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Title: Democratizing water monitoring: Implementation of a community-based qPCR monitoring program for recreational water hazards.

Short title: Community-based qPCR monitoring for recreational water hazards

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Abstract

Recreational water monitoring can be challenging due to the highly variable nature of pathogens and indicator concentrations, the myriad of potential biological hazards to measure for, and numerous access points, both official and unofficial, that are used for recreation. The aim of this study was to develop, deploy, and assess the effectiveness of a quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) community-based monitoring (CBM) program for the assessment of bacterial and parasitic hazards in recreational water. This study developed methodologies for performing qPCR ‘in the field’, then engaged with water management and monitoring groups, and tested the method in a real-world implementation study to evaluate the accuracy of CBM using qPCR both quantitatively and qualitatively. This study found high reproducibility between qPCR results performed by non-expert field users and expert laboratory results, suggesting that qPCR as a methodology could be amenable to a CBM program.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Community based monitoring is now routinely used for conservation and environmental monitoring(1). Citizen science describes both a methodology of conducting large-scale research by recruiting volunteers, and refers to the process by which citizens are involved in scientific investigation as researchers. Citizen science can include community based monitoring (CBM) as a process of collaboration between government, industry, academia, and local community groups to monitor, track, and respond to issues (2–4).

The earliest incarnations of citizen science and CBM relied on volunteers as data collectors, but the discipline of CBM has grown and evolved. Recent arguments in favor of CBM suggest the field move away from a paradigm of “using citizens to do science” to an equal power relationship which views citizens as scientists, embracing some of the ideals of participatory action research (5).

CBM is poised to improve environmental decision-making. Its use has been on the rise due to budgetary constraints in both government and academia, but also because CBM can be a powerful methodology for generating large spatial or temporal datasets for monitoring/surveillance purposes. CBM improves scientific literacy, builds social capital, improves participation in local issues and benefits the environment (6,7). Traditional CBM programs have typically relied on volunteers to conduct biodiversity surveys, to conduct simple tests (i.e. Secchi disk tests for assessing water clarity), or to collect specimens and send them to central facilities for analysis. However, modern

monitoring methods conducted in academia, industry, and government have evolved considerably to include large-scale spatial assessment methods, for example: algal/cyanobacteria bloom-tracking satellites, next generation sequencing analysis, and eDNA monitoring. CBM programs also must evolve and advance as new technologies become available. In water monitoring especially, quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) has emerged as the method of choice for conducting routine compliance monitoring of water bodies (8).

Quantitative PCR methods for the detection of surrogates and hazards in water have existed for decades and can be used to detect minute quantities of an organisms' DNA in a complex matrix such as water, soil, or blood. qPCR is highly sensitive (in theory, capable of detecting a single copy of organismal DNA) and is very specific for particular regions of DNA. In the last decade, agencies responsible for monitoring the environment and health have begun to capitalize on the potential of qPCR. Some of the greatest strides have been made in health, especially after the USEPA EMPACT study, which found that levels of enterococcus as measured by qPCR correlate with risk of human gastrointestinal illness (9). Since then, strides have been made in correlating the amount of human-associated *Bacteroides* with human health targets (10,11). Screening for toxigenic cyanobacteria species is also moving towards molecular detection method. For example, in Poland, initial screening for toxin genes in recreational waters is conducted using qPCR, followed by immunochemical analysis to quantify the toxins (12). In related fields like environmental monitoring some locales have moved to molecular methods

for monitoring for the veliger stage of invasive zebra (*Dreissena polymorpha*) and quagga (*Dreissena rostriformis bugensis*) mussels.

As the effectiveness of qPCR diagnostic tests continues to be realized, it is apparent qPCR is an excellent choice for CBM, or more broadly, a decentralized monitoring system. qPCR is a platform, and with the infrastructure in place, monitoring for additional targets becomes a matter of designing/validating a new test and running it on the established infrastructure. For this reason qPCR and related molecular techniques have been touted as grand solutions for point of care diagnostics in infectious disease monitoring, this future has not yet been realized (13,14). The idea of portable diagnostic technologies that can be used to detect multiple targets, which feed information into a surveillance system, is attractive for a number of reasons, but the development to implementation gap is often wider than one would expect.

It is often presumed that highly skilled personnel are required to execute molecular biology methods such as qPCR. Additionally, technologies to conduct testing portably have only just begun to emerge onto the market and have not been fully vetted. This study is, to our knowledge, the first of its kind to test the rigor of qPCR for detection/quantification of biological hazards and their surrogates in water through a CBM-implementation study. Here, we test the feasibility, reproducibility and reliability of implementing portable qPCR water monitoring amongst a variety of groups (government, NGO, and private enterprise). This was assessed both quantitatively, by

conducting our own measurements on CBM partner samples, and qualitatively, through surveying our user groups to capture their perceptions of the technology and its fit within their individual contexts and organizations.

2.0 MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Implementation study design

We first connected with relevant stakeholders of recreational water in Alberta, and worked with them to determine their monitoring goals. Using a participatory research (PAR) approach, we then developed qPCR tests and testing methodologies that would fill these needs(15). Under this PAR approach, CBM partners selected study sites they felt would be appropriate, and we advised and assisted in this selection where it seemed appropriate. Since the goal of this study was to measure the effectiveness of a CBM monitoring program in a real world context, participants in the study were instructed to collect a duplicate sample or cut the filter membrane in half after filtration and send this to the university lab. Samples in our lab would be processed in an identical fashion to the field user to compare novice versus expert methodologies (Fig 1). Additionally, CBM partners sent their extracted DNA to our lab, which enabled us to also perform qPCR on their DNA extracts and to perform inhibition reactions.

2.2 Sample collection

Specific water collection methods are detailed below for each target of interest; regardless of the volume collected, all samples were then filtered through a 0.4 µm polycarbonate filter (Pall FMFNL1050) using an electric vacuum pump (Vaccubrand®). CBM partners had the option of either collecting and filtering a duplicate water sample for analysis, or cutting their filter membranes in half to be analyzed at the university lab.

2.2.1 Avian schistosome monitoring: Sample collection was conducted as described in Rudko et al (2018). Briefly, 25L water samples, collected one litre at a time across a shoreline up to ~1m deep were passed through a 20µm plankton tow. Debris from inside were washed down using well water (this is not a contamination risk when monitoring for avian schistosomes as these parasites are shed from snail hosts, and only when those snail hosts also co-occur with locations where the bird definitive host's feces are also present(16)) followed by a 95% ethanol wash and collection in sterile 50-mL conical tubes.

2.2.2 Toxin-producing cyanobacteria monitoring: Sample collection was conducted from watercraft operated by CBM partners on various lakes. Samples were collected through a one-way foot valve attached to weighted 3/4" Nalgene tubing. Samples were only collected from the euphotic zone as determined by a Secchi disk measurement at each lake's deepest point. Ten sampling locations were selected for each lake, with water being composited from each sampling location into a central container. Water from this container was then poured into 50-mL conical tubes.

Equipment was decontaminated between lakes using quaternary ammonium compound to prevent contamination between lakes.

2.2.3 HF183 monitoring: All samples were collected by scooping two 50ml samples in sterile, conical, collection tubes from the surface water 15m from shore every 150m along the entire perimeter of each participating lake.

2.3 DNA extraction

2.3.1 In field method

DNA extraction was conducted using the MI Sample Prep Kit (Biomeme) according to the manufacturers' instructions. The MI sample prep kit is designed to function in the field. Lysis is accomplished by placing a filter in the lysis buffer and shaking for one minute. Next, the solution is passed through a syringe unit fitted with a DNA binding column. The column undergoes two washes to remove proteins and salts, and then is dried using an acetone buffer before elution. In 2018, the avian schistosomes monitoring group was interested in transitioning to a DNA extraction method that would allow for batch processing of samples. We therefore opted to transition their program to the DNAeasy DNA extraction kit (Rudko et al. 2018). To set up this remote laboratory in a cost-effective manner, equipment (centrifuge, heating block, and vortex) were sourced from Dot Scientific (Supplementary Table 2), and

pipettes were from VWR. Sample blanks were conducted by partners every batch of 24 samples processed.

2.4 qPCR methods

2.4.1 Maintaining workflows: All master mix components were mixed in a clean room located at the University of Alberta and aliquoted into 0.2 ml thin wall PCR tubes (Axygen). All plasmid dilutions and preparation of positive controls occurred in a deadbox. Standards and reaction tubes were prepared independently to prevent cross contamination.

2.4.2 In lab qPCR method

Samples were quantitated relative to a plasmid standard curve which contained 50,000, 5000, 500, 50, 5 and 0.5 copies. Each of the gene targets below was synthesized (IDTDNA) into a puc19 plasmid vector (Genscript). Thermocycling was performed on the ABI 7500 Fast or the QuantStudio 3 using a standard, 40 cycle, two-step reaction. The thermocycling parameters were a 30 second hold at 95 degrees, followed by a 30 second denaturation cycle at 95 degrees, and a 60 degrees annealing cycle. Each qPCR reaction had a final volume of 20, and we added 5µL of DNA to each reaction.

2.4.3. Avian schistosomes: The *18S* avian schistosomes-targeting qPCR assay was performed as described in Narayanan et al (2015) and Rudko et al (2018). The LOD₉₅ of this technique is 3.4 gene copies/ rxn (17) (Table 1S). qPCR master mix (IDT DNA) containing 1x Master mix, and 200nm forward reverse primer and fluorescein-labeled probe was used.

2.4.4 Toxigenic (mcyE gene) cyanobacteria monitoring: The mcyE gene

targeting qPCR assay was performed as described in Qiu et al. (2013) and Sipari et al. (2010) (Table 1S). The LOD₉₅ of this technique is 6.25 copies/5μL. qPCR master mix (IDT DNA), containing 1x Master mix, and 200nm forward reverse primer and 125nm fluorescein-labeled probe was used.

2.4.5 HF183 bacteroides monitoring: This 16S gene-targeting assay was

performed as described in Haugland et al. (2010). The LOD₉₅ of this technique is 7.2 gene copies/rxn. qPCR master mix (IDT DNA), containing 1x Master mix, and 100nm forward reverse primer and 80nm fluorescein-labeled probe was used (Table 1S).

2.4.6 In-field qPCR method

Mastermix components and concentrations were unchanged between the lab method and the field method, nor were the thermocycling parameters. CBM partners received 4 control tubes, which consisted of a negative control, and 3 standards (5000,500, and 50 copies). They were instructed not to open these tubes to prevent contamination. CBM partners also received 12 tubes to add their own samples DNA to (Fig 1).

2.4.7 Inhibition controls

219 Inhibition controls were performed as described in Rudko et al. (2017) (20).
220 Plasmid control DNA was spiked in excess into qPCR reactions containing 5µL of water
221 sample DNA, and inhibition was defined as a 3-ct (i.e. 1 log) shift in amplification.

222

223 **2.5 Creation of the field kits**

224 Field kits given to CBM partners contained: the M1 DNA extraction kit
225 (Biomeme), 1.5 ml snap-cap tubes, sample collection vials (Corning), a 20 micron
226 plankton tow (Acquatic Research Instruments), 0.45 µM polycarbonate filter funnels
227 (Pall, FMFNL 1050), a 20 µL pipette, a box of pipette tips, PCR tubes, a laptop (some
228 Acer, some Chromebook) an Open qPCR thermocycler, all the necessary cables, and
229 reaction strips (Fig 1, Supplementary Materials).

230

231 **2.6 Training of CBM partners**

232 CBM partners were provided with a training video, and a written protocol.
233 Additionally, they were provided with two in-person training session. Typically we would
234 demonstrate the method in our laboratory, and the second training session would on-
235 site at their location, where the CBM partner would run their first samples.

236

237 **2.7 Capturing CBM partners perceptions of the method**

238 CBM partners (6 in total) were administered a survey with open-ended questions
239 regarding the implementation of the method (Supplemental Table 3). All 6 CBM
240 partners submitted a completed survey. Surveys were blinded from the researchers to

encourage honesty from participants; a research associate received the surveys via email and edited them to remove any personal identifiers before sending them to the analyst. Data were analyzed using deductive thematic analysis(21). Open coding was used, and codes were developed and modified as the analysis took place. Analyzing the codes enabled the identification of initial themes; these preliminary themes were refined to demonstrate interesting patterns in the data that were important to the successes or failures of the implementation. Themes were realized semantically (i.e. the explicit or surface meaning of the data), and latently, to identify and examine underlying ideas and assumptions that inform the semantic content of the data (22).

2.8 Ethics Statement

All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards. This research was approved by the University of Alberta Human Research Ethics Board: Approval # Pro00048511.

2.9 Bland-Altman plots

Bland-Altman plots were created in GraphPad Prism 8 on the log transformed copy number per 5µL data. Log transformation was performed prior to conducting the analysis because this method assumes that the SD of method differences is uniform

across measurements, but it has been documented that variability in measurement becomes greater when a larger value or amount of analyte is being measured (23,24).

2.10 Statistics

Statistical analyses were conducted in SPSS (version 25). Graphs were made in GraphPad Prism 8. Limit of Detections were calculated using the POD/LOD calculator (25). Maximum log difference was calculated as the upper 95% confidence interval of average of the log difference between all sets of paired samples. Interclass correlation analysis was performed in SPSS on the log-transformed data using a two-way random effects model with average measures, and a type c model with a consistency definition. A two-way random effects model was selected because it models both an effect of operator and the sample, and assumes that both are drawn randomly from larger populations.

3.0 RESULTS

3.1 THERMOCYCLER COMPARISON

3.1.1 Detection limits of the Open qPCR thermocyclers

The limit of detection 95 (LOD₉₅) of the Open qPCR thermocyclers is 63.4 gene copies (GC)/5µL (lower limit 43.7 GC/5µL, upper limit 89.2 GC/5µL, n= 40, based on all qPCR tests). This is approximately 1-log higher than the same assays (Avian schistosomes LOD₉₅: 3.4 GC/5µL; Toxic cyanobacteria LOD₉₅: 6.25 GC/5µL ; HF183 LOD₉₅:

7.2 GC/5µL) performed using our laboratory ABI 7500/QuantStudio 3 thermocycler. All of these assays have been validated in previous papers, the names, sequences, and the references for the primers and probes are found in Supplementary Table 1. Standard curves performed optimally using the Open qPCR thermocyclers (Table 1).

3.2 Comparison between machines

Interclass correlation coefficients (ICC) were calculated to compare CBM partner DNA extracts run on the Chaibio Open qPCR machine, and our laboratory ABI 7500/QuantStudio 3. In 2017, the ICC of the avian schistosomes assay was 0.88 (95% CI: 0.85 lower, 0.90 upper), and in 2018, it was 0.76 (95% CI: 0.56 lower, 0.866 upper), in 2018 this group used 2 Open qPCR machines, and this ICC is a pooled result of both of these machines. In 2018, the ICC of the toxic cyanobacteria assay was 0.57 (95% CI: 0.1 lower, 0.86 upper) (Table 2). Maximum log differences were also calculated and ranged from 1-1.5 depending on the test and year (Table 2).

3.3 CBM PARTNER COMPARISON

3.3.1 Semi-quantitative analysis using Bland-Altman plots

Reproducibility was assessed using the semi-quantitative Bland-Altman plot. Bland-Altman plots graph the average of two measurements on the X-axis and the difference between these measurements on the Y-axis. The Bland-Altman plot for avian schistosomes monitoring for 2017 and 2018 show a linear pattern at lower copy numbers, but at higher copy numbers show uniform variability (Fig 2). Bland-Altman

analysis of the toxic cyanobacteria test shows uniform variability within the limits of agreement (1.96 times the standard deviation). A paired t-test using the log-transformed data was used to compare the within-subject standard deviations of the partner data compared to the lab-generated data. They were significantly different based on an F-test and Welch's t-test ($p < 0.0001$, $F=6288$, mean difference \pm SEM: 20326 ± 9843).

3.3.2 Interclass Correlation Analysis

ICC analysis was performed to compare user and lab samples. In 2017, the Biomeme MI extraction kit was used for swimmer's itch monitoring. The ICC between user and lab extraction samples was 0.539 (95% CI: 0.320 lower, 0.680 upper). The ICC 2018 for avian schistosomes monitoring was 0.593 (95% CI: 0.344 lower, 0.747 upper). The ICC mcyE was 0.640 (95% CI: -0.250 lower, 0.896 upper) (Table 2). Maximum log differences ranged from 1.3-1.4 (Table 2).

3.3.3 Inhibition controls

PCR Inhibition was tested on partners DNA extractions and on DNA extractions performed in house. Between 5-8% of samples were slightly inhibited in both partner and in house extractions. Cyanobacteria samples were most likely to be inhibited. Inhibited samples were excluded from the analyses in this paper.

3.4 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

3.4.1 User Perceptions

User perceptions of the program were captured through a written survey that was administered to participants. The questions are available in Supplementary Table 3. Thirty-three percent (33%) of respondents stated that they had some prior knowledge of molecular biology, PCR (polymerase chain reaction), eDNA, or DNA based detection in general prior to the use of the qPCR field method. Fifty percent (50%) reported having low prior knowledge and one participant had no prior knowledge. The same 33% of respondents who reported some knowledge with molecular biology and methods also reported having performed some form of PCR in the past. The rest of respondents reported not having performed PCR (50%) and one participant did not remember. However, prior knowledge did not impact the training all users were provided.

3.4.2 Thematic analysis

User surveys underwent deductive thematic analysis whereby surveys were coded, and then codes were organized into themes (22). The codes identified and relevant excerpts from the surveys are presented in Supplementary Table 4. The first theme identified is “rapidly responding to hazards”. This theme captured the CBM partners’ perceptions on the speed of the qPCR method and their perceived ability to respond to issues quickly. The second theme identified was the question of who controls the CBM monitoring system. This theme emerged from CBM partners expressing a desire for independence and control over the interpretation of results. The

third theme identified was that the triangulation of training was valuable in that most CBM partners suggested that the written and video protocols (complemented with a few in person training sessions) were important to them and enhanced their learning. A subtheme that emerged from this theme was “learning and communication”.

4.0 DISCUSSION

In this study, the accuracy of a community based qPCR-monitoring system was assessed. We assessed the accuracy of the portable qPCR machines relative to a “core” machine, and the ability for CBM partners to execute the method. Our analyses have demonstrated that a CBM qPCR monitoring program can yield accurate results for different targets (i.e.: eukaryotic versus prokaryotic); however, if the method itself is too time consuming or challenging to be completed by relatively novice CBM partners, a larger scale implementation of the CBM monitoring program could be less reliable.

Our intention was to implement a CBM qPCR system in a real-world context. As Fig 1 details, we began the development of this project by consulting with local stakeholder groups and assessing their interest in the project and what types of biological hazards and surrogates they might be interested in monitoring for. Our goal was to have partners run a sufficient number of tests, not to prescribe a particular test for CBM partners to run. Therefore, we adapted to the needs of our CBM partners and adapted a variety of existing qPCR tests to the field equipment and testing protocol. Additionally,

some of the groups we worked with had their own scientific questions they wanted to answer, and we facilitated this.

Our laboratory distributed all materials required to complete testing to users, additionally we prepared all qPCR master mix components (enzyme mix, primers and probes), and aliquoted these into individual reaction tubes for users. The purpose of this was two-fold, to prevent contamination of CBM partners' qPCR reactions, and for simplicity for partners. Our laboratory facilities are equipped with a PCR clean room, as well as separate pre and post amplification rooms. By preparing reaction tubes and controls, we could prevent CBM partners handling high copy number controls (a likely source of contamination). Additionally, CBM partners were instructed not to open tubes that had undergone qPCR. The Biomeme DNA extraction does not utilize pipettes, but all users were supplied with filter-tipped 20µL pipettes to add their purified DNA into their reaction tubes. Pre-preparing reaction tubes made running qPCR as simple as adding the DNA and pressing "Start" on the Open qPCR machine.

Analysis of the qPCR data was also performed by our laboratory. CBM partners would download their spreadsheets from the Open qPCR and send them either via email or google drive to our labs, where we would analyze control data, and calculate copy numbers and, where possible, organismal numbers for partners. Again, this was done in attempt to preserve the simplicity of the method, and because analysis of qPCR data is complex and requires an expert eye.

394

395 The CBM partners participating in this study ran 985 total samples over the two years of
396 this program. Deductive thematic analysis was performed to analyze CBM partner
397 surveys, which is a method of analysis by which codes and theme development were
398 directed by our existing research questions. Three primary themes emerged from this
399 analysis.

400

401 The first theme identified was “Rapidly responding to hazards”. Our CBM partners liked
402 that the “time requirement from the qPCR testing method was less than the traditional
403 operational time frame...” However, when asked about the time it took for the method
404 to be completed and if this time was appropriate, all of our CBM partners equated
405 rapidness of the method to a rapid policy response to hazards. This was likely not the
406 reality, as any hazard was dealt with formally through our existing regulatory system
407 which is currently still adapting to the implementation of qPCR methodologies for water
408 monitoring at their core facilities, and for which clear policy frameworks and courses of
409 action do not yet exist for qPCR test results. The only exception to this reality was the
410 avian schistosomes monitoring group, who liked “that [they] could use the next day to
411 change [their] field procedures and experimental designs”.

412

413 The second theme was “Independence and verification of a CBM monitoring system”.
414 Two codes that emerged during analysis were CBM partners expressing a desire for
415 more independence and more control over the interpretation of results. Our study was

designed to remove data interpretation from participant's hands, and instead place it in our own hands (with the vision that in a CBM monitoring system that data analysis would be accomplished by a central data processor or the enforcement agency). We thought this would be beneficial because the interpretation of qPCR data is not trivial (especially for quantitative tests that can be correlated to organismal or health outcome levels), and to prevent panic if CBM partners saw positive samples that, while meaningful, might not constitute a real concern. Nonetheless, CBM partners said "the only way these results would be more valuable would be to have a quantitative number which would correlate to specific standard or relative unit conversation chart." In reality, this was what we were doing for CBM partners, but this group expressed a desire to conduct this independent of our assistance. Additionally, we had a group suggest that they wished the data was published online, "If the data was available or if there was a way to input the data online into a database. Then we could use the results more easily," they said. Our CBM partners also expressed a desire to validate their results and have access to quality control data. One user suggested "...a visual that compared our results to yours so we have some idea of if we were capturing the results accurately." Another specifically suggested that, "...third party verification can be one method to enhance validity of the results," suggesting a desire for some oversight to ensure data quality, but also a desire for CBM partners to know that they are contributing meaningful and accurate results.

One of the biggest challenges for CBM programs is data validation, storage, and visualization. Many communities lack the ability to share CBM data online. However, tools are emerging to address this challenge, including the Lake Observer mobile app through the Global Lake Ecological Observatory Network, the DataStream through the Gordon Foundation, or the ABMI's NatureLynx. Allowing community partners to upload and visualize their results may help to create a sense that partners are part of something bigger than just their lake. It might allow them to contextualize their results relative to other water bodies, log additional environmental observations, or upload photographs of recreational waters. These apps can also be helpful to track long-term results, or to have the data incorporated into reporting by other agencies.

The third theme we identified was that the triangulation of training was valuable. CBM partners appreciated the three forms of training. Most CBM partners found "the training videos were really useful." CBM partners found the written protocol useful as a reference, but suggested that after "around 2-3 runs of the machine this resource was no longer needed." Most CBM partners stressed the importance of the in-person training and one user stated that "the in-person training went a long way in creating and (sic) increased comfort and confidence in the machine." Studies conducted assessing training in citizen science or CBM projects have found that multiple training sessions can improve data accuracy (26).

A subtheme that emerged during analysis was that CBM partners appreciated

the learning process. One user stated that they were "...always up for learning new methodologies to answering scientific questions." CBM programs are often touted for the positive learning experiences they create, and it is nice to see that ours also had positive learning outcomes for participants (6). A number of CBM partners also suggested that they appreciated the ability to communicate results quickly to their volunteers or to residents on the lakes they worked on. This type of a CBM project could greatly improve science literacy and communication.

The LOD₉₅ is the lowest concentration of DNA that can be reliably detected in 95% of samples; it is a measure of sensitivity. The Open qPCR thermocycler has a higher limit of detection when using a Taqman fluorescein probe than our ABI core thermocyclers (63.4 DNA copies/5μL versus >10 DNA copies/5μL across all methods). The field thermocyclers are less sensitive than the core laboratory machine. Understanding this change in detection limit is important to determining if the CBM qPCR system would be effective for a particular test. For instance, if the concentration of the target that might constitute a risk is below the LOD₉₅ for the Open qPCR thermocyclers, "risky" samples will appear negative as the thermocycler is not capable of detecting them. For example, when we deployed the human-associated bacteroides HF183 CBM testing for recreational shoreline source tracking in Michigan, USA, our CBM partners reported only a single positive sample. However, when these DNA extracts were analyzed, 22.7% (54/237), were found to be positive for between 15-35 copies DNA/5ul. Seven (0.07%) of these samples approached the LOD₉₅ of the Open qPCR thermocycler, and CBM

partners detected one of these samples. A recent study found that a HF183 gene copy number of 3220 HF183/100ml exceeds the USEPA benchmark risk of GI illness (10). This level is equivalent to a gene copy number of 161 HF183 GC/5ul—well above the detection limit of the Open qPCR thermocycler. Thus, outbreak scenarios would be clearly discernable. However, this also illustrates an example of how the monitoring project must be clearly rooted in a management outcome. If the intention of the monitoring program is to detect potential outbreak scenarios and initiate action, the increased detection limit is acceptable, yet if the management context is detection of leaking septic areas or source tracking fecal markers on a beach, this detection limit may be inappropriate to answer such questions. This example highlights the importance of working closely with CBM partners to understand their specific monitoring questions, and critically appraising and assessing if CBM qPCR is capable and appropriate to answer these questions.

ICC analysis for the avian trematode assays showed a very high level of agreement between the Open qPCR thermocycler and the core thermocyclers (Table 2). We can expect highly reproducible results between the core machines and the field units. The toxic cyanobacteria test showed much lower levels of agreement between the field thermocycler and the lab thermocycler. We discovered through analyzing the control standards that the heated lid on the field thermocycler was loose, and therefore was failing to engage properly with the tops of the reaction tubes (i.e. machine failure). However, from a quality control perspective, the fact that we were able to detect a

probable machine failure with a sample size comparison of merely 11 is extremely promising for future larger scale CBM qPCR systems. It suggests that it would be possible with a relative low number of samples being confirmed by a core facility or quality control partner to detect user or machine error once a baseline level of agreement for a single test had been established.

The comparison between CBM partners performing DNA extraction and myself performing the DNA extraction was first assessed semi-quantitatively using the Bland-Altman plot (Table 2). The results of this analysis for the almost all targets show a linear and negative linear pattern at lower gene copy numbers. This can be due to bias between methods, but can also be caused by a difference in the within-subject standard deviation (24). This seems plausible as users with potentially very different skill levels are performing the two methods. A paired t-test using the log-transformed data was used to compare the within-subject standard deviations. They were significantly different, which suggests that the linear pattern observed is due to an increased variability in CBM partner data.

Partner extracted samples are typically lower in copy number than expert extracted samples (Fig 2). This is likely due to differences in DNA extraction efficiency between the CBM partners and myself. However, it seems more experienced users become better at DNA extraction over time, as both the avian schistosomes monitoring

group and the toxic cyanobacteria monitoring groups seem to improve over time. (Fig 2).

Its unsurprised that the ICCs and maximum log differences would be higher when comparing partner and expert extracted DNA samples due to the highly variable nature of DNA extraction, and because the duplicate samples run in the central lab could never be expected to contain exactly the same amount of organism. The ICCs of the DNA extraction comparison ranged from 0.54 to 0.67, with maximum log differences ranging from 1.3 to 1.4 (Table 2). It is important to note that for the avian schistosomes monitoring program, a change was made in 2018 to establish a full functional remote laboratory, and move these partners onto using the Qiagen DNAEasy DNA extraction kit. This change was made at the request of the CBM partners, who would typically collect and analyze hundreds of samples each field season. Details about the equipment in this satellite laboratory can be found in Supplementary Table 2.

Ebentier et al. (2013) conducted a reproducibility analysis of five core laboratories on a panel of microbial source tracking qPCR markers. They calculated reproducibility as the maximum expected log difference (within 95% confidence) between the different laboratories. Their analysis demonstrated reproducibility coefficients for different qPCR assays were highly variable, between 0.09-0.66 log. The methods that were likely to produce higher copy numbers, like Enterococcus qPCR testing via USEPA Method 1611, showed higher reproducibility coefficients than methods that were likely to produce

lower copy numbers, like human associated bacteroides marker HF183. They also analyzed the contribution to variability of a variety of factors (the sample itself, equipment, procedures) to the measurement. Their paper concluded that when protocols and reagents were not standardized, agreement between methods decreased. They highlighted the need for standardization of protocols and consumables before implementation of studies involving multi-laboratory experiments (27,28).

The maximum log difference of the CBM qPCR monitoring program higher than the values reported in the Ebentier paper. Reproducibility between the same extract performed by myself and the CBM partners ranged from 0.44 to 1.5 log, and reproducibility coefficients of between partner and expert extracted split samples ranged from 1.3 to 1.4 log (Table 2). It should be noted that the majority of the qPCR methods deployed routinely detected copy numbers in excess of 1 log, thus we might expect higher variability between replicates at these larger copy numbers (Fig 2). CBM qPCR monitoring programs will likely generate data that does have higher variability. It's important to weigh the pros of a CBM qPCR approach, notably that a CBM qPCR approach may result in increased numbers of samples from across a larger geographic area, and builds relationships and partnerships across sectors.

Rapid monitoring approaches, including CBM qPCR, should be deployed within the context of a policy framework and management response plan that can support

acting upon the results generated. The response plan for samples that might constitute a hazard should be clear to CBM partners. If response plans lack transparency, a CBM partner who encounters a sample that contains a high level of an indicator organism, but upon subsequent tests shows low or no risk, might be dismayed by a lack of response by government. A CBM qPCR monitoring system in recreational water would need to prioritize communication and understanding between regulators and CBM partners, and would likely function best when addressing specific objectives(29).

Whether the rapid CBM qPCR monitoring system enables a more rapid response to hazards is yet to be seen; however, CBM qPCR monitoring certainly has the advantage of being able to generate data over a large geographic area and for numerous hazards. It could be adapted to measure organisms not typically considered in monitoring programs; as we have demonstrated in our study, the approach works equally well for eukaryotic hazards like parasitic organisms as it does for the more traditional prokaryotic targets like enteric bacteria. The flexibility inherent in CBM qPCR makes this an attractive and adaptive platform for governments and communities to answer management related questions for their watersheds.

Our vision for the CBM qPCR monitoring system was that data analysis would not occur in the hands of CBM partners (Fig 1). Analysis of qPCR data, while not extremely complex, does require a more comprehensive understanding of qPCR data; additionally, data interpretation is typically the most erroneous component over CBM programs

(30,31). Despite our CBM partners desire for independence in data interpretation, we feel that a central ‘expert’ should still be responsible for data interpretation in order to ensure quality in reporting. This could be a single laboratory or a network of QC partners. However, our successes establishing a field laboratory for avian schistosomes and enteric bacteria monitoring in Michigan suggests that a CBM qPCR network could operate effectively within a framework that paired CBM volunteers with quality control partners that could also be operating remotely from the central agency.

Participants in our study expressed a desire to know how well they were performing the method. This highlights an important component of a large-scale CBM monitoring program: a compliance testing system which would test and train potential participants to ensure the method is being conducted appropriately. We believe a this must include third-party verification of a certain percentage of all samples tested. While verification is important to ensure CBM partners are generating reliable results, it is essential that communication be prioritized. This includes responding quickly to results reported by CBM partners when a potential hazard is detected. It also includes being honest with partners about their performance, and willingness by both the CBM and regulatory partners to collect and assess additional samples when clarification or confirmation is required.

5.0 Conclusion

To our knowledge, this is the first study to comprehensively test the accuracy of a CBM qPCR water monitoring approach in a real-world context. Our results show that when implemented in a controlled manner, such that a central body controls materials and protocols, results can be highly reproducible. Our study also suggests that CBM partners, whose buy-in would be required for ensuring program longevity, value the method, the data, and what they could do with that data.

CBM qPCR could process a large number of samples from a wide geographical area that could aid beach management for health and invasive species. CBM qPCR could act as a valuable component of an environmental monitoring surveillance system, but could also be a viable option for monitoring and management of rural drinking water systems. qPCR is a platform, and therefore a myriad of diagnostic tests could be deployed as needed in remote locations. While CBM qPCR programs may be more variable than traditional monitoring programs, they could serve as a comprehensive screening system for traditional monitoring programs. In many contexts, CBM qPCR programs could be as accurate as traditional testing and have the potential to replace traditional testing.

6.0 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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7.0 FIGURE LEGENDS

Fig 1. Implementation process of the CBM qPCR program. Cells with blue backgrounds are processes done in collaboration between the central laboratory and the CBM partners, yellow backgrounds indicate processes completed by the central laboratory, and red backgrounds indicate processes completed by the CBM partners.

Fig 2. Bland-Altman graphs of the difference between the CBM partners data and the central labs data. Limits of agreement (1.96 times the standard deviation) are bounded by the dotted lines. Top: Agreement of the 2017 Avian schistosome monitoring program. Middle: Agreement of the 2018 avian schistosomes monitoring program. Bottom: Agreement of the microcystin gene monitoring program.

9.0 TABLES

766

767 **Table 1. Standard curves of each assay performed on the Open qPCR and the core lab**

768 **machine.** Data shown represent the average of 5 runs (each consisting of two internal

769 replicates of each standard). Ideal standard curves have an efficiency of between 0.98

770 and 0.99, a slope of -3.32, and an efficiency of 100%, which can also be represented as

771 an amplification factor of 2, which suggests product has doubled every cycle.

	Copy number in standard	Cycle threshold (average, st dev)		r2	Slope	Amplification factor
Cyanobacteria mcyE assay						
Open qPCR	5000	30.1	0.27	0.980	-3.05	2.100
	500	33.2	1			
	50	36.3	1.6			
ABI qPCR	5000	28.7	1.5	0.990	-3.700	1.800
	500	32.2	2.4			
	50	36.1	0.91			
Human-associated bacteroides (HF183) assay						
Open qPCR	5000	25.6	0.25	0.99	-3.46	1.94
	500	29.2	0.24			
	50	32.9	0.28			
ABI qPCR	5000	24.8	0.13	0.98	-4.4	1.87
	500	28.1	0.31			

	50	33.7	0.26			
Pan-avian schistosome assay						
Open qPCR	5000	27.3	0.41	0.99	-3.03	2.1
	500	30.3	0.64			
	50	33.3	0.52			
ABI qPCR	5000	26.9	0.52	0.99	-3.03	2.1
	500	30.5	0.47			
	50	32.9	0.54			

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774 **Table 2. Interclass correlation Coefficients and Maximum Log Difference.** comparing

775 the reproducibility of samples run on the Chaibio Open qPCR thermocycler and the ABI

776 7500 thermocycler/QuantStudio, and

Comparison Of Partner-Extracted DNA Samples Performed On The Open qPCR Versus The Quantstudio 3/ABI 7500					
qPCR Test	Interclass	Maximum			
	correlation coefficient	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI	log difference	N
Toxic cyanobacteria					
2018	0.57	0.1	0.86	1.2	12
Toxic cyanobacteria	0.6	0.24	0.8	1.5	40

2019					
Avian schistosomes					
2017	0.88	0.85	0.9	1	255
Avian schistosomes					
2018	0.76	0.56	0.87	1	47
Comparison Of Partner-Extracted And Expert-Extracted Split Samples					
	Interclass			Maximum	
	correlation	Lower	Upper	log	
	coefficient	95% CI	95% CI	difference	N
Toxic cyanobacteria					
2018	0.65	-0.25	0.9	1.4	12
Toxic cyanobacteria					
2019	0.67	0.366	0.83	1.3	39
Avian schistosomes					
2017	0.54	0.32	0.68	1.4	255
Avian schistosomes					
2018	0.59	0.34	0.75	1.3	70

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779 **10.0 SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES**

780

781 **Table 1S: Primers and Probes used in this study**

Name	Sequence (5'-3')	Reference
Toxic cyanobacteria (mcyE gene targeting)		
127 Fwd	AAGCAAAGCTGCTCCCGGTATC	Qiu et al., 2015
186 Probe	/FAM/CAATGGTTAT/ZEN/CGAATTGACCCCGGAGAAAT /IABkFQ	Qiu et al., 2015
247 Rev	CAATGGGAGCATAACGAGTCAA	Qiu et al., 2015
Avian trematode (18S gene targeting)		
JVSF 18S Fwd	AGCCTTTCAGCCGTATCTGT	Narayanan et al., 2015
JVSP 18S Probe	/FAM/AGGCC/ZEN/TGCCTTGAGCACT/IABkFQ/	Narayanan et al., 2015
JVSR 18S Rev	TCGGGAGCGGACGGCATCTTTA	Narayanan et al., 2015
Human associated bacteroides HF183 (16S targeting)		
HF183 Fwd	ATCATGAGTTCACATGTCCG	Haugland et al., 2010.
BFDProbe	FAM/CTGAG/ZEN/AGGAAGGTCCCCACATTGGA/IABkFQ/	Haugland et al., 2010.
BFDRev	CGTAGGAGTTTGGACCGTGT	Haugland et al., 2010.

Table 2S. Field method materials used in this study

Name	Manufacturer/Catalogue Number
Biomeme MI DNA extraction kit	Biomeme

DNAeasy DNA extraction kit	Qiagen (69506)
0.4 µM filters	Pall (FMFNL1050)
Vacuum pump	Vacubrand ME 1C
PCR tubes and caps	Axygen (PCR-02-FCP-C and PCR-0108-LP-C)
Microcentrifuge tubes	Eppendorf (Z666548-250EA)
Open qPCR thermocycler (single channel)	ChaiBio.
20 µL Micropipette	VWR (470231-608)
Maximum Recovery Filter tips	Axygen (TF-20-L-R-S)
Pelican Storm Case	Pelican IM2450
20µM Plankton Tow	Acquatic Research Instruments
Primetime Gene Expression Master Mix	IDTDNA (1055772)
Computers	Google Chromebook and Acer Switch One.
DNAeasy DNA extraction equipment- found in the field laboratory	
Spectrafuge 24D	Dot scientific (C2400)
VorTemp 56 Shaking Incubator	Dot scientific (S2056)
Mortexer™	Dot scientific (BV-1005)
Mortexer™ 12 sample head	Dot scientific (BV1000-H15)

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Table 3S. Questions administered to users in survey
<p>Section 1. Prior Experience</p> <p>1. How would you rank your knowledge with molecular biology,PCR (polymerase chain reaction),eDNA or DNA based detection in general</p> <p>prior to the use of the qPCR field method</p>

- ☐ High prior knowledge
- ☐ Some prior knowledge
- ☐ Low prior knowledge
- ☐ No prior knowledge

2. Had you performed PCR (polymerase chain reaction) before attempting the qPCR field method? (highlight your response)

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ I do not remember

Section 2. Training

3. Was the training on the qPCR field-testing sufficient?

3a. Did you utilize the written protocol/video?

3b. Was the in-person training valuable?

Section 3. DNA extraction

4a. Was the DNA extraction protocol simple?

4b. What could be improved?

Section 4. Operating the thermocycler

5. Did you find the operation of the Chai Bio Open qPCR (the thermocycler and computer) simple?

What could be improved?

6. What method of results reporting would you have liked to see?

Section 5.

7. Was the time spent on the method too long or just right?

8. Did the portable field qPCR unit fit well within your/your organizations normal monitoring tasks?

9. Did the portable field system meet your expectations?

10. Did you find the results obtained by qPCR valuable? What could make these results more valuable?
11. Do you think that field qPCR is appropriate to answer the questions your organization sought to answer in agreeing to participate in this trial?
12. Do you see any value for continued use of the field qPCR method within your organization?
13. Why were you interested in participating in this trial to begin with? Have your views on the use of field qPCR changed since then?

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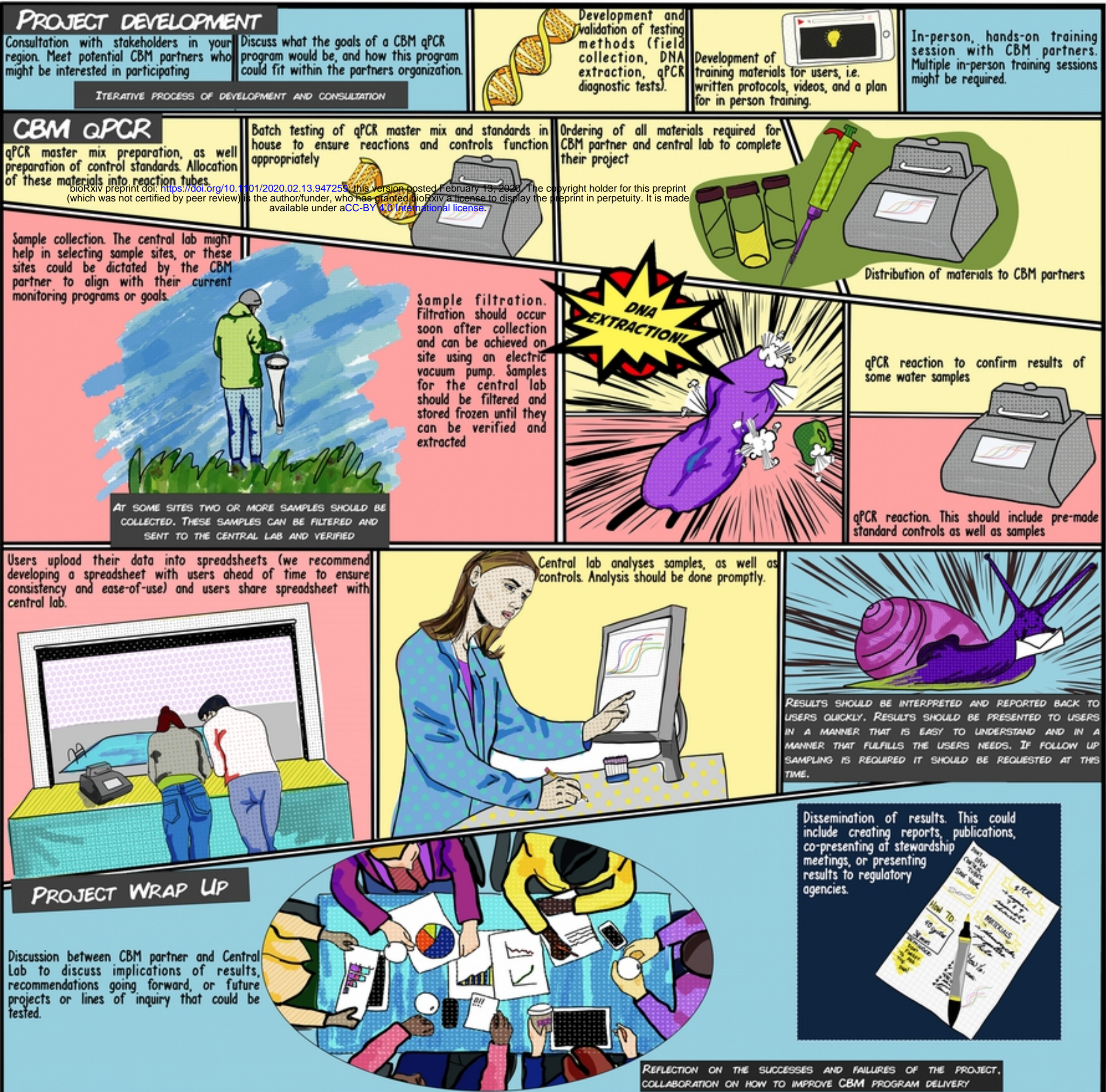


Figure 1

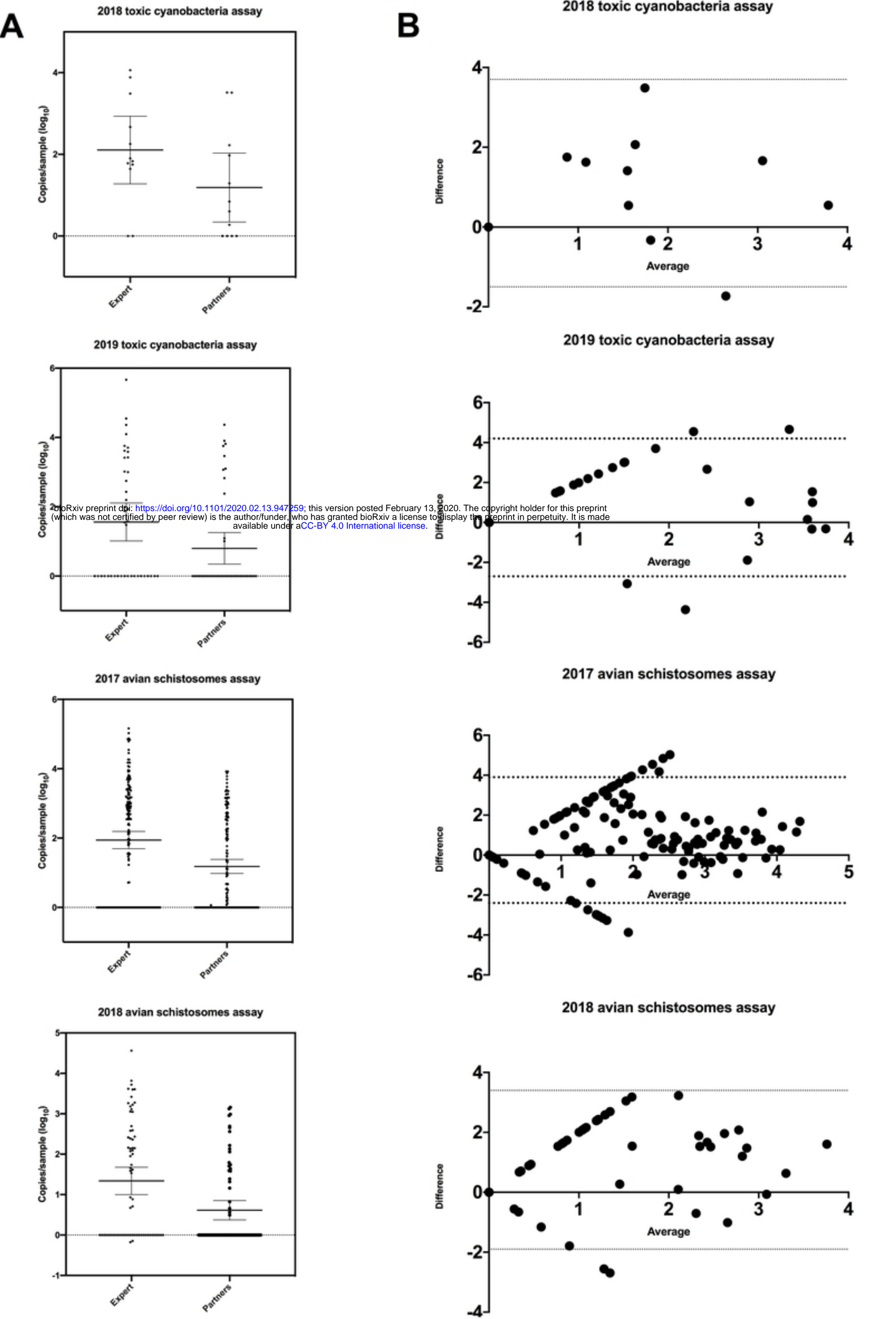


Figure 2