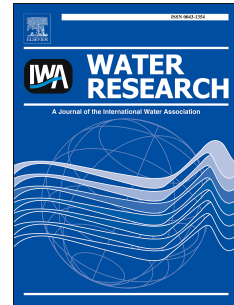


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Spatial and Hydrologic Variation of *Bacteroidales*, Adenovirus and Enterovirus in a Semi-arid, Wastewater Effluent-Impacted Watershed

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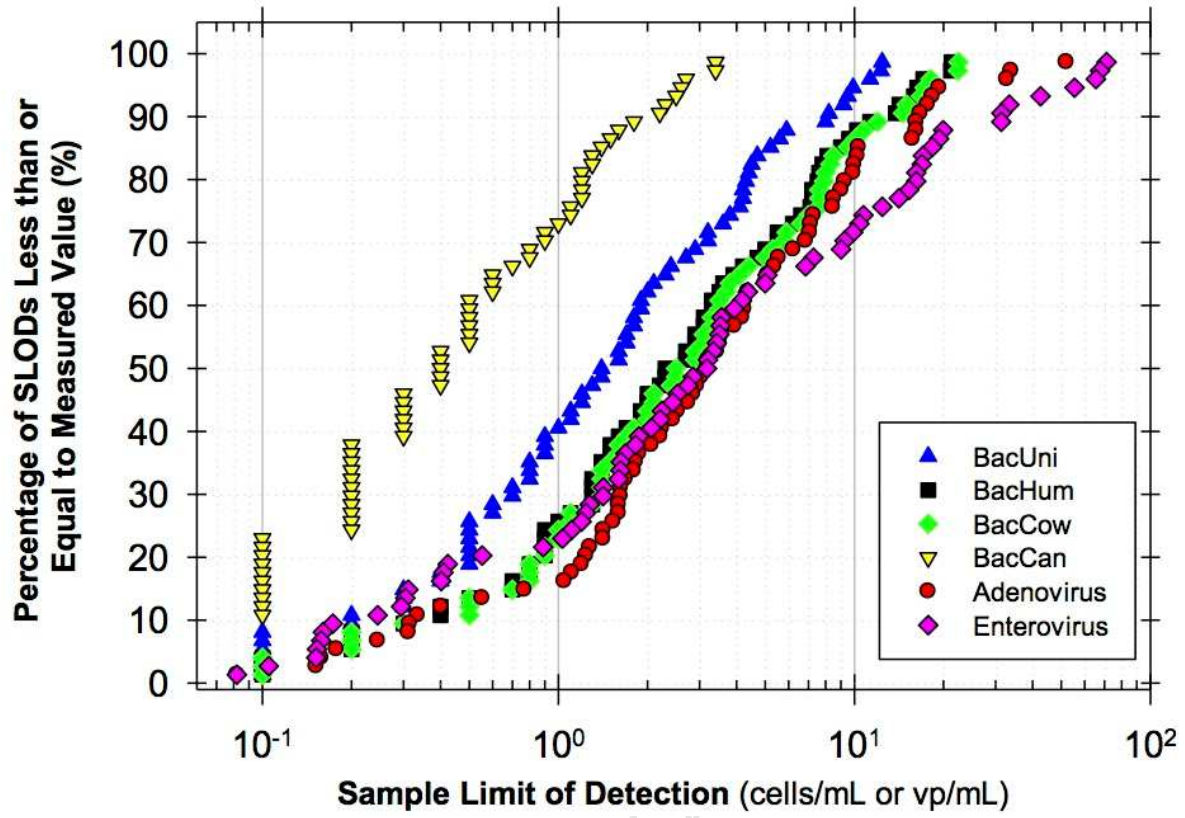
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1        Spatial and Hydrologic Variation of *Bacteroidales*, Adenovirus and  
2        Enterovirus in a Semi-arid, Wastewater Effluent-Impacted Watershed

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24 **ABSTRACT**

25 *Bacteroidales* and viruses were contemporaneously measured during dry and wet  
26 weather conditions at a watershed-scale in a semi-arid watershed impacted by a mixture of  
27 agricultural runoff, municipal wastewater effluent and municipal runoff. The results highlight  
28 the presence of municipal wastewater effluent as a confounding factor for microbial source  
29 tracking (MST) studies, and thus data were segregated into groups based on whether they were  
30 impacted by wastewater effluent. In semi-arid environments such as the Calleguas Creek  
31 watershed, located in southern California, the relative contribution of municipal wastewater  
32 effluent is dependent on hydrology as storm events lead to conditions where agricultural and  
33 municipal stormwater dominate receiving waters (rather than municipal wastewater, which is the  
34 case during dry weather). As such, the approach to data segregation was dependent on hydrology  
35 / storm conditions. Storm events led to significant increases in ruminant- and dog-associated  
36 *Bacteroidales* concentrations, indicating that overland transport connects strong non-human fecal  
37 sources with surface waters. Because the dataset had a large number of non-detect samples, data  
38 handling included the Kaplan-Meier estimator and data were presented graphically in a manner  
39 that reflects the potential effect of detection limits. In surface water samples with virus  
40 detections, *E. coli* concentrations were often below (in compliance with) the recreational water  
41 quality criteria. In fact, sites downstream of direct inputs of municipal wastewater effluent  
42 exhibited the lowest concentrations of *Escherichia. coli*, but the highest concentrations of  
43 human-associated *Bacteroidales* and highest detection rates of human viruses. The toolkit,  
44 comprised of the four *Bacteroidales* assays and human virus assays used, can be successfully  
45 applied to inform watershed managers seeking to comply with recreational water quality criteria.

46 However, care should be taken when analyzing data to account for the effect of non-detect  
47 samples, sources with differing microbial viability, and diverging hydrologic conditions.

48 **Keywords:** microbial source tracking; *Bacteroidales*; enterovirus; adenovirus; quantitative PCR;  
49 total maximum daily load (TMDL)

50

## 51 **1. Introduction**

52 Over 12,000 waterbodies in the United States are categorized as impaired by fecal  
53 indicator bacteria (FIB) discharges, and have been subject to total maximum daily loads  
54 (TMDLs), which describe the water quality improvement strategy to address FIB sources in the  
55 watershed (USEPA, 2009). Compliance with recreational water quality (REC) criteria in  
56 developed watersheds, both in the U.S. and elsewhere, represents a significant challenge to  
57 responsible agencies, as a myriad of non-point bacteria sources contribute to impairment. Some  
58 watersheds that are only subject to natural bacteria sources (e.g., birds) have been found to  
59 exceed REC criteria (Tiefenthaler et al., 2008), and some waterbodies have been subject to  
60 extensive remediation efforts yet exceedances of criteria persist (POLA, 2006). During storm  
61 events in urbanized watersheds, which may represent >99% of the annual bacteria discharge  
62 (Reeves et al., 2004), loading rates can be extraordinarily high – several times greater than the  
63 equivalent daily fecal loading from the entire human population within the watershed (Surbeck et  
64 al., 2006). The United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) recently conducted  
65 extensive research including epidemiological studies and adopted revised federal REC criteria  
66 (Wade et al., 2006, USEPA, 2012). The revised criteria underscore the importance of the type of  
67 fecal source when evaluating potential REC health risks. Health risks associated with recreating

68 in waters impacted by non-human sources can be orders of magnitude less than those with  
69 human sources (Colford et al., 2007, Soller et al., 2010).

70         Given the immense challenges involved with complying with REC criteria, and the  
71 importance of fecal source type to the level of risks, watershed managers often desire data  
72 regarding the fecal sources that are driving levels of FIB. Collectively referred to as microbial  
73 source tracking (MST), a plethora of methods have been developed to characterize the  
74 contribution of fecal discharges from different host populations to surface waters and are applied  
75 throughout the world (Field and Samadpour, 2007, Santo Domingo et al., 2007, Boehm et al.,  
76 2013). The most widely-applied and tested of these approaches targets host-associated 16S  
77 rRNA genes of the *Bacteroidales*, and assays based on quantitative PCR (qPCR) can be used to  
78 estimate genomic concentrations (Kildare et al., 2007, Shanks et al., 2008, Shanks et al., 2009).  
79 Multiple comparison studies have tested and confirmed that, while not 100% sensitive or  
80 specific, many *Bacteroidales* markers are sufficiently sensitive and specific for detecting host-  
81 associated contamination (Boehm et al., 2013, Layton et al., 2013, Raith et al., 2013, Schriewer  
82 et al., 2013), are repeatable/reproducible (Ebentier et al., 2013), and the stable populations  
83 required for marker-based MST are present around the globe (Reischer et al., 2013).

84         Statistical and modeling approaches have been evaluated for using ratios of host-  
85 associated to universal *Bacteroidales* markers to quantify the contribution of human versus non-  
86 human sources on levels of FIB in watersheds ( Harwood, 2007, Wang et al., 2010, Wang et al.,  
87 2013, Stoeckel and Russell et al., 2013). Applications of these ratios, which should account for  
88 differences in fate and transport characteristics along with the fact that MST assays are  
89 imperfect, are emerging as a tool for quantitative MST. Ratios and concentrations are interpreted  
90 differently; all host-associated concentrations represent the potential impact of that host

91 population on downstream waters, while host-associated:universal ratios highlight the effect of  
92 that host population on the total *Bacteroidales* loading at the monitored site. Suppose that a  
93 runoff site has very high levels of the human marker BacHum (when compared to other sites) but  
94 a very low ratio of BacHum:BacUni. In this case, the site might pose an elevated risk to  
95 recreational users who come into contact with a waterbody impacted by human fecal sources, but  
96 on the other hand an agency that is responsible for remediating that site should also target  
97 potential non-human sources.

98 To support REC risk assessment, MST assays can be coupled with pathogen assays,  
99 particularly those for human viruses (McBride et al., 2013, Harwood et al., 2014). Virus assays  
100 with qPCR have been shown to be highly specific for mixed human fecal sources (Harwood et  
101 al., 2013), though they are often absent in individual fecal samples (Noble et al., 2003).  
102 Enterovirus, a single-stranded RNA virus, has been readily detected with qPCR during several  
103 studies of the coastal ocean and coastal watersheds in the western U.S. (Fuhrman et al., 2005;  
104 Noble et al., 2006, Viau et al., 2011). Adenovirus, a double-stranded DNA virus, is often  
105 detected in these same environments (Choi and Jiang, 2005, Sassoubre et al., 2012), and has been  
106 reported to have prolonged survival time and increased resistance to UV treatments (Nwachuku  
107 et al., 2005). Prior to this study, no known studies have contemporaneously measured  
108 *Bacteroidales* and viruses over the long-term at watershed-scale in waterbodies impacted by a  
109 mixture of agricultural runoff, municipal wastewater and municipal stormwater.

110 The objectives of this study were to (i) evaluate the abundance of four validated fecal  
111 *Bacteroidales* genetic markers (universal [BacUni], human- [BacHum], dog- [BacCan], and  
112 ruminant-associated [BacCow]) in treated and untreated municipal wastewater, (ii) compare  
113 quantitative data on host-associated fecal source identifiers based on *Bacteroidales* and human



114 enteroviruses and adenoviruses with FIB measurements in surface waters, and (iii) utilize the  
115 spatial and hydrologic variations of these quantitative MST markers to elucidate the predominant  
116 FIB in Calleguas Creek Watershed (CCW), a multi-use coastal watershed in southern California.  
117 We hypothesized that concentrations of *Bacteroidales* and viruses would relate to certain types  
118 of discharges in the watershed (e.g., agricultural runoff, urban runoff, and municipal  
119 wastewater), and expected our results to assist stakeholders with development and  
120 implementation of a bacteria TMDL.

121 To test this hypothesis, the four *Bacteroidales* specific assays (BacUni, BacHum, BacCow,  
122 and BacCan), *Escherichia. coli* and human-associated viruses (enteroviruses and adenoviruses)  
123 were monitored at multiple CCW sites for one year. To our knowledge, this was the first long-  
124 term, watershed-scale study to quantitatively measure *Bacteroidales* and human viruses in water  
125 samples. Our approach consisted of combining MST and pathogen methodologies. First, we  
126 filtered large volume (100-liter) samples and spiked water samples with surrogates in order to  
127 increase the accuracy of quantitation by accounting for DNA losses that occur during filtration  
128 and extraction (Rajal et al., 2007a). Then we used qPCR to quantify genomic concentrations of  
129 human viruses – adenovirus and enterovirus (Rajal et al., 2007b) – and universal and host-  
130 associated *Bacteroidales* markers and their ratios to the universal marker (Kildare et al., 2007).  
131 Our approach to data synthesis incorporates tools not often used by MST studies including  
132 application of a Montel Carlo model to account for imperfect MST assays and using statistical  
133 approaches that robustly account for datasets that are dominated by non-detect results.

134

## 135 **2. Methods and Materials**

### 136 **2.1 Watershed Description**

137 Calleguas Creek watershed is subject to a mixture of land uses including agricultural  
138 (25%), urban land use (25%) and open space (50%) (Ventura County, 2014). Three  
139 subwatersheds of the CCW were monitored: Arroyo Simi, Conejo Creek, and Revolon Slough  
140 (**Figure 1**). Arroyo Simi and Conejo Creek were investigated with transects, each having three  
141 sampling sites, while Revolon Slough was investigated with a single site. Each of the sampled  
142 sites is listed as “impaired” by the State of California due to impacts from *E. coli* sources,  
143 meaning that a TMDL will be developed for these sites under federal requirements. For both  
144 investigated transects, the predominant land uses in the immediate vicinity of the three sampled  
145 sites, from upstream to downstream, ranged from open space (limited development) to urban  
146 (residential, commercial and industrial land uses) to agricultural (row crops and orchards).  
147 Tertiary-treated, chlorine-disinfected effluent (“effluent”) from municipal wastewater treatment  
148 plants (WWTPs) is discharged at three locations within CCW, upstream of the intermediate site  
149 of the Arroyo Simi transect, upstream of the most upstream site of the Conejo Creek transect,  
150 and upstream of the intermediate site of the Conejo Creek transect. During dry weather, a  
151 majority of the flow rate at locations downstream of the WWTP outfalls is effluent. The land use  
152 of Revolon Slough is predominantly irrigated agriculture, though discharges of urban runoff are  
153 also present. While there is potential for seepage from wastewater collection systems to flow  
154 through storm drains into receiving waters (Haile et al., 1999, Sercu et al., 2009), the wastewater  
155 and stormwater systems in CCW are separate and there were no reported sewage spills during  
156 sampling events.

## 157 **2.2 Sample Collection**

### 158 *2.2.1 Collection of Samples from Surface waters and Weather Definition*

159 Samples consisting of 100 liters of surface water were collected in five autoclaved,  
160 rinsed, 20-liter polypropylene carboys for pathogen analysis and microbial source tracking. A  
161 total of 73 grab samples were generally collected monthly from the seven surface water sites  
162 between June 2004 and May 2005 (Kundu et al., 2013). Samples were transported on ice and  
163 processed for ultrafiltration as stated below.

164 In southern California, wet weather is traditionally defined as days with greater than 0.1  
165 inches plus the three following days. For this study, all wet weather samples were collected  
166 during active storm events when it was raining and flows were elevated. Dry weather samples  
167 were collected after at least one week of non-rain days.

### 168 *2.2.2. Collection of Primary Influent and Disinfected Effluent Samples from Municipal* 169 *Wastewater Treatment Plants*

170  
171 Primary influent (minimally-treated sewage at the headworks) samples were collected in  
172 sterile 250-mL bottles, and transported on ice to the laboratory on the same day. Samples of  
173 disinfected effluent were collected in 2-liter bottles. A total of 14 samples were collected each of  
174 primary influent and disinfected effluent.

## 175 **2.3 Traditional Indicator and Chemical Methods**

176 *E. coli* concentrations [most probable number per 100mL, MPN per 100mL] were  
177 measured according to Standard Method 9223, which is based on chromogenic substrate  
178 (IDEXX Colilert). An additional water sample was collected at each site and analyzed for total  
179 suspended solids according to Standard Method 2540D [milligram per liter, mg/L].

180 The following parameters were measured at the time of water collection: water  
181 temperature, turbidity, conductivity, dissolved oxygen, and pH (Hach Quanta, Loveland, CO).  
182 When measurable but not hazardous (e.g. storm) flow conditions were present, flow rate  
183 measurements were performed with an electromagnetic flow meter.

#### 184 **2.4 Processing of Samples for Bacteroidales and Virus Analysis**

185 Details regarding sample processing methods can be found in the Supplemental  
186 Information. Viruses and bacteria in 100 liter water samples were concentrated by ultrafiltration  
187 using two sequential hollow fiber modules as described previously (Rajal et al., 2007a). Real-  
188 time QPCR for surrogate PP7, adenovirus and enterovirus was performed as described in Rajal et  
189 al. (2007b). Real-time QPCR for the fecal *Bacteroidales* assays (universal) BacUni, (human-  
190 associated) BacHum, (ruminant-associated) BacCow, and (dog-associated) BacCan was  
191 performed as described in Kildare et al. (2007).

192 Detection of target nucleic acids by real-time QPCR (which was based on TaqMan  
193 assays) was found to be strongly affected by the presence of inhibitors, and the multiple dilution  
194 approach was used to address inhibition in all wastewater and surface water samples, as  
195 described previously (Rajal et al., 2007a). For each sample, a unique sample limit of detection  
196 (SLOD) was calculated that accounts for varying inhibition, concentration factors, and filtration  
197 recovery (**Figure 2**).

198

#### 199 **2.5 Statistical Analysis**

200 Statistical analyses were performed using R software version 2.12.0 and the NADA  
201 library. Tests were selected based on the fact that our MST and pathogen datasets were highly  
202 censored (large number of non-detect samples). In general, non-parametric tests were used that

203 can handle varying detection limits (without substitution). For summary statistics, estimates were  
204 generated using Kaplan-Meier statistics (Kaplan and Meier, 1958), which are commonly used in  
205 survival analysis and readily-adaptable to environmental statistics to handle datasets with a large  
206 numbers of non-detects, as described by Helsel, 2005 and Helsel, 2012. To highlight the effect of  
207 test selection, summary statistics were also generated using regression-on-order statistics using a  
208 jackknife procedure based on SLOD for non-detect samples (Shumway et al., 2002) and  
209 maximum likelihood estimation (MLE). For comparison of water quality among sites, the  
210 Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon test was used to determine if any of the sites exhibited distributional  
211 differences. For all detected significant differences among groups at  $p < 0.05$ , the Kruskal-Wallis  
212 test was also reported  $p < 0.05$ . The pairwise p-values were corrected with a correction factor to  
213 determine the individual error rate. Both the Bonferroni (highly conservative) and Benjamin &  
214 Hocklenberg (B&H; less conservative) correction factors were applied (Helsel, 2012).  
215 Correlation analyses were based on tests of Kendall's tau.

216 A Monte Carlo model developed by Wang et al. (2010) was used to calculate "true"  
217 ratios of BacHum:BacUni, BacCow:BacUni, and BacDog:BacUni. These true ratios are referred  
218 to as Hum<sub>ratio</sub>, Cow<sub>ratio</sub>, and Dog<sub>ratio</sub>, respectively. The Monte Carlo model accounts for the fact  
219 that the markers are not 100% specific and sensitive. The model also accounts for the fact that  
220 the raw ratios are not equal to unity for feces and sewage (e.g., BacHum:BacUni is less than one  
221 in sewage because there are *Bacteroidales*-specific markers in human feces other than BacHum).  
222 Note the fecal samples used for model validation in Wang et al. (2010) were collected from the  
223 Calleguas Creek watershed and also used to validate the *Bacteroidales* assays by Kildare et al.  
224 (2007) that are applied herein. As such, application of the Monte Carlo model for this study is  
225 well-vetted.

## 226 3. Results

### 227 3.1 Municipal Wastewater

228 As described in the Supplemental Information, analysis of untreated and treated wastewater  
229 samples provided data regarding baseline levels and ratios of *Bacteroidales* in illicit discharges  
230 (untreated wastewater) and just downstream of WWTP outfalls (treated wastewater). The  
231 BacHum:BacUni ratio was found to be geographically-dependent but relatively stable within a  
232 region, and levels of *Bacteroidales* in tertiary-treated, disinfected effluent were found to be  
233 relatively high compared to ambient surface water.

234

### 235 3.2 Surface waters

#### 236 3.2.1 Prevailing Rates in Surface Waters

237  
238 The prevailing rate, or positive detection frequency, allows for a simple assessment of the  
239 predominance of investigated sources. The microbial indicators that were assayed with qPCR  
240 during this study varied widely in their prevailing rates (**Table 1**). The universal *Bacteroidales*  
241 marker (BacUni) was detected in all 74 surface water samples (detection frequency of 100%),  
242 while enterovirus and adenovirus were only detected in one and eight samples (1% and 11%),  
243 respectively. Of the host-associated *Bacteroidales* markers, the human-associated marker  
244 (BacHum) was detected most frequently (detection frequency of 90%) and the cow-associated  
245 marker (BacCow) least frequently (55%). BacCow was only detected in two of eight samples  
246 (20%) from Revolon Slough (4-B), which is dominated by agriculture (row crops, not livestock).

247           The climate of Calleguas Creek watershed is arid, with storms generally being limited to  
248 the winter and spring seasons. Annual rainfall is approximately 15 inches. The prevailing rates  
249 of all host-associated *Bacteroidales* markers were higher during wet weather, and one of eight  
250 (12.5% detection frequency) adenovirus detections occurred during wet weather. The mean  
251 estimated percent recovery of each *Bacteroidales* marker from wet weather CCW samples was  
252 not significantly different [ $p = 0.50$ ] from dry weather samples (data not shown). The wide  
253 range of detection frequencies for qPCR targets suggests that our corresponding estimates of  
254 sample-specific limits of detection (SLOD; **Figure 2** shows the SLODs for each marker) were  
255 important to ensure data analysis and interpretation reflects varying SLODs. The ubiquity (i.e.,  
256 high frequency of detection) of BacUni, BacHum, and BacCan suggests that qualitative  
257 (presence/absence) PCR would not provide much insight with regards to the impact of these  
258 bacteria sources on CCW.

259           The fact that a large portion of the collected samples were non-detect suggests that data  
260 handling of non-detects can effect report summary statistics. The potential effect of data handling  
261 is illustrated in the reported summary statistics for BacCow during dry weather, which was not  
262 detected in 39% of samples, for three different approaches: Kaplan-Meier, ROS, and MLE  
263 (**Table 2**). The estimated mean and median by the different tests differ by up to a factor of 4.1  
264 (median of Kaplan-Meier versus ROS). The effect of non-detects should also be considered  
265 when graphically presenting datasets; the cumulative distribution plots in Figure 3 present the  
266 potential range of non-detect samples.

267

### 268 *3.2.2 Spatial and hydrologic variations in abundance*

269

270 Variations over space (site-by-site) and hydrology (wet versus dry weather) were  
271 assessed to elucidate the characteristics of FIB sources that are impacting the CCW.  
272 Concentrations of BacUni, BacCow, BacCan, and *E. coli* were significantly higher during wet  
273 weather ( $p < 0.005$ ). For surface water data, rather than using the “raw” host-associated:universal  
274 marker ratios, a statistical model described by Wang et al. (2010) was used to generate “true”  
275 ratios, referred to as Hum<sub>ratio</sub>, Cow<sub>ratio</sub>, and Dog<sub>ratio</sub>, and Other<sub>ratio</sub>. These true ratios reflect  
276 conditional probabilities that incorporate the rate of false positives and negatives inherent in  
277 MST assays, and provide a more quantitative MST framework compared to the raw ratios.  
278 During wet weather (**Table 3**), Hum<sub>ratio</sub> was significantly lower [ $p = 0.02$ ] compared to dry  
279 weather while Cow<sub>ratio</sub> and Dog<sub>ratio</sub> were significantly higher [ $p < 0.018$ ] (**Figure 3** shows the  
280 distributions of measured concentrations during dry and wet weather while accounting for non-  
281 detects in the dataset).

282 Due to the significant differences in detection frequencies and abundance during wet  
283 versus dry weather, and lower number of samples available for the wet weather condition, spatial  
284 variations were only assessed for the dry weather condition (**Figure 4**). The only statistically  
285 significant spatial difference in MST marker abundance among sites was for BacHum and  
286 Hum<sub>ratio</sub> at the intermediate Conejo Creek site (9A-B), with at least one being significantly  
287 higher [ $p < 0.05$  with B&H correction] than all other sites except the upstream Conejo Creek site  
288 (10-B). None of the other marker-site or ratio-site combinations exhibited significant differences.  
289 Virus detections were too rare to reliably assess spatial differences; adenovirus was only detected  
290 more than once at the upstream and intermediate sites along the Conejo Creek transect (10-B and  
291 9A-B). Concentrations of adenovirus were significantly higher during wet weather [ $p < 0.001$ ].  
292 The only enterovirus detection was at the Revolon Slough site (4-B).



### 293 3.2.3 Relationships among measurements

294 Correlations among the measured parameters were evaluated using the 59 samples  
295 collected during dry weather. The 15 wet weather samples were not included because the  
296 concentrations of most of the *Bacteroidales* targets, *E. coli* and TSS were significantly higher  
297 during wet weather, possibly leading to dry and wet weather “clusters” that could induce less-  
298 meaningful correlations. Correlations were based on tests of Kendall’s  $\tau$ , which incorporates  
299 SLODs.

300 During dry weather, the *Bacteroidales* measurements were weakly correlated to one  
301 another [ $\tau > 0.275$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ], but not to *E. coli* or TSS. The strongest correlation among the  
302 *Bacteroidales* markers was for BacUni and BacHum [ $\tau = 0.596$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ]. The fact that  
303 *Bacteroidales* markers correlated with one another, but not with *E. coli*, is likely a reflection of  
304 the differences in both organism ecology (e.g., facultatively anaerobic versus anaerobic) and  
305 quantification methodology (e.g., viability- versus genome-based methods). In addition, this  
306 suggests that sites along our transects were subject to discharges from multiple source types  
307 simultaneously (e.g., inputs from both cow and human sources occurred). Adenovirus  
308 concentrations were not correlated to any other variable.

309

## 310 4. Discussion

311 This is the first study known to contemporaneously analyze on a watershed-scale  
312 *Bacteroidales* and human virus concentrations in flowing freshwater impacted by municipal  
313 wastewater. Overall, our study design was based on evaluating relative differences in universal  
314 and host-associated *Bacteroidales* and human virus concentrations over space and time (or  
315

316 weather condition), as elevated host-associated *Bacteroidales* concentrations were assumed to be  
317 due to fecal discharges from that host population (e.g., BacCow is due to impacts by cows in the  
318 watershed). Such an assumption is warranted based on the efforts taken to develop and validate  
319 the applied MST markers and ultrafiltration method (Kildare et al., 2007, Rajal et al., 2007a,  
320 Rajal et al., 2007b), but as discussed below, there are a number of confounding factors, such as  
321 decay rates and viability, that should be considered when designing, conducting, and analyzing  
322 the results of MST studies.

323       Significantly elevated concentrations and ratios of BacCow and BacCan during wet  
324 weather, along with significantly lower concentrations and true ratios of BacHum during wet  
325 weather (**Figure 3, Table 1 and Table 3**), indicate that non-human sources may be responsible  
326 for the significantly elevated BacUni, and perhaps *E. coli*, concentrations that occur during storm  
327 events in the CCW. The non-human sources responsible for elevated *Bacteroidales* loading  
328 during storm events in CCW are likely contributing to the corresponding exceedances of *E. coli*  
329 criteria and should be an important consideration for local stakeholders during TMDL  
330 implementation.

331       The fact that sites 9A-B and 10-B along Conejo Creek receive direct inputs of treated  
332 WWTP effluent increases the likelihood that non-viable (disinfected) cells may be responsible  
333 for the elevated concentrations of BacHum and the detections of adenovirus at these sites.  
334 Evidence of the influence of non-viable cells is provided by that fact that sites 9A-B and 10-B  
335 exhibited relatively high concentrations of BacHum (genome-based measurement) but relatively  
336 low concentrations of *E. coli* (viability-based measurement)(**Figure 4**).

337       Detection frequency of MST and pathogen marker can be quite low, as reflected by  
338 adenovirus, enterovirus and BacCow in this study. As shown with the simple comparison of

339 summary statistics produced by Kaplan-Meier, ROS and MLE methods, the handling of these  
340 non-detects can affect findings and conclusions regarding sources. In the field of MST, the  
341 handling of non-detects has generally been rudimentary, for example, often replacing non-detect  
342 values with one-half the LOD. This study demonstrates that statistical methods and graphical  
343 procedures from the field of survival analysis can be readily employed to handle the high rate of  
344 non-detects and sample-specific LODs (Helsel, 2005).

#### 345 **4.1 Applicability of host-associated-to-universal *Bacteroidales* ratios**

346  
347 *Bacteroidales* concentrations were analyzed both individually and with respect to the true  
348 ratios of the host-associated-to-universal marker (**Table 3**). However, additional research is  
349 needed before host-associated:universal *Bacteroidales* ratios can be used in a truly quantitative  
350 manner (e.g., cows versus dogs ) to assess the dominant source(s) to collected water samples  
351 (Wang et al., 2013).

352 To use host-associated:universal *Bacteroidales* ratios for fecal load allocations the  
353 following three relationships should be evaluated, discussed further below: (i) the environmental  
354 persistence of the host-associated marker when compared to the universal marker and other host-  
355 associated markers, (ii) the value of the host-associated to universal ratio and its variability (i.e.,  
356 stability) in fecal sources, and (iii) if the ratios are to be used for source apportionment of FIB  
357 and/or pathogens, then the relative abundance and environmental persistence of *Bacteroidales*  
358 versus FIB and/or pathogens. In addition, the specificity and sensitivity of the applied MST  
359 assays should be incorporated, which was the purpose of generating true ratios  $\text{Hum}_{\text{ratio}}$ ,  $\text{Cow}_{\text{ratio}}$ ,  
360 and  $\text{Dog}_{\text{ratio}}$  with the Monte Carlo model.

361 With regards to (i), the persistence of the universal and host-associated *Bacteroidales*  
362 markers used for this study is known to be comparable among the four markers studied here in  
363 both freshwater and seawater environments. The markers were previously evaluated using flow-  
364 through, open-air microcosms in seawater and freshwater under dark and sunlit (diurnal cycle)  
365 conditions (Bae and Wuertz, 2009b; Bae and Wuertz, 2012). It was concluded that decay rates  
366 among universal (BacUni) and host-associated *Bacteroidales* markers (BacHum, BacCow, and  
367 BacCan) were not significantly different, suggesting that differential persistence is not a limiting  
368 factor for quantifying relative source contribution.

369 Relationship (ii) was partially addressed in the present study for untreated sewage  
370 discharges; the BacHum:BacUni ratio appeared to be relatively stable in regional sewage (**Table**  
371 **S1**), suggesting that it can be used as a “signature” of human fecal impacts, but the ratio might  
372 vary geographically. For fecal discharges from individual humans, however, the  
373 BacHum:BacUni ratio was highly variable, possibly limiting its utility for areas subject to  
374 individual as opposed to mixed human fecal sources (e.g., areas with homeless persons).

375 Finally, relationship (iii) is especially critical for studies related to TMDLs – the linkage  
376 between *Bacteroidales* and FIB hinges on the relative abundance of *Bacteroidales* in fecal  
377 sources and the relative persistence. *Bacteroidales* may be relatively abundant in the fecal  
378 samples from a given host, while *E. coli* are relatively low. Based on the fecal samples analyzed  
379 during the watershed-specific validation of the qPCR markers applied herein, this is likely the  
380 case for seagulls (Kildare et al., 2007), which are more amendable to MST with *Catelliboccus*  
381 (Sinigalliano et al., 2013). With regards to relative environmental persistence, the most critical  
382 relationship for human risk assessment is relative decay rates of pathogens versus *Bacteroidales*.  
383 Walters et al. (2009) found that BacHum exhibited similar survival characteristics to infectious

384 enteroviruses in a sunlight-exposed, sewage-derived microcosm, with both being detected  
385 through 8 days of experiment. Bae and Wuertz (2012) found that *Bacteroidales* and  
386 *Campylobacter* cells exposed to sunlight exhibited similar survival rates, and host-associated  
387 *Bacteroidales* DNA and waterborne pathogen DNA were degraded at comparable rates.

388 Because of these remaining data gaps (and others), the *Bacteroidales* ratios calculated  
389 herein were only used in a “within-host” framework among sites and weather conditions, just as  
390 with the corresponding concentrations, instead of attempting to quantify the relative contribution  
391 of fecal discharges from the different host populations (e.g., BacCow:BacUni is not compared to  
392 BacHum:BacUni). Furthermore, it is acknowledged that the *Bacteroidales* ratios do not  
393 necessarily reflect the relative abundance of sources of FIB.

#### 394 **4.2 Influence of treated WWTP effluent on qPCR-based MST**

395 Our results demonstrate that the relatively high concentrations of *Bacteroidales* and  
396 human virus cells in WWTP effluent confound qPCR-based MST efforts. MST with qPCR does  
397 not distinguish between treated and untreated sources of human feces, which is disconcerting for  
398 stakeholders seeking to identify sources of bacteria in an attempt to reduce human health risks in  
399 recreational waters. Source trackers should either (a) segregate sites that do and do not receive  
400 treated WWTP effluent during statistical analyses of the relative values of BacUni, BacHum and  
401 BacHum:BacUni or (b) apply laboratory or field techniques that remove/attenuate non-viable  
402 cells from water samples prior to performing qPCR assays.

403 With regards to approach (a), MST study designs and data analysis should evaluate  
404 samples collected downstream of WWTP effluent discharges separately from samples collected  
405 either upstream of the WWTP discharge or from untreated discharges to the waterbody (e.g.,  
406 urban runoff). For instance, considering the sites within the CCW that do not receive treated

407 WWTP effluent, it should be disconcerting to watershed managers that site 4-B had higher levels  
408 of BacHum and Human<sub>ratio</sub> (and a higher virus detection rate) when compared to site 8-B.  
409 However, for most MST applications the concentrations measured at site 8-B should not be  
410 directly compared to site 10-B, which receives treated WWTP effluent.

411 For approach (b) above, the use of propidium monoazide (PMA) with qPCR (PMA-  
412 qPCR) has been found to show promise for distinguishing between viable and non-viable  
413 *Bacteroidales* cells in sewage and treated WWTP effluent (Bae and Wuertz, 2009a). That PMA-  
414 qPCR approach was optimized using the four assays applied during this study, and  
415 concentrations of BacUni, BacHum, BacCow, and BacCan measured by PMA-qPCR decayed  
416 much more rapidly in freshwater and seawater when compared to concentrations reported by  
417 qPCR (Bae and Wuertz, 2009b; Bae and Wuertz, 2012). Future MST and pathogen studies of  
418 watersheds influenced by WWTP effluent should consider the application of PMA-qPCR. The  
419 CCW study was performed prior to optimization of the PMA-qPCR approach, and thus future  
420 applications of this dataset for source assessment should rely on approach (a) describe above  
421 (data segregation).

#### 422 **4.3 Occurrence of human viruses in surface waters**

423  
424 In CCW, prevailing rates of adenovirus and enterovirus are much lower (11% and 1%,  
425 respectively) when compared to those for *Bacteroidales* (**Table 1**). The much higher detection  
426 rate of *Bacteroidales* when compared to human virus may be expected, as *Bacteroidales* are  
427 abundant in the feces of a majority of hosts (Menaja et al., 1996), while viruses are only shed by  
428 hosts that are infected. The presumed low abundance of human virus was the motivation for  
429 collecting 100-liter samples during this study; *Bacteroidales* could be readily detected using

430 much smaller samples volumes (Dick and Field, 2004). As in this study of the CCW, other viral  
431 studies in southern California have detected adenovirus more frequently than enterovirus (Jiang  
432 and Chu, 2004; Choi and Jiang, 2005). However, these studies detected human virus more  
433 frequently during the winter months, while six of nine (67%) detections in CCW were during the  
434 summer months. Like previous viral studies that demonstrated the lack of relationship among  
435 virus occurrence and compliance with microbial water quality criteria (Gerba et al., 1979; Jiang  
436 et al., 2001; Noble and Fuhrman, 2001; Griffin et al., 2003), eight of nine (89%) human virus  
437 detections in CCW occurred when *E. coli* concentrations were below the single sample criteria of  
438 235 MPN/100mL.

439 As with human *Bacteroidales*, the presence of treated WWTP effluent may confound  
440 attempts to identify high-risk human virus sources. Other studies have shown human virus  
441 genomes to be readily detected in treated WWTP effluent, while corresponding viable virus titers  
442 were typically quite low (Boehm et al., 2005). In the present study, seven of nine (78%) human  
443 virus detections occurred in waters dominated by treated WWTP effluent discharges but the  
444 viability/infectivity of these viruses are unknown. A recent QMRA study based on the adenovirus  
445 concentrations in the CCW reported here, which assumed various proportions of detected viruses  
446 were infectious, estimated that human health risks associated with primary and secondary water  
447 contact were lower than acceptable thresholds by USEPA (Kundu et al., 2013).

448

## 449 **5. Conclusions**

450 This study combined (i) large-volume hollow fiber ultrafiltration of surface water samples  
451 using a multiple replicate dilution approach and incorporating estimates of SLODs based on  
452

453 spiked surrogates, (ii) quantification of multiple serotypes of adenovirus and enterovirus, (iii)  
454 application of four validated probe-based *Bacteroidales* assays, and (iv) data analysis with a  
455 Monte Carlo model and statistical routines that account for non-detects and sample-specific  
456 LODs.

457 The results demonstrate that MST based on *Bacteroidales* assays can inform watershed  
458 managers seeking to develop strategies to comply with REC criteria, but it is critical to handle  
459 non-detects with appropriate statistical methods and to acknowledge the underlying assumptions  
460 of qPCR-based MST. While MST shows promise for providing quantitative source  
461 apportionment, there are still data gaps including relative decay rates of FIB, *Bacteroidales* and  
462 pathogens in effluent-impacted surface waters and lack of qPCR assays for viruses that reflect  
463 viable/infective concentrations (e.g., using PMA). Eventually, MST markers may support not  
464 only source apportionment but also risk assessment, given additional epidemiological data and/or  
465 empirical descriptions of pathogen-*Bacteroidales* relationships.

466

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472

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### Figure legends

703 Fig. 1 – Map of the Calleguas Creek Watershed and monitoring locations (yellow circles).  
704 Waterbodies are shown with yellow lines, and the three subwatersheds analyzed along transects  
705 during this study are highlighted (pink border, Conejo Creek; blue border, Arroyo Simi; green  
706 border, Revolon Slough). The State of California designates 10 distinct reaches in the  
707 watershed, which are shown with black bars. Revolon Slough and Conejo Creek do not mix prior  
708 to discharge to the estuary. Treated WTP effluent discharges occur upstream of sites 10-B, 9A-B  
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710 ditches.

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713 qPCR markers (blue triangle up, BacUni; black square, BacHum; green diamond, BacCow,  
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717 Fig. 3 – Cumulative distribution plots of *Bacteroidales*, adenovirus, and *E. coli* concentrations  
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720 percentiles for the sample (samples with low SLODs have a smaller range than samples with  
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724 Fig. 4 – Geometric mean *Bacteroidales* and *E. coli* concentrations (bottom plot) and host-  
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727 calculated for each sample as the host-associated *Bacteroidales* marker concentration (open  
728 circle, BacHum; filled triangle, BacCow; open triangle, BacCan) divided by the BacUni  
729 concentration (filled circle, BacUni). *E. coli* concentrations are shown in the bottom plot (filled  
730 square). Error bars are not shown to allow for plotting within a single figure.

731

732 Table 1 – Summary of Kaplan-Meier statistics for *Bacteroidales* and adenovirus concentrations measured in the CCW, grouped by

733 hydrologic condition (dry versus wet weather).

734

Statistic	BacUni		BacHum		BacCow		BacCan		Adenovirus <sup>1</sup>											
	(cell eq/mL)		(cell eq/mL)		(cell eq/mL)		(cell eq/mL)		(genomes/mL)											
	Wet	Dry	Wet	Dry	Wet	Dry	Wet	Dry	Wet	Dry										
<b>N<sup>2</sup></b>	15	59			14	59			15	59			15	58						
<b>N detected</b>	15	59			13	53			13	36			15	47			1	8		
<b>% detected</b>	100	100			92.9	89.8			86.7	61.0			100	79.7			6.7%	13.8%		
<b>Median</b>			2747	1111			95	43			2.5	0.3			36	1.0			NA <sup>3</sup>	NA
<b>Mean</b>			12019	3673			300	500			57	1.6			47	1.7			NA	NA
<b>Std. Dev.</b>			19092	11353			680	2211			151	3.5			55	2.7			NA	NA
<b>10<sup>th</sup> %ile</b>			384	67			46	0.0001			0.7	0.02			5	0.030			NA	NA
<b>25<sup>th</sup> %ile</b>			1649	320			66	7.0			1.5	0.03			17	0.120			NA	NA
<b>50<sup>th</sup> %ile</b>			2747	1111			95	43			2.5	0.33			36	1.0			NA	NA
<b>75<sup>th</sup> %ile</b>			14284	3089			147	162			44	1.6			59	3.0			NA	NA

<b>90<sup>th</sup> %ile</b>	40096	6439	341	957	64	4.6	67	4.0	1432	613
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735

736 <sup>1</sup> Enterovirus was detected in 1 of 58 (1.7%) dry weather samples and zero wet weather samples.737 <sup>2</sup> Number of samples738 <sup>3</sup> Not applicable because of insufficient number of detects to reliably estimate summary statistic

739

740

741

742

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743 Table 2 – Comparison of Kaplan-Meier, ROS, and MLE summary statistics for concentrations of  
 744 BacCow measured in the CCW during dry weather.

745

Statistic	Statistical method		
	Kaplan-Meier	Regression on Order Statistics	Maximum Likelihood Estimator
	(cell eq/mL)	(cell eq/mL)	(cell eq/mL)
<b>N<sup>1</sup></b>	59	59	59
<b>N detected</b>	36	36	36
<b>% detected</b>	61.0	61.0	61.0
<b>Median</b>	0.33	0.08	0.23
<b>Mean</b>	1.6	1.5	3.5
<b>Std. Dev.</b>	3.5	3.5	53
<b>10<sup>th</sup> %tile</b>	0.02	0.02	0.01
<b>25<sup>th</sup> %tile</b>	0.03	0.04	0.05
<b>50<sup>th</sup> %tile</b>	0.33	0.08	0.2
<b>75<sup>th</sup> %tile</b>	1.6	1.6	1.1
<b>90<sup>th</sup> %tile</b>	4.6	3.9	4.5

746  
 747 <sup>1</sup> Number of samples  
 748

749

750 Table 3 – Summary of Kaplan-Meier statistics for host-associated to universal *Bacteroidales*  
 751 ratios measured in the CCW, grouped by hydrologic condition (dry versus wet weather).

752

Statistic	Hum <sub>ratio</sub>		Cow <sub>ratio</sub>		Can <sub>ratio</sub>	
	Wet	Dry	Wet	Dry	Wet	Dry
<b>N<sup>1</sup></b>	14	59	15	59	15	59
<b>N detected</b>	13	53	13	36	15	47
<b>% detected</b>	92.9	89.8	86.7	61.0	100	79.7
<b>Median</b>	0.02	0.05	0.01	0.002	0.07	0.01
<b>Mean</b>	0.03	0.08	0.04	0.02	0.19	0.03
<b>Std. Dev.</b>	0.03	0.07	0.07	0.04	0.25	0.08
<b>10<sup>th</sup> %tile</b>	0.0001	0.002	0.0001	0.0001	0.017	0.001
<b>25<sup>th</sup> %tile</b>	0.001	0.01	0.005	0.0001	0.04	0.003
<b>50<sup>th</sup> %tile</b>	0.018	0.05	0.015	0.002	0.07	0.01
<b>75<sup>th</sup> %tile</b>	0.04	0.13	0.04	0.01	0.30	0.02
<b>90<sup>th</sup> %tile</b>	0.08	0.20	0.15	0.07	0.61	0.05

753

754 <sup>1</sup> Number of samples

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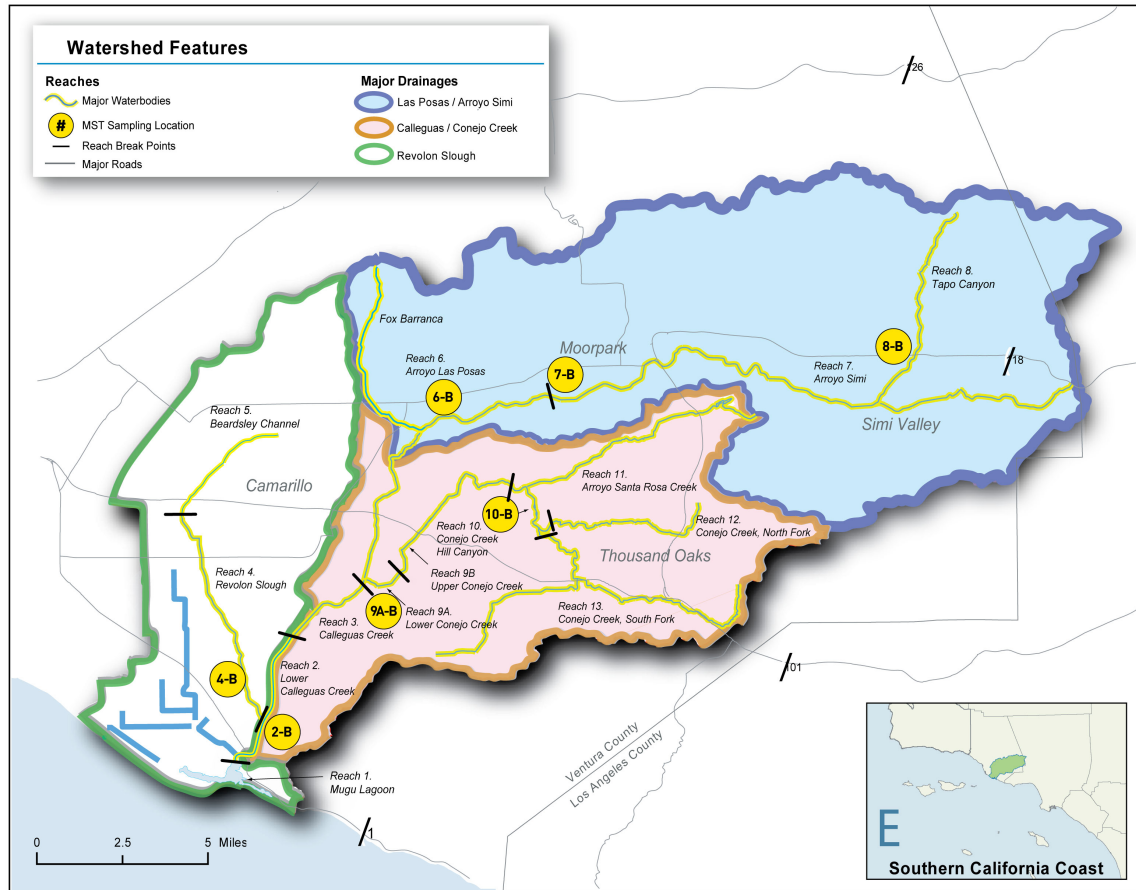


Fig. 1 – Map of the Calleguas Creek Watershed and monitoring locations (yellow circles). Waterbodies are shown with yellow lines, and the three subwatersheds analyzed along transects during this study are highlighted (pink border, Conejo Creek; blue border, Arroyo Simi; green border, Revolon Slough). The State of California designates 10 distinct reaches in the watershed, which are shown with black bars. Revolon Slough and Conejo Creek do not mix prior to discharge to the estuary. Treated WTP effluent discharges occur upstream of sites 10-B, 9A-B and 7-B. The blue lines in southwestern portion of watershed show major agricultural drainage ditches.

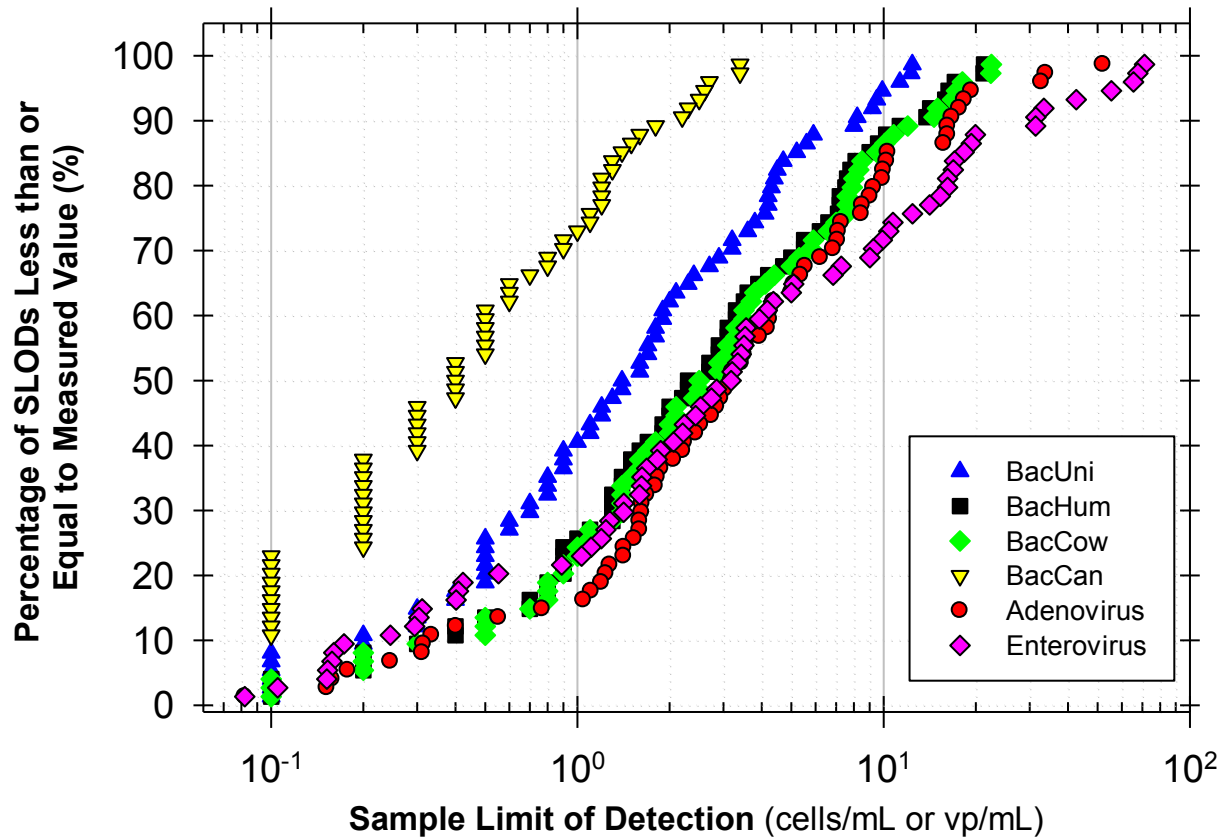


Fig. 2 – Distribution of sample limits of detection for samples collected from CCW, specific to qPCR markers (blue triangle up, BacUni; black square, BacHum; green diamond, BacCow, yellow triangle down, BacCan; red circle, adenovirus; pink diamond, enterovirus). All samples analyzed by qPCR were 100 liters. The 50% value of the y-axis axis represents the study median.



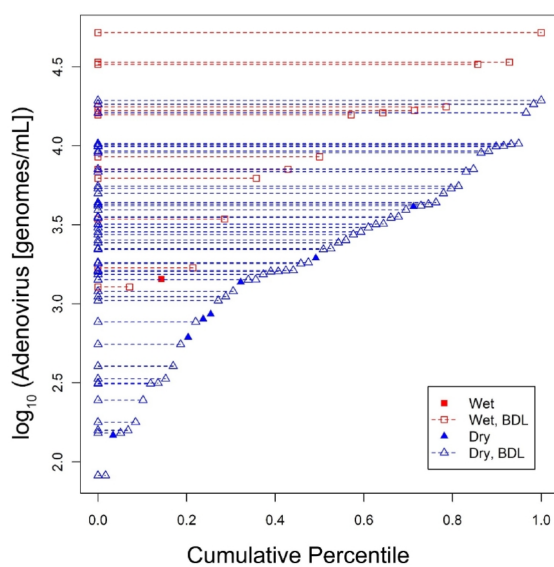
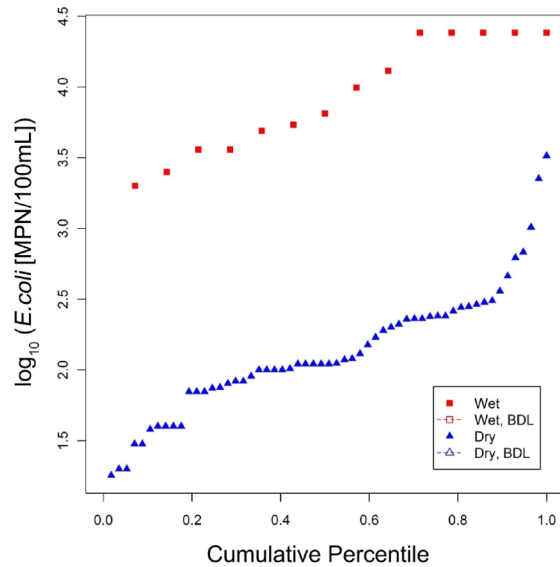
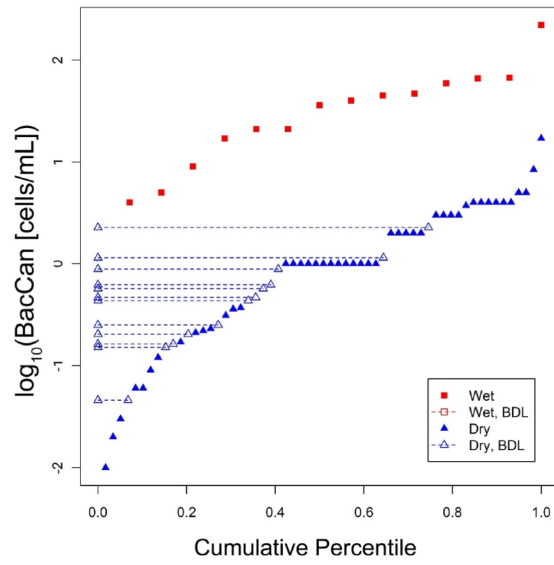
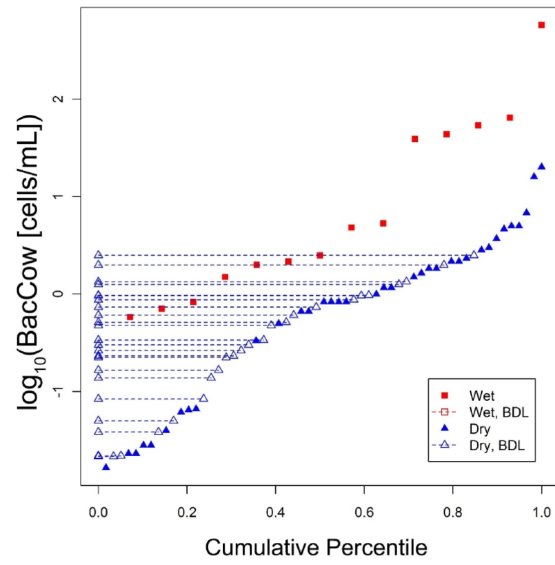
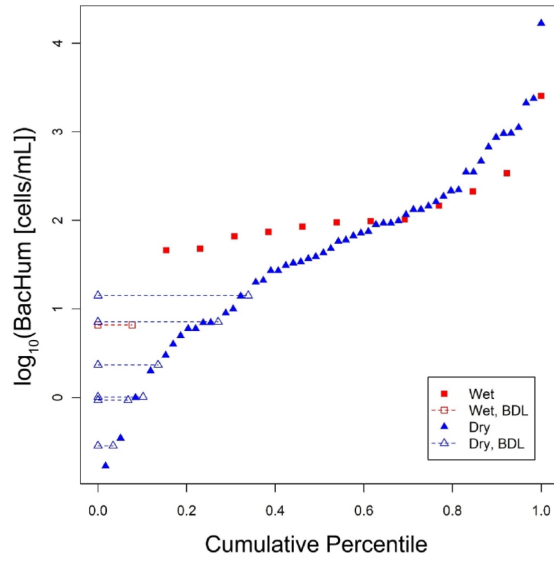
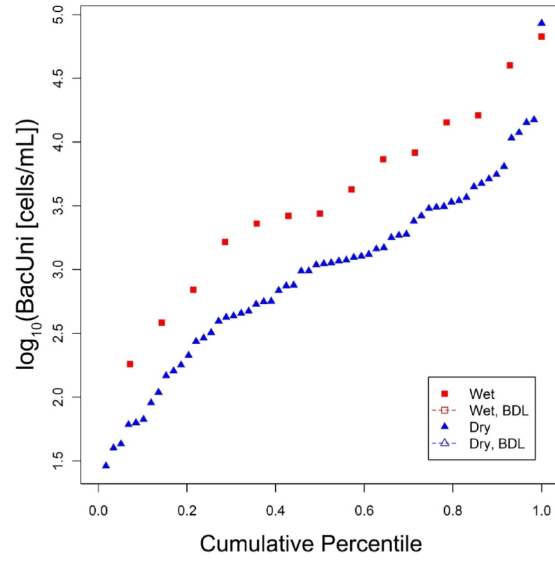


Fig. 3 – Cumulative distribution plots of *Bacteroidales*, adenovirus, and *E. coli* concentrations measured during dry weather (blue triangles) and wet weather (red squares). Non-detect (BDL) samples are plotted at the SLOD without fill and the dotted lines show the potential range of percentiles for the sample (samples with low SLODs have a smaller range than samples with high SLODs). The dotted lines in these figures transparently show the potential effect of non-detect samples on estimated percentiles (and summary statistics). The 50<sup>th</sup> percentile value of the x-axis represents the study median.

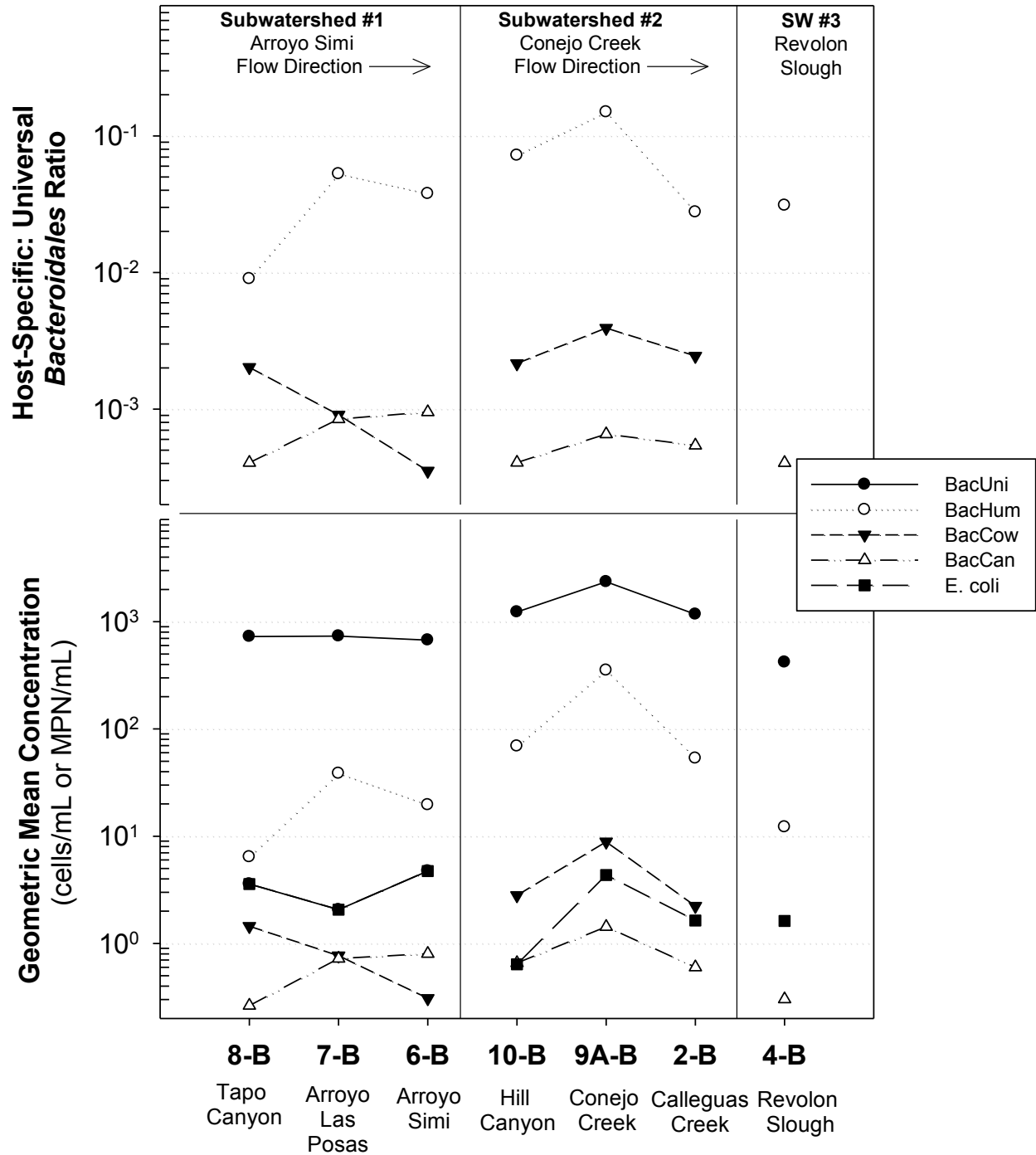


Fig. 4 – Geometric mean *Bacteroidales* and *E. coli* concentrations (bottom plot) and host-associated to universal *Bacteroidales* ratios (top plot) measured during dry weather along three transects in CCW (Arroyo Simi, left; Conejo Creek, center; Revolon Slough, right). Ratios were calculated for each sample as the host-associated *Bacteroidales* marker concentration (open circle, BacHum; filled triangle, BacCow; open triangle, BacCan) divided by the BacUni concentration (filled circle, BacUni). *E. coli* concentrations are shown in the bottom plot (filled square). Error bars are not shown to allow for plotting within a single figure.

### Highlights

- Municipal wastewater effluent was confounding factor for microbial source tracking.
- Showed effect of treatment of non-detects on data analysis in monitoring studies.
- Used Monte Carlo simulations to correct *Bacteroidales* concentrations.

1 **SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION**

2 Spatial and Hydrologic Variation of *Bacteroidales*, Adenovirus and  
3 Enterovirus in a Semi-arid, Wastewater Effluent-Impacted Watershed

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24

25

## 26 OVERVIEW

27 The following supplemental information is presented below:

- 28 • Section 1: Detailed methods for sample processing
- 29 • Section 2: Results and brief discussion regarding analysis of wastewater samples for  
30 *Bacteroidales*

## 31 1. Methods for Processing and Analyzing Samples for Bacteroidales and Virus 32 Analysis

### 33 1.1 Concentration of Surface Water and Wastewater Samples

34 Viruses and bacteria in surface water samples were concentrated by ultrafiltration using  
35 two sequential hollow fiber modules as described previously (Rajal et al., 2007a). Briefly, 100  
36 liters of each water sample was sieved and spiked with a known amount of the surrogates PP7  
37 (ATCC 15692-B2), a bacteriophage of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (Bolback and Helsenbeck,  
38 2001), and *Acinetobacter baylyi* ADPI (Vaneechoutte et al., 2006). The water (feed, FLS) was  
39 pumped through the first ultrafiltration unit with a 50,000 MW membrane cut-off (Microza AHP  
40 2013, Pall Life Sciences, East Hills, NY), until the volume was reduced to 1.5 L. Two elution  
41 steps with 0.05M glycine/NaOH and 0.1% Tween 80 were performed to increase the  
42 recovery of microorganisms. The supernatant obtained after centrifuging the retentate from the  
43 large filtration module was used as the feed for a second smaller filtration unit (Microza AHP  
44 1013, also 50,000MW cut-off). The final concentrated water sample (RF), 50–100 mL, consisted  
45 of the mixture of the eluate from the small unit plus the final retentate. The recovery efficiency  
46 of viruses and bacteria in the filtration system was determined based on real-time qPCR of  
47 spiked surrogates as described below.



48 For samples of primary influent and disinfected effluent, once in the laboratory, samples  
49 were centrifuged at  $4,000 \times g$  for 10 min at  $4^{\circ}\text{C}$  to pelletize the bacterial matter in the sample.  
50 The pellet was removed from the bottle with a sterile utensil, and bacterial DNA was extracted  
51 immediately.

## 52 **1.2 Nucleic Acid Extraction and PCR Assays**

### 53 *1.2.1 Nucleic Acid Extraction from Water and Effluent Samples*

54 In order to analyze a large representative fraction of the original sample, 10 mL of the  
55 feed or final retentate of the second filtration step were each added to a 200 mL conical plastic  
56 centrifuge bottle containing 40 mL of lysis buffer (Boom et al., 1990), and the solution was pulse  
57 vortexed 15 times. After a 10-minute incubation period at room temperature, the samples were  
58 either stored at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$ , or extracted immediately. For extraction, 40 mL of absolute ethanol was  
59 added, and again pulse vortexed 15 times. The resultant lysate was centrifuged for 10 min at  
60  $5,000 \times g$  to pellet solids. The entire supernatant was added to a QIAamp Maxi Spin column  
61 (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) and processed according to the manufacturer's instructions. Nucleic acid  
62 was eluted twice with 600  $\mu\text{L}$  of DEPC treated water at  $4,000 \times g$  for 5 min. The volume of the  
63 final eluent was noted for later calculations.

### 64 *1.2.2 Nucleic Acid Extraction from Primary Influent Samples*

65 Fecal DNAs, and DNA from the resultant pellet of the centrifugation of the primary  
66 influent samples were extracted using the QIAamp DNA Stool kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA)  
67 according to the manufacturer's directions. Final eluted volumes were approximately 200  $\mu\text{L}$ .

### 68 1.2.3 Real-Time PCR for Viruses and Bacteroidales

69 Real-time QPCR for surrogate PP7, adenovirus and enterovirus was performed as  
70 described in Rajal et al. (2007b). Real-time QPCR for the fecal *Bacteroidales* assays (universal)  
71 BacUni, (human-associated) BacHum, (ruminant-associated) BacCow, and (dog-associated)  
72 BacCan was performed as described in Kildare et al. (2007). For all genomic DNA (gDNA)  
73 involving TaqMan probe-based assays (*Bacteroidales* assays and adenovirus), standard  
74 amplification conditions were used: 2 min at 50°C and 10 min at 95°C, followed by 40 cycles of  
75 15 seconds at 95°C and 1 min at 60°C. For all RNA-based QPCR reactions, the amplification  
76 conditions were: 30 min at 48°C and 10 min at 95°C, followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 s and  
77 60°C for 1 min.

78

### 79 1.2.4 Surrogate Assay for Bacteria using *Acinetobacter* qPCR assays

80 Each 25- $\mu$ L PCR reaction contained 12.5  $\mu$ L of commercially available QPCR mastermix  
81 (Eurogentec) with 400 nM each of forward and reverse primers and 80 nM probe for the  
82 respective QPCR system (Schriewer et al., 2010). For all QPCR reactions, 10  $\mu$ L of the diluted  
83 gDNA sample was assayed in a final reaction volume of 25  $\mu$ L. Four serial dilutions were  
84 performed to assess inhibition factors (see below). Cycling conditions were 2 min at 50°C, 10  
85 min at 95°C, 40 cycles of 15 s at 95°C and 60 s at 60°C, using an ABI Prism 7000 (Applied  
86 Biosystems).

87

### 88 1.3 Calculation of Sample Limits of Detection

89 Detection of target nucleic acids by real-time QPCR (based on TaqMan assays) was  
90 found to be strongly affected by the presence of inhibitors, and the multiple dilution approach

91 was used to address inhibition in all wastewater and surface water samples, as described  
92 previously (Rajal *et al.*, 2007a). Concentrations and sample limits of detection (SLOD) were  
93 analyzed according to Rajal *et al.* (2007a). Each sample has multiple limits of detection, one for  
94 each tested marker. Each water sample has a unique set of SLODs due to varying inhibition,  
95 concentration factors, and filtration recovery (**Figure 2**). The SLOD (gene copies/milliliter [gc  
96 /mL]) values are calculated as follows:

97

$$98 \quad SLOD = \left( \frac{1000 \cdot ALOD \cdot I}{R \cdot C_{extr} \cdot C_{filtr} \cdot V_T} \right), \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

99

100 where ALOD (gc/ $\mu$ L) is the assay limit of detection for the applied assay and specific conditions,  
101  $I$  is the dilution factor required to relieve QPCR inhibition [unitless],  $V_T$  is the volume of nucleic  
102 acid template added to QPCR reaction [ $\mu$ L], and  $C$  [unitless] indicates concentration factors for  
103 filtration ( $C_{filtr}$ ) or nucleic acid extraction ( $C_{extr}$ ). The overall recovery proportion for bacteria and  
104 viruses,  $R$ , is assessed by measurement of known spike doses of either a bacterial surrogate,  
105 *Acinetobacter baylyi* strain ADP1 (Vanechoutte *et al.*, 2006), previously referenced as  
106 *Acinetobacter sp.* strain ADP1 (Juni and Janik, 1969) or the bacteriophage PP7.

107 The assay limits of detection (ALOD) for adenovirus and enterovirus are presented in  
108 Rajal *et al.* (2007b) and the ALOD for each *Bacteroidales* assay is presented in Kildare *et al.*  
109 (2007).

110

#### 111 **1.4 Calculation of Virus and Bacterial Concentrations in Water Samples**

112 When the real-time qPCR assays produced a positive reading for the target being assayed,  
113 the concentration of target organisms (*Concentration* [gc/mL]) in the original water sample was  
114 calculated according to the following equation:

115

$$116 \quad \textit{Concentration} = \left( \frac{T \cdot I}{R \cdot C_{extr} \cdot C_{filtr} \cdot V_T} \right), \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

117

118 where *T* is the viral particles or bacterial cells measured in the real-time QPCR reaction [gene  
119 copies per reaction for virus assays, or corresponding cells per reaction for bacterial assays] and  
120 other variables are as defined for the previous equation.

121 Since the concentration provided by the standard curve is in units of gene copy numbers  
122 measured per volume of reaction, an assumption was made in order to convert the copy numbers  
123 found (based on real-time QPCR analysis of a sample) into an estimated concentration of  
124 *Bacteroidales* cells for the sample. The assumption, which has been used previously by others  
125 (Bernhard and Field, 2000; Seurinck et al., 2005), is that there are an average of five 16S rRNA  
126 operons per *Bacteroidales* cell (rRNA Operon Copy Number Collection  
127 <http://rrndb.cme.msu.edu/rrndb>).

128

## 129 **2. Results and Brief Discussion regarding analysis of Bacteroidales in Municipal** 130 **Wastewater**

### 131 *3.1 Untreated Wastewater*

132 Samples of untreated influent to ten municipal wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) in  
133 northern and southern California were tested for universal (BacUni) and human (BacHum)  
134 *Bacteroidales* (**Table 1**). Three of these WWTPs were sampled twice, while the others were  
135 sampled once. All samples were taken during the months of September and October. Both  
136 BacUni and BacHum were detected in 100% of the untreated wastewater samples, with  
137 concentrations ranging from 8.1 to 102 x 10<sup>4</sup> cells/ml and from 0.7 to 17 x 10<sup>4</sup> cells/ml,  
138 respectively. While variable, these concentrations serve as “expected values” of *Bacteroidales* in  
139 illicit discharges. The calculated ratios of BacHum:BacUni may serve as the basis for a  
140 quantitative framework to assess host-associated impacts on surface waters (e.g., the contribution  
141 of human versus cow fecal inputs; Wang et al., 2010). Ratios of BacHum:BacUni were less  
142 variable than the corresponding BacHum concentrations (coefficient of variation [CV] of 0.72 for  
143 BacHum:BacUni compared to a CV of 0.88 for BacHum). When compared to analyses of 18  
144 individual human fecal samples (data not shown, CV >2.0), it appears that the BacHum:BacUni  
145 ratio in untreated wastewater (a “mixed” human fecal source) is much less variable. It is also  
146 noted that analyses of eight cow and eight dog fecal samples from individual hosts yielded  
147 highly variable ratios of BacCow:BacUni and Can:BacUni, respectively (data not shown).

148 The BacHum:BacUni ratio in untreated wastewater samples was significantly different  
149 ( $p < 0.01$ ) and also less variable when grouped by watershed – the lower Sacramento River  
150 watershed ( $n = 8$ ) and CCW ( $n = 4$ ) (**Table S1**). The mean and CV of BacHum:BacUni ratio in  
151 the lower Sacramento River Watershed were 0.07 and 0.30, respectively, compared to 0.25 and

152 0.14 for CCW. Note that the BacUni and BacHum concentrations (as opposed to ratios) in these  
153 watersheds were not significantly different. Although a limited number of samples were  
154 analyzed, these results suggest that while it may be possible to use the BacHum:BacUni ratio as  
155 a “signature” of human-waste impacted waters, the ratio may be geographically-dependent.

156

### 157 3.2 Tertiary-treated, disinfected wastewater

158  
159 Following the testing of surface waters (discussed in the next section), two samples each  
160 of tertiary-treated, disinfected effluent (“treated effluent”) from three WWTPs in the CCW were  
161 tested for BacUni and BacHum (**Table S2**). The main goal of treated effluent testing was to  
162 establish an expected “baseline” of *Bacteroidales* in CCW surface water just downstream of  
163 WWTP outfalls. Both BacUni and BacHum were detected in 100% of the effluent samples, with  
164 measured concentrations, in units of  $10^4$  cells per mL, ranging from 0.0022 to 2.5 and 0.0016 to  
165 1.7 cells/ml, respectively. Note that some samples of treated effluent exhibited concentrations  
166 similar to those in untreated sewage. One of the three WWTPs – WWTP #2 – exhibited  
167 concentrations of BacUni and BacHum that were over two orders of magnitude lower, but the  
168 corresponding BacHum:BacUni ratios were the highest. There were no obvious differences in  
169 the treatment processes at WWTP #2 that might have lead to significantly lower *Bacteroidales*  
170 concentrations.

171

172 Table S1 – Universal and human-specific *Bacteroidales* concentrations and ratios in municipal  
 173 WTP influent (sewage) measured across California, grouped by geography. Note that  
 174 concentration units are  $10^4$  cell equivalents/ml (cell eq/ml).

175

<b>Watershed Name</b>	<b>WWTP Location</b>	<b>BacUni</b> ( $10^4$ cell eq/ml)	<b>BacHum</b> ( $10^4$ cell eq/ml)	<b>BacHum:</b> <b>BacUni</b>
<b><i>Lower Sacramento</i></b>				
(Northern California)	Woodland, CA	8.1	0.7	0.08
	Lincoln, CA	70.4	3.5	0.05
	Woodland, CA	62.6	3.8	0.06
	Davis, CA	15.2	1.4	0.09
	Vacaville, CA	36.3	1.8	0.05
	Lincoln, CA	58.1	2.3	0.04
	Davis, CA	53.8	2.7	0.05
<b><i>Lower American</i></b>				
(Northern California)	Roseville, CA	102.4	17.4	0.17
<b><i>Calleguas Creek</i></b>				
(Southern California)	Moorpark, CA	43.5	7.9	0.23
	Simi Valley, CA	29.3	7.6	0.26
	Hill Canyon, CA	24.4	7.1	0.29
	Camarillo, CA	19.9	4.2	0.21
<b><i>Oxnard</i></b>				
(Southern California)	Oxnard, CA	46.6	2.3	0.05

176  
 177  
 178  
 179

180 Table S2 – Universal and human-associated *Bacteroidales* concentrations and ratios in tertiary-  
181 treated, disinfected effluent collected from three WWTPs in CCW. Note that concentration units  
182 are  $10^4$  cell equivalents/ml (cell eq/ml).

183

<b>WWTP</b>	<b>Sample Timing</b>	<b>BacUni (<math>10^4</math> cell eq/ml)</b>	<b>BacHum (<math>10^4</math> cell eq/ml)</b>	<b>BacHum: BacUni</b>
#1	Morning	1.4	0.42	0.29
#1	Afternoon	2.3	0.38	0.17
#2	Morning	0.0018	0.0016	0.89
#2	Afternoon	0.0022	0.0016	0.73
#3	Morning	2.5	0.59	0.23
#3	Afternoon	2.4	1.67	0.69

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185