

Blood, sweat and tears: non-invasive vs. non-disruptive DNA sampling for experimental biology

DNA data are becoming increasingly important in experimental biology. For example, it may be necessary to obtain DNA from an organism before using it in a bioassay or an experiment, to identify and distinguish between cryptic species, or when comparing different morphocryptic genotypes. Another example could be the assessment of relatedness between organisms prior to a behavioural study. In such cases, DNA must be obtained without affecting the fitness or behaviour of the subject being tested, as this could bias the results of the experiment. This points out the existence of a gap in the current molecular and experimental biology terminology, for which we propose the use of the term non-disruptive DNA sampling, specifically addressing behaviour and/or fitness, rather than simply physical integrity (invasiveness). We refer to these methods as “non-disruptive”, and discuss when they are appropriate to use.

1 **Blood, sweat and tears: non-invasive vs. non-disruptive DNA**
2 **sampling for experimental biology**
3

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36 **Blood, sweat and tears: non-invasive vs. non-disruptive DNA** 37 **sampling for experimental biology**

38 39 40 ABSTRACT

41 DNA data are becoming increasingly important in experimental biology. For example,
42 it may be necessary to obtain DNA from an organism before using it in a bioassay or
43 an experiment, to identify and distinguish between cryptic species, or when
44 comparing different morphocryptic genotypes. Another example could be the
45 assessment of relatedness between organisms prior to a behavioural study. In such
46 cases, DNA must be obtained without affecting the fitness or behaviour of the subject
47 being tested, as this could bias the results of the experiment. This points out the
48 existence of a gap in the current molecular and experimental biology terminology, for
49 which we propose the use of the term non-disruptive DNA sampling, specifically
50 addressing behaviour and/or fitness, rather than simply physical integrity
51 (invasiveness). We refer to these methods as “non-disruptive”, and discuss when they
52 are appropriate to use.

53 54 55 THE NEED FOR A NEW TERM

56 With the rise in popularity of molecular methods that has come from progressively
57 cheaper and more user-friendly ways of accessing genomic information (Sboner *et al.*
58 2011), DNA data are becoming increasingly important in experimental biology
59 (Suarez & Moyes 2012). Analysis of genetic material provides data for myriad uses.
60 In addition to analysis of phylogenetic relationships or population genetics, DNA
61 analysis is required to determine basic information about individuals of many taxa.
62 When DNA analysis is performed prior to experimentation for purposes such as
63 sexing and discrimination between cryptic species, it becomes extremely important to
64 obtain DNA without affecting the fitness or behaviour of the subject being tested, as
65 this could bias the results of the subsequent experiment.

66 While non-invasive methods of DNA collection focus on preserving the physical
67 integrity of an organism (Waldner & Traugott 2012, Baumgardt *et al.* 2013, Brzeski *et al.*
68 2013, BreMiotto *et al.* 2014), the fitness or behaviour of the subject may still be
69 affected. This uncovers the existence of a gap in the current molecular and

experimental biology terminology, specifically addressing behaviour and/or fitness, rather than simply physical integrity (invasiveness).

Non-invasive methods of collecting DNA are increasingly diverse, leading to confusion and misapplication of the term “non-invasive” in the literature. Misleading use of terminology in biology and ecology is a longstanding concern (Murphy & Noon 1991), and the phrase “non-invasive DNA sampling” is no exception. As with many other terms in biology (Hodges 2008, Herrando-Perez *et al.* 2014), it has been used in many different and inconsistent ways by various authors. With the aim of clarifying some of the existing discrepancies, we propose the introduction of a new term, “non-disruptive DNA sampling” (Table 1), that emphasises the effects of the sampling method not only on the physical integrity, but also on the fitness and behaviour of the organism from which the sample is obtained.

In order to make our intended meaning clear, we established a list of definitions for the terms used in this paper (Table 1) and the way they relate to one another (Figure 1). Rather than debating and refining existing terms, the essential point of Table 1 and Figure 1 is to distinguish between disruptive methods, which affect the fitness and/or behaviour of an organism, and non-disruptive ones, which do not.

NON-INVASIVE CAN BE DISRUPTIVE, NON-DISRUPTIVE CAN BE INVASIVE

Non-invasive DNA sampling methods that are non-disruptive

Many non-invasive DNA sampling methods are de facto non-disruptive because the DNA is collected without the subjects being aware of the researcher’s presence, or receiving any detrimental effects. For example, most eDNA sampling and DNA trapping methods do not require researcher and subject to be present at the same time and place. We dissociate eDNA from DNA trapping by the fact that DNA trapping involves the use of a device especially set up for the purpose of DNA sample collection, while eDNA sampling relies on the collection of DNA left behind by animals as they carry out normal behaviours (Table 1). Sampling methods that are both non-invasive and non-disruptive should be regarded as ideal (Figure 1), although they may be limited in their applicability.

102

103 An example of DNA trapping that is non-disruptive is remote plucking or hair
104 trapping by means of unbaited barbed wire traps, placed at well-used runs. Remote
105 plucking has been extensively used to collect DNA from mammals and estimate
106 species abundance (Mullins *et al.* 2009, Sheehy *et al.* 2013). It is more reliable than
107 direct observation (Frantz *et al.* 2004) or scat collection (Mullins *et al.* 2009), and
108 often less time consuming. Examples of eDNA sampling include DNA collection
109 from footprints in the snow, such as those from the Swedish Arctic Fox (Dalén &
110 Götherström 2007), and from saliva on twigs, such as from ungulate browsing
111 (Nichols *et al.* 2012). eDNA has many benefits for wildlife conservation as it often
112 allows non-disruptive population and individuals monitoring.

113

114 The main limitations associated with eDNA and DNA trapping include low DNA
115 quantity and quality (Uno *et al.* 2012), as well as the contamination from nontarget
116 species (Collins *et al.* 2012). Another limitation of DNA trapping might be the
117 mixture of DNA from several different target individuals. In such instances, next-
118 generation sequencing (NGS) or other post-PCR analysis (e.g. cloning, single
119 stranded conformation polymorphism, high resolution melting, denaturing gradient
120 gel electrophoresis) might be required to differentiate the DNA of each individual.

121

122 *Non-invasive DNA sampling methods that are disruptive*

123 There is a general assumption that if the physical integrity of an organism is not
124 altered or only slightly altered, then the sampling method has no negative impact on
125 the sampled organism. However, only few studies have endeavoured to test this
126 assumption. The simple fact of capturing and/or handling individuals to obtain DNA
127 samples can be extremely stressful, and therefore disruptive, for the animal. Examples
128 include the capture of mammals for saliva swabbing, which induces more stress than
129 instantaneous remote dart biopsy in seals or flipper notching (Emami-Khoyi A.,
130 personal observation).

131

132 Faecal and urine-derived DNA have been used, for species identification (Lefort *et al.*
133 2012) and to study the feeding behaviour of endangered species and species of

conservation interest (Deagle *et al.* 2010, Boyer *et al.* 2013). Despite their non-invasive nature, the collection of such eDNA sources could potentially be disruptive, particularly when the territory of the animal is taken into consideration. Many animals mark their territory using faeces or urine; sample collection from their territory boundaries must therefore aim to preserve territory delineation. As illustrated on Figure 1, removing a faecal sample from the environment might affect the marking of territorial species (Brzeziński & Romanowski 2006).

Non-disruptive DNA sampling methods that are invasive.

In most cases, eDNA and DNA trapping would be preferred over other non-invasive sampling methods. However, non-disruptive methods where the specimen is in hand, although more invasive, could present advantages. For instance, having the specimen in hand is likely to help retrieve fresher and better quality DNA.

The switch of focus from non-invasive methods, which emphasise avoiding breaches to the physical integrity of an organism, to non-disruptive methods, which are more concerned with minimising effects on behaviour and fitness, means that in some cases the most appropriate method will be invasive. For example, invertebrate antenna clipping in the natural environment may be less disruptive than collecting and taking a specimen back to the laboratory for faecal sampling or forced regurgitation. Under our definitions, antennae clipping in the field would be considered non-disruptive, despite being invasive. In such cases, a less disruptive, more invasive method may also yield more DNA of higher quality.

WHEN IS NON-DISRUPTIVE DNA SAMPLING REQUIRED OR PREFERRED?

DNA sampling methods should be chosen according to the research aims

Non-invasive DNA sampling provides a compromise between welfare and ethics, and obtaining a quality DNA sample. In circumstances where the subject is endangered, there may be welfare issues surrounding the use of invasive DNA sampling techniques (Mccarthy & Parris 2004). In other instances, such as when species are

afforded legal protections (Boyer *et al.* 2013), non-invasive DNA sampling techniques may be preferred. Additionally, the test subject may be required to be alive for further testing, or return to their natural habitat. If further tests involve capturing an animal for a laboratory experiment or for translocation (Waterhouse *et al.* 2014), then the effects of capturing and holding the organisms for DNA sampling are of less concern as individuals will need to be captured for these experiments anyway. However, the potentially stressful effects of capture and manipulation should not be further exacerbated by DNA sampling methods. If animals are to be sampled and observed in the wild, or if welfare or conservation is of concern, the sampling technique must also depend on how sampling could affect the fitness and behaviour of the subjects.

The disruptiveness of a particular method varies between species. For instance, Caudron *et al.* (2007) suggested that the degree of invasiveness in hair sampling and genotyping from hair follicles in pinnipeds and other marine mammals was influenced by three factors: the duration of sampling, the number of humans involved in the operation, and the sampling distance to the animal.

It is useful to distinguish between three types of situations in which collection and use of non-disruptive DNA samples may be desirable. Below we describe: experimental studies, field behavioural studies, and capture- mark- recapture (CMR) research, which may benefit from using non-disruptive DNA sampling.

Experimental studies

Differentiating, sexing or genotyping individuals prior to experimentation would benefit from using non-disruptive DNA sampling if fitness and behavioural traits are to be subsequently assessed. For example, many species of tropical birds are monomorphic, and can only be sexed using molecular analysis (Vucicevic *et al.* 2013). Additionally, different species from cryptic species complexes can only be distinguished genetically (Hebert *et al.* 2004). Laboratory based behavioural or fitness studies involving cryptic or monomorphic species may therefore require DNA sexing or identifying of individuals before conducting research on them (Fumanal *et al.* 2005, Lefort *et al.* 2014). Even when species identification is not an issue, the

organisms being studied may comprise different morphocryptic genotypes (Fumanal *et al.* 2005) that need to be determined prior to experimentation.

Behavioural studies in the field

The second major use of non-disruptive DNA sampling is when relatedness between individual subjects needs to be determined prior to a behavioural study conducted in the field. For example, social interactions in mammals are often linked to kinship and can be mediated by the physiological state of individuals (Creel 2001). The capture and handling of animals can modify their physiology (Suleman & Wango 2004) thereby affecting their social behaviour. Recent studies also suggest that although behaviours observed shortly after release may appear 'normal', stress levels may still be high and impact activity budgets (Thomson & Heithaus 2014).

Capture Mark Recapture

The effects of DNA sampling on animal behaviour may also affect the results of studies that are not directly examining behaviour or fitness. The third case when non-disruptive DNA sampling is recommended is when doing Capture Mark Recapture (CMR) studies. CMR studies using DNA tagging are often used to estimate population size (Robinson *et al.* 2009), with the additional benefit of enabling population genetic analysis on the samples collected. Intrusive DNA sampling techniques may affect the survival rate of marked individuals, or introduce avoidance behaviours, which may cause marked individuals to avoid traps, and the population size to be overestimated. For example, toe clipping is commonly used to estimate population abundance of amphibians (Nelson & Graves 2004), but toe clipping has been shown to affect survival rates in some amphibian species (Mccarthy & Parris 2004), and stressful collection or capturing method may cause avoidance behaviour from experienced individuals. Such bias can be limited by the use of non-disruptive DNA sampling methods, which have minimal effects on animal fitness and behaviour. Although eDNA has been used in CMR studies and is in most cases non-disruptive, it can have some limitations. The presence of mixed DNA samples and the lower quality of the collected DNA can lead to false positives where animals not captured previously are believed to be recaptured due to their DNA profile being an indistinguishable shadow of previously captured animals (Lampa *et al.* 2013).

229

230 BEHAVIOURAL AND/OR FITNESS IMPACT OF DNA SAMPLING

231 Studies examining fitness effects of DNA sampling through non-invasive methods are
232 very rare. Non-lethal and non-invasive DNA sampling can have unforeseen effects,
233 and the degree of disruption caused to the sampled organism varies greatly with
234 species. When investigated, the fitness consequences of DNA sampling methods have
235 often been measured using survival as an proxy for fitness (Mccarthy & Parris 2004,
236 Marschalek *et al.* 2013, Oi *et al.* 2013).

237 Mixed responses have been found depending on the DNA sampling technique and the
238 taxa sampled. Sometimes responses vary strongly between closely related species and
239 even between both sexes of the same species. For instance, a study performed by Vila
240 *et al.* (2009) showed that neither leg nor hind wing clipping had an effect on the
241 survivorship or reproductive behaviour of adult males of the protected moth *Graellsia*
242 *isabelae*, while mid leg clipping had a negative impact on female mating success of
243 the same species.

244

245 In addition to fitness impacts, some studies have investigated behavioural impacts on
246 species during non-lethal DNA collections. For example, remote biopsy sampling on
247 marine mammals is known to cause little reaction from individuals when conducted
248 correctly, and is unlikely to produce long-term deleterious effects (Bearzi 2000).
249 Nonetheless, all biopsy sampling involves some level of risk (Bearzi 2000) and
250 different individuals from the same species may react differently to similar stressful
251 situations based on gender (Brown & Kraus 1991) and individual physiological and
252 psychological factors (Barrett-Lennard 1996, Gauthier & Sears 1999). The impact of
253 remote biopsy has been extensively studied in marine mammals, while not so much in
254 other vertebrates. For example, Gemmell and Majluf (1997) studied the impact of
255 remote biopsy on the behaviour of male New Zealand fur seals (*Arctocephalus*
256 *forsteri*), and found that in most cases the seal recoiled from the impact and searched
257 briefly for the assailant. Another study showed that bottlenose dolphins reacted
258 equally to the darting process regardless of being hit or not, suggesting that the
259 reaction is mainly caused by 'unexpected disturbance' rather than biopsy Krützen &
260 Barré 2002). No sign of long term altered-behaviours was observed, and sampled
261 individuals were still easily approached for systematic survey and individual tracking.

262

263 These examples suggest that no preconceived idea on the disruptiveness of a DNA
264 sampling method should be established prior to testing. Therefore it is important to
265 standardise sampling methods prior to defining their impact on a particular species.

266

267 TAKE-HOME MESSAGES

268 1. There is a gap in the current terminology, for which we propose the new term,
269 non-disruptive DNA sampling, to specifically address behaviour and/or fitness effects
270 of a sampling method, rather than physical integrity (invasiveness).

271 2. DNA sampling methods should be chosen according to the research aims; in
272 particular, non-disruptive DNA sampling should be used prior to experimental or
273 observational studies measuring fitness or behaviour, as well as studies using
274 techniques such as CMR where fitness or behaviour may affect results.

275 3. Although eDNA and DNA trapping are often regarded as ideal to limit the
276 impacts of DNA sampling on live animals, they are not always applicable, can present
277 technical limitations and are often not compatible with experimental research.

278 4. If non-invasive methods are very disruptive or stressful to an animal, a more
279 invasive but less disruptive method may be a preferred alternative.

280 5. More research is required on the fitness and behavioural consequences of
281 different live DNA sampling methods in a variety of species and contexts.

282

283

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287

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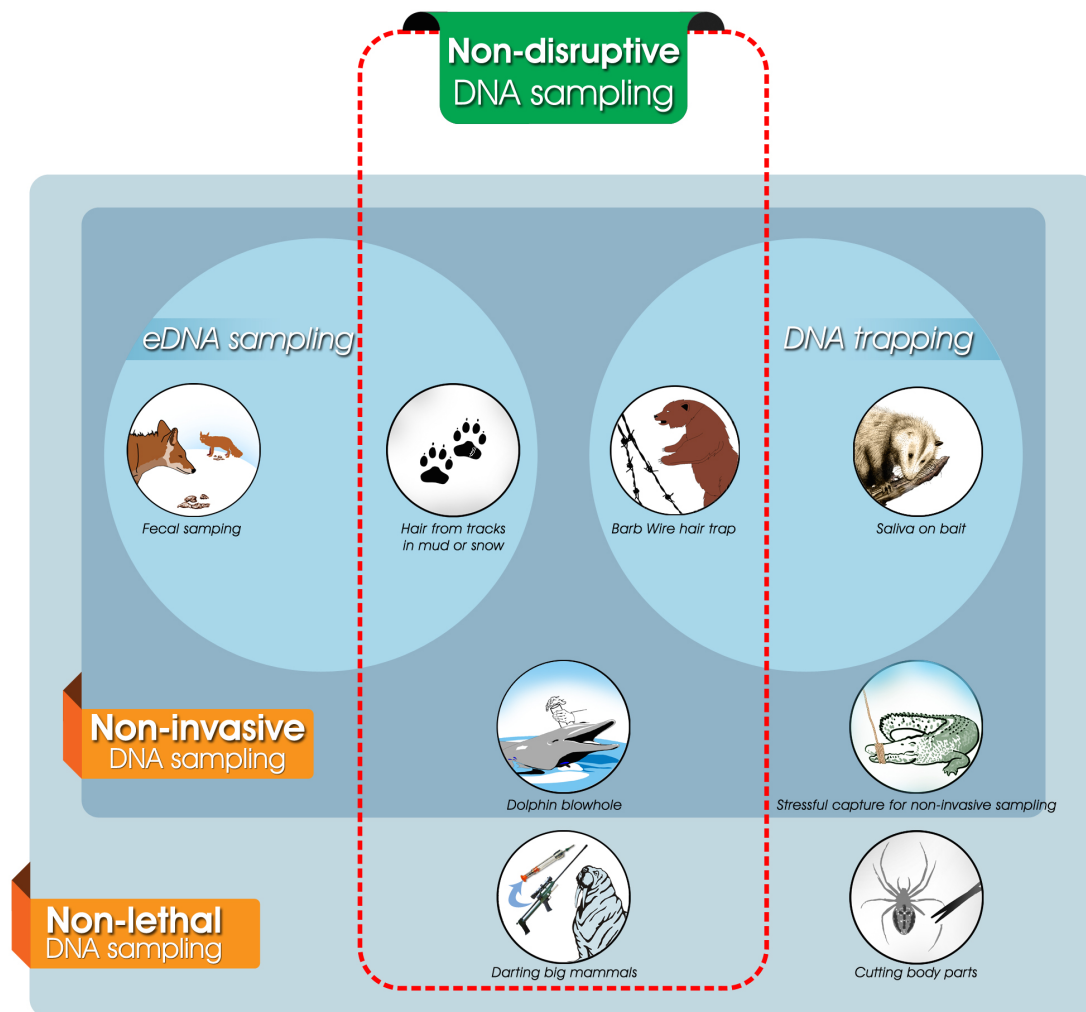


Figure 1. Non-disruptive DNA sampling methods, and their overlaps with non-invasive and non-lethal sampling methods.

420

421 Table 1. Non-exhaustive list of terms, and their definition inherent to the qualification

422 of DNA sampling (See full references in Suppl. 1).

| Term | Definition used in this paper | Example |
|-----------------------------------|--|--|
| Environmental DNA (eDNA) sampling | Obtaining trace DNA from one or more unknown organisms from the environment, when those organisms are no longer present. | Sampling fish DNA from stream water (Wilcox et al. 2013). |
| Noninvasive DNA sampling | Obtaining DNA using any method that does not affect the physical integrity of the organism (this includes eDNA; see above), but may affect fitness or behaviour. | Cloaca swabbing of lizards which does not physically harm them, but may affect their behaviour (Williams et al. 2012). |
| Nondisruptive DNA sampling | Obtaining DNA from a known individual organism without affecting its fitness or behaviour, but may affect the structural integrity of the organism (this differs from some (most) definitions of noninvasive DNA in the literature); this includes DNA trapping (see below). | Removing small parts of the butterfly hindwing does not affect survival or behaviour (Hamm et al. 2010). |
| DNA trapping | Remotely obtaining DNA from one or more unknown individual organisms by taking a sample while they are present. This usually involves some sort of trap or device, which may or may not be disruptive. | Remote hair plucking of badgers with barb wire traps (Frantz et al. 2004) |
| Noninjurious DNA sampling | Obtaining DNA from one or more known organisms through direct contact, but causing no physical injury or wound. This method may affect behaviour due to minor disturbance. | Skin swabbing of dolphins (Harlin et al. 1999). |
| Nonlethal DNA sampling | Obtaining DNA from a known individual organism in such a way that its fitness or behaviour are affected but it is not killed (we consider this to be inappropriate if these individuals will be used for experiments following DNA sampling). | Amphibian toe clipping affects survival rate (McCarthy & Parris 2004). |
| Nondestructive DNA sampling | Obtaining DNA from a known individual organism in such a way that the organism is killed, but not destroyed, so that it can be preserved as a voucher specimen. | DNA extraction from arthropods while keeping them as a voucher specimen (Paquin & Vink 2009). |

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