

Contrasting strengths of eDNA and electrofishing compared to historic records for assessing fish community diversity and composition

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Abstract

In times of rapid environmental changes, baseline biodiversity data are crucial for management. In freshwaters, fish inventories are commonly based on the capture and morphological identification of specimens. The sampling of environmental DNA (eDNA) provides an alternative to assess diversity across large catchments. Here, we used extensive historic data of fish communities collected across 89 river sites in all major catchments of Switzerland and compared their diversity and community composition to a single campaign of eDNA and electrofishing, respectively. Locally, we found that eDNA provided diversity estimates similar to the integrated historic richness, while the electrofishing campaign captured a significantly lower local richness. Fish species locally recorded by electrofishing were nested (Jaccard's dissimilarity index) within the respective eDNA community for most sites. Finally, eDNA sequence reads positively correlated with the overall electrofishing biomass. Despite the congruences, the eDNA data did not correlate well with the electrofishing water quality index. Overall, eDNA was more accurately assessing overall diversity than a simultaneous electrofishing campaign, but yet cannot be directly used to calculate fish-based water quality indices.

Keywords: biomonitoring, fish, eDNA, rivers, indicators

37 **Introduction**

38 Fish are a highly diverse group of freshwater vertebrates. The increased pressure on
39 freshwater bodies (e.g., damming, settlements, chemical pollution, or nutrient loading) is
40 degrading natural habitats and consequently negatively affecting the associated fauna
41 (Dudgeon et al. 2021), in particular fish. Often, the severity of this loss for various spatial
42 (local, regional, global) and temporal (months to decades) scales cannot be quantified
43 robustly, because crucial baseline data of community composition and structure is lacking.
44 Inventories of fish species in freshwaters are commonly conducted by capturing specimens,
45 followed by morphological identification of the catch. Sampling can be done based on
46 gillnet, hoop, fyke or trap nets or (anecdotic) rod fishing, but for a more standardized and
47 comprehensive approach, electrofishing is the most widely accepted approach (Barbour et
48 al., 1999, Champ et al., 2009). However, electrofishing is logistically challenging, can only be
49 applied to wadable rivers up to a certain size, and may not be representative of all fish
50 species. The method is also invasive, having an adverse effect on the sampled specimens
51 and populations, which is especially impactful for rare or threatened species and small
52 populations (Snyder et al., 2003, Panel & Densmore, 2011). Like any method, inherent
53 methodological biases can lead to false absences (Richter et al. 2022), such as failing to
54 detect rare species, and species with certain life history traits (e.g., benthic fish are
55 underrepresented). Further, body size of fish (Millar et al. 2016) and local population
56 structure (Glover et al. 2019) as well as habitat characteristics (e.g., structural complexity)
57 (Korman et al. 2011) can interfere with capture efficiency of fish and lead to underestimated
58 fish diversity. These limitations lead to an incomplete assessment of local fish communities
59 and affect the accuracy of assessments of anthropogenic impacts on rivers. Overall,

60 electrofishing provides a spatially and taxonomically constrained inventory of fish species
61 diversity (Peterson et al. 2004, Rosenberger & Dunham, 2006, Lyon et al. 2014).
62 As a novel approach, environmental DNA (eDNA) based monitoring is increasingly
63 propagated to solve some of the limitations of the routine monitoring of aquatic life
64 (Taberlet et al. 2012, Pawlowski et al., 2018, Pawlowski et al., 2020, Deiner et al., 2021), yet
65 hitherto relatively small spatial scales were considered (e.g., catchment level) and there is a
66 high variability in matching data from eDNA with classic sampling (Keck et a. 2022). While
67 the sampling of eDNA, as any approach, has its own limitations (Goldberg et al. 2016, Evans
68 & Lamberti, 2018, Stauffer et al. 2021), it has been shown to be adequate for fish
69 community assessment in parallel sampling assays (Hänfling et al. 2016, Keck et al. 2022,
70 Pont et al. 2018). In particular, the sampling of eDNA as a monitoring method comes with
71 the benefit of being non-invasive, time-efficient, and spatially integrative over a larger area
72 (Deiner et al. 2017). The eDNA sampling approach can be applied to all freshwater systems,
73 including lentic (Harper et al., 2019; Hänfling et al., 2016) and lotic systems (Hallam et al.
74 2021, Pont et al. 2018, Blackman et al., 2021). In contrast to the commonly applied
75 methodologies for fish capture (e.g., electrofishing), eDNA sampling can be performed also
76 in large rivers that are not wadable, it does not rely on electrical equipment (anodes) and is
77 harmful for the sampled organisms. As eDNA relies purely on genetic traces, it not only has
78 a high sensitivity of detecting local species, but also detects species that are not physically
79 present at the sampled spot but where the signal is transported from upstream (Deiner &
80 Altermatt 2013, Carraro et al. 2020). This holds true especially for highly mobile organisms,
81 such as fish, that use various habitats within a stream and leave genetic material suspended
82 in the water column. Applied to a community context, eDNA sampling can provide

biodiversity information at a larger spatial scale (catchment level) for a variety of fish species when coupled with a metabarcoding approach.

Most past work, however, has either only compared eDNA and electrofishing at relatively small scales, often single reach systems, or has generally not been put into a historic context, that is, assessing how the fish community assessed at a single campaign fit into the regionally established species pool. Here, we used extensive historic data, electrofishing and eDNA sampling to characterize fish communities sampled in 89 rivers across all of Switzerland. We thereby integrated large spatial and temporal dimensions, by including rivers with catchment basins ranging between 25 km² to 3,345 km² and compared a single standardized sampling campaign (including both eDNA and electrofishing) to integrated decadal long-term data. Our study addressed four key points:

- i) How well do electrofishing and eDNA assessments capture the historically known fish diversity in a sub-catchment (i.e., time-integrated information), and how well correspond the two approaches to each other?
- ii) Are the fish taxa detected by electrofishing a nested subset of the eDNA results, as expected based on first principles of signal detection/transport?
- iii) How well do quantitative estimates from eDNA metabarcoding correspond to the biomass catch by electrofishing?
- iv) What is the potential of using eDNA based fish-community predictions for calculating biotic indices on water quality and how well does it match currently used biotic indices derived from electrofishing?

Methods

Fish community data

We base our analysis on 89 sampling sites distributed across all major rivers in Switzerland (Figure 1). From all of these sites we have extensive historic data and contemporary eDNA samples, and for a subset of 57 also contemporary electrofishing data. Historic data on fish communities encompass all cumulative data on fish from the Swiss data center on faunistic data (InfoSpecies, Neuchâtel, Switzerland). We retrieved data on all fish species recorded between 1990 and 2022 within a 5 x 5 km of our sampling site from the database InfoSpecies (part of GBIF, accessed 15.08.2022). Species that were recorded before 1990, that had a single occurrence, or that were recently reassigned to another species due to a wrong taxonomic classification (e.g., *Phoxinus phoxinus*) were excluded from the downstream analysis (Table S2). We also pooled records that contain morpho-types that are not distinguishable genetically on the barcode-region used (12S) due to their young evolutionary age (in particular, species within *Salmo* spp., *Coregonus* spp.). The database is a positive record database only, that is, all data on fish reported are aggregated, including systematic and also unsystematic sampling campaigns. Based on the 5x5 km area covered, reflecting part of the subcatchment, and the time-integration across the 32 years period, the list of species can be assumed to be near complete or complete of all fish species possibly occurring at the 89 study sites. We note, however, due to the integration across a large area and time scale, not all of these species may have been found ever together, yet reflect the pool of species to be possibly found at a given site. These historic data are used as our comprehensive inventory (“perfect knowledge” scenario) to which we compared the respective eDNA and electrofishing data.

128 *Field Sampling*

129 All 89 river sites were sampled for eDNA in 2019 and a subset of the sites (n = 57)
130 was also assessed with electrofishing at the same time. Sampling with both methods was
131 conducted as part of the regular NAWA sampling campaign, which is a Swiss wide
132 monitoring of fish communities conducted by the Swiss Federal Office for the Environment
133 (BAFU, 2013; BAFU, 2016). For the eDNA sampling, at each site, a total of 2 L of water was
134 sampled in spring 2019, and filtered across 4 Sterivex filters (0.22 µm pore size, Merck
135 Millipore, Merck KgaA, Darmstadt, Germany). Two of the samples (equivalent to 2 x 500 mL)
136 were taken at the right and two were taken at the left riverbank. In addition to the eDNA
137 samples, each sampling campaign included negative controls for which each field team
138 filtered 4 replicates of 500 mL of ddH₂O water (2 at the beginning, 2 at the end of the
139 campaign). The filters were sealed with Luer caps and placed in a cool box for transport to
140 the lab where samples were stored at –20 °C until further processing.

141 The electrofishing was conducted following the standard method for surface water
142 monitoring (Schager & Armin, 2004). At each site, fish were immobilized using electrical
143 anodes (mobile field team or stationary anode) along the river stretch sampling in a multi-
144 pass sampling (three passes per stretch). For each pass, the community composition, fish
145 specimen size, abundance, and biomass were documented. The fish specimens were
146 released back into the river stretch. For each site and each fish species, the average biomass
147 of individual species was calculated by dividing the total biomass collected of this species by
148 the number of individuals. From the three passes, the population size (total number of
149 individuals per site) and total biomass (sum of all specimens' biomass) were estimated.

150

151 *eDNA extraction and processing*

The DNA from the Sterivex filters was extracted in a cleanroom laboratory at Eawag, Switzerland (as described by Deiner et al., 2015). For this, the Qiagen PowerWater Sterivex Extraction Kit was used (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). All samples and negative controls from all sites were extracted in batches following the manufacturer's protocol. In the end, the DNA was eluted into 100 µl of elution buffer and stored until further processing at –20 °C. Negative controls, positive controls (tissue DNA extract from Atlantic Cod, *Gadus morhua*), and randomized samples were distributed over each 96-well PCR plate and were prepared for sequencing in a two-step library preparation. First, the 12S rRNA barcode region was amplified (size: 163–185 bp) for all the samples using MiFish-U-F/R primer pair—forward primer sequence: 5'-GTCGGTAAACTCGTGCCAGC-3' and reverse primer sequence: 5'-CATAGTGGGGTATCTAATCCCAGTTTG-3' (Miya et al., 2015).

The PCR reaction contained 0.5 µM of the forward and reverse primer each, 0.4 mg/mL BSA, 12.5 µL Q5 High Fidelity 2X Master Mix (New England Biolabs) and 2 µL template DNA in a final volume of 25 µl. The reaction followed the protocol of: initial denaturation of 98 °C for 5 min, followed by 35 cycles of 98 °C for 10 s, 65 °C for 20 s, and 72 °C for 30 s, and a final extension step of 72 °C for 7 min. The first PCR was carried out in four replicates that were pooled and cleaned up with SPRI beads (Applied Biological Materials Inc.) in 0.7x volume ratio and then used as a template for the second PCR. The second PCR consisted of 15 µl of clean product from the first PCR, 25 µl of the KAPA HIFI MasterMix and 5 µl of each adaptor from the Nextera XT Index Kit v2 (Illumina), following the subsequent PCR profile: initial denaturation 95 °C for 3 min, then 10 cycles of 95 °C for 30 s, 58 °C for 30 s, and 72 °C for 30 s, and a final extension step of 72 °C for 5 mins. All PCR products were checked on the QiAxcel Advanced System with the Screening Cartridge (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and the products were cleaned using 0.7 x SPRI beads. The DNA was then

quantified using the Spark 10M Multimode Microplate Reader (Tecan Group Ltd.) by using the Qubit dsDNA BR assay (Thermo Fisher) and a standard calibration curve. All samples were pooled at equimolar concentrations. The final pool was cleaned up 2 times with SPRI beads and a 0.7x ratio and the final product was verified on the Agilent TapeStation. and loaded onto a flow cell 17.6 pM concentration, with 10 % PhiX control. A paired-end 300 cycle (2 × 150 nt) sequencing was performed on an Illumina MiSeq (MiSeq Reagent Kit v3) following the manufacturer's run protocols (Illumina).

Bioinformatic Analysis

We use here the pipeline and bioinformatic analysis described in detail in Blackman et al. (2023) to process the raw data and used the same standardized workflow with optimized parameters for this library. In short, the raw reads were first filtered to remove low complexity reads and PhiX sequences. In the next step, the low-quality 3'-end were trimmed to improve read merging. We used an in-silico PCR approach to remove the primer site from the merged reads (amplicons). Subsequently, the amplicons were subjected to a quality- and a size-range filter. The cleaned amplicons were de-replicated prior to clustering with UNOISE (Edgar, 2016a). UNOISE3 includes error correction, zero-radius clustering and chimera removal. We used an abundance threshold of 10 reads to remove artificially produced and therefore untrustworthy singletons and rare zero-radius Operational Taxonomic Units (in brief: zOTUs). The cleaned reads were then mapped against a reference database.

Reference database

The raw sequencing data were analysed using a customized database build from fish specimens collected in a Swiss wide fish monitoring (see Alexander & Seehausen, 2021) to yield robust taxonomic assignments and improve the species level resolution. For this reference database, a total of 912 specimens, covering 106 of all species of the 124 fish known in Switzerland, were sequenced for their 12S barcode, generating a virtually complete database (Blackman et al. 2023). These clustered into 116 unique Operational Sequence Units (OSUs) and were assembled into a closed taxonomic database for mapping against the eDNA data with an identity of 97 % and a query coverage of 100 %. Additionally, sequences from other groups (arthropods, invertebrates, bacteria) were included in the database as outgroups to avoid forced taxonomic assignments. A more detailed report of the assembly and the utility of this customized database is described in Blackman et al. (2023).

Data analysis and visualization

All analyses were performed in R (version 4.1.2; Core team, 2021). The raw data was imported into R and quality filtered based on the number of reads in negative and positive samples. In detail, we defined an OTU-specific minimal abundance threshold for samples based on their presence in the positive and negative controls. Subsequently, we removed taxa that were not assigned to the class of Actinopterygii. For a more detailed list of the number of reads processed during the bioinformatic and quality filtering workflow, see Table S1. The four filter samples per site were then merged for further analysis. For the analysis using reads and not presence-absence data, we performed a rarefaction to account for stochasticity during the PCR step and different sequencing depths (after rarefaction: 31,365 reads per sample site, 1 zOTU dropped).

223 The maps of waterbodies in Switzerland were generated using the Swissriverplot package
224 (Alther & Altermatt, 2020). The community analysis was done with the phyloseq package
225 (McMurdie & Holmes, 2013) and the vegan package (Oksanen et al., 2020). Differences in
226 the species richness between the historic versus eDNA data and the electrofishing versus
227 eDNA data at a site level were evaluated with a paired t-test. Using the rarefied data to
228 control for different sequencing depths, we also looked at Shannon and Simpson diversity
229 indices, to see if and how dominant and rare species influence the comparison between
230 eDNA and electrofishing. In order to compare not only the species richness at a site, but
231 also the composition, the overlap between species lists based on eDNA, electrofishing, and
232 historic records at a site level were evaluated using the BioVenn package (Hulsen et al.,
233 2021).

234 To test if the eDNA-based assessment reflects a subset of the historic records, and if
235 electrofishing assessments are more constrained to a local river stretch, we tested for a
236 non-random nestedness based on the Jaccard's dissimilarity index between the two
237 methods (historic vs. eDNA and eDNA vs. electrofishing) by using the betapart package
238 (Baselga et al., 2021) (see Figure S1 for details). First, we generated a null model of the
239 communities at each sampling site using the "randomizeMatrix" function in the picante
240 package (Kembel et al., 2010). For this, randomized eDNA community matrices (compared
241 to historic data) or randomized electrofishing community matrices (compared to eDNA)
242 were generated by applying the "trialswap" algorithm (Mikals and Podani, 2004). Second,
243 the observed nestedness value calculated from the observed data was then mapped against
244 the null distribution from the randomized community dissimilarities to infer if the observed
245 value was significantly different from the null distribution.

246 Further, the simultaneous monitoring of fish communities with eDNA and electrofishing
247 enabled us to evaluate the potential of eDNA sampling as a quantitative method for the
248 total catch (biomass in kg) by electrofishing. For this, the proportions of a given species
249 accounted for in the data sets (total reads vs. biomass) was compared using the ggalluvial
250 package (Brunson and Read, 2002). The significance of the relationship was tested by a
251 linear model (formula: biomass ~ reads) on the log-transformed variables. Further, we also
252 investigated the relationship at the local scale, using rarefied reads for eDNA and biomass
253 per species and site in a mixed effect model in the lmer package, using site as a random
254 effect (formula: biomass ~ reads + 1|site).

255 Lastly, we linked the eDNA community data to the biotic index as the two sampling
256 campaigns (eDNA and electrofishing) were part of an applied ecological assessment (NAWA)
257 and the implemented index was purely based on electrofishing. Here, the eDNA based fish
258 data was linked to the biotic index (MSK, for further details on the index see Schager et al.,
259 2004) in order to test if eDNA can be used as an alternative method to electrofishing in the
260 assessment. Based on electrofishing, the biotic index (MSK) is composed of 4 parameters: 1.
261 diversity and dominance, 2. population structure of indicator species, 3. fish density, 4.
262 deformations and anomalies. The numerical score (0 to 20) is classified into an ecological
263 state ranging between “poor” to “very good”. The eDNA-based fish community was
264 implemented in a random forest model in the ranger package (Wright and Ziegler, 2017) as
265 previously done for diatoms (for implementation see also Cordier et al., 2018, for more
266 details on the R-Code of the random forest modeling see the Supplementary File II). For
267 every site, a regression model with the observed index of the site (based on electrofishing
268 data) as a response variable and the community data (based on eDNA) were used as
269 predictive variables (formula: MSK observed index ~ eDNA community, number of trees =

270 400, min.node.size = 3, mtry = n/3). The model was trained iteratively by using a part of the
271 data as a training data set, to perform a regression between the observed community and
272 the associated index score. Subsequently, the trained model was used to predict the index
273 for the eDNA data of a given site, that the model was not trained on. This process was
274 iterative to predict the index score of every site. We tested for a difference in the mean of
275 the MSK predictions for the distinct classifications (“poor” to “very good”) with an Analysis
276 of Variance (Anova).

Results

Historic inventory and raw data from the simultaneous sampling campaign

In the historic dataset, integrating all data collected between 1990 and 2022, 65 of the in total 124 fish species known from Switzerland (105 native and 19 non-native species) were detected across the 89 5 x 5 km squares surrounding the 89 sampling sites (Table S2). For the field sampling in 2019, the eDNA metabarcoding library for all these 89 sampling sites generated a total of 14.76 million raw reads mapped to 101 OSUs. From those, 92 were assigned to the targeted class of Actinopterygii (the others being assigned to Mammalia, Aves and Amphibia, and thus excluded). These 92 OSUs were partially assigned to the same taxonomic fish species, and clustered into 51 taxonomic species. However, for some taxonomic groups, the genetic barcode does not allow for a distinction between species, which were subsequently aggregated and correspond to 45 distinct species (Table S2). Interestingly, the eDNA sampling campaign detected 3 species that had not been registered locally in the historic inventory (Figure S2). In contrast, all the species detected captured with electrofishing were also documented in the historic records. Overall, the electrofishing captured 33 fish species (aggregated) with an overall catch of 81,789 specimens and 10,383 kg across all 57 sampling sites.

Alpha diversity compared between historic, eDNA and electrofishing data

The mean local species richness detected by the eDNA approach (mean = 15.3 ± 4.7) corresponded closely to the species richness established by the historic inventory of fish species covering a 5 x 5 km square around each sampling site (mean = 15.8 ± 9.2), and there was no significant difference between these two approaches ($t = 0.5$, $df = 130$, $p > 0.6$) (Figure 2). Focusing on the species that were recorded historically and were also detected

with eDNA sampling, the overlap of detected species locally decreased with the number of overall site detections (detected at fewer sites) (Figure 3A). Species that were common in the eDNA dataset (many site detections) were also common in the historic inventory. Species that were detected at fewer sites (less than 30 % of sites) were predominantly detected by one or the other method (Figure 3B).

Contrastingly, local richness estimates were significantly different between the simultaneous monitoring of the sites with eDNA and electrofishing. The sampling of eDNA detected a significantly higher local species richness (mean = 15.3 ± 4.7) compared to the electrofishing approach (mean = 6.5 ± 4) ($t = 10.6$, $df = 108$, $p < 0.001$; Figure 2). Similarly, we also compared the evenness and dominance of individual species, and on average, eDNA showed a higher index value for eDNA measures (see Figure S3). A subset of species was commonly detected by both methods, but locally eDNA uniquely detected a surplus detection (mean 9.4 ± 4 species uniquely detected by eDNA at a site) by the eDNA sampling (Figure 3C). At the site level, the electrofishing captured only a few species (mean 1.8 ± 2 species per site) that were not detected by eDNA sampling at that specific site. Similarly, the comparison of the historic data with eDNA species that were common (detected at many sites, e.g., *Oncorhynchus mykiss*, *Gobio gobio*, or *Phoxinus* sp.) showed a better congruence in detection between the eDNA and the electrofishing method (Figure 3D).

Quantitative estimates of fish as biomass and reads respectively

Contrasting the quantitative estimates of fish abundances from the simultaneous sampling campaigns (compared as the biomass in kg to the number of sequences in reads) ranked different species as the most abundant across all sites (Figure 4A). Yet, overall, the more diverse families were ranking the highest with both methods. Thus, the number of reads for

a species was significantly correlated with the biomass from the electrofishing catch (formula: $\text{biomass} \sim \text{reads}$, $F = 37.1$, $df = 42$, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.44$, Figure 4B), similar to the presence-absence (number of detections) that was significantly correlated with higher biomass (see Figure S4). However, when looking at the same relationship of reads versus biomass on a site level, the reads did not correspond with the catch of a given species (formula: $\text{biomass} \sim \text{reads} + 1 | \text{site}$, see examples in Figure S5). With the electrofishing approach, the Cyprinidae accounted for the highest portion of biomass across all sites (> 60 %) (Figure 3B), especially the widely abundant species *Phoxinus* sp. captured at 33 of 57 sites with > 30,000 individuals. In the eDNA sampling, the family of Salmonidae made up the highest proportion (> 25 %) (the species aggregate *Salmo* sp. accounted for > 2 million reads).

Nestedness of community patterns based on Jaccard's dissimilarity between approaches

The eDNA approach reported a highly similar local species richness estimate compared to the historic inventory, yet the composition of the local community (i.e., the identity of the species) differed. The mean observed dissimilarity at a site between communities based on historic and eDNA records was 0.8 ± 0.01 for the Jaccard index ranging from 0 (total overlap) to 1 (complete replacement) indicating a difference in community assessment across the sampling sites. Dissimilarities (measured as Jaccard's nestedness component) between the communities recorded historically and the ones detected with eDNA resulted in a dissimilarity value for each sampled site (Figure 5A). When observed dissimilarity values were compared to the null model, 61 % of the sites showed a non-random nestedness of the eDNA data within the historic records. A site was significant, when the significance the

observed nestedness was different than compared to the dissimilarities for 999 random communities (Figure 5B) leading to a significance level of 0.05. Generally, species detected by electrofishing were also detected by eDNA locally (yet with the latter method also reporting additional species), resulting in a nested structure of the electrofishing data in the eDNA based community. Calculating the dissimilarity between communities from the eDNA and the electrofishing at a site level resulted in a mean Jaccard's dissimilarity of 0.6 ± 0.17 . The observed dissimilarity, as nestedness of electrofishing in eDNA, was significantly different from a random distribution for 31 out of the 57 sites (55 %). For these sites, the probability to detect the observed nestedness was below 0.05 when compared to the null distribution (Figure 5C). Similar calculations were also established for the total dissimilarity and the turnover component of the Jaccard's index (Figure S6).

Limitations of species level taxonomic assignments

Across the diversity of fish that are monitored for the routine assessments of water quality, some groups cannot be fully taxonomically resolved to species level. These cryptic groups represent a hindrance for eDNA sampling and electrofishing, as species can be either morphologically or molecularly indistinguishable, both of which occurred in our dataset . Morphology is constrained by distinct features for species assignment, resulting in some species being grouped into morpho-species (e.g., *Salmo trutta*, *Salmo marmoratus*, and *Salmo labrax* are all lumped together as *Salmo* sp.). Similarly, a group of lake whitefish, here only detected by eDNA (Figure 3A) probably due to DNA transport from upstream lakes, underwent a relatively recent radiation and have been reclassified morphologically, as they show a high diversity across Swiss lakes (Alexander & Seehausen, 2021). Interestingly, also

on a genetic level, these two groups contain species that were not distinguishable with the 12S barcode used here, and thus were united at the genus level (e.g., *Salmo* sp., *Coregonus* sp.). Additionally, there are strong geographic boundaries that divide sister taxa North and the South of the Alps (Table S2), that cannot be genetically distinguished based on the barcoding region. For example, the species *Esox lucius* is present in the North of Switzerland (Rhein catchment, Figure 1A) and the *Esox cisalpinus* confined to the South of the Alps (Ticino catchment, Figure 1A). Given these hindrances for the identification, some groups (such as *Coregonus* sp., *Esox* sp., *Salmo* sp., *Alburnus* sp.) are not resolved to species level constrained by morphology or by genetic similarity.

Methodological limitations of eDNA in the framework of the biotic index

The classification of the river's ecological status, routinely calculated from the electrofishing sampling (BAFU 2016), was inferred from the eDNA based communities using a data-driven random forest approach that did not lead to congruent classifications of the sampled sites (Figure S7). In the framework of the biotic index (MSK), the eDNA monitoring data did not provide information for all of the parameters that are reported from the electrofishing sampling such as species abundance, local population structure, parasite loading and deformation of specimens. The original calculation was therefore hindered by the lack of this information from the eDNA sampling, here resulting in a machine learning implementation for the prediction of the index. The ecological classification of river sites based on this index— based on variables given by the electrofishing monitoring – could not be calculated given the eDNA data, the predicted means for the index was not significantly different between the observed classifications (MSK observed ~ eDNA community , $F = 0.001$, $df = 178$, $p\text{-value} = 0.8$).

Discussion

eDNA as a monitoring tool is more integrative than electrofishing

Despite the increased need for scalable, efficient, and standardized assessment methods, establishing baseline patterns for aquatic diversity remains challenging. Here, we used extensive historic records on integrated fish diversity and compared it with a recent standard biomonitoring to characterize fish communities across a large spatial scale. The historic records are based on a combination of long-term standardized sampling efforts and individual observations covering >30 years, and served as a baseline for the comparison between two contemporary sampling (eDNA and electrofishing) methods in terms of their efficacy to detect diversity and composition of fish communities. We did so to evaluate if and how the sampling of eDNA may add novel approaches in the monitoring of aquatic biodiversity and ecological assessments, for example water quality monitoring. In this context, established methods (here: electrofishing) are compared with eDNA-based approaches and assessed by a site-by-site comparison of the methods. This, however, thus not consider sampling errors inherent to any method, and thus a comparison to an integrated historic inventory may provide a better baseline for method comparability (see also Keck et al. 2022). Having a historic inventory of species recorded around the sampling site as an independent source of information also allows to better understand possible discrepancies between simultaneous sampling methods, as it provides information on a regional (and even time-integrated) community that is then hypothetically sampled by point estimates.

Null model identifies significant nestedness at some sampling sites

419 The sampling of eDNA has shown fit for purpose for the detection of fish communities in
420 different aquatic systems (Harper et al., 2019; Hänfling et al., 2016, Pont et al., 2018,
421 Blackman et al., 2021). Here, it was applied to a routine ecological assessment based on the
422 monitoring of fish to see how the method compared to electrofishing as an established
423 standard method (Barbour et al., 1999, Champ et al., 2009). Given certain technical
424 constraints (Goldberg et al. 2016, Evans & Lamberti, 2018, Stauffer et al. 2021), the richness
425 estimates, and locally also species composition were similar between eDNA and the historic
426 species inventory. A dissimilarity between taxa lists from various methods is expected,
427 stemming from different detection efficiencies for the sampled species, as well as inherent
428 sampling variability. When calculating dissimilarities in community composition, differences
429 in alpha-and gamma-diversity between methods can drive variations in communities and
430 therefore patterns in dissimilarity indices (Chase et al., 2011). These effects can be
431 addressed by using a null model approach that accounts for methodological dissimilarities
432 and allows to disentangle methodological from ecological dissimilarities (Gotelli and Grave,
433 1996). By using the Jaccard index as a measure of dissimilarity, the significant nestedness of
434 the contemporary eDNA sampling in the historic inventory and the local electrofishing in the
435 DNA signals indicates how congruent the methods are with respect to detecting specific
436 communities. Sites with a significant nestedness of the eDNA sampling campaign in the
437 historic inventory shows that the eDNA sampling reflected the community composition
438 locally detected over an integrated time span. The eDNA sampling gives valid results
439 compared to historic records but still provides an incomplete species list, leading to a high
440 turnover of species between the methods, shown here as non-significant nestedness for
441 almost a third of sampling sites.

The eDNA approach detected locally a similar richness like the historic inventory despite the difference in sampling effort (a time span from 1990 to 2022 for the historic inventory, and one sampling campaign in 2019 for eDNA). The significant nestedness of the electrofishing sampling in the eDNA data likely reflects the spatial integration of DNA fragments at a catchment scale: with eDNA we not only found the species that were locally occurring (and documented by electrofishing) but also got an insight into species occurring in habitats that are under-sampled with electrofishing (benthos) or upstream habitats. This result supports that eDNA captures species from upstream in addition to species that can be locally detected (Keck et al., 2022), resulting in the integration of genetic signals within a catchment into an eDNA sample (Deiner et al., 2016, Carraro et al., 2020). Previous studies have shown that DNA fragments can be transported from a few (Deiner & Altermatt, 2013; Thalinger et al., 2020) to dozens of kilometers (Pont et al., 2018). Here, a prime example for this transport is the detection of some lake fish species (*Coregonus* sp., *Salvelinus profundus*, *Salvelinus namaycush*) that do not occur in riverine habitats and were not captured by electrofishing yet showed up in the eDNA signal.

The historic records, reflecting a “perfect knowledge scenario” was overall more comprehensive than the eDNA sampling (i.e., recorded more distinct species). This could be due to the inventory not actually reflecting co-existing species but pooled communities. The detection of rare species that are missed with the eDNA approach could be increased by the consideration of technical aspects, such as increasing the volume of water filtered (Stauffer et al., 2021, Altermatt et al., 2023), improving the specificity of the primer pairs (Miya et al., 2012) or increasing the number of PCR replicates. Further, the length of the amplified fragment is relatively short and can hinder the identification to species resolution (as here observed for several species (*Salmo* sp., *Esox* sp., *Phoxinus* sp., *Alburnus* sp.)). Another

common limitation to metabarcoding studies, namely the lack of curated sequences in the reference database (Zhang et al., 2020) was overcome in our study by using a customized reference database that covered barcode sequences of all Swiss fish species (see Alexander & Seehausen, 2021) and that significantly improved the assignments of sequences to taxa when compared with public databases (Blackman et al., 2023).

eDNA as quantitative estimate for biomass only on a gamma level

A positive relationship between local abundance of a species and eDNA reads has been reported previously for rivers (Pont et al., 2018) and other aquatic systems such as marine environments, ponds, lakes (Rouke et al., 2022). For the monitoring campaign in 2019, we found a high congruence in the common species which was reflected in the correlation of the quantitative estimates (biomass and reads) based on electrofishing or eDNA sampling across all sites. The most widespread groups made up for the most reads and also accounted for the most biomass. At a site level, however, the relationship between the number of reads assigned to a species did not correspond to the biomass of this species. Both methods have some inherent biases. Consequently, we cannot directly infer the accuracy of the local biomass or abundance by a discrepancy of the local quantitative estimates, as such a discrepancy can be due to either's approach bias, or due to stochastic components. As discussed for diversity estimates of fish species from electrofishing, the capture efficiency is impacted by the life cycle, behavior, and body size of species, and by the local environmental conditions at the sampling site. For eDNA, it has been recognized that fish species shed DNA at different rates that scale allometrically (accounting for surface area, and physiological excretion), resulting in interspecific variation in the signal strength (DNA reads) and the abundance of organisms (Yates et al., 2022). Additionally, the

laboratory processing, especially the stochasticity introduced during the PCR introduces further biases to the relationship. This is influenced by the differences in the primer binding efficiency (Taberlet et al., 2018) and amplification efficiency of different DNA templates of fish species as shown using an internal standard (Ushido et al., 2018). Furthermore, different spatial integration between methods, systematic non-detections with one or the other method, and abiotic factors like degradation and transport can break the linkage between local biomass and DNA fragments shed into the water (Yates, Cristescu & Derry, 2021).

The eDNA based information shows limited resolution for ecological classification

Overall, we showed that eDNA sampling for monitoring results in robust diversity and community composition in comparison to electrofishing, as suggested by previous studies in different aquatic systems (Blackman et al., 2021, Hallam et al., 2021, Pont et al., 2018, Pont et al., 2021, Yao et al., 2022). However, the implementation of the eDNA derived fish community data into the established biotic index for the water quality assessment did not success and an accurate classification was not possible. Most likely, this is because the calculation of ecological indices is not just based on diversity and composition of species, but also on local population age structure, fish density and physical characteristics of the specimens. Such information implemented in the calculation of the index go beyond what can be established from eDNA sampling. As biotic indices are often developed from established standard sampling methods, they can complicate the implementation of eDNA based monitoring for ecological assessments based on the calculation of biotic indices. However, eDNA samples can inform about multiple organismal groups with one sampling campaign and despite eDNA not being congruent with the established index based on

514 electrofishing data, biotic indices can further be developed and adapted to include a
515 different type of information (Pawlowski et al., 2018). We conclude that eDNA is fit for
516 purpose as a useful, fast, and efficient monitoring tool to assess local species richness of
517 fish, and to some level also community composition, but cannot resolve ecological status
518 based on established indices that too strongly rely on morphological estimates and
519 abundance counts.

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529

530 **Author contributions**

531 FA and JB designed the study, analyzed the data, and wrote the manuscript. Laboratory
532 work was carried out by JB.

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538

539 **Data Availability Statement**

540 All the raw sequencing data will be made available upon publication in the DRYAD archive
541 accessible at <https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.1g1jwsv15>.

542

543 **Conflict of Interest**

544 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Figures & Legends

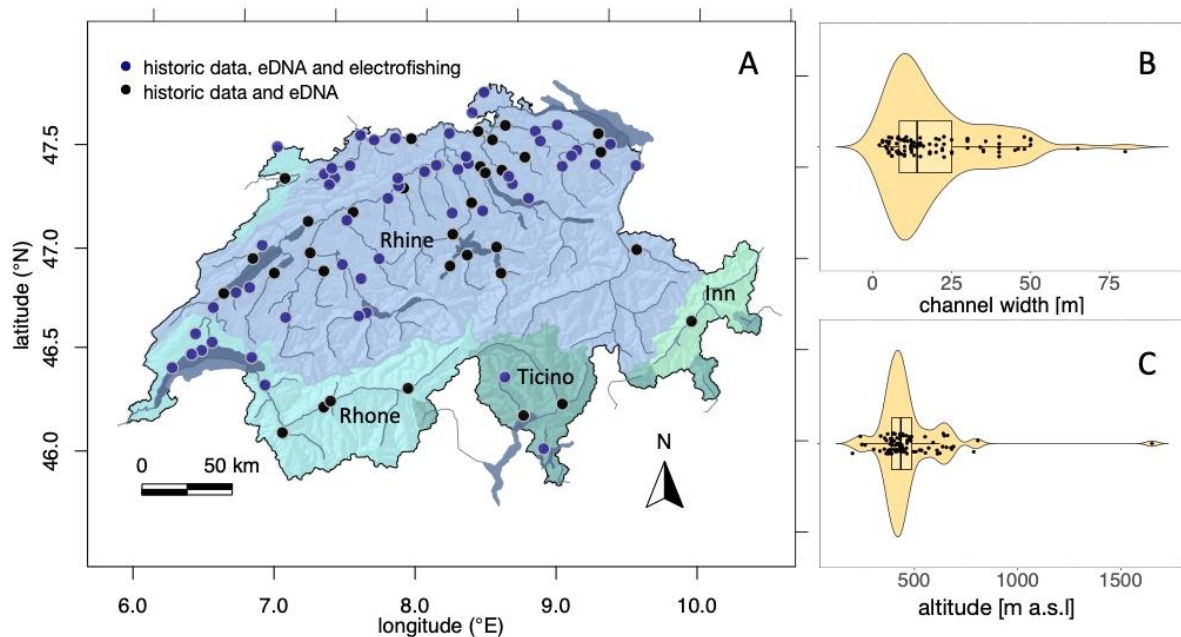
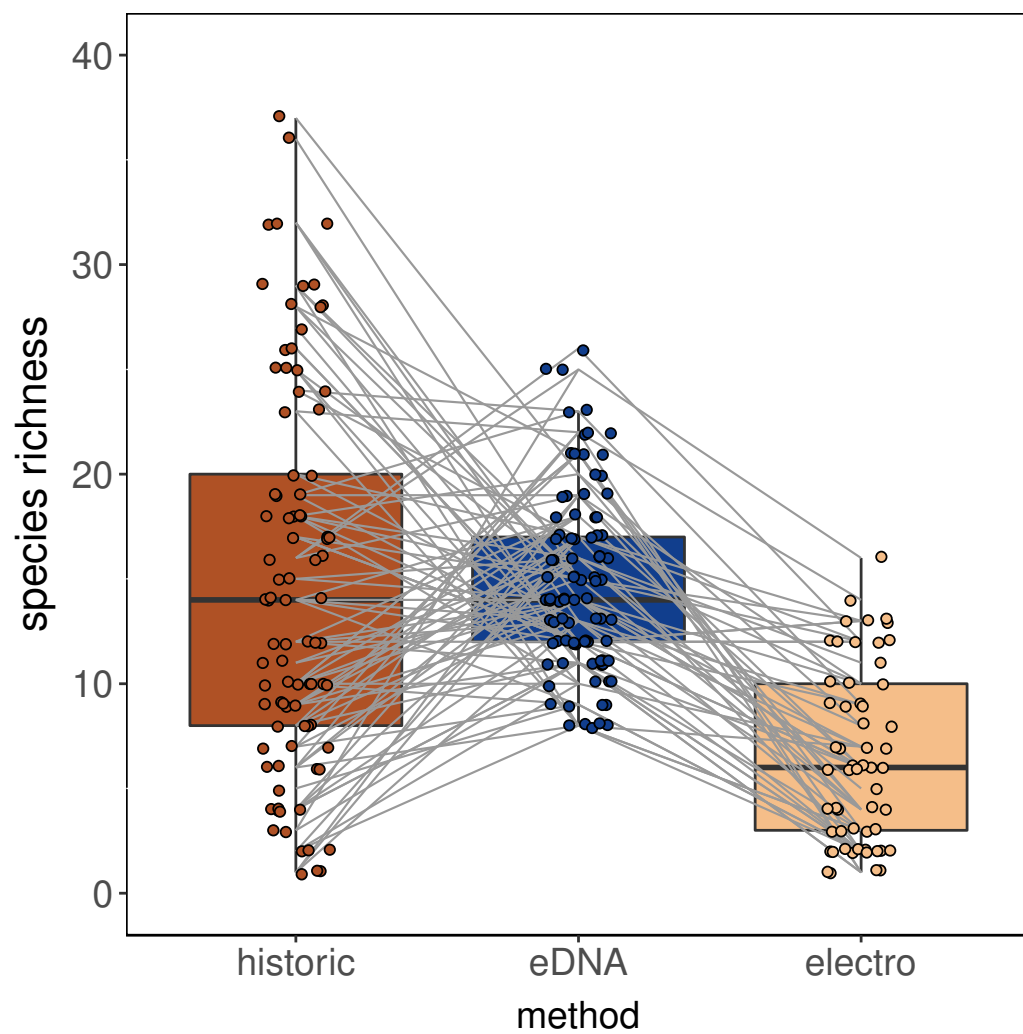


Figure 1: Spatial setup of the monitoring of fish communities in Switzerland. A) The map of Switzerland shows the sampling sites ($n = 89$) across the four major Swiss catchments (Rhine, Rhone, Ticino, and Inn) indicated with different color shades. For all sampling sites data on historic fish occurrence (in the respective subcatchment) as well as recent fish occurrence measured locally by eDNA were available. For a subset of 57 sites data (blue dots), recent fish occurrences assessed locally by electrofishing were also available. The sampled river systems range from intermediate to large rivers as shown by B) the distribution of their channel widths and C) span an altitudinal gradient with most sampling sites being situated in lowland rivers.



777

778 Figure 2: Comparison of local fish richness at 89 sites in Swiss rivers comparing historic
 779 species richness detected at the sub catchment scale (5 x 5 km squares) between 1990–
 780 2022 versus the respective local species richness detected by eDNA and (for a subset of 57
 781 sites) electrofishing in one single monitoring campaign in 2019.

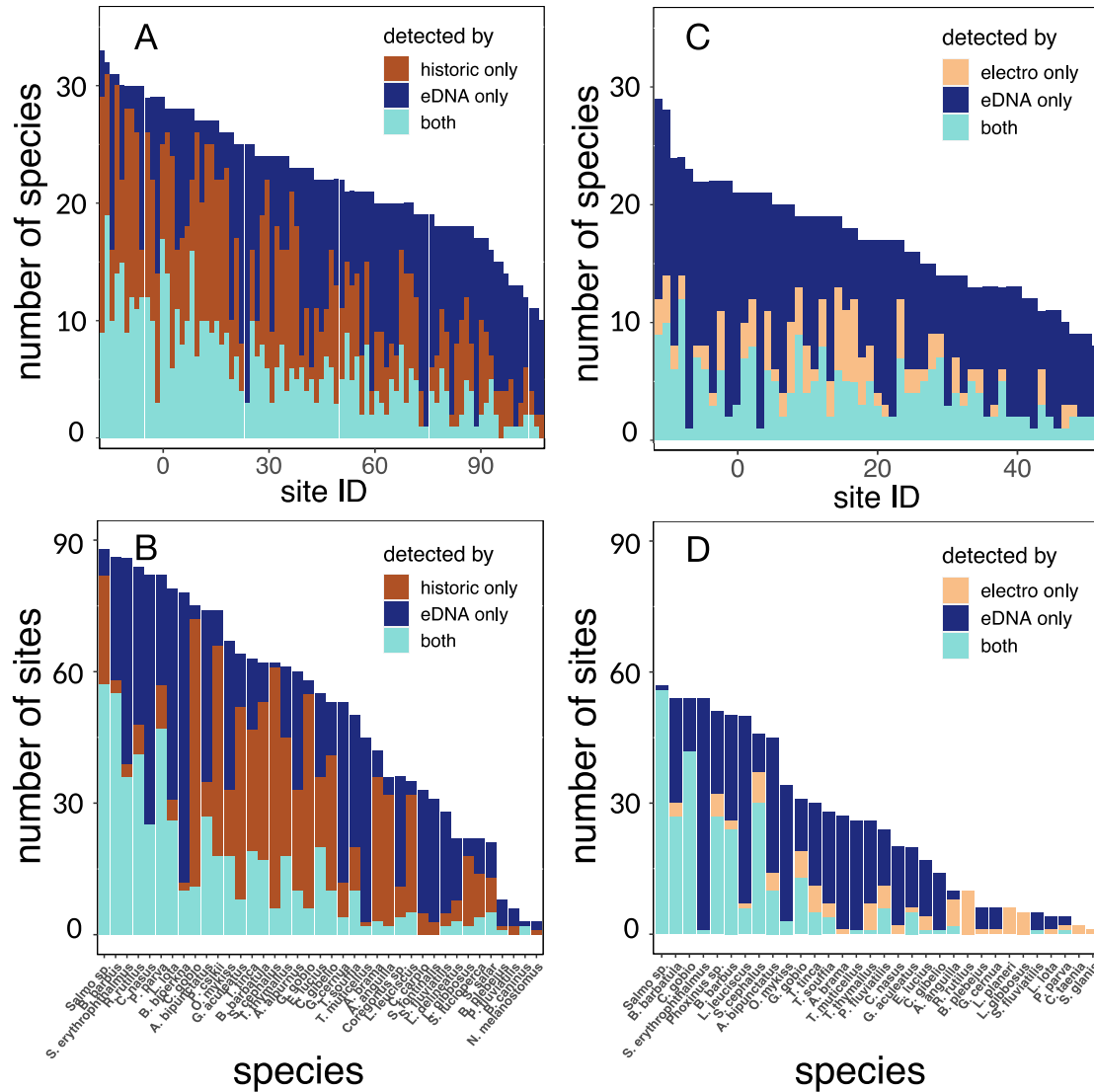
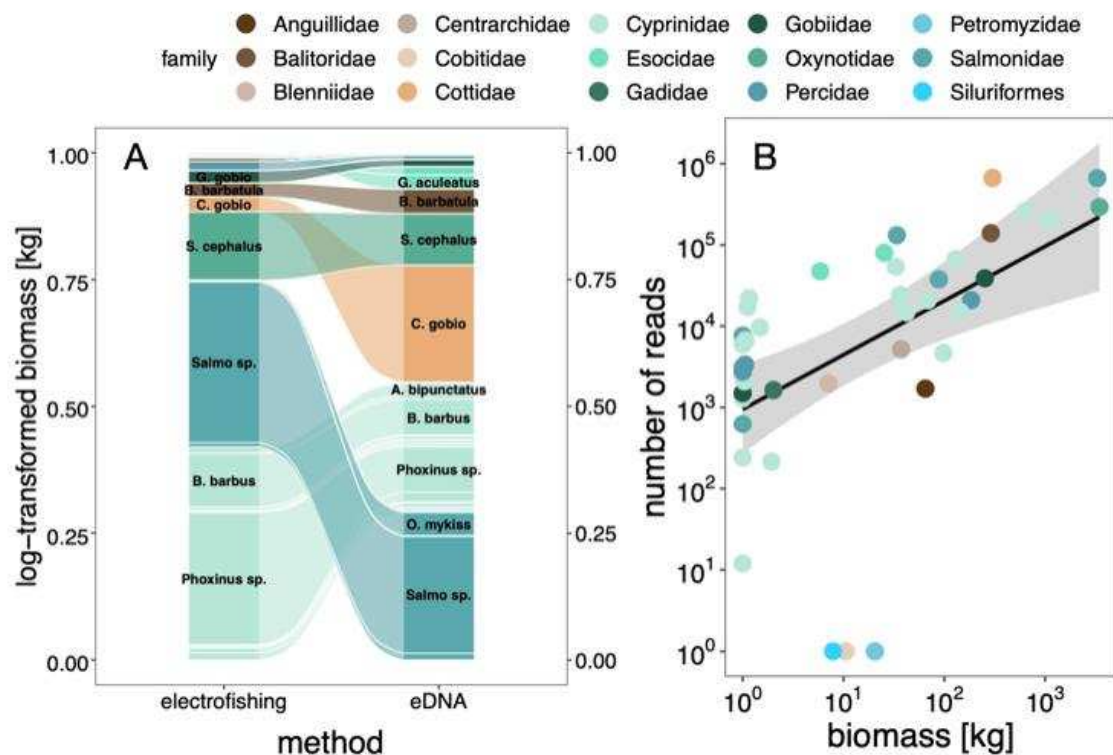


Figure 3: A) Site-richness curves giving species richness per site and (B) number of sites where a species was found, resolving what part of the richness is depicted by historic data only, by eDNA only, or by both. Overall, there was no systematic difference in the species richness detected between the two methods, yet the overlap of the respective species detected was relatively small with a high proportion only recorded in the historic data but not captured with eDNA. C) Site-richness curves giving species richness per site and D) number of sites where a species was found, resolving what part of the richness is depicted by eDNA only, by electrofishing only, or by both. With electrofishing a significantly lower number of species was detected compared to the richness estimates from eDNA samples.

792 Note that the number of sites and species covered is lower for the comparison with
793 electrofishing (57 out of 89), as this method was only applied to a subset of all sites.



795

796 Figure 4: Overall quantitative estimates of fish based on electrofishing and eDNA sampling.

797 A) The proportions of species overall sites are shown as stacked bar plots that give the
798 proportions of biomass (kg) for electrofishing and of sequences (number of reads) for eDNA,
799 respectively. The flows connecting the bars indicate the association to families, and the
800 most common taxa are named. B) Over all sites, there is a significant relationship between
801 the number of reads and the biomass of a species (formula: $\text{biomass} \sim \text{reads}$, $F = 37.1$, $df =$
802 42 , $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.44$), as indicated by the linear regression (black line). There is a high
803 variability (se = grey area) across different species. The colors reflect the association of
804 species to their taxonomic family.

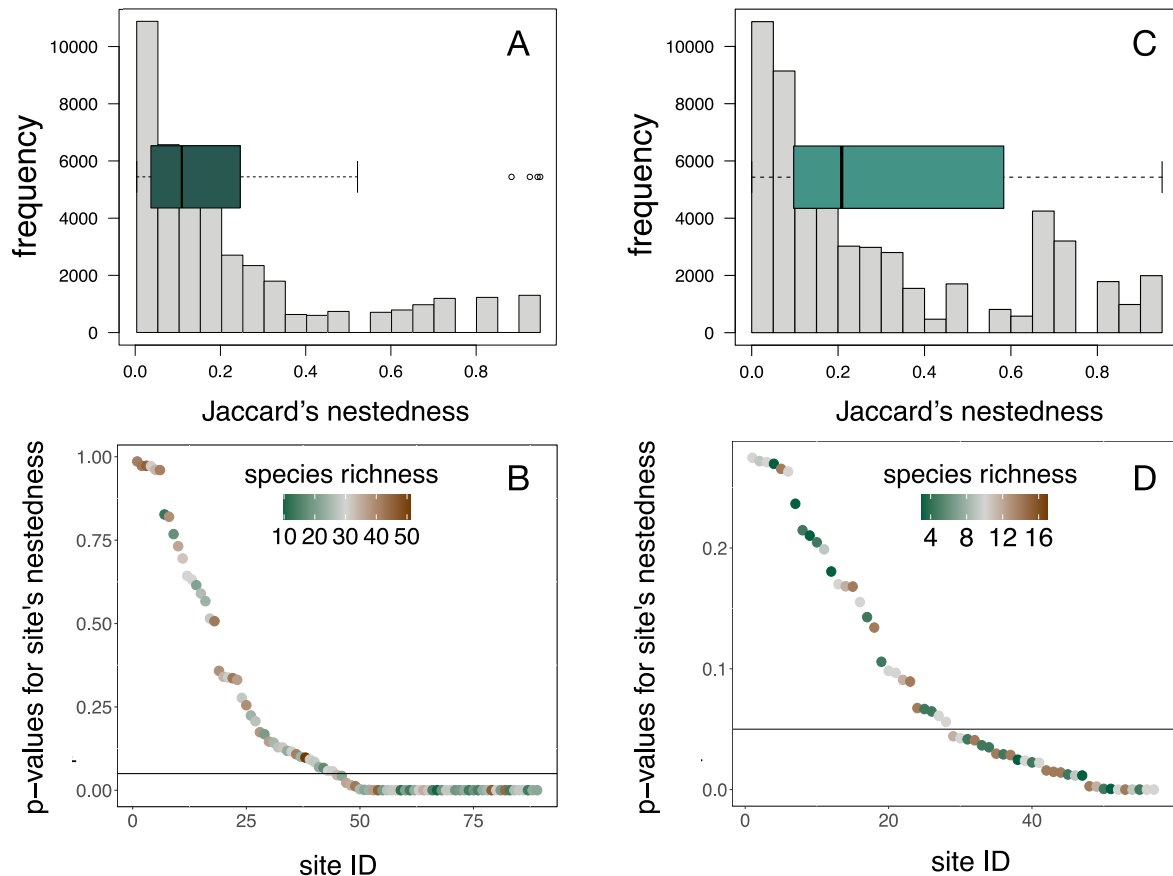


Figure 5: Nestedness of communities observed with eDNA (A and B) and electrofishing (C and D) based on Jaccard's dissimilarity between sites. The dissimilarities of randomized community matrices ($n = 1000$) were used as a random frequency distribution (grey bars) of nestedness values under the assumption of random species assembly in the eDNA (A) within the historic data, and the electrofishing within the eDNA data (C). The actual observed nestedness values of all sites are indicated as boxplots. For every site, the probability of the observed value was calculated based on the null model distribution. The p-values indicate the probability of a site's community being significantly nested (B) for eDNA in the historic inventory, and (D) for the electrofishing in the eDNA community data. The black line corresponds to a significance level of 0.05. The effect of nestedness was not based on overall species richness, as the color gradient of the points shows.

Supplementary Material:

Contrasting strengths of eDNA and electrofishing compared to historic records for assessing fish community diversity and composition

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Table S1: List of the number of reads at each step during the data processing and the number of reads assigned to non-target taxa. The taxonomic assignment was performed using a customized reference database of Swiss fish, with some eukaryotic outgroups. Non-eukaryotic and unassigned reads were filtered after the assignment (approx. 1 Mio reads). Also, we excluded reads that were not fitting the length of the targeted gene-sequence for fish.

| Step | mio of reads |
|------------------------|-----------------|
| raw data | 14.76 |
| QF: > Q30 | 11.68 |
| bioinformatics | 8.88 |
| tax-assigned (eukarya) | 7.88 |
| QF (based on controls) | 7.12 |
| taxonomy | number reads to |
| human | 33958 |
| cow | 99672 |
| pig | 45865 |
| chamois | 1474 |
| star | 780 |
| trush | 610 |
| alpine newt | 84 |
| Actinopterygii | 6933141 |

Table S2: List of species detected in the NAWA eDNA and electrofishing sampling campaign sampling, and extracted from the Swiss Info Fauna database (infospecies.ch, recorded in the 5 x 5 km square around the sampling sites) in 2019. The first column describes the species subset: common species at the top of the table are species detected with eDNA, electrofishing and in the historic inventory, below are species additionally detected in 2019 with eDNA, with electrofishing and at the bottom species only detected in the historic inventory. The columns with a “tax:”-prefix describe the taxonomic ranks of assignments; the common name is the name known in Switzerland. The “tax: resolution”-column describes the taxonomic resolution used in this analysis, as some species were genetically or morphologically not distinguishable. Also, for the species detected with eDNA, some are represented by multiple OSUs clustering into the same taxonomic species as indicated in the column “Nr. of OSUs”. For the species only recorded in the historic inventories, we excluded species that were detected rarely (< 5) or before 1990. Furthermore, some species detected with the electrofishing would be morphologically or genetically indistinguishable, but a distinction can be made by geographic boundaries of their distribution (North/South of the Alps). The last three columns give the presence-absence (1-0) of species with each method.

| subset | tax: class | tax: order | tax: family | tax: species | common name | tax: resolution | Comments | Last observed | Geographic morphs | Detected by | | |
|--|------------------|----------------------|-------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------|-------------|---------------|-------------------|-------------|---------|----------|
| | | | | | | | | | | eDNA | electro | historic |
| Common Fish Species | | | | | | | Nr. Of OSUs | | | | | |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Anguilliformes | f_Anguillidae | <i>Anguilla anguilla</i> | Aal | Species | 1 | 2019 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Balitoridae | <i>Barbatula barbatula</i> | Schmerle | Species | 6 | 2019 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Perciformes | f_Biennidae | <i>Salaria fluviatilis</i> | Cagnetta | Species | 3 | 2019 | South CH | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Perciformes | f_Centrarchidae | <i>Lepomis gibbosus</i> | Sonnenbarsch | Species | 1 | 2019 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Scorpaeniformes | f_Cottidae | <i>Cottus gobio</i> | Groppe | Species | 3 | 2019 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Alburnoides bipunctatus</i> | Schneider | Species | 2 | 2019 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Barbus barbus</i> | Barbe | Species | 3 | 2019 | North CH | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Barbus plebejus</i> | Suedbarbe | Species | 2 | 2019 | South CH | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Blicca bjoerkna</i> | Guester | Species | 1 | 2019 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Carassius gibelio</i> | Giebel | Species | 1 | 2019 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Chondrostoma nasus</i> | Nase | Species | 2 | 2019 | North CH | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Cyprinus carpio</i> | Karpfen | Species | 1 | 2019 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Leuciscus leuciscus</i> | Hasel | Species | 3 | 2019 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Phoxinus phoxinus</i> | Elritze | Genus | 5 | 2019 | North CH | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Phoxinus phoxinus</i> | Elritze | Genus | 2 | 2019 | South CH | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Phoxinus septimaniae</i> | Elritze | Genus | 1 | 2019 | West CH | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Pseudorasbora parva</i> | Blaubandbarbling | Species | 1 | 2019 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Rutilus rutilus</i> | Rotauge | Species | 2 | 2019 | North CH | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Scardinius erythrophthalmus</i> | Rotfeder | Species | 3 | 2019 | North CH | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Scardinius hesperidicus</i> | Schwarzfeder | Species | 2 | 2019 | South CH | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Telestes muticellus</i> | Strigione | Species | 1 | 2019 | South CH | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Telestes souffia</i> | Stroemer | Species | 1 | 2019 | North CH | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Tinca tinca</i> | Schleie | Species | 1 | 2019 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Esociformes | f_Esocidae | <i>Esox cisalpinus</i> | Italienischer Hecht | Genus | 2 | 2019 | South CH | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Esociformes | f_Esocidae | <i>Esox lucius</i> | Hecht | Genus | 2 | 2019 | North CH | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Esociformes | f_Esocidae | <i>Gasterosteus aculeatus</i> | Stichling | Species | 1 | 2019 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Gadiformes | f_Gadidae | <i>Lota lota</i> | Truesche | Species | 1 | 2019 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Perciformes | f_Gobiidae | <i>Gobio gobio</i> | Gruendling | Species | 1 | 2019 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Perciformes | f_Gobiidae | <i>Gobio obtusirostris</i> | Gruendling | Species | 2 | 2019 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Gobiiformes | f_Gobiidae | <i>Neogobius melanostomus</i> | Schwarmundgrundel | Species | 1 | 2019 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Squaliformes | f_Oxyntidae | <i>Squalius cephalus</i> | Alet | Species | 1 | 2019 | North CH | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Perciformes | f_Percidae | <i>Gymnocephalus cernua</i> | Kaulbarsch | Species | 2 | 2019 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Perciformes | f_Percidae | <i>Perca fluviatilis</i> | Egli | Species | 1 | 2019 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Salmoniformes | f_Salmonidae | <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> | Regenbogenforelle | Species | 2 | 2019 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Salmoniformes | f_Salmonidae | <i>Salmo carpio</i> | Forelle | Genus | 7 | 2019 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Salmoniformes | f_Salmonidae | <i>Thymallus thymallus</i> | Aesche | Species | 3 | 2019 | | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Species additionally detected in NAWA sampling 2019 with eDNA | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Chondrostoma soetta</i> | Savetta | Species | 1 | 2019 | South CH | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Leucaspis delineatus</i> | Moderlieschen | Species | 1 | 2019 | | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Rutilus aila</i> | Triotto | Species | 1 | 2019 | South CH | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Squaliformes | f_Oxyntidae | <i>Squalius squalus</i> | Cavedano | Species | 1 | 2019 | South CH | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Perciformes | f_Percidae | <i>Sander lucioperca</i> | Zander | Species | 1 | 2019 | | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Salmoniformes | f_Salmonidae | <i>Coregonus albus</i> | Felche | Genus | 4 | 2019 | | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Salmoniformes | f_Salmonidae | <i>Salmo salar</i> | Atlantischer Lachs | Species | 1 | 2019 | | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Salmoniformes | f_Salmonidae | <i>Salvelinus fontinalis</i> | Bachsälbling | Species | 1 | 2019 | | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Chondrostoma soetta</i> | Savetta | Species | 1 | 2019 | South CH | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Leucaspis delineatus</i> | Moderlieschen | Species | 1 | 2019 | | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Rutilus aila</i> | Triotto | Species | 1 | 2019 | South CH | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Squaliformes | f_Oxyntidae | <i>Squalius squalus</i> | Cavedano | Species | 1 | 2019 | South CH | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Perciformes | f_Percidae | <i>Sander lucioperca</i> | Zander | Species | 1 | 2019 | | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Salmoniformes | f_Salmonidae | <i>Coregonus albus</i> | Felche | Genus | 4 | 2019 | | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Salmoniformes | f_Salmonidae | <i>Salmo salar</i> | Atlantischer Lachs | Species | 1 | 2019 | | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Species additionally detected in NAWA sampling 2019 with electro | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cobitidae | <i>Cobitis taenia</i> | Steinbeisser | Species | | 2019 | | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Carassius auratus</i> | Karassche/Schusterkarpfen | Species | | 2019 | | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Petromyzontiformes | f_Petromyzontidae | <i>Lampetra planeri</i> | Bachneunauge | Species | | 2019 | | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Siluriformes | f_Siluridae | <i>Silurus glanis</i> | Weis | Species | | 2019 | | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Additional species in the historic inventory (CSCF database) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Perciformes | f_Centrarchidae | <i>Micropterus salmoides</i> | Forellenbarsch | Species | 3 | 1997 | excluded | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Perciformes | f_Cobitidae | <i>Misgurnus fossilis</i> | Europäischer Schlammpeitzger | Species | 1 | 1906 | excluded | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Aspius aspius</i> | Rapfen | Species | 1 | 2003 | excluded | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Carassius auratus</i> | Oranda | Species | 18 | 2018 | | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Coregonus alpinus</i> | Felche | Genus | 13 | 2011 | | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Coregonus fatioid</i> | Felche | Genus | 1 | 1895 | | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Coregonus steinmanni</i> | Felche | Genus | 4 | 2002 | | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Ctenopharyngodon idella</i> | Graskarpfen | Species | 3 | 2005 | excluded | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Parachondrostoma toxostoma</i> | Südwesteuropäische Nase | Species | 1 | 2021 | excluded | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Phoxinus parva</i> | Elritze | Genus | 2 | 2009 | excluded | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Rutilus amarus</i> | Bitterling | Species | 14 | 2018 | | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Cypriniformes | f_Cyprinidae | <i>Rutilus pigus</i> | Frauennerfling | Species | 1 | 1987 | excluded | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Gobiiformes | f_Gobiidae | <i>Padogobius bonelli</i> | Padanische Grundel | Species | 1 | 2005 | excluded | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Siluriformes | f_Ictaluridae | <i>Ameiurus melas</i> | Schwarzer Zwergwels | Species | 1 | 2012 | excluded | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Perciformes | f_Percidae | <i>Zingel asper</i> | Rhone-Streber | Species | 1 | 2006 | excluded | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Petromyzontiformes | f_Petromyzontidae | <i>Lampetra fluviatilis</i> | Flussneunauge | Species | 1 | 1894 | excluded | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Petromyzontiformes | f_Petromyzontidae | <i>Lampetra zanandrei</i> | Lombardey-Neunauge | Species | 1 | 1871 | excluded | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Salmoniformes | f_Salmonidae | <i>Salmo rhodanensis</i> | Rhone-Forelle | Genus | 10 | 2006 | | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | c_Actinopterygii | o_Salmoniformes | f_Salmonidae | <i>Salvelinus umbla</i> | Seesälbling | Species | 3 | 1997 | excluded | 0 | 0 | 1 |

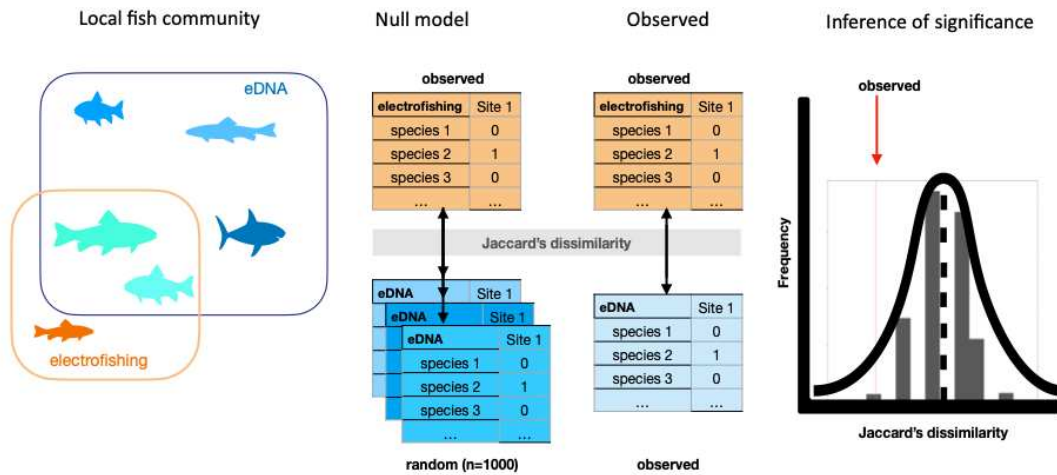
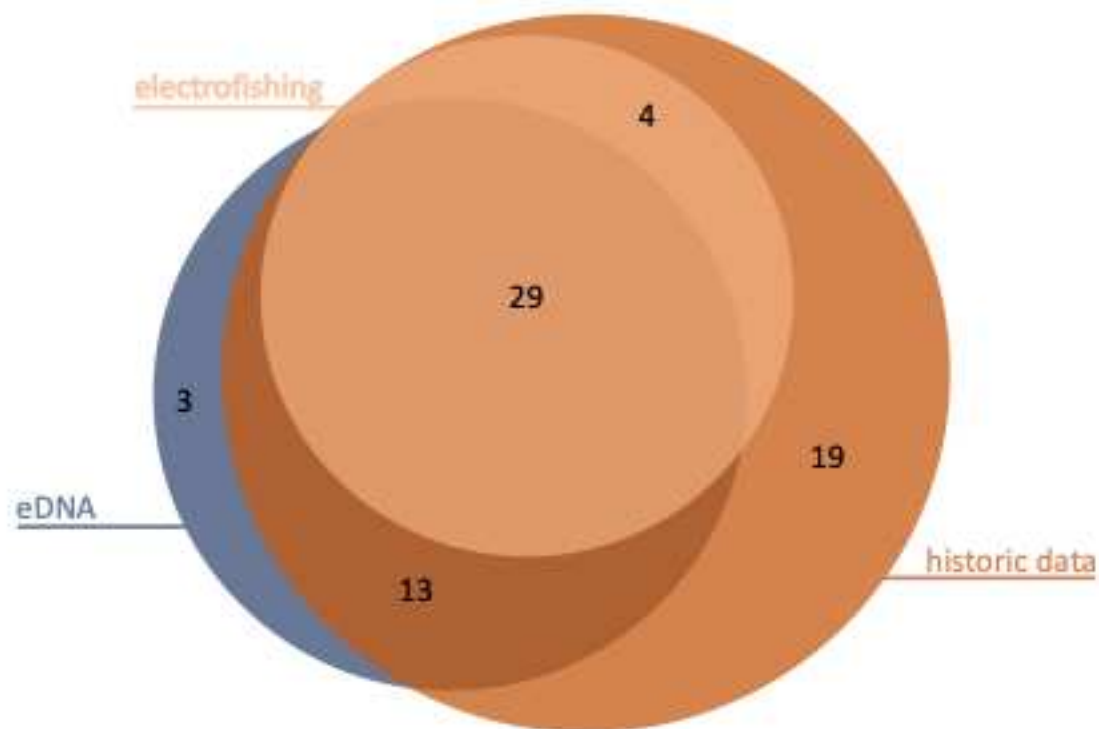


Figure S1: Conceptual workflow for the Null model of community dissimilarity. The baseline data are the observed community data per site based on eDNA sampling and the electrofishing approach. To test for a non-significant dissimilarity between the methods, we first calculated the Jaccard's dissimilarity (i.e., total, turnover and nestedness components) and between the observed electrofishing community at any given site and the corresponding eDNA based community composition. To establish a Null Model, the eDNA based community was then randomized according to the algorithm of Miklòs & Podani (2004) under the constraints to keep the species frequency across all sites and to keep the species richness for each site constant. From the randomized community composition of a site, the dissimilarity was calculated similar to the observed values. By repeating this randomization 1000 times, the probability of observing the real dissimilarity was then calculated directly from the distribution of dissimilarity values. The workflow for the calculations of the eDNA vs. historic records followed the same workflow.

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907 **Figure S2:** Gamma diversity showing the number of fish species detected by historic records,
 908 electrofishing and eDNA sampling. 29 species were detected by all three approaches. The
 909 historic data contained 19 species that were not detected in either of the contemporary
 910 sampling campaign. The electrofishing campaign detected 33 species that were completely
 911 contained in the historic records. The eDNA method detected 3 species that were uniquely
 912 found by eDNA (*Salvelinus profundus*, *Barbatul quinardii*, *Salvenilus namaycush*). The species
 913 *S. profundus* is a lake species living in the deep of Lake Constance and detected in the adjacent
 914 Rhine catchment. It was reported extinct from the Lake, but recently rediscovered in the
 915 deeper layer. Also *S. namaycush* is a lake species that is originally from Northern America and
 916 kept in fishing ponds in Switzerland which have an outlet into rivers. The species *B. quinardi*
 917 is a small (average 7 cm) benthic fish mainly occurring in Southern Europe, however it is also
 918 recorded at the border to the Rhone catchment.

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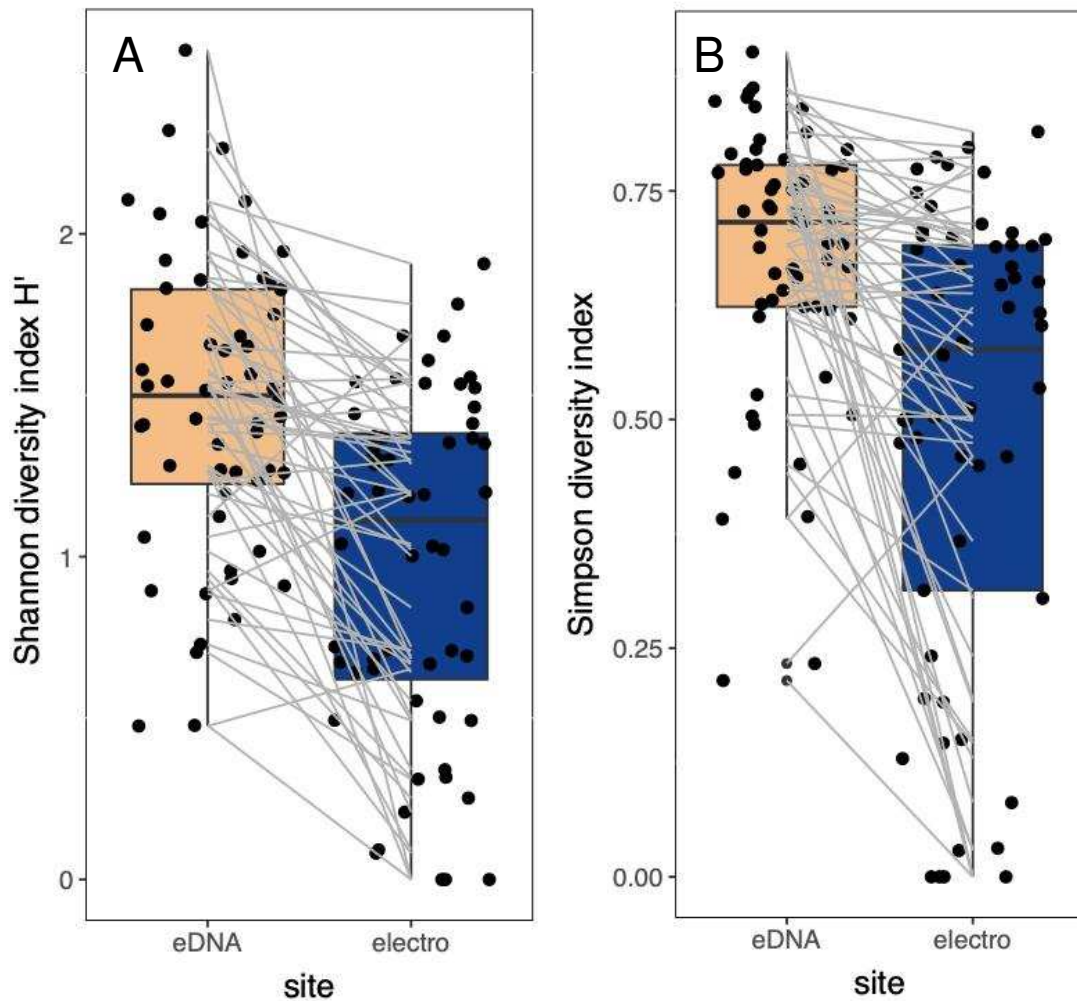
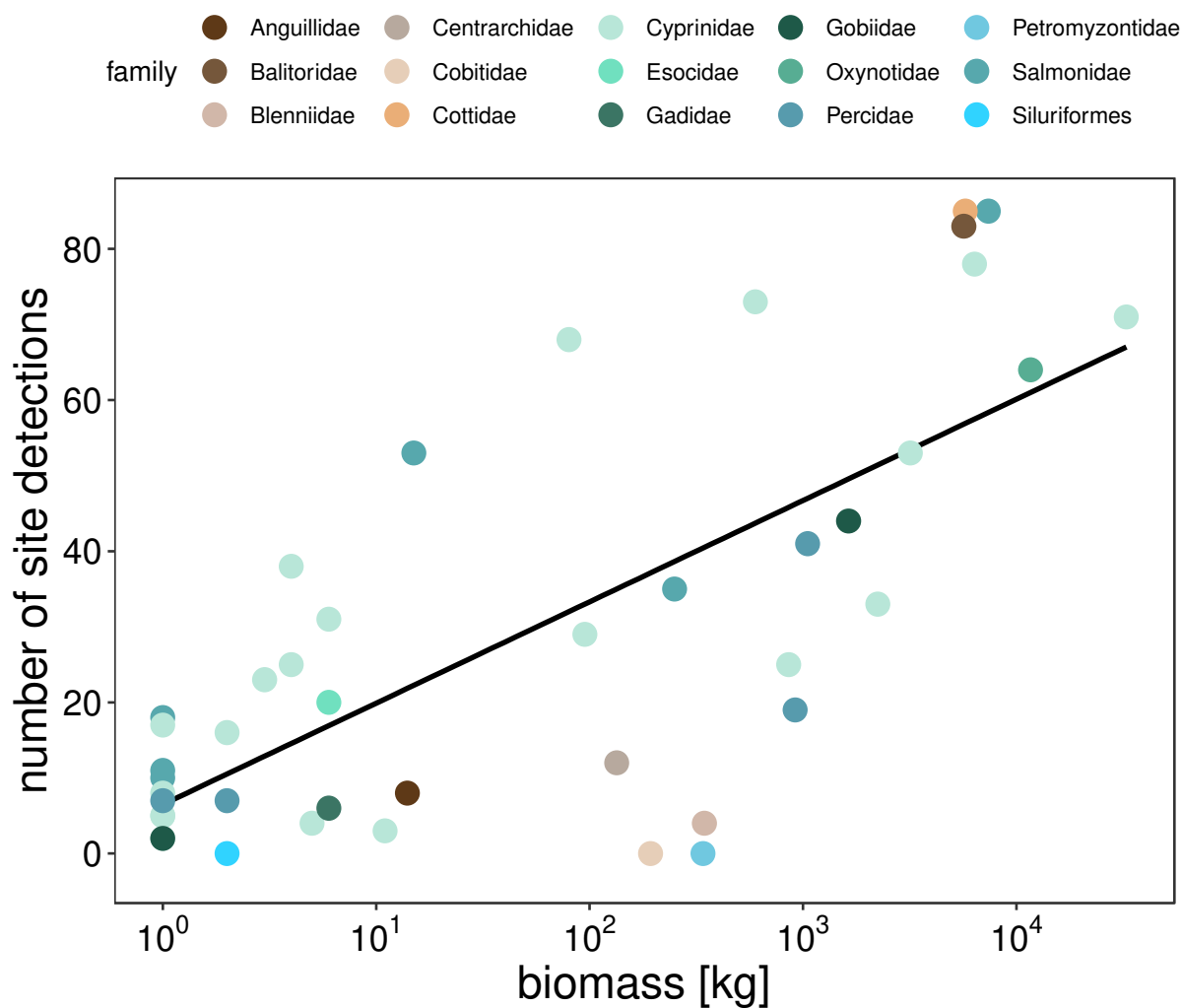


Figure S3: Local diversity estimates, namely A) the Shannon diversity index and B) the Simpson diversity index compared between eDNA (orange) and electrofishing (blue) that consider relative abundances of species. The grey lines connect the two diversity values corresponding to one sampling site. As for the observed richness, the sampling of eDNA vs electrofishing (1.47 vs 0.98) was significantly different for the Shannon Index ($t = 5.23$, $df = 110$, $p\text{-value} < 0.001$) and for the Simpson Index ($t = 4.69$, $df = 112$, $p\text{-value} < 0.001$) with a mean value of 0.68 for eDNA, and a mean of 0.5 for electrofishing data.

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938

939 **Figure S4:** The presence-absence (number of detections) for a species over the overall
 940 biomass of this species. The biomass from the electrofishing catch was significantly correlated
 941 with the number of detections with eDNA for a species (formula: $\text{biomass} \sim \text{reads}$, $F = 23.14$,
 942 $df = 41$, $R^2 = 0.27$, $p < 0.001$).

943

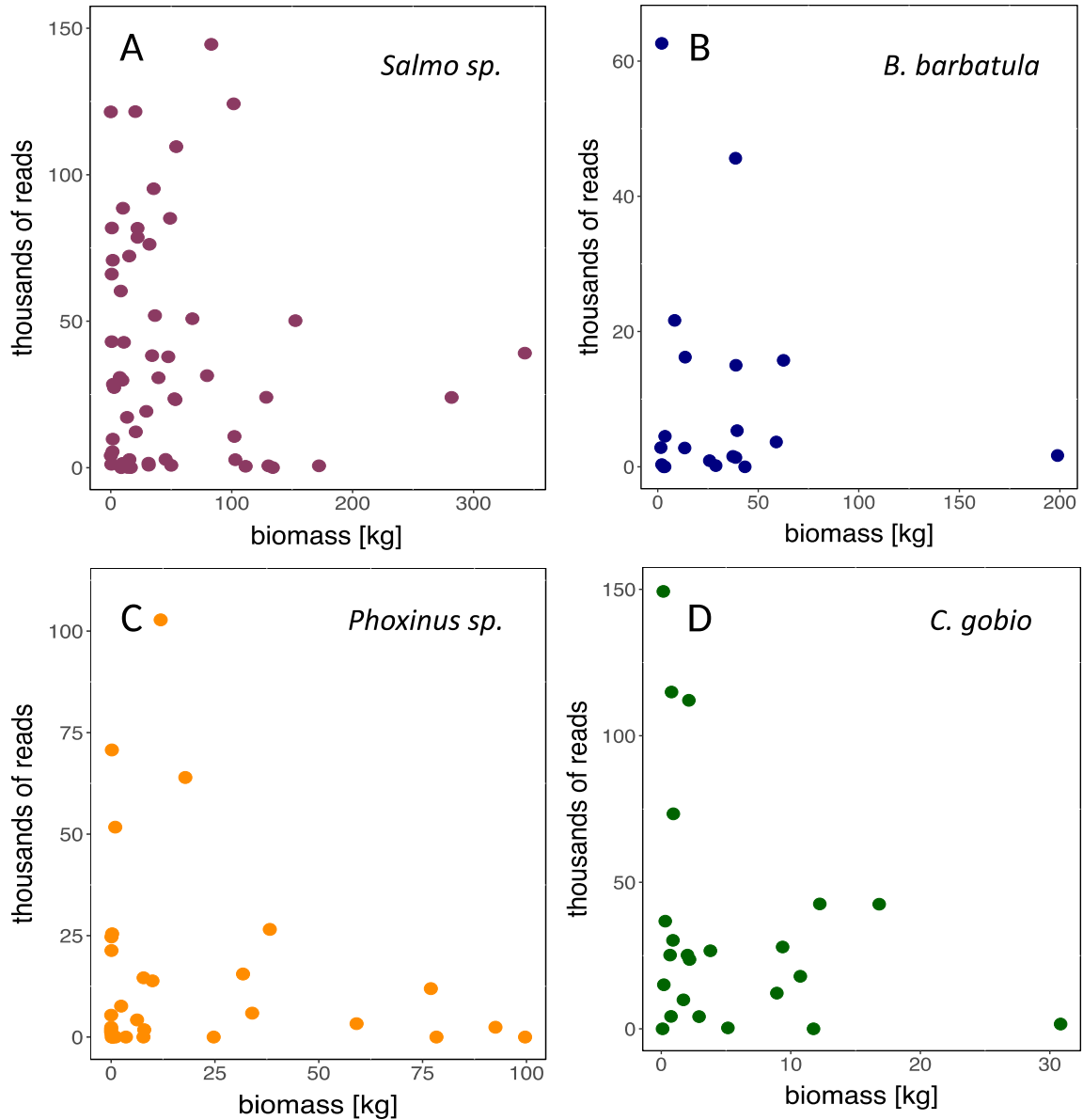


Figure S5: These four examples of taxa showcase the relationship between the number of reads to the biomass on a site level (each point represents a site) for A) *Salmo* sp., B) *B. barbatula*, C) *Phoxinus* sp., and D) *C. gobio*. These species were commonly detected with both methods, electrofishing and eDNA, but when comparing the quantitative estimate at every site (biomass and reads, respectively), there was no significant relationship. The four examples here represent common species on the gamma diversity level, but even if a species showed similar proportions of biomass to reads on the gamma diversity level, like *B. barbatula*, the relationship did not hold up on the local level. A mixed effect model across all species showed that there was no correlation between reads and biomass (formula: biomass \sim reads + 1 | site, $F = 3.6$, $df = 182$, $R^2 = 0.13$, $p < 0.62$).

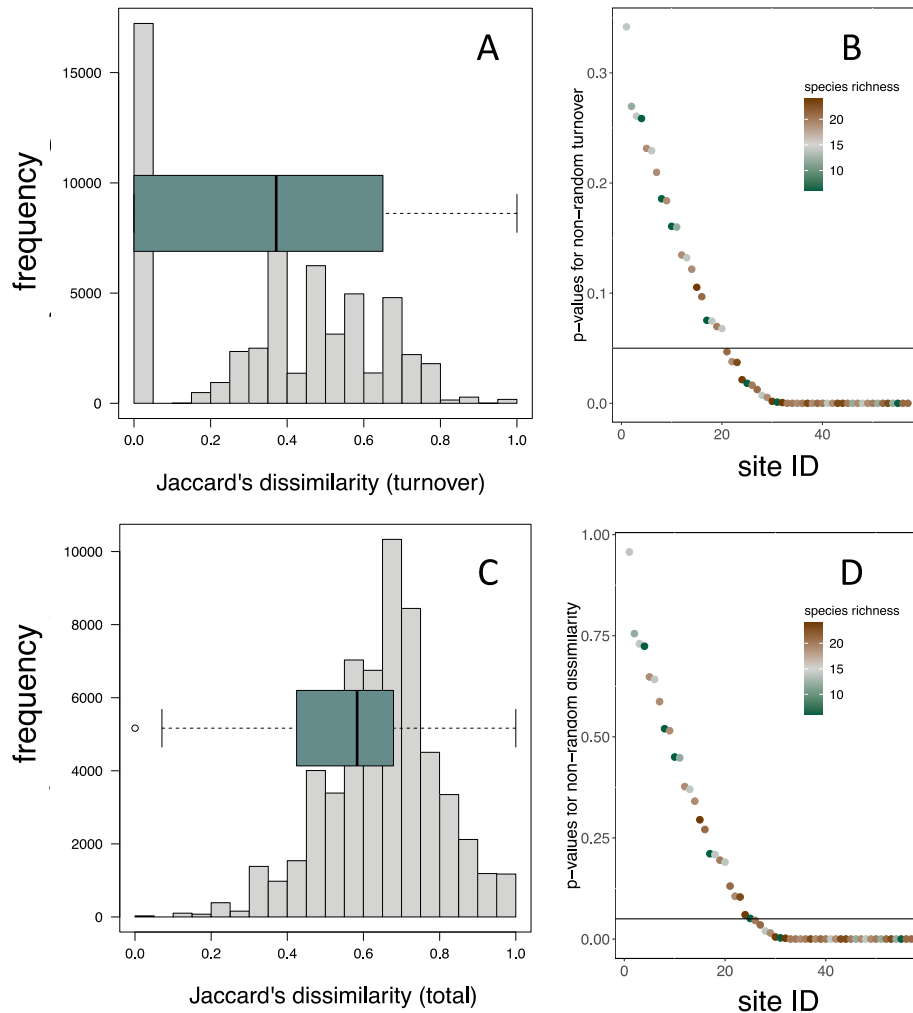


Figure S6: Non-random dissimilarity between the monitoring data between electrofishing and eDNA based data. A) The distribution of random turnover values indicated in gray bars. The observed values range are indicated by the boxplot. B) The p-value distribution of all sites for the comparison of observed turnover vs. randomised values. One point shows the p-value of one site, coloured by the local richness detected by both methods. C) The distribution of random total dissimilarity based on Jaccard's index. D) The p-value distribution of all sites for the comparison of the total dissimilarity vs. randomized values.

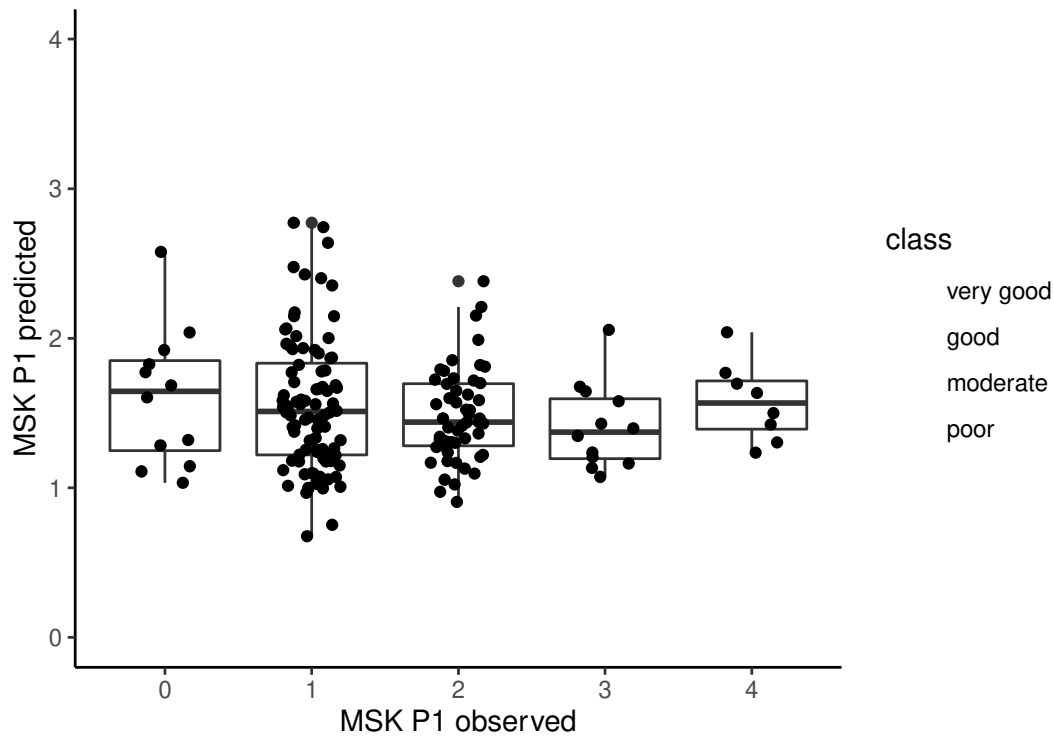


Figure S7: Boxplots showing the biotic index scores predicted using a Random Forest Model from eDNA derived fish community data (on the y-axis) against the observed score of the biotic index (MSK 19) based on electrofishing data for all sampling sites. The predictions showed no significant differences between the classes (formula: predicted index ~ observed index, $F = 0.001$, $df = 178$, $p\text{-value} = 0.85$). The colored boxes indicate the different classes of the water quality at a river site. The index is composed of 4 parameters, where only P1 is based on the diversity of the local community therefore eDNA data that was implemented here only cover 1 out of 4 parameters, and the model gives poor predictions based on the 46 sites and 45 fish species available to us.