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## **Significance of Beach Geomorphology on Fecal Indicator Bacteria Levels**

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26 **ABSTRACT**

27           Large databases of fecal indicator bacteria (FIB) measurements are available for coastal  
28 waters. With the assistance of satellite imagery, we illustrated the power of assessing data for  
29 many sites by evaluating beach features such as geomorphology, distance from rivers and canals,  
30 presence of piers and causeways, and degree of urbanization coupled with the enterococci FIB  
31 database for the state of Florida. We found that beach geomorphology was the primary  
32 characteristic associated with enterococci levels that exceeded regulatory guidelines. Beaches in  
33 close proximity to marshes or within bays had higher enterococci exceedances in comparison to  
34 open coast beaches. For open coast beaches, greater enterococci exceedances were associated  
35 with nearby rivers and higher levels of urbanization. Piers and causeways had a minimal  
36 contribution, as their effect was often overwhelmed by beach geomorphology. Results can be  
37 used to understand the potential causes of elevated enterococci levels and to promote public  
38 health.

39  
40 **Keywords:** enterococci, Florida, percent exceedance, beach characteristics, beach  
41 geomorphology, recreational water quality

42  
43  
44 **INTRODUCTION**

45           Marine and freshwater beaches are a large part of the U.S. economy and economies  
46 worldwide. They influence travel and tourism sectors (Houston, 2008) as well as the well-being  
47 of local residents due to the availability of low-cost recreational areas (Ashbullby et al. 2013,  
48 Wheeler et al. 2012, White et al. 2016). In October 2000, the U.S. Environmental Protection

49 Agency (EPA) established the Beaches Environmental Assessment and Coastal Health (BEACH)  
50 Act (U.S. EPA, 2000). This amendment to the Clean Water Act was made in response to  
51 potential beachgoer risks from waterborne bacterial pathogens and gastrointestinal illness(es)  
52 associated with unsafe water quality (Haile et al. 1999). The act provided funding for the  
53 creation of 35 statewide (including the U.S. territories and Great Lakes) recreational water-  
54 monitoring programs that test fecal indicator bacteria (FIB). As a result, more than 3,100 beaches  
55 nationwide have been monitored and millions of data points have been generated over the past  
56 15 years (U.S. EPA 2016).

57         The datasets, at the state and national levels, are an unprecedented and incredible  
58 resource for comparing results throughout the U.S. Many prior studies that evaluated FIB data  
59 focused solely on individual beaches or small clusters of beaches. They have focused on  
60 evaluating measureable water quality and parameters such as temperature (Leight et al. 2016),  
61 rainfall (Farnham and Lall 2015), nutrient availability (Shelton et al. 2014), hydrodynamics  
62 (Feng et al., 2013, He et al., 2007, Ge et al. 2012, Rodrigues et al. 2016), and sediment (Solo-  
63 Gabriele et al. 2000, Desmarais et al. 2002, Frey et al. 2015). Some have been more  
64 comprehensive in evaluating beach water quality for the states of California (Dorsey 2010,  
65 Yamahara et al. 2007) and Florida (Feng et al. 2016). The prior study by Feng et al. (2016)  
66 evaluated historical measurements of FIB levels at 262 Florida beaches and demonstrated the  
67 associations of water quality exceedances with both wave energy level and geographic  
68 distribution in terms of the Atlantic versus the Gulf of Mexico coasts.

69         Although Feng et al. (2016) provided the first baseline water quality assessment in the  
70 state of Florida, the geomorphological and man-made features were not taken into account in that  
71 study. The objective of the present study was to evaluate whether geomorphological and man-

72 made features observable through satellite imagery were correlated with enterococci bacterial  
73 exceedance levels amongst a large data set. To our knowledge, such an analysis based upon the  
74 use of satellite imagery has not been applied for the water quality evaluation.

75

## 76 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

77 For this study, we collected available data on beach bacteria levels for the state of Florida  
78 and converted this data to percent exceedances, evaluated beach features and structures through  
79 satellite imagery, and statistically evaluated whether beach characteristics were correlated with  
80 exceedances.

81

### 82 **Beach Bacteria Levels**

83 Under the direction of the Florida Department of Health (FDOH), the Florida Healthy  
84 Beaches Program (FHBP) was initiated in August 2000 and is still in operation as of 2016. At the  
85 initiation of the program, samples were collected monthly for a subset of beaches and then after  
86 August 2002, sample collection increased to a weekly basis. From the beginning of the period of  
87 record, samples were analyzed for two fecal indicator bacteria, enterococci and fecal coliform.  
88 Due to budgetary restrictions, the fecal coliform measurements were dropped in June 2011. Also,  
89 some beach sampling sites were dropped and many sites located in the northern panhandle  
90 (n=57) began to collect samples only during warmer periods. Seasonal sampling did not  
91 significantly impact the results. Of the 57 beaches that collected seasonal samples after 2011,  
92 the vast majority (n=46) did not have statistically significant differences in percent exceedances  
93 between the times before and after seasonal sampling was initiated. Of the 11 that had  
94 statistically significant differences, 3 had significantly lower percent exceedances, and 8 had

95 significantly higher values. Given the larger extent of the dataset, we chose to focus our analyses  
96 on enterococci for data available from August 2000 to December 2015. The enterococci data set  
97 was extensive and included 185,225 data points. There was a tendency throughout the period of  
98 record to initiate and abandon some sampling sites. To address this, we only included beach sites  
99 with a minimum of 120 data points for further analysis, resulting in a total of 316 beaches  
100 spanning 34 Florida counties.

101 For the data evaluated, the Florida Department of Health issued health warnings or  
102 advisories when fecal indicator bacteria levels exceeded a set threshold. These thresholds were  
103 based on either geometric mean or single sample measures. By far, the majority of the  
104 thresholds exceeded during the FHBP were the single sample maximums. In order to evaluate  
105 the dataset in terms of health concerns, the fecal bacteria levels were converted to percent  
106 exceedances. The percent exceedance is the percent of the time that the beach exceeded the  
107 single sample threshold level. From 2000 to 2015, the threshold levels were 104 colony forming  
108 units (CFU) per 100 ml for enterococci (U.S. EPA, 1986). Given the size of the dataset, the  
109 percent exceedance computations were conducted using Matlab software (Mathworks, Natick,  
110 MA). The resampled data points (outside of the regular monitoring schedule), which were  
111 conducted to confirm the initial exceedance of the threshold value, were excluded in the  
112 exceedance calculations. The elimination of the resamples removed the bias that would result  
113 from the more intense monitoring efforts that occur right after an exceedance was measured.

114

## 115 **Satellite Imagery**

116 Using Google Earth satellite imagery, we performed a visual assessment on all 316  
117 beaches. Beach sampling point locations were provided by the FDOH (David Polk, Beach

118 Program Coordinator, personal communication). This information was presented in two forms: a  
119 spreadsheet of GPS coordinates linked to county and beach name, and a Google Earth kml file  
120 that also included the coordinates of the sampling points. The two sources were compared to  
121 reconcile beach locations and beach names within the available database. In addition, we  
122 confirmed beach sampling locations through contact with local beach managers. In the few  
123 instances where inconsistencies occurred, we deferred to the sampling point location as indicated  
124 by the beach managers. The Google Earth kml file is included in the supplemental text.

125 Beach perimeters were established in order to determine the area evaluated corresponding  
126 to each sampling point. The FDOH Google Earth kml file provided the coordinates for the  
127 perimeters of some beaches. However, there were a number of beaches that did not have  
128 specified beach perimeters on the kml file. For these beaches, we measured  $\pm 150$  m from both  
129 sides of the sampling location in the direction parallel to the coastline using Google Earth's ruler  
130 tool. If the natural end of the beach landmass was within 2 times the 150 m distance (less than  
131 300 m from the sampling location), the end of the beach perimeter would be defined at the end of  
132 the landmass. There were also several beaches that had formerly been one beach and  
133 subsequently divided into two beaches, north and south. The boundary between the split beaches  
134 was not given by the kml file, so we assigned the boundary at exactly half the distance between  
135 the corresponding sampling points.

136 From Google Earth imagery, we defined a sequence of characteristics for the 316 study  
137 beaches, including classification of beaches with respect to general geomorphological  
138 characteristics, identification of nearby rivers and canals, piers and causeways, and level of  
139 urbanization.

140

141 *Beach classification based upon geomorphology:* Upon review of the beach characteristics  
142 through Google Earth, Florida beaches were classified into 6 categories (Fig. 1). The majority of  
143 the Florida coastline is surrounded by barrier islands, which are narrow islands that run parallel  
144 to the mainland. Beaches on the Atlantic Ocean or on the Gulf of Mexico side of the barrier  
145 islands were considered as category 1, or open-coast beaches. These beaches are mostly  
146 dominated by surface gravity waves and wave-induced transport. Beaches behind the barrier  
147 islands or located within coastal bays, lagoons, sounds, intra-coastal waterways, or within  
148 upstream estuarine rivers were considered as category 2, or bay beaches. This type of beach  
149 typically has little to no wave action but may be influenced by tides. Some beaches were located  
150 along breaks in the barrier islands (within inlets and channels that separate barrier islands); these  
151 beaches were considered as category 3, inlet-channel-situated beaches. These beaches can have  
152 high mixing rates due to potentially strong tidal currents. Beaches defined as category 4 have  
153 significant structures placed around them that limit or obstruct water circulation. Due to the  
154 various degrees to which beaches may be obstructed, a subjective decision was made to define an  
155 obstruction as a structure whose length is longer than the beach itself. Piers are common  
156 obstructions that are often perpendicular to the coastline. Piers supported on columns that allow  
157 water to flow below the structure are not considered an obstruction. For category 5, we  
158 considered the parts of the Florida coast without barrier islands. The coastline along these areas  
159 is very marshy with densely vegetated delta regions. These beaches are predominantly located in  
160 the “Big Bend area” (Fig. 1). Category 6, or back reef beaches, corresponds to most beaches in  
161 the Florida Keys. The Florida Keys are an extension of the barrier island formations along the  
162 Florida southeastern coastline. They do not have a broad land mass behind them and are situated  
163 behind shallow coral reefs which dissipate wave energy onto the beaches. Within each category,

164 beaches were further characterized in terms of the absence or presence of the following: rivers,  
165 canals, piers, and causeways. We also analyzed the degree of urbanization for areas adjacent to  
166 the beaches.

167

168 *River and Canals:* Rivers and canals were considered first together and then separately. Rivers  
169 were identified as winding, branching bodies of water, stemming from the inland areas and  
170 flowing towards the ocean. Typically, rivers that formed as smaller tributaries would join nearby  
171 tributaries as they flowed toward the ocean, forming increasingly larger bodies of water near  
172 beaches. Their location relative to the beach could potentially impact current flow and  
173 enterococci concentrations.

174 Canals are also a means through which water moves from inland areas towards the coast.  
175 These structures are characterized by their definitive, straight structure that reflects their man-  
176 made rigidity. These formations do not occur naturally and have the potential to affect water  
177 quality in surrounding beach waters, as canals are also typically associated with the transport of  
178 inland sources of contamination (Lu et al. 2004).

179

180 *Piers:* We examined the beaches for the presence or absence of pier(s). These man-made  
181 structures are easily visualized using satellite imagery and each pier's shape, length, and number  
182 (where applicable) was noted. Within the study of piers, we looked for potential differences  
183 between those deemed "public" or "private." Piers were considered public if they were built in a  
184 public access area. These piers tended to be larger in size with respect to their "private pier"  
185 counterparts. Some of the public piers had structures on them, such as restaurants and bathrooms.  
186 Private piers were linked to residential homes in private or remote areas; they are typically

187 smaller in size and have no infrastructure built on top of them. Piers not only have potential to  
188 alter a beach's water circulation with their structure (Saengsupavanich 2011), but they also have  
189 the ability to attract birds and people, as well as promote recreational activities.

190

191 *Causeways:* Causeways were investigated for reasons similar to piers. Man-made highways  
192 spanning a distance of water between two pieces of land are host to pollution from cars as well as  
193 other anthropogenic sources. The close proximity to bodies of water and their corresponding  
194 beaches raises concern over the pollution in run-off and its potential influence on FIB levels.

195

196 *Urbanization:* A beach's degree of urbanization was designated based on a two-part analysis: a)  
197 percentage of land developed and b) what was developed, i.e. parking lot versus hotel, or a small  
198 single-family house versus condominiums. Google Earth offers "elevation tool" that allows  
199 viewers to control the height above which they can view the area of interest, In order for our  
200 analysis to be consistent, we viewed the area with the sampling point centered in the screen and  
201 always from the same 600 m elevation vantage point.. The total area being viewed at 600 m  
202 elevation encompassed 336,800 m<sup>2</sup> (762 m by 442 m). The beaches were assigned a number  
203 from 1 to 5 based on our two criteria. Level 1 beaches were characterized by 0-20% of ground  
204 space developed with minimal infrastructure (i.e. a parking lot). Level 2 beaches displayed 20-  
205 40% of ground space covered with small developments (i.e. single family homes). Development  
206 of 40-60% of the ground space with major roadways and denser residences was indicative of a  
207 Level 3 beach. Level 4 beaches were defined as 60-80% land space developed with the presence  
208 of hotels or condominiums. Lastly, Level 5 beaches were 80-100% developed with high-rise  
209 buildings, major roads, and minimal visible open space.

210

211

## 212 **Statistical Analysis**

213           We compared the percent exceedances and the features observed via satellite imagery for  
214 each beach using several different statistical methods offered through Microsoft Excel. Single  
215 Factor Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) model was used to evaluate groups of data (such as  
216 beach categorization and urbanization). Reported F values represent the ratio of variances  
217 between two sets of values. F critical corresponds to the ratio of variances that is significant at  
218 95% confidence limits. If F is greater than F critical then the null hypothesis of equal variances  
219 is rejected and the variances of the populations are statistically different. In addition to ANOVA,  
220 heteroscedastic t-tests were conducted to compare percent exceedances among two specific data  
221 groups within various categories concerning beach classification, rivers, canals, piers, causeways  
222 and urbanization. Significant differences were assumed for  $p$  values less than 0.05, assuming a  
223 two-tail distribution with unequal variance. Urbanization was also evaluated using regression  
224 analysis based upon a least squares approach.

225

## 226 **RESULTS**

### 227 **Beach Classification**

228           Results from the ANOVA indicate that there is a statistically significant difference  
229 between the various beach categories (F-critical = 2.2, F-value = 50,  $p < 0.001$ ) (Fig. 2).  
230 Subsequent t-tests showed that open-coast beaches (category 1;  $n = 212$ ), were statistically  
231 different than bay beaches (category 2;  $n = 71$ ) ( $p < 0.001$ ). The average exceedance for  
232 category 1 beaches was 1.7% (standard deviation,  $\sigma = 1.7\%$ ). The average exceedance for

233 category 2 beaches was 6.9% ( $\sigma = 5.4\%$ ). Similarly, marsh beaches (category 5;  $n = 17$ ) were  
234 found to be statistically different than all other beach types, with an average exceedance of  
235 14.5% ( $\sigma = 10.5\%$ ) ( $p < 0.001$ ). The average exceedances of inlet-channel-situated beaches  
236 (3.5%; category 3;  $n = 3$ ), manmade-structure-protected beaches (6.5%; category 4;  $n = 5$ ), and  
237 back-reef beaches (3.5%; category 6;  $n = 8$ ) were all greater than that of category 1 beaches, but  
238 less than that of category 5 beaches. It should also be noted that the low numbers of beaches  
239 within categories 3, 4, and 6 made it difficult to observe statistical differences for these data sets.

240

## 241 **Rivers and Canals**

242 We first combined rivers and canals because of their similarity of water transport  
243 mechanisms from interior portions of the state towards the coastline. It should be noted that we  
244 included category 2, bay beaches within the “river-containing beach” data group under the  
245 simplified assumption that due to the nature of bay beaches, they are part of a river system  
246 whether as part of the Intracoastal Waterway located immediately behind the barrier islands, or  
247 their presence on the banks of a tributary to the Intracoastal. We compared 85 beaches that had  
248 river(s) and/or canal(s) within their formal perimeter boundaries against 231 beaches that did not  
249 have either characteristic within their perimeters. River and/or canal-containing beaches had  
250 higher exceedances (7.5%) in comparison to beaches that did not (2.3%,  $p < 0.001$ ) (Table 1).

251 We then evaluated beaches that had river(s) and/or canal(s) including bay beaches within  
252 600 m of the sampling point, independent of formal boundaries ( $n = 89$ ). We compared them  
253 against beaches that did not have either characteristic within 600 m of the sampling point ( $n =$   
254 227). The beaches with rivers and/or canals demonstrated statistically significant exceedances

255 (8.0%) in comparison to river and/or canal-lacking beaches (2.0%,  $p < 0.001$ ). We then looked to  
256 evaluate rivers and canals separately to better understand their individual contributions.

257

258 *Rivers:* Beaches with rivers within their perimeters ( $n = 79$ ) had statistically higher exceedances  
259 (7.3%) in comparison to those without river influence ( $n = 237$ , 2.5%,  $p < 0.001$ ). To examine  
260 the effect, if any, of distance to rivers we then analyzed beaches where rivers were within 600 m  
261 of the sampling point versus beaches that did not have a river within 600 m – all independent of  
262 formal beach borders. Similarly, the beaches that had a river within 600 m of sampling point ( $n =$   
263 84) had statistically higher exceedances (8.1%) in comparison to those that did not ( $n = 232$ ,  
264 2.1%,  $p < 0.001$ ).

265         Then, we performed a t-test in order to determine whether or not our assumption about  
266 bay beaches and river involvement was skewing the results. We did so by comparing beaches  
267 that had rivers explicitly within their perimeters (and excluding bay beaches on the Intracoastal  
268 Waterway away from river inputs) ( $n = 15$ ), to beaches that did not have any rivers ( $n = 301$ ). It  
269 should be noted that there were several bay beaches that did have definitive rivers within their  
270 perimeters; those beaches were still included within the river-containing data group as opposed  
271 to being excluded due to their bay categorization. The average exceedance for the former group  
272 was statistically higher (9.8 %) in comparison to the average exceedance in comparison to  
273 beaches that did not have rivers within their beach perimeter (3.4 %,  $p = 0.02$ ).

274         Finally, we ran a similar t-test examining beaches with explicit rivers within 600 m of the  
275 sampling point ( $n = 25$ ), excluding bay beaches on the Intracoastal, in contrast to beaches  
276 without rivers within 600 m of the sampling point ( $n = 291$ ). Statistically higher exceedances

277 were observed for the group of beaches with rivers within 600 m exceedance (11.8%) in  
278 comparison to the group of beaches without rivers (3.0%,  $p < 0.001$ ).

279  
280 *Canals:* We then examined beaches that had canals within borders versus beaches that did not  
281 have canals present. In this case, the exceedances for beaches that had canals within their borders  
282 ( $n = 10$ , 7.5%) were not statistically different than beaches that did not have canals within their  
283 borders ( $n = 306$ , 3.6%,  $p = 0.2$ ); however, it is noted that the average exceedance was higher  
284 with canals than without which is consistent with the river analyses. The next analysis evaluated  
285 beaches that had canals within 600 m of the sampling point versus beaches that did not have  
286 canals present. Again, the differences were not statistically different, although the beaches with  
287 canals within 600 m of the sampling point (6.2%) had higher exceedances in comparison to  
288 canals that did not (3.6%,  $p = 0.19$ ).

289 Overall, this analysis shows that the presence of rivers near beaches was found to be  
290 associated with higher percent exceedances and that rivers likely make a larger contribution to  
291 percent exceedance levels than canals do.

292

### 293 **Piers**

294 We analyzed enterococci exceedance in the presence or absence of a pier within the  
295 boundaries of the beach perimeter. We found that the mean exceedance level for the 70 beaches  
296 with piers was 6.3% ( $\sigma = 7.5\%$ ). The mean exceedance level for the 246 beaches without a pier  
297 was 2.9% ( $\sigma = 3.9\%$ ). The  $p$ -value for a two-tail test was less than 0.001, thus the enterococci  
298 exceedance levels between the two beach types were significantly different.

299 We then ran another analysis excluding the “Big Bend” marsh beaches ( $n = 17$ ) to see if  
300 our data was still statistically significant. T-test analysis performed between beaches with piers  
301 ( $n = 65$ ) and beaches without piers ( $n = 234$ ) showed the mean exceedance level was 4.8% ( $\sigma =$   
302 5.1%) for the beaches with piers and the mean exceedance was 2.6% ( $\sigma = 3.2\%$ ) for the beaches  
303 without piers. The results were still significantly different ( $p < 0.001$ ). Therefore, the marsh  
304 beaches in the “Big Bend” counties do not have a skewing effect on the data and support the  
305 results from the all-inclusive test.

306 Next, we examined enterococci exceedance of pier beaches between 56 “public” and 14  
307 “private” piers. The results showed that the public piers had a mean exceedance level of 4.9% ( $\sigma$   
308 = 5.8%). As for the private piers, the mean exceedance was 11.6% ( $\sigma = 10.6\%$ ). The  $p$ -value for  
309 a two-tail test was 0.04, thus the enterococci exceedance levels between the two pier types is  
310 significantly different.

311 Afterwards, we examined the open-coast (category 1) beaches that contained a pier  
312 within their boundaries versus those that did not. The t-test analysis found that the 30 pier-  
313 containing open coast beaches had an average exceedance value of 2.0% ( $\sigma = 1.6\%$ ). The  
314 remaining 182 category-1 beaches with no piers had an average enterococci exceedance of 1.6%  
315 ( $\sigma = 1.8\%$ ). The  $p$ -value for a two-tail test was 0.18, indicating that the exceedance levels  
316 between category 1 pier-containing beaches and pier-lacking beaches are not statistically  
317 different.

318 We then conducted the same test amongst bay beaches (category 2). We found that bay  
319 beaches with piers ( $n = 31$ ) had an average exceedance of 7.2% ( $\sigma = 5.9\%$ ) and that the  
320 remaining bay beaches with no piers ( $n = 40$ ) had an average enterococci exceedance of 6.7% ( $\sigma$

321 = 4.9%). Similar to the prior analysis for open-coast beaches with piers and those without, the  $p$ -  
322 value for this two-tail test ( $p = 0.70$ ) indicated no significant differences.

323 For further evaluation, we then compared the open-coast beaches with piers to the bay  
324 beaches with piers. The 30 pier-containing open-coast beaches had an average exceedance value  
325 of 2.0% ( $\sigma = 1.6\%$ ). The 31 pier-containing bay beaches had an average exceedance value of  
326 7.2% ( $\sigma = 5.9\%$ ). The result is statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ), which implies the effect of  
327 pier FIB contribution is likely secondary to the contribution of beach category.

328 Overall, beaches without piers (all beaches, non-marsh beaches, and open coast beaches  
329 only) had lower exceedances relative to beaches with piers. These differences were significant  
330 only when all beaches and beaches excluding marsh beaches were considered.

331

### 332 Causeways

333 We ran a statistical analysis for exceedance of enterococci in the presence or absence of a  
334 causeway within the boundaries of the beach perimeter. We found that the mean exceedance  
335 level for 21 beaches with causeways was 5.5% ( $\sigma = 4.2\%$ ). The mean exceedance level for the  
336 295 beaches without a causeway was 3.6% ( $\sigma = 5.1\%$ ). The  $p$ -value for a two-tail test was 0.056,  
337 suggesting that the enterococci exceedance levels of the beaches with causeways are not  
338 significantly different from those that do not have causeways within their perimeters, although  
339 the test for significance was close to the 0.05 value.

340 The next step in our analysis led us to examine the enterococci exceedance levels  
341 between causeway beaches and bay beaches. The 21 causeway beaches are beaches that contain  
342 a physical causeway structure within their beach perimeters, whereas bay beaches do not have a  
343 causeway but are located in the bay. It should be noted that there were 16 bay beaches that

344 contained a causeway within their boundaries and were therefore analyzed in the “causeway”  
345 group, not the “bay” group. The causeway beaches had a mean exceedance level of 5.5% ( $\sigma =$   
346 4.2%). The 55 bay beaches had a slightly higher exceedance level of 7.0% ( $\sigma = 5.6%$ ). The  
347 results ( $p = 0.21$ ) were indicative that there is not a significant difference between these two  
348 types of beaches.

349 We then questioned if there was any difference in exceedance levels depending upon  
350 whether the causeway was inside or outside of a bay area. Out of the 23 causeway beaches, 15  
351 were inside a bay area and 6 were not. The causeway beaches located within a bay had a mean  
352 exceedance level of 6.4% ( $\sigma = 4.7%$ ). The causeway beaches not located in a bay had a mean  
353 exceedance level of 3.3% ( $\sigma = 1.1%$ ). Given the resulting  $p$ -value for the two-tail test ( $p = 0.03$ ),  
354 there was a statistically significant difference among causeway beaches, with those located in the  
355 bay showing relatively higher exceedances.

356 Lastly, we analyzed causeway-containing category 2 bay beaches versus category 2 bay  
357 beaches with no causeways, using a t-test. The former group ( $n = 15$ ) had a mean exceedance  
358 level of 6.4% ( $\sigma = 4.7%$ ), while the latter group ( $n = 55$ ) had an exceedance level of 7.0% ( $\sigma =$   
359 5.6%). The results were statistically not different ( $p = 0.65$ ). Thus, the presence of a causeway  
360 within a bay beach did not appear to be associated with enterococci levels.

361 Overall, our results suggest that the associations between causeways and elevated  
362 enterococci exceedances exist because causeway beaches are found predominantly within bays.  
363 When controlling for the bay category, statistical differences were not observed, suggesting that  
364 the influence of causeways is overwhelmed by the influence of their presence in bays.

365

366 **Urbanization**

367 ANOVA analyses in FIB exceedance levels among the minimally developed level 1  
368 beaches through the heavily urbanized level 5 beaches indicate that there is a statistically  
369 significant difference between the various beach types (F-critical = 2.40, F-value = 3.80,  $p =$   
370 0.005) (Table 2). Subsequent t-tests showed that there was statistical difference between level 3  
371 and level 5 beaches ( $p = 0.04$ ). Conversely, there was no statistical difference between level 1  
372 beaches ( $n = 99$ ) and level 3 beaches ( $n = 66$ ,  $p = 0.43$ ), or between level 1 beaches and level 5  
373 beaches ( $n = 32$ ) ( $p = 0.11$ ). We performed a linear regression on the mean enterococci percent  
374 exceedances of all 316 beaches and their respective levels of urbanization (Fig. 3). A negative  
375 correlation ( $r = -0.64$ ) was found despite being not statistically significant ( $p = 0.24$ ).

376 Similar analyses were conducted for only category 1 (or open coast) beaches with respect  
377 to urbanization levels. The ANOVA test using this category showed that there was no  
378 statistically significant difference between the 5 levels of urbanization amongst category 1  
379 beaches (F-critical = 2.4, F-value = 1.4,  $p = 0.22$ ) (Table 2). T-tests between level 1 beaches and  
380 level 5 beaches ( $n = 31$ ), as well as level 3 beaches and level 5 beaches, showed that exceedances  
381 were not different between these groups ( $p = 0.057$  and  $p = 0.062$  respectively). The t-test  
382 between category 1, level 1 beaches ( $n = 54$ ) and category 1, level 3 ( $n = 48$ ) beaches also did  
383 not demonstrate statistically different exceedances ( $p = 0.63$ ). The linear regression on mean  
384 enterococci percent exceedances of category 1 beaches and corresponding urbanization levels  
385 resulted in a positive correlation ( $r = 0.93$ ,  $p = 0.02$ ) (Fig 3). This indicates a positive association  
386 between open coast beaches' increasing levels of urbanization and increasing levels of  
387 enterococci exceedance levels. Among the category 1 beaches, urbanization appears to be  
388 correlated with enterococci exceedance, indicating that the more urbanized the beach, the higher  
389 the exceedance, on average. This correlation was not observed when the data was analyzed as a

390 whole, suggesting that the characteristics of bay and marsh beaches overwhelm the influence of  
391 urbanization.

392

## 393 **DISCUSSION**

394 Results from the present study show that beach type is highly associated with exceedance  
395 levels, which is consistent with the prior study that found associations between wave energy and  
396 FIB exceedance levels (Feng et al. 2016). In this study, we categorized the beaches based on  
397 geomorphology and found that open coast beaches had the lowest average exceedance, whereas  
398 bay beaches had, on average, 4 times the exceedance relative to category 1 beaches. More  
399 significantly, marsh beaches were, on average, over 8 times the average of open coast beaches  
400 exceedances.

401 The significant differences between category 1, 2, and 5 beaches would suggest that  
402 specific characteristics or components pertaining to these beach types may contribute to and be  
403 ultimately responsible for these results. These characteristics can include limited water  
404 circulation (Byappanahalli et al. 2015) and wave action (Phillips et al. 2014), which are dictated  
405 by the hydrography and geomorphology of the beach. Bay beaches, located behind the barrier  
406 islands, are not directly exposed to gravity waves (particularly swell waves) generated and  
407 propagated in the Atlantic Ocean or the Gulf of Mexico. They also receive a considerable  
408 amount of river and canal input as water is brought to the ocean. Marsh beaches, although not  
409 behind barrier islands, are characterized by extremely shallow bottom slopes (Feng et al. 2016)  
410 and the presence of surrounding wetland areas. It is possible that marsh areas are characterized  
411 by different water chemistry and more highly organic coastal sediments that may play a role in  
412 the elevation of enterococci. For example, He et al. (2007) suggested that “pond-like” waters

413 foster a more desirable environment for FIB to thrive, in contrast to the flowing water  
414 environments; this idea could support our findings of high percent exceedance in marsh beaches  
415 in contrast to open-coast beaches. Of interest is that the communities surrounding the marsh  
416 beaches were relatively small, so the influence of direct human sewage is limited due to the  
417 small populations in these areas. The large expanses of undeveloped land in the vicinity of  
418 marsh beaches suggests that if there is a source, it is likely natural, and potentially due to wildlife  
419 (Grant et al. 2001, Wright et al. 2011) coupled with the retention, persistence (Brooks et al.  
420 2015), and possibly regrowth of bacteria within organic rich waters and coastal sediments  
421 (Desmarais et al. 2002, Lee et al. 2006).

422         Percent exceedances for the remaining beach categories were found to be between open-  
423 coast and marsh beaches, but were not consistently different from one another. Percent  
424 exceedances for category 3 inlet channel and category 6 back reef beaches were found to be  
425 between open coast and bay beaches, which is consistent with their geography. Inlet beaches are  
426 at breaks within the barrier islands and thus are located between open coast and bay beaches.  
427 The back reef beaches share some of the lower circulation features of bay beaches but are not  
428 completely blocked by barrier islands, thus illustrating exceedance levels between open coast  
429 and bay beaches. Category 4, manmade obstructed beaches demonstrated exceedance levels  
430 between the bay and marsh beaches. The obstruction of flow at manmade obstructed beaches  
431 can be severe, thereby greatly limiting dilution of the waters in these areas and further resulting  
432 in higher exceedances at manmade obstructed beaches relative to bay beaches.

433         Besides beach category, one of the more compelling geomorphological factors correlated  
434 with elevated enterococci levels in this study was the presence of rivers and canals in the vicinity  
435 of the beach. Multiple studies conducted have indicated that rivers and canals, in addition to

436 inlets and marshes, are substantial sources of FIB (Grant et al. 2001, Sadowsky and Whitman  
437 2011, Bradshaw et al. 2016, Templar et al. 2016). Our results strongly support these  
438 observations. In our study, the presence of rivers within 600 m is significantly related with  
439 higher exceedance levels despite the exact distance from the sampling point or bay contribution;  
440 thus, their effect is not overwhelmed by precise distance or beach classification. Canal presence  
441 was not significantly associated with exceedance levels; however, when comparing rivers and  
442 canals together, their combined significance despite distance from sampling point suggests an  
443 association with FIB contributions. Rivers and canals have potential to carry significant amounts  
444 of FIB from runoff accumulating from the inland areas (Nevers et al. 2007, Byappanahalli et al.  
445 2010, Verhougstraete et al. 2015). This includes influences from agricultural and urban land-  
446 uses, both of which are associated with elevated FIB levels (Strauch et al. 2014, Walters et al.  
447 2011). In addition to land use, studies have also shown that riverbank sediments carry and  
448 eventually release significant amounts of FIB from their banks (Desmarais et al. 2002,  
449 Brinkmeyer et al. 2015). If the goal is to minimize the possibility of elevated FIB levels, then in  
450 terms of siting beaches, if possible, rivers and canals should be avoided. If they cannot be  
451 avoided, then the contributing watersheds (Di' Donato et al. 2009, Gotkowska-Plachta et al.  
452 2016) should be managed to minimize inputs of FIB, especially anthropogenic inputs (Dorsey  
453 2010). However, as suggested for marsh beaches, there are other factors in addition to  
454 anthropogenic inputs that can result in larger FIB levels at beaches influenced by rivers and  
455 canals.

456         The data from the current study also indicates that beaches with piers have over twice the  
457 exceedance levels as non-pier beaches. Piers can attract birds, humans, and other animals  
458 (Boehm et al. 2003). Piers are shaded and can provide relief from sunlight for animals and can

459 potentially serve as nesting places for birds (Wither et al. 2005). Fishing is a common activity at  
460 piers which in turn attracts animals, again, in particular, birds. Some piers have structures like  
461 bathrooms and restaurants – all of which, depending on degree of management, could be sources  
462 of FIB. Despite all of these FIB sources associated with piers, upon statistical testing, we  
463 conclude that the influence of pier on FIB can be observed, but the contribution is typically  
464 overshadowed by the beach category. This was particularly apparent when beaches with public  
465 versus private piers were compared. Beaches with private piers are found exclusively in marsh  
466 and bay beach areas, whereas public piers are found at open coast beaches as well as marsh and  
467 bay beaches. The inclusion of open coast beach data within the comparison resulted in  
468 statistically significant lower levels of enterococci at beaches with public piers in comparison to  
469 beaches with private piers.

470         Similar to piers, causeway beaches were found to have higher exceedances relative to  
471 beaches without causeways. However, the differences were not significant. The only statistical  
472 significance observed was for causeway beaches within bays versus those outside the bay. This  
473 difference is confounded by the geomorphological impacts of the bay as opposed to the actual  
474 presence of the causeway. The higher enterococci exceedances at causeway beaches, although  
475 not statistically higher, are also consistent with what is known about sources of runoff from  
476 impervious and highly trafficked surfaces (Dorsey 2010, Sadowsky and Whitman 2011).

477         When evaluating urbanization, variable results were observed depending upon whether  
478 all beaches or only open coast beaches were considered. When considered as a whole, beach  
479 type overwhelmed urbanization impacts. The beaches with the highest levels of enterococci  
480 exceedance were marsh beaches. However, marsh beaches are characterized by relatively low  
481 urbanization. This is in contrast to open coast beaches; this beach category has beaches at all

482 levels of urbanization whereas marsh and bay beaches have urbanization levels of only 1, 2 and  
483 3. It was not until the open coast beaches were evaluated separately that the associations with  
484 increased urbanization could be observed (Fig 3). By evaluating only category 1 beaches, the  
485 impact of beach type was removed. Under these conditions, a significant and positive correlation  
486 was observed between increasing urbanization and mean FIB exceedances. This correlation  
487 appears to be logical, as increased development and infrastructure would ideally equate to higher  
488 and denser anthropogenic use, and potentially higher contributions from various sources of FIB  
489 (as previously mentioned, human activities, sewage, and runoff pollutants) (Sadowsky and  
490 Whitman 2011, Dorsey 2010). These results would also further support the notion that rivers,  
491 inlets, and canals associated with marshes and bays are the critical contributing factors to the  
492 exceedance levels of nearby beaches instead of urbanization. It could also support the idea that  
493 urbanization plays a larger role for the open coast beach category.

494 Overall, beach geomorphology appears to be strongly associated with enterococci  
495 exceedance levels. Open coast beaches tend to have the best water quality (i.e., lowest  
496 exceedances), followed by bay beaches and, lastly, by marsh beaches. The presence of rivers  
497 and canals nearby (within 600 m) also appears to be associated with enterococci exceedance.  
498 Within open coast beaches, more urbanization is associated with higher FIB exceedances. Weak  
499 relationships were observed with the presence of piers and causeways. All of these results, with  
500 the exception of marsh beaches, are consistent with known FIB sources, from sources related to  
501 land use and from people. More research is needed to evaluate the influence of water and soil  
502 chemistry on the persistence of FIB in marsh areas.

503

504 **CONCLUSION**

505           This study is the first of its kind to utilize a massive public database in conjunction with  
506 easily accessible satellite imagery at a state-wide level to evaluate associations between water  
507 quality and geomorphological features. The category-based approach utilized in this paper can be  
508 easily extended to evaluate beaches in other parts of the U.S. to serve as a model for future  
509 studies of coastal states nationwide. Of interest would be to evaluate whether the trends observed  
510 in Florida are consistent with beaches in other states. It is our aspiration that results from these  
511 types of analyses can be used to identify more vulnerable beaches from publicly available water  
512 quality data and aerial imagery. We believe that this information will help improve the process  
513 of siting beaches so that public health will be protected.

514

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521

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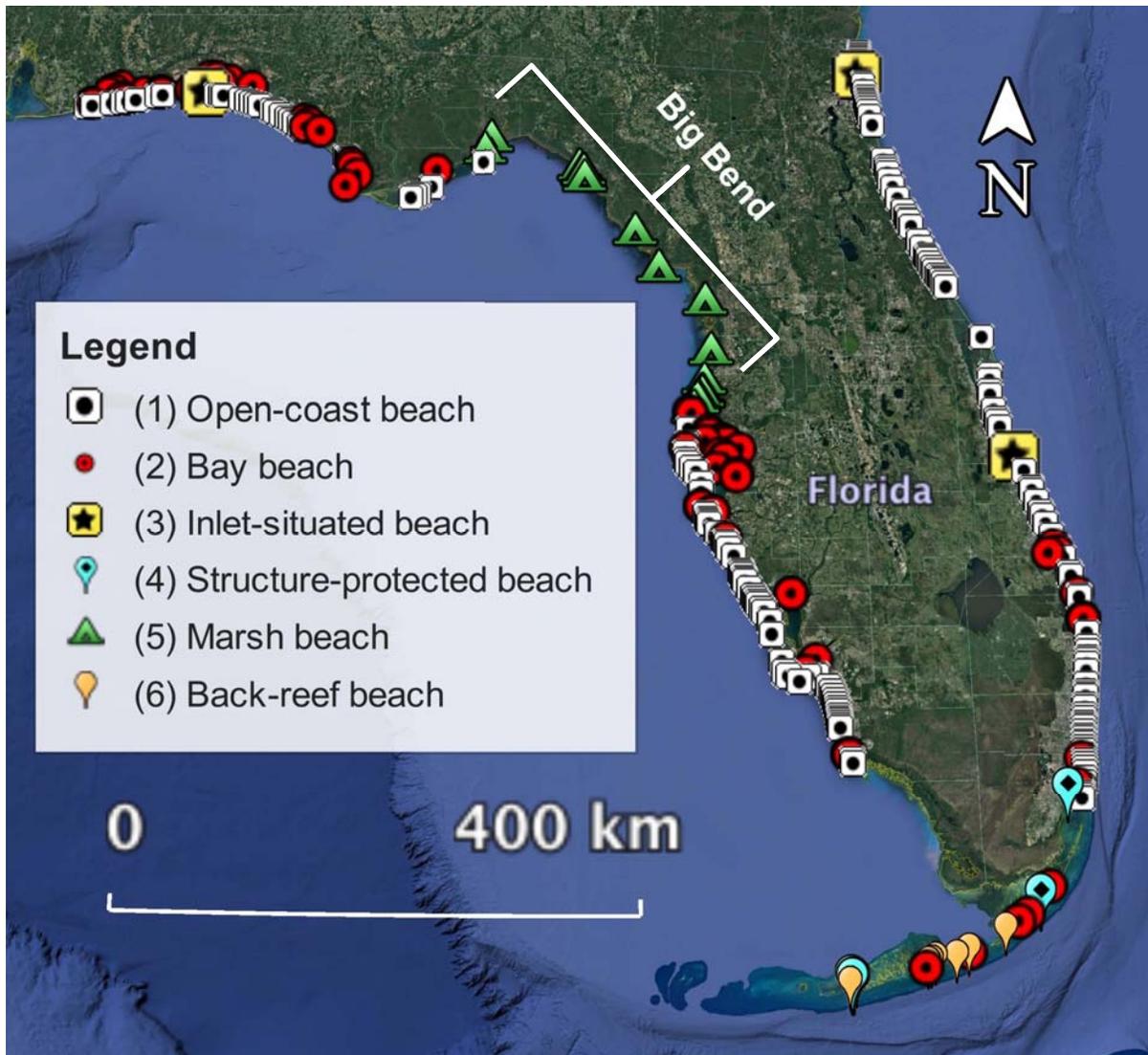
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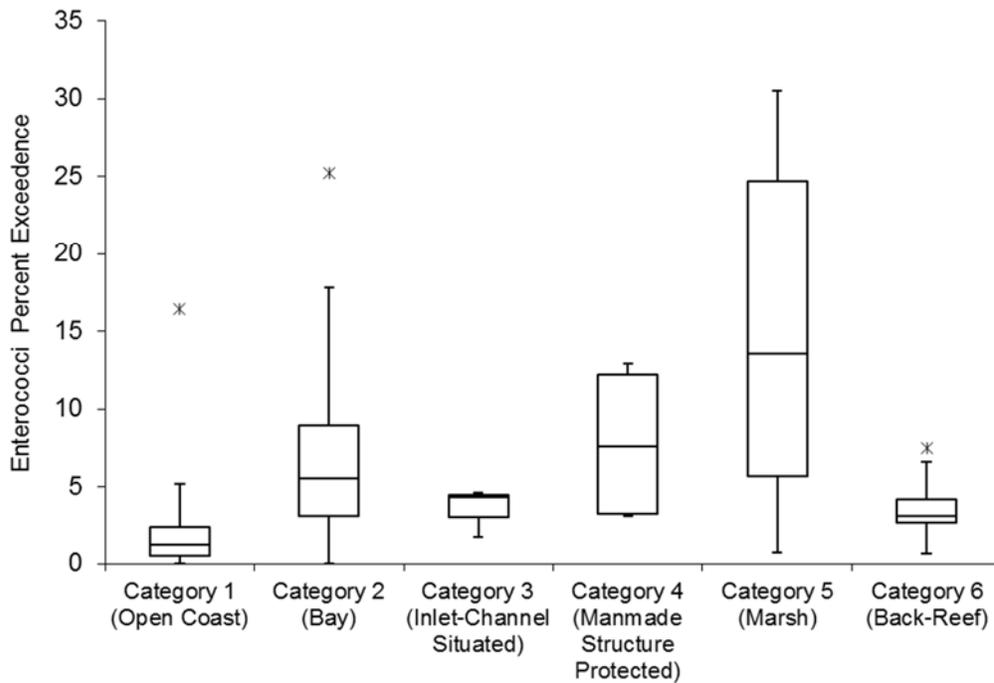
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693 Fig 1. The geographic distribution and categorization of 316 recreational beaches in the study.

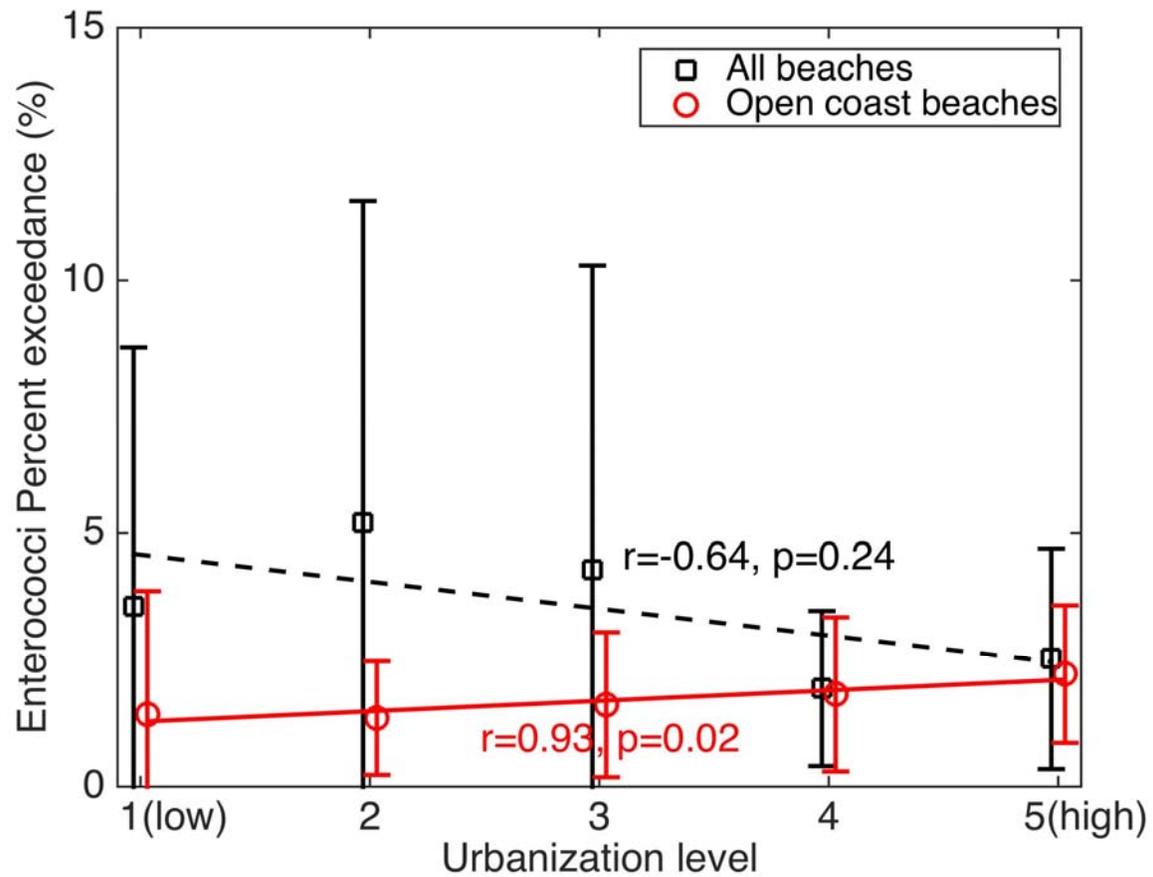
694 The Big Bend area includes Pasco, Dixie, Taylor, Levy, Hernando, Citrus, and Wakulla counties.



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696 Fig 2. Box and Whisker Plot of Beach Categorization Data. The box edges represent the 25%  
 697 and 75% ranges of the data with the line within the plot representing the median of the data. The  
 698 ends of the whisker are set at 1.5 interquartile range (IQR) units above the third quartile and 1.5  
 699 IQR units below the first quartile. Values outside the whiskers are considered outliers.

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702 Fig 3. Mean enterococci percent exceedances in each urbanization level and linear fitted lines for

703 all beaches versus open coast beaches. Error bars show standard deviations.

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T-test comparison		Number of Beaches		Mean % exceedance and standard deviation*		Range		p-value
Rivers within beach perimeter	No rivers	79	237	7.32 (6.35)	2.46 (3.94)	0-30.5	0-30.1	<0.001
Rivers within 600 m	No rivers	85	231	7.99 (7.35)	2.09 (2.55)	0-30.5	0-17.2	<0.001
Rivers (without bays) within beach perimeter	No rivers	15	301	9.84 (9.86)	3.39 (4.56)	0.69-30.5	0-30.1	0.02
Rivers (without bays) within 600 m	No rivers	25	291	11.8 (10.20)	2.98 (3.69)	0-30.5	0-25.2	<0.001
Canals within beach perimeter	No canals	10	306	7.53 (9.05)	3.55 (4.90)	0-30.1	0-30.5	0.20
Canals within 600 m	No canals	15	301	6.24 (7.55)	3.55 (4.94)	0-30.1	0-30.48	0.19
Rivers and/or Canals within beach perimeter	No rivers or canals	85	231	7.51 (6.71)	2.26 (3.44)	0-30.5	0-28.0	<0.001
Rivers and/or canals within 600 m	No rivers or canals	89	227	7.96 (7.25)	2.00 (2.41)	0-30.5	0-17.2	<0.001

707

\*Standard deviation provided in parenthesis

708

709 Table 1: Results from the analysis of beaches with rivers and canals within their perimeters or  
710 within 600 meters. The categories compared (e.g., a versus b) are given in the first two columns.  
711 The columns to the right are patterned off of the first two columns with the statistics for category  
712 “a” are provided to the left and the statistics for category “b” are provided to the right.

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Level of Urbanization amongst all beaches	Number of Beaches	Mean exceedance and standard deviation (%)*	Range (%)	Statistical significance**
All Beaches				
1 (low)	99	3.56 (5.12)	0-29.6	A
2	66	5.20 (6.37)	0-30.5	B
3	66	4.28 (6.01)	0-30.1	C
4	53	1.93 (1.53)	0-6.57	A,B,C
5 (high)	32	2.52 (2.18)	0.16-12.0	B,C
Open Coast				
1 (low)	54	1.42 (2.43)	0-16.4	A,B
2	31	1.35 (1.12)	0-4.76	A
3	48	1.61 (1.43)	0-5.96	A,B
4	48	1.82 (1.52)	0-6.57	A,B
5 (high)	31	2.22 (1.36)	0.16-5.23	B

\*standard deviation provided in parenthesis

\*\*Levels of urbanization sharing the same letter are statistically not different.

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720 Table 2: Enterococci statistics for all beaches and open coast beaches when separated by degree

721 of urbanization.

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726 Table 3: Table of factors associated with higher enterococci exceedances.

Factors of Influence	All Beaches	Subset of Data
Rivers and Canals *	Significant	Significant even when bay beaches without rivers/canals nearby were removed.
Rivers *	Significant	
Canals *	Not significant	
Piers	Significant	- Excluding Big Bend beaches - significant - Private vs. Public – significant - Category 1 beaches with and without piers – not significant - Category 2 beaches with and without piers – not significant - Category 1 vs. Category 2 - significant
Causeways	Not significant	- Causeway vs. Category 2 (bay) beaches – not significant - Causeways in bay vs. Causeways not in a bay - significant - Causeway-Category 2 vs. Category 2 without Causeways – not significant
Degree of Urbanization	(ANOVA) significant	Positive correlation within Category 1 beaches and increasing urbanization

727 \*within formal perimeters and within 600 m of water sampling point.

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