

Integrating Culture and Molecular Quantification of Microbial Contaminants into a Predictive Modeling Framework in a Low-Lying, Tidally-Influenced Coastal Watershed

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2
3 Examinations of stormwater delivery in the context of tidal inundation are lacking. Along
4 the coastal plains of the southeast, tidal inundation is increasing in frequency and severity, often
5 with dramatic adverse impacts on stormwater discharge and “sunny day flooding”. Therefore, a
6 comprehensive study was conducted to examine tidally-influenced stormwater outfalls
7 discharging to Taylor’s Creek, an estuary off the coast of Beaufort, NC used regularly for
8 recreation and tourism. Over a wide range of meteorological conditions, water samples were
9 collected and analyzed for fecal indicator bacteria (FIB, used for regulatory decision-making)
10 and published quantitative microbial source tracking (qMST) markers. Nineteen sampling events
11 were conducted from July 2017 – June 2018 with samples classified as inundated, receding or
12 transition depending on collection during tidal stage. A first-of-its-kind multiple linear regression
13 model was developed to predict concentrations of *Enterococcus* sp. by tidal cycle, salinity and
14 antecedent rainfall. We demonstrated that the majority of variability associated with the
15 concentration of *Enterococcus* sp. could be predicted by *E. coli* concentration and tidal phase.
16 FIB concentrations were significantly (<0.05) influenced by tide with higher concentrations
17 observed in samples collected during receding (low) tides (EC: log 3.12 MPN/100 mL; ENT:
18 2.67 MPN/100 mL) compared to those collected during inundated (high) (EC: log 2.62 MPN/100
19 mL; ENT: 2.11 MPN/100 mL) or transition (EC: log 2.74 MPN/100 mL; ENT: 2.53 MPN/100
20 mL) tidal periods. Salinity, was also found to significantly (<0.05) correlate with *Enterococcus*
21 sp. concentrations during inundated (high) tidal conditions (sal: 17 ppt; ENT: 2.04 MPN/100
22 mL). Tide, not precipitation, was shown to be a significant driver in explaining the variability in
23 *Enterococcus* sp. concentrations. Precipitation has previously been shown to be a driver of

24 *Enterococcus* sp. concentrations, but our project demonstrates the need for tidal parameters to be
25 included in the future development of water quality monitoring programs.

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43 1. INTRODUCTION

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45 Stormwater runoff is one of the most important hydrological factors affecting surface water
46 quality (Ahn et al., 2005; Mallin et al., 2009). Flowing directly overland, stormwater picks up
47 pollutants including potentially pathogenic bacteria and viruses from animal and human waste
48 (Griffin et al., 2003; Haile et al., 1999; Mallin et al., 2000; Prüss, 1998). Often times, this runoff
49 enters stormwater conveyance systems that then carry the untreated runoff into downstream
50 waterbodies, adversely impacting water quality and health for primary contact recreators.

51 The United States (US) Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA) has recommended the
52 use of enterococci (ENT) and *Escherichia coli* (EC) as fecal indicator bacteria (FIB) to monitor
53 both marine and fresh surface waters (US EPA, 2012). FIB serve as a proxy for the presence of
54 microbial pathogens associated with feces. Ingesting water with high concentrations of FIB
55 through recreation can lead to gastrointestinal and other illnesses (Colford et al., 2007; Haile et
56 al., 1999; Soller et al., 2017). Additionally, FIB have been selected due to their low pathogenic
57 potential and high concentrations in sewage and feces (Ahmed et al., 2008; Ahmed et al., 2019;
58 Harwood et al., 2014; Sidhu et al., 2012). As such, FIB have been widely used by states as a
59 mitigation tool to meet US EPA water quality requirements. States have the discretion, however,
60 to implement either or both FIB in monitoring programs. The State of North Carolina (NC)
61 utilizes enterococci solely to monitor recreational surface waters (NC DEQ, 2020). While studied
62 significantly across coastal waters, one major drawback towards the use of FIB, however, is their
63 lack of source-specificity (Ex. human vs. non-human) regarding fecal contamination. As such,
64 quantitative microbial source tracking tools (qMST) have been proposed.

65 Quantitative microbial source tracking methods aim to discriminate between human and
66 non-human fecal sources in contaminated waterbodies (Lee et al., 2020; Nguyen et al., 2018;

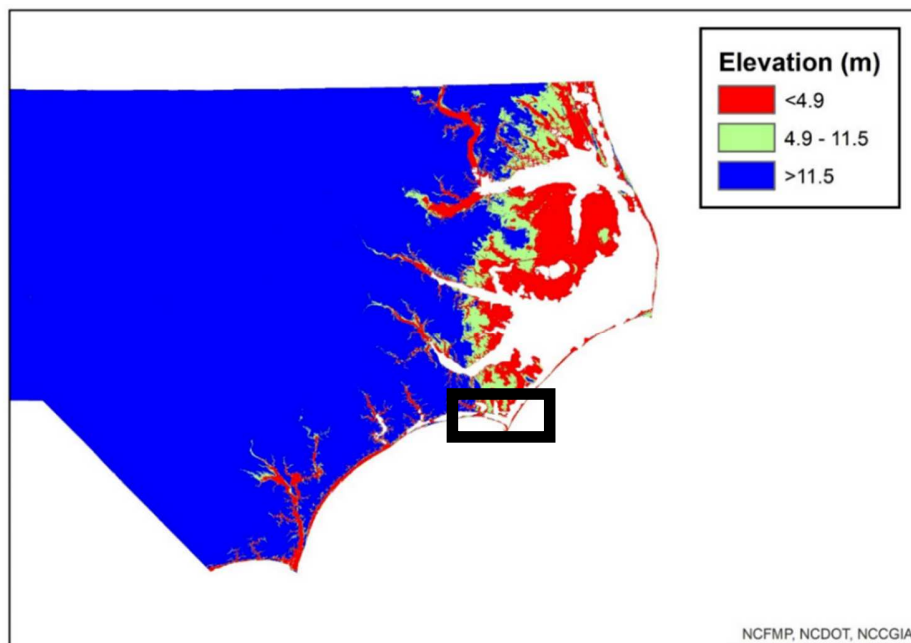
67 Shanks et al., 2015). The performance of human-specific (Ex. HF183) markers are of particular
68 interest to mitigate public health risks, given their utility and strong relationships to observed risk
69 in sewage-impacted waters (Badgley et al., 2019; Haugland et al., 2010; Jothikumar et al., 2005).
70 Additionally, US EPA has published recommendations for concentrations for *Enterococcus* sp.
71 quantified via a qPCR-based approach in fresh and marine surface waters (Haugland et al., 2005;
72 US EPA Method 1609 & 1611, 2012). Previous epidemiological studies have indicated a stronger
73 link between swimming-associated gastrointestinal illnesses and molecular approaches for
74 Enterol-qPCR compared to traditional culture-based methods (Arnold et al., 2016; Colford et al.,
75 2012; Wade et al., 2008). Greater understanding of the concentrations of specific fecal qMST
76 source markers relative to culture-based FIB enumeration used in routine water quality
77 monitoring is necessary, especially within the context of coastal systems.

78 Significant research has been conducted relating EC and ENT concentrations to antecedent
79 rainfall patterns finding greater FIB concentrations during peak hydrologic flows (Ahn et al.,
80 2005; Lipp et al., 2001; Shehane et al., 2005; Stumpf et al., 2010). Additionally, the link between
81 FIB prevalence and environmental parameters, such as salinity and water temperature, has also
82 been established (Converse et al., 2011; Eregno et al., 2018; Gonzalez & Noble, 2014; Paule-
83 Mercado et al., 2016). What has not been extensively studied, however, is the relationship
84 between stormwater delivery and tide. A number of studies have reported on a dilution effect
85 affecting stormwater during high tides, resulting in lower concentrations of fecal indicator
86 bacteria (Coelho et al., 1999; Mallin et al., 1999; Mill et al., 2006; Wilhelm et al., 2002), but
87 none have related this to stormwater delivery mechanisms across the tidal cycle.

88 Coastal NC has over 5900 km² of land below 1-m elevation (Figure 1), making it the third
89 largest low-lying region in the US (Poulter et al., 2009; Titus & Richman, 2001). Additionally,

90 much of the coastal zone in NC has a low topographic slope increasing at less than 0.09 m
91 elevation for every horizontal mile (Corbett et al., 2008). As such, coastal NC remains
92 susceptible to the effects of global climate change, including sea level rise, intensifying extreme
93 storm events and increasing tidal ranges and sunny-day flooding (Hino et al., 2019). Sea level off
94 the NC coast has increased 0.28 m as compared to 1950. The rate of rise accelerating over the
95 last decade to now increasing by over 0.03 m every 2 years (NOAA, 2020; NC Coastal
96 Resources Commission, 2015). This coupled with increased nuisance flooding frequency events
97 suggest coastal surface waters along the coast of NC are at risk for continual impairment (King
98 Tides Project, 2020; Sweet et al., 2014).

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Figure 1: Digital Elevation Model (DEM) depicting elevation in coastal, eastern NC and sampling area.

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102 The study site for this research is located in Beaufort, NC, a coastal community situated in
103 the coastal plain region of southeastern NC with a relatively small permanent population (4,391)
104 that experiences seasonal growth given its proximity to coastal waters and productive tourism
105 industry (US Census Bureau, 2020). The town sits proximal to the Rachel Carson Reserve
106 (RCR), an important draw of tourists and part of the NC National Estuarine Research Reserve
107 System (NERRS). The stormwater outfalls that were studied as part of this project discharge into
108 Taylors Creek, the body of water that sits in between Beaufort and the RCR (Figure 2).

109 To our knowledge, this is the first study that has evaluated the success of multiple linear
110 regression (MLR) models over a wide range of climatic conditions to examine the importance of
111 tidal phase on stormwater contaminant delivery. Several studies have utilized MLR as a
112 predictive tool in determining bacterial concentrations within estuarine systems (Gonzalez et al.,
113 2012; Molina et al., 2014; Zimmer-Faust et al., 2018), however the novelty of this study is that
114 this is the first-time tide has been incorporated into the predictive framework of water quality
115 monitoring and has subsequently been coupled with quantitative metrics of human fecal
116 contamination. The primary objectives of this research were to 1) determine the concentrations
117 and sources of fecal contaminants in discharge conveyed to receiving waters using multi-sample,
118 time-paced sampling during both storm events and dry weather conditions at various times
119 throughout the tidal cycle, 2) relate FIB and qMST marker concentrations to parameters such as
120 tidal height, 24-h rainfall, salinity and total suspended solids (TSS), and 3) use a multiple linear
121 regression tool to predict concentrations of *Enterococcus* sp. in the context of tidal height, cycle
122 and phase. This research advances the understanding of patterns of delivery of microbial
123 contaminants in low-lying coastal systems.

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125 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

126 **2.1 Study Sites and Sample Collection**

127 Water samples were collected at three sampling locations throughout Beaufort (Figure 2):
128 two at stormwater outfall locations (Orange St. and Marsh/Pollock) proximal to downstream
129 receiving waters (Taylor’s Creek) and a third site (Ann St.) one block inland. The two
130 downstream locations were selected to underline the performance of the stormwater conveyance
131 system, while the inland site was selected to characterize upstream watershed conditions.
132 Following a land survey campaign, the Orange St. and Marsh/Pollock outfall sites were found to
133 be the only two with an above-ground end-of-pipe access point and, as such, were selected as
134 sampling locations. Nineteen sampling events were conducted seasonally over the course of 11
135 months from July 2017 – June 2018, with samples collected during both storm and ambient
136 conditions. Storm sampling was initiated after a sustained period of moderate to heavy rainfall
137 which produced accumulation of at least ~0.25 in until ~1 h after the storm ended. Dry weather
138 samples were collected following three days without rainfall accumulation.

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146 **Figure 2: Three sampling locations: Orange St. (OS) and Marsh/Pollock (MP) are**
147 **located adjacent to Taylor’s Creek while Ann St. (AS) is one block inland.**
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149 Samples were collected using both an automatic and grab sampling approach. Automatic
150 grab sampling was conducted using an ISCO 6712 Portable Sampler where composite samples
151 were collected every 3 hours and stored for up to 6 hours before processing. Following
152 collection, samples were stored on ice and transported to the laboratory where they were
153 analyzed within 2 hours of collection.

154 2.2 Environmental Parameters

155 Water temperature, total suspended solids (TSS) and salinity were measured in situ using a
156 YSI probe (YSI 6600 multiparameter probe, USA). Additionally, meteorological observations
157 (Ex. 24-h antecedent rainfall, tidal height and air temperature) were collected from publicly
158 available data provided by NOAA: Station (ID: 8656483). We were able to determine the
159 relative meteorological conditions by rounding sample collection time to the nearest NOAA
160 sampling point (6-minute increments).

161

162 **2.3 Tidal Characterization**

163 Similar to methods conducted in Boehm & Weisberg (2005), samples were classified into
164 three tidal categories (Ex. receding, inundated and transition) classified by collection time as it
165 related to the nearest recorded high tide. Given the semi-diurnal nature of tides within our
166 system, samples were separated into three tidal categories: inundated (high tide), receding (low
167 tide) or transition. Inundated samples were classified so if they had been collected within 2 hours
168 of the previous high tide, while receding samples were collected >4 hours from the previous high
169 tide. Transition samples were those collected in between the two groups (2-4 hours from nearest
170 high tide). In addition, GPS locations and elevations were collected (Table 1) using a Trimble R8
171 RTK GPS relative to NAVD88 where average vertical error was ± 1.2 in. Outfall elevations were
172 then used to verify coverage given NOAA verified tidal recordings.

173

174 **Table 1: Latitude, longitude, elevation and pipe size for OS, MP and AS sampling locations**

Site	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation (m, NAVD88)	Pipe Radius (m)
Orange Street	34.71751	-76.66740	0.105	0.3
Marsh/Pollock	34.71454	-76.66190	-0.515	0.43
Ann Street	34.71613	-76.66070	0.446	0.46

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176 **2.4 Sample Preparation**

177 FIB *E. coli* and enterococci were enumerated using Colilert-18[®] and Enterolert[™] at a 1:10
178 dilution (sample: DI water) per manufacturer instructions (IDEXX Laboratories, Westbrook,
179 ME). For downstream molecular analysis, triplicate 100-150 mL samples were vacuum filtered
180 through 0.45 μm pore size, 47 mm polycarbonate (PC) filters (HTTP, Millipore, Bedford, MA)

181 using a six-place filtration manifold and vacuum pump assembly. The filters were placed into
182 sterile, DNase/RNase-free microcentrifuge tubes and stored at -80 °C. DNA extractions were
183 performed using the NUCLISENS® MINIMAG® extraction kit per manufacturer instructions,
184 with extracts then stored at -20 °C. Assays were performed in a CFX96 Touch™ Real-Time PCR
185 Detection System (Bio-Rad Laboratories., Hercules, CA) with the following cycling conditions:
186 10 min at 95 °C, followed by 40 cycles of 15 s at 95 °C and 1 min at 60 °C. Extracted samples
187 were processed using TaqMan® Environmental Master Mix 2.0 (Applied Biosystems, Waltham,
188 Massachusetts). Primers (100 μM) and probes (10 μM) were synthesized by LGC Biosearch
189 Technologies (Petaluma, CA). Each reaction had a total volume of 25 μL, 20 μL including
190 nuclease-free water, TaqMan® Environmental Master Mix 2.0, as well as appropriate primers
191 and probes, and 5 μL of unknown sample, standard, or control. No template controls (NTCs)
192 were processed with every plate.

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194 **2.5 Assessment of qPCR Specimen Processing Control and Inhibition Control**

195 Performance of the qPCR assays through evaluation of recovery efficiency and qPCR
196 inhibition was measured using β actin (*ACTB*) cDNA as a specimen processing control (SPC) as
197 previously conducted by Conn et al. (2012). 5 μL of *ACTB* solution (4000 copies/μL) was
198 pipetted into each of the samples, calibrators, and negative controls prior to processing.
199 Following this, samples were extracted. Inhibition was determined by calculating the difference
200 between the cycle threshold (Ct) of the SPC in samples with (experimental) and without (control,
201 only SPC) target DNA. Extracts were analyzed without dilution with samples having more than
202 0.5 log units (2.32 Ct) difference from control samples deemed inhibited (Lambertini et al.,
203 2008). Since the total number of inhibited samples (11 out of 167 samples) constituted only 6.6%

204 of total samples inhibited, no adjustment for inhibition was made. For all qPCR runs, appropriate
205 controls were employed and showed no contamination: no template control (omission of DNA
206 template from the qPCR reaction), and negative extractions control (inclusion of filter blank
207 during DNA extraction). Plasmid standards were used for HF183 and Entero1-qPCR assays.
208 Standards were synthesized by GenScript (Piscataway, NJ). Gene sequences were synthesized
209 and inserted into a linearized pUC57 vector which was cloned into DH5 α competent cells.
210 Plasmids were extracted using Wizard® Plus SV 10 Minipreps DNA Purification System
211 (Promega Corp., Madison, WI) and linearized using Eco R1 digestion. They were then
212 confirmed via a 1% agarose gel in Tris-Acetate-EDTA buffer. The weight of purified plasmids
213 was then calculated spectrophotometrically (Nanodrop 2000c, Thermo Scientific, Waltham,
214 MA). Nanograms of plasmids were transformed to copy number by using a copy number
215 calculator (SciencePrimer.com). Linearized plasmids were diluted and stored at a concentration
216 of 1×10^8 copies per μL at -20°C .

217

218 **2.6 Standard Curves**

219 Standard curves for HF183 and Entero1-qPCR consisted of the calibration standard and five
220 10-fold serial dilutions that were run in triplicate. For each of the molecular markers, standard
221 dilution curves were aggregated to form a singular curve. The theoretical limit of detection
222 (LOD) was the lowest concentration where the standard could be detected reliably in at least
223 50% of qPCR replicates. The limit of quantification (LOQ) for qPCR assays was defined as the
224 lowest concentration above the lowest point on the standard curve where amplification was
225 observed in at least 50% of qPCR replicates.

226

227 **2.7 Multiple Linear Regression Models**

228 Predictive modeling was also incorporated in the form of MLR models, which serve as a
229 statistical technique that uses several explanatory variables to predict the outcome of a response
230 variable. For the purposes of our study, enterococci consistently served as our response variable,
231 given its regulatory importance in surface water quality monitoring in NC. Additionally, FIB *E.*
232 *coli* and 24-h antecedent rainfall were incorporated with three tidal variables: tidal height (TH),
233 tidal phase (TP) and tidal cycle (TC). Tidal height was incorporated using verified tidal height
234 data recorded by NOAA, while the tidal phase variable incorporated distance the sample was
235 taken from the nearest high tide. An additional variable accounting for tidal cycle was also
236 included in regression analysis. This was done using the sine and cosine functions to characterize
237 the cyclical nature of tides:

238
$$\text{Sin}(2 \times \pi \times (\frac{\text{Minutes from high tide}}{\text{Total minutes between high tides}}))$$

239

240
$$\text{Cos}(2 \times \pi \times (\frac{\text{Minutes from high tide}}{\text{Total minutes between high tides}}))$$

241

242
$$\text{Tidal Cycle} = \text{Sin}(2 \times \pi \times (\frac{\text{Minutes from high tide}}{\text{Total minutes between high tides}})) + \text{Cos}(2 \times \pi \times (\frac{\text{Minutes from high tide}}{\text{Total minutes between high tides}}))$$

243

244 Using the regression model formula:

245

246
$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_1 + \beta_3 X_2$$

247

248 where Y_i is the log-transformed outcome ENT concentrations, β_k is the estimated coefficient (EC
249 concentration, 24-h antecedent rainfall and tidal height) for variables X_1 (tidal phase) and X_2
250 (tidal cycle). Including the aforementioned terms, the final regression model was as follows:

251
$$Y_{ENT} = \beta_{EC} + \beta_{Rain} + (\beta_{Tidal\ Height} \times \beta_{Tidal\ Phase}) + (\beta_{Tidal\ Height} \times \beta_{Tidal\ Cycle})$$

252

253 **2.8 Statistical Analysis**

267 Log₁₀ concentrations between FIB and qMST markers and environmental parameters were
268 compared using matched paired t-tests for lognormally distributed samples or the nonparametric
269 Wilcoxon Ranks-Sum Test for samples that did not fit a lognormal distribution. Non-detect
270 samples were assigned a value of 5 copies/100 mL (log 0.7) with significance level set at 0.05
271 for all analyses. Analyses were conducted in OriginPro 8.5 (OriginLab, Northampton, MA).

272 **3. RESULTS**

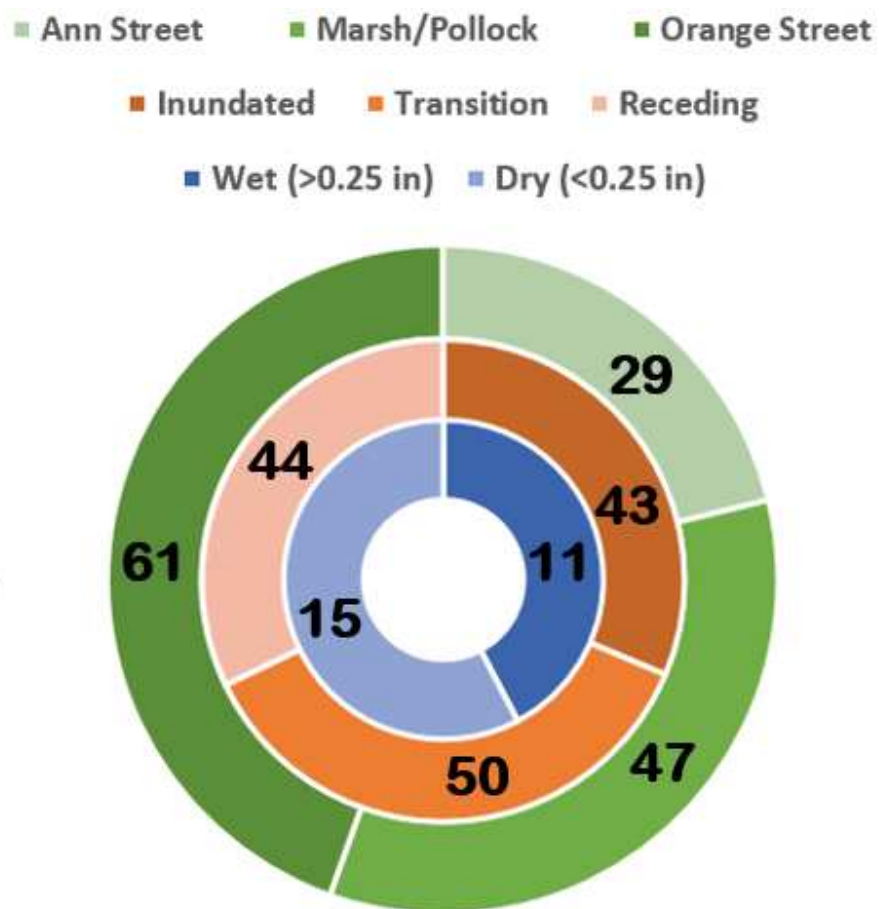
273 **3.1 Summary Statistics**

274 In total, 137 samples were collected and analyzed using culture-based FIB enumeration,
275 qPCR-based *Enterococcus* sp. enumeration and qMST marker enumeration using vetted,
276 published qPCR-based approaches. Concentrations of EC (log 0.7 – 4.94 MPN/100 mL) and
277 ENT (log 0.7 – 4.78 MPN/100 mL) were comparable to those of the molecular markers, HF183
278 (log 0.7 – 4.07 copies/100 mL) and *Enterococcus* sp. quantification via qPCR (log 0.7 – 5.03
279 copies/100 mL). Significant correlations were observed across combinations of FIB and qMST
280 markers with significant positive correlations found between ENT and EC (r: 0.65; p <0.01),
281 Entero1-qPCR (r: 0.71; p <0.01) and HF183 (r: 0.45; p <0.01).

282 In an attempt to understand stormwater conveyance as it relates to tidal cycle, samples were
283 collected over a wide range of precipitation and tidal conditions (Figure 3). On average, log EC
284 and ENT concentrations in samples collected during storm events were 2.90 and 2.39 MPN/100
285 mL respectively, compared to average concentrations of 2.41 and 2.14 MPN/100 mL
286 respectively during dry conditions. This was also true for qMST markers as HF183 and
287 *Enterococcus* sp. quantified via qPCR were also found at mean higher concentrations in samples

288 collected during storm conditions (HF183: log 2.08 copies/100 mL; Enterol-qPCR: log 3.36
 289 copies/100 mL) compared to those collected under ambient conditions (HF183: log 2.03
 290 copies/100 mL; Enterol-qPCR: log 2.70 copies/100 mL). When tested for significance, none of
 291 the differences in concentration between wet vs. dry conditions were found to be significantly
 292 different ($p < 0.05$).

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296 **Figure 3: Number of samples collected at sampling sites: AS (n = 29), MP (n = 47) and OS**
 297 **(n = 61), during tidal phases: inundated (n = 43), transition (n = 50) and receding (n = 44)**
 298 **and wet (n = 11) vs. dry (n = 15) conditions.**

299

300 Samples were collected across a diverse range of environmental conditions (Table 2), with
 301 salinity measurements indicating an array of samples were collected across both storm and tidal
 302 variations, as these values ranged from 0-35 parts per thousand (ppt). This suggests periods of
 303 both fresh, stormwater inundation and marine, creek water inundation were included in overall
 304 analysis. Additionally, a wide range of water temperatures that ranged from 9.0°C during the
 305 winter months, to 28°C during the summer months, indicate seasonality was also considered in
 306 sample collection.

307 **Table 2: Summarized data for environmental parameters: salinity (ppt), TSS (mg/L), water**
 308 **temp. (°C), 24h antecedent rainfall (in), tidal height (m) and air temp. (°C) across the three**
 309 **sampling sites (OS, MP and AS).**

Parameter	N	Average	Min	Max
Salinity (ppt)	58	15	0	35
TSS (mg/L)	70	18.5	0.71	64.4
Water Temp (°C)	84	19	9	28
24h Ant. Rainfall (in)	137	0.50	0	3.06
Tidal Height (m)	137	0.062	-0.634	0.692
Air Temp (°C)	118	20	4	28

310

311 3.2 Inter-Site Variability

312 On average, mean FIB and qMST marker concentrations were consistently higher at AS
 313 compared to those at the OS and MP locations (Table 3). Concentrations of EC, ENT and
 314 Entero1-qPCR concentrations at the upstream, inland AS location averaged 3.62 MPN/100 mL,
 315 3.10 MPN/100 mL and 3.96 copies/100 mL respectively, compared to average values of 2.15
 316 MPN/100 mL, 1.76 MPN/100 mL and 2.19 copies/100 mL at OS and 2.69 MPN/100 mL, 2.39
 317 MPN/100 mL and 3.08 copies/100 mL at MP. The distributions of qMST marker and FIB
 318 marker concentrations measured across the sample sites were skewed, with relatively low
 319 average EC and ENT concentrations observed for the two downstream locations (OS and MP),

320 and high concentrations at the inland location. As such, we wanted to assess FIB and qMST
 321 marker concentrations in samples that would exceed US EPA recommended criteria based on
 322 either molecular (Enterol-qPCR: 1280 copies/100 mL (log 3.11)) or culture (EC: 320 MPN/100
 323 mL (log 2.51); ENT: 104 MPN/100 mL) (log 2.04)) criteria defined in 2012 by US EPA and the
 324 NC Department of Environmental Quality (NC DEQ, 2020; US EPA, 2012). Previous reports in
 325 the literature have cross-linked the risk associated with *Enterococcus* sp. in sewage to measured
 326 concentrations of the qMST marker-HF183 (equivalent to 4200 copies/100 mL (log 3.62)
 327 (Boehm et al., 2015). Table 5 below summarizes the samples as they relate to recommended
 328 exceedance thresholds for each individual group of FIB and qMST markers.
 329

Table 3: Summarized data for EC, ENT, HF183 and Enterol-qPCR concentrations at sampling sites (Orange St., Marsh/Pollock and Ann St.) including the distribution and prevalence of samples that exceeded recreational contact standards.

Site	EC		ENT		HF183		Enterol-qPCR	
	Mean (min-max) N	Above standard	Mean (min-max) N	Above standard	Mean (min-max) N	Above standard N	Mean (min-max) N	Above standard N
	Log MPN/100 mL	EC % ^a	Log MPN/100 mL	ENT % ^b	Log CCE/100 mL	HF183 % ^c	Log CCE/100 mL	Enterol-qPCR % ^d
OS	2.15 (0.7 – 4.05) 59	32.2	1.76 (0.7 – 4.27) 59	27.1	1.66 (0.7 – 3.55) 27	14.8	2.19 (0.7 – 4.5) 14	14.3
MP	2.69 (0.7 – 4.78) 44	54.5	2.39 (0.7 – 4.78) 44	61.4	2.22 (0.7 – 4.07) 25	32.0	3.08 (0.7 – 5.03) 18	38.9
AS	3.62 (1.72 – 5.64) 29	75.9	3.10 (0.7 – 4.65) 29	79.3	2.59 (0.7 – 3.49) 11	27.3	3.96 (2.61 – 4.86) 12	83.3

331

332 Samples collected at the AS location consistently exceeded recommended concentrations for
333 both culture- and qPCR-based quantification of FIB concentration. For ENT, 79% of samples
334 collected during all environmental conditions exceeded the NC Department of Environmental
335 Quality (DEQ) state threshold of 104 MPN/100 mL. This was also true when samples were
336 analyzed for concentration of Enterol-qPCR, which exceeded US EPA recommended criteria in
337 approximately 83% of samples. When we compare these exceedances to the two downstream
338 locations, which are influenced more greatly by tidal inundation, exceedance of FIB
339 concentrations decreases. FIB exceedances were lowest at the OS outfall with approximately
340 32% and 27% of samples exceeding recommended EC and ENT concentrations respectively.
341 This compares to an exceedance rate of 14% for samples analyzed for ENT concentrations via
342 qPCR. HF183 concentrations, which are specifically associated with human fecal sources, only
343 exceeded suggested thresholds (4200 copies per 100 mL, (Boehm et al., 2015)) in approximately
344 one-third of samples at AS and MP with fewer samples (15%) exceeding suggested thresholds at
345 OS.

346 **3.3 Tidal Characterization**

347 Descriptive statistics were calculated across sample sites as characterized by collection time
348 within the tidal cycle (Table 4). Across the three tidal categories (inundated, transition and
349 receding), FIB and qMST marker concentrations were consistently higher at the AS location
350 when compared to the two downstream sites: OS and MP. FIB and qMST marker concentrations
351 were compared across tidal classifications using one-way ANOVA calculations with only EC
352 concentrations significantly ($p < 0.05$) differing between inundation and receding tidal periods.
353 The same analyses were performed between FIB characterized by sites across the different tidal
354 phases. At OS, significant ($p < 0.05$) differences were found between ENT and HF183

355 concentrations between inundated (high) and receding (low) tides, while EC and *Enterococcus*
 356 sp. determined via qPCR concentrations were found to be significantly different at MP. No
 357 significant differences in FIB concentrations were found at the AS location across the tidal
 358 classifications, which corroborates the inland location of this site.

Table 4: Descriptive statistics of FIB characterized by tidal cycle (inundated, receding or transition) sampling location.

359

	Inundated (N = 43)			Receding (N = 44)			Transition (N = 50)		
Mean Value	OS	MP	AS	OS	MP	AS	OS	MP	AS
Tidal Height (m)	0.42	0.40	0.46	-0.33	-0.32	-0.33	0.06	0.12	0.14
EC (MPN/100 mL)	1.98	2.31	3.58	2.50	3.19	3.67	1.99	2.68	3.56
ENT (MPN/100 mL)	1.37	1.93	3.04	2.06	2.85	3.09	1.77	2.52	3.30
Enterol1-qPCR (copies/100 mL)	2.05	2.48	3.48	2.59	3.94	4.34	1.84	2.93	4.26
HF183 (copies/100 mL)	0.7	2.24	1.96	1.72	2.55	2.94	1.99	2.03	2.99

360

361 A representative number of samples were collected across the tidal cycle in order to better
 362 represent FIB and qMST marker concentrations in the context of storm events and ambient (dry)
 363 conditions. Across the three tidal classifications, correlation coefficients were determined
 364 between ENT concentrations and EC, *Enterococcus* sp. concentrations determined via qPCR and
 365 HF183. A similar analysis was conducted with environmental parameters such as water
 366 temperature, salinity and TSS. Regardless of tidal cycle, ENT concentrations were found to
 367 significantly ($p < 0.05$) correlate with other FIB concentration and qMST marker concentration,

368 regardless of enumeration approach (culture vs. molecular). Only salinity measurements ($r = -$
369 0.448 , p -value = 0.042) revealed a significant relationship, with regards to the environmental
370 parameters measured, indicating negative correlation with ENT concentrations only during
371 periods of tidal inundation.

372 **3.4 Multiple Linear Regression Models**

373 Three models in total were created to predict concentrations of ENT in a tidally-influenced
374 estuarine system. The models were created using data from all sampling locations, however only
375 the two downstream location (OS and MP) were significant ($p < 0.05$) in their prediction of
376 variation in ENT concentrations; therefore, the models are appropriate for locations regularly
377 influenced by tidal inundation. For all three models, a combination of biological (EC
378 concentrations) and environmental parameters (24-h antecedent rainfall, tidal height, tidal cycle
379 and tidal phase) were found to maximize the ability to predict the observed variation in ENT
380 concentrations explained. FIB and qMST markers, such as HF183 and *Enterococcus* sp.
381 determined via qPCR, as well as environmental parameters, such as water temperature, salinity,
382 TSS, 24h antecedent rainfall and water temperature, were considered when making a data
383 training set. However, the five variables used in our models that consistently performed the best
384 across the three sites, when compared to other data training sets. Models were evaluated by
385 comparing the p -value and adjusted R^2 values. Table 5 summarizes the model performances for
386 the pooled data from the three sites. The OS model demonstrated that 55% of its variation could
387 be explained by five variables, with EC concentration and tidal phase and cycle exhibiting
388 significant influences on ENT concentrations. Similar results were observed for the MP model
389 with 63% of the variation in *Enterococcus* sp. concentration explained by the same variables. In
390 this model, however, only EC concentration and tidal cycle were found to significantly

391 contribute to ENT concentrations. Interestingly enough, 24-h antecedent rainfall was not a
 392 significant contributor to the variation observed in *Enterococcus* sp. concentrations for any of the
 393 models.

394

Table 5: Multiple regression model for the association of log₁₀ Enterococci with biological and environmental characteristics by sampling location (Orange St., Marsh/Pollock and Ann St.). The regression model looks to better characterize the effect of tidal cycle on bacterial concentrations delivered with the system.

395

Factor	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-value	Prob> t
Orange St.				
R² = 0.55, p = 3.12 e-05				
Intercept	0.743	0.920	0.807	0.424
EC	0.680	0.123	5.513	1.46e-06***
24h Rainfall	0.102	0.108	0.946	0.349
Tidal Height	2.900	2.432	1.192	0.239
^a Inundated	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Receding	1.227	1.212	1.012	0.317
Transition	2.199	0.758	2.900	0.006**
Sin(TidalCycle)	-2.478	0.931	-2.662	0.011*
Cos(TidalCycle)	1.083	0.534	2.029	0.048*
Marsh/Pollock				
R² = 0.63, p = 2.01 e-04				
Intercept	1.408	1.072	1.314	0.198
EC	0.772	0.181	4.273	1.61e-04***
24h Rainfall	-0.035	0.168	-0.211	0.835
Tidal Height	5.167	2.590	1.995	0.055
^b Inundated	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Receding	0.675	1.333	0.506	0.616
Transition	1.731	0.962	1.800	0.081
Sin(TidalCycle)	-2.426	0.995	-2.439	0.020*
Cos(TidalCycle)	0.178	0.799	0.222	0.826
Ann St.				
R² = 0.62, p = 0.058				
Intercept	2.843	2.127	1.337	0.200
EC	0.325	0.235	1.385	0.185
24h Rainfall	-0.872	0.562	-1.553	0.140
Tidal Height	9.816	7.466	1.315	0.207
^c Inundated	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

Receding	1.582	3.687	0.429	0.674
Transition	1.484	3.080	0.482	0.636
Sin(TidalCycle)	-2.702	2.702	-1.000	0.332
Cos(TidalCycle)	-1.121	2.393	-0.469	0.646

396 ^a Referent condition for the categorical variable, Orange St. model, effect is null; ^b Referent condition for the
397 categorical variable, Marsh/Pollock model, effect is null; ^c Referent condition for the categorical variable, Ann St.
398 model, effect is null.

399 * 0.05 significance level; ** 0.01 significance level; *** 0.001 significance level

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401

402 **4. DISCUSSION**

403

404 Historically, rainfall has long been associated with elevated FIB concentrations in receiving
405 waters (Coulliette & Noble, 2008; Hart et al., 2020; Silva et al., 2014). However, the influence of
406 tide on contaminant delivery during storms is poorly understood, particularly in low-lying
407 coastal plain systems. This study evaluated the relationships of both culture- and qPCR-based
408 FIB and qMST markers in the context of tidal cycle in an estuarine system exposed to
409 stormwater delivery across a wide range of weather conditions. To further evaluate relationships
410 observed for ENT, EC and qMST marker concentrations according to tide, we developed a MLR
411 tool to better understand stormwater contamination dynamics in a complex, tidally-influenced
412 estuarine system. MLR has been recommended as part of the US EPA 2012 “Update to the
413 Recreational Water Quality Criteria,” but to our knowledge there are no published models that
414 incorporate tide. Predictive modeling tools have previously shown their utility in NC estuaries
415 such as the one we studied (Gonzalez et al., 2012; Gonzalez & Noble, 2014) and therefore may
416 be used to better serve coastal water quality managers by better explaining microbial
417 contaminants in the context of tide and other environmental parameters. We hope to provide a
418 framework for stormwater researchers needing to incorporate a tidal parameter in their
419 monitoring regimes for the future, while also highlighting some of the major limitations
420 associated with using such an approach.

421

422 **4.1 Summary Statistics**

423 Samples were collected over a broad range of rainfall and dry weather conditions and across
424 tidal cycles. While concentrations of FIB and qMST markers increased slightly during wet
425 weather conditions, the concentrations were not significantly greater as compared to dry weather.
426 Previous studies did find significant increases in FIB concentrations following rain events
427 (Converse et al., 2011; Gonzalez et al., 2012; Parker et al., 2010; Stumpf et al., 2010), indicating
428 the potential for a different driver of FIB and qMST marker concentrations. To analyze this
429 further, inter-site variability was studied with regards to FIB and qMST marker concentrations.
430 On average, the upstream, non-tidally impacted sampling location (AS) consistently had higher
431 FIB and qMST marker concentrations compared to the downstream locations. We speculated
432 that tidal inundation was impacting the downstream locations, but not the upstream location and
433 was the factor dictating the observed differences in concentrations. Lewis et al., (2013) observed
434 a decrease in FIB concentrations with increases in tide stage dependent on the extent of the tidal
435 height. They concluded that tidal shifts exceeding 1.5 m within the tidal range resulted in
436 decreased FIB concentrations as the system is inundated and diluted with seawater. Conversely,
437 decreased tidal inundation was characterized by maximum inflows of freshwater which promote
438 bacterial replication in systems with high concentrations of fecal contamination. This could
439 explain why higher concentrations of FIB were observed at the AS location as compared to OS
440 and MP. Findings from this study support the idea of a dilution effect on FIB and qMST marker
441 concentrations related to tidal mixing causing both dilution and bacterial cell rupture during high
442 tide events that ultimately reduces measured FIB concentrations (Chen et al., 2019; De Brauwere
443 et al., 2011; Kirchman et al., 1984; Pednekar et al., 2005).

444 Environmental parameters validated the observed, shifting dynamics across the various tidal
445 classifications. Salinity measurements were found to be the highest during periods of tidal
446 inundation (17 ppt) compared to transition (10 ppt) and receding (16 ppt) tidal periods. While not
447 significantly different than average values during low tide events, significant correlations to ENT
448 concentrations during high tide suggest the potential utility of such a parameter as has been
449 reported in previous research (Byappanahalli et al., 2012; Dorsey et al., 2010; Sinton et al.,
450 2002). Neither TSS nor water temperature exhibited strong relationships with either FIB or
451 qMST indicators. This could be attributed to fewer measurements collected over the course of
452 the study, which was the result of evolving research goals that emerged as the complexity of the
453 system became apparent.

454 **4.2 Multiple Linear Regression Models**

455 To our knowledge, this was the first application of a MLR that incorporated both qualitative
456 and quantitative tidal variables to examine drivers of microbial contaminant concentrations. This
457 approach, when compared to other statistical methods, may serve as more appropriate tool to
458 routinely evaluate stormwater-impacted water quality. As evidenced by the recent USEPA buy-
459 in, predictive modeling tools (Cyterski et al., 2013) can offer an opportunity to identify drivers of
460 contamination, especially as related to stormwater inputs, and environmental parameters. In the
461 end, these tools conserve valuable resources by allowing predictions rather than routine sample
462 collection and monitoring to manage recreational exposure and risk. Previous modeling done by
463 Gonzalez et al., (2014) was conducted in a neighboring system and demonstrated successful
464 application of MLR. In this study, however, no tidal variable was incorporated to explain
465 variation in either EC or ENT concentrations. Furthermore, rainfall was found to be a significant
466 driver of FIB concentrations. The utility of our study is the incorporation of both well-

467 established biological parameters (Hamilton et al., 2017; Jin et al., 2004; Parker et al., 2010) with
468 less-understood environmental influences, such as tidal condition.

469 ENT and EC have long shown co-occurrence within fecal waste natural environments, with
470 some proposing that EC is a superior metric of fecal contamination given its specificity and
471 relationship to human health (Cabelli et al., 1982; Soller et al., 2010). Therefore, the relevance of
472 EC concentration within the model makes sense due to its known, previously published, positive
473 correlation with ENT (Boehm & Sassoubre, 2014; Steele et al., 2018; Stumpf et al., 2010). Tidal
474 cycle, however, which has been studied much less frequently, also appeared to exhibit great
475 influence on ENT concentration variation. We believe this implies that contaminant transport is
476 more dependent on the timing of storm events as they relate to the state of the tide, compared to
477 simply the extent, intensity of the storm event itself. If this is true, downstream waters could be
478 susceptible to impairment long after a storm event ceases and related to the release of the system
479 as the tide retreats. Thus, contaminated waterways remain open during contamination events
480 increasing the likelihood of deleterious public health effects (Leecaster & Weisberg, 2001;
481 Noble, Blackwood, Griffith, McGee, & Weisberg, 2010). Furthermore, in this framework,
482 antecedent rainfall patterns would carry increased weight and value to future predictive model
483 development. This is because long periods of increased rainfall will begin to favor higher
484 surficial groundwater levels, as well as decreased infiltration capacity, potentially driving a
485 compounded issue of stormwater delivery hampered by localized increased tidal elevation due to
486 increased localized runoff (Yau et al., 2014).

487 **4.3 Application**

488 In low-lying, rural systems, such as Beaufort, NC, it is not uncommon to find some degree of
489 spatial autocorrelation in water quality studies (Partyka et al., 2017; Tu & Xia, 2008) suggesting

490 that the qualities under investigation are determined somewhat by unmeasured, and possibly
491 external factors. If these influences are not taken into consideration, bias can be introduced into
492 microbial water quality monitoring programs and the subsequent management decisions. In this
493 particular study, we considered tidal variation, which is surprisingly understudied. Coastal
494 communities across the entire NC coast sit at elevations around or below those found in Beaufort
495 (e.g. Currituck (7 ft), Hatteras (3 ft), and Ocracoke (3 ft)) and, as such, experience similar
496 degrees of tidal inundation. By addressing this issue in more depth, stormwater researchers may
497 have greater success in developing a more inclusive framework for stormwater management that
498 may be applied in susceptible coastal communities throughout the US (Poulter et al., 2009;
499 Pricope, Halls, & Rosul, 2019). We recognize the limitations of this study and the possible
500 influence this may have on the reliability of model predictions. For instance, laboratory-based
501 measures (e.g. salinity and TSS) not comprehensively conducted across all sample types
502 throughout the study. Furthermore, it would have been of great interest to understand the
503 elevation and pipe dimension and flow and discharge across the entire system, but these
504 parameters were difficult to measure in practice and resulted in intermittent data collection.
505 Additionally, sampling regimes varied between automatic and grab sampling, introducing bias
506 related to sample collection frequency and type. Previous studies applying a tidal description in
507 their sampling methods have primarily occurred during one tidal phase (Ex. low or high) which
508 limits one's understanding of shifting FIB and qMST concentrations that change with the tide.
509 Much of the previous literature shows geographic or socio-economic biases as many were
510 conducted in the western US or in highly developed watersheds with lower tidal intrusion and
511 greater financial resources to combat coastal flooding. With the greatest risks falling on low-

512 lying, rural populations, accurate classifications of tidal inundation and its impact on microbial
513 contaminant delivery in stormwater is necessary for future consideration.

514 We understand there is no “one-size-fits-all” model for the prediction of *Enterococcus* sp.
515 concentration in discharge to coastal, surface waters. However, once baseline interactions
516 between environmental parameters and microbial dynamics have been established through
517 routine monitoring, data can then be interpreted in the context of tide. Without reliable spatial
518 and temporal knowledge of tidal cycle, we cannot fully rely on the results of published models to
519 answer today's questions of acceptable water quality.

520 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

- 521 • Concentrations of culture FIB (*E. coli* and enterococci), Entero1-qPCR and qMST (HF183)
522 markers were significantly influenced by tide with higher concentrations found during
523 receding (low) tides compared to those from inundated (high) or transition tidal periods.
- 524 • Environmental parameters, such as salinity, were found to significantly ($p < 0.05$) correlate
525 with ENT concentrations during periods of tidal inundation. Salinity is likely a valuable
526 conservative marker for future dispersion studies.
- 527 • Study successfully showed the application of MLR using qualitative and quantitative tidal
528 variables as driver of variation in both EC and ENT concentrations. However, 24-h
529 antecedent rainfall was not determined to have a major influence on FIB concentration as has
530 been previously reported.
- 531
- 532
- 533

534

- 535 • Monitoring programs in low-lying coastal communities with tidal inundation issues must
536 incorporate a tidal parameter in order to evaluate the impact of tidal inundation on
537 stormwater conveyance.

538

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