

Online Research @ Cardiff

This is an Open Access document downloaded from ORCA, Cardiff University's institutional repository: <http://orca.cf.ac.uk/102980/>

This is the author's version of a work that was submitted to / accepted for publication.

Citation for final published version:

Abu-Bakar, Amyrhul, Ahmadian, Reza and Falconer, Roger A. 2017. Modelling the transport and decay processes of microbial tracers released in a macro-tidal estuary. *Water Research* 123 , pp. 802-824. 10.1016/j.watres.2017.07.007 file

Publishers page: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2017.07.007>
<<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2017.07.007>>

Please note:

Changes made as a result of publishing processes such as copy-editing, formatting and page numbers may not be reflected in this version. For the definitive version of this publication, please refer to the published source. You are advised to consult the publisher's version if you wish to cite this paper.

This version is being made available in accordance with publisher policies. See <http://orca.cf.ac.uk/policies.html> for usage policies. Copyright and moral rights for publications made available in ORCA are retained by the copyright holders.



26 the inter-tidal floodplains of the Loughor Estuary. The validated hydrodynamic model for both
27 water levels and currents, was included with the injected mass of microbial tracer, i.e. MS2
28 coliphage from upstream of the estuary, and modelled as a non-conservative mass over several
29 tidal cycles through the system. The calibration and validation of the transport and decay of
30 microbial tracer was undertaken, by comparing the model results and the measured data at two
31 different sampling locations. The refined model, developed as a part of this study, was used to
32 acquire a better understanding of the water quality processes and the potential sources of
33 bacterial pollution in the estuary.

34 **Keywords:** hydrodynamic modelling, mass transport, tracer studies, estuaries

35

36 **1. Introduction**

37 Water quality at recreational bathing and shellfish harvesting sites in coastal and estuarine
38 waters are important to comply with the designated standards following the EU Directives
39 (CEU, 2000). The failure to comply with these directives could cause pathogenic infections, as
40 humans come into contact with polluted water or consume shellfish harvested in polluted water.
41 In the 19th century, more than a quarter of infected diseases were due to consumption of mussel
42 bio-accumulated pathogens (Kay *et al.*, 2008).

43 Pathogens enter coastal waters either through treated or untreated outfalls, or rivers as
44 point sources, or from tidally inundated land as diffuse sources, such as grazing saltmarshes.
45 Pathogens then go through complex estuarine processes, including particulate interactions with
46 sediments, transport by the hydrodynamic processes, and through bio-chemical processes, such
47 as decay. These processes and interactions make predicting the concentration and establishing
48 the main sources of pathogens a complex challenge. Such predictions are more difficult in the
49 Loughor Estuary due to the complex hydrodynamics in the region and the wide range of faecal
50 bacteria sources, including primarily: Wastewater Treatment Works (WwTWs), Combined

51 Sewer Overflows (CSOs), and animal grazing and shellfish processing plant outfalls. This
52 complexity is highlighted by differences in shellfish bed classifications as a result of faecal
53 coliform and *E. coli* concentrations respectively, at the lower reaches of catchments and in
54 shellfish flesh observed by the Environment Agency and Natural Resources Wales (Youell et
55 al., 2013a; Youell et al., 2013b).

56 The research reported herein is focused on modelling microbial tracer transport and decay
57 processes in the complex estuarine environment. Due to the distinct characteristics of the
58 tracers used in these studies, modelling microbial tracers could be used for calibration and
59 validation of the hydrodynamic and transport processes in hydro-environmental models, as
60 well as for acquiring a better understanding of the links between sources and receptors of faecal
61 indicator organisms (FIOs).

62

63 **2. Materials and methods**

64 ***2.1 Study area***

65 The Loughor is a macro-tidal estuary that flows into the Bristol Channel, with a maximum
66 spring tidal range of up to 7.5 m near Burry Port (see Figure 1). The area is well-known for
67 shellfish harvesting, with related processing industries being located in the vicinity of bathing
68 water sites. Llanrhidian saltmarshes, located on the South bank of the estuary, are subjected to
69 a number of designations (i.e. protection of natural ecosystems) which include a Site of Special
70 Scientific Interest (SSI), Special Area of Conservation (SAC), Special Protection Area (SPA),
71 a Ramsar Site (following an intergovernmental Ramsar treaty for the protection of wetlands)
72 (TRCS), and a National Nature Reserve (NNR) (Youell et al., 2013a; Youell et al., 2013b).
73 However, the saltmarshes are legally used for sheep grazing activities during low tides. The
74 animal faeces left on the saltmarshes are suspected to be one of the main sources of pathogen
75 inputs to the estuarine receiving waters after the saltmarsh floods on the rising tide. The other

76 main source of pathogen input to the estuary are the Llanelli and Gowerton WWTWs, as well
77 as a few shellfish processing plants. An overview of the key sites in the Loughor Estuary,
78 including the siting of these potential sources of faecal indicator organisms (FIOs) into the
79 estuary is shown in Figure 1.

80

81 **2.2 Modelling system**

82 The Telemac Modelling System (TMS) was used for the development of a hydro-
83 environmental model in this study. The modelling system solves the two-dimensional (2D)
84 Shallow Water Equations (SWEs) that are averaged from the Navier-Stokes Equations (NSEs),
85 using the finite element method for iterations on an unstructured triangular mesh. The
86 modelling system is designed to study the environmental processes in free surface waters for
87 coastal and seas, estuarine and river water bodies, with the main applications regard to their
88 modules-based being for hydrodynamic by Telemac-2D and -3D, water quality by Delwaq,
89 sedimentology by Sisyphe, and water wave studies by Tomawac (Lang, 2010). The TMS,
90 originally developed at the Research and Development department of Electricité de France
91 (EDF), supports with the most available pre- and post-processing tools, i.e. BlueKenue,
92 Tecplot, and Matlab.

93 The TMS solutions for the depth-averaged SWEs that derived from the NSEs require
94 approximations for the simplification. The fluid is assumed to be Newtonian, incompressible
95 and homogenous in the vertical plane, and the long wave approximation is adopted, i.e. the
96 pressure remains hydrostatic in the vertical direction. The NSEs are averaged over the depth
97 and Reynolds decomposition and stochastic averaging are applied for modelling the turbulence
98 processes. Bottom friction is modelled by using non-linear laws for velocity, such as the Chezy,
99 Strickler or Nikuradse friction laws. The SWEs implemented in the TMS use the non-divergent

100 form of the momentum equation, which are derived by substituting the continuity equation into
 101 the two momentum equations in the x- and y-directions (Lang 2010).

102 Four equations are solved simultaneously within the TMS by considering the Telemac-
 103 2D module, which are summarised below. Equation (1) is the continuity equation, Equations
 104 (2) and (3) are the momentum equations in the x and y directions, respectively, and Equation
 105 (4) is the transport equation, which is also used to model a tracer (Lang, 2010):

$$106 \quad \frac{\partial h}{\partial t} + \vec{u} \cdot \overrightarrow{grad}(h) + h \operatorname{div}(\vec{u}) = S_h \quad (1)$$

$$107 \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \vec{u} \cdot \overrightarrow{grad}(u) = -g \frac{\partial Z_s}{\partial x} + F_x + \frac{1}{h} \operatorname{div}(h v_t \cdot \overrightarrow{grad}(u)) \quad (2)$$

$$108 \quad \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} + \vec{u} \cdot \overrightarrow{grad}(v) = -g \frac{\partial Z_s}{\partial y} + F_y + \frac{1}{h} \operatorname{div}(h v_t \cdot \overrightarrow{grad}(v)) \quad (3)$$

$$109 \quad \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \vec{u} \cdot \overrightarrow{grad}(T) = \frac{1}{h} \operatorname{div}(h v_T \cdot \overrightarrow{grad}(T)) + S_T \quad (4)$$

110 For the above equations: h is the depth of water, u and v are the horizontal velocity
 111 components, in the x- and y-directions, respectively, T is the non-buoyant tracer or temperature,
 112 g is gravitational acceleration, v_t and v_T are the momentum and transport diffusion
 113 coefficients, respectively, Z_s is the elevation of the free surface, t is time, x and y are the
 114 horizontal coordinates, S_h is the source or sink term of fluid mass, F_x and F_y are the source or
 115 sink terms of fluid momentum within the domain in the x- and y-directions, respectively, (with
 116 the momentum source or sink terms including: the Coriolis force, bottom friction, and the wind
 117 shear stress), and S_T is the source or sink of tracer or heat. The sink of tracer is used to represent
 118 the microbial decay process which later is written $k_b T$, where k_b is the decay rate.

119 For modelling turbulence, the turbulent viscosity may be assigned by users as a constant
 120 or using the Elder equation. The turbulent eddy viscosity can also be calculated spatially and
 121 temporally using transport models for the turbulent kinetic energy and energy dissipation (i.e.
 122 the k - ε model) or the Smagorinski representation. The k - ε transport model uses Equations (5)
 123 and (6), respectively (Lang, 2010):

124
$$\frac{\partial k}{\partial t} + \vec{u} \cdot \overrightarrow{grad}(k) = \frac{1}{h} \operatorname{div} \left(h \frac{v_t}{\sigma_k} \overrightarrow{grad}(k) \right) + P - \varepsilon + P_{kv} \quad (5)$$

125
$$\frac{\partial \varepsilon}{\partial t} + \vec{u} \cdot \overrightarrow{grad}(\varepsilon) = \frac{1}{h} \operatorname{div} \left(h \frac{v_t}{\sigma_\varepsilon} \overrightarrow{grad}(\varepsilon) \right) + \frac{\varepsilon}{k} [C_{1\varepsilon}P - C_{2\varepsilon}\varepsilon] + P_{\varepsilon v} \quad (6)$$

126 The solute transport equation of the system satisfactorily conserves the transported mass
 127 of a solute with the corresponding conservative transport schemes. The model can be used for
 128 both conservative and non-conservative tracers, using a first-order kinetic decay rate for a non-
 129 conservative tracer (such as FIOs).

130

131 **2.3 Model setup**

132 A two-dimensional hydrodynamic model has been set up for the area of the Severn
 133 Estuary and Bristol Channel which covers an approximate area of 5,793 km², as shown in
 134 Figure 2. The seaward open boundary at the western side was located at the outer extremity of
 135 the Bristol Channel, and extended to the eastern side of the River Severn, up to the tidal limit,
 136 near Gloucester. The location of the seaward open boundary was specified along an imaginary
 137 line from Stackpole Head to Hartland Point with the available tidal time series boundary
 138 condition being located far away from the area of interest (i.e. the calibration and validation
 139 sites) for minimizing any errors that might originate from the specified open boundary. This
 140 large model domain was chosen to enable investigations to be undertaken of the potential links
 141 between the water quality status within the Loughor Estuary and other key water bodies close
 142 to this estuary, i.e. the bathing water sites along the Carmarthen Bay and Gower beaches.

143 The unstructured triangular mesh was generated to set up to cover the model domain, by
 144 using the BlueKenue mesh generator. The generated mesh also included the solid boundaries
 145 of Caldey Island at the outer Bristol Channel, and Flat Holm and Steep Holm Islands at the end
 146 of the Severn Estuary. To achieve high grids resolution within the Loughor Estuary, while
 147 maintaining the model efficiency, the edge length of the grids was set to vary from 1000 m

148 close to the seaward open boundary and decreased down to 20 m in the Loughor Estuary,
149 producing 711,106 unstructured triangular cells and 358,266 nodes. The bathymetric data in
150 the horizontal plane were specified relative to Ordnance Datum Newlyn (ODN) and Universal
151 Transverse Mercator (UTM) projection of Zone 30N respectively, with interpolation being
152 used to provide data at the mesh nodes, using the inverse distance interpolation method. The
153 generated mesh with the bathymetry interpolation of the model domain is shown as in Figure
154 2, with the deepest bottom elevation of approximately 65 m being shown near the model
155 seaward open boundary and decreasing towards the eastern boundary in the River Severn.

156

157 ***2.4 Hydrodynamic calibration***

158 The developed model was driven using a tidal time series, specified along the seaward
159 open boundary, which drives the tidal circulation processes within the modelling domain, and
160 using data obtained from the Proudman Oceanographic Laboratory (POL) (Heaps and Jones,
161 1981). A typical mean value of the river discharges was specified across each river boundary
162 for the main rivers based on data given by Stapleton et al. (2007) and Ahmadian et al. (2010).
163 Due to the sensitivity of the transport processes to river discharges in the areas of interest, time
164 series flows for the rivers and streams discharging into the Loughor Estuary were derived based
165 on historical data (NRFA) and implemented in the model.

166 The initial condition for the water surface was set at a constant elevation across the
167 domain, as governed by the level at the boundary at the starting time. The tidal currents were
168 set to zero across the domain at the start of the simulation. The model was run for a cold start,
169 with a tidal cycle from the boundary condition forcing the hydrodynamic processes within the
170 model domain. The hydrodynamic model was run with a time step of 10 seconds, which
171 resulted in a maximum Courant number of about 0.8.

172 For the first step, the large-scale model covering the entire domain was calibrated. The
173 calibration of the hydrodynamic model was carried out by comparing predicted and measured
174 water levels and tidal currents and using a constant bottom roughness coefficient across the
175 domain. Manning's n was typically cited within the range of 0.01 to 0.1 in the literature (Ji,
176 2008) and these values were used for calibration. The best fit of modelled results of water levels
177 and tidal currents was found when the bottom roughness Manning coefficient was set to 0.025.
178 Typical comparison between model predictions and observed data for water levels and currents
179 within Swansea Bay is shown in Figures 11 and 12, respectively.

180

181 ***2.5 Domain extension over intertidal marshlands***

182 It was understood that the flooding processes over the intertidal floodplains, including
183 marshlands, dunes and diffuse source pollutant inputs, at high tide could potentially have a
184 significant impact on the water quality processes within estuaries (Grant *et al.* 2001; Weiskel
185 *et al.* 1996; Evanson and Ambrose 2006; Sanders *et al.* 2005), including the Loughor Estuary.
186 However, the entire intertidal floodplains, marshlands and dunes, which were flooded at high
187 water, did not have bathymetric data. Therefore, it was decided to extend the existing model to
188 include the marshlands and dunes using a high-resolution grid. Since the bathymetric data did
189 not cover these areas with sufficient high quality, the extension had to be carried out by merging
190 LiDAR (Light Detection And Ranging) and interpolation of bathymetric data. The LiDAR data
191 for the topography covering the areas of Carmarthen Bay, the Loughor Estuary, and Swansea
192 Bay, at the north-western side of the model domain, were provided by Environment Agency
193 Geomatics (Natural Resources Wales, 2015). The topographic data were provided as the 'bare
194 earth' Digital Terrain Models (DTM), with a resolution of 2 m in 1 km x 1 km tile sizes. The
195 multiple data tiles were embedded into a tile size of 10 km x 10 km to ease the data processing.
196 The data initially provided were referred spatially to the British National Grid coordinate

197 system, which was re-projected onto the WGS 1984 UTM Zone 30N coordinate system, using
198 the geographic transformation for petroleum to match the other parts of the domain. The data
199 were referenced vertically, as for the bathymetric data relative to Ordnance Datum (OD) at
200 Newlyn. The resolution of the projected data tiles was reduced to 8 m, to reduce the mapping
201 time while maintaining a high resolution.

202 The projected data tiles were used to generate a new boundary line for extensions of the
203 model domain in the regions of Carmarthen Bay, the Loughor Estuary, and Swansea Bay.
204 Contour lines at 10 m level were generated from each data tile, with the shape file format
205 provided being converted into a DXF file format. The merging work for a new shoreline of the
206 domain extensions was carried out using the AutoCAD program. The original boundary lines
207 at the areas for extension were extended to the new generated 10 m contour lines. The extended
208 model covering the floodplains in Carmarthen Bay, the Loughor Estuary, and Swansea Bay is
209 shown in Figure 3. The red dashed line in Figure 3 depicts the model boundary before
210 refinement. The mesh generator of Blue Kenue software (Canadian Hydraulics Centre, 2011)
211 was used to refine the grid in order to extend the domain. The new generated shoreline was
212 used for the closed boundary, covering the areas of the domain extension. The grid size in the
213 original model of 1000 m resolution was reduced to 200 m resolution for the offshore region
214 surrounding Carmarthen Bay and Swansea Bay. The grid size in the Loughor Estuary was
215 further refined from 200 m resolution to a minimum of 10 m, as shown in Figure 3. The grid
216 size was set to be a linear function of the bottom elevation in the range between -5 and 5 m
217 over the intertidal floodplains. The refinements obtained from the linear function, applied to
218 the bottom elevation, were for accurately capturing the bathymetry-topography data to nodes
219 of the mesh and representing complex geometries over the intertidal floodplains, especially
220 with the finer grid resolution closer to the waterfront, where the wetting-and-drying processes

221 occurred. The grid refinement across the intertidal floodplains, together with the natural and
222 manmade features of the Loughor Estuary, are shown in Figure 4.

223 The LiDAR data acquired from the Environment Agency Geomatics (Natural Resources
224 Wales, 2015) are shown in Figure 5. As can be seen there are flat areas close to some convex
225 points, which do not seem to be accurate. These inaccuracies were confirmed through site
226 observation and discussion with the Smart Coast and NRW colleagues, who have a good
227 working knowledge of the site. These errors are mainly thought to be caused by carrying out
228 LiDAR surveys not at low water at these sites, but when water had flooded the flood plains.
229 The errors associated with the processed topographic data were eliminated before the
230 topography data were merged with the bathymetric data. The polygon with the best merging
231 outline between the different datasets was used to extract the processed data. The multiple
232 datasets were allowed to merge at overlapping edges of 50 m or more, to preserve continuity
233 of the bottom elevation between the different data sources. The datasets were then mapped onto
234 the new mesh and were used as the geometry for the improved simulations.

235 The model was then run using the refined extended bathymetry with a smaller time step
236 of 1 sec to maintain a maximum Courant number of about 0.8. The simulation time of the
237 refined 2D model was over 125 hours on a single core, or about 2 hours on 64 cores using
238 Cardiff University's High Performance Computing facilities, i.e. Raven (ARCCA), for 456 hr
239 of simulation time. A constant bottom Manning roughness coefficient of 0.025 was used across
240 the domain, based on the previous hydrodynamic calibration.

241

242 ***2.6 Tracer transport and decay modelling***

243 The microbial tracer study was conducted for the Smart Coasts Sustainable Communities
244 project within the Loughor Estuary, to examine connections between pathogen sources and
245 impacts at locations of interest in the estuary and nearby bathing water designated sites (Wyer

246 *et al.*, 2014). The microbial tracers were released simultaneously at four different locations,
247 approximately one hour after high spring tides. The released sites were at Great Pill (site 101)
248 – a tidal channel draining via Llanrhidian Marsh, the Morlais River (site 201) – a tidal channel
249 at Crofty draining via Salthouse Pill, Loughor Bridge (site 501) – a bridge crossing the Afon
250 Llwyher tidal channel, near the discharge from Gowerton sewage treatment works, and the
251 Afon Lliedi (site 601) - a tidal channel draining via Llanelli into the estuary. These sites are
252 shown in Figure 6 using purple triangles. Each microbial tracer was measured at 5 sampling
253 sites, including Rhossili DSP (site 408), Broughton a potential designation site (site 409), the
254 Loughor Boat Club at the upstream end of the estuary (site 410), Burry Port harbour, which is
255 close to the shellfish beds (site 411), and Pembrey DSP (site 412), with these field monitoring
256 sites being shown in Figure 6 with green circles.

257 Each of the release sites represent major bacterial inputs to the estuary, while each of the
258 sampling sites are major receiving sites and were selected because of the interest in these sites.
259 Each of these sites represents a different characteristic from the hydrodynamic perspective and
260 which impacts on the transport of the microbial tracer.

261 Four types of microbial tracers were released at each of these locations to represent the
262 microbial source tracking from different pollutant sources (Wyer *et al.*, 2014). *Serratia*
263 *marcescens* phage was released at site 101 over 14 minutes, with a total dose of 2.75E+16 pfu.
264 *Enterobacter cloacae* phage was released at site 201 over 7 minutes, with a total dose of
265 4.50E+16 pfu. MS2 coliphage was released at site 501 over 11 minutes to produce a total dose
266 of 4.00E+17 pfu. The ϕ X174 phage was released at site 601 over 3 minutes, with a total dose
267 of 2.00E+15 pfu. Table 1 summarises details of the released microbial tracers into the Loughor
268 Estuary. The application of bacteriophage as a source for tracking and similar work have been
269 conducted elsewhere, such as Simpson *et al.*, (2002); Shen *et al.*, (2008).

270 To establish the baseline concentrations in the field, the microbial tracers were sampled
271 prior to being released at all five monitoring locations, over 120 hours and at hourly intervals.
272 The released tracers were used as input sources in the modelling of mass transport in the
273 Loughor Estuary and surrounding waters. The MS2 coliphage, which was released from the
274 Loughor Bridge, was used for calibration of the mass transport, as its location was at the most
275 upstream point of the estuary and best represented the transport processes within the estuary.
276 Initially, the tracers were considered to be conservative and the model was setup and run for
277 the transport processes of advection and dispersion. The evaluation on grid sizes has been
278 conducted for the mass dispersion sensitivity for a molecular diffusivity of 10^{-10} m²/s (Chapra,
279 2008), with refinements in the Loughor using resolutions of 100 m and 20 m respectively, for
280 the coarse and fine grids. The evaluation has been further conducted for estimating the
281 longitudinal dispersion of $10^1 - 10^3$ m²/s eddy diffusivity (Chapra, 2008).

282 The transport sensitivity of MS2 coliphage mass by the advection process has been
283 evaluated by assigning multi friction zones over the floodplains, particularly where the natural
284 features vary significantly. The inter-tidal areas have been divided into four zones with
285 different natural bed features, and the estimation on Manning's n values across the floodplains
286 have been calculated using the following equation (George and Schneider, 1989):

$$287 \quad n = (n_1 + n_2 + n_3) \quad (7)$$

288 where n_1 is the base value referring to the natural bare soil across the floodplains, which is
289 assumed to be in the range of 0.025 – 0.032 for firm soil; n_2 is the value of the degree of
290 irregularity, i.e. the rises and dips across floodplains, which is in the range of 0.030 – 0.045;
291 and n_3 is the vegetation value which accounts for growth density and average flow depth, in
292 the range of 0.010 – 0.050 (Hall and Freeman 1994). The zones have been characterized as the
293 estuarine downstream, tidal channel, sand dunes, and marshland areas, and are illustrated in
294 Figure 7.

295 Although the released microbial tracers were isolated from the seawater and sewage, the
296 literature suggested that they were undergoing decay processes in space and time due to the
297 dynamic estuarine environment (Kay *et al.*, 2005). In this modelling work, the decay process
298 of the tracers is presented as a simple first order degradation, with the decay rate being
299 represented by T_{90} values (Schnauder *et al.*, 2007) as in the following equation:

$$300 \quad k_b = -\frac{\ln 10}{T_{90}} \quad (8)$$

301 Initially, the decay process of the microbial tracers was modelled at the constant rates of
302 spatial and temporal resolution, with the T_{90} values tested in the range of 2.5 – 20 hours. The
303 constant decay rate reduced the total mass of the released microbial tracers exponentially with
304 time, with the effects of the estuarine environmental dynamics being excluded to gain an
305 understanding of the impact of the decay process.

306 In considering the effects of the estuarine environmental dynamics, especially the
307 inactivation of microbial tracers with sunlight, the decay process was modelled using different
308 rates during day and night times. The T_{90} value was set as a spatial constant in the range of 2.5
309 – 20 hours during day time, and increasing in the range of 30 – 60 hours during night time. The
310 process was modelled from 6 am to 6 pm using the day time decay, then followed by the night
311 time decay for the next 12 hours etc.

312 The simple first order degradation is an approach used to represent the survival of the
313 microbial tracers in natural waterbodies but, in reality, the process is non-linear as microbial
314 inactivation interacts with the dynamic environment. Several studies of the bacterial survival
315 in a natural waterbody have suggested that bacteria undergo a two-stage degradation as they
316 are exposed (Bowie *et al.*, 1985; Crane and Moore, 1986). The model equation used for this
317 modelling work can be written as:

$$318 \quad C_t = C_0 \exp^{-kt} + C_0' \exp^{-k't} \quad (9)$$

319 where C_t is the bacteria concentration at time t , C_0 and C_0' are the initial microbial
320 concentrations for two hypothetical stages, and k and k' are the constant decay rates for two
321 hypothetical microbial stages. The decay rates can also be represented by the T_{90} values, as
322 given in Equation 8. Figure 8 illustrates the total mass balance for the typical bacteria after
323 undergoing the two-stage decay process.

324 The two-stage microbial decay is a process of combining the two first-order kinetic decay
325 processes that occur simultaneously, with the two hypothetical microbial groups that decay at
326 different rates. The first stage decay process takes place with the microbial group with higher
327 initial counts and with a higher decay rate. This decay process, which occurs over a short
328 period, also considers the environmental shock effect to the bacteria as they are introduced to
329 the natural waterbody for the first time. The second stage decay results in the remaining bacteria
330 being of a lower initial count, with the lower rate. The rates for both the first and second stage
331 decay rates are functions of salinity, temperature, and solar radiation and turbidity. Table 2
332 illustrates the specific values of parameters used for the two-stage microbial decay model of
333 this work.

334

335 **3. Results and discussion**

336 ***3.1 Hydrodynamic modelling process***

337 Figure 9 illustrates a typical comparison between model predictions and measured field
338 data, for water levels at Ilfracombe, Mumbles, Hinkley Point and Newport, with the locations
339 being shown in Figure 2. The data for validation of the water levels was acquired from the
340 National Oceanography Centre, with the Bristol Channel Admiralty Chart 1179 being used for
341 validation of the tidal currents and a typical comparison of the predicted and measured tidal
342 current speeds and directions being shown in Figure 10. The results of the hydrodynamic
343 validation during spring tides are shown in Figures 9 and 10 for water level and tidal currents,

344 respectively. The modelled water levels and tidal currents agree well with the measured and
345 referred data, for both spring and neap tides. The validated hydrodynamic model gave
346 confidence in proceeding to the next modelling stage, both spatially and temporally.

347 *3.1.1 Hydrodynamic process at intertidal marshland*

348 The hydrodynamic model predictions were validated using measured data. Model
349 predictions were validated within the main domain, which showed similar comparisons to those
350 shown in Figures 9 and 10. There were very limited data available to perform a comprehensive
351 model calibration and validation study in the main area of interest, i.e. the Loughor Estuary.
352 This was expected to impact on the quality of the calibration and validation of the model and
353 therefore the model predictions, particularly in such a complex part of the model domain. The
354 model water level and tidal current predictions at Burry Port, Llanelli, and Lliw were compared
355 to the measured data as shown in Figure 13. It was observed that the predicted tidal currents at
356 Burry Port were improved by implementing the refined and improved bathymetry and
357 topography across the Loughor Estuary, although the predicted water levels did not
358 significantly change between the unrefined and refined modelling domains, as shown in
359 Figures 14 and 15. However, more current data are required for a comprehensive calibration
360 and validation of the model, with the bottom roughness representation in this area being
361 particularly significant since the bathymetry has been refined, particularly across the
362 marshlands and dunes.

363 The flooding process predictions over the intertidal floodplains of the Loughor Estuary,
364 for high and low water, are shown in Figures 16 and 17, respectively. The figures show that
365 Llanrhidian Marsh, located on the Southern bank of the estuary, was flooded to a level in excess
366 of 10 cm depth during high water. This emphasises the importance of implementing the
367 extended bathymetry for this study site.

368 *3.1.2 Hydrodynamic process at release and sampling locations*

369 Figures 18 and 19 illustrate the predicted water depths and/or water levels, and tidal
370 current speeds and directions at the release and sampling locations, respectively. It is worth
371 noting that the hydrodynamic processes at the release sites are dependent on the tidal process,
372 together with the river discharges from upstream of the Loughor catchment.

373

374 **3.2 Tracer transport and decay modelling processes**

375 *3.2.1 Transport calibrations*

376 The results, as illustrated in Figure 20, show the grid sizes were less sensitive with mass
377 molecular diffusivity at areas of higher advective transport (sites 408 – 412), but there were
378 significant effects at areas of lower advective transport (i.e. on the floodplains with dunes and
379 marshlands). Calibration studies were further conducted to estimate the longitudinal dispersion
380 values considered of $10^1 - 10^3$ m²/s eddy diffusivity (Chapra, 2008), with results showing the
381 grid sizes were much more sensitive, even at areas of higher advective transport (sites 408 –
382 412). The sensitivity analysis reflected that by decreasing the grid size pollutant transport by
383 dispersion varied more significantly than by advection, thereby highlighting the need to
384 represent the contribution of the natural bed features as accurately as possible.

385 Figure 21 illustrates the calibration results of dispersion transport for a range of estuarine
386 longitudinal dispersion coefficients and based on comparisons with the measured data. At
387 Loughor Boat Club, the result shows the effect of residual turbulent dispersion on the transport
388 of the pollutant in the upstream direction, while advection by the ebb current occurs for the
389 ebbing flow.

390 The zones with higher bottom roughness locally decreased the advective transport of the
391 tracer mass when compared to the base value. However, limited currents data in the main
392 channels and the marshlands were available to accurately validate the roughness values for the
393 various zones. This is due to the tidal range and limitations of the main channel and the nature

394 of the marshlands. Since there only one source of tracer existed in the estuary (Wyer *et al.*,
395 2014), microbial tracer could be used to validate the model hydrodynamics and the roughness
396 values used for the various zones. This was based on the view that accurate tracer predictions
397 required accurate hydrodynamic model predictions. The tracer concentration results at the
398 estuarine transport scale using different roughness scenarios are illustrated in Figure 22. This
399 Figure shows a significant reduction in the lateral transport rates with increased bottom
400 roughness values from the middle of estuarine channels to the marshlands, but slightly
401 increased transport rates longitudinally, with decreased bottom roughness values from the
402 upstream channel to the estuarine downstream region. The reduction in the tracer concentration
403 at Loughor Boat Club was deemed to be more significant, in comparison with the concentration
404 at Burry Port Harbour with the increased bottom roughness values, as illustrated in Figure 23.
405 However, these changes in the roughness reduced the tracer concentration at significant
406 amounts for the zones of sand dunes and marshlands at the Southern region of the estuary.
407 Calibration of the hydrodynamics based on tracer transport required tracer monitoring at
408 various points in each zone. Due to the lack of this type of tracer concentration observations,
409 tracer concentrations could not be used in selecting an accurate value for each roughness zone
410 in this study. Therefore, variable bed roughness values could not accurately be justified and
411 subsequently were not utilised in this study.

412 3.2.2 Decay calibrations

413 By modelling the microbial tracer decay with constant rates in space and time, this basic
414 decay process is incapable of simulating any interactions between the tracer decay and the
415 dynamic estuarine environment. The T_{90} values tested were from 2.5 to 20 hours, as illustrated
416 in Figure 24, however reducing the magnitude of the predicted tracer concentrations to the level
417 of measured data, suggested the correct range of microbial decay rates for the estuarine
418 environment.

419 The exponential mass reduction of the microbial tracer for constant rates continuously
420 decreased the tracer concentration at the sampling locations, but these values were not suitable
421 in comparison with the measured data for longer periods. The results also suggested that the
422 decay rate of the microbial tracer was higher during the early release and reduced gradually
423 with time as the mass was transported, in an analogous manner to the environmental shock
424 process.

425 Following the decay modelling of the microbial tracer using different decay rates for day
426 and night times, the approach showed an improvement to the modelled results, for the alternate
427 lower and higher ranges of the T_{90} values during day and night times respectively. The
428 improvement in the modelled results, however, only occurred for a duration period of less than
429 12 hours.

430 As illustrated in Figure 25, at Loughor Boat Club, the modelled concentration converged
431 to the measured data for the duration of 12 hours, beginning from 281 JD (Julian date) at 6 pm
432 with day-night T_{90} values of 5-60 hours, followed for the next 12 hour duration with day-night
433 T_{90} values of 7.5-60 hours, and continuously in the same pattern. The predicted concentrations
434 at Burry Port Harbour also improved in comparison with measured values when different day
435 and night time decay rates were used.

436 The microbial tracer inactivation by sunlight is dynamic in time and space, which depends
437 on the intensity of radiation due to both atmospheric conditions and light penetration through
438 the water column. However, a simplification of this process is required to gain an
439 understanding of the decay sensitivity due to the effects of sunlight.

440 Figure 26 illustrates the transport results of the modelled microbial tracer after
441 considering the two-stage decay processes at Loughor Boat Club and Burry Port Harbour. From
442 the results of the two-stage decay, the first peak of concentration of the tracer at Burry Port
443 Harbour was overestimated when compared with the measured data, but the subsequent peaks

444 in concentration closely matched the measured data. This is because the first peak results from
445 the first stage mass of the 3 hours T_{90} value. The T_{90} value of less than 3 hours for the first
446 stage decay could be used for modelling correctly the process at Burry Port Harbour.

447 The modelled microbial tracer concentrations at Loughor Boat Club were estimated
448 closely and within the range of measured data for all of the concentration peaks, which
449 represented the correct initial tracer mass of 99% for the second stage decay within the T_{90}
450 value range of 50 to 125 hours. The significant decrease from the second to the third peak
451 concentration at Loughor Boat Club is thought to be due to the effect of solar radiation and the
452 dispersion process.

453 The results of the modelled microbial tracer during slack and low tides at Loughor Boat
454 Club are estimated correctly compared to the measured data, which also represents a proper
455 flushing effect from the upstream discharge of the river catchments, at $5 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ that being
456 included for this modelling work. Elliot *et al.* (2012) also estimated the average river discharges
457 to be approximately $5 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ from the upstream catchments.

458

459 **4. Conclusion**

460 A hydro-environmental model of the Severn Estuary and Bristol Channel was set up to
461 study microbial tracer transport processes within the basin and, in particular, the Loughor
462 Estuary. Due to the complex nature of the bacterial sources in the estuary, such as diffuse
463 sources from the marshlands, the model was extended to include the entire wetted area of the
464 estuary by merging the bathymetry and LiDAR data over the floodplains etc. Due to
465 inaccuracies in the available LiDAR data, associated with surveys undertaken during high
466 water, various sources of data and interpolation were used. To model all of the complex
467 features in the estuary accurately, the extended model was refined to a high resolution of about

468 10 m. This increased the computational cost significantly and required the use of the High
469 Performance Computing (HPC) facilities at Cardiff University, namely Raven.

470 The refined model was calibrated against water levels and current data available for the
471 Loughor Estuary. However, it was clear that the available data were limited and more water
472 levels and current speeds and directions are required for any more comprehensive model
473 calibration and validation study in the future. These sources were included in the model, and
474 the concentration of tracers at each of the five different sampling locations, were predicted
475 using the model. These predictions were compared with the measured data to calibrate and
476 validate the model and improve on our understanding of the governing transport processes in
477 the estuary. Initially the tracers were assumed to be conservative and the model was setup and
478 calibrated for transport by the dispersion processes. The model was also setup using varying
479 bottom friction zones to improve the on the representation of the hydrodynamic and tracer
480 advection processes. It was noted that the tracer transport processes were influenced by
481 including different bottom friction representations in the model, which highlighted the potential
482 for implementing tracer studies for future validation studies of hydrodynamic simulations. In
483 particular, implementing a varying bed roughness coefficient was shown to be more realistic
484 in representing the changing bed roughness characteristics, known to occur across the estuary
485 from visual inspection and historical observations. However, different roughness zones could
486 not be validated due to a lack of available tracer observations at these zones. Changes in
487 concentrations as a result of different zones were more significant over the dunes and
488 marshlands, which highlights the future need for further data for improved model calibration
489 and validation across these region.

490 A mass balance analysis of the model was then undertaken for the tracer to ensure that
491 the tracer was conserved within the model. It was thought that removal of tracer from the
492 system due to mortality or, interaction with the sediments, vegetation or some other water

493 quality constituent could affect the tracer transport processes and the corresponding predicted
494 concentrations (Malham *et al.*, 2014). This removal process was modelled using a first-order
495 decay rate, followed by different day and night time decay rates, and a two-stage decay process.
496 Finally, model predictions indicated that the tracer did not flush out of the estuary immediately,
497 with this result having important implications in terms of faecal bacteria residence times within
498 the estuary. However, this needs to be studied further by implementing a well calibrated model.

499

500 **Acknowledgement**

501 The LiDAR topography data for the refined domain was provided by the Environmental
502 Agency and Natural Resources Wales. The authors are very grateful for the support provided
503 by the Smart Coasts team, including the Centre for Research into Environment and Health
504 (CREH) at Aberystwyth University, Natural Resources Wales, and Swansea City County
505 Council, who provided the microbial tracer field data. The authors are also grateful for the
506 financial support provided by the Food Standards Agency, which made this research study
507 possible. The modelling studies were undertaken using the Telemac Modelling System and the
508 encouragement of HR Wallingford is also acknowledged.

509

510 **References**

511 Ahmadian, R., Falconer, R. and Lin, B. (2010). Hydro-environmental modeling of proposed
512 Severn barrage, UK. *Proceedings of the ICE - Energy* **163**:107–117.

513

514 *Advanced Research Computing @ Cardiff (ARCCA)* [Online]. Available at:
515 <http://www.cardiff.ac.uk/arcca/index.html>.

516

517 Bowie, G.L., Mills, W.B., Porcella, D.B., Campbell, C.L., Pagenkopf, J.R., Rupp, G.L.,

518 Johnson, K.M., *et al.* (1985). *Rates, Constants, and Kinetics Formulations in Surface Water*
519 *Quality Modeling*.
520
521 Canadian Hydraulics Centre (2011). *Blue Kenue Reference Manual*.
522
523 Chapra, S.C. (2008). *Surface Water-Quality Modeling*. Waveland press.
524
525 Council of the European Union (CEU) (2000). Directive 2000/60/EC of the European
526 Parliament and of the Council of 23 October 2000 establishing a framework for Community
527 action in the field of water policy. *Official Journal of the European Communities* **43**:1–77.
528
529 Crane, B.S. and Moore, J.A. (1986). Modeling enteric bacterial die-off: a review. *Water, air,*
530 *and soil Pollution* **27**:411–439.
531
532 Elliott, M., Burdon, D., Callaway, R., Franco, A., Hutchinson, T., Longshaw, M., Malham, S.,
533 *et al.* (2012). *Burry Inlet Cockle Mortalities Investigation 2009–2011 (Technical Report to the*
534 *Environment Agency Wales)*.
535
536 Evanson, M. and Ambrose, R.F. (2006). Sources and growth dynamics of fecal indicator
537 bacteria in a coastal wetland system and potential impacts to adjacent waters. *Water Research*
538 **40**:475–486.
539
540 George, A.J.J. and Schneider, V.R. (1989). Guide for selecting Manning’s roughness
541 coefficients for natural channels and flood plains. *U.S. Geological Survey Water-Supply Paper*
542 2339.

543

544 Grant, S.B., Sanders, B.F., Boehm, A.B., Redman, J.A., Kim, J.H., Mrše, R.D., Chu, A.K., *et*
545 *al.* (2001). Generation of enterococci bacteria in a coastal saltwater marsh and its impact on
546 surf zone water quality. *Environmental Science & Technology* **35**:2407–2416.

547

548 Hall, B. and Freeman, G. (1994). Study of hydraulic roughness in wetland vegetation takes
549 new look at Manning's n. *US Army Corps of Engineers Waterways Experiment Station,*
550 *Wetlands Research Program Bulletin* **4**:1–4.

551

552 Heaps, N. and Jones, J. (1981). Three-dimensional model for tides and surges with vertical
553 eddy viscosity prescribed in two layers—II. Irish Sea with bed friction layer. *Geophysical*
554 *Journal International* **64**:303–320.

555

556 Ji, Z.-G. (2008). *Hydrodynamics and Water Quality: Modeling Rivers, Lakes, and Estuaries.*
557 John Wiley & Sons.

558

559 Kay, D., Kershaw, S., Lee, R., Wyer, M.D., Watkins, J. and Francis, C. (2008). Results of field
560 investigations into the impact of intermittent sewage discharges on the microbiological quality
561 of wild mussels (*Mytilus edulis*) in a tidal estuary. *Water Research* **42**:3033–3046.

562

563 Kay, D., Stapleton, C.M., Wyer, M.D., McDonald, A.T., Crowther, J., Paul, N., Jones, K., *et*
564 *al.* (2005). Decay of intestinal enterococci concentrations in high-energy estuarine and coastal
565 waters: towards real-time T 90 values for modelling faecal indicators in recreational waters.
566 *Water Research* **39**:655–667.

567

568 Lang, P. (2010). *TELEMAC Modelling System, 2D Hydrodynamics, TELEMAC-2D Software,*
569 *Version 6.0, User Manual.* EDF-DRD.

570

571 Malham, S.K., Rajko-Nenow, P., Howlett, E., Tuson, K.E., Perkins, T.L., Pallett, D.W., Wang,
572 H., *et al.* (2014). The interaction of human microbial pathogens, particulate material and
573 nutrients in estuarine environments and their impacts on recreational and shellfish waters.
574 *Environmental science. Processes & impacts* **16**:2145–55.

575

576 National River Flow Archive (NRFA) [Online]. Available at: <http://nrfa.ceh.ac.uk>.

577

578 Natural Resources Wales (2015). LiDAR Data Technical Note. :1–7.

579

580 Sanders, B.F., Arega, F. and Sutula, M. (2005). Modeling the dry-weather tidal cycling of fecal
581 indicator bacteria in surface waters of an intertidal wetland. *Water Research* **39**:3394–3408.

582

583 Schnauder, I., Bockelmann-Evans, B. and Lin, B. (2007). Modelling faecal bacteria pathways
584 in receiving waters. *Proceedings of the Institution of Civil Engineers-Maritime Engineering*
585 **160**:143–154.

586

587 Shen, C., Phanikumar, M.S., Fong, T.T., Aslam, I., McElmurry, S.P., Molloy, S.L. and Rose,
588 J.B. (2008). Evaluating bacteriophage P22 as a tracer in a complex surface water system: the
589 Grand River, Michigan. *Environmental science & technology* **42**:2426–2431.

590

591 Simpson, J.M., Santo Domingo, J.W. and Reasoner, D.J. (2002). Microbial source tracking:
592 State of the science. *Environmental Science and Technology* **36**:5279–5288.

593

594 Stapleton, C.M., Wyer, M.D., Kay, D., Bradford, M., Humphrey, N., Wilkinson, J., Lin, B., *et*
595 *al.* (2007). Fate and transport of particles in estuaries - Volume IV: Numerical modelling for
596 bathing water enterococci estimation in the Severn estuary. *Environment Agency Science*
597 *Report SC000002*:1–138.

598

599 The Ramsar Convention Secretariat (TRCS) [Online]. Available at: <http://www.ramsar.org>.

600

601 Weiskel, P.K., Howes, B.L. and Heufelder, G.R. (1996). Coliform contamination of a coastal
602 embayment: sources and transport pathways. *Environmental Science & Technology* **30**:1872–
603 1881.

604

605 Wyer, M., Kay, D., Naylor, S., Thomas, S. and Fracchiolla, A. (2014). *Loughor Estuary*
606 *Microbial Tracer Study Logistics: Field Study Outline*.

607

608 Youell, M., Osborn, H., Stuart, T., Evans, S. and Llewellyn-Davies, R. (2013a). *South West*
609 *Area Shellfish Waters Investigation Project - (Shellfish) Waterbody Action Report Burry Inlet*
610 *(North) November 2011 - March 2013*.

611

612 Youell, M., Osborn, H., Stuart, T., Evans, S. and Llewellyn-Davies, R. (2013b). *South West*
613 *Area Shellfish Waters Investigation Project - (Shellfish) Waterbody Action Report Burry Inlet*
614 *(South) November 2011 - March 2013*.