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Significance of Beach Geomorphology on Fecal Indicator Bacteria Levels

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Submitted for Consideration for Publication in: Marine Pollution Bulletin

Version Dated: November 29, 2016

Revised Version Dated: April 28, 2017

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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 ± 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 m² (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% (σ
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% (σ

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

515 **Acknowledgements**

516 The early portion of this work was funded in part by the NSF–NIEHS Oceans and Human
517 Health Program (NIEHS #P50 ES12736 and NSF #OCE0432368/0911373/1127813). We thank
518 David Polk of the Florida Department of Health for the provision of the Florida beach
519 enterococci data. We also thank the following individuals who assisted in organizing the data,
520 Noha Abdel-Mottaleb, Laura Vogel, and Rachel Wood.

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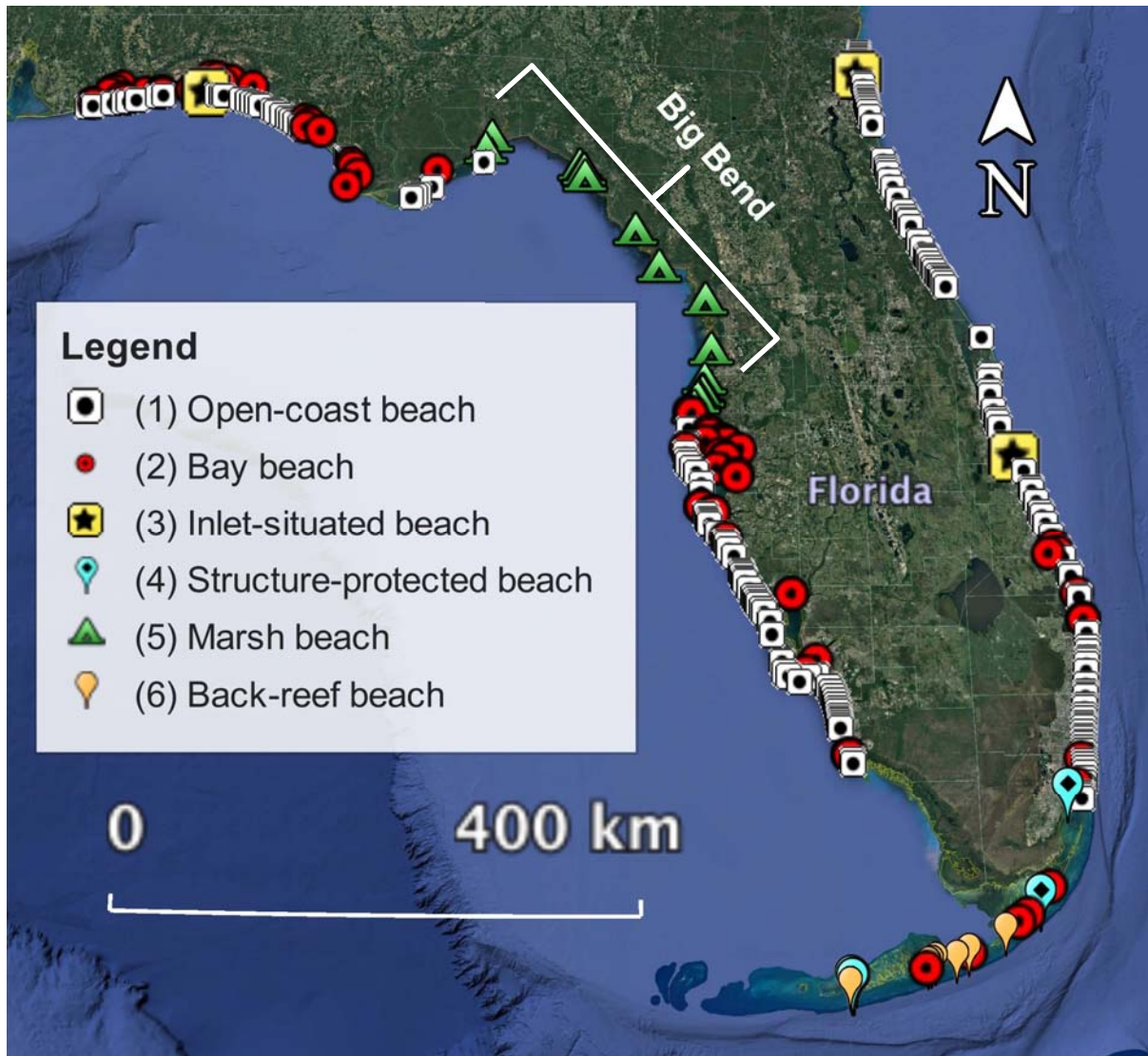
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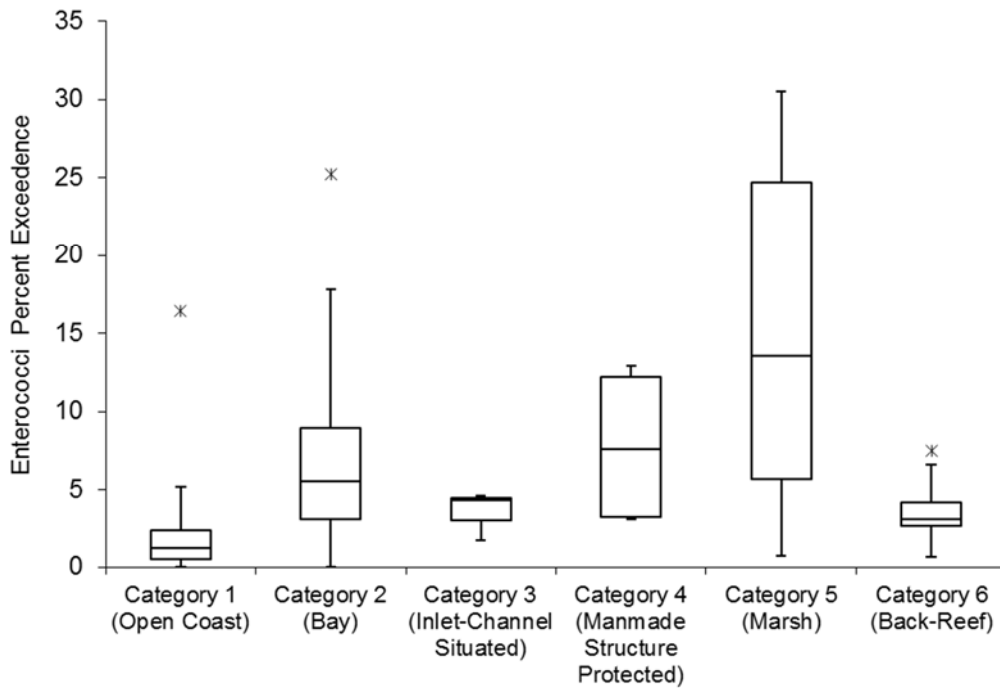
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693 Fig 1. The geographic distribution and categorization of 316 recreational beaches in the study.

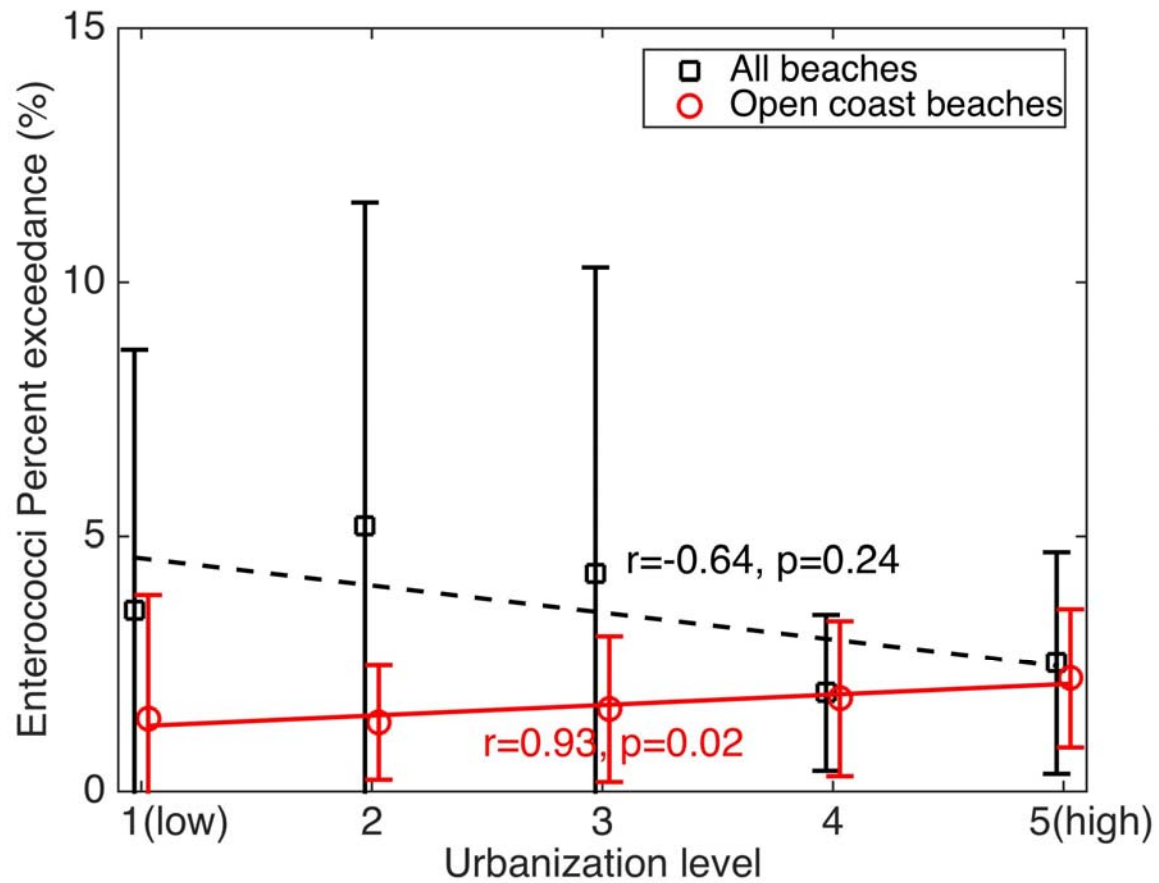
694 The Big Bend area includes Pasco, Dixie, Taylor, Levy, Hernando, Citrus, and Wakulla counties.



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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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