

21 **Abstract**

22 Inundation of coastal stormwater networks by tides is widespread due to sea-level rise (SLR).
23 The water quality risks posed by tidal water rising up through stormwater infrastructure (pipes
24 and catch basins), out onto roadways, and back out to receiving water bodies is unknown, but
25 may be substantial given that stormwater networks are a known source of fecal contamination. In
26 this study, we (1) documented temporal variation in concentrations of *Enterococcus* spp. (ENT),
27 the fecal indicator bacteria standard for marine waters, in a coastal waterway over a two-month
28 period and more intensively during two perigean tide periods, (2) measured ENT concentrations
29 in roadway floodwaters during tidal floods, and (3) explained variation in ENT concentrations as
30 a function of tidal inundation, antecedent rainfall, and stormwater infrastructure using a pipe
31 network inundation model and robust linear mixed effect models. We find that ENT
32 concentrations in the receiving water body vary as a function of tidal stage and antecedent
33 rainfall, as well as site-specific characteristics of the stormwater network that drains to the
34 waterbody. Tidal variables significantly explain measured ENT variance in the receiving
35 waterway; however, runoff drove higher ENT concentrations. Samples of floodwaters on
36 roadways during both perigean tide events were limited, but all samples exceed thresholds for
37 safe public use of recreational water. These results indicate that inundation of stormwater
38 networks by tides could pose public health hazards in receiving water bodies and in water
39 pooling on roadways. These health hazards will likely be exacerbated in the future due to
40 continued SLR.

41 **Plain Language Summary**

42 Communities along the US Atlantic Coast have begun to experience the effects of sea-level rise
43 as stormwater drainage pipes, originally designed when sea levels were lower, are now routinely
44 inundated at high tide. We do not know the water quality of the floodwaters or whether flooding
45 affects the quality of the bodies of water receiving the floodwaters. In this study, we collected
46 daily water samples from a tidal creek over a two-month period and tested the samples for
47 *Enterococcus* spp. (ENT), the bacteria used by regulators to assess the safety of marine waters
48 for swimmers and recreators. We also collected water samples during the highest high tides from
49 roadway floodwaters and the adjacent tidal creek as the stormwater pipes drained during
50 outgoing tide. After data collection, we developed statistical models to relate the amount of ENT
51 in the tidal creek to characteristics of the tide, rainfall, and stormwater infrastructure. Rainfall
52 caused greater bacterial contamination in the tidal creek than high tide flooding. However, we
53 observed high ENT concentrations in roadway floodwaters and in the creek during the outgoing
54 tide, leading us to conclude that everyday flooding of underground stormwater pipes at high tide
55 could create hazardous water quality.

56 **1 Introduction**

57 Since 1880, global sea level has risen between 21 and 24 cm, and on the Atlantic Coast of
58 the United States where many coastal communities were built on low-lying land, sea levels have
59 risen at even higher rates (Sweet et al., 2022). For many of these coastal communities,
60 stormwater infrastructure, like subterranean pipe networks, ditches, and catch basins, was built
61 decades ago when sea levels were lower. Now, this rise in sea level has allowed tides to
62 propagate up into stormwater networks and overtop low elevation areas, causing coastal
63 communities to flood in what is referred to as "sunny day flooding" or "high tide flooding".
64 Regular tidal inundation of stormwater networks has become widespread in coastal areas (Gold

65 et al., 2022), and persistent increases in sea level rise (SLR) are projected to increase the
66 frequency and magnitude of high tide flooding nationally (Sweet et al., 2022).

67 As tidal floods increase in frequency and magnitude, aging and faulty stormwater
68 infrastructure may pose a public health risk by creating water quality hazards (Allen et al., 2019).
69 Stormwater networks can act as reservoirs for fecal contaminants, as exfiltrated sewage (Hart et
70 al., 2020; Olds et al., 2018), biofilms (Burkhart, 2013), or septic leachate (Converse et al., 2011)
71 can be present within the network. Frequent inundation by tidal waters could transport fecal
72 contaminants from stormwater networks to roadways during incoming or “flood” tides, and flush
73 pollutants into coastal waters during outgoing or “ebb” tides. Other factors, like stormwater
74 runoff (Shen et al., 2019; Gold et al., 2023) and high groundwater tables (Befus et al., 2023;
75 Habel et al., 2020), can compound with tides and reduce the volume capacity of stormwater
76 networks, leading to more extensive or frequent flooding of coastal communities.

77 Increased attention has been dedicated to tidal inundation as a transport mechanism of
78 fecal contamination through stormwater infrastructure inundation (Hart et al., 2020; Price et al.,
79 2021), overtopping of coastal infrastructure (Macías-Tapia et al., 2021, 2023), and groundwater
80 inundation (McKenzie et al., 2021). Hart et al. (2020) measured human-specific microbial source
81 tracking markers in a municipal separate stormwater system (MS4) in Beaufort, NC, during
82 compound high tide and storm conditions, proposing that diluted sewage could be present in
83 standing water on the roadway when high tide floods occur. This work was continued by Price et
84 al. (2021), who determined that the highest concentrations of fecal indicator bacteria (FIB) in
85 stormwater discharge were present in receding tides during nineteen sampling events
86 encompassing both storm and ambient conditions. Macías-Tapia et al. (2021, 2023) reported
87 consistent exceedances of *Enterococcus spp.* (ENT), a fecal indicator bacteria used in marine and
88 beach water quality standards from the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA,
89 Recreational Water Quality Criteria, 2012), in tidal floodwaters and receiving waters of the
90 Lafayette River in Norfolk, VA during five annual perigeon spring tide flooding events between
91 2017 and 2021. This work determined that loads varied between floods but no relationship
92 between ENT abundance and floodwater extent could be determined (Macías-Tapia et al., 2023).
93 Lastly, McKenzie et al. (2021) monitored coastal and canal groundwater and surface water and
94 storm drains during high tide events and reported the presence of wastewater discharge in the
95 collected samples through measurement of radon and wastewater tracers. Combined, these
96 studies provide insight into the potential role of tidal flooding as a mechanism for fecal
97 contamination in coastal waters. However, to understand how stormwater network inundation by
98 tides is a driver of coastal fecal contamination, longitudinal data are needed to understand how
99 contaminant dynamics vary across locations, over time, and with flood events of different drivers
100 (e.g., tides and rainfall) and magnitudes.

101 In this study, we assessed the potential for fecal contamination in an urban, coastal
102 waterway that experiences tidal floods and daily inundation of its underground stormwater
103 network by tides. Specifically, our objectives were to (1) document temporal variation in fecal
104 bacteria concentrations in a coastal waterway over multiple flood events and under baseline
105 conditions, (2) measure fecal bacteria concentrations in roadway floodwaters during tidal flood
106 events, and (3) explain variation in bacteria concentrations as a function of tidal inundation,
107 antecedent rainfall, and stormwater infrastructure. Since fecal contaminants are highly variable
108 in space and time (Boehm, 2007), we collected observational data at three locations daily over a
109 two month period, and more intensively during nine tidal cycles coinciding with two perigeon

110 tide events (i.e., some of the highest tide events of the year, when the moon is closest to the
111 earth). These measurements, in conjunction with a simplified pipe network model and linear
112 regression, were used to explain variation in bacteria concentrations in the waterway as a
113 function of tidal inundation, antecedent rainfall, and stormwater infrastructure. Water quality
114 samples were also collected from the roadway during tidal floods to provide context for the
115 range of potential human health impacts from stormwater network inundation driven by SLR.

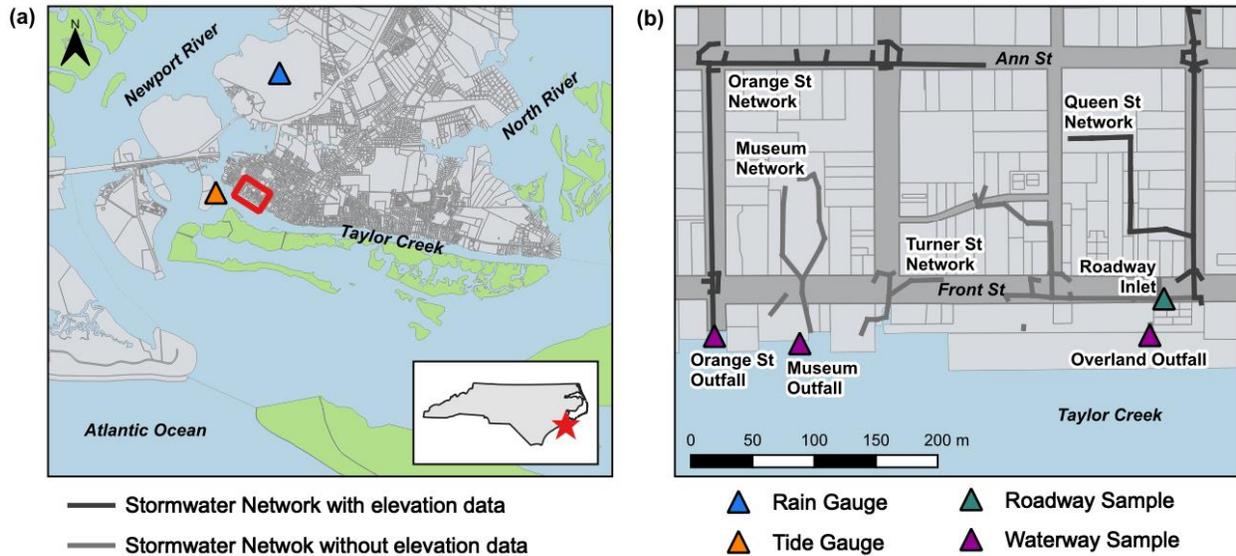
116 **2 Methods**

117 **2.1 Site Description**

118 Our study site was Beaufort, North Carolina, USA, a small, coastal town established in
119 the 1700s. Beaufort sits on a peninsula between the Newport River and North River (to the west
120 and east, respectively) and north of Taylor's Creek, a tidal channel that empties through an inlet
121 to the Atlantic Ocean. We focused our sampling efforts on Taylor's Creek, which is the receiving
122 waterbody that is adjacent to the downtown area, and on the roadway closest to the waterway
123 Front Street (**Fig 1a**). The tides in Taylor's Creek are semi-diurnal with a tidal range of 0.95 m
124 (NOAA Tides and Currents Station ID: 8656483, located in Beaufort, NC). In 2016, Taylor's
125 Creek was listed as a 303(d) impaired waterway for ENT by the North Carolina Division of
126 Environmental Quality, but was later delisted in 2022 after stormwater network improvements
127 (NCDEQ, 2022 North Carolina 303(d) List, 2023).

128 Much of the shoreline in the downtown area is armored with bulkheads, which protects
129 roadways and other low-lying areas from high water levels in Taylor's Creek. Stormwater is
130 conveyed to Taylor's Creek via a MS4, consisting of subterranean pipes and several outfalls
131 within our sampling area (**Fig 1b**). Roadway flooding is monitored on Front Street by water level
132 gauges located within the stormwater network, as well as pole-mounted cameras (Gold et al.,
133 2023). These data have shown that tides inundate the stormwater network on a daily basis;
134 during perigean tide events, water can rise all the way up through the network and result in
135 flooding of roadways. During regular tides, flooding can still occur due to the compounding
136 effects of rainfall, as there is limited capacity for pipes to convey even small amounts of rainfall
137 as a result of tidal water volumes occupying some of the capacity (Gold et al., 2023). In 2023,
138 the Town of Beaufort installed a backflow prevention device at one outfall, which has reduced
139 tidal inundation along parts of the stormwater network. But during our study period, which
140 spanned June 6 to August 2, 2022, the stormwater network contained no backflow devices,
141 which allowed for regular inundation with the tide (as in Gold et al., 2023).

142 Two perigean tide events occurred during the study period: one spanning June 12-17 and
143 the other July 11-16, 2022 (University of North Carolina - Chapel Hill, NC King Tides Project,
144 2022). During the highest-high tides associated with these events, tidal waters propagated up
145 through the stormwater network and produced minor roadway flooding nine times. No
146 concomitant rainfall occurred during the highest-high tides of the two perigean tide events, so
147 that the floodwaters were produced from tidal influence only. Rainfall occurred during the higher
148 low tide on July 15, 2022, and produced a compound flood event. Compound flood events occur
149 when a rainfall event coincides with reduced stormwater network capacity from tidal inundation.



150

151 **Figure 1.** Study maps of Beaufort, NC, USA (a) and the four stormwater networks in downtown
 152 Beaufort, NC, USA (b). Thin gray lines delineate land parcels. In (b), thick gray lines show the
 153 underground stormwater pipe network, with the shade of gray indicating whether there was
 154 elevation data available (dark and light for networks with known and unknown elevation,
 155 respectively). Waterway samples were collected from Taylor’s Creek at three locations (purple
 156 triangles) within 10 meters of stormwater outfalls. Roadway flood samples were collected
 157 directly above a single stormwater catchment grate in the Queen Street network (teal triangle).
 158 The NOAA tide gauge (orange triangle), which informed sampling times and tidal variables, is
 159 located across Taylor’s Creek approximately 300 m from the Orange Street Outfall sampling
 160 location. The rain gauge (blue triangle) is located north of the study site.

161 2.2 Data Collection

162 Water quality samples were collected for enumeration of ENT concentrations. Collection
 163 occurred at three waterway locations in Taylor’s Creek (**Fig 1b**). The “Overland Outfall”
 164 sampling location is near a bulkhead spillway that conveys stormwater runoff from a parking lot
 165 and is not connected to the subterranean pipe network. The overland outfall is relatively high in
 166 elevation and was not observed to be inundated during our study period. The “Museum Outfall”
 167 drains a relatively small area (**Fig 1b**), including a parking lot around a museum and catch basins
 168 on Front Street. The “Orange Street Outfall” sampling location was located 2 m from the Orange
 169 Street outfall, which drains a relatively large area, including a residential street and catch basins
 170 on Front Street and Ann Street (**Fig 1b**). The Orange Street Outfall sampling location was added
 171 on June 14, 2022, a week after sampling was initiated at the Overland Outfall and the Museum
 172 Outfall locations. Outfall elevations were only available for the Orange Street Outfall, which is
 173 positioned at -0.74 m NAVD88 or -0.30 m Mean Higher-High Water (MHHW). The MHHW
 174 datum is the mean of the highest diurnal tide, and is useful for identifying extremes in tidal
 175 heights. Water levels greater than the 0 m MHHW datum are deviations of tidal heights above
 176 the average high tide. At this elevation, the Orange Street Outfall is inundated by tides on a daily
 177 basis.

178 Collection of water samples in Taylor’s Creek, proximate to the three outfall locations
 179 described above, occurred daily over a period of two months. This allowed for characterization

180 of water quality during both baseline conditions and perigean tides. Baseline sampling of ENT (n
181 = 163) occurred daily between 8:00-9:00 AM Eastern Time to prevent ENT levels from being
182 affected by UV inactivation from direct sunlight, which peaks around midday. Given the two-
183 month long sampling period, the daily samples also captured every tidal stage (low, rising, high,
184 falling tide). Perigean tide sampling of ENT (n = 89) occurred during nine roadway flood events
185 spanning June 12-16 and July 11-15, 2022 (as noted above, the perigean tides extended into the
186 morning of the next day, from June 12-17 and July 11-16, 2022). During these flood events, we
187 increased the sampling frequency to include measurements at high tide, ebb tide (approximately
188 halfway between high and low tide), and low tide, with measurement times scheduled based on
189 predicted water levels at the nearby NOAA Tides and Currents Station (NOAA, ID 8656483; Fig
190 1). This sampling frequency was selected to capture the change in water quality conditions from
191 the maximum stormwater inundation (at highest high tide) and during the draining of the
192 stormwater networks (during the ebb tide and at the highest low tide). During these floods, we
193 also sampled roadway floodwaters at a stormwater grate in the Queen Street stormwater network
194 (n = 10). We define a roadway flood as any amount of water above the elevation of the
195 stormwater grate.

196 Sterile, pre-rinsed 100 mL FalconTubes (polypropylene material) were used to collect
197 100 mL water samples 0.5-1 m below the water surface at the three waterway sampling
198 locations, and at surface depth in the floodwaters on the roadway. After collection, samples were
199 stored in a cooler at 4°C during transport to the laboratory. Water samples were processed in
200 duplicate for ENT following the IDEXX Enterolert standard protocol with the Quanti-tray 2000
201 (IDEXX, ASTM Method #D6503-99). The IDEXX assay requires a 100 mL sample volume, and
202 due to salinity content of the water samples, 10 mL of water sample was mixed with 90 mL of
203 deionized water. Samples were provided the IDEXX media and incubated for 24 hours at 41°C ±
204 0.5°C. ENT concentrations were estimated using a most-probable number (MPN) technique
205 based on the number of large and small wells of the quanti-trays fluorescing under UV light,
206 with a modified laboratory detection range of 10-24,196 most probable number ENT per 100 mL
207 water (MPN 100 mL⁻¹) due to sample dilution. During sample collection and laboratory analysis,
208 field blanks (n = 27) and laboratory blanks (n = 30) were also collected and processed for quality
209 assurance and quality control purposes.

210 ENT concentrations were classified as above or below the EPA's single sample
211 maximum threshold concentration for safe public use of recreational waters of 104 MPN 100
212 mL⁻¹ (EPA, Recreational Water Quality Criteria, 2012). This EPA standard is for recreational use
213 of marine waters, meaning it directly applies to water samples collected from Taylor's Creek, but
214 does not directly apply to the assessment of roadway floodwaters, which are not recreational
215 waters. Given that a standard does not exist for floodwaters of any kind – whether storm or
216 tidally driven – but that pedestrians can still make contact with floodwaters, we consider the
217 EPA's recreational standard here as a benchmark for comparison of water quality measurements
218 collected from the roadway during the tidal floods.

219 2.3 Pipe Network Inundation Model

220 A pipe network inundation model of Front Street was used to characterize the extent of
221 tidal inundation within the stormwater network during the measured flood events. Generally, a
222 pipe network inundation model is a “bathtub” approach that simulates flooding by gradually
223 filling subterranean pipes based on the elevation of the pipe relative to the level of the waterbody

224 (Strauss et al., 2012). The pipe network inundation model used in this study was generated using
225 the *bathtub* R package (Gold et al., 2022) and is the same model used by Gold et al. (2022) for
226 Beaufort, NC. This model was developed using elevations from a 2017 survey, during which
227 some structures were inaccessible. Hence, our pipe network inundation model is incomplete for
228 the Front Street study area, but can be used to estimate stormwater network inundation in two of
229 the studied stormwater pipe systems, specifically the Orange Street and Queen Street pipe
230 networks (Fig. 1b). The percentage of stormwater network inundation was quantified at discrete
231 water levels by averaging the percent fill of surveyed stormwater point structures (e.g., drop
232 inlets and catch basins) on Front Street, specifically the Orange Street network and the northern
233 section of the Queen Street network.

234 2.4 Explanatory Variables used in Linear Regressions

235 We sought to explain measured variation in ENT concentrations within the waterway
236 with both tidal and rainfall factors using robust linear mixed effect regressions. Tidal variables
237 used in the explanatory analysis include tidal height at time of sample collection, time since the
238 last high tide before sample collection, and the height of the last high tide before sample
239 collection. Tidal height at the time of sample collection was taken from the nearby NOAA Tides
240 and Currents gauge (Fig 1a, which has been shown to match well with measured water levels in a
241 stormwater catch basin on Front Street when it is not raining (Gold et al., 2023). The height of
242 the last high tide, and the time since the last high tide, were likewise calculated using the NOAA
243 tide gauge data. We chose to include time since the last high tide before sample collection and
244 the height of the last high tide before sample collection to account for a potential lagged response
245 of ENT concentrations in the waterway as tidal waters recede from the stormwater network,
246 relative to the timing of maximum inundation of the stormwater network.

247 Because Taylor's Creek is a coastal waterway, it receives ENT loads by both direct
248 runoff from stormwater outfalls and fluvial transport through the local watershed. To account for
249 these transport pathways, we considered rainfall factors in the explanatory analysis. Seven
250 rainfall variables were analyzed, all of which correspond to (antecedent) rainfall totals over finite
251 intervals, including rainfall over 3, 6, 12, 24, 36, 48, and 72 hours prior to sample collection (in
252 mm). These variables were calculated using hourly rainfall depths (millimeters) obtained from
253 the Michael J Smith Airport weather station located approximately a mile north of Front Street in
254 Beaufort, NC (North Carolina State Climate Office, station ID: KMRH; **Fig 1a**). The June
255 rainfall total was 50 mm, and only one storm event produced a rainfall depth over 13 mm (or
256 0.51 inches). In contrast, the July rainfall total was 400 mm and 8 storm events produced rainfall
257 depths greater than 13 mm.

258 2.5 Regression Analysis

259 ENT concentrations from the waterway were first logarithmically transformed to account
260 for the exponential range of bacteria counts observed. The relationship between logarithmically
261 transformed ENT concentrations (\log_{10} ENT) and sampling location was then assessed using the
262 Friedman test, which is a hypothesis test for repeated measures. We selected the Friedman test
263 because the daily collection of ENT constitutes a repeated measure and the test does not assume
264 an underlying distribution for the grouped-by-location data. The Friedman test determines
265 whether the median value of a treatment group is significantly different from the median values

266 of the other treatment groups. We assessed significance with an alpha value of 0.05. The
267 Friedman test was calculated using the *stats* R package (R Core Team, 2013).

268 Next, the relationships between \log_{10} ENT, tidal, and rainfall variables were analyzed
269 using robust linear mixed effect models with the *robustlmm* R package (Koller, 2016) for both
270 baseline conditions and during perigean tides that corresponded with roadway flooding (i.e., the
271 nine roadway flood events spanning June 12-16 and July 11-15, 2022). Individual robust linear
272 mixed effect regressions between \log_{10} ENT and each explanatory variable were performed to
273 evaluate pairwise relationships. Models representative of baseline conditions (the “baseline”
274 models) were generated using data from the entire two-month study period, which captured daily
275 stormwater network inundation and multiple rain events. In contrast, models spanning perigean
276 tide conditions (the “perigean tide” models) were generated only using data following
277 stormwater network inundation by the perigean tides that resulted in roadway flooding (i.e.,
278 complete inundation of the stormwater network). We selected robust linear mixed effect models
279 because of the repeated-measures structure of our sampling design and the presence of outliers
280 and non-normal residuals in the \log_{10} ENT data set.

281 Given that the waterway data varies both in space and time, the baseline mixed effect
282 model has the following equation structure:

$$\log_{10} \text{ENT} = \text{Explanatory Variable} + (1 \mid \text{Site}) \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

283 Where “|” denotes that the sampling location, or “Site”, is a random effect. The perigean tide
284 model has the equation structure:

$$\log_{10} \text{ENT} = \text{Explanatory Variable} + (1 \mid \text{Site}) \\ + (1 \mid \text{Perigean Tide} / \text{Categorical Tidal Stage}) \quad \text{Equation 2}$$

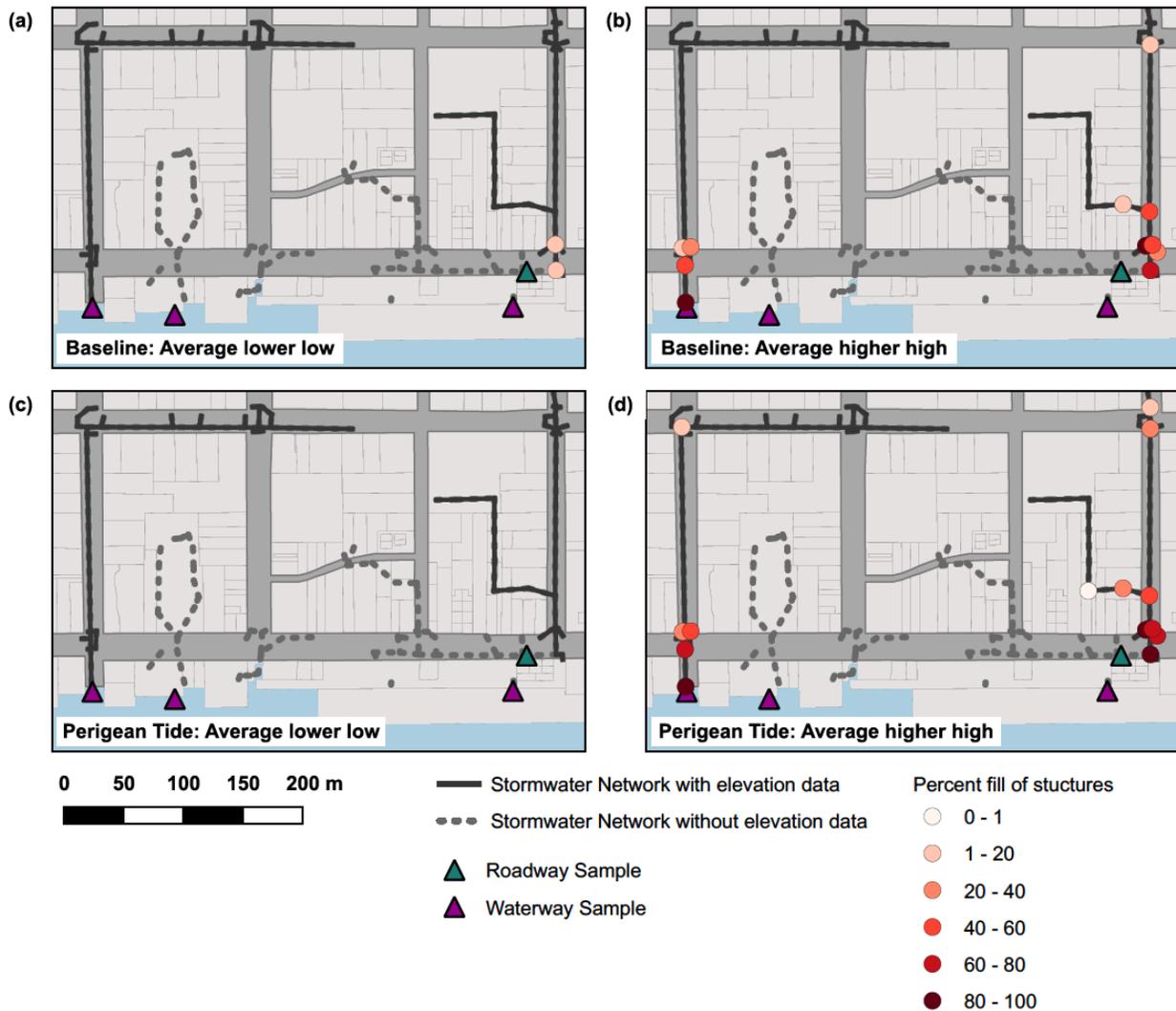
285 Where “Site” and “Perigean Tide” (June or July) are random effects and “Categorical Tidal
286 Stage” (high, ebb, and low tide) is a nested random effect within the “Perigean Tide” random
287 effect. No interaction exists between the “Site” and “Perigean Tide / Categorical Tidal Stage”
288 terms because the sampling design produced a crossed-data structure between sampling period
289 and site. The tidal and rainfall explanatory variables are fixed effects and were centered and
290 scaled in the baseline models and perigean tide models. Conditional R^2 (variance explained by
291 random and fixed effects) and marginal R^2 (variance explained by fixed effects or explanatory
292 variables) were calculated for each regression using the *performance* R package (Lüdtke et al.,
293 2021). Results are discussed in terms of their marginal R^2 value since marginal R^2 values only
294 include the effect of the explanatory variable while conditional R^2 values also include the effects
295 of random variables. Additionally, p-values and slopes were calculated to identify significant
296 positive or negative relationships (alpha = 0.05) using the *parameters* R package (Lüdtke et al.,
297 2020). All analyses were performed using R version 4.2.2 (R Core Team, 2022).

298 **3 Results and Discussion**

299 **3.1 Tidal stormwater network inundation occurred daily**

300 Water level data from within a storm drain on Front Street showed that the Queen Street
301 network was inundated daily over the two month study period at each higher-high tide (n =
302 60/60, Gold et al., 2023). Using the pipe network model, we find that the stormwater network
303 along other areas of Front Street was on average 57% inundated during the higher-high tides (on

304 average 0.16 m MHHW) and 0.6% inundated during the lower-low tides (on average -0.91 m
 305 MHHW) during baseline conditions (**Fig 2a-2b**). During the perigean tide events, the average
 306 lower low tide and higher high tide elevations were -1.1 and 0.40 m MHHW, respectively, which
 307 correspond to modeled stormwater network inundation percentages of 0 and 78% along Front
 308 Street, respectively (Fig 2c-2d). During these events, inundation of the stormwater network
 309 extended inland beyond Front Street, filling pipes nearly 40% with tidal water (**Fig 2c**).



310
 311 **Figure 2.** Modeled tidal inundation of two stormwater networks in downtown Beaufort during
 312 the study period. The average percent fill of stormwater catchments (attached to subterranean
 313 pipes) is shown for lower low tide (**2a,c**) and higher high tide (**2b,d**) for the baseline data
 314 collected from June 6 to August 2, 2022 (**2a,b**), and for the perigean tide data collected on June
 315 12-17 and July 11-16, 2022 (**2c,d**).

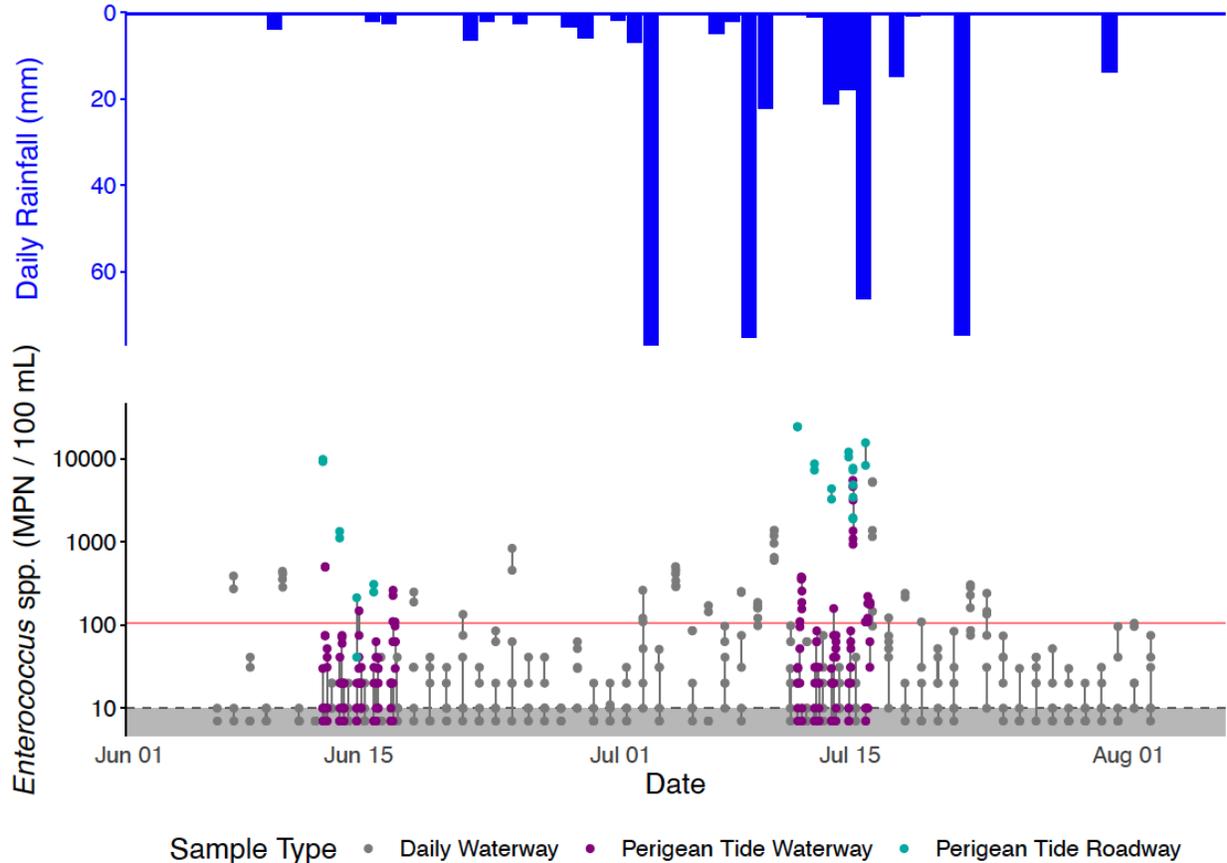
316 Our pipe network model only accounts for variation in tidal elevation, as measured by the
 317 nearby NOAA tide gauge, and does not consider water level contributions from rainfall runoff,
 318 groundwater infiltration into the stormwater network, or pipe hydraulics. Bathtub models, like
 319 the pipe network model used here, typically overestimate flooding compared to models that
 320 account for pipe hydraulics (e.g., Castrucci & Tahvildari, 2018; Gallien et al., 2014). However,

321 outside of rain events, Gold et al. (2023) showed that water levels in the Queen Street network
322 track well with water levels measured at the NOAA tides gauge during baseline conditions,
323 indicating that contributions from groundwater infiltration into the stormwater network are likely
324 small for the pipe network. During rainfall events, the pipe network model is an underestimate of
325 actual inundation.

326 While the network inundation model does not consider non-tidal forcing and pipe
327 hydraulics, it can be used to estimate where inundation was relatively high and low across the
328 network due to tidal forcing alone. In particular, the network inundation estimates highlight that
329 total network inundation and roadway flooding were most likely to occur in and along the Queen
330 Street network. The pipe network model also reveals that the Orange Street network experienced
331 daily and major inundation, but to a lesser extent than the Queen Street network. Due to the inlet
332 and outfall elevations not being surveyed, we are unable to assess the frequency at which the
333 museum network was inundated.

334 3.2 Daily waterway ENT concentrations differed between sampling locations

335 ENT was detected in 73% of daily, or baseline, samples ($n = 241/330$) with
336 concentrations ranging from 10 to 5,298 MPN 100 mL⁻¹ (**Fig 3**). ENT measurements exceeded
337 the single sample maximum threshold concentration for safe public use of recreational waters
338 (104 MPN 100 mL⁻¹) in 16% of the daily samples, indicating recurring but infrequent levels of
339 unsafe fecal contamination in the waterway during the two month summer sampling period.
340 Similar daily ENT concentrations in the waterway were observed between non-perigean and
341 perigean tide periods. Hence, while perigean tide events lead to increased stormwater network
342 inundation (**Fig 2d**), they did not necessarily result in increased ENT loading within the
343 waterway.



344

345 **Figure 3.** Daily rainfall (top) and ENT concentrations (bottom) during flood (perigean tide) and
 346 baseline conditions throughout June and July 2022. The red line represents the EPA's single
 347 sample maximum threshold concentration for safe public use ($104 \text{ MPN } 100 \text{ mL}^{-1}$), and the
 348 grayed area represents the minimum detection limit (below $10 \text{ MPN } 100 \text{ mL}^{-1}$ for samples
 349 diluted 10:1). Gray and purple points correspond to measurements taken in Taylor's Creek
 350 during baseline and flood conditions at the three sampling locations, respectively, while teal
 351 points correspond to measurements taken from roadway floodwaters above a single stormwater
 352 catchment grate in the Queen Street network. Samples were processed in duplicate, and duplicate
 353 measurements are connected by vertical lines to visualize uncertainty.

354

355 We found there were significant differences in ENT concentrations by sampling location
 356 ($\alpha < 0.05$). During baseline conditions, the Orange Street Outfall had the highest median
 357 concentration of ENT in the waterway ($31 \text{ MPN } 100 \text{ mL}^{-1}$) while the sampling locations near the
 358 Museum and Overland Outfalls showed lower median ENT concentrations (both $10 \text{ MPN } 100$
 359 mL^{-1} , which corresponds to the minimum detection limit). Inter-site variability between outfall
 360 sampling locations was also noted by Price et al. (2021), who posited that site-specific
 infrastructure can cause localized water quality dynamics.

361

362 For June, the median ENT concentration was $20 \text{ MPN } 100 \text{ mL}^{-1}$ and had an interquartile
 363 range of <10 to $23 \text{ MPN } 100 \text{ mL}^{-1}$ while the July median concentration was $41 \text{ MPN } 100 \text{ mL}^{-1}$
 364 and had an interquartile range of 10 to $86 \text{ MPN } 100 \text{ mL}^{-1}$. Rainfall occurred more frequently in
 July than in June. Periods of increased rainfall are known to correspond with increased FIB

365 concentrations in waterways due to runoff-driven contamination and elevated surficial
 366 groundwater elevations, which can also lead to greater sewage exfiltration (Secru et al., 2011).
 367 The modeling results of baseline conditions, which show significant relationships between \log_{10}
 368 ENT and prior 3, 6, 12, 24, 48, and 72 hour rainfall totals ($\alpha < 0.05$), reflect the influence of
 369 rainfall on the variance of bacterial concentrations (**Table 1**).

370 **Table 1.** Linear regression models of baseline conditions (top) and perigean tide conditions
 371 (bottom) between \log_{10} -transformed ENT concentrations (\log_{10} MPN) and tidal or rainfall
 372 factors.

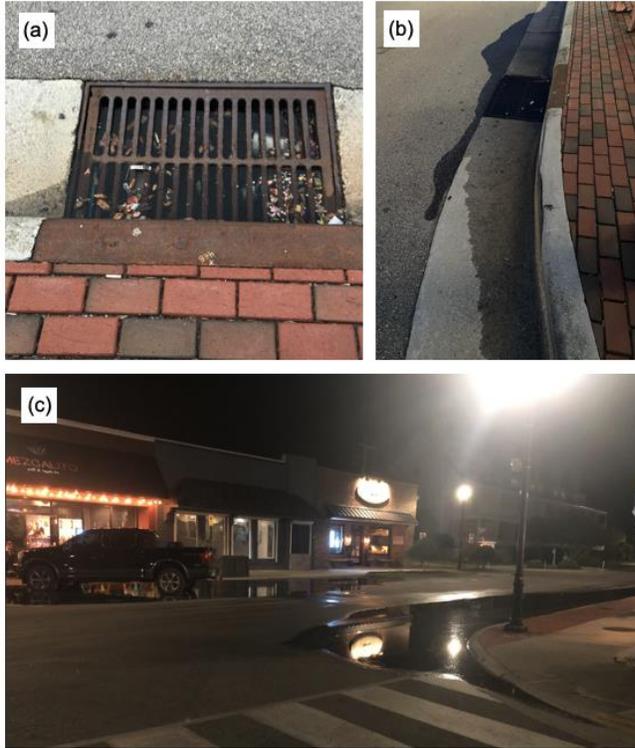
<i>Baseline Conditions (n = 163 observations); random effect = sampling location</i>					
Explanatory Variables (fixed effect)	Conditional R ² (full model)	Marginal R ² (fixed effects)	p-value (alpha)	Coefficient	Standard Error
<i>Tidal Factors</i>					
Tidal Height	0.17	0.06	< 0.05	-0.15	0.03
Time to Last High Tide	0.16	0.04	< 0.05	0.12	0.03
Height of Last High Tide	0.12	0.01	0.07	-0.06	0.03
<i>Rainfall Factors</i>					
Prior 3-hour rainfall	0.23	0.11	< 0.05	0.21	0.03
Prior 6-hour rainfall	0.27	0.14	< 0.05	0.24	0.03
Prior 12-hour rainfall	0.39	0.27	< 0.05	0.34	0.03
Prior 24-hour rainfall	0.46	0.35	< 0.05	0.38	0.03
Prior 48-hour rainfall	0.40	0.31	< 0.05	0.36	0.03
Prior 72-hour rainfall	0.30	0.21	< 0.05	0.29	0.03
<i>Perigean Tide Conditions (n = 89); random effects = sampling location, categorical tidal stage, flood</i>					
Explanatory Variables (fixed effect)	Conditional R ² (full model)	Marginal R ² (fixed effects)	p-value (alpha)	Coefficient	Standard Error
<i>Tidal Factors</i>					
Tidal Height	0.34	0.20	< 0.05	-0.28	0.07
Time to Last High Tide	0.34	0.13	< 0.05	0.22	0.11
Height of Last High Tide	0.39	0.01	0.21	-0.05	0.04
<i>Rainfall Factors</i>					
Prior 3-hour rainfall	0.42	0	0.78	-0.01	0.05
Prior 6-hour rainfall	0.37	0	0.52	0.03	0.05
Prior 12-hour rainfall	0.38	0	0.56	0.03	0.05

373 3.3 Roadway floodwaters had consistently high ENT concentrations

374 We visually observed nine minor floods localized to the Queen Street stormwater
375 network, and no roadway flooding via the Orange Street and Museum stormwater networks
376 during perigean tides. The presence of flooding was corroborated by the storm drain water level
377 measurements and the pipe network model. The floodwater samples exceeded the EPA's single
378 sample maximum threshold concentration for safe public use ($104 \text{ MPN } 100 \text{ mL}^{-1}$) for 8 of the 9
379 high tide flood events, in many cases by an order of magnitude (**Fig 3**). These ENT
380 concentrations are comparable to the concentrations reported by Macías-Tapia et al. (2021, 2023)
381 in Norfolk, VA in 2017, when 95% of the ENT samples exceeded the single sample maximum
382 threshold concentration and ENT concentrations ranged from 30 to $>24,000 \text{ MPN } 100 \text{ mL}^{-1}$.

383 In June, the median floodwater concentration was $710 \text{ MPN } 100 \text{ mL}^{-1}$ and concentrations
384 ranged from 41 to $9,804 \text{ MPN } 100 \text{ mL}^{-1}$ (**Fig 3**). By comparison, in July, the median floodwater
385 concentration was $9,563 \text{ MPN } 100 \text{ mL}^{-1}$ and concentrations ranged from 1,882 to $>24,196 \text{ MPN}$
386 100 mL^{-1} . The perigean high tide elevations were similar between June and July (0.35-0.51 and
387 0.34-0.45 m MHHW, respectively), as was the modeled inundation percentages at higher high
388 tide (75-87 and 73-81%), so we hypothesize that differences in concentrations stem from
389 antecedent rainfall factors. These findings suggest that antecedent rainfall can enhance fecal
390 contamination in roadway floodwaters during high tide flood events. But, importantly, given that
391 the June floodwaters were still more than 6 times higher than the EPA standard in the absence of
392 rainfall, complete inundation of stormwater networks by tides in drier conditions can create
393 concerning water quality conditions in roadway floodwaters.

394 The sources of fecal bacteria in the roadway floodwater samples are unknown. We
395 believe the primary fecal bacteria sources during the high tide floods sampled were within the
396 stormwater network. We observed fecal contamination in roadway floodwaters in the absence of
397 rain, due solely to stormwater network inundation by tides, indicating a source from either
398 Taylor's Creek or the stormwater network. However, water quality samples collected near
399 stormwater outfalls in Taylor's Creek did not have similarly high concentrations (**Fig 3**), so
400 Taylor's Creek is likely not a primary source of fecal bacteria to the floodwaters. Lastly, the
401 majority of the roadway floods were small and confined to puddles around the storm drains (**Fig**
402 **4**), indicating that the floodwaters likely did not flush fecal matter from the land surface.



403

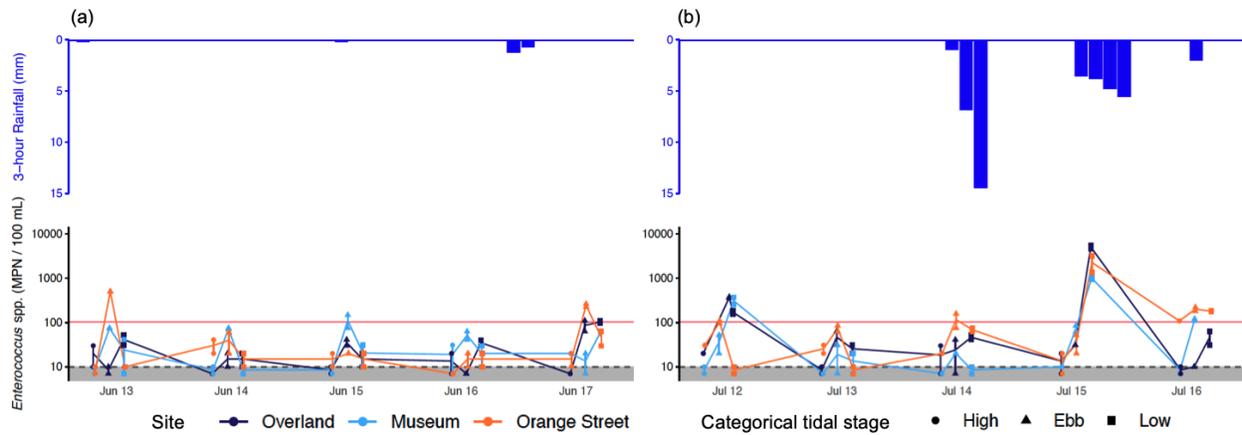
404 **Figure 4.** Tidal flooding at high tide on June 12, 2022 at 7:18PM (a), June 14, 2022 at 8:52PM
 405 (b), and June 15, 2022 at 9:51PM (c). We define a roadway flood as any amount of water above
 406 the elevation of the stormwater grate.

407 Because tidal inundation of stormwater networks can impede drainage of stormwater
 408 runoff, it may be that stormwater runoff with high ENT concentrations remain in the network as
 409 stagnant water for extended periods of time, potentially spilling into the roadway during the next
 410 high tide. Additional sources of fecal bacteria in the stormwater network could include
 411 exfiltrated sewage (Hart et al., 2020), and local environmental reservoirs of bacteria in biofilms
 412 and sediment (Burkhart, 2013). Importantly, since the majority of our measurements were
 413 collected from roadway floods with small overland extents, we are unable to assess whether high
 414 ENT concentrations would persist during more extensive floods, or if more extensive floods may
 415 dilute ENT concentrations instead, as proposed by Lewis et al. (2013).

416 3.4 Highest median ENT concentrations occurred during ebb tide

417 To capture the water quality of receding tidal waters from the stormwater network during
 418 the perigeon tide events, ENT measurements were collected at multiple tidal stages in the
 419 waterway: at high tide, ebb tide, and low tide (**Fig 5**). We observed a general trend that ENT
 420 concentrations increased from high tide to ebb tide and decreased from ebb tide to low tide. This
 421 trend has been previously reported for Taylor's Creek in Price et al. (2021), who observed that
 422 ENT increased during ebb tide as tidal height decreased and the stormwater network drained. In
 423 this present study, median concentrations at high, ebb, and low tide across both the June and July
 424 perigeon tide events were 10, 52, and 30.5 MPN 100 mL⁻¹, respectively (**Fig 5**). Sixty percent (n
 425 = 36/60) of high tide samples had ENT concentrations below the minimum detection limit of 10

426 MPN 100 mL⁻¹. Then, as the tidal waters receded from the stormwater network during ebb tide,
 427 ENT concentrations increased. From the linear regression analysis, we found that this trend was
 428 reflected in a significant negative relationship (coefficient = -0.28, alpha < 0.05) between tidal
 429 height at sample collection and ENT concentrations in the perigean tide models (**Table 1**). This
 430 increase in median ENT concentrations from high to ebb tide suggests that receding tides
 431 transport ENT from the stormwater network to the waterway. However, we also observe a
 432 decrease in median ENT concentrations from ebb to low tide, which suggests that the effect of
 433 receded tidal waters on ENT concentrations in the waterway was short lived. This could
 434 potentially be explained by flushing or dilution. UV inactivation should not have affected the
 435 measured ENT concentrations given that the perigean tide sampling occurred at night during
 436 both the June and July events.



437

438 **Figure 5.** 3-hour rainfall (top) and ENT concentrations (bottom) from Taylor's Creek during
 439 perigean tide events from June 12-17, 2022 (**a**) and July 11-16, 2022 (**b**). The red line represents
 440 the EPA's single sample maximum threshold concentration for safe public use (104 MPN 100
 441 mL⁻¹), and the grayed area represents the minimum detection limit (below 10 MPN 100 mL⁻¹ for
 442 samples diluted 10:1). Point shapes correspond to the tidal stages of high, ebb, and low, while the
 443 colors correspond to sampling locations.

444 Although the highest ENT concentrations in the waterway during the perigean tide events
445 were observed during ebb and low tide, the majority of concentrations were below the EPA's
446 threshold for safe public use, demonstrating that the observed conditions did not pose a public
447 health hazard. Yet, the observed increase in ENT concentrations during ebb tide in a large and
448 dynamic waterway like Taylor's Creek demonstrates that tidal floods and stormwater network
449 inundation can serve as a source of fecal contamination to surface waters and are worthy of
450 further investigation as an emerging public health concern, particularly in coastal communities
451 that drain to relatively small tidal creeks with minimal potential to flush or dilute pollutants.

452 From the results of our robust linear mixed effect models for the perigean tides (**Table 1**),
453 tidal height at sample collection and time to last high tide were associated with the greatest and
454 second greatest marginal R^2 values (0.20 and 0.13, respectively). Though they cannot explain the
455 majority of ENT variance (i.e., they do not have marginal $R^2 > 0.5$), the marginal R^2 values of
456 tidal height at sample collection and time to last high tide support prior recommendations by
457 Price et al. (2021) that tidal variables be included and documented as part of coastal ENT
458 monitoring efforts, as tidal effects can play a role in transporting ENT within coastal systems.

459 For perigean tide conditions, height of the last high tide and rainfall variables had low
460 marginal R^2 values and coefficients that were not significantly different from zero (**Table 1**).
461 Because height of last high tide was not a significant descriptor of ENT concentration variance,
462 we conclude that maximum inundation prior to sampling was not the most important factor
463 explaining the elevated ENT concentrations during ebb tide for our study site. However, height
464 of last high tide should not be discounted as a potential variable to monitor, as other coastal
465 stormwater network configurations may exhibit increase in ENT concentrations with higher tidal
466 heights. Likewise, our results do not necessarily indicate that rainfall is not an important
467 descriptor to ENT variability during the ebb tide and drainage of the stormwater network, as
468 other studies have demonstrated a direct link between rainfall and ENT concentration in coastal
469 waterways (Mallin et al., 2000). The low marginal R^2 values of our tested rainfall variables is
470 likely from our sampling design which targeted the tidal dynamics of the 6-7 hour period
471 between the higher high tide and the higher low tide, and from the paucity of rainfall events that
472 occurred during our sampling window.

473 3.5 Stormwater runoff drives higher ENT concentrations than tidal inundation

474 During baseline conditions, stormwater runoff drove higher ENT concentrations in the
475 waterway than tidal inundation. Many studies have reported increased FIB concentrations in
476 waterways following rainfall events (Converse et al., 2011; Gonzalez et al., 2012; Parker et al.,
477 2010; Stumpf et al., 2010), and our results support this finding for baseline conditions (i.e., when
478 there is no roadway flooding from complete stormwater inundation by tides). Prior rainfall totals
479 were significantly related to daily ENT variance in the waterway during baseline conditions
480 (**Table 1**). Specifically, antecedent rainfall over 3, 6, 12, 24, 48, and 72 hours prior to sample
481 collection had larger marginal R^2 values (0.10-0.35) in the baseline model than the significant
482 tidal variables (0.04-0.06). While antecedent rainfall predominantly explained the baseline ENT
483 concentrations, rain variables did not significantly explain ENT variance during perigean tides,
484 as discussed above. However, we observed that recent rainfall events coincided with the
485 maximum ENT concentrations observed in Taylor's Creek during the perigean tide periods (Fig
486 5). Low tide samples collected on July 15, 2022, which coincided with a compound flood event

487 (rainfall plus reduced capacity in the stormwater network due to tidal inundation), displayed the
488 maximum ENT concentrations observed in the waterway during both perigean tides. These
489 samples were collected 20 hours after a 22-mm, 8-hour rainfall event occurred the previous day,
490 and during the first hour of a 17-mm rainstorm that lasted over 9 hours. Approximately 3.6 mm
491 of rainfall occurred during the first hour of the event.

492 **4 Conclusions**

493 Our findings indicate that chronic stormwater network inundation and tidal flooding
494 caused by SLR present pathways for fecal contamination of coastal surface waters and roadway
495 floodwaters, but research is needed to fully understand whether network inundation and floods
496 create public health hazards. In this study, we consistently observed high ENT concentrations
497 above the US EPA's single sample maximum threshold for safe public use of recreational waters
498 in tidal and compound floodwaters on a roadway in Beaufort, NC. These measurements were
499 taken from minor floods with minimal overland footprints, leading us to believe the sources of
500 the elevated ENT in the floodwaters were within the stormwater network and could include
501 undrained stormwater runoff, pipe biofilms and sediment, and exfiltrated sewage. However, we
502 did not observe similarly concerning ENT concentrations in Taylor's Creek, the adjacent coastal
503 waterway, as a function of tide-driven stormwater network inundation. Rainfall-driven runoff
504 produced higher ENT concentrations in Taylor's Creek than stormwater network inundation and
505 tidal flooding, reinforcing that stormwater runoff is the dominant driver of increased ENT
506 concentrations in the coastal waterway. However, we observed short-lived increases in ENT
507 concentrations in Taylor's Creek as perigean tides receded from the stormwater network, and we
508 hypothesize the temporary increase in ENT concentrations is due to dilution or flushing given
509 that Taylor's Creek is a large coastal waterway. In relatively small tidal creeks draining urban
510 centers, the effects of dilution and flushing may not be as apparent, and the role of stormwater
511 network inundation and tidal flooding on ENT concentrations may be more pronounced.

512 This study provided needed longitudinal water quality observations across a two-month
513 period that included nine tidal floods from two perigean tide events, which allowed us to assess
514 potential public health hazards from tidal flooding and make inferences on the relative roles of
515 stormwater network inundation, tidal flooding, and rain on fecal contamination both in a coastal
516 waterway and roadway floodwaters. However, the small size of the tidal floods we observed
517 prevents us from concluding whether more extensive floods are associated with higher or lower
518 ENT concentrations. Additionally, while our results demonstrate that tidal floods are associated
519 with problematic water quality in both roadway floodwaters and coastal surface waters as was
520 shown in previous studies (Macías-Tapia et al., 2021, 2023; Hart et al., 2020; Price et al., 2021;
521 McKenzie et al., 2021), similar studies as the one presented here should be conducted across
522 more locations to better understand site-specific effects related to stormwater infrastructure and
523 land use. We suggest that future work incorporate sampling across multiple seasons,
524 communities, and flood extents to better understand the prevalence of poor water quality from
525 chronic stormwater network inundation and tidal flooding. Seasonal differences may contribute
526 to the persistence of ENT within the stormwater network, while community differences in
527 infrastructure, topography, land use, and waterway size could contribute to the type and number
528 of ENT sources as well as the effect of tidal flushing on ENT concentrations in the waterway.

529 Ultimately, the water quality effects of chronic stormwater network inundation and tidal
530 flooding are evolving given the non-stationarity of global climate change and SLR. SLR brings
531 uncertainty to whether tidally-driven inundation and associated pollutant loading will remain at
532 their current levels, as the magnitude of the loading will likely change with increased flooding
533 frequency and damage to infrastructure. For Beaufort and other cities on the Atlantic coast of the
534 US, rates of SLR are 30% higher than the global average of 3 mm/year (Ezer & Atkinson, 2014),
535 meaning that future repetition of this study could produce differing results as tidally-driven
536 inundation becomes more intense and widespread.

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544 **Open Research**

545 All data and R code are provided as supporting materials with the manuscript for peer review
546 purposes. Following review, the data and code will be archived with Dryad and a permanent DOI
547 will be included in this section.

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