Management Agency (FEMA), state, and local requirements often restrict or control development on land within the floodway or floodplain. In larger streams, the floodway and aquatic buffer can be integrated together to achieve multiple social objectives.

Stream Rehabilitation

While not traditionally considered an SCM, certain stream rehabilitation practices or approaches can be effective at recreating stream physical habitat and ecosystem function lost during urbanization. When combined with effective SCMs in upland areas, stream rehabilitation practices can be an important component of a larger strategy to address stormwater. From the standpoint of mitigating stormwater impacts, four types of urban stream rehabilitation are common:

- Practices that stabilize streambanks and/or prevent channel incision/enlargement can reduce downstream delivery of sediments and attached nutrients (see Figure 5-48). Although the magnitude of sediment delivery from urban-induced stream-channel enlargement is well documented, there are very few published data to quantify the potential reduction in sediment or nutrients from subsequent channel stabilization.

- Streams can be hydrologically reconnected to their floodplains by building up the profile of incised urban streams using grade controls so that the channel and floodplain interact to a greater degree. Urban stream reaches that have been so rehabilitated have increased nutrient uptake and processing rates, and in particular increased denitrification rates, compared to degraded urban streams prior to treatment (Bukavecas, 2007; Kaushal et al., 2008). This suggests that urban stream rehabilitation may be one of many elements that can be considered to help decrease loads in nutrient-sensitive watersheds.

- Practices that enhance in-stream habitat for aquatic life can improve the expected level of stream biodiversity. However, Konrad (2003) notes that improvement of biological diversity of urban streams should still be considered an experiment, since it is not always clear what hydrologic, water quality, or habitat stressors are limiting. Larson et al. (2001) found that physical habitat improvements can result in no biological improvement at all. In addition, many of the biological processes in urban stream ecosystems remain poorly understood, such as carbon processing and nutrient uptake.

- Some stream rehabilitation practices can indirectly increase stream biodiversity (such as riparian reforestation, which could reduce stream temperatures, and the removal of barriers to fish migration).

FIGURE 5-48 Three photographs illustrate stream rehabilitation in Denver. The top left picture is a creek that has eroded in its bed due to urbanization. The top right picture shows a portion of the stabilized creek immediately after construction. Check structures, which keep the creek from cutting its bed, are visible in the middle distance. The bottom image shows the creek just upstream of one of the check structures two years after stabilization. The thickets of willows established themselves naturally. The only revegetation performed was to seed the area for erosion control.

It should be noted that the majority of urban stream rehabilitation projects undertaken in the United States are designed for purposes other than mitigating the impacts of stormwater or enhancing stream biodiversity or ecosystem function (Bernhardt et al., 2005). Most stream rehabilitation projects have a much narrower design focus, and are intended to protect threatened infrastructure, naturalize the stream corridor, achieve a stable channel, or maintain local bank stability (Schueler and Brown, 2004). Improvements in either biological health or the quality of stormwater runoff have rarely been documented.

Unique design models and methods are required for urban streams, compared to their natural or rural counterparts, given the profound changes in hydrologic and sediment regime and stream–floodplain interaction that they experience (Konrad, 2003). While a great deal of design guidance on urban stream rehabilitation has been released in recent years (FISRWG, 2000; Doll and Jennings, 2003; Schueler and Brown, 2004), most of the available guidance has not yet been tailored to produce specific outcomes for stormwater mitigation, such as reduced sediment delivery, increased nutrient processing, or enhanced stream biodiversity. Indeed, several researchers have noted that many urban stream rehabilitation projects fail to achieve even their narrow design objectives, for a wide range of reasons (Bernhardt and Palmer, 2007; Sudduth et al., 2007). This is not surprising given that urban stream rehabilitation is relatively new and rarely addresses the full range of in-stream alteration generated by watershed-scale changes.

This shortfall suggests that much more research and testing are needed to ensure urban stream habilitation can meet its promise as an emerging SCM.

Municipal Housekeeping (Street Sweeping and Storm-Drain Cleanouts)

Phase II NPDES stormwater permits specifically require municipal good housekeeping as one of the six minimum management measures for MS4s. Although EPA has not presented definitive guidance on what constitutes "good housekeeping", CWP (2008) outlines ten municipal operations where housekeeping actions can improve the quality of stormwater, including the following:

- municipal hotspot facility management,
- municipal construction project management,
- road maintenance,
- street sweeping,
- storm-drain maintenance,
- stormwater hotline response,
- landscape and park maintenance ,
- SCM maintenance, and
- employee training.

The overarching theme is that good housekeeping practices at municipal operations provide source treatment of pollutants before they enter the storm-drain system. The most frequently applied practices are street sweeping (Figure 5-49) and sediment cleanouts of sumps and storm-drain inlets. Most communities conduct both operations at some frequency for safety and aesthetic reasons, although not specifically for the sake of improving stormwater quality (Law et al., 2008).

Numerous performance monitoring studies have been conducted to evaluate the effect of street sweeping on the concentration of stormwater pollutants in downstream storm-drain pipes (see Pitt, 1979; Bender and Terstriep, 1994; Brinkman and Tobin, 2001; Zarrielo et al., 2002; Chang et al., 2005; USGS, 2005; Law et al., 2008). The basic finding is that regular street sweeping has a low or limited impact on stormwater quality, depending on street conditions, sweeping frequency, sweeper technology, operator training, and on-street parking. Sweeping will always have a limited removal capability because rainfall events frequently wash off pollutants before the sweeper passes through, and only some surfaces are accessible to the sweeper, thus excluding sidewalk, driveways, and landscaped areas. Frequent sweeping (i.e., weekly or monthly) has a moderate capability to remove sediment, trash and debris, coarse solids, and organic matter.

Fewer studies have been conducted on the pollutant removal capability of frequent sediment cleanout of storm-drain inlets, most in regions with arid climates (Lager et al., 1977; Mineart and Singh, 1994; Morgan et al., 2005). These studies have shown some moderate pollutant removal if cleanouts are done on a monthly or quarterly basis. Most communities, however, report that they clean out storm drains on an annual basis or in response to problems or drainage complaints (Law, 2006).

FIGURE 5-49 Vacuum street sweeper at Villanova University. SOURCE: Robert Traver.

Frequent sweeping and cleanouts conducted on the dirtiest streets and storm drains appear to be the most effective way to include these operations in the stormwater treatment train. However, given the uncertainty associated with the expected pollutant removal for these practices, street sweeping and storm-drain cleanout cannot be relied on as the sole SCMs for an urban area.

Illicit Discharge Detection and Elimination

MS4 communities must develop a program to detect and eliminate illicit discharges to their storm-drain system as a stormwater NPDES permit condition. Illicit discharges can involve illegal cross-connections of sewage or washwater into the storm-drain system or various intermittent or transitory discharges due to spills, leaks, dumping, or other activities that introduce pollutants into the storm-drain system during dry weather. National guidance on the methods to find and fix illicit discharges was developed by Brown et al. (2004). Local illicit discharge detection and elimination (IDDE) programs represent an ongoing and perpetual effort to monitor the network of pipes and ditches to prevent pollution discharges.

The water quality significance of illicit discharges has been difficult to define since they occur episodically in different parts of a municipal storm drain system. Field experience in conducting outfall surveys does indicate that illicit discharges may be present at 2 to 5 percent of all outfalls at any given time. Given that pollutants are being introduced into the receiving water during dry weather, illicit discharges may have an amplified effect on water quality and biological diversity.

Many communities indicate that they employ a citizen hotline to report illicit discharges and other water quality problems (Brown et al., 2004), which sharply increases the number of illicit discharge problems observed.

Stormwater Education

Like IDDE, stormwater education is one of the six minimum management measures that MS4 communities must address in their stormwater NPDES permits. Stormwater education involves municipal efforts to make sure individuals understand how their daily actions can positively or negatively influence water quality and work to change specific behaviors linked to specific pollutants of concern (Schueler, 2001c). Targeted behaviors include lawn fertilization, littering, car fluid recycling, car washing, pesticide use, septic system maintenance, and pet waste pickup. Communities may utilize a wide variety of messages to make the public aware of the behavior and more desirable alternatives through radio, television, newspaper ads, flyers, workshops, or door-to-door outreach. Several communities have performed before-and-after surveys to assess both the penetration rate for these campaigns and their ability to induce changes in actual behaviors. Significant changes in behaviors have been recorded (see Schueler, 2002), although few studies are available to link specific stormwater quality improvements to the educational campaigns (but see Turner, 2005; CASQA, 2007).

Residential Stewardship

This SCM involves municipal programs to enhance residential stewardship to improve stormwater quality. Residents can undertake a wide range of activities and practices that can reduce the volume or quality of runoff produced on their property or in their neighborhood as a whole. This may include installing rain barrels or rain gardens, planting trees, xeriscaping, downspout disconnection, storm-drain marking, household hazardous waste pickups, and yard waste composting (CWP, 2005). This expands on stormwater education in that a municipality provides a convenient delivery service to enable residents to engage in positive watershed behavior. The effectiveness of residential stewardship is enhanced when carrots are provided to encourage the desired behavior, such as subsidies, recognition, discounts, and technical assistance (CWP, 2005). Consequently, communities need to develop a targeted program to educate residents and help them engage in the desired behavior.

SCM Performance Monitoring and Modeling

Stormwater is characterized by widely fluctuating flows. In addition, inflow pollutant concentrations vary over the course of a storm and can be a function of time since the last storm, watershed, size and intensity of rainfall, season, amount of imperviousness, pollutant of interest, and so forth. This variability of the inflow to SCMs along with the very nature of SCMs makes performance monitoring a complex task. Most SCMs are built to manage stormwater, not to enable flow and water quality monitoring. Furthermore, they are incorporated into the collection system and spread throughout developments. Measurement of multiple inflows, outflows, evapotranspiration, and infiltration are simply not feasible for most sites. Many factors, such as temperature and climate, play a role in how well SCMs function. Infiltration rates can vary by an order of magnitude as a function of temperature (Braga et al., 2007; Emerson and Traver, 2008), such that a reading in late summer might be twice that of a winter reading. Determining performance can be further complicated because, e.g., at the start of a storm a detention basin could still be partially full from a previous storm, and removal rates for wetlands are a function of the growing season, not to mention snowmelt events.

Monitoring of SCMs is usually performed for one of two purposes: functionality or more intensive performance monitoring. Monitoring of functionality is primarily to establish that the SCM is functioning as designed. Performance monitoring is focused on determining what level of performance is achieved by the SCM.

Functionality Monitoring

Functionality monitoring, in a broad sense, involves checking to see whether the SCM is functioning and screening it for potential problems. Both the federal and several state industrial and construction stormwater general permits have standard requirements for visual inspections following a major storm event. Visual observations of an SCM by themselves do not provide information on runoff reduction or pollutant removal, but rather only that the device is functioning as designed. Adding some grab samples for laboratory analysis can act as a screening tool to determine if a more complex analysis is required.

The first step of functionality monitoring for any SCM is to examine the physical condition of the device (piping, pervious surfaces, outlet structure, etc.). Visual inspection of sediments, eroded berms, clogged outlets, and other problems are good indications of the SCM's functionality (see Figure 5-50). For infiltration devices, visiting after a storm event will show whether or not the device is functioning. A simple staff gauge (Figure 5-51) or a stilling well in pervious pavement can be used to measure the amount of water-level change over several days to estimate infiltration rates. Minnesota suggests the use of fire equipment or hydrants to fill infiltration sites with a set volume of water to measure the rate of infiltration. For sites that are designed to capture a set volume, for example a green roof, a visit could be coordinated with a rainfall event of the appropriate size to determine whether there is overflow during the event. If so, then clearly further investigation is required.

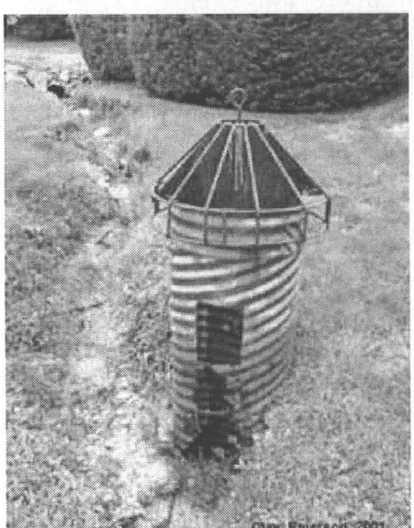

FIGURE 5-50 Rusted outlet structure. SOURCE: Reprinted, with permission, from Emerson. Copyright by Clay Emerson.

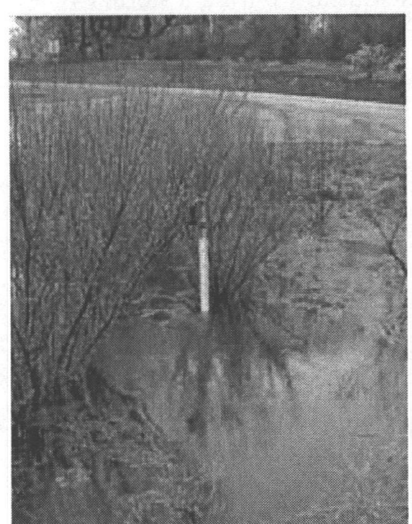

FIGURE 5-51 Staff gauge attached to ultrasonic sensor after a storm. SOURCE: VUSP.

For extended detention and stormwater wetlands, the depth of water during an event is an indicator of how well the SCM is functioning. Usually high-water marks are easy to determine due to debris or mud marks on the banks or the structures. If the size of the storm event is known, the depths can be compared to what was expected for the structure. Other indicators of problems would include erosion downstream of the SCM, algal blooms, invasive species, poor water clarity, and odor.

For water quality and manufactured devices, visual inspections after a storm event can determine whether the SCM is functioning properly. Standing water over a sand or other media filter 48 hours after a storm is a sign of problems. Odor and lack of flow clarity could be a sign of filter breakthrough or other problems. For manufactured devices, literature about the device should specify inspection and maintenance procedures.

Monitoring of nonstructural SCMs is almost exclusively limited to visual observation due to the difficulty in applying numerical value to their benefits. Visual inspection can identify eroded stream buffers, additional paved areas, or denuded conservation areas (see Figure 5-52).

Performance Monitoring

Performance monitoring is an extremely intensive effort to determine the performance of an SCM over either an individual storm event or over a series of storms. It requires integration of flow and water quality data creating both a hydrograph and a polutograph for a storm event as shown in Figure 5-53. The creation of these graphs requires continuous monitoring of the hydrology of the site and multiple water quality samples of the SCM inflow and outflow, the vadose zone, and groundwater. Event mean concentrations can then be determined from these data. There should be clear criteria for the number and type of storms to be sampled and for the conditions preceding a storm. For example, for most SCMs it would be improper to sample a second storm event in series, as the inflow may be free of pollutants and the soil moisture filled, resulting in a poor or negative performance. (Extended detention basins are an exception because the outflow during a storm event may include inflows from previous events.) The size of the sampled storm is also important. If the water quality goal is focused on smaller events, the 100-year storm would not give a proper picture of the performance because the occurrence is so rare that it is not a water quality priority.

FIGURE 5-52 Wooded conservation area stripped of trees. Note pile of sawdust. SOURCE: Robert Traver.

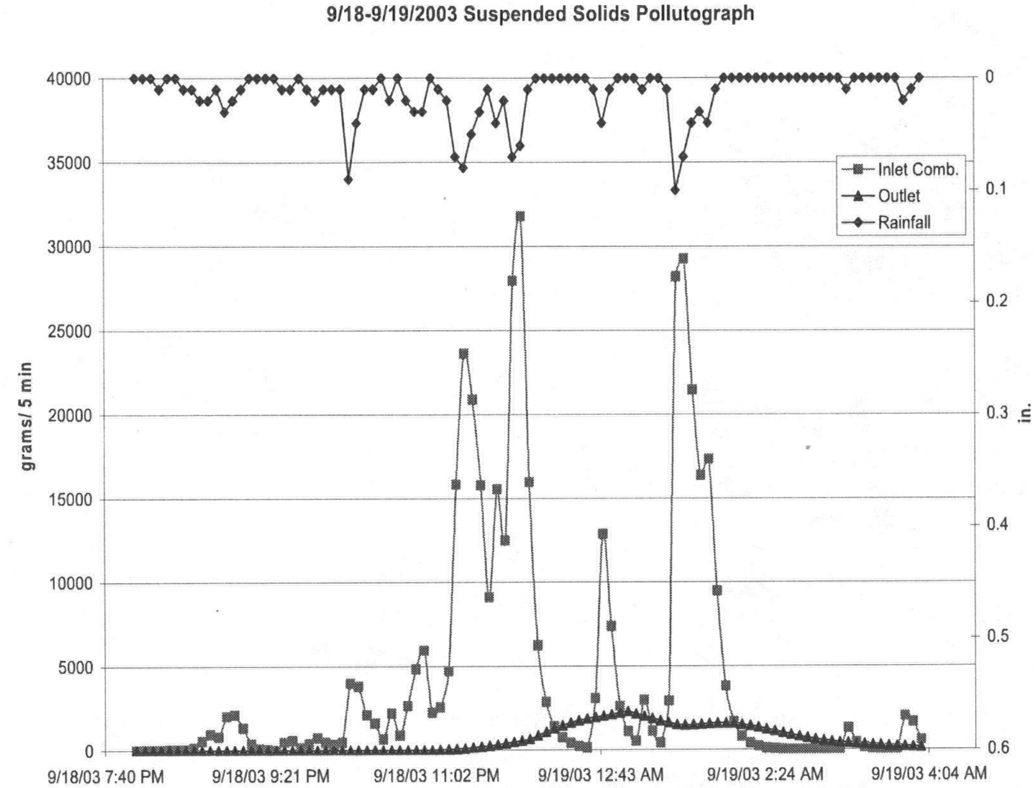

FIGURE 5-53 Example polutograph that displays inflow and outflow TSS during a storm event from the Villanova wetland stormwater SCM. SOURCE: Reprinted, with permission, Rea and Traver (2005). Copyright 2005 by the American Society of Civil Engineers.

For runoff-volume-reduction SCMs, performance monitoring can be extremely difficult because these systems are spread over the project site. The monitoring program must consider multiple-size storms because these SCMs are designed to remove perhaps the first inch of runoff. Therefore, for storms of less than an inch, there is no surface water release, so the treatment is 100 percent effective for surface discharges. During larger events, a bioretention SCM or green roof may export pollutants. When viewed over the entire spectrum of storms, these devices are an outstanding success; however, this may not be evident during a hurricane.

Through the use of manufactured weirs (Figure 5-54), it is possible to develop flow-depth criteria based on hydraulic principles for surface flows entering or leaving the SCM. Where this is not practical, various manufacturers have Doppler velocity sensors that, combined with geometry and depth, provide a reasonable continuous record of flow. Measurement of depth within a device can be accomplished through use of pressure transducers, bubblers, float gauges, and ultrasonic sensors. Other common measures would include rainfall and temperature. One advantage of these data recording systems is that they can be connected to water quality probes and automated samplers to provide a flow-weighted sample of the event for subsequent laboratory analysis. Field calibration and monitoring of these systems is required.

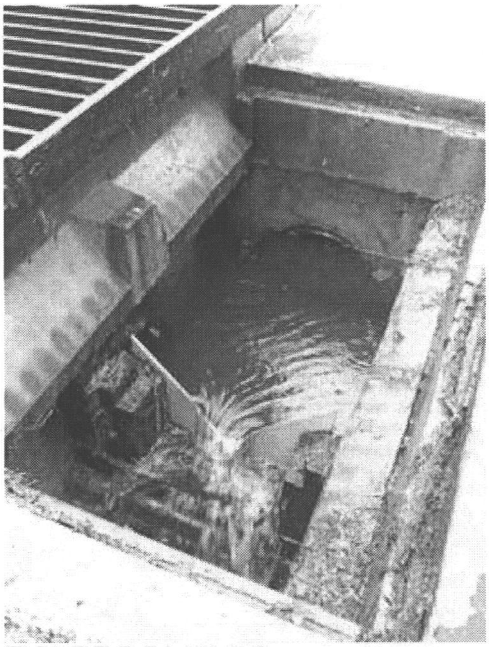

FIGURE 5-54 Weir flow used to measure flow rate. Courtesy of Robert Traver.

Groundwater sampling for infiltration SCMs is a challenge. Although the rate of change in water depth can indicate volume moving into the soil mantle, it is difficult to establish whether this flow is evapotranspirated or ends up as baseflow or deep groundwater input. Sampling in the vadose zone can be established through the use of lysimeters that, through a vacuum, draw out water from the soil matrix. Soil moisture probes can give a rough estimation of the soil moisture content, and weighing lysimeters can establish evapotranspiration rates. Finally groundwater wells can be used to establish the effect of the SCM on the groundwater depth and quality during and after storm events.

Performance monitoring of extended detention SCMs is difficult because the inflows and outflows are variable and may extend over multiple days. Hydrologic monitoring can be accomplished using weirs (Figure 5-54), flow meters, and level detectors. The new generation of temperature, dissolved oxygen, and conductivity probes allows for automated monitoring. (It should be noted that in many cases the conductivity probes are observing chlorides, which are not generally removed by SCMs.) In many cases monitoring of the downstream stream-channel geomorphology and stream habitat may be more useful than performance monitoring when assessing the effect of the SCM.

The performance monitoring of treatment devices is straightforward and involves determining the pollutant mass inflows and outflows. Performance monitoring of manufactured SCMs has been established through several protocols. An example is TARP, used by multiple states (http://www.dep.state.pa.us/dep/deputate/pollprev/techservices/tarp/). This requires the manufacturer to test their units according to a set protocol of lab or field experiments to set performance criteria. Several TARP member and other states have published revised protocols for their use. These and other similar criteria are evolving and the subject of considerable effort by industry organizations that include the American Society of Civil Engineers.

Finally, much needs to be done to determine the performance of nonstructural SCMs, for which little to no monitoring data are available (see Table 5-2). Currently most practitioners expand upon current hydrologic modeling techniques to simulate these techniques. For example, disconnection of impervious surfaces is often modeled by adding the runoff from the roof or parking area as distributed "rainfall" on the pervious area. Experiments and long-term monitoring are needed for these SCMs.

More information on SCM monitoring is available through the International Stormwater BMP Database (http://www.bmpdatabase.org).

Modeling of SCM performance

Modeling of SCMs is required to understand their individual performance and their effect on the overall watershed. The dispersed nature of their implementation, the wide variety of possible SCM types and goals, and the wide range of rainfall events they are designed for makes modeling of SCMs extremely challenging. For example, to model multiple SCMs on a single site may require simulation of many hydrologic and environmental processes for each SCM in series. Modeling these effects over large watersheds by simulating each SCM is not only impractical, but the noise in the modeling may make the simulation results suspect. Thus, it is critical to understand the model's purpose, limitations, and applicability.

As discussed in Chapter 4, one approach to simulating SCM performance is through mathematical representation of the unit processes. The large volumes of data needed for process-based models generally restrict their use to smaller-scale modeling. For flow this would start with the hydrograph entering the SCM and include infiltration, evapotranspiration, routing through the system, or whatever flow paths were applicable. The environmental processes that would need to be represented could include settling, adsorption, biological transformation, and soil physics. Currently there are no environmental process models that work across the range of SCMs. Rather, the state of art is to use general removal efficiencies from publications such as the International Stormwater BMP Database (http://www.bmpdatabase.org) and the Center for Watershed Protection's National Pollutant Removal Database (CWP, 2000b, 2007b). Unfortunately, this approach has many limitations. The percent removal used on a site and storm basis does not include storm intensity, period between the storms, land use, temperature, management practices, whether other SCMs are upstream, and so forth. It also should be noted that percent removals are a surface water statistic and do not address groundwater issues or include any biogeochemistry.

Mechanistic simulation of the hydrologic processes within an SCM is much advanced compared to environmental simulation, but from a modeling scale it is still evolving. Indeed, models such as the Prince George's County Decision Support System are greatly improved in that the hydrologic simulation of the SCM includes infiltration, but they still do not incorporate the more rigorous soil physics and groundwater interactions. Some models, such as the Stormwater Management Model (SWMM), have the capability to incorporate mechanistic descriptions of the hydrologic processes occurring inside an SCM.

At larger scales, simulation of SCMs is done primarily using lumped models that do not explicitly represent the unit processes but rather the overall effects. For example, the goal may be to model the removal of 2 cm of rainfall from every storm from bioinfiltration SCMs. Thus, all that would be needed is how many SCMs are present and their configuration and what their capabilities are within your watershed. What is critical for these models is to represent the interrelated processes correctly and to include seasonal effects. Again, the pollutant removal capability of the SCM is represented with removal efficiencies derived from publications.

Regardless of the scale of the model, or the extent to which it is mechanistic or not, nonstructural SCMs are a challenge. Limiting impervious surface or maintenance of forest cover have been modeled because they can be represented as the maintenance of certain land uses. However, aquatic buffers, disconnected impervious surfaces, stormwater education, municipal housekeeping, and most other nonstructural SCMs are problematic. Another challenge from a watershed perspective is determining what volume of pollutants comes from streambank erosion during elevated flows versus from nonpoint source pollution. Most hydrologic models do not include or represent in-stream processes.

In order to move forward with modeling of SCMs, it will be necessary to better understand the unit processes of the different SCMs, and how they differ for hydrology versus transformations. Research is needed to gather performance numbers for the nonstructural SCMs. Until such information is available, it will be virtually impossible to predict that an individual SCM can accomplish a certain level of treatment and thus prevent a nearby receiving water from violating its water quality standard.

DESIGNING SYSTEMS OF STORMWATER CONTROL MEASURES ON A WATERSHED SCALE

Most communities have traditionally relied on stormwater management approaches that result in the design and installation of SCMs on a site-by-site basis. This has created a large number of individual stormwater systems and SCMs that are widely distributed and have become a substantial part of the contemporary urban and suburban landscape. Typically, traditional stormwater infrastructure was designed on a subdivision basis to reduce peak storm flow rates to predevelopment levels for large flood events (> 10-year return period). The problem with the traditional approach is that (1) the majority of storms throughout the year are small and therefore pass through the detention facilities uncontrolled, (2) the criterion of reducing storm flow does not address the need for reducing total storm volume, and (3) the facilities are not designed to work as a system on a watershed scale. In many cases, the site-by-site approach has exacerbated downstream flooding and channel erosion problems as a watershed is gradually built out. For example, McCuen (1979) and Emerson et al. (2005) showed that an unplanned system of site-based SCMs can actually increase flooding on a watershed scale owing to the effect of many facilities discharging into a receiving waterbody in an uncoordinated fashion—causing the very flooding problem the individual basins were built to solve.

With the relatively recent recognition of unacceptable downstream impacts and the regulation of urban stormwater quality has come a rethinking of the design of traditional stormwater systems. It is becoming rapidly understood that stormwater management should occur on a watershed scale to prevent flow control problems from occurring or reducing the chances that they might become worse. In this context, the "watershed scale" refers to the small local watershed to which the individual site drains (i.e., a few square miles within a single municipality). Together, the developer, designer, plan reviewer, owners, and the municipality jointly install and operate a linked and shared system of distributed practices across multiple sites that achieve small watershed objectives. Many metropolitan areas around the country have institutions, such as the Southeast Wisconsin Regional Planning Commission and the Milwaukee