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Complex interactions between environmental DNA (eDNA) state and water chemistries on eDNA persistence suggested by meta-analyses

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Running head:
Meta-analyses of eDNA persistence and state
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Abstract
Understanding the processes of environmental DNA (eDNA) persistence and degradation is
essential to determine the spatiotemporal scale of eDNA signals and accurately estimate
species distribution. The effects of environmental factors on eDNA persistence have
previously been examined; however, the influence of the physiochemical and molecular states
of eDNA on its persistence is not completely understood. Here, we performed meta-analyses
including 26 previously published papers on the estimation of first-order eDNA decay rate

35	constants, and assessed the effects of filter pore size, DNA fragment size, target gene, and
36	environmental conditions on eDNA decay rates. Almost all supported models included the
37	interactions between the filter pore size and water temperature, between the target gene and
38	water temperature, and between the target gene and water source, implying the influence of
39	complex interactions between the eDNA state and environmental conditions on eDNA
40	persistence. These findings were generally consistent with the results of a re-analysis of a
41	previous tank experiment which measured the time-series changes in marine fish eDNA
42	concentrations in multiple size fractions after fish removal. Our results suggest that the
43	mechanism of eDNA persistence and degradation cannot be fully understood without
44	knowing not only environmental factors but also cellular and molecular states of eDNA in
45	water. Further verification of the relationship between eDNA state and persistence is required
46	by obtaining more information on eDNA persistence in various experimental and
47	environmental conditions, which will enhance our knowledge on eDNA persistence and
48	support our findings.
10	

50 Introduction

51	Organisms release their DNA molecules into their surroundings, which are termed as
52	environmental DNA (eDNA) (Levy-Booth et al., 2007; Nielsen et al., 2007; Taberlet et al.,
53	2012). The analysis of eDNA has recently been applied to monitor the abundance and
54	composition of macro-organisms, such as fish and amphibians (Ficetola et al., 2008;
55	Bohmann et al., 2014; Deiner et al., 2017). Detection of eDNA in water samples does not
56	involve any damage to the target species and their habitats, thus enabling non-invasive and
57	cost-effective monitoring of species in aquatic environments, contrary to traditional
58	monitoring methods such as capturing and observing (Darling & Mahon, 2011). However, the
59	characteristics and dynamics of eDNA are not yet completely understood, and thus, the
60	spatiotemporal scale of eDNA signals at a given sampling time and location is not certain,
61	which can result in false-positive or false-negative detection of eDNA in natural environments
62	(Darling & Mahon, 2011; Hansen et al., 2018; Beng & Corlett, 2020).
63	To determine the spatiotemporal scale of eDNA signals and accurately estimate
64	species presence/absence and abundance in the environment, understanding the processes of
65	eDNA persistence and degradation is important. Aqueous eDNA is detectable from days to
66	weeks (Barnes & Turner, 2016; Collins et al., 2018), depending on various environmental

67	factors. For example, moderately high temperature (Strickler et al., 2015; Eichmiler et al.,
68	2016; Lance et al., 2017; Jo et al., 2020b) and low pH (Strickler et al., 2015; Lance et al,
69	2017; Seymour et al., 2018) accelerate eDNA degradation, whereas the effect of UV-B
70	radiation was contradictory among studies (Strickler et al., 2015; Mächler et al., 2018). In
71	addition, eDNA decay rates are higher in environments with higher species biomass density
72	(Bylemans et al., 2018; Jo et al., 2019a). These abiotic and biotic factors contribute to the
73	increase in microbial activities and abundance in water, thus indirectly affecting eDNA
74	degradation (Strickler et al., 2015). Moreover, eDNA decay rates were found to be different
75	between the trophic states of studied lakes, and were negatively correlated with the dissolved
76	organic carbon (DOC) concentrations (Eichmiller et al., 2016). This may be attributed to the
77	binding of DNA molecules to humic substances, protecting eDNA from enzymatic
78	degradation.
79	However, apart from the effects of such environmental conditions, little is known
80	about the influence of the physiochemical and molecular states of eDNA on its persistence
81	and degradation. Fish eDNA has been detected at various size fractions (<0.2 μm to >180 μm
82	in diameter; Turner et al., 2014; Jo et al., 2019b) in water, suggesting that eDNA is present as
83	various states and cellular structures, from larger-sized and intra-cellular DNA (e.g., cell and

84	tissue fragments) to smaller-sized and extra-cellular DNA (e.g., organelles and dissolved
85	DNA). Enzymatic and chemical degradation of DNA molecules in the environment depends
86	on the presence of cellular membranes around the DNA molecules, and thus, the persistence
87	of eDNA is likely to be linked to its state. In addition, eDNA persistence may be different
88	depending on the target genetic regions. Recent studies have suggested that eDNA decay rates
89	may vary between mitochondrial and nuclear DNA (Bylemans et al., 2018; Moushomi et al.,
90	2019; Jo et al., 2020b). Moreover, studies comparing eDNA degradation between different
91	target DNA fragment lengths (i.e. PCR amplification length) have yielded inconsistent
92	conclusions; Jo et al. (2017) and Wei et al. (2018) reported higher eDNA decay rates for
93	longer DNA fragments, whereas Bylemans et al. (2018) did not observe any difference in the
94	eDNA decay rates of different DNA fragment sizes. Notably, Jo et al. (2020c) reported that
95	selective collection of larger-sized eDNA using a larger pore size filter increased the ratio of
96	long to short eDNA concentrations and altered the ratio of nuclear to mitochondrial eDNA
97	concentrations; however, such reports linking eDNA state to its persistence are scarce.
98	Although our understanding of the relationship between eDNA state and persistence
99	is currently limited, this relationship can be inferred by integrating previous findings of eDNA
100	persistence and degradation. Here, we used meta-analyses to examine the relationship

101	between eDNA states and persistence. We extracted data on filter pore size, DNA fragment
102	size, target gene, and environmental parameters from previous studies estimating first-order
103	eDNA decay rate constants, and investigated the influence of these factors on eDNA
104	degradation. By assembling and integrating the results of previous eDNA studies, our meta-
105	analyses revealed the hitherto unknown relationships between eDNA state and persistence,
106	which could not have been observed in the individual studies. Furthermore, we assessed the
107	validity of the findings of the meta-analyses by re-analysing the dataset from a previous tank
108	experiment (Jo et al., 2019b).
109	
110	Materials and methods
111	1. Literature search and data extraction
112	We searched for literature relating to eDNA persistence and degradation, published during
113	2008 to 2020 (final date for the literature search was 20 Jun 2020), using Google Scholar
114	(<u>https://scholar.google.co.jp/</u>). The terms "eDNA" or "environmental DNA", included in the
115	title and/or text, were used for the literature search. We then filtered and selected papers that
116	(i) targeted eDNA from macro-organisms (i.e. not from microbes, fungi, plankton, virus, and

118	described aqueous eDNA decay rate constants using a first-order exponential decay model
119	$(C_t = C_0 e^{-kt})$, where C_t is the eDNA concentration at time t , C_0 is the initial eDNA
120	concentration, and k is the first-order decay rate constant). The eDNA decay rate constants
121	estimated using multi-phasic exponential decay models (e.g. biphasic or Weibull models)
122	(Eichmiller et al., 2016; Bylemans et al., 2018; Wei et al., 2018) were not included in our
123	meta-analyses, because of the limited number of such studies and difficulty in directly
124	comparing the constants between first-order and multi-phasic models.
125	From the filtered eDNA studies, we then extracted data on the eDNA decay rate
126	constant (per hour), filter pore size used for water filtration (μm), target DNA fragment size
127	(base pair; bp), and target gene (mitochondrial or nuclear). The decay rate constant was
128	converted to "per hour" if it was originally described as "per day". Different eDNA decay rate
129	constants based on different experimental conditions within the same study (e.g. species,
130	temperature, pH, and biomass density) were treated separately. The filter pore size in studies
131	involving aqueous eDNA collection via ethanol precipitation or centrifugation was regarded
132	as 0 μ m. In addition, we extracted information on the water temperature (°C), water source
133	used for experiments, and target species and taxa. Although other biotic and abiotic factors are
134	known to affect eDNA degradation, we extracted only temperature and water source data,

135	because of their consistent and informative descriptions in all selected papers (i.e. other water
136	physicochemical parameters such as pH, conductivity, and dissolved oxygen were sometimes
137	not specified in the paper). If necessary, we used the mean temperature obtained by averaging
138	the maximum and minimum temperatures during the experimental period. Water source was
139	classified as 'artificial', including tap water and distilled water (DW); 'freshwater', including
140	wells, ponds, lakes, and river water; and 'seawater', including harbour, inshore, and offshore
141	seawaters. Because Moushomi et al. (2019) had estimated decay rates of Daphnia magna
142	eDNA at each size fraction, we calculated total eDNA concentrations collected by a 0.2 μ m
143	pore size filter and ethanol precipitation, and re-estimated the eDNA decay rates (Appendix
144	S1).
145	
146	2. Statistical analyses
147	All statistical analyses were performed in R version 3.6.1 (R Core Team, 2019). We first
148	performed a generalized linear model (GLM) with Gaussian distribution to assess the
149	relationship between eDNA persistence, eDNA state, and environmental conditions. The
150	eDNA decay rate constants (per hour) were treated as the dependent variable, and the filter
151	pore size (µm), DNA fragment size (bp), target gene (mitochondrial or nuclear), water

152	temperature (°C), water source (artificial, freshwater, or seawater), and their primary
153	interactions were included as the explanatory variables. We first confirmed that the multi-
154	collinearity among the variables was negligible (1.028 to 1.096), by calculating the
155	generalized variance inflation factors (GVIF). We then selected models based on Akaike's
156	Information Criterion (AIC), using the <i>dredge</i> function in the 'MuMIn' package in R (Bartoń,
157	2019). We adopted the model with the smallest AIC value, and all models with \triangle AIC (i.e.
158	difference in the AIC value) less than two were selected as the supported models (Burnham &
159	Anderson, 2002). Moreover, we performed model averaging targeting all the supported
160	models ($\triangle AIC < 2$) to estimate the parameters averaged among the supported models (Rice et
161	al., 2018).
162	We performed an additional meta-analysis to examine the relationship between the
163	DNA fragment size and eDNA decay rate constant. Most eDNA studies conducted to date
164	have targeted short DNA fragments (<200 bp), and only three papers have reported eDNA
165	decay rates targeting longer DNA fragments (>200 bp); however, they yielded inconsistent
166	conclusions (Tables 1 & S1). Taking this into consideration and targeting eDNA decay rate
167	constants derived from <200 bp DNA fragments, we performed a linear regression to assess
168	the effect of DNA fragment size on eDNA degradation.

170 3. Re-analysis of the time-series changes in eDNA particle size distribution 171 To assess the validity of the findings of the meta-analyses, we re-analysed the dataset from a 172 previous study investigating the particle size distribution of eDNA derived from the 173 mitochondria and nuclei of Japanese jack mackerel (Trachurus japonicus) and the time-series 174 changes therein, after fish removal from tanks (Jo et al., 2019b). In the aforementioned study, 175 mitochondrial and nuclear eDNA degradation was examined under multiple size fractions, 176 and both degradations tended to be suppressed at smaller size fractions. We estimated the 177 eDNA decay rate constants at different size fractions using the dataset from the said study, 178 and assessed the variation in eDNA decay rates depending on the eDNA particle size, target 179 gene, and water temperature. Detailed information on the experimental design, water 180 sampling, and molecular analyses can be found in Jo et al. (2019b). 181 We included all eDNA samples that could pass through sequential filters with 10, 3, 182 0.8, and 0.2 µm pore sizes at 0, 6, 12, and 18 hours, which yielded four eDNA size fractions, 183 i.e. >10, 3-10, 0.8-3, and 0.2-0.8 µm. Linear regressions were performed between eDNA 184 concentrations (original concentration + 1 followed by log-transformation) and sampling time 185 points for each size fraction, target gene (mitochondrial or nuclear), and temperature level

186	(13, 18, 23, or 28 °C), to estimate the slope (i.e. eDNA decay rate constant) and the
187	corresponding 95% CI, using <i>lm</i> and <i>confint</i> functions in R, respectively. Here, the two fish
188	biomass levels (Small and Large; see Jo et al. (2019b)) were pooled to increase the sample
189	size. We then performed ANOVA to assess the relationship between eDNA degradation,
190	particle size, target gene, and temperature. We included the median of the slope (eDNA decay
191	rate) as the dependent variable, and the filter pore size, target gene, water temperature, and
192	their primary interactions as the explanatory factors.
193	
194	Results
195	1. Literature review
196	We selected 26 published penets in total including 106 aDNA decay rate constants, ranging
	we selected 20 published papers in total, including 100 eDNA decay fate constants, fanging
197	from 0.0005 to 0.6969 (per hour) (Tables 1 & S1). The filter pore size, DNA fragment size,
197 198	from 0.0005 to 0.6969 (per hour) (Tables 1 & S1). The filter pore size, DNA fragment size, and water temperature ranged from 0 to 3 μ m, 70 to 719 bp, and -1.0 to 36.0°C, respectively.
197 198 199	from 0.0005 to 0.6969 (per hour) (Tables 1 & S1). The filter pore size, DNA fragment size, and water temperature ranged from 0 to 3 μ m, 70 to 719 bp, and -1.0 to 36.0°C, respectively. The number of eDNA decay rate constants derived from mitochondrial and nuclear genes
197 198 199 200	we selected 26 published papers in total, including 106 eDIVA decay rate constants, ranging from 0.0005 to 0.6969 (per hour) (Tables 1 & S1). The filter pore size, DNA fragment size, and water temperature ranged from 0 to 3 μ m, 70 to 719 bp, and -1.0 to 36.0°C, respectively. The number of eDNA decay rate constants derived from mitochondrial and nuclear genes were 89 and 17, respectively, and those derived from artificial water, freshwater, and seawater

202 freshwater and marine fishes, whereas only few papers reported decay rates targeting

amphibians and other invertebrates.

204

205 2. Model selection

206 In the full model, interactions between filter pore size and water temperature and between 207 target gene and water temperature were statistically significant (both P < 0.05), and effects of 208 the filter pore size and interaction between fragment size and water source were marginally 209 significant (both P < 0.1) (Table 2). All supported models resulting from model selection 210 included the effects of filter pore size, target gene, and water source, whereas the effects of 211 fragment size and temperature were uncertain, owing to their small coefficient and large SE. 212 However, we focused on the effects of the interactions among variables; all supported models 213 included interactions between filter pore size and temperature (Figure 1) and between target 214 gene and temperature (Figure 2). In addition, 11 of the 13 models included the interaction 215 between target gene and water source (Figure 3). Other interactions were included in less than 216 four supported models, and the uncertainties of the corresponding coefficients were relatively 217 large. Moreover, model averaging also showed that the interactions between filter pore size

and temperature (P < 0.05), target gene and temperature (P < 0.001), and target gene and

219 water source (P < 0.001) were statistically significant (Table S2).

- Although DNA fragment size was included in most supported models, its effect was relatively small due to its high variability (Table 2). Considering the smaller number of eDNA decay rate constants targeting longer DNA fragments as mentioned previously, we instead assessed the relationship between the eDNA decay rate and shorter DNA fragment size (<200 bp). Consequently, the fragment size was found to have a significantly positive effect on the decay rate (P < 0.01; Figure S1).
- 226

227 *3. Re-analysis of the time-series changes in eDNA particle size distribution*

The ANOVA test showed that all factors significantly affected the eDNA decay rate constants (all P < 0.001, Table 3). Decay rate constants tended to be lower in smaller size fractions and at lower temperature levels, and were higher for nuclear than for mitochondrial genes (Figure 4). In addition, the interaction between filter pore size and temperature was a significant factor affecting the decay rate constant (P < 0.01), and interaction between target gene and temperature was marginally significant (P = 0.0902). Decay rates of eDNA were smaller for smaller size fractions, and there was a greater tendency to decay at higher temperature levelsthan at lower levels.

236

237 **Discussion**

238 Most studies conducted in the past decade have focused on the relation of eDNA persistence 239 with environmental conditions, and little attention has been paid to the relationship between 240 the persistence of eDNA and its cellular states and molecular structures. In the present study, 241 we integrated the findings of previous reports on eDNA and provided new insights into the 242 relationship between the persistence and state of eDNA. Our findings indicated significant 243 influences of the complex interactions between eDNA states and environmental factors on 244 eDNA persistence. 245 246 *1. Meta-analyses of eDNA literature* 247 Our meta-analyses showed that filter pore size, water temperature, target gene, and water 248 source could influence eDNA degradation, not as individual parameters but in conjunction. 249 We focused on three interactions that were included in almost all supported models and were 250 significant in the averaged model. Firstly, the interaction between filter pore size and water

251	temperature influenced eDNA decay rates (Figure 1). Considering that a larger pore size filter
252	can selectively collect eDNA particles in larger size fractions, our result implied that higher
253	water temperature could accelerate the degradation of eDNA in larger size fractions by a
254	greater degree than that in smaller size fractions. However, it is unlikely that smaller-sized
255	eDNA itself is less affected by higher temperature-mediated degradation, and its apparent
256	persistence can be increased by the inflow of eDNA from larger to smaller size fractions, as
257	described in Jo et al. (2019b). Organic matter in water, including eDNA, is degraded by
258	microbes and extra-cellular enzymes in the environment for uptake, and their activities are
259	promoted by moderately high temperatures (less than 50°C) (Price & Sowers, 2004; Nielsen
260	et al., 2007; Arnosti, 2014; Strickler et al., 2015). During the degradation processes, aqueous
261	eDNA in larger size fractions, such as intra-cellular DNA, is believed to flow into smaller size
262	fractions, such as extra-cellular DNA. This suggests that water temperature does not
263	uniformly influence the apparent degradation of eDNA among the different size fractions, and
264	the effect of temperature on eDNA degradation might be buffered in smaller-sized eDNA
265	particles. Thus, the effect of temperature on eDNA degradation would be smaller when using
266	a smaller pore size filter and collecting eDNA particles at various size fractions.

267	Secondly, the interaction between the target gene (nuclear or mitochondrial) and
268	water temperature influenced the eDNA decay rates; higher water temperature could
269	accelerate the degradation of nuclear eDNA by a greater extent when compared with
270	mitochondrial DNA (Figure 2). This may be attributed to the difference in the protection
271	conferred to the DNA molecules against the attack of extra-cellular enzymes in the
272	environment by the outer nuclear and mitochondrial membranes. In contrast to mitochondrial
273	DNA, which is surrounded by a non-porous outer membrane (Ernster & Schatz, 1981),
274	nuclear DNA is enclosed in a porous membrane (45-50 nm in diameter; Fahrenkrog & Aebi,
275	2003), rendering it more susceptible to environmental extra-cellular enzymes, and thus, more
276	likely be degraded by a greater degree at higher temperatures (Price & Sowers, 2004;
277	Strickler et al., 2015). However, these results should be interpreted with caution, because the
278	number of nuclear eDNA decay rate constants ($n = 17$) included was considerably lower than
279	that of mitochondrial eDNA decay rate constants ($n = 89$). It is necessary to estimate nuclear
280	eDNA decay rates in various environmental and experimental conditions in the future, which
281	would enable a more robust comparison of eDNA degradation between nuclear and
282	mitochondria DNA.

283	Thirdly, the interaction between the target gene and water source influenced the
284	eDNA decay rates (Figure 3). Although the effects of water source on eDNA degradation
285	differed between nuclear and mitochondrial DNA, it was evident that eDNA degradation was
286	suppressed in artificial waters, such as tap water and DW, when compared to that in natural
287	waters. Eichmiller et al. (2016) compared the degradation of common carp (Cyprinus carpio)
288	eDNA in natural waters with different trophic states, and found that eDNA decay rates in well
289	water were lower than those in eutrophic and oligotrophic waters, which could be attributed to
290	the lower microbial activity in the former. Our results were generally consistent with those of
291	Eichmiller et al. (2016). Using tap water and DW as water sources can lead to
292	underestimation of eDNA persistence in the natural environment. Moreover, no significant
293	difference could be observed in the eDNA decay rates between freshwater and seawater. The
294	difference in eDNA persistence between freshwater and seawater has previously been
295	reported; some studies indicated faster eDNA degradation in seawater than in freshwater
296	(Thomsen et al., 2012; Sassoubre et al., 2016), whereas Collins et al. (2018) showed that
297	eDNA degradation was higher in terrestrially-influenced inshore waters than in ocean-
298	influenced offshore environments. Marine systems are generally characterized by higher
299	salinity and ionic content, higher pH, and more stable temperatures when compared with

300	freshwater systems, which can promote DNA preservation in water (Okabe & Shimazu, 2007;
301	Schulz & Childers, 2011; Collins et al., 2018). However, the direct effects of microbial
302	abundance and composition and other physicochemical parameters of water were not included
303	in our meta-analyses. Thus, greater variations in eDNA decay rates in seawater when
304	compared with artificial water and freshwater observed in our meta-analyses might partly be
305	explained by such microbial and physicochemical conditions. The effects of various nutrient
306	salts and microbial activities on eDNA persistence and differences in the eDNA degradation
307	processes between freshwater and seawater systems require further investigation.
308	Contrary to these factors, model selection in the present study did not strongly
309	support the effects of DNA fragment size and its interactions with other variables on the
310	eDNA decay rate (Table 2), which may be due to the potential bias of DNA fragment sizes in
311	the eDNA studies included in the meta-analysis. Only three studies have previously estimated
312	eDNA decay rates in water targeting longer DNA fragments (>200 bp) (aqueous eDNA; Jo et
313	al. 2017; Weltz et al., 2017; Bylemans et al., 2018), and there was no consensus on the
314	relationship between eDNA degradation and DNA fragment size among these studies.
315	Although our additional meta-analysis, which targeted only shorter DNA fragments (70 to
316	190 bp), supported rapid eDNA degradation in longer DNA fragments, as suggested by Jo et

317	al. (2017) and Wei et al. (2018), the analysis might be considered slightly arbitrary, and thus,
318	the validity of the result would need to be tested in the future. Interactions between DNA
319	fragment size and other factors may become evident when more information is available on
320	eDNA persistence and degradation at different fragment sizes.
321	
322	2. Re-analysis of the time-series changes in eDNA particle size distribution
323	Our meta-analyses provided new insights into the relationship between eDNA persistence and
324	its state. We then re-analysed the dataset from a previous tank experiment (Jo et al., 2019b) to
325	estimate mitochondrial and nuclear eDNA decay rates at multiple size fractions and water
326	temperature levels. The results of the re-analysis appeared to be generally consistent with
327	those of the meta-analyses; as indicated by the meta-analyses, eDNA persistence depended on
328	the interactions between its size fraction, type of the target gene, and water temperature (Table
329	3; Figure 4). In particular, a significant interaction between filter pore size and temperature
330	indicated that inflow of the degraded, larger-sized eDNA into smaller size fractions could
331	buffer the effect of temperature on eDNA degradation in these smaller size fractions, as
332	described in previous sections. The dependence of eDNA degradation on water temperature
333	would likely be smaller when targeting smaller-sized eDNA or using a smaller pore size filter.

334	Some recent studies attempted to estimate species biomass and abundance by
335	integrating quantitative eDNA analysis and hydrodynamic modelling, allowing the
336	consideration of eDNA dynamics, such as its production, transport, and degradation (Carraro
337	et al., 2018; Tillotson et al., 2018; Fukaya et al., 2020). For a more accurate estimation,
338	environmental parameters affecting these eDNA dynamics may be included in the statistical
339	modelling framework. The effect of temperature on eDNA degradation can be minimized
340	during statistical modelling by considering eDNA particles at smaller fraction sizes, which
341	will allow simplification of the modelling procedure while retaining its accuracy and
342	reliability. However, considering the apparent suppression of eDNA degradation in smaller
343	size fractions, owing to the inflow of the degraded larger-sized eDNA, it is possible that such
344	smaller-sized eDNA yield 'older and less fresh' biological signals than the larger-sized eDNA.
345	Such legacy eDNA signals can result in false-positives during eDNA detection (Yamamoto et
346	al, 2016; Jo et al., 2017), in which case the use of eDNA particles in the smaller size fractions
347	would be disadvantageous for eDNA-based biomass or abundance estimation. The
348	applicability of smaller-sized eDNA for such estimations can be verified by comparing the
349	correlation between eDNA quantification and species biomass and abundance, and the

350 availability of longer eDNA fragments among the filter pore sizes or eDNA particle sizes, for

351 which meta-analyses such as the present study may be suitable.

352

353 *3. Limitations and perspectives*

We noted some potential biases and limitations of the dataset used in our meta-analyses.

- 355 Firstly, studies estimating the decay rates of nuclear eDNA were substantially fewer when
- 356 compared with those on mitochondrial eDNA, particularly in freshwater systems (Figure 3),
- 357 which might limit our ability to infer the effect of water source on eDNA degradation between
- 358 the target genes. In addition, eDNA decay rates targeting longer DNA fragments (>200 bp)
- and taxa other than fish were relatively scarce. Therefore, more information on eDNA
- 360 degradation should be collected by targeting different taxa and environments. Moreover,
- 361 estimation of eDNA decay rates using a 0.7 μm pore size filter appeared to be relatively more
- 362 common, which suggests greater knowledge of eDNA persistence in this filter pore size, and a
- 363 potential bias in our meta-analyses. Accumulating eDNA decay rates based on more varied
- 364 filter pore sizes and size fractions could contribute to our findings in the meta-analysis. In
- 365 addition, this knowledge might in the future contribute to revealing the relationships between

eDNA degradation and its cellular and molecular states (e.g., intra-/extra-cellular, genetic

367 region, DNA fragment size).

368 Although our findings and their implications require further verification, this study 369 is the first to propose that the persistence of eDNA from macro-organisms can be determined 370 by the state of the eDNA and its complex interactions with environmental conditions. That is, 371 the mechanism of eDNA persistence and degradation cannot be fully understood without 372 knowing not only the environmental biotic and abiotic factors involved in eDNA degradation 373 but also the cellular and molecular states of eDNA occurring in water. If our findings are 374 correct, the spatiotemporal scale and intensity of eDNA signals would be different depending 375 on the eDNA particle size and state. The fact that Weibull or biphasic exponential decay 376 models fit better to eDNA degradation implies the differences in eDNA persistence depending 377 its state (e.g., intra- or extra-cellular, living or dead cells, particulate or dissolved) (Eichmiller 378 et al., 2016; Bylemans et al., 2018), which support our results linking eDNA persistence to its 379 state. In natural environments, the persistence of nuclear and larger-sized eDNA could also be 380 more sensitive to environmental conditions including temperature and water chemistry, than 381 to mitochondrial and smaller-sized eDNA. Despite the potential to use nuclear and larger-382 sized eDNA in the estimation of population-level inferences and the improvement of the

383	detection sensitivity in the field (Minamoto et al., 2017; Jo et al., 2020b; Sigsgaard et al.,
384	2020), understanding the effect of biotic/abiotic factors on their degradation will be further
385	required particularly in the case of the estimation of species abundance/biomass based on
386	nuclear and larger-sized eDNA. Experimental verification of our findings and implications
387	will be necessary, which could clarify the characteristics and dynamics of aqueous eDNA and
388	contribute substantially to the development of eDNA analysis in the future.
389	
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395	
396	Supplemental Information
397	Appendix S1. Re-estimation of eDNA decay rates in Moushomi et al. (2019).
398	
399	Table S1. Detailed information on published studies estimating first-order eDNA decay rate
400	constants.
401	
402	Table S2. The result of model averaging targeting all the supported models.
403	
404	Figure S1. The effects of DNA fragment size on eDNA decay rate constant.
405	
406	Data accessibility
407	Detailed information on published studies estimating first-order eDNA decay rate constants
408	can be found in Supplemental Information.

409	
410	Author contribution
411	Both authors designed the study. T.J. performed a literature search, analysed the data, and
412	wrote the first draft of the manuscript. Both authors edited and provided feedback for the
413	manuscript.
414	
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588 Tables

Table 1. Published literature on the estimation of first-order eDNA decay rate constants included in the present study.

Study	# Decay rate constant	Filter pore size [µm]	Fragment size [bp]	Target gene	Temperature [°C]	Water source	Target taxa
Thomsen et al. (2012)	2	0.45	101 to 104	mt	15	Seawater	Fish
Barnes et al. (2014)	1	1.2	146	mt	25	Freshwater	Fish
Maruyama et al. (2014)	1	0	100	mt	20	Artificial	Fish
Strickler et al. (2015)	3	0.45	84	mt	5 to 35	Artificial	Amphibian
Eichmiller et al. (2016)	4	0.2	149	mt	5 to 35	Freshwater	Fish
Forsström & Vasemägi (2016)	1	0	75	mt	17	Artificial	Crustacean
Sassoubre et al. (2016)	5	0.2	107 to 133	mt	19 to 22	Seawater	Fish
Andruszkiewicz et al. (2017)	2	0.22	107	mt	17	Seawater	Fish
Jo et al. (2017)	2	0.7	127 to 719	mt	26	Seawater	Fish
Lance et al. (2017)	4	0.22	190	mt	4 to 30	Artificial	Fish
Minamoto et al. (2017)	1	0.7	151	mt	19	Seawater	Invertebrate
Sansom & Sassoubre (2017)	6	0.4	147	mt	22	Artificial	Invertebrate
Sigsgaard et al. (2017)	2	0.22	105	mt	35 to 36	Seawater	Fish
Tsuji et al. (2017)	6	0.7	78 to 131	mt	10 to 30	Freshwater	Fish
Weltz et al. (2017)	2	0.45	331	mt	4	Seawater	Fish
Bylemans et al. (2018)	12	1.2	95 to 515	mt & nu	20	Artificial	Fish
Collins et al. (2018)	8	0.22	132 to 153	mt	10 to 15	Seawater	Fish & Crustacean
Cowart et al. (2018)	1	0.45	70	mt	-1	Seawater	Fish
Nevers et al. (2018)	2	1.5	150	mt	12 to 19	Seawater	Fish
Nukazawa et al. (2018)	2	0.7	149	mt	21 to 22	Freshwater	Fish
Jo et al. (2019)	12	0.7	127	mt	13 to 28	Seawater	Fish
Moushomi et al. (2019)	4	0 to 0.2	101 to 128	mt & nu	20	Artificial	Invertebrate

Sengupta et al. (2019)	1	0	86	mt	23	Artificial	Invertebrate
Jo et al. (2020)	12	0.7	164	nu	13 to 28	Seawater	Fish
Kasai et al. (2020)	5	0.7	138	mt	10 to 30	Seawater	Fish
Sakata et al. (2020)	1	0.7	132	mt	17	Freshwater	Fish
Wood et al. (2020)	4	3	90 to 150	mt	19	Seawater	Invertebrate

592 Note: Abbreviations 'mt' and 'nu' indicate mitochondrial and nuclear DNA, respectively. Filter pore size in studies collecting eDNA via

593 ethanol precipitation or centrifugation was regarded as 0 μm.

Table 2. Results of model selection for the effects of filter pore size, DNA fragment size, target gene, temperature, and water source on the

596 first-order eDNA decay rates.

17 . 11.	GVIF	Full model		Model_1		Model_2		Model_3		
vanable		Coeff.	SE	P value	Coeff.	SE	Coeff.	SE	Coeff.	SE
Intercept		0.0506	0.0975	0.6050	0.0358	0.0552	0.0506	0.0563	0.0709	0.0582
Filter pore size	1.0308	-0.2269	0.1341	0.0942	-0.2058	0.0993	-0.2933	0.1099	-0.2911	0.1095
Fragment size	1.0440	0.0004	0.0005	0.3889	-0.0002	0.0001			-0.0001	0.0001
Gene (nu)	1.0472	-0.3073	2.5630	0.9048	-0.3591	0.1010	-0.3268	0.1012	-0.3365	0.1011
Temperature	1.0281	-0.0043	0.0038	0.2612	-0.0008	0.0026	-0.0012	0.0026	-0.0016	0.0026
Water source (fre)	1.0955	0.1909	0.1567	0.2266	0.0571	0.0272	0.0525	0.0555	0.0573	0.0554
Water source (sea)		0.0308	0.0791	0.6982	0.0858	0.0207	0.0452	0.0295	0.0491	0.0295
Filter pore size: Fragment size		-0.0004	0.0004	0.2547						
Filter pore size: Gene (nu)		0.0034	0.5853	0.9953						
Filter pore size: Temperature		0.0138	0.0056	0.0151	0.0130	0.0052	0.0142	0.0053	0.0149	0.0053
Filter pore size: Water source (fre)		-0.0164	0.0948	0.8632			0.0238	0.0841	0.0031	0.0853
Filter pore size: Water source (sea)		0.0709	0.0466	0.1318			0.0783	0.0351	0.0631	0.0368
Fragment size: Gene (nu)		-0.0001	0.0196	0.9969						
Fragment size: Temperature		0.0000	0.0000	0.7966						
Fragment size: Water source (fre)		-0.0015	0.0009	0.0796						
Fragment size: Water source (sea)		-0.0004	0.0003	0.1526						
Gene (nu): Temperature		0.0149	0.0047	0.0023	0.0162	0.0046	0.0158	0.0046	0.0156	0.0046
Gene (nu): Water source (fre)		n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Gene (nu): Water source (sea)		0.3064	1.0600	0.7731	0.3239	0.0491	0.2966	0.0484	0.3110	0.0495
Temperature: Water source (fre)		0.0041	0.0039	0.2964						
Temperature: Water source (sea)		0.0036	0.0033	0.2786						
AIC		-208.16			-217.38		-217.08		-217.00	
⊿AIC		9.22			0.00		0.30		0.38	

598 (Table 2 continued)

Voriable	Model_4		Model_5		Model_6		Model_7	
variable	Coeff.	SE	Coeff.	SE	Coeff.	SE	Coeff.	SE
Intercept	0.0647	0.0585	-0.0048	0.0838	0.0388	0.0553	0.0387	0.0553
Filter pore size	-0.3266	0.1109	-0.2579	0.1257	-0.2103	0.0996	-0.2103	0.0996
Fragment size	0.0000	0.0001	0.0005	0.0004	-0.0002	0.0001	-0.0002	0.0001
Gene (nu)	-0.3173	0.1013	-0.3193	0.1011	-0.3116	0.1145	-0.5802	0.2718
Temperature	-0.0019	0.0026	-0.0014	0.0026	-0.0010	0.0026	-0.0010	0.0026
Water source (fre)	0.2557	0.1359	0.2711	0.1363	0.0567	0.0272	0.0567	0.0272
Water source (sea)	0.0725	0.0379	0.0982	0.0439	0.0852	0.0207	0.0852	0.0207
Filter pore size: Fragment size			-0.0004	0.0004				
Filter pore size: Gene (nu)					-0.0615	0.0697		
Filter pore size: Temperature	0.0159	0.0053	0.0152	0.0053	0.0134	0.0052	0.0134	0.0052
Filter pore size: Water source (fre)	-0.0238	0.0894	-0.0164	0.0895				
Filter pore size: Water source (sea)	0.0789	0.0388	0.0738	0.0390				
Fragment size: Gene (nu)							0.0021	0.0023
Fragment size: Temperature								
Fragment size: Water source (fre)	-0.0014	0.0008	-0.0015	0.0009				
Fragment size: Water source (sea)	-0.0002	0.0002	-0.0004	0.0002				
Gene (nu): Temperature	0.0153	0.0046	0.0153	0.0046	0.0161	0.0046	0.0161	0.0046
Gene (nu): Water source (fre)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Gene (nu): Water source (sea)	0.2998	0.0500	0.3029	0.0500	0.3213	0.0493	0.2106	0.1383
Temperature: Water source (fre)								
Temperature: Water source (sea)								
AIC	-216.71		-216.25		-216.25		-216.23	
⊿AIC	0.67		1.13		1.13		1.15	

601 (Table 2 continued)

Variable	Model_8		Model_9		Model_10		Model_11	
variable	Coeff.	SE	Coeff.	SE	Coeff.	SE	Coeff.	SE
Intercept	0.0387	0.0553	0.0142	0.0636	0.0383	0.0557	0.0932	0.0685
Filter pore size	-0.2103	0.0996	-0.1781	0.1074	-0.2174	0.1001	-0.1777	0.1013
Fragment size	-0.0002	0.0001	0.0000	0.0002	-0.0002	0.0001	-0.0002	0.0001
Gene (nu)	-1.0870	0.1886	-0.3626	0.1014	-0.9222	0.1542	-0.3484	0.1026
Temperature	-0.0010	0.0026	-0.0006	0.0026	-0.0012	0.0026	-0.0036	0.0033
Water source (fre)	0.0568	0.0272	0.0535	0.0278	0.0594	0.0274	-0.0314	0.0825
Water source (sea)	0.0853	0.0207	0.0818	0.0215	0.0892	0.0207	0.0001	0.0660
Filter pore size: Fragment size			-0.0002	0.0003				
Filter pore size: Gene (nu)	0.1140	0.0762						
Filter pore size: Temperature	0.0134	0.0052	0.0128	0.0052	0.0139	0.0052	0.0115	0.0053
Filter pore size: Water source (fre)								
Filter pore size: Water source (sea)								
Fragment size: Gene (nu)	0.0059	0.0009			0.0054	0.0008		
Fragment size: Temperature								
Fragment size: Water source (fre)								
Fragment size: Water source (sea)								
Gene (nu): Temperature	0.0161	0.0046	0.0161	0.0046	0.0160	0.0047	0.0157	0.0047
Gene (nu): Water source (fre)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Gene (nu): Water source (sea)			0.3276	0.0496			0.3213	0.0492
Temperature: Water source (fre)							0.0044	0.0039
Temperature: Water source (sea)							0.0044	0.0032
AIC	-216.14		-215.91		-215.68		-215.61	
⊿AIC	1.24		1.47		1.70		1.77	

604 (Table 2 continued)

Variable	Model	_12	Model_13		
vanable	Coeff.	SE	Coeff.	SE	
Intercept	-0.0051	0.0514	-0.0558	0.0809	
Filter pore size	-0.1851	0.1000	-0.1340	0.1117	
Fragment size			0.0005	0.0004	
Gene (nu)	-0.3504	0.1022	-0.3527	0.1010	
Temperature	-0.0001	0.0026	-0.0002	0.0026	
Water source (fre)	0.0670	0.0270	0.2148	0.1109	
Water source (sea)	0.0932	0.0205	0.1282	0.0418	
Filter pore size: Fragment size			-0.0005	0.0004	
Filter pore size: Gene (nu)					
Filter pore size: Temperature	0.0117	0.0052	0.0125	0.0052	
Filter pore size: Water source (fre)					
Filter pore size: Water source (sea)					
Fragment size: Gene (nu)					
Fragment size: Temperature					
Fragment size: Water source (fre)			-0.0012	0.0008	
Fragment size: Water source (sea)			-0.0003	0.0002	
Gene (nu): Temperature	0.0164	0.0047	0.0160	0.0046	
Gene (nu): Water source (fre)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	
Gene (nu): Water source (sea)	0.3069	0.0490	0.3224	0.0494	
Temperature: Water source (fre)					
Temperature: Water source (sea)					
AIC	-215.50		-215.39		
⊿AIC	1.88		1.99		

Note: Abbreviation 'Coeff.' indicates the coefficient of each variable in GLM. Positive values for the coefficient of the variable 'Gene (nu)' indicate higher eDNA decay rate constant for nuclear than mitochondrial DNA. Positive values for the coefficient of the variable 'Water source (fre/sea)' indicate higher eDNA decay rate constant for freshwater or seawater than artificial water samples. The coefficient of the interaction 'Gene (nu): Water source (fre)' was not analysed because no study described eDNA decay rate constants using a nuclear DNA marker and freshwater samples. *P* values of each parameter are not shown in the model, except for the full model. Coefficients of each parameter are shown in bold.

Table 3. The result of the ANOVA test for the effects of eDNA particle size, target gene, and
water temperature on eDNA decay rate constants.

Response	Factor	F value	P value
Decay rate constant	Filter pore size	39.2770	***
	Gene	45.8534	***
	Temperature	27.3524	***
	Filter pore size: Gene	0.2535	0.8570
	Filter pore size: Temperature	5.9051	**
	Gene: Temperature	2.9600	0.0902

617

618 Note: Asterisks indicate the statistical significance of the factor (**, P < 0.01; ***, P <

619 0.001).

621 Figures

Figure 1. The effects of water temperature and filter pore size on eDNA decay rate constants.

623 Left, middle, and right graphs show the linear relationships between decay rate constants and

624 temperature targeting all filter pore sizes (circle), <0.45 μ m pore sizes (square), and >0.7 μ m

625 pore sizes (triangle), respectively. Bold and dotted lines indicate the regression line and the

626 corresponding 95% confidence intervals (CI) estimated by *lm* and *confint* functions in R,

627 respectively. R² values of the linear regressions are shown in the top-left corner of each

628 figure, and the asterisks indicate the statistical significance of the linear regressions (**, P <

629 0.01).



- 632 Figure 2. The effects of water temperature and target gene on eDNA decay rate constants.
- 633 Left, middle, and right graphs show the linear relationships between decay rate constants and
- 634 temperature targeting all genes (circle), mitochondrial DNA (square), and nuclear DNA
- 635 (triangle), respectively. Bold and dotted lines indicate the regression line and the
- 636 corresponding 95% CI estimated by *lm* and *confint* functions in R, respectively. R² values of
- 637 the linear regressions are shown in the top-left corner of each figure, and the asterisks indicate
- 638 the statistical significance of the linear regressions (*, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01).
- 639



Figure 3. The effects of water source and target gene on eDNA decay rate constants. Left, middle, and right graphs show the boxplots of eDNA decay rate constants targeting all genes, mitochondrial DNA, and nuclear DNA, respectively. In each graph, decay rate constants derived from artificial water, freshwater, and seawater are shown in white, bright grey, and dark grey, respectively. Note that no study described eDNA decay rate constants using a nuclear DNA marker and freshwater samples.

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Figure 4. The effects of eDNA particle size, water temperature, and target gene on eDNA
decay rate constants. Upper and lower graphs show the results for mitochondrial (bright grey)
and nuclear (dark grey) eDNA, respectively. Medians and 95% CI of eDNA decay rate
constants are indicated by circles and bars, respectively. Each filter pore size (10, 3, 0.8, and

- 653 0.2 μm) corresponded to a size fraction (>10, 3-10, 0.8-3, and 0.2-0.8 μm).
- 654



Filter pore size [µm]