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# Microbiological water quality at non-human impacted reference beaches in southern California during wet weather

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## ABSTRACT

Although wet weather discharges from urban watersheds may have elevated concentrations of fecal indicator bacteria that impact water quality at swimming beaches, not all of these bacteria may arise from human sources. In this study, the contribution of fecal indicator bacteria was quantified at coastal reference beaches in southern California having minimal human impact. Operationally, reference beaches were defined as open beaches with breaking waves that receive runoff from undeveloped (>93% open space) watersheds and were selected to represent geographical conditions and watershed sizes. Six reference beaches were sampled during nine storm events during the 2004 - 2005 and 2005 - 2006 wet seasons. Samples were analyzed for total coliform, *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*), and enterococci in the discharge from the undeveloped watershed and in the wave wash where the discharge and surf zone initially mix. Samples collected during wet weather exceeded water quality thresholds established by the State of California greater than 10 times more frequently during wet weather than during recent dry weather in summer or winter, although the frequency differed by beach. These exceedences were greatest <24 hours following recorded rainfall, then steadily declined for the following three days. Early season storms exceeded water quality thresholds more than twice as frequently as late season storms. In addition, over half of these early season storms exceeded thresholds for multiple bacterial indicators, while the vast majority of late season storms only exceeded thresholds for a single bacterial indicator. Large storms exceeded water quality thresholds three times more frequently than smaller-sized storms. This was partly due to the breaching of sand berms during large storm events; small storms could not breach these berms and this restricted watershed discharges from entering the surf zone. When watershed discharges did enter the surf zone, bacterial concentrations in the wave wash were correlated with watershed bacterial flux.

## INTRODUCTION

Beaches in Southern California are a valuable recreational resource for swimming, surfing, and other body contact activities. For example, greater than 175 million beach-goers visit southern California beaches annually, more than all other parts of the country combined (Schiff *et al.* 2001). This year-round activity results in tremendous economic revenue estimated at more than \$9 billion annually in ocean related activities for the region (NRC 1990).

Fecal indicator bacteria (total coliform, *E. coli*/fecal coliform, and enterococci) are used to monitor the water quality of marine beaches because they have been shown to correlate with swimming related illness. For example, Cabelli (1982) demonstrated that increases in concentrations of enterococci correlated with an increase in the risk of highly credible gastrointestinal illness among swimmers at beaches in New Jersey. In Santa Monica Bay, California, Haile *et al.* (1999) observed an increase in the relative risk for diarrhea with blood and highly credible gastrointestinal illness in swimmers exposed to higher concentrations of enterococci.

While the water quality at most beaches in southern California meets water quality thresholds established by the State during dry weather, several beaches have impaired water quality based on routine fecal indicator bacteria monitoring. Noble *et al.* (2000) conducted a regional study of all southern California beaches and found that approximately 5% of the shoreline exceeded water quality thresholds for fecal indicator bacteria during the summer of 1998. This level of exceedence was not randomly distributed. More than half of the exceedences occurred near storm drains that discharge across the beach. A retrospective analysis of fecal indicator bacteria based on five years of daily beach monitoring during dry weather in Santa Monica Bay found similar results, with over half of the water quality exceedences occurring in front of storm drains (Schiff *et al.* 2002).

The microbial water quality of beaches in southern California drastically changes following rainstorms. Noble *et al.* (2003) repeated their 1998 summer study, but sampled following a significant rainfall event during the winter of 1998-1999. In this case, over half of all beaches exceeded fecal indicator bacteria water quality thresholds. This frequency of impaired water quality jumped to nearly 90% when these beaches were located in front of storm drains. Similarly, Schiff *et al.* (2002) observed a doubling of microbial water quality exceedences between dry and wet weather, even though wet weather represented less than 10% of the year.

There are many sources of bacteria that could potentially be found in storm drains that discharge to beaches. Some of these sources may be of human origin including sewage spills, leaking sanitary sewage systems, faulty septic systems, or illicit discharges and illegal dumping (Geldrich 1978). However, many bacteria may actually arise from natural sources. Fecal indicator bacteria such as total coliform, *E. coli*/fecal coliform and enterococci are a component of the gut microflora of all warm-blooded animals, including domesticated dogs and cats, and wild birds and mammals (Grant *et al.* 2001, Fujioka 1995). Furthermore, fecal indicator bacteria may have extended survival or even regrow in beach sediments and wrack (Valiela *et al.* 1991, Weiskel *et al.* 1996, Demaris *et al.* 2002, City of San Diego/MEC Weston 2004, Anderson *et al.* 2005). Therefore, the reference condition for bacterial water quality, including those beaches that are located at the mouth of undeveloped watersheds, is likely not zero. In fact, some shoreline managers use the level of contributions from undeveloped watersheds as the benchmark for water quality from developed watersheds in the Los Angeles region (LARWQCB 2002). Unfortunately, the contributions of fecal indicator bacteria from undeveloped watersheds to reference beaches are largely unknown, which complicates this approach for assessing public health risk or beach management.

The goal of this study was to assess the microbial water quality at reference beaches following wet weather events in southern California through measurements of fecal indicator bacteria. Reference beaches were defined as those beaches located at the mouth of undeveloped watersheds and whose bacterial contributions are minimally influenced by human activities. These data can then be used by public health agencies and beach managers for making

informed decisions about the reference condition of microbial water quality during wet weather. A series of secondary objectives were also addressed during this study to enhance our ability to decipher processes that can influence reference beach water quality during wet weather. These objectives included assessments of: 1) beach water quality over time following rainfall to determine how long elevated concentrations of fecal indicator bacteria persist; 2) the influence of storm size and seasonality on beach water quality; 3) the relationship between land-based inputs and microbial water quality at reference beaches; 4) the relationship between watershed size and microbial water quality; and 5) the influence of lagoonal systems on microbial water quality at reference beaches.

## METHODS

Six coastal reference beaches in southern California were selected for assessment of water quality during wet weather. Reference beaches were selected based on four criteria: 1) each reference beach must be an open beach with breaking waves; 2) each reference beach must have a freshwater input; 3) the freshwater input must come from a watershed of similar size to nearby beaches that receive wet weather inputs from urban watersheds; and 4) the watershed discharging to the reference beach must be  $\geq 93\%$  undeveloped.

The six reference beaches were: 1) Point Mugu State Beach located at the mouth of Big Sycamore Creek in Ventura County; 2) Deer Creek Beach located at the mouth of Deer Creek in Ventura County; 3) Leo Carrillo State Beach located at the mouth of Arroyo Sequit Creek in Los Angeles County; 4) Dan Blocker Beach located at the mouth of Solstice Creek in Los Angeles County; 5) San Onofre State Beach located at the mouth of San Onofre Creek in San Diego County; and 6) San Mateo Beach located at the mouth of San Mateo Creek in San Diego County (Table 1; Figure 1). All six reference beaches are open with breaking waves and have freshwater inputs. The six watersheds that discharge to these reference beaches range from 3 to 346 km<sup>2</sup>, which is within the 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> interquartile range of watershed area for all of the watersheds that drain to impacted, urbanized beaches in southern California. Five of the watersheds that drained to the reference beaches were between 97% and 100% undeveloped, while one (San Mateo) was 93% developed, based on land use data compiled by the

**Table 1. Reference beach and watershed characteristics.**

Reference Beach	Watershed	Latitude (NAD 83)	Longitude (NAD 83)	Watershed Size (km <sup>2</sup> )	Open Space (%)	Beach Direction	Beach Substrate	Lagoonal System
Point Mugu	Big Sycamore Creek	34° 04.255' N	119° 00.901' W	55.1	>95	SW	Sand	No
Deer Creek	Deer Creek	34° 03.724' N	118° 59.164' W	3.1	100	SW	Sand	No
Leo Carrillo	Arroyo Sequit	34° 2.671' N	118° 55.950' W	28.1	100	SW	Sand	Yes
Dan Blocker	Solstice Canyon	34° 01.970' N	118° 44.539' W	11.5	99	SW	Sand and Cobble	No
San Onofre	San Onofre Creek	33° 22.842' N	117° 34.719' W	110	97	W	Sand and Cobble	Yes
San Mateo	San Mateo Creek	33° 23.143' N	117° 35.664' W	346	93	W	Sand and Cobble	Yes

US Geological Survey and University of California Santa Barbara (Davis *et al.* 1998). Deer Creek was the smallest watershed and had the least amount of human activity, while San Mateo Creek was the largest watershed and had the greatest amount of human activity.

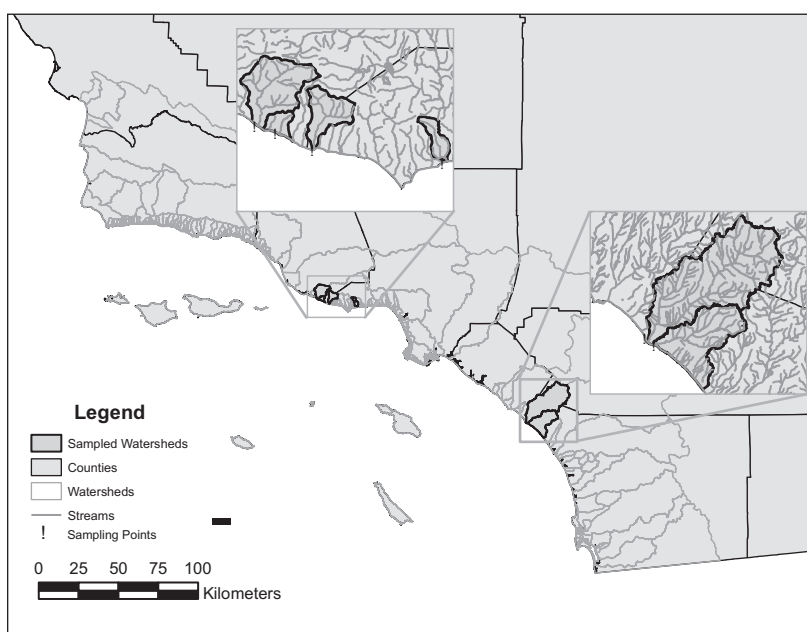
### Sampling

The primary sampling location was in the ocean immediately in front of the freshwater input at the so-called “wave wash” where the watershed discharge initially mixes with the ocean waves. All samples were collected between ankle and knee depth on an incoming wave. The secondary sampling location was in the watershed discharge as it crossed the beach at the closest sampleable location prior to mixing with the ocean.

Samples at the primary sampling sites were measured for fecal indicator bacteria and salinity. Samples at the secondary sampling sites were measured for fecal indicator bacteria, salinity and flow. A subset of samples at secondary sites was collected for analysis of human enteric virus to detect or rule out the presence of human contributions of fecal pollution. Samples were collected in sterile 250-ml polystyrene bottles (bacterial analysis, salinity analysis) or 4-L polyethylene carboys (enterovirus analysis) following Standard Methods 1060 protocol for aseptic sampling techniques (APHA 1995). Samples were transported on ice to the laboratory for analysis. Flow was measured using a hand held velocity meter (Marsh-

McBirney, Inc., Frederick, MD) and estimates of wetted cross-sectional area.

Sampling focused on wet weather during the Fall and Winter of 2004-2005 and 2005-2006. Wet weather sampling criteria included three or more days of antecedent dry period and predicted minimum rainfall estimates of 0.10 inch. Four samples per site were collected corresponding to the day of the storm (defined as within 24 of recorded rainfall) and the three days following recorded rainfall (four days of sampling in total). Storms were targeted based on two factors: size of storm and seasonality. Size of storm was stratified into small storm events (less than mean daily rainfall) and large storm events (greater than mean daily rainfall) based on historical rainfall at the nearest rain gage. Seasonality was



**Figure 1. Map of reference beaches and watersheds.**

stratified into early season (before December 31) and late season (after January 1) storm events. Storm season in southern California is defined as October 15 to April 15. To summarize, six reference beaches were sampled over the course of four days during five different storm events for a total of 120 sampling events.

Concentrations of total coliforms, *E. coli*, and enterococci were measured using kits supplied by IDEXX Laboratories, Inc. (Westbrook, ME). Concentrations of total coliforms and *E. coli* were measured using Colilert-18™, while enterococci was measured using Enterolert™. Samples were heat-sealed into Quanti-Tray/2000™ pouches incubated overnight per the manufacturer's instructions and subsequently inspected for positive wells (IDEXX Westbrook, MD). Conversion of positive wells to a most probable number (MPN) was done following Hurley and Roscoe (1983). Samples taken at Big Sycamore Beach, Deer Creek Beach, Dan Blocker Beach, and Leo Carrillo State Beach were analyzed at the City of Los Angeles laboratory facilities (El Segundo, CA). Samples collected from San Onofre State Beach and San Mateo Beach were analyzed at Weston Solutions Laboratories (Carlsbad, CA).

All discharge samples from the first day of flow were analyzed for human enterovirus. The purpose of this analysis was to eliminate human sewage as a source of indicator bacteria at each site. Since these viruses only infect and multiply in humans through the oral-fecal route, their detection is a reliable marker for a human input of fecal contamination into the system. During the 2005-2006 sampling period, all discharge samples were analyzed for human enterovirus.

Following collection, water samples were passed through 0.45-µm pore size 47-mm Type HA filters (Millipore, New Bedford, MA) to concentrate viruses. Volumes filtered ranged from 200 ml to 4 L depending on the turbidity and sediment load of the individual sample. In some cases several filters were required to filter the entire sample. Filters were immediately stored at -80°C and subsequently transported on dry ice to the University of Southern California for human enterovirus analysis. Analysis for the presence of human enterovirus was accomplished following the method described by Fuhrman *et al.* (2005).

Data analysis focused on seven comparisons. The first compared the frequency of water quality threshold exceedences during wet weather to the fre-

quency of exceedences during winter dry weather and summer dry weather. Wet weather was defined as the day of recorded rainfall plus the next three days. Dry weather was defined as any day greater than three days since recorded rainfall. Winter was defined as November 1 to March 31, and summer was defined as April 1 to October 31. Wet weather data were collected as part of this study. Winter and summer dry weather data (April 2004 to March 2005) for San Onofre State Beach were supplied by the City of San Diego and the County of San Diego, respectively. Winter and summer dry weather data (April 2004 to March 2005) for Leo Carrillo State Beach were supplied by the City of Los Angeles. Winter dry weather data (October 2004 to March 2005) for Dan Blocker Beach were also supplied by the City of Los Angeles; no summer dry weather data were available for this site. Winter and summer dry weather data (October 2003 through October 2004) for Deer Creek Beach and Point Mugu Beach were supplied by the Ventura County Department of Environmental Health; winter dry weather data from 2004-2005 at Deer Creek Beach and Point Mugu Beach were not collected by the Ventura County Department of Environmental Health. Water quality thresholds were based on single samples compared to the California State Assembly Bill AB411 public health standards for marine bathing beaches: 1) >104 enterococci / 100 ml; 2) >400 fecal coliform / 100 ml (*E. coli* were substituted for fecal coliform); 3) >10,000 total coliform / 100 ml; and 4) >1,000 total coliform / 100 ml when the total coliform to fecal coliform (*E. coli*) ratio was <10.

The second data analysis element compared the frequency of water quality exceedences among the four days that comprised wet weather. Concentrations of fecal indicator bacteria for all beaches combined were compared to California's water quality thresholds within 24 hours of rainfall and three days following recorded rainfall.

The third data analysis element focused on comparisons among the six reference beaches. The first comparison examined the relative frequency of exceedence of the state's water quality thresholds for fecal indicator bacteria for all storms combined. The second comparison examined the magnitude of enterococci concentrations between the four days that comprised wet weather. Mean concentrations and standard deviations were plotted against results within 24 hours of rainfall and up to three days following recorded rainfall. Enterococci were chosen as the example indicator for this analysis.



The fourth data analysis element compared the frequency of water quality exceedences between small and large storms and between early and late season storms. Concentrations of fecal indicator bacteria for all beaches combined were compared to the state's water quality thresholds for large and small storms as well as early and late season storms. A subsidiary data analysis examining storm bias quantified the frequency of water quality threshold exceedences when storm flows generated watershed discharges that did not cross the beach sand berm, when storm flows were large enough to breach the sand berm and for those watersheds that always breached the sand berm regardless of storm size. Deer Creek and Solstice Creek were two reference watersheds that always breached the sand berm during this study. Big Sycamore, Arroyo Sequit, and San Onofre Creeks had watershed discharges that intermittently breached the sand berm.

The fifth data analysis element compared bacterial concentrations at each reference beach to salinity measurements and flux of bacteria into the surf zone to evaluate the impact of watershed discharges on reference beach water quality. In this case, it was assumed that salinity acted as a conservative tracer of freshwater inputs. Flux was calculated as the product of bacterial concentration and flow. For this analysis, data were only examined when watershed discharges were entering the wave wash. Once again, enterococci was chosen for this analysis.

The sixth data analysis element examined the incidence of exceedences of California's AB411 water quality standards for fecal indicator bacteria compared to the size of the watershed. Watersheds

were broken into small (<25 km<sup>2</sup>), medium (20 km<sup>2</sup> - 99 km<sup>2</sup>), and large (>100 km<sup>2</sup>), with two watersheds falling into each category.

The last data analysis element focused on the presence or absence of a lagoonal system. For purposes of this study a lagoon was defined as a persistent body of ponded water at the terminus of a creek. During most of the year, these lagoons are separated from the ocean by a sand berm and only flow when the berm is breached by high volume flow from the creek and/or by wave or tidal action. Here bacterial concentrations in the wave wash were compared during wet weather when these systems were flowing versus when they were blocked by the sand berm.

## RESULTS

Of the nine storm events sampled during this study (Table 2), four occurred early in the season and five occurred late in the season. Four of the storms were larger (0.87 - 3.07 inches) and five were smaller (0.09 - 0.44 inches). Antecedent dry periods ranged from 2 to 34 days, depending upon the site and storm event.

Genetic markers of human enterovirus were detected in four discharge samples. These samples were collected from discharge across San Onofre State Beach on February 12, 2005; Leo Carillo State Beach on March 3, 2006; and Dan Blocker beach on March 13 and 15, 2006. As is the case with the fecal indicator bacteria, the source of the virus particle(s) was unknown. Therefore, all data from these sampling events (wave wash and discharge) were excluded from the subsequent data analysis, as the

**Table 2. Inches of precipitation during the nine storm events at the six reference beaches during the 2004-2005 and 2005-2006 wet seasons.**

Storm Date	Site					
	Point Mugu <sup>2</sup>	Deer Creek <sup>1,2</sup>	Leo Carillo <sup>1,2</sup>	Dan Blocker <sup>1</sup>	San Mateo <sup>3</sup>	San Onofre <sup>3</sup>
10/27 - 10/30/04	-	1.31	1.31	1.31	-	3.07
12/5 - 12/8/04	-	0.41	0.41	0.41	-	0.39
1/29 - 2/1/04	-	0.44	0.44	0.44	-	0.16
2/12 - 2/15/05	-	2.04	2.04	2.04	-	2.44
10/18 - 10/21/05	1.02	-	1.02	-	1.97	-
1/1 - 1/4/06	1.94	-	1.94	-	0.87	-
2/19 - 2/22/06	0.8	-	0.8	-	0.31	-
2/28 - 3/3/06	1.87	-	1.87	-	0.87	-
3/12 - 3/15/06	0.11	0.11	0.11	0.09	0.35	0.35

<sup>1</sup>Malibu Big Rock rain gage  
<sup>2</sup>Leo Carillo rain gage  
<sup>3</sup>San Onofre rain gage

detection of human enterovirus was indicative of the possible presence of human fecal bacteria.

The prevalence of water quality exceedences cumulatively at the nine reference beach sites was greater during wet weather than during winter dry weather or summer dry weather, regardless of fecal indicator bacteria (Table 3). Approximately 16% of all samples exceeded water quality thresholds for at least one indicator during wet weather. This was greater than 10 times the frequency of water quality threshold exceedences during dry weather. Although the frequency of water quality threshold exceedences in wet weather was always greater than in winter dry weather or summer dry weather, the discrepancy between time periods varied among the individual fecal indicator bacteria. For example, 12% of enterococci samples exceeded water quality thresholds during wet weather compared to 1% of the samples collected during winter dry weather and 0% of the samples collected during summer dry weather. Comparatively, 10% of the samples analyzed for *E. coli* during wet weather exceeded water quality thresholds compared to 1% of samples during winter dry weather and <1% during summer dry weather.

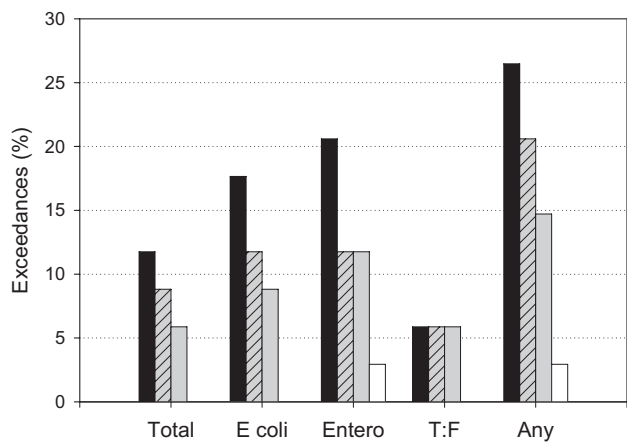
Water quality thresholds for total coliforms exceeded water quality thresholds <1% during dry weather while total coliform to fecal coliform ratio only exceeded water quality thresholds during wet weather.

San Onofre State Beach and San Mateo Beach had the greatest frequency of water quality threshold exceedences during wet weather compared to the other four beaches sampled during this study (Table 3). Almost one-third of the samples at these sites exceeded water quality thresholds for at least one indicator during wet weather. Exceedences occurred at about half this frequency in wet weather at Dan Blocker and Leo Carrillo Beaches, with 15% and 17% of the samples exceeding water quality thresholds for at least one indicator during wet weather, respectively. In contrast, only 5% of samples exceeded thresholds for any indicator at Point Mugu State Beach during wet weather, and no samples exceeded thresholds for any indicator at Deer Creek Beach.

The greatest frequency of water quality threshold exceedences occurred within 24 hours post rainfall then steadily decreased for three days (Figure 2). Twenty-seven percent of all samples collected <24 hours after rainfall exceeded water quality

**Table 3. Frequency of water quality threshold exceedences for fecal indicator bacteria (total coliform (Total), *E. coli* (*E. coli*), enterococci (Entero), total coliform *E. coli* ratio (T:F), and any indicator(Any)) expressed as a percent of days during wet weather (<3 days after rainfall, this study), winter dry weather (>3 days after rainfall, November to March) and summer dry weather (>3 days after rainfall, April to October) at the reference beaches targeted during this study.**

		Total	<i>E. coli</i>	Entero	T:F	Any
<b>Point Mugu State Beach</b>	Wet	5.0	0	5.0	0	5.0
	Winter Dry	0	0	0	0	0
	Summer Dry	<1	0	0	0	<1
<b>Deer Creek Beach</b>	Wet	0	0	0	0	0
	Winter Dry	0	0	0	0	0
	Summer Dry	0	0	0	0	0
<b>Leo Carrillo State Beach</b>	Wet	5.6	8.3	11.1	8.3	16.7
	Winter Dry	0	0	0	0	0
	Summer Dry	0	0	0	0	0
<b>Dan Blocker Beach</b>	Wet	5.0	10.0	10.0	0	15.0
	Winter Dry	0	2.8	1.4	0	2.8
	Summer Dry	0	0	0	0	0
<b>San Mateo State Beach</b>	Wet	0	25.0	20.0	15.0	30.0
	Winter Dry	10	10	10	0	20
	Summer Dry	1.9	1.9	9.3	0	9.3
<b>San Onofre State Beach</b>	Wet	25.0	15.0	25.0	0	30.0
	Winter Dry	0	6.7	6.7	0	6.7
	Summer Dry	0	0	0	0	0
<b>All Beaches</b>	Wet	6.6	9.6	11.8	4.4	16.2
	Winter Dry	0	1.4	1.4	0	1.4
	Summer Dry	<1	<1	<1	0	<1



**Figure 2. Frequency of water quality threshold exceedences for fecal indicator bacteria: total coliform (Total), *E. coli* (*E. coli*), enterococci (Entero), total coliform *E. coli* ratio (T:F) and any threshold (Any) - within 24 hours of rainfall, and 3 subsequent days, at 6 reference beaches used in this study during the 2004-2005 and 2005-2006 storm seasons.**

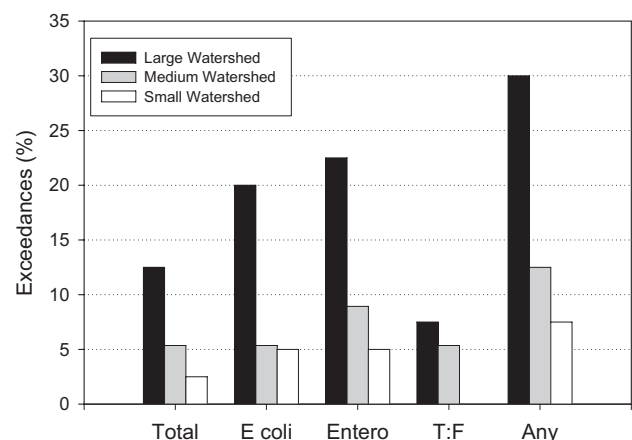
thresholds for at least one indicator. This frequency of water quality threshold exceedences decreased to 21% of samples collected one day following recorded rainfall, then 15% of samples collect for two days following recorded rainfall and ultimately declined to 3% of samples three days following recorded rainfall. This pattern of water quality threshold exceedences was repeated by virtually every bacterial indicator, but at varying levels of frequency. Enterococci exhibited the greatest rate of water threshold exceedences <24 hours following recorded rainfall and the greatest persistence 3 days following a rain event. For example, the frequency of water quality threshold exceedences for total coliform, *E. coli*, enterococci, and total coliform: fecal coliform ratio within 24 hours of recorded rainfall was 13%, 20%, 20%, and 7% of all samples, respectively, but enterococci was responsible for all of the exceedences recorded on day 3.

Exceedences of water quality thresholds for fecal indicator bacteria in wet weather occurred more than twice as frequently in large (>100 km<sup>2</sup>) watersheds than in medium (25 – 100 km<sup>2</sup>) watersheds, and more than four times as frequently than in small (<25 km<sup>2</sup>) watersheds (Figure 3). More than any other indicator, concentrations of enterococci were responsible for the majority of water quality threshold exceedences across all three watershed size categories, exceeding thresholds 22% of the time for large-sized watersheds, 9% for medium-sized watersheds and 5% for small-sized watersheds. Although

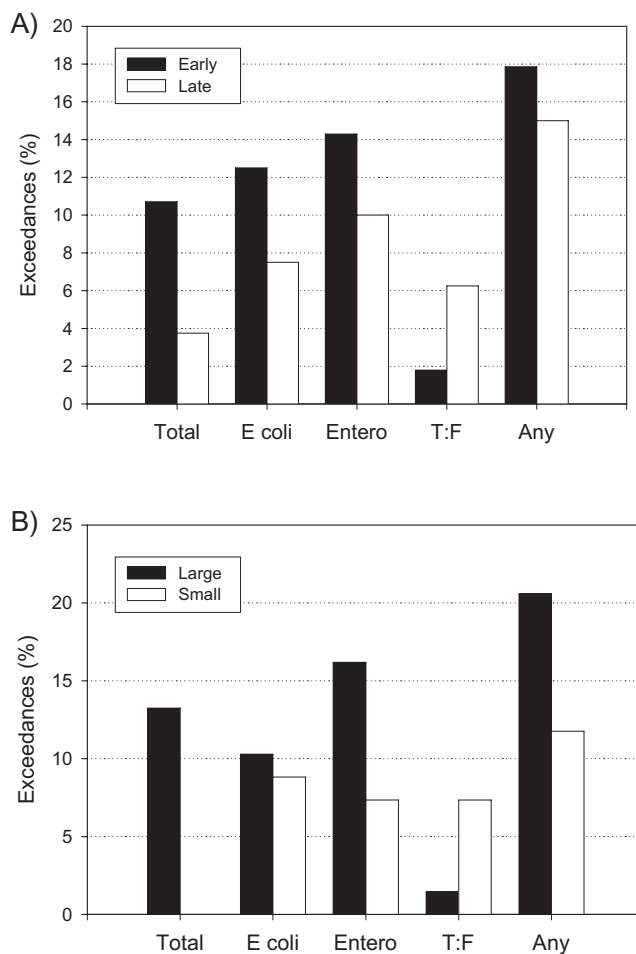
total coliform and *E. coli* concentrations did not exceed water quality thresholds as often as did enterococci, they followed the same trend in terms of watershed size.

Early season storms resulted in a greater number of water quality threshold exceedences than late season storms (Figure 4A). After combining all wet weather samples at all creeks, 18% of the samples from early season storms exceeded water quality thresholds for at least one indicator, while 15% of the samples from late season storms exceeded water quality thresholds for at least one indicator. Early season storms also had a greater frequency of exceedence of more than one threshold compared to late season storms. In fact, 63% of the samples that exceeded water quality thresholds during early season storms exceeded more than one threshold (i.e., *E. coli* and enterococci). In contrast, 67% of the samples that exceeded water quality thresholds during late season storms exceeded only one threshold.

Larger storms resulted in a greater number of water quality threshold exceedences than small storms (Figure 4B). After combining all wet weather samples at all creeks, 21% exceeded water quality thresholds for at least one indicator during large storms, compared to 12% of wet weather samples in small storms. This discrepancy between large and small storms was similar, or greater, for total coliform and enterococci thresholds and slightly lower for *E. coli*. For example, 16% of the enterococci samples exceeded water quality thresh-



**Figure 3. Comparison of water quality threshold exceedences: total coliform (Total), *E. coli* (*E. coli*), enterococci (Entero), total coliform *E. coli* ratio (T:F) and any threshold (Any) - in the wave wash with watershed size (small: 3 - 12 km<sup>2</sup>; medium: 28 - 56 km<sup>2</sup>; and large: 110 - 346 km<sup>2</sup>).**



**Figure 4. Comparison of water quality threshold exceedences within <3 days post rainfall at four reference beaches used in this study for fecal indicator bacteria - total coliform (Total), *E. coli* (*E. coli*), enterococci (Enterococci), total coliform *E. coli* ratio (T:F) and any threshold (Any), during: large and small storm events during the 2004-2005 and 2005-2006 storm seasons (A); and early and late season storms during the 2004-2005 and 2005-2006 storm seasons (B).**

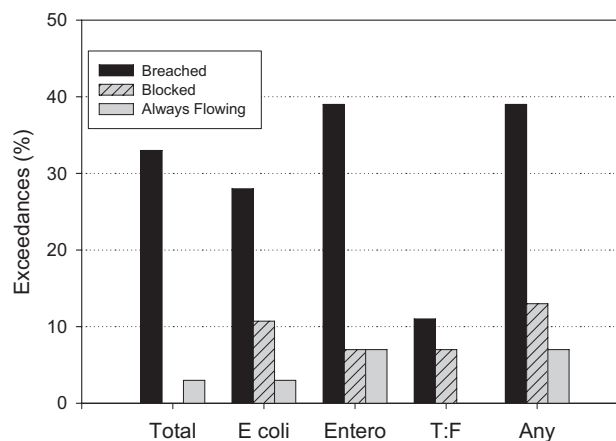
olds following large-sized rainfall events compared to 7% during smaller-sized rainfall events. In contrast, the total coliform-to-fecal coliform ratio exhibited the opposite trend, exceeding water quality thresholds only 1% of the time after large storms and 7% after small storms.

One factor that accounted for the differences in water quality threshold exceedences observed between large and small-sized rainfall events was the ability of stormwater flow to breach the sand berm and discharge across the reference beach (Figure 5). Storms that were capable of producing sufficient flows to breach the sand berm were more than four times more likely to exceed water quality thresholds when flowing to the ocean compared to storms

where the sand berm blocked flow across the beach. For example, almost 40% of the wet weather samples exceeded water quality thresholds for at least one indicator when the sand berm was breached compared to 12% of the samples when it had not been breached. Similar patterns of threshold exceedence frequency were observed for each of the individual bacterial indicators.

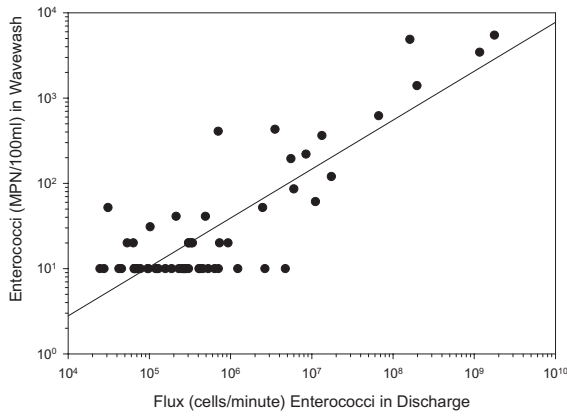
At reference beaches that always breached the sand berm, the frequency of water quality threshold exceedences was low and similar to when the sand berm had not been breached at the more intermittent beaches (Figure 5). For example, 8% of the enterococci samples exceeded water quality thresholds at both sites where the berm was always breached (i.e., Deer Creek and Dan Blocker Beaches) and at sites when the berm was not breached (i.e., Leo Carrillo and San Onofre State Beaches). Beaches that always breached were characterized as relatively small and lacked lagoon systems at their termini.

Discharges from reference watersheds appeared to be the predominant source of fecal indicator bacteria at reference beaches during wet weather. For example, concentrations of enterococci in the wave wash were positively correlated to the flux of enterococci in the discharge from their respective undeveloped watersheds (Figure 6). The flux of enterococci from undeveloped watersheds could explain roughly 73% of the variation observed in concentrations of

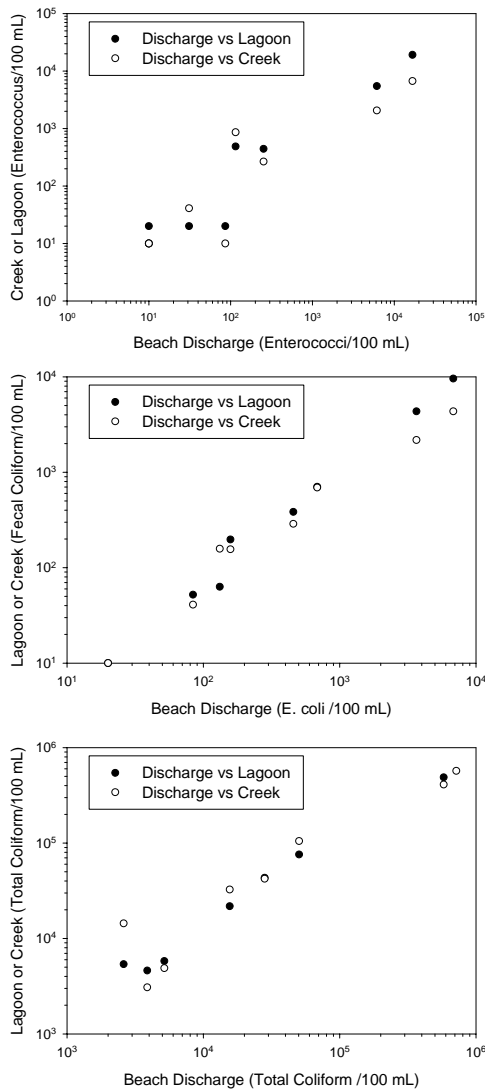


**Figure 5. Comparison of water quality threshold exceedences for fecal indicator bacteria: total coliform (Total), *E. coli* (*E. coli*), enterococci (Enterococci), total coliform *E. coli* ratio (T:F) and any threshold (Any), at reference beaches when creeks with and without lagoonal systems from undeveloped watersheds behind the beach are always flowing, blocked behind a sand berm, and when the sand berm is temporarily breached.**





**Figure 6. Enterococci concentrations in the wave wash compared to flux from undeveloped watersheds discharging to reference beaches.**



**Figure 7. Comparison of fecal indicator bacteria concentration in the discharge across San Onofre Beach to concentrations in San Onofre Creek and in the San Onofre Lagoon.**

this indicator in the wave wash ( $r^2 = 0.73$ ). This suggests that land-based sources are likely the major contributor to concentrations of enterococci in the wave wash when creeks are flowing.

In cases where there was a terminal lagoon, the watershed, not the lagoon, appeared to be the predominant source of fecal indicator bacteria when sand berms were breached (Figure 7). The relationship between concentrations of fecal indicator bacteria in the discharge across the beach and in the creek above the lagoon was near unity. Concentrations in the creek could explain between 93% and 99% of the variability for each of the three fecal indicator bacteria in the discharge ( $r^2 = 0.99, 0.99,$  and  $0.93$  for enterococci, *E. coli*, and total coliform, respectively). The relationship between concentrations of fecal indicator bacteria in the discharge across the reference beach and in the lagoon above the beach was also near unity. Concentrations in the lagoon could explain between 96% and 99% of the variability for each of the three fecal indicator bacteria in the discharge ( $r^2 = 0.98, 0.99,$  and  $0.96$  for enterococci, *E. coli*, and total coliform, respectively). The similarity of fecal indicator bacteria concentrations between the creek, the lagoon, and the discharge demonstrated that the lagoon had little influence on inputs to the ocean and was essentially a conduit for the creek during wet weather.

It appears that factors other than flow may be responsible for water quality exceedences at reference beaches with intact sand berms when storms are insufficient to breach berms (Table 4). For example, San Mateo Creek never breached its sand berm during the sampling period, yet this reference beach had a similar frequency of bacterial water quality threshold exceedences as those of adjacent San Onofre Creek when its sand berm was breached. A possible reason for the large number of exceedences at this non-breached site was the large number of Western Gulls observed feeding on the beach during wet weather sampling (Table 4).

## DISCUSSION

This study demonstrated that natural contributions of fecal indicator bacteria at beaches with minimal or no known human impacts were sufficient to generate exceedences of the State of California water quality thresholds during wet weather. On average, one-fifth of all samples collected within three days of rainfall exceeded water quality thresholds for at least one bacterial indicator and these exceedences

**Table 4. Average number of birds observed when water quality standards for enterococci were exceeded and lagoon was breached versus not breached.**

	Lagoon Breached		Lagoon Not Breached	
	# Exceedences	Average # Birds	# Exceedences	Average # Birds
<b>Leo Carillo</b>	4	24	-	-
<b>San Onofre</b>	4	<1	1	0
<b>San Mateo</b>	-	-	4	131

were observed at three-quarters of the reference beaches sampled. Concentrations of enterococci and *E. coli* led to exceedences of water quality thresholds most frequently, while total coliform and total coliform to fecal coliform ratios led to the least number of exceedences.

Wet weather discharges from undeveloped watersheds generally contributed to higher concentrations of fecal indicator bacteria along reference beaches relative to other times of the year. Moreover, concentrations of fecal indicator bacteria at the reference beaches were positively correlated with flux of indicator bacteria in the discharge draining from the undeveloped watersheds. Similar to this study, Schiff and Kinney (2001) found a large quantity of fecal indicator bacteria in wet weather discharges in similar-sized, almost entirely undeveloped watersheds, from inland San Diego County with no human activity.

There were a number of interrelated factors that appeared to affect the flux of indicator bacteria from undeveloped watersheds and the resulting frequency of water quality threshold exceedences at reference beaches during wet weather. These included watershed size, storm size, and early vs. late season storms. Watershed size and storm size relate to a function of source strength and transport. Larger watersheds and larger storms both have the capability to generate and mobilize more bacteria from within the watershed. In fact, the largest storms at the largest watersheds generated the greatest frequency of water quality exceedences and for multiple fecal indicator bacteria thresholds. Smaller storms and/or smaller watersheds generated lesser bacterial flux and fewer beach exceedences resulted.

A third interrelated factor was the presence of a lagoon and sand berm at the terminus of the creek. A significant increase in the frequency of water quality exceedences occurred when stable beach berms blocking lagoons were breached. This occurred con-

sistently during large storm events. Conversely, when rainstorms were insufficiently large to break through stable beach berms, the frequency of water quality exceedences was reduced. The presence of the lagoon appeared to have little effect on the flux of indicator bacteria when the sand berm was breached; concentrations in the discharge across the beach were nearly identical to concentrations in the creek above the lagoon. However, the presence of the lagoon did appear to have an effect on water quality threshold exceedences at reference beaches when storms were insufficiently large to breach sand berms. In this case, an increase in seabirds roosting on the beach near lagoons was observed with a concomitant increase in water quality exceedences. Birds have been implicated in bacterial water quality exceedences at other locations (Choi *et al.* 2003, Abulreesh *et al.* 2004) and it is possible, at least in this case, the freshwater lagoon (particularly at San Mateo Creek) acts as a bird attractant, drawing birds to the beach where their dropping may be resuspended by wave and tidal action.

Seasonality also affected reference beach microbial water quality. Early season storms had a greater frequency of water quality exceedences compared to late season storm events, possibly from a “first flush” effect, which may have served to bring large amounts of accumulated debris and associated bacteria down to the beach from the upper reaches of watersheds. Additionally, early season storms had a greater magnitude of water quality threshold exceedences, exceeding by more than one indicator in the majority of the wet weather samples collected. In contrast, the vast majority of water quality exceedences in late season storms exceeded for only a single indicator.

One last factor affecting the ability to adequately assess factors contributing to concentrations of fecal indicator bacteria at reference beaches is the detection of human enterovirus markers at San Onofre and

Leo Carillo State Beaches and at Dan Blocker Beach. Although virus was detected during a very small number of events that were excluded from our calculations, it cast a shadow of doubt regarding human contributions over the remaining storms at each of these sites. All of these watersheds were characterized by very little development (<3%), but virtually all of the watersheds in our study have some human trespass. Ultimately, insufficient data emerged to eliminate all results from these watersheds; consequently, the watersheds were included. Hence, a complete accounting of sources at these sites may not be forthcoming until more accurate technology for identifying and quantifying fecal sources is available.

The human health risk associated with wet weather discharges of nonhuman sources of fecal indicator bacteria is not known. Several epidemiology studies have examined the effect of increased fecal indicator bacteria on the risk of swimming-related illnesses (See Wade *et al.* 2003 for a review). Cabelli *et al.* (1982) found a relationship between enterococci and health effects at a marine bathing beach in New Jersey, but this beach was impacted by known point sources of human fecal pollution. Haile *et al.* (1999) found a relationship between indicator bacteria concentrations and health effects in those who swam near storm drains in Santa Monica Bay, but these drains were also known to contain human sources of fecal pollution. Colford *et al.* (2007) found no relationship between largely nonhuman sources of fecal indicator bacteria or genetic markers for human enterovirus and health effects in Mission Bay, a marine bathing beach in San Diego, but only examined dry weather. In this study, nonhuman sources of bacteria from nonpoint sources during wet weather were quantified; however, health risks were not examined. Epidemiological studies during wet weather need to be conducted in order to estimate the risk of swimming related illnesses at reference beaches like those examined in this study.

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