDNA capture method + month + eDNA capture method : month	eDNA capture method : month	9.101	6	0.168	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
	eDNA capture method	8.030	1	**0.005**	EP	0.608 ± 0.083	EP : F	-2.727	**0.006**
					F	0.823 ± 0.057			
	month	61.959	6	**<0.001**	Apr	0.856 ± 0.066	Apr : May	-0.969	0.961
							Apr : Jun	0.449	0.999
							Apr : Jul	-0.197	1.000
							Apr : Aug	-0.079	1.000
							Apr : Sep	2.783	0.079
							Apr : Oct	4.710	**<0.001**

GLMM					Post hoc analysis				
Formula	Variable	Effect			Levels	Mean probability ± SE	Pairwise comparison		
		X²	df	P			Pair	z	P
					May	0.924 ± 0.045	May : Jun	1.353	0.826
							May : Jul	0.729	0.991
							May : Aug	0.829	0.982
							May : Sep	3.382	**0.013**
							May : Oct	5.039	**<0.001**
					Jun	0.815 ± 0.082	Jun : Jul	-0.615	0.996
							Jun : Aug	-0.493	0.999
							Jun : Sep	2.343	0.224
							Jun : Oct	4.427	**<0.001**
					Jul	0.872 ± 0.067	Jul : Aug	0.110	1.000
							Jul : Sep	2.821	0.071

GLMM					Post hoc analysis				
Formula	Variable	Effect			Levels	Mean probability ± SE	Pairwise comparison		
		X^2	df	P			Pair	z	P
							Jul : Oct	4.727	**<0.001**
					Aug	0.863 ± 0.072	Aug : Sep	2.691	0.101
							Aug : Oct	4.628	**<0.001**
					Sep	0.484 ± 0.124	Sep : Oct	2.981	**0.045**
					Oct	0.075 ± 0.052			

The eDNA score produced by each eDNA capture method in each month ranged from 0

to 12 (proportional eDNA score = 0-1; Figure 5a). The effect of eDNA capture method

did not depend on month and vice versa as the interaction term was not significant (X^2_6

= 4.888, P = 0.558), but the individual effects of eDNA capture method (X^2_1 = 12.903, P

< 0.001) and month (X^2_6 = 52.380, P < 0.001) were significant (Table 3). Filtration

(mean proportional eDNA score ± SE = 0.492 ± 0.085) produced higher eDNA scores

than EP (0.233 ± 0.063) overall (z = -3.474, P < 0.001; Figure 5b). The highest eDNA

scores were observed in July (0.691 ± 0.090) and lowest eDNA scores observed in

September (0.143 ± 0.067) and October (0.011 ± 0.019). Scores from April to August

did not significantly differ (April to August: z = -1.384-1.277, P > 0.05). Scores in May

(0.654 ± 0.088), June (0.613 ± 0.096) and July significantly differed to scores in

September (May: z = 3.638, P = 0.005; June: z = 3.343, P = 0.015; July: z = 3.801, P =

0.003), but not October (Table 3; Figure 5c).

Table 3. Summary of GLMM and post hoc analysis performed to examine the influence of eDNA capture methods and
month (as individual and interacting effects) on the proportional eDNA score of ponds. Significant p-values (<0.05) are in
bold and df denotes degrees of freedom.
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GLMM					Post hoc analysis				
Formula	Variable	Effect			Levels	Mean proportional eDNA score ± SE	Pairwise comparison		
		X^2	df	P			Pair	z	P
Proportional eDNA score ~ eDNA capture method + month + eDNA capture method : month	eDNA capture method : month	4.888	6	0.558	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
	eDNA capture method	12.903	1	**<0.001**	EP	0.233 ± 0.063	EP : F	-3.474	**<0.001**
					F	0.492 ± 0.085			
	month	52.380	6	**<0.001**	Apr	0.514 ± 0.090	Apr : May	-1.122	0.922
							Apr : Jun	-0.760	0.989
							Apr : Jul	-1.384	0.811
							Apr : Aug	-0.034	1.000
							Apr : Sep	2.861	0.064

GLMM						Post hoc analysis			
Formula	Variable	Effect			Levels	Mean proportional eDNA score ± SE	Pairwise comparison		
		X²	df	P			Pair	z	P
							Apr : Oct	2.535	0.147
					May	0.654 ± 0.088	May : Jun	0.328	1.000
							May : Jul	-0.307	1.000
							May : Aug	1.017	0.950
							May : Sep	3.638	**0.005**
							May : Oct	2.841	0.068
					Jun	0.613 ± 0.096	Jun : Jul	-0.615	0.996
							Jun : Aug	0.682	0.994
							Jun : Sep	3.343	**0.015**
							Jun : Oct	2.741	0.088
					Jul	0.691 ± 0.090	Jul : Aug	1.277	0.863

GLMM					Post hoc analysis				
Formula	Variable	Effect			Levels	Mean proportional eDNA score ± SE	Pairwise comparison		
		X^2	df	P			Pair	z	P
							Jul : Sep	3.801	**0.003**
							Jul : Oct	2.926	0.053
					Aug	0.519 ± 0.102	Aug : Sep	2.788	0.078
							Aug : Oct	2.533	0.147
					Sep	0.143 ± 0.067	Sep : Oct	1.483	0.755
					Oct	0.011 ± 0.019			

Figure 5. The effects of eDNA capture method and month on eDNA score. In **(a)**, the spread of eDNA scores with EP and filtration (F) kits in each month is represented by boxes which show the 25th, 50th and 75th percentiles, whiskers which show the 5th and 95th percentiles, and thick horizontal lines which show the median. Circular points (EP = black, F = white) represent the eDNA score for individual ponds, and yellow diamonds represent the mean eDNA score for EP and F. In **(b)**, eDNA scores with EP are plotted against eDNA scores with F for each pond in each month. The red dashed line

represents the same eDNA score being produced by both eDNA capture methods;
points to the left of this line are ponds where F produced a higher eDNA eDNA score
and points to the right of this line are ponds where EP produced a higher eDNA score.
Numbers represent the number allocated to each pond for the present study (see Table
1). In **(c)**, the square points represent the model-predicted proportional eDNA scores
with EP (black) and F (white) in each month, and error bars show the 95% confidence
intervals for these predictions.

3.2.4. Population size

No great crested newts were found during population size class assessment surveys
conducted in October, but three ponds produced a positive eDNA result. Pond 20 was
positive using both filtration and EP kits, whereas Ponds 24 and 25 were only positive
using filtration kits. Consequently, no analysis of population size in relation to eDNA
score out-of-season was undertaken.

Sixteen ponds (Ponds 5-17 and 20-22) had in-season population size data (peak adult
counts and classes) that could be used to analyse population size in relation to eDNA
score. The remaining nine ponds were unsuitable because: a) they were control ponds,
b) population size class assessment surveys were not undertaken as ponds were
removed from the study due to drying out and/or health and safety reasons, or c) they
were replacements added to the study from July onwards and only had out-of-season
data.

There was no influence of peak adult counts or population class on corresponding
eDNA score, average eDNA score, or peak eDNA score with EP or filtration (see
Supporting Information: Table S3, Figure S4). Therefore, adult population size did not
appear to influence the amount of great crested newt eDNA captured with either eDNA
capture method.

3.2.5. Occupancy modelling

With the Griffin et al. (2020) model implemented in the eDNAShinyApp package, the posterior mean occupancy for all sites was 0.078 with posterior credible intervals (PCI) ranging from 0.002 to 0.763. At Stage 1 (sampling), the true positive rate (mean posterior probability of θ_{11}) was high, ranging from 0.556-0.711 (mean = 0.637; median = 0.628; PCI = 0.002-0.999954). The false positive rate (mean posterior probability of θ_{10}) was moderate, ranging from 0.022-0.781 (mean = 0.426; median = 0.465; PCI = 0.001-0.949) (Figure 6ai). At Stage 2 (laboratory analysis), the true positive rate (mean posterior probability of p_{11}) was very high at 0.936 (PCI = 0.918-0.952). The false positive rate (mean posterior probability of p_{11}) was very low at 0.097 (PCI = 0.082-0.118). False negative probability is calculated as 1—true positive: this was lower than the false positive rate at both Stage 1 (1 − 0.637 = 0.363), and Stage 2 (1 − 0.936 = 0.064). Both eDNA capture method and month were found to have Posterior Inclusion Probability (PIP) scores of 1 for Stage 1 true positive and false positive rates, suggesting an influence on probability of great crested newt eDNA capture in water samples. The probability of true positives at Stage 1 was highest in July, followed by May then June. Filtration also produced a higher probability of true positives. However, these patterns were the same for false positives (Figure 6aii).

With the Dorazio & Erickson (2018) model implemented in the msocc package, the model with eDNA capture method and month as sample-level covariates (but no interaction between these), and eDNA capture method as a replicate-level covariate performed best. The probability of eDNA capture in a water sample (θ) was higher with filtration each month (median values: April = 0.874, May = 0.934, June = 0.856, July = 0.902, August = 0.895, September = 0.627, October = 0.182) than with EP (median values: April = 0.723, May = 0.845, June = 0.695, July = 0.778, August = 0.762, September = 0.390, October = 0.078), albeit with overlapping CI. The probability of eDNA capture in a water sample was highest in May then July and August with either EP or filtration, and lowest in October (Figure 6bi). Detection probability in a qPCR

replicate (*p*) was higher with filtration (0.744) than EP (0.568), with no overlapping CI

(Figure 6bii)

With the Nichols et al. (2008) model implemented in the RPresence package, the model

included eDNA capture method and month as covariates for detection (*p*). Filtration had

a higher predicted probability of detection than EP in most months except July.

Probability of detection was highest in May, followed by April then August with filtration,

or July followed by May then August with EP. Probability of detection was lowest in

October with either eDNA capture method (Figure 6c).

Figure 6. Outputs of three different multi-scale occupancy models for levels at which covariates were considered. For the Griffin et al. (2020) model **(a)**, the θ_{11} (true positive error rate) and θ_{10} (false positive error rate) estimates are shown with posterior credible intervals **(i)** alongside the Stage 1 coefficients and posterior credible intervals for each level of covariates where PIP values were greater than 0.5 **(ii)**. For the Dorazio & Erickson (2018) model **(b)**, the MCMC estimates of the parameters θ as a function of eDNA capture method (EP or filtration – F) and month **(i)**, and p as a function of eDNA capture method **(ii)** are shown, summarised as the median and 95% credible intervals of estimated values. For the Nichols et al. (2018) model **(c)**, the parameter estimates for p with EP and filtration (F) in each month are shown with 95% credible intervals.

The results of all three multi-scale occupancy models are consistent with the GLMM analysis, where filtration improved the probability of eDNA capture and subsequently great crested newt detection, with similar detection probabilities from April to August. However, the Griffin et al. (2020) model does indicate some potential for false positives.

4. Discussion

4.1. Quality control

Filtration for two control ponds produced unexpected positive eDNA results. Pond 24 is adjacent to a pond (~50 m apart) not sampled in this study where great crested newt presence was confirmed in 2020, thus this positive detection may have resulted from great crested newts migrating from the adjacent pond in combination with higher sensitivity of filtration due to larger volumes of water processed (Rees et al., 2023). Pond 4 is located on a site where all ponds were likely or suspected to be negative for great crested newts and produced negative results either side of the positive result in June. Field and laboratory contamination is unlikely as all negative process controls

were negative for great crested newt DNA. Possible explanations for sporadic eDNA
detection include great crested newt adults or sub-adults temporarily using ponds for
foraging or aquatic refuge (Priol et al., 2023), or eDNA transport by humans, domestic
animals or other wildlife, e.g. great crested newt eDNA in water trapped in waterfowl
feathers or predated great crested newts in waterfowl faeces (Beng & Corlett, 2020). At
each of the three sites, it is not possible to rule out great crested newt dispersal from
unsampled ponds in the wider landscape. It is also not possible to eliminate hydrological
movement at the Aylesbury site where ponds are in closer proximity to each other and a
stream is present (Figure 1c).

One field blank (EP kit) failed the inhibition test. Reasons for this are unknown but could
include chemicals or ions present in the mineral water or contamination with an inhibitor
present in the field (Schrader et al., 2012). However, given that all other negative
process controls were negative for great crested newt DNA, great crested newt DNA
was unlikely to be present in this field blank either.

4.2. Great crested newt eDNA survey season

Both the desk and field studies indicated that great crested newts can be detected in
spring as well as summer, likely due to the presence of adults and larvae (Buxton et al.,
2017; Rees et al., 2017), with reduced detection from September onwards. Therefore,
the survey window could potentially be doubled (c. 15 April – 31 August instead of 15
April – 30 June), which would facilitate land access and relieve logistical pressures for
ecological consultants, commercial eDNA providers, and developers (Rees et al., 2017).

The great crested newt eDNA assay has undergone substantial validation, thus a
positive eDNA result means that great crested newts are very likely present and a
negative eDNA result means great crested newts are likely absent assuming
appropriate timing and replication in sampling (Thalinger et al., 2021). Ponds that were
positive with either EP or filtration in July and August in the present study are likely to be
true positives as most eDNA scores were high (Figure 3). Extending the great crested

newt eDNA survey season could enable identification of ponds used for breeding and
occupied by larvae as well as ponds only used for foraging or refuge that are critical to
great crested newt survival but may be missed by the current eDNA survey window
(Buxton et al., 2021b; Priol et al., 2023). Out-of-season detections could be used to
begin planning conservation or mitigation activities (Gorman et al., 2020), including
which waterbodies should be subject to in-season survey the following year (Rees et al.,
2023). However, out-of-season non-detections require more scrutiny and cautious
interpretation (Buxton et al., 2021b).

Although positive eDNA results outside the sampling timeframe originally used in assay
validation are plausibly reliable, negative eDNA results are not as the survey timing is
no longer optimal for DNA release from the target species (Thalinger et al., 2021; Troth
et al., 2021). False negatives were observed for three ponds out-of-season where great
crested newts were detected in other months that preceded or followed a month of non-
detection with either filtration or EP. Yet, this anomaly was also observed across in-
season months where great crested newts went undetected in 10 ponds in one month
but were detected in preceding or following months with either EP or filtration. This
highlights the influence of eDNA capture method and population dynamics on great
crested newt eDNA detection. Great crested newts exist as spatially structured
populations with many interconnected sub-populations within the wider landscape.
Individuals are capable of frequent short-distance (<400 m) dispersal and occasionally
long-distance (>1 km) dispersal between ponds. Some ponds are 'sources' (i.e. core
breeding ponds) whereas others 'sinks' (i.e. occupied but not primarily used for
breeding), resulting in a patchy population or metapopulation structure depending on
the direction of dispersal. Sources and sinks can change over time due to
environmental conditions (Griffiths et al., 2010; Unglaub, Cayuela et al., 2021).

As the highest number of positive ponds with either eDNA capture method was
observed in May, the peak month of the core breeding season, regulators need to
consider what acceptable levels of uncertainty and error are if eDNA surveys are
undertaken in different months of the breeding season or outside the breeding season.

Waterbodies occupied by breeding great crested newt adults, eggs or larvae may
produce false negatives if they support fewer individuals or were not sampled when
breeding activity peaked (both of which increase the rate of eDNA release and amount
of eDNA present), they were not utilised by great crested newts in a given year, all eggs
and larvae were predated, or the pond temporarily dried then refilled. In our study, two
ponds that dried by July or August were occupied by great crested newts from April to
June or July, and four ponds were occupied in April and/or May before drying. More
ponds are likely to experience temporary drying before refilling in winter with declines in
summer precipitation and increases in summer temperature and winter precipitation
(Griffiths et al., 2010). Therefore, variable use of ponds is a key consideration for out-of-
season survey.

Waterbodies occupied by non-breeding great crested newt adults in spring only may not
be identified by eDNA surveys in July and August, resulting in false negatives (Buxton
et al., 2017, 2021b). Similarly, waterbodies without larvae and increasingly fewer great
crested newt adults as they disperse during out-of-season months, or waterbodies that
are sporadically used by great crested newt adults and sub-adults for foraging and
refuge in out-of-season months, may produce false negatives if great crested newts are
not present at densities that would produce sufficient amounts of eDNA for detection
(Buxton et al., 2021b; Priol et al., 2023). Cruickshank et al. (2021) found the number of
non-breeding amphibian populations in Switzerland was substantially higher than
breeding populations, and non-breeding populations had lower detection probabilities
than breeding populations due to lower abundance. Extinction risk of non-breeding
populations may be lowered through habitat management thereby increasing breeding
probability. Therefore, identification of non-breeding populations is key in promoting the
favourable conservation status of a species.

Out-of-season great crested newt survey is unlikely to be appropriate for determining
species absence and is an important caveat attached to regulatory acceptance of out-
of-season eDNA survey. Interpretation of non-detections out-of-season as great crested
newts being absent poses a potential risk to conservation or mitigation under UK and

European legislation (Buxton et al., 2021a, b). To account for this risk, waterbodies that

produce a negative result out-of-season should also be resurveyed the following spring

to confirm whether great crested newts are indeed present or absent.

Nonetheless, false negatives can be encountered with any monitoring tool (Buxton et

al., 2021a, 2022) as evidenced by non-detection with torching, bottle trapping or refuge

searches at three ponds in October which produced positive eDNA results albeit with

low eDNA scores. These detections highlight the detection sensitivity of eDNA analysis

for detecting ponds with low numbers of great crested newts, possibly facilitated by

processing more water (Rees et al., 2023). Other studies have also shown eDNA

detection via single species or metabarcoding assays outperformed conventional survey

methods for amphibians (Moss et al., 2022; Wikston et al., 2023), including great

crested newts (Biggs et al., 2014, 2015; L. R. Harper et al., 2018; Priol et al., 2023;

Rees et al., 2014).

Ideally, multiple survey methods and repeated sampling events should be used to

minimise false negatives, including eDNA and conventional surveys where time and

resources allow (Moss et al., 2022; Rees et al., 2014; Wikston et al., 2023). False

negatives could also be minimised by increasing biological or field sample replication

(Buxton et al., 2021a, 2022; L. R. Harper et al., 2018). False positive detections, as

potentially indicated by a low eDNA score (Buxton et al., 2022), could also be verified by

reanalysing samples (Rees et al., 2014), increasing the eDNA score threshold for

classing a sample as positive (Buxton et al., 2021a), or applying statistical models that

account for false negative and false positive error rate (Buxton et al., 2021a, 2021b,

2022; Griffin et al., 2020). The Griffin et al. (2020) model indicated a moderate portion of

detections in our study could be false positives originating from field sample collection,

whether due to contamination from surveyors, other wildlife or hydrological connectivity,

yet no field negative controls returned unexpected results (see section 4.1). The

eDNAShinyApp package was not well-equipped to handle our experimental design (i.e.

repeat visits to the same ponds), and we had a small number of sites, so it is possible

that the false positive rate observed is inflated. The development of a multi-scale

occupancy model with a hierarchical dependence structure that can handle repeat visits using multiple methods for eDNA data would enable more accurate estimation of false positive and false negative error rates. In the interim, applying the Griffin et al. (2020) model to similar data sets involving unique sites may improve understanding of false positive and false negative error rates for different eDNA capture methods and survey dates. However, all of the measures described to handle false positives would require further modification to the approved great crested newt eDNA protocol (Biggs et al., 2014).

Critically, surveys could not be conducted in February and March 2022 due to the timeframe for funding proposal submission, review, and acceptance. However, great crested newt adults are known to start returning to waterbodies in these months and even begin breeding in February and March (Buxton et al., 2017; Rees et al., 2017), especially in colder climates (L. R. Harper et al., 2019). Compared to in-season months, Rees et al. (2017) observed lower eDNA scores in February but similar eDNA scores in March. Additional work is needed to confirm whether survey in these months produces detection rates comparable with April to August or lower detection rates like those seen in September and October in the present study and previous studies (Buxton et al., 2018a, b; Rees et al., 2017). Ideally, this would be contracted by regulators in a large-scale, multi-year evaluation of great crested newt eDNA detection in-season versus out-of-season (February to October), encompassing waterbodies of known great crested newt status and variable eDNA scores throughout the UK which span the full spectrum of physicochemical variability seen in these systems (Rees et al., 2017, 2023). However, local-scale evaluations (either independent or as part of regulatory monitoring) will also generate vital evidence that will further improve understanding of out-of-season great crested newt eDNA detection and allow regulators to make informed decisions.

4.3. eDNA capture method

EP and filtration were comparable in terms of eDNA yield and eDNA score in the published studies that have compared both eDNA capture methods for great crested newt DNA to date (Buxton et al., 2017, 2018b; Rees et al., 2024). In the present field study, we found that filtration outperformed EP, both in terms of number of positive ponds and eDNA score, echoing other published work where filtration outperformed EP for targeted eDNA analysis (e.g. Hinlo et al., 2017; Minamoto et al., 2015; Peixoto et al., 2020; Spens et al., 2016; Troth et al., 2020).

Importantly, there were key differences between our study and previous works. Buxton et al. (2017, 2018b) surveyed eight small ponds (600 L, 1 m by 2 m and up to 0.6 m deep) within a small plot of land owned by the University of Kent. A single 1 L surface water sample was taken from the centre of each pond, thus the field protocol differed to Biggs et al. (2014). Glass microfibre (0.7 μm) filters were used and frozen until DNA extraction. More recently, Rees et al. (2024) analysed polyvinylidene difluoride (0.45 μm) filters from 88 natural ponds across Cheshire, Yorkshire and Norfolk, with filtered volumes ranging from 25 mL to a maximum of 500 mL. An ethanol-based preservative solution was added to filters for storage at ambient temperature for up to 8 weeks prior to DNA extraction. In our study, ponds ranged in surface area from 2 to 2,770 m^2 (mean = 238.68 m^2, median = 80 m^2; Table 1), and the field protocol from Biggs et al. (2014) was adapted to accommodate larger subsamples and greater total sample volume. Polyethersulfone (0.8 μm) filters with glass fibre pre-filters (5 μm) were used and Longmire's solution added for storage at ambient temperature for up to 1 week prior to DNA extraction. Therefore, successful filtration and greater detection in the present field study may be due to pond characteristics, sampling strategy, volume of water collected and filtered, filter material and pore size, inclusion of a pre-filter, use of a peristaltic pump, and/or preservation strategy.

Nonetheless, EP and filtration were inconsistent as standalone methods across all months and produced incongruent results to each other for individual months. Often,

great crested newts were detected with one eDNA capture method but not the other
across several months, or great crested newts were detected in one month but not the
next month with a single eDNA capture method. Each eDNA capture method produced
different results to the other method within a given month for 18 ponds. Filtration
produced incongruent results in eight ponds across several months. EP produced
incompatible results in 10 ponds across several months. During in-season months, 12
ponds that were positive for great crested newt DNA with filtration tested negative with
EP, representing 12 potential failures to protect great crested newts under current
legislation due to filtration not being accepted by regulators in line with best practice for
eDNA analysis. This contrasts with two ponds that tested positive with EP and negative
with filtration. During out-of-season months, four ponds that were positive with filtration
tested negative with EP, and one pond that was positive with EP tested negative with
filtration. Inconsistent eDNA results using EP and filtration at the same ponds were also
observed by Rees et al. (2024). Similar to in-season versus out-of-season detection,
inconsistent detection between eDNA capture methods introduces some uncertainty
and risk of false negatives with either eDNA capture method. This could be mitigated by
using both eDNA capture methods at ponds being surveyed, but this would inherently
increase survey time and cost. A compromise may be to resurvey ponds that are
negative with EP kits using filtration kits.

The advantages of filtration for field surveyors and laboratories as well as evidenced
efficiency indicate that regulators should consider acceptance of filtration methods for
non-regulated application at local scales. However, persistent barriers to uptake may be
the high variability in filters (e.g. material, diameter, pore size, surface area) available to
buy from scientific suppliers (Rees et al., 2023) as well as the strategies to preserve
captured DNA (e.g. freezing, silica beads, preservation buffers) and storage conditions
(e.g. temperature, duration), which can all influence the quality and quantity of eDNA
extracted from samples and subsequently species detection (Hinlo et al., 2017; Jeunen
et al., 2019; Minamoto et al., 2015; Peixoto et al. 2020; Spens et al., 2016). Concerns
have also been expressed over effort required for manual filtration using syringes, filter
clogging, negative eDNA results obtained with EP in previous surveys being

undermined, a mismatch in detection sensitivity between filtration and ecologists
performing population surveys, value of monitoring small, non-breeding populations,
and implications for downstream analysis including proficiency and degradation testing
(Rees et al., 2023, 2024). In particular, increased time and physical effort required for
manual filtration using syringes (Andreou et al., 2023) may reduce the number of ponds
(or sites) that can be surveyed in a single day and subsequently increase survey costs.
In the present study, filtration time was ~20 minutes compared to ~10 minutes for EP,
but using a peristaltic pump which may not always be logistically or financially feasible
(Buxton et al., 2018b). Syringe filtration assisted by a silicone gun may be a suitable
compromise to remove the need for a pump and increase volume filtered but reduce
surveyor time and discomfort (Andreou et al., 2023). A standardised volume of water to
process with filtration will also be necessary to ensure consistency and comparability for
regulatory monitoring whilst maintaining the same level of detection sensitivity (Andreou
et al., 2023; Buxton et al., 2018b).

More broadly, changing methods could have implications for the national great crested
newt eDNA data set. Changing protocols in long-term monitoring schemes, particularly
statutory or regulatory monitoring, is challenging due to the need for consistency and
comparability of resulting data and potential for introducing bias. Indeed, this is a
challenge frequently encountered when end users decide to incorporate eDNA survey
into a monitoring scheme that has traditionally used other methods. Calibration is
needed to assess and remove variability, such as that undertaken for acceptance of
eDNA survey for great crested newt (Biggs et al., 2014, 2015) and determining the
European Union Water Framework Directive for the lake fish biological element using
eDNA metabarcoding (Sellers et al., 2024) in the UK. Alternatively, modelling is needed
to assess changes in detection sensitivity resulting from methodological change, as
applied to bighead carp and Asian carp eDNA monitoring in the United States (Song et
al., 2019). Similar considerations are required for any changes to laboratory processing
of great crested newt eDNA samples (Rees et al., 2023).

Additional evidence and a cost-benefit analysis of different filtration approaches (e.g.
manual, pump-driven, on-site, off-site) versus EP is needed to overcome some of the
aforementioned barriers and to determine the optimal filtration method for regulated
application at national scale (Rees et al., 2023, 2024). To generate that evidence, two
approaches may be considered. First, experiments, similar to the present study, are
carried out that encompass waterbodies of known great crested newt status throughout
the UK which span the full spectrum of physicochemical variability seen in these
systems. The results would provide definitive answers for nationwide application.
Alternatively, regulatory acceptance of results from projects similar to this study would
allow local/regional great crested newt eDNA surveys to be conducted using filtration.
This would require these projects to survey 10-20 ponds that capture the spectrum of
physicochemical variability seen in the locality or region. With either approach, the
filtration conditions (e.g. on-site versus off-site, manual versus pump, pore size, material
etc.) should be taken into account. It would be beneficial for any future validation
experiments to incorporate filter types and preservatives that have already been
validated in other local contexts (Buxton et al., 2018b; Rees et al., 2024). Allowing
various filter types and preservatives to be used nationally would not be robust and
likely increase the rate of false negatives relative to that of current EP kits (Biggs et al.,
2014, 2015) unless a study comparing filter types and preservatives at national scale
was also undertaken.

909   4.4. Population size

Links between population size and amount of eDNA present continue to be inconsistent
in the eDNA literature, with some studies finding a positive relationship and others
finding no relationship. In natural systems, biotic and abiotic factors can influence the
release, persistence, and degradation of eDNA, and these effects may be exacerbated
in ponds which exhibit greater physical and chemical heterogeneity (L. R. Harper et al.
2019). Buxton et al. (2017) found that adult numbers influenced eDNA concentration
during the breeding season, but number of larvae and their size were the main drivers
of eDNA concentration outside the breeding season. In our study, adult population size

in the breeding season did not influence any permutation of eDNA score tested.
However, different ponds were surveyed with different methods, including bottle,
torchlight, netting and refuge searches (Table 1). Newt counts via torchlight can be
compromised by water turbidity, vegetation cover, or weather conditions which affect
visibility, and temperature which affects newt activity. Counts via refuge searching are
also less reliable than other survey methods as even if newts are present, they may not
be using refuges (Langton et al., 2001). Furthermore, methods for counting adults may
only produce a minimum estimate of population size (Griffiths & Inns, 1998), and high
adult counts may not correspond to breeding adults who are more likely to shed DNA.
These factors as well as environmental conditions may be why no relationship was
found here.

4.5. Change brings opportunity

In mainland Europe, where great crested newt eDNA monitoring is not subject to the
same regulations as the UK, out-of-season sampling and filtration are frequently used.
In Denmark, citizen scientists were recruited to collect filters from waterbodies between
May and September for qPCR analysis of 14 species, including great crested newt
(Knudsen et al., 2023). In Norway, water samples were collected in May and July then
filtered off-site for qPCR analysis to examine presence of amphibians, including great
crested newt, and chytrid fungus (*B. dendrobatidis*) in acidic ponds (Strand et al., 2022).
Also in Norway, filters were analysed with droplet digital PCR assays for great crested
newt, smooth newt (*Lissotriton vulgaris*) and chytrid fungus (*B. dendrobatidis*) to
examine infection and potential declines (Taugbøl et al., 2021), and optimise field
methods (Taugbøl et al., 2025). In France, qPCR analysis of filters collected in spring
was used to investigate great crested newt occupancy alongside other methods (Priol et
al., 2023).

The literature grows when studies with a whole community focus using eDNA
metabarcoding are included. In Denmark, eDNA metabarcoding of filters collected in
July was compared to conventional surveys for amphibians including great crested newt

(Svenningsen et al., 2022). In Switzerland, eDNA metabarcoding of filters was used to
examine distribution of great crested newt in relation to the invasive Italian crested newt
(*Triturus carnifex*) and potential for hybridisation (Dufresnes et al., 2019). Also in
Swtizerland, water samples were collected and filtered off-site for eDNA metabarcoding
to examine amphibian distribution in urban areas (Charvoz et al., 2021). In the
Netherlands, filters collected in April were analysed with qPCR analysis for chytrid
fungus (*B. salamandrivorans*) and eDNA metabarcoding for amphibians to investigate
possible transmission and infection (Davison et al., 2025).

These studies demonstrate the broader applicability of eDNA analysis for understanding
great crested newt ecology, including distribution, occupancy, species interactions and
disease susceptibility. Some studies examined the false positive and false negative
error rate associated with their methods, but sampling was typically not repeated to
examine the influence of survey timing and filtration was not compared to EP.
Therefore, the future investigations described in sections 4.2 and 4.3 are still needed to
ground truth and calibrate out-of-season survey and filtration, but this investment will
allow for greater insights from great crested newt eDNA survey.

5. Conclusions

We have provided strong evidence that great crested newt eDNA detection is
comparable or higher with filtration compared to EP, echoing many studies
demonstrating this for other species and supporting a small number evidencing this for
the great crested newt. Therefore, we recommend that this approach be included as an
accepted eDNA capture method for great crested newt eDNA surveys. This will allow
more water to be processed for robust and reliable estimates of great crested newt
presence. Extending the great crested newt eDNA survey season to August could allow
more potential great crested newt sites to be surveyed to assess species presence (but
not absence for reasons discussed) and identification of ponds that provide important
habitat for great crested newts outside of the breeding season. This will also remove the

logistical challenges and costs associated with surveying all potential great crested newt
sites and sending eDNA samples to a laboratory within 10 weeks, improving
performance of surveyors and laboratories as well as quality of results. Furthermore, it
will allow eDNA surveys for great crested newts to be carried out alongside ecological
surveying and monitoring for other species. This will enable infrastructure projects to
develop more effective mitigation measures as well as reduce time required from
surveyors and survey costs.

We have highlighted future investigations that should be conducted to optimise great
crested newt eDNA surveys and implement the changes desired by developers
planning projects, consultants working in the field, and technicians working in the
laboratory. However, change will only be possible with regulatory acceptance and
incorporation of new evidence into established frameworks. Actions needed to extend
the great crested newt eDNA survey season and use filtration for great crested newt
eDNA capture are: 1) further consultation with regulators (i.e. Nature England,
NatureScot, Natural Resources Wales), the Chartered Institute of Ecology and
Environmental Management which oversees the ecological consultancy industry, and
amphibian conservation organisations regarding the results of the present study and
their interpretation, 2) consideration of the results from the present study together with
other published evidence, 3) undertaking of a similar study to that reported here but
including eDNA survey in February and March, and 4) validation experiments on
filtration as a method of great crested newt eDNA capture at local, regional and national
scale to enable regulatory acceptance at the corresponding spatial scale.

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Author contributions

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Lynsey Harper and Bastian Egeter designed the study; Kat Stanhope managed the
project on behalf of HS2 Ltd; Kirsten Harper performed the literature review; Suzie
Platts, Laura Plant, Danielle Eccleshall, Luke Gorman and Kat Stanhope facilitated
sample collection and provided supporting data; Rebecca Irwin and Michael Bennett

performed the laboratory work; Ben Jones, Oliver Taylor and Lynsey Harper analysed
the data; Lynsey Harper wrote the manuscript, which all authors revised and gave final
approval for publication.
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Conflict of interest
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Lynsey Harper is employed by Natural England but they do not endorse this work.
Some of this data has been published on the HS2 Learning Legacy website:
https://learninglegacy.hs2.org.uk/document/environmental-dna-surveys-for-great-
crested-newts-time-for-regulatory-changes/. Rebecca Irwin, Andrew Briscoe and
Bastian Egeter are employed by NatureMetrics Ltd, a for profit company dedicated to
the analysis of environmental DNA. Suzie Platts is employed by Binnies, and Danielle
Eccleshall and Luke Gorman are employed by AtkinsRéalis, for profit environmental
consultancies. Kat Stanhope is employed by National Grid, a for profit electricity, natural
gas and clean energy delivery company.
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Data availability

Scripts and corresponding data have been deposited in a dedicated Zenodo repository (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.16544635).

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