### Winds of change: Charting a pathway to ecosystem monitoring using 1

airborne environmental DNA 2

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### 38 Abstract

39 Airborne environmental DNA (airborne eDNA) analysis leverages the globally ubiquitous 40 medium of air to deliver broad species distribution data and support ecosystem monitoring across diverse environments. As this emerging technology matures, addressing critical challenges and 41 seizing key opportunities will be essential to fully realise its potentially transformative impact. In 42 June 2024, the Southern eDNA Society convened over 100 researchers, industry leaders, and 43 44 biodiversity management stakeholders in a landmark workshop to evaluate the current state of 45 airborne eDNA research and chart a course for future development. Participants explored opportunities for integrating airborne eDNA into existing monitoring systems, but they 46 unanimously agreed that research must first be applied to improving understanding of airborne 47 48 eDNA ecology. The workshop emphasised the importance of collaborative engagement with 49 stakeholders - including government agencies, Indigenous communities, and citizen scientists -50 to ensure practical and ethical implementation. This summary highlights current challenges and 51 actionable recommendations, including improving our understanding of airborne eDNA ecology, 52 harmonising sampling methodology (e.g., devices, materials, sampling density, duration), 53 identifying and mitigating sources of error, and fostering early, sustained stakeholder 54 collaboration. By addressing these challenges, airborne eDNA analysis can become a 55 transformative tool for biodiversity, biosecurity, and conservation monitoring on a global scale. Its ability to detect diverse taxonomic groups-including fungi, plants, arthropods, microbes, and 56 57 vertebrates—positions airborne eDNA as a pivotal technology for holistic terrestrial biodiversity 58 assessments that transcend traditional, species-focused monitoring approaches.

59 **Keywords**: airborne eDNA, biodiversity, biosecurity, monitoring, terrestrial, Southern eDNA 60 Society implementation aerobiology agolian conservation

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### 61 Introduction

Amid a growing global biodiversity crisis, decision-makers require accurate and timely species
 distribution and occurrence data. Over the last decade, environmental DNA (eDNA) analysis has

64 become a widely used surveillance tool, particularly within aquatic ecosystems. Sequencing DNA 65 shed by organisms in the environment has enabled time- and cost-effective, non-invasive

66 biodiversity assessments (Ficetola et al., 2008; Pawlowski et al., 2020; Rodriguez-Ezpeleta et al.,

- 67 2021). As the field evolves, new eDNA methods continue to emerge, with airborne eDNA analysis
- being one of the latest additions (Bohmann & Lynggaard, 2023; Johnson & Barnes, 2024).

69 Airborne eDNA is derived from bioaerosols, which encompass a diverse array of organic 70 materials. These include (1) microorganisms such as viruses, bacteria, microalgae, and unicellular fungi; (2) propagules like pollen and spores released by plants and fungi; and (3) biological 71 72 fragments, including excretions, cells, and tissue pieces from plants, animals, and microbes (Després et al., 2012). While the definition of "airborne eDNA" remains an unresolved point in 73 74 the field, for practical purposes, we define it here as DNA extracted from any biological material 75 captured in air samples. This broad definition acknowledges the methodological consistency of approaches used to collect and analyse airborne biological material, whether targeting pollen, 76 fungal spores, microbes, plant fragments, or vertebrate DNA. 77

78 Given its ability to capture DNA from diverse sources, airborne eDNA analysis has been applied 79 across multiple fields, including detection of invasive species (Trujillo-González et al., 2022; 80 Sanders et al., 2023), biodiversity assessments (Clare et al., 2022), detection of rare or elusive 81 species (Garrett et al., 2023a), and tracking of allergenic pollen (Kraaijeveld et al., 2015). 82 Emerging applications in airborne environmental RNA (eRNA) further extend potential use cases, 83 particularly for pathogen surveillance (Chia et al., 2020; Bossers et al., 2024). Together, these 84 advances enable cross-disciplinary ecological and evolutionary research and support 85 comprehensive ecosystem health monitoring.

86 Airborne eDNA analysis holds immense promise for monitoring applications across a wide range 87 of terrestrial environments, with the ability to capture genetic material from air to complement substrate-restricted eDNA sampling methods. This unique potential could enable broad-scale 88 89 biodiversity assessments in locations where traditional field monitoring methods are impractical. 90 However, the methodology remains nascent, sharing many challenges with established eDNA 91 sources like water, such as imperfect detection and sensitivity to environmental conditions 92 (Johnson et al., 2021a; Rowney et al., 2021). Rather than deterring progress, these challenges underscore the need for targeted research and methodological innovation. Variation in sample 93 94 collection and analysis, although expected in an emerging field, has prompted studies on sampling 95 method effects (Johnson et al., 2019a), detection limits (Foster et al., 2023), and source estimation 96 for airborne eDNA (Lennartz et al., 2021; Gusareva et al., 2022), emphasising the importance of 97 quantifying methodological impacts on data robustness, repeatability, and reliability. Recognising

- 98 this momentum, Johnson & Barnes (2024) recently reviewed the field's growth, challenges, and
- 99 potential future directions, identifying key hurdles still to be addressed.

100 In June 2024, over 100 researchers, industry leaders and management stakeholders convened in

- 101 Canberra, Australia, both in person and virtually, for a pivotal two-day workshop hosted by the
- Southern eDNA Society (SeDNAS, https://sednasociety.com/, accessed 13 September 2024).
   Participants from 30 institutions and eight countries evaluated the current state of airborne eDNA
- 104 research identified key shallonges and outlined strategic nothways for future development
- research, identified key challenges, and outlined strategic pathways for future development.
- 105 While acknowledging the long-standing use of eDNA metabarcoding and targeted species 106 detection in airborne microbial community and pollen and fungal spore studies, the workshop primarily focused on the use of airborne eDNA for detecting macro-organisms. Discussions 107 revealed many overlapping challenges with other forms of eDNA, such as aquatic or soil-based 108 109 methods, but workshop participants acknowledged that a subset of challenges including exceptionally low total DNA concentrations and the establishment of appropriate field controls are 110 unique to the medium of air. The workshop centred around four key questions: (1) What might 111 airborne eDNA data be used for? (2) How is airborne eDNA currently collected and processed? 112 113 (3) What are the key questions about airborne eDNA ecology that need to be answered? (4) How do we as researchers engage effectively with airborne eDNA stakeholders? Here, we summarise 114 115 the workshop outputs, provide insights into the advances and future directions of airborne eDNA technology, and offer a workshop statement to summarise current community consensus on the 116 117 emerging field (see Box 1).

### 118

119	Box 1. Southern eDNA Society Airborne eDNA Workshop Joint Statement
120	"Airborne eDNA analysis is a potentially powerful biomonitoring tool, however we must
121	improve our understanding of airborne eDNA ecology, sampling strategy impacts, signal
122	variability and sensitivity. With validation, airborne eDNA tools may become standard in
123	biodiversity, biosecurity and conservation applications."

### 124 Airborne eDNA applications

125 Interest in airborne eDNA has grown rapidly following proof-of-concept studies demonstrating its 126 utility in detecting vertebrates (Clare et al., 2021) and plants that rely on insect or animal 127 pollination rather than wind dispersal (Johnson et al., 2019b). These studies paved the way for 128 early applications of airborne eDNA analysis in terrestrial biodiversity assessments (Clare et al., 129 2022; Lynggaard et al., 2022; Bohmann & Lynggaard, 2023; Lynggaard et al., 2024). The utility 130 of airborne eDNA extends beyond targeted species detection to monitoring across the tree of life. 131 Its ability to simultaneously identify microorganisms, plants, and animals allows for the 132 development of comprehensive biodiversity baselines and offers unparalleled opportunities to 133 detect shifts in community composition and biodiversity health. When paired with traditional 134 survey techniques such as camera traps, manual handling, and visual surveys (Johnson et al., 135 2021b; Roger et al., 2022) and complementary forms of eDNA (Runnel et al., 2024), airborne 136 eDNA may improve detection of terrestrial and arboreal species that may otherwise be 137 underrepresented or undetected (Banchi et al., 2020).

138 In the context of a changing climate and increasingly interconnected world, airborne eDNA 139 analysis enables rapid detection of plant and animal pests and identification of incursion pathways, offering valuable data for biosecurity applications (Kestel et al., 2022; Trujillo-González et al., 140 2022; Sanders et al., 2023). Its potential spans all phases of the invasion curve - from pre-141 142 biosecurity breach and early detection to containment and eradication monitoring - highlighting 143 its future role as a critical tool in biosecurity monitoring (Bell et al., 2024). For example, airborne 144 eDNA has been shown to complement visual monitoring approaches for detecting pest species incursions, such as the successful detection of hemlock woolly adelgid populations in eastern 145 146 North America (Geller & Partridge, 2025), a species native to Japan that has established as an 147 invasive pest in affected regions (Havill et al., 2016). Airborne eDNA is also being tested in agricultural settings, such as honeybee colonies, to evaluate colony health and foraging behaviour, 148 149 highlighting its potential for broader applications in agroecological monitoring and biosecurity 150 (Pepinelli et al., 2025).

151 Airborne eDNA collection offers an opportunity to sample in inaccessible regions and monitor 152 biodiversity at spatial, temporal, and replication scales that were previously unattainable using traditional field-based methods. Like other eDNA approaches, airborne eDNA analysis can 153 154 facilitate access to remote or challenging locations, including burrows and mountain-tops and 155 enhance monitoring of sensitive or cryptic species (Lynggaard et al., 2024). The possible 156 simplicity of airborne eDNA capture lends kindly to the expansion of sampling density through 157 citizen scientist initiatives (Madden et al., 2016), mirroring those currently in use in aquatic 158 systems (Biggs et al., 2014). To increase sampling scale affordably, an opportunity is emerging in 159 repurposing existing sample collection infrastructure – such as pollen, spore or pollution 160 monitoring stations (Littlefair et al., 2023), which can generate biodiversity data coupled with

161 environmental and meteorological datasets. Many of these infrastructures archive samples,

- 162 providing the potential for retrospective analysis of biodiversity trends and historical species
- 163 presence using airborne eDNA.

### 164 Airborne eDNA collection

Platforms used to collect airborne eDNA vary widely in their design and material composition, generally falling into two categories: passive or active samplers. The choice between these methods depends on the monitoring goal and project resources.

Passive samplers rely on natural air movement to collect eDNA. With simple designs requiring 168 169 low maintenance, they can be deployed at high density to increase temporal and spatial replication, 170 delivering precise detection probabilities and occupancy estimates while reducing random 171 variation due to fluctuating environmental conditions (Whittington et al., 2015; Burian et al., 2021). Passive sampling is particularly advantageous for cost-effective, mobile deployments, 172 173 supporting flexible sampling campaigns across many sites. However, passive methods depend on 174 ambient air movement and may require long deployment times to accumulate sufficient DNA, 175 especially in environments with low particulate loads. Examples of passive samplers include Big 176 Spring Number Eight dust traps (Johnson et al., 2023), modified Wilson and Cooke towers, 177 marble-filled pan traps (Johnson et al., 2019a), filter and funnel sedimentation traps (Schlegel et 178 al., 2024), and sticky traps (Runnel et al., 2024). Opportunistic methods, such as collecting 179 spiderwebs to capture airborne eDNA, have also been explored (Xu et al., 2015; Gregoric et al., 180 2022; Newton et al., 2024).

181 In contrast, active samplers use powered equipment, such as fans, to intentionally draw air through or onto a particle collection system, like filters, impingers, or cyclonic separators. These systems 182 183 may increase the volume of air sampled over a given time period, impacting the effective test area 184 and detection probability, though further research is needed to quantify this effect. Although more 185 complex and power-dependent than passive devices, active samplers enable controlled, 186 standardised sampling and can deliver higher temporal resolution over extended periods. Examples of active samplers include cyclonic air-samplers (Brennan et al., 2019; Roger et al., 2022), dry 187 cyclone samplers (Brennan et al., 2019), computer fan-powered 3D-printed filter frames 188 189 (Lynggaard et al., 2022; Garrett et al., 2023a), and repurposed pollution monitoring stations 190 (Littlefair et al., 2023).

- 191 As new collection systems are developed and tested, platform design variation is expected to
- 192 increase. To guide this innovation, workshop attendees identified key attributes for airborne eDNA
- 193 samplers (Figure 1). The desired features of a sampling platform directly relate to the monitoring
- 194 scale, context, and longevity of use.

195 We define long-term monitoring platforms as those designed for continuous or repeated sampling 196 at fixed sites, typically supported by permanent or semi-permanent infrastructure (e.g., pest 197 monitoring in agricultural systems or biodiversity assessments at long-term research sites). Such 198 platforms should be durable, low-maintenance, and tamper resistant, with modular or customisable 199 components that allow different sampling modules, filters, or environmental sensors to be swapped 200 in or upgraded as monitoring objectives evolve. This flexibility can extend the operational lifespan 201 of devices and support multi-purpose sampling, for example, switching between general 202 biodiversity monitoring and targeted surveillance of specific taxa. Features that support DNA 203 preservation, such as *in situ* drying, chemical stabilisation, or refrigeration modules, are critical 204 for maintaining sample integrity during long deployments. Remote monitoring capabilities, such 205 as real-time environmental sensing, airflow or filter performance tracking, and automated alerts 206 for maintenance needs, can further enhance data reliability and operational efficiency.

207 Short-term monitoring platforms are designed for temporary, mobile deployments – ranging from hours to weeks - for episodic, opportunistic, or event-based monitoring needs like in the case of 208 209 establishing invasion fronts in biosecurity controls efforts or supporting citizen science initiatives. 210 These platforms benefit from simple, low-cost designs that are lightweight, easy to deploy, and 211 ideally inconspicuous in the field. Their portability makes them especially useful for rapid-212 response surveys or distributed sampling by non-specialists, such as volunteers. Where these 213 devices are used in citizen science or for educational purposes, they may be designed with user-214 friendly packaging and engaging data exploration interfaces to encourage participation.

215 Across both long- and short-term applications, all platforms should include core attributes such as 216 standardised sample preparation and storage, systems for collecting contamination controls, and 217 straightforward decontamination processes. Easy downstream sample processing, such as 218 automated filter handling and DNA extraction, helps minimise manual handling and accelerates 219 sample throughput. Additional key features include high sensitivity with in-built replication, 220 repeatable deployment, and chain-of-custody tracking to ensure data integrity. Optional enhancements may include integration with meteorological data or point-of-application 221 222 diagnostics to improve system utility in specific contexts.

223 In practice, the distinction between long- and short-term platforms is closely linked to the choice 224 between passive and active samplers, each offering advantages and limitations depending on the 225 deployment context. Passive samplers may be preferable for short-term or opportunistic 226 deployments because of their low cost, ease of transport, and minimal infrastructure needs, 227 especially when broad spatial coverage is required. However, challenges such as maintaining 228 exposure consistency and ensuring sufficient DNA accumulation limit their suitability for 229 continuous long-term monitoring. Active samplers, though more resource-intensive, provide 230 controlled, standardised sampling and the potential for higher temporal resolution, making them 231 well-suited to long-term monitoring. Active systems may also be preferred for short-term use when 232 rapid DNA collection is essential, such as during time-sensitive biodiversity or biosecurity events.

- 233 An integrated approach combining both methods, such as deploying passive samplers across broad
- 234 landscapes while maintaining active systems at key sentinel sites, may optimise monitoring
- 235 outcomes. Despite their complementary roles, direct performance comparisons between passive
- and active systems remain limited (but see Jager et al., 2025), highlighting the need for further
- comparative studies.
- 238 Regardless of the sampling approach, attendees underscored that critical sampling parameters must
- 239 be validated before any method or device can be widely adopted for monitoring purposes to ensure
- reliable and accurate data generation.
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### Long-Term monitoring

### **Common attributes**





Non-specific DNA capture across taxa or optimised for specific target Standardised mechanism for sample preservation/storage post-sampling System for collecting contamination control samples (negative controls) Simple decontamination Easy downstream processing Repeatable deployment High sensitivity/In-built replication

Chain-of-custody tracking

Integration with meteorological data/ metadata collection (optional)

Point of application diagnostics (optional)

### **Short-Term monitoring**

Simple deployment (especially by non-specialists)

Transportable/light-weight

Inexpensive

Inconspicuous

Recyclable/sustainably produced

Unpowered/low power

Engaging interface (especially for citizen science including children) (optional)

### 243 Figure 1. Key attributes of airborne eDNA collection platforms

244 Ideal airborne eDNA collection devices balance core common attributes with fit-for-purpose design tailored to specific 245 monitoring needs. Long-term monitoring platforms, typically supported by permanent or semi-permanent 246 infrastructure, should prioritise durability, sample integrity, low maintenance, and modular/customisable components 247 that enable evolving monitoring goals. Remote monitoring capabilities can enhance operational efficiency by 248 providing real-time data on environmental conditions or device performance. Short-term monitoring platforms are 249 designed for mobile, temporary use and should emphasise simplicity, portability, and cost-effectiveness, especially 250 when used for rapid-response surveys or citizen science initiatives. In such contexts, engaging packaging and intuitive 251 data interfaces may encourage participation. Across all platforms, standardised mechanisms for sample preparation 252 and preservation, systems for collecting contamination controls, straightforward decontamination, and compatibility 253 with high-throughput downstream processing are critical for ensuring data reliability and usability.

### 254 Advancing understanding of factors influencing airborne eDNA

255 detection

A comprehensive understanding of environmental, ecological, and technical parameters is critical
 for optimising airborne eDNA monitoring. Table 1 summarises key factors identified by workshop

- 258 participants that require validation to strengthen confidence in airborne eDNA data.
- 259 It is well-established that eDNA generation, persistence, and degradation (i.e., eDNA ecology) can be influenced by temperature, humidity, UV exposure, and other environmental factors, which 260 261 introduce variability in species detection (Barnes et al., 2014; Shogren et al., 2017; Harrison et al., 2019; Barnes et al., 2021; Jo & Minamoto, 2021). Airborne eDNA studies have begun to explore 262 these influences, demonstrating, for example, the impact of weather and human activity on 263 detection probabilities (Johnson et al., 2021a; Hanson et al., 2024). Species seasonality (e.g., pollen 264 release, insect emergence, bird migration) and fluctuating air currents have also been identified as 265 266 variables with potential to skew biodiversity assessments if not properly accounted for (Caliz et 267 al., 2018; Aalismail et al., 2021). These environmental parameters should be routinely recorded alongside sampling to better contextualise results and allow for identification of potential sources 268 269 of variability.

270 Beyond environmental factors, technical elements such as sampler type, deployment strategy, and 271 analytical workflows play pivotal roles in shaping data composition. Workshop attendees 272 identified critical technical parameters requiring validation, including sampling methods, sampling 273 density and replication, sample preservation, bioinformatic parameters, and controls (Table 1). For 274 example, sampling methods encompass device design choices such as filters versus sticky traps, passive versus active systems, or impingement versus filtration, all of which may yield differing 275 efficiencies (Johnson et al., 2019a; Chang et al., 2023). Sampling density refers to the number of 276 independently deployed units across a site, while replication reflects technical and experiment 277 278 repeats (e.g., number of filters collected per unit or number of qPCR replicates) within each 279 sample. Sample preservation is especially important in airborne contexts, where low biomass and environmental exposure can rapidly degrade or contaminate the DNA sample. Field and laboratory 280 281 controls are critical for detecting contamination events, while bioinformatic parameters such as 282 filtering thresholds and taxonomic assignment strategies must be appropriately selected and 283 transparently described to ensure data comparability.

Although aquatic and soil eDNA studies provide valuable starting points, their insights do not fully mirror the challenges of airborne eDNA sampling. For example, aquatic-focused studies on DNA particle size, degradation kinetics, and extraction methods (Barnes et al., 2014; Deiner et al., 2015; Barnes et al., 2021) offer transferable knowledge but require confirmation under airborne conditions. Airborne eDNA also presents unique challenges, including potentially very low DNA concentrations, rapid particle sedimentation, and the influence of complex air currents, all of which

290 require dedicated investigation. Without insight into these factors, conservation or biosecurity

- 291 actions informed by airborne eDNA data may risk misinterpretation and inefficiency due to
- 292 uncharacterised detection error. Thus, investigation and validation of a diverse range of parameters
- will be essential for progressing the utility of airborne eDNA analysis (Atkinson & Roy, 2023;
- Bohmann & Lynggaard, 2023).

The need for parameter validation will depend on study objectives. While the field works toward understanding these factors, it is important that airborne eDNA studies clearly communicate study limitations. Importantly, airborne eDNA studies should clearly articulate their experimental design, use of controls, and data analysis approach to further facilitate identification of potential

299 sources of detection error.

## Table 1. Key parameters requiring validation for reliable airborne environmental DNA (eDNA) monitoring

A non-exhaustive list of critical parameters requiring validation to ensure the reliability of airborne eDNA monitoring. Parameters are grouped into four categories: Technical/experimental, Environmental factors, Ecology of target species, and Detection limits. For each category, specific parameters, the validation required, and examples of relevant studies are provided. The  $\delta$  symbol indicates studies or recommendations made for aquatic eDNA, highlighting transferable knowledge from existing eDNA research.

Category	Parameters	Validation Required	Examples
Technical/experimental	<ul> <li>Sampling methods</li> <li>Sampling density</li> <li>Technical and experimental replication</li> <li>Sample preservation</li> <li>Bioinformatics</li> <li>Field and laboratory controls</li> </ul>	Comparisons of sampling methods (e.g., active versus passive). Optimisation of sampling materials. Effects of sampling design (e.g., height of sampler, sampling duration, air volume), DNA preservation solutions and contamination. Selection of bioinformatic parameters. Identification of appropriate controls.	Sampling and processing effects on terrestrial plant detection (Johnson et al., 2019a) Sampling impacts on airborne viral detection (Chang et al., 2023) Aquatic study recommendations (Goldberg et al., 2016) <sup>d</sup> Sampling and extraction effects in freshwater systems (Deiner et al., 2015) <sup>d</sup>
Environmental factors	<ul> <li>Weather</li> <li>UV irradiance</li> <li>Human activity</li> </ul>	Impact of humidity, temperature, wind direction and speed, UV index, precipitation, air pressure, and local human activity on DNA transport and persistence.	Seasonal weather impact on tree species detection (Hanson et al., 2024) Combined influence of seasonality and human activity on plant detection (Johnson et al., 2021a) Environmental influence over eDNA particle size in freshwater systems (Barnes et al., 2021) <sup>d</sup> eDNA persistence in controlled freshwater system (Barnes et al., 2014) <sup>d</sup>

Ecology of target species	<ul> <li>Habitat</li> <li>Behaviour</li> <li>Life cycle</li> <li>Species mobility</li> <li>DNA shedding rates</li> <li>Shed DNA form</li> </ul>	Influence of species biology on DNA shedding, DNA distribution and detection.	Source locations of eukaryotic species detected in atmospheric dust (Aalismail et al., 2021) Influence of tree species biology on detection (Johnson et al., 2019b) Influence of land-use type and seasonality on airborne bacterial and fungal community composition (Bowers et al., 2011; Caliz et al., 2018; Anees-Hill et al., 2022)
Detection limits	<ul><li>Sensitivity</li><li>Inhibition</li><li>Error Estimation</li></ul>	Minimum detection thresholds. Identification of likely inhibitors. Estimating and accounting for error using analysis tools.	<ul> <li>qPCR inhibition in indoor air samples (McDevitt et al., 2007)</li> <li>Defining detection limits (Klymus et al., 2020)</li> <li>PCR inhibition in freshwater systems (Jane et al., 2015; Buxton et al., 2017) <sup>d</sup></li> <li>Improving reliability of eDNA data interpretation using statistical models (Burian et al., 2021)</li> </ul>

307 Airborne eDNA, like other eDNA approaches, is prone to error from several major sources, including, contamination of DNA in the workflow, inefficient DNA capture, PCR inhibition, 308 309 misidentification of DNA, and changing taxonomies (Furlan et al., 2020; Burian et al., 2021; Garrett et al., 2023a; Garrett et al., 2023b). Detection sensitivity and inhibition are particularly 310 critical considerations, as environmental samples often contain low DNA concentrations alongside 311 potential inhibitors such as dust, soot, and pollen (McDevitt et al., 2007). These factors can 312 suppress amplification efficiency, leading to underestimation of biodiversity. To improve 313 confidence in results, validation of detection thresholds, identification of likely inhibitors, and 314 315 rigorous error estimation, such as using internal controls and mock community trials, are essential 316 steps (Klymus et al., 2020; Burian et al., 2021).

To address these challenges systematically, the workshop developed a four-part framework 317 318 articulating the main sources of error in eDNA datasets and outlining tailored mitigation strategies 319 (Figure 2). The framework divides the eDNA workflow into two stages: capture (physical 320 collection of environmental DNA) and analysis (identification and interpretation of DNA). Errors 321 arising during capture are classified as **detection** errors, while those arising during analysis are 322 classified as identification errors. Together, these stages yield four distinct error types: (1) false 323 negative detections, where DNA is present in the environment but is not captured; (2) false 324 negative identifications, where DNA is captured but cannot be accurately identified; (3) false 325 **positive detections**, where DNA is correctly identified but originates from outside the target area; 326 and (4) false positive identifications, where DNA is misidentified as the wrong species. Each 327 error type requires tailored mitigation strategies, for example, improving detection methods may 328 address false negatives, while enhanced bioinformatic pipelines and reference databases can 329 reduce the likelihood of false positive identifications.

eDNA datasets are often complicated by false positive detections from laboratory contaminants and ubiquitous signals from humans, agricultural plants and animals, and common fungi. While detection of common contaminants is not unique to airborne eDNA (Sepulveda et al., 2020a), sampling air presents a unique challenge in that every step of the collection and analysis process is unavoidably exposed to ambient air, increasing the risk of contamination at every stage. This underscores the need for robust controls at both field and laboratory stages, as current

- 336 methodologies may not adequately mitigate contamination risks specific to air sampling.
- 337 While most airborne eDNA studies have included standard blank extraction controls, some have 338 instituted negative filter controls (e.g., filters not exposed to air in the field) see Roger et al. (2022), 339 and others also include laboratory air controls (e.g., filters exposed to laboratory air) see Littlefair et al. (2023). In addition to these controls, regional baseline monitoring, through both targeted 340 341 eDNA surveys and conventional biodiversity assessments, can help contextualise detections by 342 establishing a reference of species expected to be present in a given area. This approach is 343 particularly valuable for distinguishing between true local detections and potential false positives 344 arising from long-distance DNA transport or unexpected environmental contamination.
- 345 A further complication is defining the "target ecosystem" for airborne eDNA. Unlike freshwater 346 aquatic eDNA studies, where the sampling area is often clearly bounded (e.g., a specific pond or 347 stream), airborne eDNA may reflect biological signals from a much broader or ambiguous source 348 area. DNA can accumulate from both local and distant sources, complicating the interpretation of 349 whether a species is truly present at the sampling site. Recent work by Tournayre et al. (2025) has 350 provided tentative estimates of airborne eDNA transport distances, using a network of 15 repurposed air pollution monitors. They reported a median estimated travel distance of 351 352 approximately 18 km, though these estimates are preliminary and specific to the sampler type used 353 (Digitel 392 DPA-14) and particle size collected (particles  $\leq 10 \ \mu m$ ). Smaller particles likely disperse farther, and wind and landscape features may generate complex patterns, underscoring 354 355 the need for further empirical research to clarify airborne DNA transport dynamics and the spatial 356 resolution of airborne eDNA detections.
- To support more reliable interpretation, regional datasets could be developed by leveraging existing environmental monitoring programs, such as national air quality (Littlefair et al., 2023) and large-scale pollen and fungal spore monitoring networks such as the European Aeroallergen Network (<u>ean.polleninfo.eu</u>), the US National Allergy Bureau (<u>pollen.aaaai.org</u>), and the Australian Pollen Allergen Partnership (<u>auspollen.edu.au</u>). Large-scale microbial and dust monitoring initiatives (Barberán et al., 2015; Tignat-Perrier et al., 2019) also present opportunities to cross-reference airborne eDNA detections with broader atmospheric biodiversity trends.

Errors related to DNA identification can also have broad-reaching impacts on biodiversity assessments and management decisions made from eDNA data, for example, both false positive and false negative identifications can skew biodiversity assessments. The complexity of this

- 367 problem was illustrated in recent studies surveying bat biodiversity using airborne eDNA (Garrett
- et al., 2023a; Garrett et al., 2023b). In these studies, Garrett et al (2023a/b) worked at a long-term
- 369 bat monitoring site with 35-40 common species, many of which have undergone multiple recent
- 370 taxonomic revisions (e.g., Mimon crenulatum reclassified to Gardnerycteris crenulatum and then
- 371 to Gardnerycteris keenani). Taxonomic flux and ambiguous reference sequences complicated
- 372 species identification, even with taxon-specific expert input and manual curation. Notably, the
- 373 study found that closely related species with near-identical barcode sequences simultaneously
- 374 increased the risk of false positive identifications (misassigning DNA to the wrong species) and
- 375 false negative identifications (downgrading data to genus level or overlooking valid detections).

376 To mitigate false positive identifications, independent verification methods such as visual surveys, 377 acoustic monitoring, or camera trapping, are valuable for corroborating eDNA findings, particularly when detections carry management implications. In the bat study, these validation 378 379 efforts were key to distinguishing genuine detections from artefacts arising from taxonomic 380 ambiguity and regional synonymy, issues that are likely to affect other taxonomic groups, especially when reference databases lack curation. While independent verification remains best 381 382 practice, there is growing interest in determining when airborne eDNA data, particularly for well-383 characterised systems, can stand alone as sufficient evidence for community assessments. Ongoing 384 benchmarking and cross-validation efforts will be critical in clarifying where and when this is 385 appropriate.

386 Continued improvement of bioinformatics pipelines and reference databases will reduce the likelihood of false identifications. Advanced data processing tools can enhance the reliability of 387 388 eDNA data interpretation, accounting for error which cannot otherwise be eliminated through 389 control of characterised variables (Burian et al., 2021). For false negative identifications, 390 expanding the use of multiple genetic markers (e.g., COI, 12S, 16S) can increase taxonomic 391 coverage and improve resolution. However, this approach introduces additional laboratory 392 complexity, analytical costs, and potential challenges in marker optimisation. Marker choice must 393 balance broad taxonomic reach with specificity tailored to monitoring goals. Data processing tools 394 which apply hierarchical occupancy or process-based models have been shown to mitigate the 395 impact of error sources through the estimation of uncertainty related to species detection 396 (McClenaghan et al., 2020).

397 A major bottleneck remains the availability of reference sequences, particularly for invertebrates 398 and fungi. Workshop participants strongly advocated for coordinated reference sequencing 399 initiatives, ideally in partnership with natural history collections (Schmid et al., 2025) to close 400 these gaps, with a focus on regionally relevant species. Progress on this front will enable greater 401 confidence in using airborne eDNA as a standalone tool, especially in well-characterised systems 402 where reference databases are comprehensive. Initiatives such as the Australia's National 403 Biodiversity DNA Library (NBDL; research.csiro.au/dnalibrary), which links whole organellar 404 (mitochondrial and chloroplast) genomes to vouchered specimens and aims to barcode all

- 405 Australian species, exemplify best practice. Similar large-scale efforts include the Barcode of Life
- 406 Data System (BOLD; <u>boldsystems.org</u>) (Ratnasingham & Hebert, 2007) and the International
- 407 Barcode of Life (iBOL; ibol.org) project, which have made significant advances in building global
- 408 barcode libraries. As these resources grow and incorporate rigorous taxonomic validation, they
- 409 will reduce reliance on supplementary verification in many contexts. However, workshop
- 410 participants cautioned that these goals remain aspirational for many taxa and regions, reinforcing
- 411 the continued importance of validation and benchmarking in the near term.
- 412 While best practices in field and laboratory protocols and data interpretation remain fundamental,
- 413 they are insufficient on their own to negate all sources of error. Nonetheless, as has been shown in
- 414 aquatic systems, the presence of some data uncertainty should not deter managers from utilising
- 415 eDNA data when it offers a valuable, non-invasive tool for biodiversity and biosecurity monitoring
- 416 (Jerde, 2021).



417

### 418 Figure 2. Framework for addressing errors in airborne eDNA analysis

419 Framework for understanding error in eDNA analysis, distinguishing four categories of error arising from two key stages of the 420 workflow: detection (during sample collection) and identification (during data analysis). The upper and lower halves of the figure 421 represent detection and identification errors, respectively, while green (left) and tan (right) indicate positive and negative

422 conclusions. Each error type stems from distinct sources and requires tailored mitigation strategies, illustrated around the perimeter.

423

### 424 Building partnerships and trust in airborne eDNA

As airborne eDNA research matures, models of stakeholder engagement used in water and soil eDNA sampling can serve as useful templates to support successful implementation (Morisette et al., 2021). Achieving this will require early and sustained collaboration with agencies, industries, academic institutions, citizen scientists, and Indigenous communities (Bonicalza et al., 2024). Given the complexity of integrating genetic data with climatic and ecological information, engaging stakeholders from the outset helps ensures research approaches are fit-for-purpose and ethically sound.

432 The use of airborne eDNA raises important ethical concerns, particularly regarding privacy, 433 consent, and potential misuse. These include risks such as unintended disclosure of sensitive 434 species locations and potential impacts on Indigenous communities and landowners if data are 435 collected without consent (Handsley-Davis et al., 2021). Best practices should therefore prioritise 436 co-design with Indigenous communities, respecting local contexts and protocols, and adhering to 437 FAIR (Findable, Accessible, Interoperable, Reusable) and CARE (Collective Benefit, Authority 438 to Control, Responsibility, Ethics) data governance principles (www.gida-global.org/care) 439 (Hutchins et al., 2023; Kukutai & Black, 2024). Frameworks such as the Te Mata Ira and Te 440 Nohonga Kaitiaki Guidelines for Genomic Research with Māori and on Taonga Species from 441 Genomics Aotearoa (Hudson et al., 2021) and the United States' National Aquatic eDNA Strategy 442 (Goodwin et al., 2024) provide guidance on ethical Indigenous engagement. Early and intentional collaboration with Indigenous communities and management agencies helps align scientific goals 443 444 with practical needs, fostering mutually beneficial and culturally respectful outcomes (Wilcox et al., 2008; Handsley-Davis et al., 2021; Newton et al., 2025). 445

446 Stakeholders may approach airborne eDNA analysis with cautious optimism, given its relative early stage as a monitoring tool (Polling et al., 2024) and the need to build confidence in the 447 448 reliability of eDNA data for biosecurity and conservation management (Sepulveda et al., 2020b). Researchers must clearly communicate current limitations and set realistic expectations. For 449 450 example, airborne eDNA is currently best suited for presence/absence detection rather than delivering abundance estimates. Stakeholders should also understand that species detectability can 451 452 vary depending on environmental conditions, shedding rates, and site-specific factors. Researchers should emphasise that airborne eDNA is a complementary tool rather than a substitute for 453 454 traditional methods.

Integrating airborne eDNA analysis with established sampling techniques such as camera traps
(Polling et al., 2024), visual surveys (Johnson et al., 2021b), and acoustic monitoring (Garrett et
al., 2023a), offers opportunities to build trust through corroborative evidence. Co-designing

458 protocols with stakeholders to align with regulatory processes and practical applications will be

459 essential. Additionally, developing well-defined sampling protocols and robust controls, modelled

460 on those established in aquatic eDNA studies (Deiner et al., 2015; Goldberg et al., 2016; Minamoto

461 et al., 2016; Deiner et al., 2018), will ultimately contribute to end-user adoption of airborne eDNA

462 methods.

463 The simplicity and accessibility of air sampling provide a compelling opportunity to engage 464 communities through citizen science initiatives, expanding monitoring capacity (Palmer et al., 2017) while fostering public awareness and education (Sbrocchi, 2015; Isley et al., 2022). By 465 466 involving citizen scientists in data collection, programs can leverage public interest and participation to boost sampling density and broaden geographic coverage. To ensure the success 467 and sustainability of these programs, it is essential to follow established frameworks for citizen-468 scientist engagement that emphasise clear goals, transparent data management, and adaptable 469 470 protocols (Kieslinger et al., 2017). An additional benefit of such initiatives is the potential to create 471 biobanking repositories of samples collected by citizen scientists, generating valuable time-series 472 data for future research (Jarman et al., 2018). Ultimately, effective communication and ongoing collaboration between scientists and participants will be crucial for building trust and maximising 473 474 the long-term impact of airborne eDNA initiatives, fostering a shared commitment to biodiversity 475 monitoring and conservation.

476

### 477 Clear skies ahead?

Advancing airborne eDNA analysis as a monitoring tool may transform biodiversity and biosecurity management by delivering rapid, non-invasive insights into ecosystems at previously unattainable scales. However, realising this potential depends on overcoming key challenges, particularly those related to refining collection methods, deepening our understanding of airborne eDNA ecology, and managing data uncertainties. Through focused, collaborative research, the field can transition from experimental trials to practical application, bridging the gap between eDNA research and policy (Lodge, 2022).

485 Integrating airborne eDNA with other monitoring methods, such as remote sensing and traditional 486 field surveys, could expand both the scope and resolution of ecosystem assessments, supporting 487 broader 'One Health' frameworks that link environmental, animal, and human health (Farrell et al., 488 2021; Childress et al., 2024). As a complementary tool, airborne eDNA has the potential to broaden 489 our understanding of ecosystem dynamics and improve early detection of biodiversity loss and 490 biosecurity threats that otherwise go unnoticed. In the future, data generated through airborne 491 eDNA analysis could become a cornerstone of large-scale monitoring networks, similar to 492 wastewater surveillance for tracking disease outbreaks like COVID-19 (Bogler et al., 2020). 493 Integration of this monitoring tool into global initiatives, such as GBiOS, could revolutionise 494 biodiversity monitoring by standardising data collection to enable rapid, evidence-based

495 management responses (Gonzalez et al., 2024). The method's ability to integrate genetic 496 information from a wide range of taxonomic groups makes it an ideal candidate for inclusion in 497 global monitoring initiatives. In doing so, airborne eDNA can help build comprehensive global 498 datasets that support comparative ecological research and guide policy at an international scale.

499 If the significant challenges are overcome, airborne eDNA analysis has the potential to 500 revolutionise environmental monitoring, offering innovative ways to observe and protect 501 ecosystems. To realise the potential of this emerging tool, sampling methods should be refined, and robust parameter validation established. With continued innovation and targeted research, 502 503 airborne eDNA analysis could set new benchmarks in biodiversity, biosecurity, and conservation 504 practices, ultimately becoming a routine component of ecosystem management. As the field 505 matures, airborne eDNA analysis can evolve from an experimental approach to a reliable tool, 506 guiding decision-making at local, national, and global scales and safeguarding natural resources 507 for future generations.

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