

List of Post-Construction BMP Appendices

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Stormwater BMP Fact Sheets

Appendix D1

Part 1

Nonstructural BMPs for LID Approach

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INTRODUCTION TO LID NONSTRUCTURAL BEST MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

A core concept of LID is preventing stormwater runoff by integrating site design and planning techniques that preserve natural systems and hydrologic functions, protect open spaces, as well as conserve wetlands and stream corridors on a site. This introductory segment provides detailed technical information on integrating nonstructural Best Management Practices (BMPs) early into the site design process.

The nonstructural BMPs are:

- Cluster-Type development,
- Minimize soil compaction,
- Minimize total disturbed area,
- Protect natural flow pathways,
- Protect riparian buffers,
- Protect sensitive areas,
- Reduce impervious surfaces, and
- Stormwater disconnection.

Specifically, this introductory segment discusses:

- The benefits of using nonstructural BMPs,
- The process for selecting nonstructural BMPs, and
- An overview of the format and contents of BMP fact sheets.

Green Development Standards

The primary LID characteristic of nonstructural BMPs is preventing stormwater runoff from the site. This differs from the goal of structural BMPs which is to help mitigate stormwater-related impacts after they have occurred.

More specifically, nonstructural BMPs take broader planning and design approaches, which are less “structural” in their form. Many nonstructural BMPs apply to an entire site and often to an entire community, such as wetland protection through a community wetland ordinance. They are not fixed or specific to one location. Structural BMPs, on the other hand, are decidedly more location specific and explicit in their physical form.

Benefits of using nonstructural BMPs

There are numerous benefits of incorporating nonstructural BMPs into a site. While individual benefits are discussed in detail under each BMP, there are many benefits that apply to most, if not all, of the nonstructural BMPs. These include:

- Reduced land clearing costs,
- Reduced costs for total infrastructure,
- Reduced total stormwater management costs,
- Enhanced community and individual lot aesthetics, and
- Improved overall marketability and property values.

The following steps are used to integrate LID into the site design process:

Step 1 - Property acquisition and use analysis

Step 2 - Inventory and evaluate the site

Step 3 - Integrate municipal, county, state, and federal requirements

Step 4 - Develop initial concept design using nonstructural BMPs

Step 5 - Organize pre-submission meeting and site visit with local decision makers

Step 6 - Incorporate revisions to development concept

Step 7 - Apply structural BMP selection process

Step 8 - Apply the LID calculation methodology

Step 9 - Develop the preliminary site plan

BMP Selection Process

This introductory segment and the nonstructural BMP fact sheets that follow focus on Step 4 in the site design process for LID to develop the initial concept design using nonstructural BMPs. Selection of nonstructural BMPs should focus on information gathered in Steps 1-3 of the site design process. Following are specific questions and issues to provide guidance in the selection process.

- How is the property being used? A residential development may have more applicability for certain nonstructural BMPs than other land uses. For example, cluster development is an applicable BMP for residential development, but may be less used in more urban situations.
- What natural features are on site? A thorough site inventory will provide the necessary information to assess the ability to implement many of the BMPs, including preserving sensitive and riparian areas.
- What local, county, state, and other regulations need to be met? A review of local, county, state, and other regulations can also provide guidance on selecting the right mix of nonstructural BMPs.

Overview of the Format of the BMP Fact Sheets

Each BMP fact sheet begins with a summary sheet that provides a quick overview of the BMP. The ratings contained in the summary sheet have been condensed to general categories (High, Medium, and Low) with these summary ratings often discussed in more detail in the detailed information segment of the fact sheet. Stormwater Quality Functions are based on a compilation of recent national/international studies rating pollutant removal performance.

Following the summary sheet, a series of detailed information on the BMP is provided which includes:

Variations

Discusses the variations to the BMP, if applicable. Examples include alternatives in design that can increase storage capacity or infiltration rates.

Applications

Indicates land use types for which the BMP is applicable or feasible.

Design Considerations

This section includes a list of technical procedures to be considered when designing for the individual BMP. This specific design criteria is presented, which can assist planners in incorporating LID techniques into a site design, as well as provide a basis for reviewers to evaluate submitted LID techniques.

Stormwater Calculations and Functions

Provides specific guidance on achieving sizing criteria, volume reduction, and peak rate mitigation, as applicable. This section also references the Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of the Technical Standards which discusses in detail how to achieve a specific standard or implement measures that contribute to managing water onsite in a more qualitative manner.

Construction Guidelines

Provides a typical construction sequence for implementing the BMP. However, it does not specifically address soil erosion and sedimentation control procedures. Erosion and sediment control methods need to adhere to the construction BMP requirements contained in the Technical Standards document and the latest requirements of IDEM's Soil Erosion and Sedimentation Control (Rule 5) Program.

Maintenance

Provides guidance on recommended maintenance procedures for the BMP.

Winter Considerations

Discusses how well the BMP performs in Indiana's cold climate.

Cost

Provides general cost information for comparison purposes. If specific dates of costs are not referenced in this section, the costs reflect 2007 conditions.

Designer/Reviewer's Checklist

Developed to assist a designer and or reviewer in evaluating the critical components of a BMP that is

being designed. It references not only individual design considerations, but also suggests review of additional pertinent sections of the Technical Standards that may need to be considered for implementation of that BMP.

References

Provides a list of sources of information utilized in the creation of this section of the manual. This list also provides additional sources that can be used for additional information.

Each fact sheet includes a summary sheet and additional detailed information regarding the BMP:

BMP Fact Sheet

TITLE

Short definition of BMP

Applications – Indicates in what type of land use BMP is applicable or feasible (**Yes, No, or Limited**).

Stormwater Quantity Functions – Indicates how well the BMP functions in mitigating stormwater management criteria (**High, Medium, or Low**).

Stormwater Quality Functions – Indicates how well the BMP performs in terms of pollutant removal (**High, Medium, or Low**).

Applications		Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Residential		Volume	
Commercial		Groundwater Recharge	
Ultra Urban		Peak Rate	
Industrial		Stormwater Quality Functions	
Retrofit		TSS – Total Suspended Solids	
Highway/Road		TP – Total Phosphorus	
Recreational		TN or NO3 – Total Nitrogen/Nitrate	
		Temperature	

Additional Considerations

Cost – Indicates whether cost is high, medium or low by the following categories

- **High** – adds more than 5% to total project cost
- **Medium** – adds 1–5% to total project cost
- **Low** – adds less than 1% to total project cost

Maintenance – Indicates level of maintenance required to maintain BMP (**High, Medium, or Low**).

- **High** – Maintenance intensive (i.e., year-round maintenance)
- **Medium** – Several times per year
- **Low** – One time per year

Winter Performance – Indicates if BMP provides equivalent performance throughout the winter (**High, Medium, or Low**)

- **High** – BMP performs very well in winter conditions
- **Medium** – BMP has reduced performance in winter conditions
- **Low** – BMP still performs in winter conditions, but performance is significantly reduced.

Variations (optional)

Lists of variations to the BMP if applicable

Key Design Features

Bulleted list of information that is key to the design of BMP

Site Factors (optional)

List of specific factors that relate to BMP performance

- Water table/bedrock separation distance
- Soil type
- Feasibility on steeper slopes
- Applicability on potential hotspots (e.g., brownfields)

Benefits

List of benefits directly related to implementing the BMP

Limitations

List of site constraints associated with implementation

Detailed Information - As indicated earlier, more detailed information regarding each BMP, including Description and Function, Variations, Applications, Design Considerations, Stormwater Calculations and Functions, Construction Guidelines, Maintenance, Winter Considerations, Cost, Designer/Reviewer Checklist, References, and Credits and Acknowledgments will follow the summary sheet.

Credits and Acknowledgments

This introductory segment and the fact sheets that follow have been developed by Christopher B. Burke Engineering, LLC, and are primarily based upon similar segments contained in “Low Impact Development Manual for Michigan: A Design Guide for Implementers and Reviewers” published in 2009 by the Southeast Michigan Council of Governments (SEMCOG). A selection of material contained in the noted SEMCOG publication has been modified to reflect conditions in Indiana and used, with permission, for development of this introductory segment and the fact sheets that follow. The valuable contribution of SEMCOG through sharing of this material for use in this introductory segment and the fact sheets that follow are hereby acknowledged.

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BMP Fact Sheet

CLUSTER-TYPE DEVELOPMENT

Cluster-type development (also known as open space development) concentrates development on smaller lots on a portion of a larger site. Clustering allows the site planner to avoid resource sensitive and constrained areas at a site, such as steep slopes and water-sensitive areas including riparian buffers, wetlands, and floodplains without sacrificing the level of development. Clustering reduces the amount of required infrastructure and various development-related costs. Clustering lends itself to residential development, with greatest potential in municipalities where large-lot residential development is typical. Clustering can reduce total impervious area and total disturbed areas at development sites, thereby reducing stormwater peak rates of runoff, reducing total volume of runoff, and reducing nonpoint source pollutant loads.



Figure 1 Pinehills Development, Plymouth, MA (MA Office of Energy and Environmental Affairs)

Potential Applications		Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Residential	Yes	Volume	High
Commercial	Yes*	Groundwater Recharge	High
Ultra Urban	Limited	Peak Rate	High
Industrial	Limited	Stormwater Quality Functions	
Retrofit	No	TSS	High
Highway/Road	No	TP	High
Recreational	Limited	NO ₃	High
		Temperature	High

*Depending upon site size, constraints, and other factors.

Additional Considerations	
Cost	Low
Maintenance	Low/Med
Winter Performance	High

Variations

- Clustering as an option
- Clustering mandated by the municipality
- Clustering with incentives such as density bonuses

Key Design Features

- Develop inventory
- Map sensitive areas
- Reduce total site disturbance and develop cluster plan
- Increase undisturbed open space

Benefits

- Reduces required infrastructure
- Increases open space
- Protects environmentally sensitive natural resources

Limitations

- Site specific based on land topography and individual conditions

Description and Function

Cluster-type development is driven by reducing minimum lot size, though not necessarily changing the total number of lots or amount of development occurring. As lot sizes decrease, the portion of the site which remains as undisturbed open space increases. If clustering is done carefully, this remaining open space can and should include those areas which are most sensitive environmentally and/or which offer special value functions not otherwise protected from development (e.g., high-quality woodlands areas).

Variations

One variation to a typical cluster-type development allows for a density bonus to incentivize use of this technique. A density bonus allows for additional lots to be added to the site beyond what the yield plan would show with a conventional subdivision. Proponents of this method state that allowing an additional lot or two may be the incentive needed to increase implementation of this technique. Opponents of this variation state that a density bonus is not needed since the development already costs less due to less stormwater and transportation infrastructure.

A second clustering variation for municipalities to consider, subject to legal review, is establishing clustering as the baseline requirement, at least in some zoning categories. Conventional non-clustered development would still be an option (variance, conditional use, etc.), but only if a variety of performance standards are satisfied.

A third variation for consideration relates to the nature and extent of development types subject to clustering provisions. As discussed above, single-family residential development at lower densities/on larger lots is ready-made for clustering. However, clustering concepts can provide LID benefits in larger corporate office parks, in retail centers, and other uses. Often this clustering concept takes on its own nomenclature e.g., New Urbanist, Smart Growth, Planned Integrated Development, and others. In these cases, not only are individual lots reduced in size, but the physical form of the development typically undergoes

change (i.e., 50,000 square feet of retail can move from a one-story box to stacked development with a much different New Urbanist configuration). Depending upon the nature and extent of the uses involved, “clustering” of nonresidential uses (e.g., daytime offices with evening/ weekend retail), if carefully planned can offer potential for reduced parking requirements.

Applications

Residential Clustering

The most common clustering option is residential clustering on new development. **Figure 2** illustrates a more traditional development scenario where lots are placed across the entire site. In this example, the lot and house placement does avoid major natural features such as floodplain and wetlands, but still substantially encroaches into woodlands and riparian buffer features. Such a development layout (“yield plan”) provides an estimate of a site’s capacity to accommodate lots and houses at the base density hypothetically allowed under a local zoning ordinance.



Figure 2 Conventional Development

Source: Growing Greener: Putting Conservation into Local Codes Natural Lands Trust, Inc., 1997

Figure 3 illustrates a “density-neutral” approach to clustering, where the number of lots and houses is held constant at 18 lots; however, the lot size has been reduced significantly allowing for 50 percent of open space area.

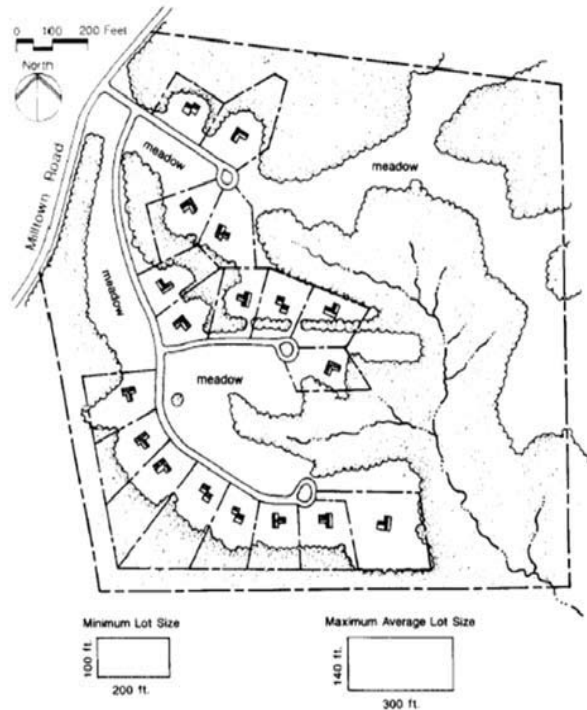


Figure 3 Clustered Development
Source: *Growing Greener: Putting Conservation into Local Codes*. Natural Lands Trust, Inc., 1997

Nonresidential Clustering

Conventional nonresidential development (e.g., retail commercial development) can also be configured in the form of low-rise (one story), relatively low-density strip or “big box” centers.

Design Considerations

The design process for implementing clustering at a proposed development site can occur in a variety of ways. Randall Arendt’s *Growing Greener: Putting Conservation into Local Codes* (1997) provides clustering guidance in several straightforward steps. The process typically begins with the applicant applying existing conventional code to the site with any necessary net outs to develop a “yield plan.” The purpose is to determine how many units can be developed conventionally:

- Step 1: Identify land to be protected: Primary conservation areas,
 - o Identify land to be protected: Secondary conservation areas, and
 - o Delineate potential development area.

- Step 2: Locate house sites on potential development area
- Step 3: Connect with streets and trails
- Step 4: Draw in lot lines

A major issue to address is the extent to which a clustering process is consistent with local ordinance requirements. How many house sites, and with what lot size, are going to be located in the potential development area?

If the existing local code is fully flexible, applicants can comprehensively “zone out” primary and secondary conservation areas and be confident that the baseline “yield plan” unit count can be loaded into the potential development area at whatever lot size is necessary (some applicants/developers believe that smaller lots translate into less valuable and marketable units and are reluctant to make considerable reductions in lot sizes). Often, however, such reduced lot sizes are less than the local ordinance allows. In such cases, the applicant is motivated to reduce primary and secondary conservation areas, so that the potential development area can be enlarged.

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Volume and peak rate

Cluster-type development is a technique that results in increased open space, which reduces stormwater peak rate and volume. These open spaces are often associated with other BMPs from this manual, including preserving sensitive areas and protecting riparian corridors. These BMPs are not to be included in the disturbed stormwater management area when calculating runoff volume (See the discussion under LID Approach in Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of the Technical Standards).

Any portion of the open space that is mitigated or revegetated/reforested should be included in the disturbed stormwater management area, but may be granted runoff reduction recognition in accordance with the applicable BMP for native revegetation,

soil restoration, minimize soil compaction, riparian buffer restoration, or minimize total disturbed area.

Water quality improvement

Clustering minimizes impervious areas and their associated pollutant loads, resulting in improved water quality. In addition, clustering preserves open space and other natural features, such as riparian corridors, which allow for increased infiltration of stormwater and removal of pollutant loads. (See the discussion under LID Approach in Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of the Technical Standards).

Maintenance

Preserving open space creates concerns regarding responsibility for maintenance activities. Legally, the designated open space may be conveyed to the municipality. More likely, ownership of these natural areas will be assumed by homeowners' associations or the specific individual property owners where these resources are located. Specific maintenance activities will depend on the type of vegetation present in the preserved natural area. For example, woodlands require little to no maintenance and open lawns require higher maintenance. An objective of cluster-type development is to conserve the existing natural systems with minimal, if any, intervention and disturbance.

Cost

Clustering is beneficial from a cost perspective. Costs to build 100 clustered single-family residential homes is less due to less land clearing and grading, less road and sidewalk construction (including curbing), less lighting and street landscaping, potentially less sewer and water line construction, potentially less stormwater collection system construction, and other economies of scale.

Post-construction, clustering also reduces costs. A variety of studies from Rutgers University's landmark *Costs of Sprawl* studies and later updates show that delivery of a variety of municipal services such as street maintenance, sewer and water services, and trash collection are more economical on a per person or per house basis when development is clustered. Furthermore, services such as police protection are made more efficient when residential development is clustered.

Additionally, clustering has been shown to positively affect land values. Analyses of market prices of conventional development over time in contrast with comparable clustered residential developments (where size, type, and quality of the house itself is held constant) indicate that clustered development increases in value at a more rapid rate than conventionally designed developments. This is partly due to the proximity to permanently protected open space.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Cluster-Type Development

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Has nonstructural BMP Protect Sensitive Resources been applied? If not, complete this BMP.	2, 3				
Has a baseline “yield plan” been developed by applicant?	2, 3				
What local ordinance provisions - obstacles and opportunities - exist for clustering?	3				
Has a Potential Development Area, or comparable, which avoids Sensitive Resources, been delineated?	3				
Has “yield plan” house/unit count been loaded into Potential Development Area?	3				
What clustered lot size assumptions are being used? Compatible with local ordinance?	3				
Compare disturbed area/developed area of “yield plan” with clustered plan?	3				

References

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BMP Fact Sheet

MINIMIZE SOIL COMPACTION

Minimizing soil compaction is the practice of protecting and minimizing damage to existing soil quality caused by the land development process. Enhancing soil composition with soil amendments and mechanical restoration after it has been damaged is addressed in a separate structural BMP.



Figure 1 Areas where heavy equipment is not allowed are fenced off to avoid compaction of soils and damages to vegetation (MD Custom Homes, WI)

Key Design Features

- Reduce disturbance through design and construction practices
- Limit areas of heavy equipment
- Avoid extensive and unnecessary clearing and stockpiling of topsoil
- Use top quality topsoil; maintain topsoil quality during construction

Benefits

- Increases infiltration capacity
- Provides a healthy environment for vegetation
- Preserves low areas, which offer added benefit when runoff is directed there from impervious areas

Limitations

- Difficult to implement on small development sites

Applications		Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Residential	Yes	Volume	Med/High
Commercial	Yes	Groundwater Recharge	Med/High
Ultra Urban	Limited	Peak Rate	Low/Med
Industrial	Yes	Stormwater Quality Functions	
Retrofit	Limited	TSS	Med/High
Highway/Road	Limited	TP	Med/High
Recreational	Yes	NO ₃	Low
		Temperature	Med/High

Additional Considerations	
Cost	Low/Med
Maintenance	Low
Winter Performance	Low/Med

Description and Function

Minimizing soil compaction relates directly to reducing total site disturbance, site clearing, site earthwork, the need for soil restoration, and the size and extent of costly, engineered stormwater management systems. Ensuring soil quality can significantly reduce the cost of landscaping vegetation (higher survival rate, less replanting) and landscaping maintenance. Fencing off an area can help minimize unnecessary soil compaction.

Soil is a physical matrix of weathered rock particles and organic matter that supports a complex biological community. This matrix has developed over a long time period and varies greatly within the state. Healthy soils, which have not been compacted, perform numerous valuable stormwater functions, including:

- Effectively cycling nutrients,
- Minimizing runoff and erosion,
- Maximizing water-holding capacity,
- Reducing storm runoff surges,
- Absorbing and filtering excess nutrients, sediments, and pollutants to protect surface and groundwater,
- Providing a healthy root environment,
- Creating habitat for microbes, plants, and animals, and
- Reducing the resources needed to care for turf and landscape plantings.

Undisturbed soil consists of pores that have water-carrying and holding capacity. When soils are overly compacted, the soil pores are destroyed and permeability is drastically reduced. In fact, the runoff response of vegetated areas with highly compacted soils closely resembles that of impervious areas, especially during large storm events (Schueler, 2000). Recent research studies indicate that compacted soils from development practices end up as dense as concrete.

Applications

Minimizing soil compaction can be performed at any land development site during the design phase. It is especially suited for developments where significant “pervious” areas (i.e., post-development

lawns and other maintained landscapes) are being proposed. If existing soils have already been excessively compacted, soil restoration is applicable (see Soil Restoration BMP Fact Sheet).

Design Considerations

Early in a project’s design phase, the designer should develop a soil management plan based on soil types and existing level of disturbance (if any), how runoff will flow off existing and proposed impervious areas, trees and natural vegetation that can be preserved, and tests indicating soil depth and quality. The plan should clearly show the following:

1. **No disturbance areas.** Soil and vegetation disturbance is not allowed in designated no disturbance areas. Protecting healthy, natural soils is the most effective strategy for preserving soil functions. Not only can the functions be maintained, but protected soil organisms are also available to colonize neighboring disturbed areas after construction.
2. **Minimal disturbance areas.** Limited construction disturbance occurs, but soil restoration may be necessary for such areas to be considered fully pervious after development. In addition, areas to be vegetated after development should be designated minimal disturbance areas. These areas may allow some clearing, but no grading due to unavoidable cutting and/or filing. They should be immediately stabilized, revegetated, and avoided in terms of construction traffic and related activity. Minimal disturbance areas do not include construction traffic areas.
3. **Construction traffic areas.** Construction traffic is allowed in these areas. If these areas are to be considered fully pervious following development, a soil restoration program will be required.
4. **Topsoil stockpiling and storage areas.** If these areas are needed, they should be protected and maintained. They are subject to soil restoration (including compost and other amendments) following development.

5. **Topsoil quality and placement.** Soil tests are necessary to determine if it meets minimum parameters. Critical parameters include: adequate depth (four inches minimum for turf, more for other vegetation), organic content (five percent minimum), and reduced compaction (1,400 kPa maximum) (Hanks and Lewandowski, 2003). To allow water to pass from one layer to the other, topsoil must be “bonded” (See Construction Guidelines #4 below) to the subsoil when it is reapplied to disturbed areas.

Construction Guidelines

1. At the start of construction, no disturbance and minimal disturbance areas must be identified with signage and fenced as shown on the construction drawings.
2. No disturbance and minimal disturbance areas should be strictly enforced.
3. No disturbance and minimal disturbance areas should be protected from excessive sediment and stormwater loads while adjacent areas remain in a disturbed state.
4. Topsoil stockpiling and storage areas should be maintained and protected at all times. When topsoil is reapplied to disturbed areas it should be “bonded” with the subsoil. This can be done by spreading a thin layer of topsoil (2-3 inches), tilling it into the subsoil, and then applying the remaining topsoil. Topsoil should meet locally available specifications/requirements.

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Volume and peak rate reduction

Minimizing soil compaction can reduce the volume of runoff by maintaining soil functions related to stormwater infiltration and evapotranspiration. Designers that use this BMP can select a lower runoff curve number for calculating runoff volume and peak rate from the area of minimized soil compaction. See the discussion under LID Approach in Post-Construction Stormwater Quality

Management Chapter of the Technical Standards on how to calculate the runoff reduction recognition for this BMP.

Where no disturbance areas are specified, which are also sensitive areas maintained in their presettlement state, there will be no net increase in stormwater runoff from that area. Calculation methodology to account for the protection of sensitive areas is provided under LID Approach in Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of the Technical Standards.

Water quality improvement

Minimizing soil compaction improves water quality through infiltration, filtration, chemical and biological processes in the soil, and a reduced need for fertilizers and pesticides after development. See the discussion under LID Approach in Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of the Technical Standards for information on how to calculate the volume of runoff that needs water quality treatment.

Maintenance

Sites that have minimized soil compaction properly during the development process should require considerably less maintenance than sites that have not. Landscape vegetation, either retained or replanted, will likely be healthier, have a higher survival rate, require less irrigation and fertilizer, and have better aesthetics.

Some maintenance activities, such as frequent lawn mowing, can cause considerable soil compaction after construction and should be avoided whenever possible. Planting low-maintenance native vegetation is the best way to avoid damage due to maintenance. No disturbance areas on private property should have an easement, deed restriction, or other legal measure imposed to prevent future disturbance or neglect.

Cost

Minimizing soil compaction generally results in significant construction cost savings. Design costs may increase slightly due to a more time intensive design.

Criteria to Receive Runoff Reduction Recognition for Minimize Soil Compaction BMP

To receive runoff reduction recognition under the local regulation, areas of no disturbance and minimal disturbance must meet the following criteria:

- ☐ No disturbance and minimal disturbance areas are protected by having the limits of disturbance and access clearly shown on the Stormwater Plan, all construction drawings, and delineated/flagged/fenced in the field.
- ☐ No disturbance and minimal disturbance areas are not be stripped of existing topsoil.
- ☐ No disturbance and minimal disturbance areas are not be stripped of existing vegetation.
- ☐ No disturbance and minimal disturbance areas are not be subject to excessive equipment movement. Vehicle movement, storage, or equipment/material lay-down is not be permitted in these areas.
- ☐ Use of soil amendments and additional topsoil is permitted in other areas being disturbed, as described above. Light grading may be done with tracked vehicles that prevent compaction.
- ☐ Lawn and turf grass are acceptable uses. Planted meadow is an encouraged use.
- ☐ Areas receiving runoff reduction recognition are located on the development project.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Minimize Soil Compaction References

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Have no disturbance areas been defined on plans (see minimize total disturbed area BMP)?	2				
Have no disturbance areas been fenced/flagged in field?	3, 4				
Have minimal disturbance areas been defined on plans?	2				
Have construction traffic areas been defined on plans?	2				
Is soil restoration BMP committed to construction traffic areas, post-construction phase?	2				
Are soil stockpiling and storage areas defined on plan?	3				
Have proper topsoil quality and placement specifications been committed in the plans?	3				

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BMP Fact Sheet

MINIMIZE TOTAL DISTURBED AREA

A key component of LID is to reduce the impacts during development activities such as site grading, removal of existing vegetation, and soil mantle disturbance. This can be achieved through developing a plan to contain disturbed areas.



Figure 1 Undisturbed areas are protected during construction (Lake County, OH Stormwater Management Department)

Key Design Features

- Identify and avoid special value and environmentally sensitive areas (See Protect Sensitive Areas BMP)
- Maximize undisturbed open space
- Minimize disturbance lot-by-lot
- Maximize soil restoration and restore soil permeability
- Minimize and control construction traffic areas
- Minimize and control construction stockpiling and storage areas

Benefits

- Reduced runoff volume
- Reduced peak rates
- High water quality benefits
- Increased infiltration capacity
- Provides healthy environment for vegetation

Limitations

- Difficult to achieve on small development sites

Applications		Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Residential	Yes	Volume	High
Commercial	Yes	Groundwater Recharge	High
Ultra Urban	Limited	Peak Rate	High
Industrial	Yes	Stormwater Quality Functions	
Retrofit	Limited	TSS	High
Highway/Road	Limited	TP	High
Recreational	Yes	NO ₃	High
		Temperature	High

Additional Considerations	
Cost	Low
Maintenance	Low
Winter Performance	High

Description and Function

Disturbance at a development site can occur through normal construction practices, such as grading, cutting, or filling. Minimizing the total disturbed area of the site requires the consideration of multiple BMPs, such as cluster development and identifying and protecting sensitive areas. These BMPs serve to protect area resources by reducing site grading and maintenance required for long-term operation of the site.

Minimizing the total disturbed area of a site specifically focuses on how to minimize the grading and overall site disturbance, maximizing conservation of existing native plant communities and the existing soil mantle of a site. If invasive plant species are present in the existing vegetation, proper management of these areas may be required in order for the vegetation to achieve its greatest hydrological potential.

Minimize grading

Reduction in grading can be accomplished in several ways, including the conformation of the site design with existing topography and land surface, where road alignments strive to follow existing contours as much as possible, varying the grade and alignment criteria as necessary to comply with safety limits.

Minimize overall site disturbance

Site design criteria have evolved in local jurisdictions to ensure that developments meet safety standards (i.e. sight distance and winter icing) as well as certain quality or appearance standards. Roadway design criteria should be flexible in order to optimize the fit for a given parcel and achieve optimal roadway alignment. The avoidance of environmentally sensitive resources, such as important woodlands, may be facilitated through flexible roadway layout.

From the single lot perspective, the conventional lot layout can impose added earthwork and grading. Although the intent of these local requirements is to provide privacy and spacing between units, the end result is often a cleared and graded lot, which reduces stormwater benefits. And although configuring lots in a rectilinear shape may optimize

the number of units, local jurisdictions should consider requiring that the total site be made to fit the natural landscape as much as possible.

Local criteria that impose road geometry are usually contained within the subdivision and land development ordinance. Densities, lot and yard setbacks, and minimum frontages are usually contained in the zoning ordinance. Flexibility in the following land development standards will help to minimize site disturbance on an individual lot basis, thereby achieving area-wide stormwater quality and quantity results:

- Road vertical alignment criteria (maximum grade or slope)
- Road horizontal alignment criteria (maximum curvature)
- Road frontage criteria (lot dimensions)
- Building setback criteria (yards dimensions)

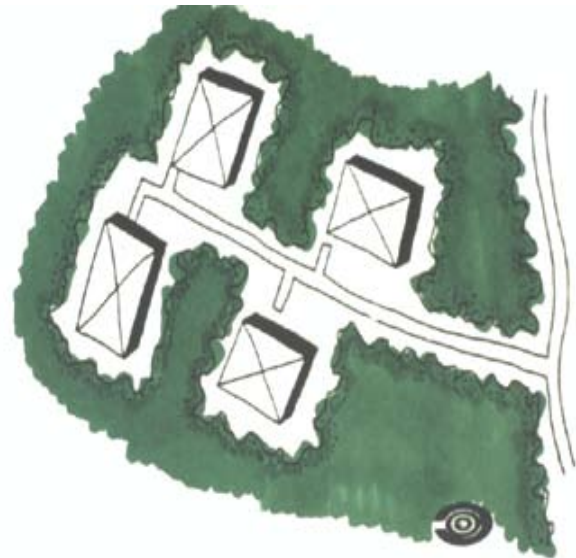


Figure 2 Minimally Disturbed Development
Source: Metropolitan Washington Council of Governments

Applications

Minimizing the total disturbed area of a site is best applied in lower density single-family developments, but can also be applied in residential developments of all types including commercial, office park, retail center, and institutional developments. Larger industrial park developments

can also benefit from this BMP. However, as site size decreases and density and intensity of development increases, this BMP is uniformly more difficult to apply successfully. At some larger sites where Ultra Urban, Retrofit, or Highway/Road development is occurring, limited application may be feasible.

Design Considerations

During the initial conceptual design phase of a land development project, the applicant's design engineer should provide the following information, ideally through development of a Minimum Disturbance/Minimum Maintenance Plan:

1. **Identify and Avoid Special Value/Sensitive Areas**

Delineate and avoid environmentally sensitive resources using existing data from appropriate agencies, as applicable.

2. **Minimize Disturbance at Site** Modify road alignments (grades, curvatures, etc.), lots, and building locations to minimize grading, and earthwork as necessary to maintain safety standards and local code requirements. Minimal disturbance design should allow the layout to best fit the land form without significant earthwork, such as locating development in areas of the site that has been previously cleared, if possible. If cut/fill is required, the use of retaining walls is preferable to earthwork. Limits of grading and disturbance should be designated on plan documentation submitted to the local jurisdiction for review/approval and should be physically designated at the site during construction via flagging, fencing, etc.

In addition, utilizing natural drainage features generally results in less disturbance and requires less revegetation.

3. **Minimize Disturbance at Lot**

To decrease disturbance, grading should be limited to roadways and building footprints. Local jurisdictions should establish maximum setbacks from structures, drives, and walks. These setbacks should be designed to be rigorous but reasonable in terms of current

feasible site construction practices. These standards may need to vary with the type of development being proposed and the context of that development (the required disturbance zone around a low density single-family home can be expected to be less than the disturbance necessary for a large commercial structure), given necessity for use of different types of construction equipment and the realities of different site conditions. For example, the U.S. Green Building Council's Leadership in Energy & Environmental Design Reference Guide (Version 2.0 June 2001) specifies:

"...limit site disturbance including earthwork and clearing of vegetation to 40 feet beyond the building perimeter, 5 feet beyond the primary roadway curbs, walkways, and main utility branch trenches, and 25 feet beyond pervious paving areas that require additional staging areas in order to limit compaction in the paved area..."

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Volume

Any portion of a site that can be maintained in its predevelopment state by using this BMP will not contribute increased stormwater runoff and will reduce the amount of treatment necessary for Channel Protection Volume and Water Quality Volume requirements. In addition, isolated trees within disturbed areas that are protected in accordance to this BMP or the "Protect Sensitive Areas" BMP requirements can get "runoff reduction recognition" by receiving a curve number reflecting a woodlot in "good" condition for the pre-developed underlying soil conditions. Calculation methodology to account for this BMP is provided in the discussion under LID Approach in Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of the Technical Standards.

Peak rate

Runoff from the minimized disturbed area may be excluded from peak rate calculations for rate control, provided that the runoff from the area is not conveyed to and/or through stormwater

management control structures. If necessary, runoff from the minimized disturbed area should be directed around BMPs and stormwater pipes and inlets by means of vegetated swales or low berms that direct flow to natural drainageways.

Water quality improvement

Water quality is benefited substantially by minimizing the disturbed area.

Maintenance

Minimizing site disturbance will result in a reduction of required maintenance of a site in both the short and long terms. Areas of the site left as intact native plant communities do not typically require replacement with hard surfaces or additional vegetation to retain function. On the other hand, artificial surfaces such as pavement or turf grass require varying levels of maintenance throughout the life of a development. Higher levels of disturbance will also typically require significant maintenance of erosion control measures during the active development of a parcel, thus adding to short-term development costs.

While intact natural areas may require small amounts of occasional maintenance to maintain function (typically through invasive species control), levels of maintenance required for hard surfaces or turf grass will remain static or, in most cases, increase over time. Avoiding disturbance to natural areas benefits the short-term developer and the long-term owner by minimizing time and money needed to maintain artificial surfaces.

Cost

The reduced costs of minimized grading and earthwork should benefit the developer. Cost issues include reduced grading and related earthwork as well as costs involved with site preparation, fine grading, and seeding.

Calculation of reduced costs is difficult due to the extreme variation in site factors, (amount of grading, cutting/filling, and haul distances for required trucking,). Some relevant costs factors are as follows (as based on R.S. Means, Site Work & Landscape Cost Data, 2007):

Site Clearing

- Cut & chip light trees to diameter \$3,475/acre
- Grub stumps and remove \$1,600/acre
- Cut & chip light trees to 24-inch diameter \$11,600/acre
- Grub stumps and remove \$6,425/acre

Strip Topsoil and Stockpile

- Ranges from \$0.52- \$1.78/yd³ because of Dozer horse power, and ranges from ideal to adverse conditions
- Assuming six inches of topsoil, 500-ft haul: \$2.75-9.86/yd³
- Assuming six inches of topsoil, 500-ft haul: \$9,922 -16,746 / acre

Site Preparation, Fine Grading, Seeding

- Fine grading w/ seeding: \$2.91 /yd²
- Fine grading w/ seeding: \$14,084 /acre

In sum, total costs usually range from \$29,000 - \$49,000 per acre and could substantially exceed that figure at more challenging sites.

Criteria to Receive Runoff Reduction Recognition for Minimizing Total Disturbed Area

To receive runoff reduction recognition for protection of existing trees under a local regulation, the following criteria must be met:

- ☐ Area has not been subject to grading or movement of existing soils.
- ☐ Existing native vegetation are in a healthy condition as determined through a plant inventory and may not be removed.
- ☐ Invasive vegetation may be removed.
- ☐ Pruning or other required maintenance of vegetation is permitted. Additional planting with native plants is permitted.
- ☐ Area is protected by having the limits of disturbance clearly shown on all construction drawings and delineated in the field.
- ☐ Area is located on the development project.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Minimizing Total Disturbed Area

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Do local jurisdiction requirements for open space and related resource protection exist? Applied here?	2				
Have related BMPs (Protect Sensitive Areas, Natural Flow Pathways, Riparian Buffers, Clustering) been applied?	2				
Has Potential Development Area been defined?	3				
Have infrastructure connections/constraints been analyzed?	2				
On site, have roads been aligned to fit topography, to parallel contours and minimize cut/fill? On areas previously cleared? With terracing? Compatible with natural flow pathways?	3				
On lots, have buildings been located to reduce disturbance?	3				
On lots, have maximum disturbance radii been established and applied?	2				
No disturbance areas shall be clearly delineated on construction plans and flagged/fenced in field	3				
Have no disturbance zones been assessed qualitatively for invasive management needs?	2				

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- Better Site Design: A Handbook for Changing Development Rules in Your Community*. Ellicott City, MD: Center for Watershed Protection, 1998.
- Coffman, Larry. *Low Impact Development Design Strategies: An Integrated Design Approach*. EPA 841 B 00 0023. Prince George's County, MD: Department of Environmental Resources, Programs and Planning, 2000.
- Conservation Design for Stormwater Management: A Design Approach to Reduce Stormwater Impacts from Land Development*. Dover, DE: Delaware Department of Natural Resources and Environment Control, 1997.
- Guidance Specifying Management Measures for Sources of Nonpoint Pollution in Ocean Waters*. Washington, DC: U.S. Environmental Protection Agency report. 840 B 92 002. Section 6217 (g) , January 1993.
- Minnesota Stormwater Manual Version 1.1*. Minnesota Pollution Control Agency, September 2006. www.pca.state.mn.us/water/stormwater/stormwater-manual.html
- Rooftops to Rivers: A Policy Guide for Decision Makers on How to Use Green Infrastructure to Address Water Quality and Volume Reduction for Communities with Combined Sewer Overflow Issues*. Washington, DC: Natural Resources Defense Council, June 2006. www.nrdc.org/water/pollution/rooftops/contents.asp
- Pennsylvania Stormwater Best Practices Manual*. Harrisburg PA: Pennsylvania Department of Environmental Protection, December 2006.
- Reducing Stormwater Costs through Low Impact Development (LID) Strategies and Practices*. PA 841-F-07-006. Washington, DC: U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, December 2007.
- Site Planning for Urban Stream Protection*. Washington, DC: Metropolitan Washington Council of Governments, 1995.
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BMP Fact Sheet

PROTECT NATURAL FLOW PATHWAYS

A main component of LID is to identify, protect, and use natural drainage features, such as swales, depressions, and watercourses to help protect water quality. Designers can use natural drainage features to reduce or eliminate the need for structural drainage systems.



Figure 1 Long swales utilized in areas of natural drainage pathways, Lenexa, KS (USEPA, picasaweb)

Applications		Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Residential	Yes	Volume	Low/Med
Commercial	Yes	Groundwater Recharge	Low
Ultra Urban	No	Peak Rate	Med/High
Industrial	Yes	Stormwater Quality Functions	
Retrofit	Yes	TSS	Low/Med
Highway/Road	Yes	TP	Low/Med
Recreational	Yes	NO ₃	Low
		Temperature	Low

Additional Considerations	
Cost	Low
Maintenance	Low/Med
Winter Performance	Low/Med

Variations

- Check dams to slow velocity
- Earthen berms for additional storage
- Additional native vegetation for increased infiltration

Key Design Features

- Identifies and maps natural drainage features (e.g., swales, channels, ephemeral streams, depressions, etc.)
- Uses natural drainage features to guide site design
- Distributes non-erosive surface flow to natural drainage features
- Keeps non-erosive channel flow within drainage pathways
- Uses native vegetative buffers

Benefits

- Maximizes natural hydrological functions
- Reduces structural management practices
- Reduces management costs

Limitations

- Minimal water quality benefits

Description and Function

Many natural undeveloped sites have identifiable drainage features such as swales, depressions, and watercourses which effectively manage the stormwater that is generated on the site. By identifying, protecting, and using these features, a development can minimize its stormwater impacts. Instead of ignoring or replacing natural drainage features with engineered systems that rapidly convey runoff downstream, designers can use these features to reduce or eliminate the need for structural drainage systems.

Naturally vegetated drainage features tend to slow runoff and thereby reduce peak discharges, improve water quality through filtration, and allow some infiltration and evapotranspiration to occur. Protecting natural drainage features can provide for significant open space and wildlife habitat, improve site aesthetics and property values, and reduce the generation of stormwater runoff itself. If protected and used properly, natural drainage features generally require very little maintenance and can function effectively for many years.

Site designs should use and/or improve natural drainage pathways whenever possible to reduce or eliminate the need for stormwater pipe networks. This can reduce costs, maintenance burdens, and site disturbance related to pipe installation. Natural drainage pathways should be protected from significantly increased runoff volumes and rates due to development. The design should prevent the erosion and degradation of natural drainage pathways through the use of upstream volume and rate control BMPs, if necessary. Level spreaders, erosion control matting, revegetation, outlet stabilization, and check dams can also be used to protect natural drainage features.

Variations

Natural drainage features can also be made more effective through the design process. Examples include constructing slight earthen berms around natural depressions or other features to create additional storage, installing check dams within drainage pathways to slow runoff and promote

infiltration, and planting additional native vegetation within swales and depressions.

Applications

As density and overall land disturbance decreases, this BMP can be used with a greater variety of land uses and development types. It is best used in residential development, particularly lower density single-family residential development. Where local jurisdiction ordinances already require a certain percentage of the undeveloped site to remain as undeveloped open space, this open space requirement can be overlain onto natural flow pathways/drainage features, as well as floodplains, wetlands, and related riparian areas. After minimizing runoff as much as possible, reduced runoff quantities can then be distributed into this natural flow pathway system, on a broadly distributed basis, lot by lot.

Other land uses such as commercial and industrial developments tend to be associated with higher density development. This results in higher



Figure 2 Schematic of a site design protecting natural drainage features.

Source: Georgia Stormwater Management Manual, Volume 2: Technical Handbook, First Edition. August, 2001

impervious coverage and maximum site disturbance allowances, making protecting and conserving natural flow pathways/drainage areas more difficult.

Applications for both retrofit and highway/road are limited. In terms of retrofitting, some developed

sites may have elements of natural flow pathways/drainage features intact, although many presettlement site features may have been altered and/or eliminated. Developed sites of lower densities may offer limited retrofit potential. Similarly, highway/road projects are likely to be characterized by both limited site area, given the difficulties of right-of-way acquisition, as well as substantial disturbance of this limited site area.

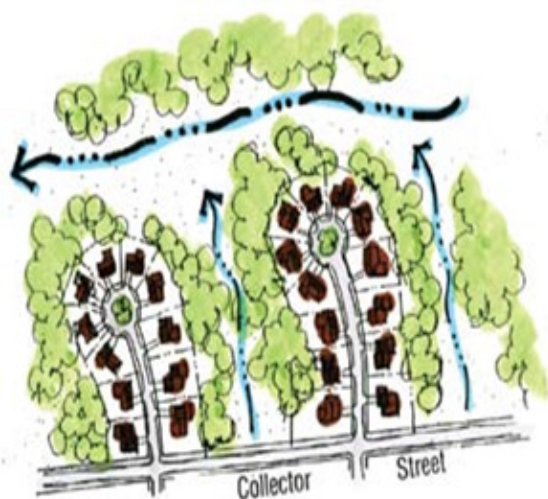


Figure 3 Natural drainage features can guide the design
Source: Delaware Department of Natural Resources and Environmental Control - Conservation Design for Stormwater Management

Design Considerations

1. **Identify natural drainage features.** Identifying and mapping natural drainage features is generally done as part of a comprehensive site analysis. This process is an integral first step of site design (**Figure 3**). Subtle site features such as swales, drainage pathways, and natural depressions should be delineated in addition to commonly mapped hydrologic elements such as wetlands, perennial and intermittent streams, and waterbodies.
2. **Use natural drainage features to guide site design.** Instead of imposing a two-dimensional paper design on a particular site, designers can use natural drainage features to steer the site layout. Drainage features define contiguous open space and other undisturbed

areas as well as road alignment and building placement. The design should minimize disturbance to natural drainage features. Drainage features that are to be protected should be clearly shown on all construction plans. Methods for protection, such as signage and fencing, should also be noted on applicable plans.

3. **Use native vegetation.** Natural drainage pathways should be planted with native vegetative buffers and the features themselves should include native vegetation where applicable. If drainage features have been previously disturbed, they can be restored with native vegetation and buffers.
4. **County Regulated Drain Considerations:** Special attention needs to be paid regarding the type and density of vegetation used if the natural drainage pathway is or will be a part of the County Regulated Drain system. The County may require that at least one side of the regulated drain is clear of woody vegetation, with continuous access provided for reconstruction and maintenance. Pre-coordination with the County Surveyor's Office is highly recommended.

Stormwater Function and Calculations

Volume reduction

Protecting natural flow pathways can reduce the volume of runoff in several ways. Reducing disturbance and maintaining a natural cover reduces the volume of runoff through infiltration and evapotranspiration. Using natural flow pathways further reduces runoff volumes through allowing increased infiltration to occur, especially during smaller storm events. Encouraging infiltration in natural depressions also reduces stormwater volumes. Employing strategies that direct non-erosive sheet flow onto naturally vegetated areas also promotes infiltration – even in areas with relatively impermeable soils. (See the discussion under LID Approach in Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of the Technical Standards.)

Peak rate mitigation

Protecting natural flow pathways can reduce the peak rate of runoff in several ways. Reducing disturbance and maintaining a natural cover reduces the runoff rate. Using natural flow pathways can lower discharge rates by slowing runoff and increasing onsite storage.

Water quality improvement

Protecting natural flow pathways improves water quality through filtration, infiltration, sedimentation, and thermal mitigation. (See the discussion under LID Approach in Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of the Technical Standards.)

Maintenance

Natural drainage features that are properly protected and used as part of site development should require very little maintenance. However, periodic inspections are important. Inspections should assess erosion, bank stability, sediment/debris accumulation, and vegetative conditions, including the presence of invasive species. Problems should be corrected in a timely manner.

Protected drainage features on private property should have an easement, deed restriction, or other legal measure to prevent future disturbance or neglect.

Cost

Protecting natural flow pathways generally results in significant construction cost savings. Protecting these features results in less disturbance, clearing, and earthwork and requires less revegetation. Using natural flow pathways reduces the need and size of costly, engineered stormwater conveyance systems. Together, protecting and using natural flow pathways reduces and even eliminates the need for stormwater management facilities (structural BMPs), lowering costs even more.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Protect Natural Flow Pathways

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Identify in plan all natural flow pathways before proposed development?	2				
Identify in plan natural flow pathways protected post-development?	2				
Highlight in plan natural flow pathways which are integrated into stormwater management?	2, 3				
Have measures been taken to guarantee that natural pathways won't be negatively impacted by stormwater flows?	2				
Has runoff reduction recognition been calculated for natural flow pathways being protected?	3				

References

Center for Watershed Protection. Better Site Design: A Handbook for Changing Development Rules in your Community. Ellicott City, MD, 1998.

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BMP Fact Sheet

PROTECT RIPARIAN BUFFER AREAS

Riparian buffer areas are important elements of local communities' green infrastructure and/or LID tool box. These areas are critical to the biological, chemical, and physical integrity of our waterways. Riparian buffer areas protect water quality by cooling water, stabilizing banks, mitigating flow rates, and providing for pollution and sediment removal by filtering overland sheet runoff before it enters the water. The Environmental Protection Agency defines buffer areas as, "areas of planted or preserved vegetation between developed land and surface water, [which] are effective at reducing sediment and nutrient loads."

Physical restoration of riparian buffer areas is discussed in a separate structural BMP. A detailed description of the characteristics of riparian buffer areas is combined with a discussion of their stormwater functions in the Riparian Buffer Restoration BMP.

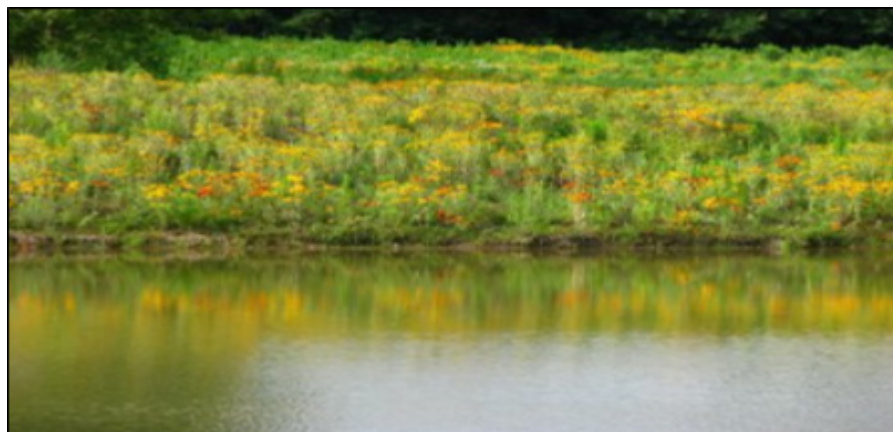


Figure 1 Urban riparian buffer (Hamilton County, IN Urban Conservation Association)

Key Design Features

- Physical protection
- Protection through planning tools

Benefits

- Improves water quality
- Reduces runoff velocities
- Reduces flow
- Enhances site aesthetics, habitat
- Reduces shoreline and bank erosion
- Improves flood control
- Reduces water temperature

Limitations

- Limited in reducing total runoff volumes
- Size of lot and/or development site may reduce ability to protect riparian buffers

Applications		Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Residential	Yes	Volume	Low/Med
Commercial	Yes	Groundwater Recharge	Low/Med
Ultra Urban	Limited	Peak Rate	Low/Med
Industrial	Yes	Stormwater Quality Functions	
Retrofit	Yes	TSS	High
Highway/Road	Limited	TP	High
Recreational	Yes	NO ₃	Medium
		Temperature	High

Additional Considerations	
Cost	Low/Med
Maintenance	Low
Winter Performance	High

Applications

As with the Protect Sensitive Areas nonstructural BMP, protecting riparian buffer areas has great value and utility for virtually all types of development proposals and land uses. This BMP works best on larger sites. Therefore, although riparian buffer programs should be advocated in the densest of settings, their application is likely to be limited in high density contexts. Creative design can maximize the potential of riparian buffers. Clustering and density bonuses are design methods available to increase the amount and connectedness of open space areas such as riparian buffers.

Design Considerations

Physical Design

Consider the following when protecting the proper riparian buffer area width and related specifications:

- Existing or potential value of the resource to be protected,
- Site, watershed, and buffer characteristics,
- Intensity of adjacent land use, and
- Specific water quality and/or habitat functions desired.

Riparian buffers can be divided into different zones (**Figure 2**) that include vegetation to enhance the quality of the body of water.

Zone 1: Also termed the “streamside zone,” Zone 1 begins at the edge of the stream bank of the active channel and extends a minimum distance of 25 feet, measured horizontally on a line perpendicular to the water body. Undisturbed vegetated area aims to protect the physical and ecological integrity of the stream ecosystem. The vegetative target for the streamside zone is undisturbed native woody species with native plants forming canopy, understory, and duff layer. Where such forest does not grow naturally, the native vegetative cover appropriate for the area (such as grasses, forbs, or shrubs) is the vegetative target.

Zone 2: Also termed the “middle zone,” Zone 2 extends immediately from the outer edge of Zone 1 for a minimum distance of 55 feet. This managed area of native vegetation protects key components of the stream ecosystem and provides distance between upland development and the streamside zone. The vegetative target for the middle zone is either undisturbed or managed native woody species or, in its absence, native vegetative cover of shrubs, grasses, or forbs. Undisturbed forest, as in Zone 1, is encouraged strongly to protect future water quality and the stream ecosystem.

Zone 3: Also termed the “outer zone,” Zone 3 extends a minimum of 20 feet immediately from the outer edge of Zone 2. This zone prevents encroachment into the riparian buffer area, filters

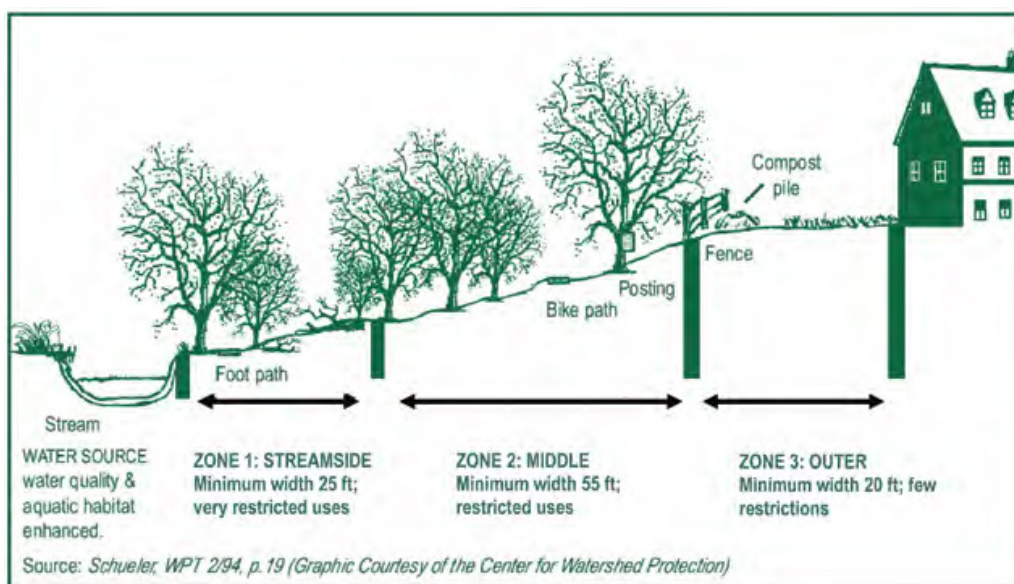


Figure 2 Buffer Width Recommendations

Source: Schueler, Watershed Protection Techniques, 1994

runoff from adjacent land, and encourages sheet flow of runoff into the buffer. The vegetative target for the outer zone is native woody and herbaceous vegetation to increase the total width of the buffer; native grasses and forbs are acceptable.

County Regulated Drain Considerations: Special attention needs to be paid regarding the type and density of vegetation used if the natural drainage pathway or stream is or will be a part of the County Regulated Drain system. The County may require that at least one side of the regulated drain is clear of woody vegetation, with continuous access provided for reconstruction and maintenance. Pre-coordination with the County Surveyor's Office is highly recommended.

Local Planning and Riparian Buffers

Numerous tools exist at the community level to protect riparian buffers, including ordinances, integrating buffers into plans, and public education.

Local buffer regulations

To effectively manage riparian buffer areas, a community must properly plan for these resources. Some Indiana communities have riparian buffer ordinances that explicitly regulate these areas. Typical components of a riparian ordinance include:

- Exemptions,
- Width requirements,
- Permitted and prohibited uses within the riparian buffer,
- Maintenance requirements,
- Waivers and variances, and
- Maintenance and construction of utilities and public roads along the stream corridor.

Natural features setback standards establish a minimum setback (buffer width) from natural features to prevent physical harm or destruction of the feature. These standards recognize the relationship between terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems and should be applied to both lakes and rivers. Each community establishes buffer width standards at their discretion.

In general, the wider the buffer, the greater the number of ecological functions the riparian zone will provide. Communities may choose to establish

fixed or variable width buffers or a combination of the two (Oakland County Planning & Economic Development Services).

Key planning elements of a local riparian protection program*

- Provide ample setbacks for sanitary facilities on buffer areas
- The wider the riparian buffer, the greater the water quality protection and habitat value of the area
- Establish setbacks from rivers and streams
- Regulate road placement adjacent to the riparian buffer area
- Restrict clearing, construction, and development within the 100-year floodplain
- Zone areas adjacent to riparian buffer areas for low intensity development
- Establish minimum lot size, frontage, and width requirements
- Include reference to floodplain, soil, and sedimentation controls administered by other agencies in riparian regulations
- Screen new structures with native vegetation
- Limit industrial use along riparian corridors and regulate through special use permits subject to pre-designated standards
- Limit the amount of impervious surfaces allowed adjacent to the buffer area
- Clearly outline appropriate and inappropriate uses of riparian buffer areas
- Promote intergovernmental coordination of regulations among communities along the river corridor

* - Adapted from *Michigan Wetlands – Yours to Protect*

Integrating buffer protection into plans

In addition to implementing a riparian buffer ordinance, communities can include riparian buffer area protection in the following planning tools:

- Local master plans,
- Park and recreation plans, and
- Subdivision and land development ordinances.

Park and recreation plans can adopt the goals, policies, and objectives for riparian protection that are listed in the community master plan, or include its own park and recreation-specific recommendations for riparian buffer management. Content may focus on defining appropriate and inappropriate recreational uses for riparian areas located within parks. Park and recreation plans may also provide guidelines for proper construction and maintenance of river access points, and rules and regulations for public access as these topics relate to potential impacts on riparian buffers (Oakland County Planning & Economic Development Services).

Riparian buffer education

Educational opportunities for the general public are an important component in community planning. Informing riparian owners of the importance of buffer areas will help to ensure these areas are understood and maintained over time. Public education activities include hosting public meetings, direct mailings to riparian homeowners, and educational workshops. These activities can be developed to meet the specific needs of your community through partnerships with local watershed groups.

Design Measures

The following elements represent a menu of design measures for riparian and natural resource protection that communities may choose to encourage or require developers to incorporate during the site plan review process.

Conservation subdivision or open space regulations:

- Prepare natural features inventory on proposed project sites.
- Require certain percentage of total parcel acreage to be retained as open space.
- Reference minimum buffer widths for riparian buffer areas and identify upland areas adjacent to riparian buffer areas as preferred green space designated for low-impact residential recreation activities.
- Advocate cluster development that concentrates construction on land with less conservation value, and allows owners of house lots in the development to share undivided ownership of the portion of property remaining in a scenic and natural condition.
- Advocate lot averaging standards for retaining riparian resources and natural features on smaller sites.

Lot size and density regulations:

- Provide flexible lot size and density standards to guide development away from a stream buffer or other sensitive land.
- Provide developers with density bonuses for land-conserving design and density disincentives to actively discourage land-consuming layouts.

Minimum frontage and road setback regulations:

- Provide flexibility in frontage and road setback standards to minimize development intrusion on riparian buffer areas.

Stormwater management guidelines:

- Regulate erosion control before, during, and after construction.
- Encourage developers to retain natural vegetation already protecting waterways.
- Create a variable-width, naturally vegetated buffer system along lakes and streams that also encompasses critical environmental

features such as the 100-year floodplain, steep slopes, and wetlands.

- Limit clearing and grading of forests and native vegetation at a site to the minimum amount needed to build lots, allow access, and provide fire protection.
- Promote riparian buffer areas as part of stormwater management planning.

Source: Planning for Green River Corridors, Oakland County Planning & Economic Development Services.

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Any portion of a site that can be maintained in its presettlement state by using this BMP will not contribute increased stormwater runoff and will reduce the amount of treatment necessary. Calculation methodology to account for this BMP is provided in the discussion under LID Approach in Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of the Technical Standards.

Volume

Protected riparian buffers are not to be included in the disturbed stormwater management area when calculating runoff volume (See the discussion under LID Approach in Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of the Technical Standards.)

Any portion of a riparian buffer area that is mitigated or revegetated/reforested should be included in the disturbed stormwater management area, but may be granted runoff reduction recognition in accordance with the applicable BMP for native revegetation, soil restoration, minimize soil compaction, riparian buffer restoration, or minimize total disturbed area.

Peak rate

Runoff from the riparian buffers may be excluded from peak rate calculations for rate control, provided that runoff from the riparian buffers is not conveyed to and/or through stormwater management control structures. If necessary, runoff from riparian buffers should be directed around BMPs and stormwater pipes and inlets by means of

vegetated swales or low berms that direct flow to natural drainageways.

Water quality improvement

Water quality is benefited substantially by avoiding negative impacts which otherwise would have resulted from impacts to riparian buffers (e.g., loss of water quality functions from riparian buffers, from wetland reduction, etc.).

Cost

The costs of protecting riparian areas relate to a reduction in land available for development. However, most riparian areas are located in wetlands or floodplains, restricting the amount of buildable area.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Protect Riparian Buffer Areas

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Define municipal programs requirements or resources for riparian buffer protection, if any.	3-4				
Based on above and relevant sources, establish riparian buffer protection standards for development site.	3-4				
Map riparian resources at the site which need buffer protection.	3				
Apply Zone1/Zone2/Zone3 determinations; adjust for steep slopes and/or other natural/made factors.	2				
Overlay development program onto site, avoiding/minimizing Riparian Buffer Zone impacts.	3				
Contacted the County Surveyor's Office if the drainage pathway or stream is a County Regulated Drain?	3				
Provide for Riparian Buffer Zone maintenance?	4				
Provide for Riparian Buffer Zone protection in perpetuity (deed restrictions? covenants? easements?)?	--				

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BMP Fact Sheet

PROTECT SENSITIVE AREAS

Protecting sensitive and special value features is the process of identifying and avoiding certain natural features during development. This allows these features to be used for various benefits, including reducing stormwater runoff.

Protecting sensitive areas can be implemented both at the site level and throughout the community. For prioritization purposes, natural resources and their functions may be weighted according to their functional value. Sensitive areas should be preserved in their natural state to the greatest extent possible and are not the appropriate place to locate stormwater infrastructure.



Figure 1 Tree Preservation during construction, Seattle, WA (USEPA, picasaweb)

Key Design Features

- Identify and map the following: floodplains, riparian areas, wetlands, woodlands, prairies, natural flow pathways, steep slopes, and other sensitive areas
- Identify and map potential development areas

Benefits

- Improved water quality
- Mitigation of runoff volume and peak rates

Limitations

- Difficult to implement on smaller sites

Applications		Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Residential	Yes	Volume	High
Commercial	Yes	Groundwater Recharge	High
Ultra Urban	Limited	Peak Rate	High
Industrial	Yes	Stormwater Quality Functions	
Retrofit	No	TSS	High
Highway/Road	Limited	TP	High
Recreational	Yes	NO ₃	Low
		Temperature	High

Additional Considerations	
Cost	Low/Med
Maintenance	Low/Med
Winter Performance	High

Description and Function

Protecting sensitive areas challenges the site planner to inventory and then, to the greatest extent possible, avoid resource sensitive areas at a site, including riparian buffers, wetlands, hydric soils, floodplains, steep slopes, woodlands, valuable habitat zones, and other sensitive resource areas. Development, directed away from sensitive areas, can be held constant, if BMPs such as cluster development are also applied.

A major objective of LID is to accommodate development with fewer impacts to the site. If development avoids encroachment upon, disturbance of, and impact to those natural resources which are especially sensitive to land development impacts and/or have special functional value, then low impact development can be achieved.

The first step in protecting sensitive areas is for the site planner to define, inventory, and map which resources are especially sensitive and/or have special value at a site proposed for development. Although many sensitive areas are common to all areas within Indiana, they can vary by region. The most detailed inventories are often compiled at the municipal or county level. For those areas without municipal or county-level data, state-level data can be used.

Preserving open space in multiple development areas throughout a community can ultimately evolve to form a unified open space system, integrating important conservation areas throughout the community and beyond. Many communities within Indiana are undertaking “green infrastructure” planning initiatives to proactively map these systems in order to restore or protect them as development occurs. The objective of these plans is to avoid impacting sensitive areas by: 1) carefully identifying and mapping these resources (resource areas, primary and secondary) from the start of the site planning process, and 2) striving to protect resource areas by defining other portions of the site free of these resources (potential development areas).

At the community level, local governments can implement community-wide regulations that protect

sensitive areas such as wetlands, woodlands, riparian areas, and floodplains.

Potential Applications

Regardless of land use type, protecting sensitive areas is applicable across all types of land development projects, whether residential of varying densities or office park, retail center or industrial and institutional uses. As density and intensity of uses increases, ease of application of this BMP decreases. In such limited cases, it is especially important that sensitive areas be prioritized.

Design Considerations

1. **Identify, map, and inventory sensitive areas.** Mapping a site’s sensitive areas is an important step in preserving them. These features often include wetlands, steep slopes, woodlands, floodplains, and riparian areas. These data may give the community a general idea of the sensitive resources that could be on the site. In addition, the mapping will help the site designer define a potential development area which avoids encroachment upon and disturbance of defined and mapped sensitive areas.

The inventory of sensitive areas should also include an assessment of the *quality* of the existing natural communities. Because plant communities will exist in a variety of states based on historic disturbance and degradation, the quality of the given community needs to be considered in comparison to other similar communities.

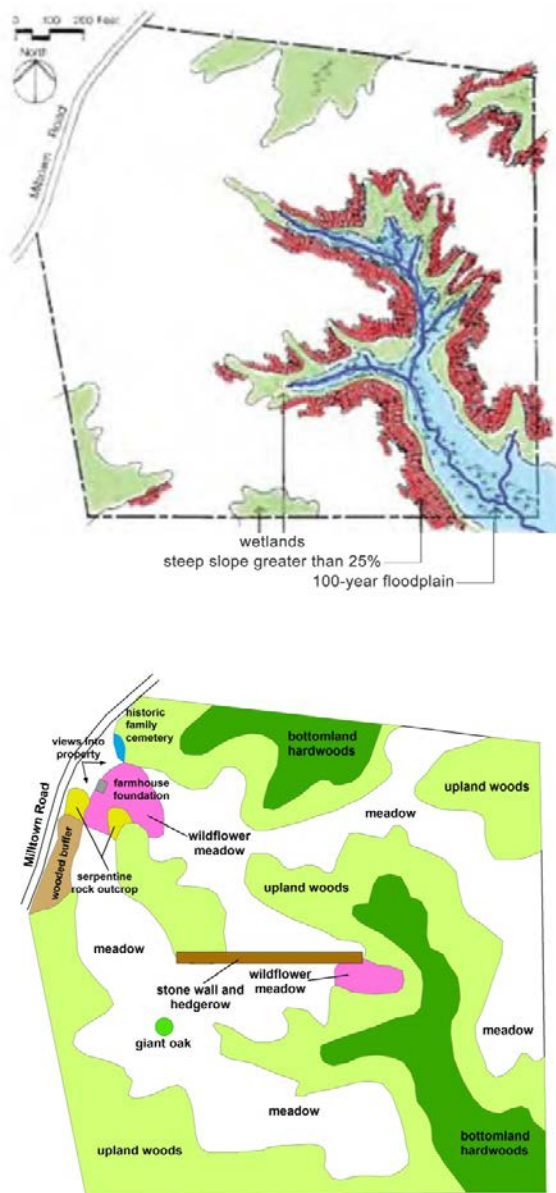


Figure 2 Map of Sensitive Areas (top) and Secondary Resources (bottom)
Source: Arendt, Randall. 1997

2. **Combine mapped natural features into a sensitive resource areas map, prioritizing areas to avoid development.** All sensitive resource mapping should be overlain to produce a sensitive areas map. In *Growing Greener*, Randall Arendt acknowledges prioritizing or weighting of sensitive areas by defining them as either Primary Conservation Areas (the most critical – avoid at all costs) or Secondary Conservation Areas (important

resources which should be avoided when possible). Mapping the secondary resources of the site is an important step; the community can provide input to determine which features are important for preservation. Additionally, Primary and Secondary Conservation Areas can be defined in different ways, possibly varying with watershed context, (e.g., woodlands in some contexts may be classified as Primary Conservation Areas, rather than secondary).

3. **Map potential development areas; prioritize/ weight as necessary.** The potential development area should be delineated on the basis of protecting the primary and secondary resources on a site. Like the sensitive areas map, priorities and weightings may be reflected in the potential development area map. If sensitive areas have been prioritized, then weightings of potential development also may be established, varying with lack of degree of sensitivity measured by the resources themselves or overlapping of

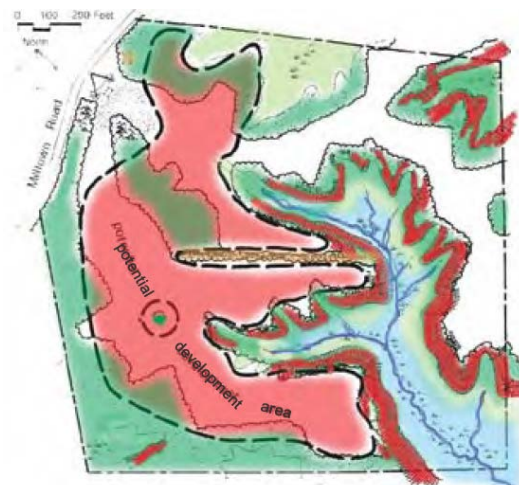


Figure 3 Map of Potential Development Areas
Source: Arendt, Randall. 1997

resources.

4. **Local regulation.** The level of regulation imposed on resource areas (primary and secondary) will likely vary by local jurisdiction. A local ordinance may prohibit and/or otherwise restrict development in primary and secondary resource areas, provided certain legal tests (such as a takings determination) are passed. Additional

activities include:

- a. Conservation easement – Given to land conservancy or maintained by homeowners association.
- b. Requirements in the master deed and bylaws for protection and preservation.
- c. Boundary markers at edges of lots to minimize encroachment.
- d. Cooperative agreements for stewardship of sensitive areas between homeowners' associations and local conservation organizations.

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Any portion of a site that can be maintained in its predevelopment state by using this BMP will not contribute increased stormwater runoff and will reduce the amount of treatment necessary. Calculation methodology to account for this BMP is provided in the discussion under LID Approach in Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of the Technical Standards.

Volume

Protected sensitive areas are not to be included in the disturbed stormwater management area when calculating runoff volume (see the discussion under LID Approach in Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of the Technical Standards).

Any portion of a sensitive area that is mitigated or revegetated/reforested should be included in the disturbed stormwater management area, but may be granted runoff reduction recognition in accordance with the applicable BMP for native revegetation, soil restoration, minimize soil compaction, riparian buffer restoration, or minimize total disturbed area.

Peak Rate

Runoff from the protected sensitive area may be excluded from peak rate calculations for rate control, provided that the runoff is not conveyed to and/or through stormwater management control structures. If necessary, runoff from protected sensitive areas should be directed around BMPs and stormwater pipes and inlets by means of vegetated

swales or low berms that direct flow to natural drainageways.

Water Quality Improvement

Water quality is benefited substantially by avoiding negative impacts which otherwise would have resulted from impacts to sensitive areas (e.g., loss of water quality functions from riparian buffers, from wetland reduction, etc.)

Construction Guidelines

Although protecting sensitive areas happens early in the site plan process, it is equally important that the developer and builder protect these areas during construction.

The following guidelines describe good planning practices that will help ensure protection of a few common environmentally sensitive resources during construction.

Water Resources

- If vegetation needs to be reestablished, plant native species, or use hydroseed and mulch blankets immediately after site disturbance.
- Use bioengineering techniques, where possible, to stabilize stream banks.
- Block or protect storm drains in areas where construction debris, sediment, or runoff could pollute waterways.
- During and after construction activities, sweep the streets to reduce sediment from entering the storm drain system.
- Avoid hosing down construction equipment at the site unless the water is contained and does not get into the stormwater conveyance system.
- Implement spill control and clean-up practices for leaks and spills from fueling, oil, or use of hazardous materials. Use dry clean-up methods (e.g., absorbents) if possible. Never allow a spill to enter the stormwater conveyance system.
- Avoid mobile fueling of equipment. If mobile fueling is necessary, keep a spill kit on the fueling truck.

- Properly dispose of solid waste and trash to prevent it from ending up in our lakes and streams.
- When protecting riparian buffer areas, consider the three buffer zones in protection criteria:

Zone 1: Also termed the “streamside zone,” Zone 1 begins at the edge of the stream bank of the active channel and extends a minimum distance of 25 feet, measured horizontally on a line perpendicular to the water body. Undisturbed vegetated area aims to protect the physical and ecological integrity of the stream ecosystem. The vegetative target for the streamside zone is undisturbed native woody species with native plants forming canopy, understory, and duff layer; where such forest does not grow naturally, then native vegetative cover appropriate for the area (such as grasses, forbs, or shrubs) is the vegetative target.

Zone 2: Also termed the “middle zone,” Zone 2 extends immediately from the outer edge of Zone 1 for a minimum distance of 55 feet. This managed area of native vegetation protects key components of the stream ecosystem and provides distance between upland development and the streamside zone. The vegetative target for the middle zone is either undisturbed or managed native woody species or, in its absence, native vegetative cover of shrubs, grasses, or forbs. Undisturbed forest, as in Zone 1, is strongly encouraged to protect further water quality and the stream ecosystem.

Zone 3: Also termed the “outer zone,” Zone 3 extends a minimum of 20 feet immediately from the outer edge of Zone 2. This zone prevents encroachment into the riparian buffer area, filters runoff from adjacent land, and encourages sheet flow of runoff into the buffer. The vegetative target for the outer zone is native woody and herbaceous vegetation to increase the total width of the buffer; native grasses and forbs are acceptable.

County Regulated Drain Considerations: Special attention needs to be paid regarding the type and density of vegetation used if the natural drainage pathway or stream is or will be a part of the County Regulated Drain system. The County may require that at least one side of the regulated drain is clear of woody vegetation, with continuous access

provided for reconstruction and maintenance. Pre-coordination with the County Surveyor’s Office is highly recommended.

Wetlands

- Avoid impacts to wetlands whenever possible. If impractical, determine if a wetland permit is needed from the state or local government. (If any permit requirements or wetland regulations conflict with these guidelines, comply with the permit or regulation).
- Excavate only what is absolutely necessary to meet engineering requirements. Do not put excavated material in the wetland. (Excavated material could be used in other areas of the site to improve seeding success).
- If construction activities need to occur within a wetland, activities should be timed, whenever possible, when the ground is firm and dry. Avoid early spring and fish-spawning periods.
- Install flagging or fencing around wetlands to prevent encroachment.
- Travel in wetlands should be avoided. Access roads should avoid wetlands whenever possible. Crossing a wetland should be at a single location and at the edge of the wetland, if possible.
- Never allow a spill to enter area wetlands.

Floodplains

- Design the project to maintain natural drainage patterns and runoff rates if possible.
- Maintain as much riparian vegetation as possible. If riparian vegetation is damaged or removed during construction, replace with native species.
- Use bioengineering techniques to stabilize stream banks.
- Keep construction activity away from wildlife crossings and corridors.
- Stockpile materials outside of the floodplain and use erosion control techniques

Woodlands and Isolated Trees in Disturbed Areas

- Protect trees on sites with severe design limitations, such as steep slopes and highly erodible soils.
- Preserve trees along watercourses to prevent bank erosion, decreased stream temperatures, and to protect aquatic life.
- Protect the critical root zone of trees during construction. This is the area directly beneath a tree's entire canopy. For every inch of diameter of the trunk, protect 1.5 feet of area away from the trunk.

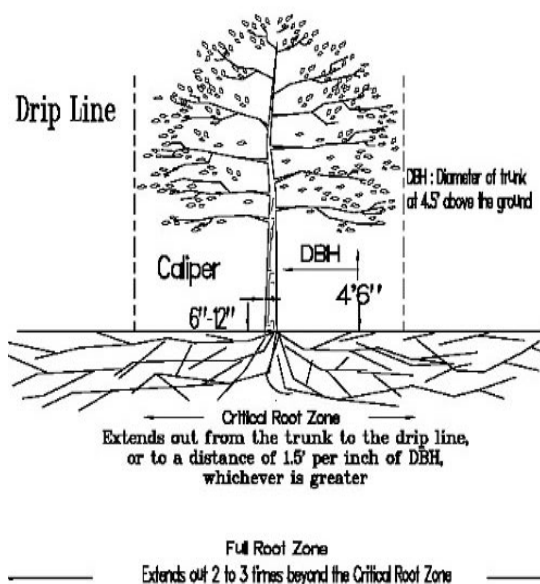


Figure 4 Critical Root Zone of a Tree

Source: www.ncufc.org/

- Avoid trenching utilities through the tree's critical root zone.
- Avoid piling excavated soil around any tree.
- Replace trees removed during construction with native trees.
- Conduct post-construction monitoring to ensure trees impacted by construction receive appropriate care.

General Construction Considerations

- Conduct a pre-construction meeting with local jurisdiction officials, contractors, and subcontractors to discuss natural resource protection. Communicate agreed-upon goals to everyone working on the project.

- Insert special requirements addressing sensitive natural areas into plans, specifications, and estimates provided to construction contractors. Note the kinds of activities that are not allowed in sensitive areas.
- Confine construction and staging areas to the smallest necessary and clearly mark area boundaries. Confine all construction activity and storage of materials to designated areas.
- Install construction flagging or fencing around sensitive areas to prevent encroachment.
- Excavate only what is absolutely necessary to meet engineering requirements. Do not put excavated material in sensitive areas. (Excavated material could be used in other areas of the site to improve seeding success.)
- Conduct onsite monitoring during construction to ensure sensitive areas are protected as planned. Conduct post-construction monitoring to ensure sensitive areas that were impacted by construction receive appropriate care.

Maintenance

The preservation of open space creates maintenance concerns related to who is required to perform the maintenance activities. Legally, the designated open space may be conveyed to the local government. More likely, ownership of these natural areas will be assumed by homeowners' associations or simply the specific individual property homeowners where these resources are located. Specific maintenance activities will depend upon the type of vegetation present in the preserved natural area where woodlands require little to no maintenance and open lawn require higher maintenance.



Figure 5 Protecting Woodlands

Cost

When development encroaches into sensitive areas, dealing with their special challenges invariably adds to development and construction costs. Sometimes these added costs are substantial, as in the case of working with wetlands or steep slopes.

Sometimes costs emerge only in longer-term operation, like encroachment in floodplains. This can translate into added risk of building damage for future owners, as well as health and safety impacts, insurance costs, and downstream flooding. If all short- and long-term costs of impacting sensitive areas were quantified and tallied, total real costs of sensitive area encroachment would increase substantially. Conversely, protecting sensitive areas results not only in cost savings, but also in water quality benefits.

At the same time, reduction in potential development areas resulting from protecting and conserving sensitive areas can have the effect of altering — even reducing — a proposed development program, thereby reducing development yield and profit. To address this, this BMP can be applied in tandem with the cluster development BMP.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Protect Sensitive Areas

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Define sensitive resources at proposed development site (see Key Design Features for list of sensitive resources)	1, 2				
Map sensitive resources at proposed development site	1, 2				
Prioritize/weight sensitive areas, as necessary and appropriate	3				
Develop potential development area map, or comparable, defined as converse/negative of sensitive areas, with priorities/weightings as necessary and appropriate.	3				
Determine baseline development plan, compatible with municipal ordinance.	2				
Iteratively fit baseline development plan to potential development area, minimizing sensitive area encroachment?	2				
Is this BMP process required by municipality? Yes or no, has applicant followed these steps, or comparable?	3, 4				

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BMP Fact Sheet

REDUCE IMPERVIOUS SURFACES

Reducing impervious surfaces includes minimizing areas such as streets, parking lots, and driveways. By reducing the amount of paved surfaces, stormwater runoff is decreased while infiltration and evapotranspiration opportunities are increased.



Figure 1 Grassed overflow parking areas (NEMO, University of Connecticut)

Applications		Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Residential	Yes	Volume	High
Commercial	Yes	Groundwater Recharge	High
Ultra Urban	Limited	Peak Rate	High
Industrial	Yes	Stormwater Quality Functions	
Retrofit	Limited	TSS	Medium
Highway/Road	Yes	TP	Low
Recreational	Yes	NO ₃	Low
		Temperature	Medium

Additional Considerations	
Cost	Low
Maintenance	Low
Winter Performance	High

Key Design Features

Streets

- Evaluate traffic volumes and street parking requirements
- Consult with local fire department and road agencies
- If available, consider a private road ordinance, as necessary, to minimize width
- Minimize pavement widths and lengths by using alternative roadway layouts, restricting on-street parking, minimizing cul-de-sac radii, and using permeable pavers

Parking Lots

- Evaluate parking requirements considering average demand as well as peak demand
- Consider smaller parking stalls and/or compact parking spaces
- Analyze parking lot layout to evaluate the applicability of narrowed traffic lanes and slanted parking stalls
- If appropriate, minimize impervious parking area by using overflow parking areas constructed of pervious paving materials

Lot Level

- Use maximum lot coverage requirements to manage the amount of impervious surfaces
- Reduce front yard setbacks to allow for shorter driveways
- Use alternative materials for patios, sidewalks, driveways, as appropriate

Benefits

- Directly reduces runoff volumes and peak rates
- Reduces development and maintenance costs
- Enhances aesthetics and habitat

Limitations

- Must comply with local private road ordinances
- Must comply with vehicular safety standards

Description and Function

Reducing street imperviousness performs valuable stormwater functions in contrast to conventional development in the following ways:

- Increases infiltration,
- Decreases runoff volumes,
- Increases stormwater time of concentration,
- Improves water quality by decreasing nonpoint source pollutant loading, and
- Decreases the concentration and energy of stormwater.

Design Considerations

Street Width

Streets usually are the largest single component of imperviousness in residential development. Universal application of high-volume, high-speed traffic design criteria results in excessively wide streets. Coupled with the perceived need to provide both on-street parking and emergency vehicle access, the end result is residential streets that may be 36 feet or greater in width.

The American Society of Civil Engineers (ASCE) and the American Association of State Highway

Jurisdiction	Residential Street Pavement Width	Maximum Daily Traffic (trips/day)
State of New Jersey	20 ft. (no parking)	0-3,500
	28 ft. (parking on one side)	0-3,500
State of Delaware	12 ft. (alley)	--
	21 ft. (parking on one side)	--
Howard County, Maryland	24 ft. (parking not regulated)	1,000
Charles County, Maryland	24 ft. (parking not regulated)	---
Morgantown, West Virginia	22 ft. (parking on one side)	--
Boulder, Colorado	20 ft.	150
	20 ft. (no parking)	350-1,000
	22 ft. (parking on one side)	350
	26 ft. (parking on both sides)	350
	26 ft. (parking on one side)	500-1,000
Bucks County, Pennsylvania	12 ft (alley)	--
	16-18 ft. (no parking)	200
	20-22 ft. (no parking)	200-1,000
	26 ft. (parking on one side)	200
	28 ft. (parking on one side)	200-1,000

Table 1 Narrow Residential Street Widths

Source: Cohen, 1992; Bucks County Planning Commission, 1980; Center for Watershed Protection, 1998

Imperviousness greatly influences stormwater runoff volume and quality by increasing the rapid transport of stormwater and collecting pollutants from atmospheric deposition, automobile leaks, and additional sources.

Stream degradation has been observed at impervious levels as low as 10-20 percent watershed-wide when these areas are managed conventionally. Recent findings indicate that degradation is observed even at much lower levels of imperviousness. Reducing imperviousness improves an area's hydrology, habitat structure, and water quality.

and Transportation Officials (AASHTO) recommend that low-traffic-volume roads (less than 50 homes or 500 daily trips) be as narrow as 22 feet. Some municipalities have reduced their lowest trafficable residential roads to 18 feet or less. Higher-volume roads are recommended to be wider. **Table 1** provides sample road widths from different jurisdictions.

Need for adequate emergency vehicle access, notably fire trucks, also leads to wider streets. While it is perceived that very wide streets are required for fire trucks, some local fire codes permit roadway widths as narrow as 18 feet (**Table 2**). Concerns also exist relating to other vehicles and maintenance activities on narrow streets. School buses are typically nine feet wide, mirror to mirror.

Source	Residential Street Width
U.S. Fire Administration	18-20 ft.
Baltimore County, Maryland Fire Department	16 ft. (no on-street parking)
	24 ft. (on-street parking)
Virginia State Fire Marshall	18 ft. minimum
	24 ft. (no parking)
Prince George's County, Maryland Department of	30 ft. (parking on one side)
Environmental Resources	36 ft. (parking on both sides)
	20 ft. (fire truck access)
Portland, Oregon Office of Transportation	18 ft. (parking on one side)

Table 2 Fire Vehicle Street Requirements

Source: Adapted from Center for Watershed Protection, 1998

Prince George's and Montgomery Counties in Maryland require only a 12-foot driving lane for buses (Center for Watershed Protection, 1998).

Similarly, trash trucks require only a 10.5-foot driving lane. Trash trucks have a standard width of nine feet (Waste Management, 1997; BFI, 1997). In some cases, road width for emergency vehicles may be added through use of permeable pavers for roadway shoulders.

Snow removal on narrower streets is readily accomplished with narrow, eight-foot snowplows. Restricting parking to one side of the street allows accumulated snow to be piled on the other side of the street. Safety concerns are also cited as a justification for wider streets, but increased vehicle-pedestrian accidents on narrower streets are not supported by research. In fact, wider streets have been shown to promote increased speeds and accidents. The Federal Highway Administration states that narrower streets reduce vehicle travel speeds, lessening the incidence and severity of accidents.

Higher density developments require wider streets, but alternative layouts can minimize street widths. For example, in instances where on-street parking is desired, impervious pavement is used for the travel lanes, with permeable pavers placed on the road apron for the parking lanes. The width of permeable pavers is often the width of a standard parking lane (six to eight feet). This design approach minimizes impervious area while also providing an infiltration and recharge area for the impervious roadway stormwater.

Street Length

Numerous factors influence street length, including

clustering techniques. As with street width, street length greatly impacts the overall imperviousness of a developed site. While no one prescriptive technique exists for reducing street length, alternative street layouts should be investigated for options to minimize impervious cover. Successful clustering design consistently has shown to reduce required street lengths, holding development programs constant (i.e., 100 homes successfully clustered on a 100-acre property results in a significant reduction in street length and total imperviousness than 100 homes conventionally gridded in large-lot development format).

Cul-de-sacs

The use of cul-de-sacs introduces large areas of imperviousness into residential developments. Some communities require the cul-de-sac radius to be as large as 50 to 60 feet. Simply reducing the radius from 40 feet to 30 feet can reduce the imperviousness by 50 percent (Schueler, 1995).

When cul-de-sacs are necessary, three primary alternatives can reduce their imperviousness; reduce the required radius, incorporate a landscaped island into the center of the cul-de-sac, or create a T-shaped (or hammerhead) turnaround (**Figure 2**). To reduce the radius, many jurisdictions have identified required turnaround radii (**Table 3**).

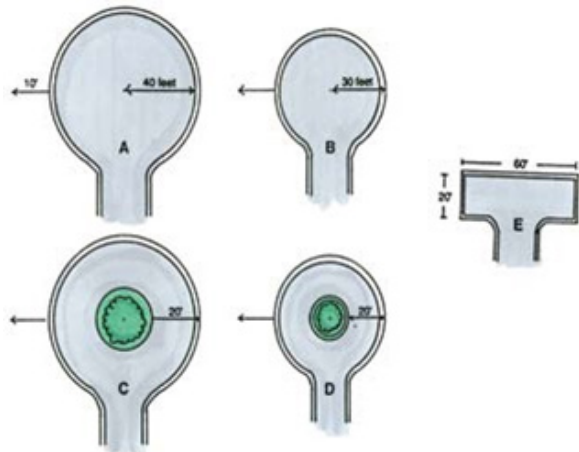


Figure 2 Five Cul-de-Sac Options
Source: Center for Watershed Protection, 1998

A landscaped island in the center of a cul-de-sac can provide the necessary turning radius, minimizing impervious cover. This island can be designed as a depression to accept stormwater runoff from the surrounding pavement, thus furthering infiltration. A flat apron curb will stabilize roadway pavement and allow for runoff to flow into the cul-de-sac's open center.

A T-shaped turnaround reduces impervious surface even further – yielding a paved area less than half that of a 30-foot radius turnaround. Since vehicles need to make a three-point turn to drive out, T-

Source	Radius
Portland, Oregon Office of Transportation	35 ft (with fire dept. approval)
Buck County, Pennsylvania Planning Commission	38 ft (outside turning radius)
Fairfax County, Virginia Fire and Rescue	45 ft
Baltimore County, Maryland Fire Department	35 ft (with fire dept. approval)
Montgomery County, Maryland Fire Department	45 ft
Prince George's County, Maryland Fire Department	43 ft

Table 3 Cul-de-sac Turning Radii
Source: Adapted from Center for Watershed Protection, 1998

shaped turnarounds are most appropriate on streets with 10 or fewer homes.

Parking

Parking lots often comprise the largest percentage of impervious area. Parking lot size is dictated by lot layout, stall geometry, and parking ratios. Modifying any or all of these three aspects can serve to minimize the total impervious areas associated with parking lots. Parking ratio requirements and accommodating peak parking demand often provide parking capacity substantially in excess of average parking needs. This results in vast quantities of unused impervious surface. A design alternative to this scenario is to provide designated overflow parking areas.

The primary parking area, sized to meet average demand, might still be constructed on impervious pavement to meet local construction codes and American with Disabilities Act requirements. However, the overflow parking area, designed to accommodate increased parking requirements associated with peak demand, could be constructed on pervious materials (e.g., permeable pavers, grass pavers, gravel. See Porous Pavement BMP Fact Sheet). This design approach, focused on average parking demand, will still meet peak parking demand requirements while reducing impervious pavement.

Parking Ratios

Parking ratios express the specified parking requirements provided for a given land use. These specified ratios are often set as minimum requirements. Many developers seeking to ensure adequate parking provide parking in excess of the minimum parking ratios. Additionally, commercial parking is often provided to meet the highest hourly demand of a given site, which may only occur a few times per year. However, average parking demand is generally less than the typical required parking ratios (Table 4).

Parking spaces are comprised of five impervious components (Center for Watershed Protection, 1998):

1. The parking stall,
2. The overhang at the stall's edge,
3. A narrow curb or wheel stop,
4. The parking aisle that provides stall access, and

5. A share of the common impervious areas (e.g., fire lanes, traffic lanes).

imperviousness achieved through reduced street widths and lengths and reduced paved parking areas

Land Use	Parking Ratio	Average Parking Demand
Single Family Home	2 spaces per dwelling unit	1.1 spaces per dwelling unit
Shopping Center	5 spaces per 1,000 ft ² of GFA	3.97 spaces per 1,000 ft ² of GFA
Convenience Store	3.3 spaces per 1,000 ft ² of GFA	Not available
Industrial	1 space per 1,000 ft ² of GFA	1.48 spaces per 1,000 ft ² of GFA
Medical/Dental Office	5.7 spaces per 1,000 ft ² of GFA	4.11 spaces per 1,000 ft ² of GFA

(GFA – Gross Floor Area, excluding storage and utility space)

Table 4 Example Minimum Parking Ratios

Source: Institute of Transportation Engineers, 1987; Smith, 1984; Wells, 1994

Of these, the parking space itself accounts for approximately 50 percent of the impervious area, with stall sizes ranging from 160 to 190 square feet.

Several measures can be taken to limit parking space size. First, jurisdictions can review standard parking stall sizes to determine their appropriateness. A typical stall dimension may be 10 feet by 18 feet, much larger than needed for many vehicles. The great majority of SUVs and vehicles are less than seven feet in width, providing opportunity for making stalls slightly narrower and shorter. In addition, a typical parking lot layout includes parking aisles that accommodate two-way traffic and perpendicularly oriented stalls. The use of one-way aisles and angled parking stalls can reduce impervious area.

Municipalities can also stipulate that parking lots designate a percentage of stalls as compact parking spaces. Smaller cars comprise a significant percentage of vehicles and compact parking stalls create 30 percent less impervious cover than average-sized stalls (Center for Watershed Protection, 1998).

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Quantifying impervious areas at a proposed development site, pre- to post-development continues to dominate stormwater calculations. Stormwater calculations, as discussed in the discussion under LID Approach in Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of the Technical Standards, are sensitive to pervious areas and their contribution to total volume of runoff, increased peak rate of runoff, and increased generation of nonpoint source pollutants. A reduction in

automatically reduces the volume and peak rate of runoff. To the extent that water quality is linked to runoff volume, reduction in imperviousness translates into a reduction in water quality management requirements as compared with standard design.

Maintenance

A reduction in impervious area results in decreased maintenance. For example, whether publicly or privately maintained, reducing roadway or parking lot imperviousness typically translates into reduction in all forms of maintenance required, from basic roadway repair to winter maintenance and snow removal.

Cost

Street Width

Costs for paving are estimated to be approximately \$15 per square yard (Center for Watershed Protection, 1998), which would be considerably higher in current dollars. At this cost, for each one-foot reduction in street width, estimated savings are \$1.67 per linear foot of paved street. For example, reducing the width of a 500-foot road by five feet would result in a savings of over \$4,100, which would be considerably higher in current dollars. This cost is exclusive of other construction costs including grading and infrastructure.

Street Length

Factoring in pavement costs at \$15 per square yard (as above), a 100-foot length reduction in a 25-foot-wide road would produce a savings in excess of \$4,000 (much higher in current dollars).

In addition to pavement costs, costs for street lengths, including traditional curb and gutter and stormwater management controls, are approximately \$150 per linear foot of road (Center for Watershed Protection, 1998), which would be considerably higher in current dollars. Decreasing road length by 100 feet would save an additional \$15,000, for a combined total of \$19,100.

Parking

Estimates for parking construction range from \$1,200 to \$1,500 per space (Center for Watershed Protection, 1998), which would be significantly higher in current dollars. For example, assuming a cost of \$1,200 per parking space, reducing the required parking ratio for a modest 20,000 square foot shopping strip from five spaces per 1,000 square feet to four spaces per 1,000 square feet would represent a savings of \$24,000.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Reducing Impervious Surfaces

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Check municipal ordinances for requirements/specifications for roads, drives, parking, walkways, other (problems vs. opportunities?), including safety requirements.	1				
Have both macro (e.g., clustering) and micro site planning (e.g., reduced setbacks) activities been applied fully?	1, 3				
Have LID impervious reduction standards for roads, drives, parking, and other impervious areas been consulted and applied? ➤ <i>Street Width: See Tables 1 and 2 on Pages 2-3</i> ➤ <i>Cul-de-sac: See Table 3 on Page 4</i>	2-4				
Have roads and drives been reduced or narrowed as much as possible?	1-3				
Have macro parking ratios, lot layout, sharing strategies, and micro strategies (sizes/dimensions) been applied fully? ➤ <i>Parking Ratios: See Table 4 on Page 5</i>	4, 5				
Have pervious surfaces been applied for roads, drives, walks, parking, patios, and other hard surfaces, with maintenance been provided?	5				

➤ *Denotes Minimum Design Considerations*

References

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BMP Fact Sheet

STORMWATER DISCONNECTION

Minimize stormwater volume by disconnecting roof leaders, impervious roads, and driveways and direct runoff to other BMPs including vegetated areas that infiltrate at the site.



Figure 1 Curb cuts and vegetated areas along a Portland, OR street (USEPA, picasaweb)

Applications		Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Residential	Yes	Volume	High
Commercial	Yes	Groundwater Recharge	High
Ultra Urban	Limited	Peak Rate	High
Industrial	Limited	Stormwater Quality Functions	
Retrofit	Limited	TSS	High
Highway/Road	Limited	TP	High
Recreational	Yes	NO ₃	Low/Med
		Temperature	High

Additional Considerations	
Cost	Low
Maintenance	Low
Winter Performance	Low

Variations

- Rooftop disconnection
- Driveway/walkway/small parking areas/patio disconnection
- Minor roads
- Distribute to existing vegetated services
- Distribute to existing depressions, re-graded areas
- Distribute via curb cuts/curb removal

Key Design Features

- Encourages shallow sheet flow through vegetated areas
- Directs flows into stabilized vegetated areas, including on-lot swales and bioretention areas
- Limits the contributing rooftop area to a maximum of 500 ft² per downspout
- Maximizes overland flows
- Minimizes use of curb and gutter systems and piped drainage systems

Site Factors

- Water table to bedrock depth: two-foot minimum
- Soils: A, B
- Slope: maximum 5 percent
- Potential hotspots: No
- Max. drainage area: rooftop area of 1,000 ft²

Benefits

- Reduces runoff volume and peak rate
- Increases water quality benefits

Limitations

- Requires area for infiltration

Description and Function

Roofs, roads, and driveways account for a large percentage of post-development imperviousness. These surfaces influence stormwater quality and runoff volume by facilitating the rapid transport of stormwater and collecting pollutants from rainfall, automobile leaks, and additional sources.

Disconnecting roof leaders and routing road and driveway runoff from conventional stormwater conveyance systems allows runoff to be collected and managed onsite. Runoff can be directed to designed vegetated areas for onsite storage, treatment, and volume control. This is a distributed, low-cost method for reducing runoff volume and improving stormwater quality through:

- Increasing infiltration and evapotranspiration,
- Decreasing stormwater runoff volume, and
- Increasing stormwater time of concentration.

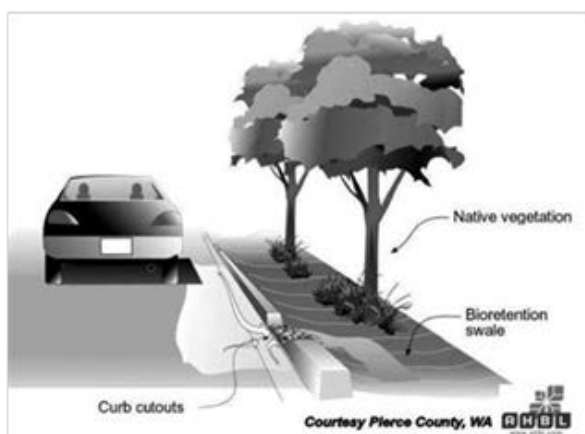


Figure 2 Curb cut-outs allow stormwater runoff from a parking lot to flow into a bioretention swale

The suitability of vegetated swales to receive runoff depends on land use, soil type, imperviousness of the contributing watershed, and dimensions and slope of the vegetated swale system. Use of natural low-lying areas is encouraged; natural drainage courses should be used and preserved.

Some ponding of water in areas receiving runoff may occur. It is important to take into account site usage when applying this BMP so that ponding does not unnecessarily interfere with expected site use (including backyard play areas). These areas should be shown on plan documents and protected with easements and deed restrictions.

Although this BMP can be applied in a variety of development settings, it will likely be more successful as lot size increases and density decreases. In situations where clustering has not been fully exercised and lots remain relatively large, these lots and the large areas of perviousness make perfect candidates for stormwater disconnection.

Variations

Disconnecting stormwater can be achieved through identifying the source of runoff and how it will be managed once disconnection occurs.

Source

Stormwater can flow from rooftop areas or from impervious areas such as driveways, walkways, small parking areas, minor roadways, and ancillary outdoor areas such as patios. (Note: Roads and highways, because of their greater runoff generation require Structural BMPs.)

Management practices

A common and successful management practice is to direct stormwater runoff to areas of existing vegetation. Vegetation can be of varying types, from established meadow to immature to mature woodland. A particular variation to consider is grading (crowning) of drives and minor roadways and

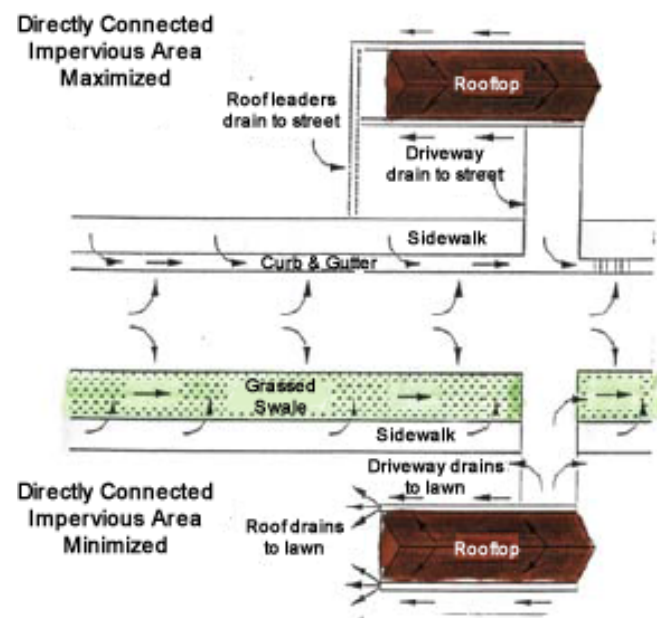


Figure 3 Difference between maximizing and minimizing runoff

eliminating curbing (or provision of curb cuts) so that runoff is allowed to flow in an even and non-concentrated manner onto adjacent vegetated areas.

In addition to directing runoff to vegetated areas, runoff may also be discharged to non-vegetated BMPs, such as dry wells, rain barrels, and cisterns for stormwater retention and volume reduction.

Another management practice includes routing runoff to existing grades and depressions that can be used to capture, store, and treat runoff. An important caveat is that applying this BMP should not prompt grading and disturbing areas which otherwise would not have been disturbed. However, assuming that grading and disturbance cannot be avoided, then subtle adjustments to grading may create additional management/storage opportunities for disconnected runoff.

An ideal coupling of BMPs is to minimize the total disturbed area of a site in coordination with stormwater disconnection. This not only reduces runoff volumes, peak rates, and pollutant loadings, but also provides multiple decentralized opportunities to receive disconnected flows.

Applications

Disconnection is ideal for most single-family developments, but can also be applied to many development sites, including larger office parks and retail centers. Industrial developments, with their larger impervious covers and greater runoff volumes, make stormwater disconnection a challenge. Even so, there are isolated applications which are beneficial and promote LID objectives. Similarly, Ultra Urban and Highway/Road developments with large flows would be more limited in application.

If downspout disconnection is applied as a retrofit, downspouts should be extended away from the basement as many footing drains are attached to the sanitary sewer system.

Design Considerations

Careful consideration should be given to the design of vegetated collection areas. Concerns pertaining to basement seepage and water-soaked yards are warranted, with the potential arising for saturated depressed areas and eroded water channels. Proper

design and use of bioretention areas, infiltration

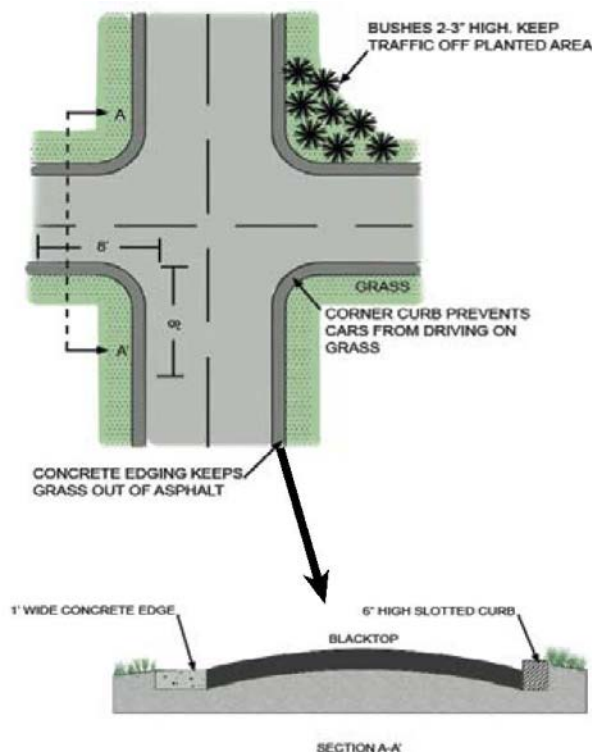


Figure 4 Curb cuts as a method of stormwater disconnection

trenches, and/or dry wells reduces or eliminates the potential for surface ponding and facilitates functioning during cold weather months. Where basements exist, consider the direction of groundwater flow and proximity.

Disconnection of small runoff flows can be accomplished in a variety of ways (Prince George's County Department of Environmental Protection, 1997; Maryland Department of the Environment, 1997; Cahill, 2008).

1. Encourage shallow sheet flow through vegetated areas.
2. Direct roof leader flow into BMPs designed specifically to receive and convey rooftop runoff.
3. Direct flows into stabilized vegetated areas, including on-lot swales and bioretention areas.
4. Rooftop runoff may also be directed to onsite depression storage areas.

5. The entire vegetated “disconnection” area should have a maximum slope of five percent.
6. Runoff should not be directed to vegetated areas if there is reason to believe that pollutant loadings will be elevated.
7. Roof downspouts or curb cuts should be at least 10 feet away from the nearest connected impervious surface to discourage “re-connections.”
 - a. Limit the contributing impervious area to a maximum of 1,000 sq. ft. per discharge point.
 - b. Limit the contributing rooftop area to a maximum of 1,000 sq. ft. per downspout, where pervious area receiving runoff must be at least twice this size.
 - c. For contributing areas greater than 1,000 sq. ft., leveling devices are recommended.
8. The maximum contributing impervious flow path length should be 75 feet.
9. For impervious areas, the length of the disconnection area must be at least the length of the contributing area (a minimum 75 feet for discharges which are concentrated; 25 feet for discharges which are not concentrated).
10. In all cases, flows from roof leaders should not contribute to basement seepage.

Stormwater runoff from disconnection needs to be monitored to ensure that flows do not become channelized that can result in erosion. Attention must be given to safe overflowing of larger storms, though clearly the more frequent smaller storms are of greatest interest and concern for successful design (use two-year storm for erosion analysis). Make sure flow of water and temporary ponding of water in management areas will not become a problem.

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Peak rate and volume

This BMP reduces total volume and peak rates of runoff, as runoff is minimized from centralized stormwater management systems at the development

site. Disconnection directly reduces volume and peak rates, which reduces the need for structural BMPs.

Water quality improvement

In terms of rooftop disconnection, this BMP has limited water quality benefit because rooftops typically have minimal pollution. In terms of other impervious area runoff sources being disconnected (driveways, walkways, ancillary areas, minor roads), water quality benefits can be significant given their greater pollutant loadings.

Maintenance

When disconnecting stormwater from rooftops or other impervious surfaces, maintaining the vegetated areas is required, but is limited.

If using structural BMPs, such as bioretention or vegetated swales, follow their specific maintenance activities. Typical maintenance of vegetation includes a biannual health evaluation of the vegetation and subsequent removal of any dead or diseased vegetation plus mulch replenishment, if included in the design. This can be incorporated into regular maintenance of the site landscaping. In some cases, if leaders are directing stormwater to lawn depressions, maintenance may be as simple as mowing.

Cost

Stormwater disconnection reduces both construction and maintenance costs due to less reliance on traditional stormwater management infrastructure. In addition, using existing or planned bioretention areas within a site creates a double usage of these BMPs.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Disconnection

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Are site factors conducive to disconnection (infiltration- related factors? slope? other?)	2, 3				
Is proposed development type (e.g., residential, commercial) conducive to disconnection? Free of hot spots?	3				
Have potential disconnection runoff sources been adequately reviewed/utilized in terms of proposed plan? ➤ <i>Max. slope for entire vegetated “disconnection” area: 5%</i> ➤ <i>Minimum distance of roof downspouts or curb cuts from nearest connected impervious surface to discourage “re-connections”: 10 feet</i> ➤ <i>Max. contributing impervious area: 1000 ft² per discharge point</i> ➤ <i>Max. contributing rooftop area (receiving pervious area must be twice this size): 1000 ft² per downspout</i> ➤ <i>If contributing area > 1000 ft², leveling device is recommended</i> ➤ <i>Max. length of contributing impervious flow path: 75 feet</i> ➤ <i>Minimum length of disconnection area to contributing impervious area: 75 feet for concentrated discharges; 25 feet for non-concentrated discharges</i>	3, 4				
Have potential disconnection management measures been used/exploited for all potential sources?	2, 3				
Have Criteria and Runoff Reduction Recognitions specifications for both rooftop and non-rooftop sources of disconnection been satisfied?	3				
Have disconnection calculation Runoff Reduction Recognitions been properly entered, as specified in Criteria and Runoff Reduction Recognitions?	3				

➤ *Denotes Minimum Design Consideration*

References

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Urbanization and Streams: Studies of Hydrologic Impacts. Washington, DC: U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 1997.

Part 2

Structural BMPs for LID and Conventional Approaches

- **Introduction**
- **Bioretention (Raingardens)**
- **Capture Reuse**
- **Constructed Filter**
- **Detention Basins – Constructed Wetlands**
- **Detention Basins – Dry Pond**
- **Detention Basins – Underground Detention**
- **Detention Basins – Wet Pond**
- **Infiltration Practices**
- **Level Spreaders**
- **Native Revegetation**
- **Pervious Pavement with Infiltration**
- **Planter Boxes**
- **Riparian Buffer Restoration**
- **Soil Restoration**
- **Vegetated Filter Strip**
- **Vegetated Roof**
- **Vegetated Swale**
- **Water Quality Devices**

INTRODUCTION TO STRUCTURAL BEST MANAGEMENT PRACTICES FOR LID AND CONVENTIONAL APPROACHES

This introductory segment focuses on structural Best Management Practices (BMPs), and provides guidance on selecting the proper BMPs for a site. Specifically, this introductory segment discusses the following:

- The BMP selection process, including a matrix that compares the key applications and functions of each BMP,
- Cold climate considerations, and
- An overview of format and contents of the structural BMP fact sheets

The structural BMPs, for which fact sheets are provided includes an array of practices that are used both for LID and conventional approaches to post-construction stormwater quality management.

BMP Selection Process

Selecting BMPs which accomplish as many stormwater functions as possible is important. At the same time, meeting a certain function or level of pollution control can require multiple BMPs integrated at the site, thus creating a “treatment train.” Such treatment trains direct stormwater to or through multiple BMPs in order to achieve quantity and/or quality stormwater management objectives. In addition, implementing BMPs as part of a treatment train can also provide a level of backup and needed redundancy, which provides additional assurance if one BMP does not work as designed (e.g., maintenance problems, large storm event).

Some BMPs are more readily linked to other BMPs, better lending themselves to treatment train configurations. For example, water quality devices and constructed filters are often used in treatment trains to pre-treat runoff before entering different types of infiltration-driven BMPs. In addition, vegetated swales and vegetated filter strips link well with infiltration systems, rain gardens, wet ponds, and constructed wetlands in treatment trains.

How many of what BMPs should go where? Not all structural BMPs are appropriate for each land development at each site. The selection process of the large

array of structural BMPs can be complex, as multiple factors are juggled. The successful design process requires balancing technical and nontechnical factors, and is summarized in **Figure 1**. In order to assist a quick comparison of the BMPs, **Table 1** provides summary information on potential applications, stormwater quality and quantity functions, cost, maintenance, and winter performance for each BMP.

Site design plan developers should look for performance data that cites total volume into the BMP and out of the BMP, with pollutant concentration or load information for each. One of the most useful databases for deriving performance information for structural stormwater facilities is the *International Stormwater BMP Database*, which includes information on more than 300 BMP studies, performance analysis results, tools for use in BMP performance studies, monitoring guidance, and other study-related publications (www.bmpdatabase.org/). Information in the database aids in estimating the total pollutant load removed by a BMP; i.e., input load minus output load. The total load can be calculated using the volume of water entering into or discharged from the BMP over a given period, multiplied by the mean or average concentration of the pollutant. Another tool that summarizes BMP performance information is EPA’s Urban BMP Performance Tool (www.bmpdatabase.org/). The post-construction stormwater quality management Chapter of the Technical Standards lists accepted, default levels of treatment rate for 4 major pollutants for pre-approved water quality control BMPs used in conventional or LID approaches.

The factors in Figure 1 help guide comprehensive stormwater planning and LID site design. Selecting BMPs requires balancing numerous factors, including the following:

Runoff quantity and runoff quality needs

BMP selection is often based on the pollutant loadings and amount of stormwater runoff. For example, in areas with high phosphorus runoff, infiltrations BMPs are excellent choices for removing phosphorus as long as other selection criteria (e.g., site factors) allow for these techniques. BMP fact sheets provide guidance relating

to BMP performance in terms of runoff volume, groundwater recharge, peak rate, and water quality (total suspended solids, total phosphorous, nitrogen, and temperature).

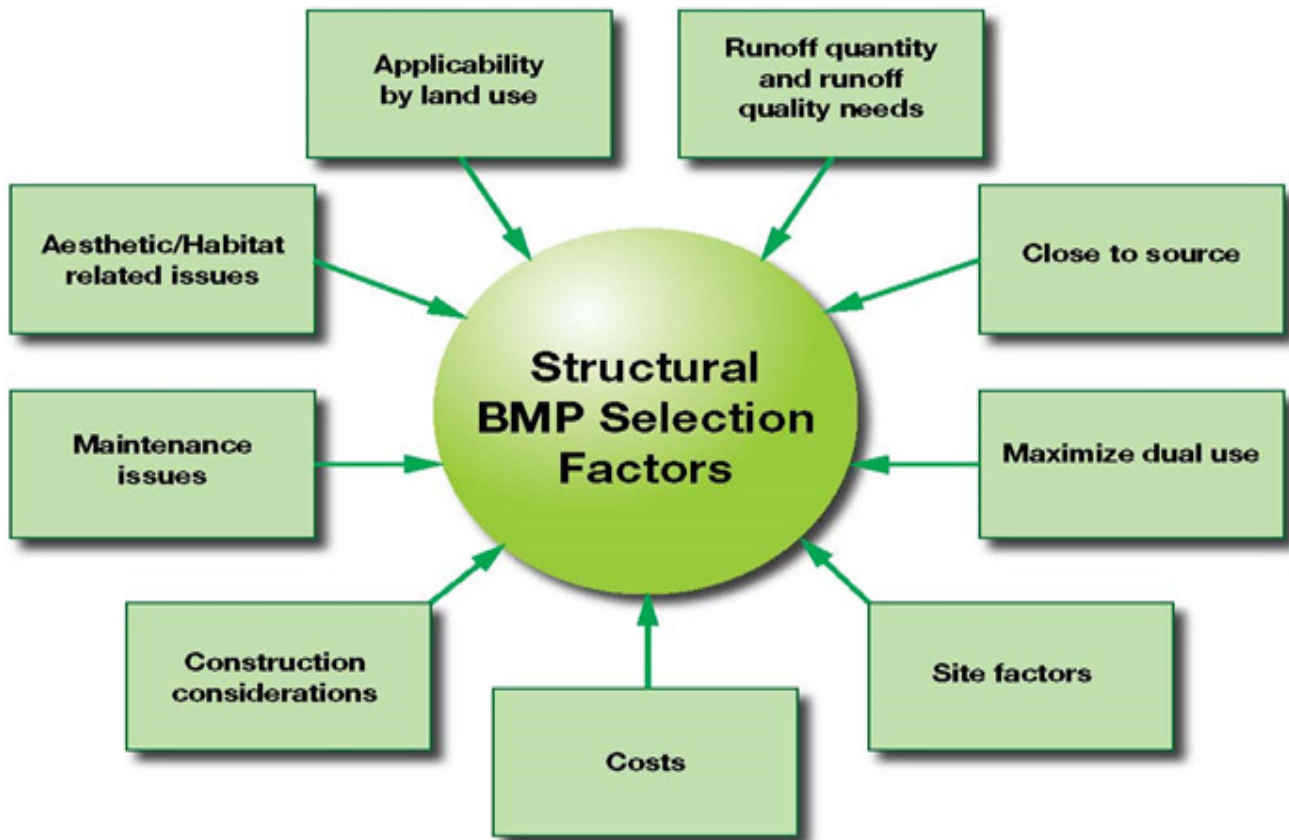


Figure 1 Factors to consider when selecting Structural BMPs

		Potential Applications							Stormwater Quantity Functions			Stormwater Quality Functions				Cost	Maintenance	Winter Perform.
		Residential	Commercial	Ultra Urban	Industrial	Retro	Road	Rec	Volume	GW Recharge	Peak Rate	TSS	TP	NITROGEN ¹	Temp			
Runoff Volume/ Infiltration	Bioretention	YES	YES	LIMITED	LIMITED	YES	YES	YES	MED/HIGH	MED/HIGH	MEDIUM	HIGH	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	HIGH	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM
	Vegetated Filter Strip	YES	YES	LIMITED ²	LIMITED	YES	YES	YES	LOW	LOW	LOW	MED/HIGH	MED/HIGH	MED/HIGH (NO ₃)	MED/HIGH	LOW	LOW/MED	HIGH
	Vegetated Swale	YES	YES	LIMITED ²	YES	LIMITED	YES	YES	LOW/MED	LOW/MED	LOW/MED	MED/HIGH	LOW/HIGH	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	LOW/MED\	LOW/MED	MEDIUM
	Pervious Pavement	YES ³	YES	YES	YES ³	YES ³	LIMITED ³	YES	HIGH	HIGH	MED/HIGH	HIGH ⁴	MED/HIGH	LOW	HIGH	MEDIUM	HIGH	MEDIUM
	Infiltration Basin	YES	YES	LIMITED ²	YES	LIMITED	LIMITED	NO	HIGH	HIGH	HIGH	HIGH ⁴	MED/HIGH	MED (NO ₃)	HIGH	LOW/MED	LOW/MED	MED/HIGH
	Subsurface Infiltration Bed	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	LIMITED	NO	HIGH	HIGH	HIGH	HIGH ⁴	MED/HIGH	LOW	HIGH	HIGH	MEDIUM	HIGH
	Infiltration Trench	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	NO	MEDIUM	HIGH	LOW/MED	HIGH ⁴	MED/HIGH	LOW/MED	HIGH	MEDIUM	LOW/MED	HIGH
	Dry Well	YES	YES	YES	LIMITED	YES	NO	NO	MEDIUM	HIGH	MEDIUM	HIGH ⁴	MED/HIGH	LOW/MED	HIGH	MEDIUM	LOW/MED	HIGH
	Level Spreaders	YES	YES	NO	YES	YES	YES	YES	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW	LOW (NO ₃)	LOW	LOW	LOW	HIGH
	Berming	YES	YES	LIMITED ²	YES	YES	YES	NO	LOW/MED	LOW/MED	MEDIUM	MED/HIGH	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	LOW/MED	LOW/MED	MED/HIGH
	Planter Box	YES	YES	YES	LIMITED	YES	NO	LIMITED	LOW/MED	MED ⁵	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	LOW/MED	LOW/MED	HIGH	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM
Runoff Volume/ Non-Infiltration	Vegetated Roof	LIMITED	YES	YES	YES	YES	N/A	YES	MED/HIGH	LOW ⁶	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	HIGH	HIGH	MEDIUM	MEDIUM
	Capture Reuse	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	NO	YES	HIGH	LOW	LOW ³	MED ⁴	MEDIUM	MED (NO ₃)	MEDIUM	Rain Barrel-LOW-Cistern-MED	MEDIUM	MEDIUM
Runoff Quality/ Non-infiltration	Constructed Wetland	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	LOW	LOW	HIGH	HIGH	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	LOW/MED	HIGH	LOW/MED	MED/HIGH
	Wet Ponds/Retention Basin	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	LOW	LOW	HIGH	HIGH	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	LOW/MED	HIGH	LOW/MED	MED/HIGH
	Constructed Filters	LIMITED	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	LOW ⁸	LOW ⁸	LOW ⁸	HIGH ⁷	MEDIUM ⁷	MEDIUM ⁷	LOW	MED/HIGH	HIGH	MEDIUM
	Water Quality Devices	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	N/A	N/A	N/A	VARIES	VARIES	VARIES (NO ₃)	NONE	VARIES	VARIES	HIGH
	Underground Detention	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	LOW	LOW	HIGH	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	HIGH	MED/HIGH	MED/HIGH
	Extended Detention/ Dry Pond	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	LOW	LOW	HIGH	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	LOW	LOW	HIGH	Sediment-LOW, Vegetation-High	MED/HIGH
Restoration	Riparian Buffer Restoration	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	LIMITED	YES	LOW/MED	LOW/MED	LOW/MED	MED/HIGH	MED/HIGH	MED/HIGH (NO ₃)	MED/HIGH	LOW/MED	LOW	HIGH
	Native Revegetation	YES	YES	LIMITED	YES	YES	LIMITED	YES	LOW/MED/HIGH	LOW/MED/HIGH	LOW/MED	HIGH	HIGH	MED/HIGH	MEDIUM	LOW/MED	LOW	MEDIUM
	Soil Restoration	YES	YES	YES	YES	LIMITED	YES	YES	MED	LOW	MEDIUM	HIGH	HIGH	MED/(NO ₃)	MEDIUM	MEDIUM	LOW	HIGH

Table 1 BMP Summary Matrix

Notes:

- 1 – Reported as TN except as noted as (NO₃)
- 2 – Difficult to apply due to space limitations typically associated with these land uses.
- 3 – Applicable with special design considerations
- 4 – This assumes TSS loads and their debris have been managed properly before entering the BMP to prevent clogging
- 5 – Requires infiltration planter box.
- 6 – Although vegetated roofs can be used very successfully in combination with infiltration systems.
- 7 – Sand filters only (For filters with infiltration, see Subsurface Infiltration Bed section, or other infiltration BMP sections. For manufactured systems, see manufacturer's information, as well as results from independent verification.
- 8 – Increases with infiltration

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Close to source

Manage stormwater runoff as close to the source, or origin, as possible. Implementing this factor will vary by site and by the proposed development. For example, vegetated swales may work well in new development, but would unlikely be used as part of a retrofit.

Maximize dual use

Consider integrating stormwater management into already disturbed areas (e.g., stormwater recharge beds beneath parking areas, play fields on infiltration basins). This can minimize total disturbed area and, in some cases, provide recreational opportunities for residents or employees. For example, Blue Cross Blue Shield of Michigan located in Detroit, built a green roof on their parking structure that incorporated a running track for their employees.

Site factors

Each site should be inventoried for certain characteristics (e.g., soil type, depth to water table, slopes) which should be incorporated into the BMP selection process. For example, some sites in Indiana might be characterized by a high water table, surface bedrock, or extremely slow-draining soils, which would make using infiltration BMPs challenging. BMP fact sheets highlight these site factors which are discussed in more detail in each BMP Design Considerations section. In addition, each BMP has a Designer/Reviewer's Checklist that allows for quick review of the consideration of each key site factor in the design process.

Costs

BMP costs include both construction and long-term maintenance activities. Costs are often related to the size and nature of the development. The BMP fact sheets, as well as the more detailed discussions, provide approximate cost information, although construction and maintenance costs tend to be site and development-specific.

Construction considerations

Many BMPs have construction guidelines to provide additional guidance. For example, locating and properly using excavation equipment is critical during construction of infiltration BMPs to avoid soil compaction. In addition, recommended construction materials specific

to individual BMPs are listed in the Recommended Materials Appendix.

Maintenance issues

Ease of maintenance and needed repairs are critical issues to consider in selecting a BMP. Some BMPs require greater maintenance to function properly. However, they may also achieve greater stormwater quantity and quality goals specific to the objectives of the site. Vegetated BMPs require various types of landscape care. Structural BMPs such as pervious pavement require periodic vacuuming, while infiltration basins, trenches, and dry wells are likely to require little maintenance. Some BMPs, especially those with plantings, may naturally improve in performance over time as vegetation grows and matures. In any case, general maintenance requirements are discussed for each BMP. The Maintenance Inspection Checklists Appendix includes example Inspection Checklists for maintenance activities that should be considered. In addition, the Stormwater Management Practices Maintenance Agreement Appendix includes Model Maintenance Agreements between property owners and the jurisdiction entity for maintenance of BMPs.

Aesthetic/Habitat related issues

Landscape enhancement is becoming an ever-greater goal in most communities and developments. In some cases, developers are willing to pay for BMPs which serve to make their developments more attractive and improve value and marketability. For example, rain gardens make yard areas more attractive. Wet ponds and constructed wetlands, naturally planted swales and filter strips, vegetated roofs, and many other BMPs can be integrated into landscape design while creating value and solving stormwater problems. In addition, many of these BMPs add habitat values and provide other environmental benefits. BMP fact sheets and the detailed BMP discussions provide additional information on aesthetics.

Applicability by land use

Some land uses lend themselves to certain BMPs. Low density residential development lacks large congregate parking areas conducive to pervious pavement with infiltration. Conversely, rain barrels are especially good for residential use, but vegetated roofs are unlikely to be used on single-family homes. Successful LID programs strive to match the BMP with the land use and user type,

as listed on BMP fact sheets (applications) and detailed in each BMP discussion.

Cold Climate Considerations

Another important design consideration is how the BMP will function in our cold climate. The detailed design considerations in each BMP are written to address typical cold climate issues. In addition, cold climate is discussed throughout each BMP's various recommendations including a specific section dedicated to winter considerations.

In general, the techniques described in this manual can be used very effectively in cold climate settings such as Indiana (when the appropriate recommendations are followed). In addition, LID encourages stormwater management systems and treatment trains that can offer increased resiliency for cold climate issues.

Critical aspects of winter conditions are extremely cold temperatures, sustained cold periods, polluted snow-melt, and a short growing season (**Table 2**). Extreme cold can cause rapid freezing and burst pipes. Sustained cold can result in development of thick ice or

snowpack all winter, as well as material it picks up as it flows over the land's surface.

Chloride is the cause of many problems associated with snowmelt runoff. Chloride is a very soluble chemical that migrates easily through treatment systems and soil. Avoiding over-application of chloride, and routing runoff properly are effective ways to reduce damage to LID BMPs.

General considerations

Avoid pipe freezing by laying pipes and installing underground systems below the typical frost line. Pipe freezing for standpipes is not likely to be an issue, but conveyance pipes laid nearly horizontal should be below the freezing line. In Indiana, most communities plant at least a foot or two of groundcover over stormwater pipes to minimize the risk of pipe freezing. Over-excavation and filling with sand and gravel around stormwater pipes will also help with frost penetration and frost heave.

Research in the Saginaw River valley in Michigan has shown (for the winter of 1996-1997) that soils in cultivated areas with little to no snow cover froze to

Climactic Condition	BMP Design Challenge
Cold Temperatures	• Pipe Freezing • Permanent pool ice cover • Reduced biological activity • Reduced oxygen levels during ice cover • Reduced settling velocities
Deep Frost Line	• Frost heaving • Reduced soil infiltration • Pipe freezing
Short Growing Season	• Short time period to establish vegetation • Different plant species appropriate to cold climates than moderate climates
Significant Snowfall	• High runoff volumes during snowmelt and rain-on snow • High pollutant loads during spring melt • Other impacts of road salt/deicers • Snow management may affect BMP storage

Table 2 Cold Climate Design Challenges

frozen soil layers in some BMPs. On the other hand, the deeper and more persistent the snow layer, the less severe the soil freezing. Water quality problems associated with snow melt occur because of the large volume of water released during rain and snow events. This runoff carries material that has accumulated in the

depths of up to eight inches, while in areas with forest cover, leaf litter, and thin but persistent snow cover, frost depths only reached about an inch (Schaetzl and Tomczak, 2002). One conclusion that can be drawn from this is that plant material should be left in applicable stormwater BMPs to provide insulation through the winter. The ability of persistent snow cover

to act as insulation also suggests that some BMPs such as bioretention areas, infiltration basins, and vegetated swales can be used for snow storage (as long as it does not cause physical damage to the vegetation or other BMP components). However, large amounts of sand or salt should be kept out of vegetated and infiltration BMPs. Sand and salt can smother and/ or kill plants and reduce infiltration/storage capacity. Sand should also never be used on or adjacent to porous pavement systems (see detailed BMP section).

In addition, some BMPs, such as bioretention areas should be installed with a mulch layer that is two to three inches thick. For maximum insulation effectiveness, the mulch should be spread evenly and consistently throughout the BMP (for details on mulch see the individual BMP sections).

All biological activity is mediated by temperature. Cold winter temperatures significantly decrease nutrient uptake and pollutant conversion processes by plants and microbes; however, soil microbes still live and consume nutrients even in the dead of winter. Accumulation of chloride is generally not a problem in shallow biological systems, as long as very highly concentrated levels are not directly routed to them.

Winter Pollution Prevention Tips

- Choose proper de-icing materials
- Consider pre-wetting brine treatments to salt for better application
- Load salt trucks on covered, impervious pads
- Calibrate salting vehicles often
- Properly manage salt storage piles
- Identify and avoid salt-sensitive areas prior to plowing or salting

Infiltration considerations

As water cools its viscosity increases, reducing particle-settling velocities and infiltration rates into the soil. The problem with infiltration in cold weather is that ice that forms both over the tops of infiltration practices and in the soil pore spaces. To avoid these problems to the extent possible, the BMP must be actively managed to keep it dry before it freezes in the fall. This can be done by various methods including limiting inflow, under-drainage, and surface disking. Routing the first highly soluble portions of snowmelt to an infiltration BMP provides the opportunity for soil infiltration and treatment.

Infiltration practices are prohibited in proximity to public water supply wells as discussed in the Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Chapter, Section F, Step 5 of the Technical Standards.

Snow Storage Tip

Commercial and industrial areas that plow their parking and paved areas into big piles on top of pavement could greatly improve runoff management if instead, they dedicated a pervious area within their property for the snow. Even pushing the plowed snow up and over a curb onto a pervious grassed area will provide more treatment than allowing snow to melt on a paved surface and run into a storm sewer.

Detention considerations

For BMPs with a permanent pool, winter conditions can create ice layers and reduce biological activity, oxygen levels, and settling velocities. Ice layers can reduce the permanent pool volume, act as an impervious surface during rainfall, and potentially force incoming water under ice layers and scour bottom sediments. Ice layers can also reduce the oxygen exchange between the air-water interface. If low oxygen levels extend to the sediment-water interface, they can cause some adsorbed pollutants, such as phosphorus and some metals, to be released back into the water column. Reduced settling velocities will potentially result in lower pollutant removal rates.

Minimizing the effect of ice cover can help address these issues and can be accomplished by maintaining design storage volumes. Installing a control

mechanism, such as a valve, weir, or stop-log, can reduce or eliminate outflow for the normal water quality volume. This volume is then made available for meltwater, which can be held and slowly released.

It is important to recognize the potential for detention facilities to incur a buildup of pollutants (mostly chloride applied to impervious surfaces) throughout the winter. A balance needs to be considered in deciding whether to adjust the detention level to pass pollutant-laden runoff downstream or retain as much as possible for later release when flows are higher. Retaining polluted water all winter long only to discharge it all at once in the spring is not in the best interest of receiving waters; however, this is what can happen in a detention BMP that is not being managed for seasonal conditions. In no case should detention BMPs be drained in the spring after a winter-long accumulation of under-ice contaminants. If lowering is done, it should occur in late fall prior to freeze-up.

Chloride-laden runoff can be denser than water already in a basin, so it often pools at the bottom of the basin. Without some level of mixing in the basin, the pool can increase in chloride concentration over time. This is especially important to consider during dewatering, or if the pond will be used for irrigation and a pump is placed in the bottom of the pond. Altering pump placement or testing the bottom water before pumping are two methods to avoid discharge or use of salty water.

Overview of the Format of the Structural BMP Fact Sheets

As with the nonstructural chapter, each BMP starts with a summary sheet. This summary sheet provides a quick overview of the BMP. Following each summary sheet is detailed information on the BMP which includes:

Variations

Discusses the variations to the BMP, if they are applicable. Examples include alternatives in design that can increase storage capacity or infiltration rates.

Applications

Indicates in what type of land use the BMP is applicable or feasible.

BMP Family	BMP	Considerations
Runoff Volume Minimization	Natural area conservation	Preserving pervious areas for meltwater to infiltrate is effective to control volume
	Soil amendments	Enhancing soil permeability will increase infiltration of meltwater
	Reducing impervious surface	Preserving pervious areas for meltwater to infiltrate is effective to control volume and minimize pollutants
	Grass drainage channel	Routing meltwater over a pervious surface will yield some reduction in flow and improved water quality
	Rain barrel/cistern	Capturing meltwater from a building will reduce volume but ice build-up could be a problem unless collection occurs below frost line
	Permeable pavement	Recent research has shown this approach to be successful in cold climates when properly installed and maintained, and when sanding is kept to a minimum
	Dry well	Effective as long as system is installed below the frost line to avoid ice build-up
	Planter box	These are designed more for the growing season, but they do provide a sump area for runoff to collect and will infiltrate some volume
	Vegetated roof	Recent research shows that slow melting in the spring reduces the volume running off of roof surfaces
Bioretention	Rain gardens	By definition, these are growing-season practices, but they do provide a sump area for storage and some infiltration during a melt
Filtration	Constructed filter	Surface systems need to be fully dry before freeze-up for these to work properly; subgrade systems can be very effective for meltwater treatment
	Vegetated filter	Vegetative filtering is reduced once vegetation dies back in fall; some physical filtering will occur if vegetation density and depth are sufficient
Infiltration	Trench	Effective when designed, installed, and maintained properly; caution applies to limitations on source area to avoid high concentrations of chloride and toxics
	Basin	See above comment
Detention Facilities	Forebay	Effective if designed with enough available volume to accommodate spring meltwater
	Storage components	Adaptations must be made to allow meltwater runoff to achieve appropriate amount of treatment; treatment effectiveness usually lower in warm weather
	Outlet	Proper design of the outlet structure can be the key to ponding effectiveness
Constructed Wetlands	Forebay	See comment for forebay above
	Storage components	Volume will be less than typical pond, but provide location for storage, some infiltration, filtration, and some microbial activity; biological activity at a minimum

Table 3 Additional BMP considerations for cold climate use

Design Considerations

This section includes a list of technical procedures to be considered when designing for the individual BMP. This specific design criteria is presented, which can assist planners in incorporating conventional or LID techniques into a site design, as well as provide a basis for reviewers to evaluate submitted conventional or LID techniques.

Stormwater Calculations

Provides specific guidance on achieving sizing criteria, volume reduction, and peak rate mitigation, as applicable. This section also references the Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of the Technical Standards which discusses in detail how to achieve a specific standard or implement measures that contribute to managing water onsite in a more qualitative manner.

Construction Guidelines

Provides a typical construction sequence for implementing the BMP. However, it does not specifically address soil erosion and sedimentation control procedures. Erosion and sediment control methods need to adhere to the the Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of the Technical Standards construction BMP requirements contained in the Technical Standards document and the latest requirements of IDEM's Soil Erosion and Sedimentation Control (Rule 5) Program.

Maintenance

Provides guidance on recommended maintenance procedures for the BMP.

Winter Considerations

Discusses how well the BMP performs in Indiana's cold climate.

Cost

Provides general cost information for comparison purposes. If specific dates of costs are not referenced in this section, the costs reflect 2007 conditions.

Designer/Reviewer's Checklist

Developed to assist a designer and or reviewer in evaluating the critical components of a BMP that is being designed. It references not only individual design considerations, but also suggests review of additional pertinent sections of the Technical Standards that may need to be considered for implementation of that BMP.

References

Provides a list of sources of information utilized in the creation of this section of the manual. This list also provides sources that can be used for additional information.

References

Schaetzl, R.J. and Tomczak, D.M. "Wintertime Temperatures in the Fine-Textured Soils of the Saginaw Valley, Michigan," *The Great Lakes Geographer*, v.8 (2), pp.87-99, 2001.

Minnesota Stormwater Manual, 2006. Minnesota Pollution Control Agency, St. Paul, MN.

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Credits and Acknowledgments

This introductory segment and the fact sheets that follow have been developed by Christopher B. Burke Engineering, LLC, and are primarily based upon similar segments contained in "Low Impact Development Manual for Michigan: A Design Guide for Implementers and Reviewers" published in 2009 by the Southeast Michigan Council of Governments (SEMCOG). A selection of material contained in the noted SEMCOG publication has been modified to reflect conditions in Indiana and used, with permission, for development of this introductory segment and the fact sheets that follow. The valuable contribution of SEMCOG through sharing of this material for use in this introductory segment and the fact sheets that follow are hereby acknowledged.

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BMP Fact Sheet

BIORETENTION (RAIN GARDENS)

Bioretention areas (often called rain gardens) are shallow surface depressions planted with specially selected native vegetation to capture and treat stormwater runoff from rooftops, streets, and parking lots.



Figure 1 Residential rain garden, Lenexa KS (USEPA, picasaweb)

Stormwater Quantity Functions			
Residential	Yes	Volume	Med/High
Commercial	Yes	Groundwater Recharge	Med/High
Ultra Urban	Limited	Peak Rate	Medium
Stormwater Quality Functions			
Industrial	Yes	TSS	High
Retrofit	Yes	TP	Medium
Highway/Road	Yes	TN	Medium
Recreational	Yes	Temperature	High

Additional Considerations	
Cost	Medium
Maintenance	Medium
Winter Performance	Medium

Variations

- Subsurface storage/infiltration bed
- Use of underdrain
- Use of impervious liner

Key Design Features

- Flexible in size and infiltration
- Ponding depths 6-18 inches for drawdown within 48 hours
- Native plants
- Amend soil as needed
- Provide positive overflow for extreme storm events

Site Factors

- Water table/bedrock separation: two-foot minimum, four foot recommended
- Soils: HSG A and B preferred; C & D may require an underdrain (see Infiltration BMP)
- Feasibility on steeper slopes
- Potential hotspots: Yes with pretreatment and/or impervious liner
- Maximum drainage area: 5:1, not more than 1 acre to one area

Benefits

- Volume control and groundwater recharge, moderate peak rate control, filtration
- Versatile with broad applicability
- Enhance site aesthetics, habitat
- Potential air quality and climate benefits

Limitations

- Higher maintenance until vegetation is established
- Limited impervious drainage area
- Requires careful selection and establishment of plants

Description and Function

Bioretention is a method of managing stormwater by pooling water within a planting area and allowing the water to infiltrate the garden. In addition to managing runoff volume and reducing peak discharge rates, this process filters suspended solids and related pollutants from stormwater runoff. Bioretention can be implemented in small, residential applications or as part of a management strategy in larger applications.

Bioretention is designed into a landscape as a typical garden feature, to improve water quality while reducing runoff quantity. Rain gardens can be integrated into a site with a high degree of flexibility and can integrate nicely with other structural management systems including porous pavement parking lots, infiltration trenches, and other non-structural stormwater BMPs.

Bioretention vegetation serves to filter (water quality) and transpire (water quantity) runoff, and enhance infiltration. Plants absorb pollutants while microbes associated with the plant roots and soil break them down. The soil medium filters out pollutants and allows storage and infiltration of stormwater runoff, providing volume control. In addition, engineered soil media may serve as a bonding surface for nutrients to enhance pollutant removal.

Properly designed bioretention techniques provide a layer of compost that acts like a sponge to absorb and hold runoff. Vegetation in the rain garden can be diverse, through the use of many plant species and types, resulting in a system tolerant to insects, diseases, pollution, and climatic stresses.

The term “rain garden” is used to refer to smaller-scale bioretention facilities typically found on residential properties

Bioretention can accomplish the following:

- Reduce runoff volume
- Filter pollutants, through both soil particles (which trap pollutants) and plant material (which take up pollutants)
- Provide habitat
- Recharge groundwater (if no underdrain is placed underneath)
- Reduce stormwater temperature impacts
- Enhance site aesthetics
- Higher maintenance until vegetation is established
- Limited impervious drainage area
- Requires careful selection and establishment of plants

Figure 2 illustrates a schematic of a relatively simple bioretention area (or rain garden). **Figure 3** illustrates a schematic of a bioretention area that is a more technically engineered structure, designed to complete specific stormwater management goals. Pond depth, soil mixture, infiltration bed, perforated underdrains, domed risers, and positive overflow structures may be designed according to the specific, required stormwater management functions.

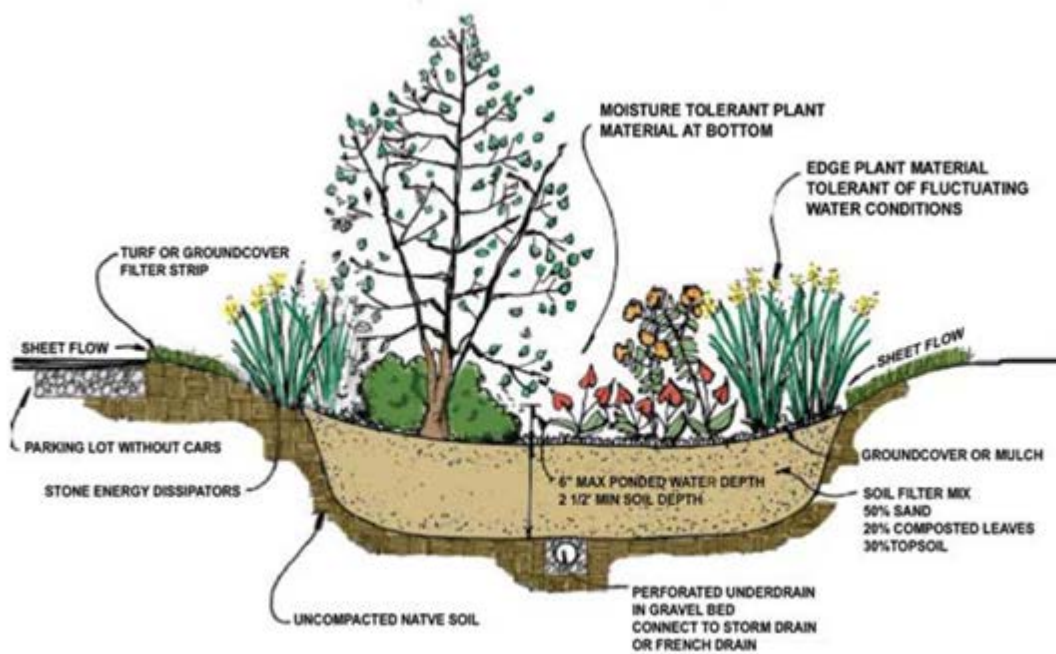


Figure 2 Schematic of a small residential rain garden

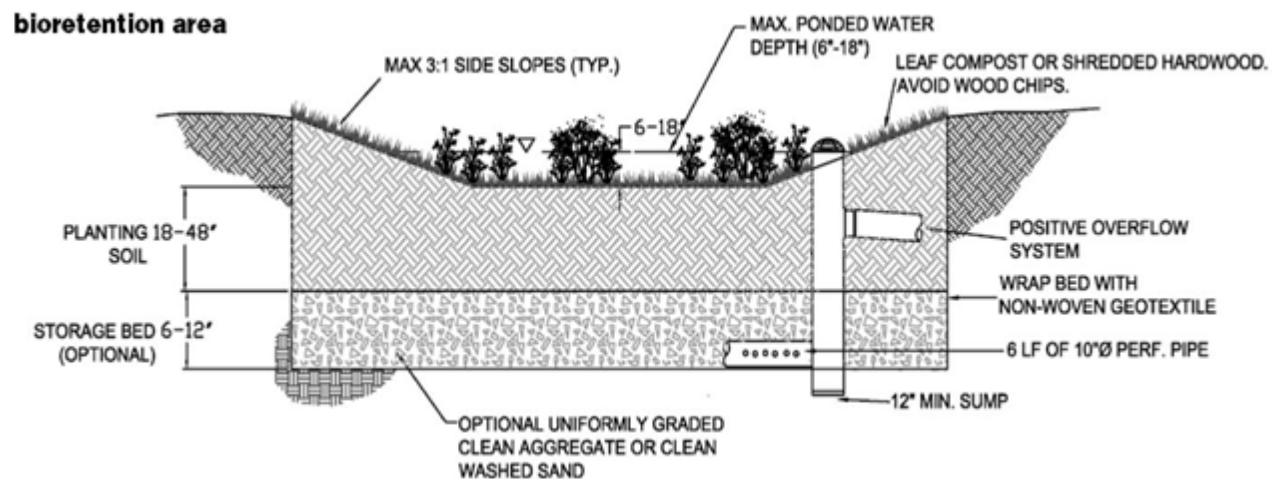


Figure 3 Schematic of a technically engineered bioretention area

Variations

A bioretention system is a depression in the ground planted like a garden that provides for the storage and infiltration of relatively small volumes of stormwater runoff, often managing stormwater on a lot-by-lot basis. This use of many small stormwater controls versus one large detention area promotes the low impact development goal of decentralized treatment of stormwater. But, if greater volumes of runoff must be managed or stored, a bioretention system can be designed with an expanded subsurface infiltration bed, or can be increased in size. Typically, the ratio of impervious area draining to the bioretention area should not exceed five-to-one, and the total impervious area draining to a single system should not be more than one acre. Variations noted relate to performance types, flow entrance, and positive overflow.

Performance types

Depending on varying site conditions, bioretention can be designed to allow for 1) complete infiltration, 2) infiltration/filtration, or 3) filtration. These variations will often determine the need for such design features as the gravel bed, double-walled underdrains, and impervious liners.

Bioretention using complete infiltration occurs in areas where groundwater recharge is beneficial and the soils have the permeability necessary to accommodate the inflow. This type of BMP is often less expensive to construct because there is no underdrain and the soils on site are often used.

The most common variation to this type of bioretention includes a gravel or sand bed underneath the planting bed and often accompanied by the use of a double-walled underdrain. This allows for additional storage or for areas with low permeability to use bioretention as infiltration, as well as, filtration (Figure 3). Some volume reduction will occur through infiltration, as well as evaporation and transpiration.

Another variation is to use bioretention primarily for filtration. This is often used in contaminated soils or hot spot locations using an impervious liner to prevent infiltration and groundwater

contamination. The primary stormwater function then becomes filtration with some volume reduction through evaporation and transpiration.

For areas with low permeability, bioretention may achieve some infiltration while acting as detention with peak rate control for all storms up to the design storm.

Flow inlet

Pretreatment of runoff should be provided where sediment or pollutants entering the rain garden may cause concern or decreased BMP functionality. Soil erosion control mats, blankets, or rock must be used where runoff flows from impervious areas enter the rain garden.

Flow inlet: Trench drain

Trench drains can accept runoff from impervious surfaces and convey it to a rain garden. The trench drain may discharge to the surface of the rain garden or may connect directly to an aggregate infiltration bed beneath.

Educational Signage

Once a bioretention area is established, installing signage will help the general public and maintenance crews recognize LID practices, which can help promote sustainable stormwater management. Educational signs can incorporate LID goals and maintenance objectives, in addition to the type of LID project being employed.

Flow inlet: Curbs and curb cuts

Curbs can be used to direct runoff from an impervious surface along a gutter to a low point where it flows into the rain garden through a curb cut. Curb cuts may be depressed curbs, or may be full height curbs with openings cast or cut into them.

Positive overflow

A positive overflow, via the surface or subsurface, is recommended to safely convey excessive runoff from extreme storm events.

Positive overflow: Domed riser

A domed riser may be installed to ensure positive, controlled overflow from the system. Once water ponds to a specified depth, it will begin to flow into the riser through a grate, which is typically domed to prevent clogging by debris.

Positive overflow: Inlet structure

An inlet structure may also be installed to ensure positive, controlled overflow from the system. Once water ponds to a specified depth, it will begin to flow into the inlet.

Applications

Bioretention areas can be used in a variety of applications, from small areas in residential lawns to extensive systems in commercial parking lots (incorporated into parking islands or perimeter areas). Industrial, retrofit, highway/road, and recreational areas can also readily incorporate bioretention. One key constraint in using bioretention in ultra-urban settings is space.

Residential

The residential property owner that wants to design and build a rain garden at home does not need to go through the engineering calculations listed under stormwater calculations and functions. Assistance with simple rain gardens is available from several sources listed under the Plant Selection portion of this BMP. **Figure 4** shows a typical rain garden configuration on a residential property.

Another source of water for a small rain garden is connecting the roof leader from adjacent buildings. The stormwater may discharge to the surface of the bioretention area or may connect directly to an aggregate infiltration bed beneath.

Tree and shrub pits

Tree and shrub pits intercept runoff and provide shallow ponding in mulched areas around the tree or shrub (**Figure 5**). Mulched areas should typically extend to the tree's drip line. Plant material should be selected based on tolerance to standing water as identified in Recommended Plant List for BMPs Appendix.

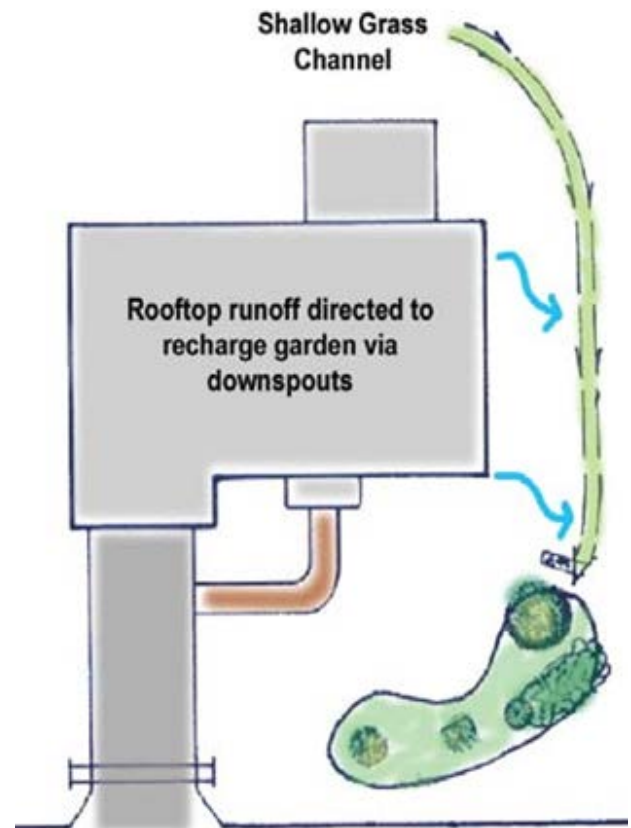


Figure 4 Single-family residential lot drainage schematic
Source: Claytor and Schueler, 1995 with modifications by Cahill

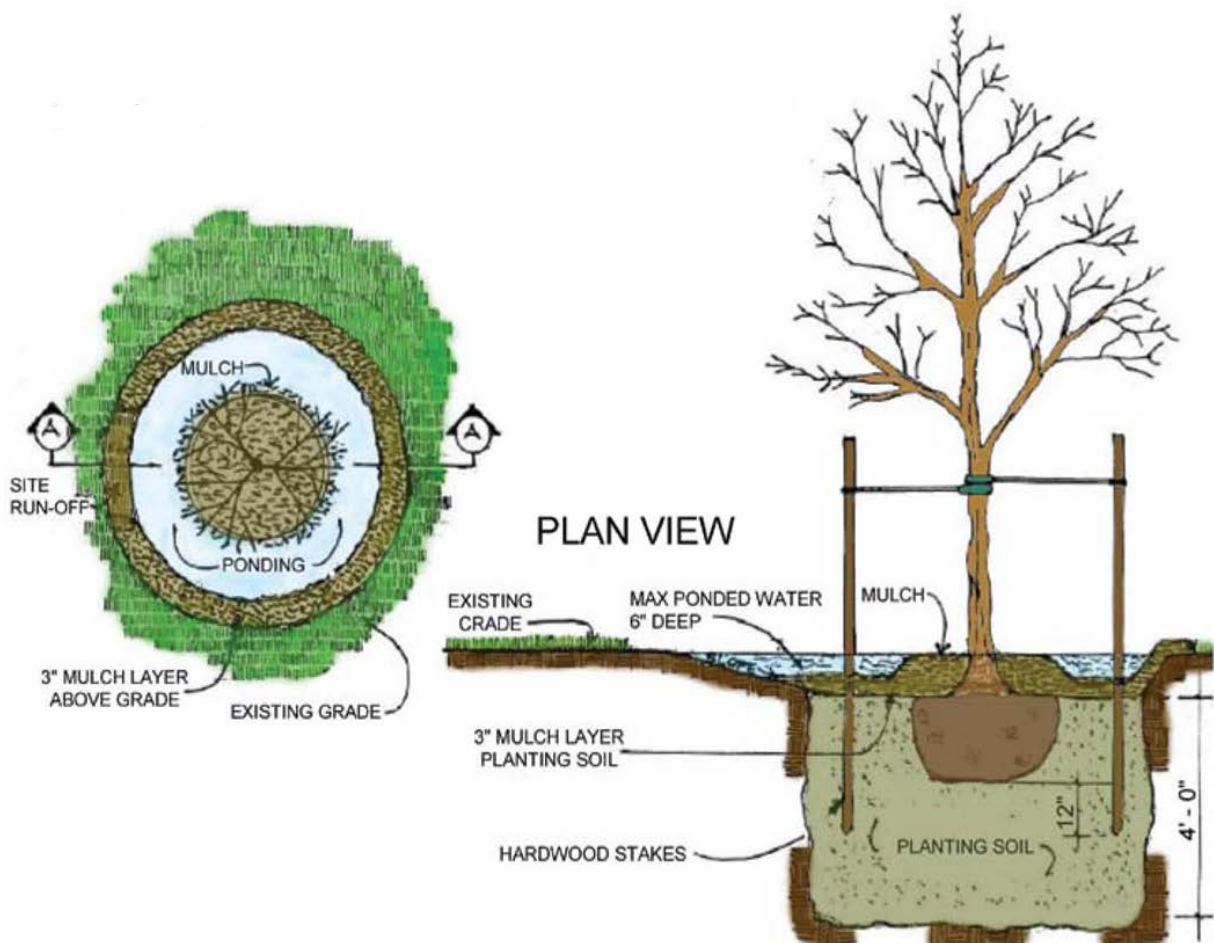


Figure 5 Tree planting detail

Roads and highways

Linear bioretention area feature may be used along a highway. Runoff is conveyed along the concrete curb until it reaches the end of the gutter, where it spills into the vegetated area.

Parking lot island bioretention

In parking lots for commercial, industrial, institutional, and other uses, stormwater management and green space areas are limited. In these situations, bioretention areas for stormwater management and landscaping may provide multiple benefits.

A bioretention area in a parking lot can occur in parking lots with no curbs and with curbs. The no-curb alternative allows stormwater to sheet flow over the parking lot directly into the bioretention area.

In a curbed parking lot, runoff enters the bioretention area through a curb cut. If the runoff volume exceeds the ponding depth available, water overflows the bioretention area and enters a standard inlet.

A variation on this design is a direct underground connection to the standard inlet from the underground aggregate infiltration bed via an overflow pipe.

Primary Components of a Bioretention System

1. Pretreatment (may be necessary to help prevent clogging)

- Sediment removal through a vegetated buffer strip, cleanout, stabilized inlet, water quality inlet, or sediment trap prior to runoff entry into the bioretention area

2. Flow inlet

- Varies with site use (e.g., parking island versus residential lot applications)
- Entering velocities must be non-erosive – use erosion control mats, blankets, or rock where concentrated runoff enters the bioretention area

3. Ponding area

- Provides temporary surface storage of runoff and allows sediment to settle
- Provides evaporation for a portion of runoff
- Depth no more than 6-18 inches for aesthetics, functionality, and safety

4. Plant material (see the Recommended Plant Lists Appendix)

- Absorbs stormwater through transpiration
- Root development creates pathways for infiltration
- Bacteria community resides in the root system creating healthy soil structure with water quality benefits
- Can improve aesthetics for site
- Provides habitat for animals and insects
- Reinforces long-term performance of subsurface infiltration
- Ensures plants are salt tolerant if in a location that would receive snowmelt chemicals
- Should be native plant species and placed according to drought and water tolerance
- Should be selected based on tolerance to standing water as identified in Recommended Plant List for BMPs Appendix

5. Organic layer or mulch

- Acts as a filter for pollutants in runoff
- Protects underlying soil from drying and eroding. Simulates leaf litter by providing environment for microorganisms to degrade organic material
- Provides a medium for biological growth, decomposition of organic material, adsorption and bonding of heavy metals
- Wood mulch should be shredded – compost or leaf mulch is preferred

6. Planting soil/volume storage bed

- Provides water/nutrients to plants
- Enhances biological activity and encourages root growth
- Provides storage of stormwater by the voids within the soil particles
- Provides surface for adsorption of nutrients

7. Positive overflow

- Provides for the direct discharge of runoff during large storm events when the subsurface/surface storage capacity is exceeded
- Examples of outlet controls include domed risers, inlet structures, and weirs

Design Considerations

Bioretention is flexible in design and can vary in complexity according to site conditions and runoff volume requirements. Design and installation procedures may vary from very simple for “backyard” rain gardens to highly engineered bioretention areas in ultra-urban areas.

Infiltration BMPs should be sited so that they minimize risk to groundwater quality and present no threat to subsurface structures. **Table 1** provides recommended setback distances of bioretention areas to various lot elements.

The distance from the bottom of the infiltration

Setback from	Minimum distance (feet)
Property line	10
Building foundation*	10
Private well	50
Public water supply well**	50
Septic system drainfield***	100
* minimum with slopes directed away from building ** At least 200 feet from Type I or IIa wells, 75 feet from Type IIb and III wells *** 50 feet for septic systems with a design flow of less than 1,000 gallons per day	

Table 1 Recommended Setback Distances

BMP to the seasonal high groundwater level or bedrock is recommended to be four feet. Two feet is allowable, but may reduce the performance of the BMP.

Bioretention is best suited for areas with at least moderate infiltration rates (more than 0.25 inches per hour) – see Infiltration BMP. In extreme situations where permeability is less than 0.25 inches per hour, special variations may apply, such as using amended subsoils or double-walled underdrains (or using constructed wetlands instead). The following procedures should be considered when designing bioretention areas:

1. The **flow entrance** must be designed to prevent erosion in the bioretention area. Some alternatives include flared end sections, erosion control mats, sheet flow into the facility over grassed areas, rock at entrance to

bioretention area, curb cuts with grading for sheet flow, and roof leaders with direct surface connection.

2. A **positive overflow system** should be designed to safely convey away excess runoff. The overflow can be routed to the surface in a non-erosive manner or to another stormwater system. Some alternatives include domed risers, inlet structures, weirs, and berms.
3. Sizing criteria
 - a. **Surface area** is dependent upon storage volume requirements, but should generally not exceed a maximum loading ratio of 5:1 impervious drainage area to bioretention area and no more than one acre drainage area to one bioretention cell. However, for design purposes, the total volume of water generated from the contributing drainage area must be used, not just the impervious portion. See Infiltration BMP for additional guidance on loading ratios.

The required bioretention surface area is determined by taking the volume of runoff to be controlled according to LID criteria, and maintaining the maximum ponding depth, loading rate, and emptying time. Infiltration and evapotranspiration are increased by increasing the surface area of the bioretention area. The total surface area needed may be divided into multiple cells. This configuration may be useful to collect runoff from both the front and back of a building.

- b. Surface side slopes should be gradual. For most areas, a maximum of 3:1 side slopes are recommended.
- c. The recommended surface ponding depth is six inches. Up to 18 inches may be used if plant selection is adjusted to tolerate water depth. Drain within 24-48 hours.
- d. **Ponding area** should provide sufficient surface area to meet required storage volume without exceeding the design ponding depth. The subsurface infiltration

bed is used to supplement surface storage where appropriate.

4. **Planting soil depth** should generally be between 18 and 48 inches where only herbaceous plant species will be used. If trees and woody shrubs will be used, soil media depth may be increased, depending on plant species. Native soils can be used as planting soil or modified to be suitable on many sites. Small, backyard rain gardens can generally use existing soils without a specialized depth. Planting soil should be approximately four inches deeper than the bottom of the largest root ball.
5. **Planting soil** should be capable of supporting a healthy vegetative cover. Soils should be amended with a composted organic material. A recommended range of a soil mixture is 20-40 percent organic material (compost), 30-50 percent sand, and 20-30 percent topsoil, although any soil with sufficient drainage may be used for bioretention.

Soils should also have a pH of between 5.5 and 6.5 (better pollutant adsorption and microbial activity), a clay content less than 10 percent (a small amount of clay is beneficial to adsorb pollutants and retain water although no clay is necessary if pollutant loadings are not an issue), be free of toxic substances and unwanted plant material, and have a 5-10 percent organic matter content. Additional organic matter can be added to the soil to increase water holding capacity.

If brought from off site, **sand** should be clean, coarse, and conform to ASTM C-33 or AASHTO M-6 (Standard Specification for Concrete Aggregates).

If the void space within an amended soil mix will be used in calculating runoff volume capacity in the system, tests should be conducted on the soil's porosity to determine the available storage capacity.

6. Proper **plant selection** is essential for bioretention areas to be effective. Typically, native floodplain or wet meadow plant

species are best suited to the variable environmental conditions encountered in a bioretention area. Suggested species may include Cardinal Flower (*Lobelia cardinalis*), Blue Lobelia (*Lobelia siphilitica*), New England Aster (*Aster novae-angliae*), and Brown Fox Sedge (*Carex vulpinoidea*) (See Recommended Plant Lists Appendix for a detailed list).

In most cases, seed is not the preferred method for establishing plants in a bioretention area. The fluctuating water levels make it difficult for the seed to readily establish, while the random nature of seeding produces a look which previous experience indicates is unacceptably "wild." Therefore, it is strongly recommended that live plant material in plug or gallon-potted form be used, and installed on 1-2 foot centers for a more formal appearance. Shrubs and trees are also recommended to be included in a bioretention area. Plant material should be selected based on tolerance to standing water as identified in Recommended Plant List for BMPs Appendix.

7. **Planting periods** will vary but, in general, trees and shrubs should be planted from mid-April through early June, or mid-September through mid-November. Native seed should be installed between October 1 and June 1. Live plant material (plugs or gallon pots) should be installed between May 1 and June 15. Planting dates may be lengthened if a regular water source can be provided. Likewise, planting should be ceased at an earlier date in the event of a drought year.
8. A maximum of 2-3 inches of shredded hardwood **mulch**, aged at least six months to one year, or leaf compost (or other comparable product) should be uniformly applied immediately after shrubs and trees are planted to prevent erosion, enhance metal removals, and simulate leaf litter in a natural forest system. Wood chips should be avoided as they tend to float during inundation periods. In order to maintain oxygen flow, mulch or compost should not exceed three

inches in depth or be placed directly against the stems or trunks of plants.

9. When working in areas with **steeper slopes**, bioretention areas should be terraced laterally along slope contours to minimize earthwork and provide level areas for infiltration.
10. A subsurface **storage/infiltration bed**, if used, should be at least six inches deep and constructed of clean gravel with a significant void space for runoff storage (typically 40 percent) and wrapped in geotextile fabric.
11. **Underdrains** are often not needed unless in-situ soils are expected to cause ponding lasting longer than 48 hours. If used, underdrains are typically small diameter (6-12 inches) perforated pipes in a clean gravel trench wrapped in geotextile fabric (or in the storage/infiltration bed). Underdrains should have a flow capacity greater than the total planting soil infiltration rate and should have at least 18 inches of soil/gravel cover. They can daylight to the surface or connect to another stormwater system. A method to inspect and clean underdrains should be provided (via cleanouts, inlet, overflow structure, etc.)

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

When designing a bioretention area, it is recommended to follow a two-step process:

1. Initial sizing of the bioretention area based on the principles of Darcy's Law.
2. Verify that the loading ratio and the necessary volume reductions are being met.

Initial sizing of the bioretention area

Bioretention areas can be sized based on the principles of Darcy's Law, as follows:

With an underdrain:

$$A_f = V * d_f / [k * (h_f + d_f) * t_f]$$

Without an underdrain:

$$A_f = V * d_f / [i * (h_f + d_f) * t_f]$$

Where:

A_f = surface area of filter bed (ft²)

V = required storage volume (ft³)

d_f = filter bed depth (ft)

k = coefficient of permeability of filter media (ft/day)

i = infiltration rate of underlying soils (ft/day)

h_f = average height of water above filter bed (ft)

t_f = design filter bed drain time (days)

A "quick check" for sizing the bioretention area is to ignore the infiltration rate and calculate the storage volume capacity of the bioretention area as follows:

A_{inf} = (Area of bioretention area at ponding depth + Bottom area of bioretention area) divided by two = Infiltration area (average area)

The size of the infiltration area is determined by the volume of water necessary to remove as determined by LID criteria, depth of the ponded area (not to exceed 18 inches), infiltration rate of the soil, loading ratio, and, if applicable, any subsurface storage in the amended soil or gravel.

This volume can be considered removed if the bioretention is not underdrained. If the bioretention cell is underdrained, consider the bioretention cell as a detention device with the volume calculated above discharged to a surface water over time t_f .

Verification of meeting volume reduction requirements

The bioretention facility should be sized to accommodate the desired volume reductions towards the required Channel Protection Volume or the required Water Quality Volume, as appropriate (see the Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of the Technical Standards).

The volume of a bioretention area can have three components: surface storage volume, soil storage volume, and infiltration bed volume. These three components should be calculated separately and added together. The goal is that this total volume is larger than the required Channel Protection Volume or the Water Quality Volume, as appropriate. If the total volume is less than the required volume,

another adjustment may be needed to the bioretention area (e.g., increased filter bed depth).

Total volume calculation:

1. Surface storage volume (ft³) = Average bed area (ft²) * Maximum design water depth (ft)
2. Soil storage volume (ft³) = Infiltration area (ft²) * Depth of amended soil (ft) * Void ratio of amended soil.
3. Subsurface storage/Infiltration bed volume (ft³) = Infiltration area (ft²) * Depth of underdrain material (ft) * Void ratio of storage material

Total bioretention volume = Surface storage volume + Soil storage volume (if applicable) + Infiltration bed volume (if applicable).

Peak rate mitigation

The discussion under LID Approach in Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of the Technical Standards provides information on methodology to account for the provided distributed storage for the purpose of calculating the required detention pond size for peak rate control. If an underdrain is required, the bioretention also acts as a detention practice with a discharge rate roughly equal to the infiltration rate of the soil multiplied by the average bed area. The discharge rate should be counted towards the site's allowable release rate (if not leading to the site's detention pond) or as inflow to the site's detention pond (if an underdrain would eventually empty into the site's detention pond).

Water Quality Improvement

The reported water quality benefits of bioretention can be expected to remove a high amount of total suspended solids (typically 70-90 percent), a medium amount of total phosphorus (approximately 60 percent), and a medium amount of total nitrogen (often 40-50 percent). In areas with high sediment loading, pretreatment of runoff can significantly reduce the amount of bioretention maintenance required (See discussion in the Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of the Technical Standards for water quality calculation procedures).

Construction Guidelines

The following is a typical construction sequence (Note for all construction steps: Erosion and sediment control methods need to adhere to the construction BMP requirements contained in the Technical Standards document and the latest requirements of IDEM's Soil Erosion and Sedimentation Control (Rule 5) Program).

1. Complete site grading, minimizing compaction as much as possible. If applicable, construct curb cuts or other inflow entrance, but provide protection so that drainage is prohibited from entering the bioretention construction area. Construct pre-treatment devices (filter strips, swales, etc.) if applicable.
2. Subgrade preparation
 - a. Existing subgrade in rain gardens should not be compacted or subject to excessive construction equipment traffic. Loads on the subgrade should not exceed four pounds per square inch.
 - b. Initial excavation can be performed during rough site grading, but should not be carried to within one foot of the final bottom elevation. Final excavation should not take place until all disturbed areas in the drainage area have been stabilized.
 - c. Where erosion of subgrade has caused accumulation of fine materials and/or surface ponding in the graded bottom, this material should be removed with light equipment and the underlying soils scarified to a minimum depth of six inches with a york rake or equivalent by light tractor.
 - d. Bring subgrade of bioretention area to line, grade, and elevations indicated. Fill and lightly regrade any areas damaged by erosion, ponding, or traffic compaction. All bioretention areas should be level grade on the bottom.
3. Stabilize grading except within the bioretention area. Bioretention areas may be used as temporary sediment traps, provided the proposed finish elevation of the bed is at

least 12 inches lower than the bottom elevation of the sediment trap (if used as such, all accumulated material and at least 12 inches of soil should be removed).

4. Excavate bioretention area to proposed invert depth and scarify the existing soil surfaces. Do not compact soils.
5. Backfill bioretention area with amended soil as shown on plans and specifications. Overfilling is recommended to account for settling. Light hand tamping is acceptable if necessary.
6. Complete final grading to achieve proposed design elevations, leaving space for upper layer of compost, mulch, or topsoil as specified on plans.
7. Bioretention area/rain garden installation
 - a. Upon completing subgrade work, notify the engineer to inspect at his/her discretion before proceeding with bioretention installation.
 - b. For the subsurface storage/infiltration bed installation, amended soils should be placed on the bottom to the specified depth.
 - c. Planting soil should be placed immediately after approval of subgrade preparation/bed installation. Any accumulation of debris or sediment that takes place after approval of subgrade should be removed prior to installation of planting soil at no extra cost to the owner.
 - d. If called for in the design, install approved planting soil in 18-inch maximum lifts and lightly compact (tamp with backhoe bucket or by hand). Keep equipment movement over planting soil to a minimum – **do not over-compact**. Install planting soil to grades indicated on the drawings. Loads on the soil should not exceed four pounds per square inch.
 - e. Presoak the planting soil at least 24 hours prior to planting vegetation to aid in settlement.
 - f. Plant trees and shrubs according to supplier's recommendations and only from

mid-March through the end of June or from mid-September through mid-November.

- g. Install two or three inches of shredded hardwood mulch (minimum age six months) or compost mulch evenly as shown on plans. Do not apply mulch in areas where ground cover is to be grass or where cover will be established by seeding.
 - h. Protect rain gardens from sediment at all times during construction. Compost socks, diversion berms, and/or other appropriate measures should be used at the toe of slopes that are adjacent to rain gardens to prevent sediment from washing into these areas during site development.
 - i. When the site is fully vegetated and the soil mantle stabilized, notify the plan designer to inspect the rain garden drainage area at his/her discretion before the area is brought online and sediment control devices removed.
8. Mulch and install erosion protection at surface flow entrances where necessary.

Maintenance

Properly designed and installed bioretention areas require some regular maintenance, most within the first year or two of establishment. Less maintenance is required when the native perennial vegetation becomes established.

1. Water vegetation at the end of each day for two weeks after planting is completed. Newly established plants should continue to receive approximately one inch of water per week throughout the first season, or as determined by the landscape architect.
2. While vegetation is being established, pruning and weeding may be required. Weeds should be removed by hand.
3. Organic material may also need to be removed approximately twice per year (typically by hand).
4. Perennial plantings may be cut down at the end of the growing season to enhance root establishment.

5. Mulch should be re-spread when erosion is evident and replenished once every one to two years or until the plants begin to fill in the area and the space between plants is minimized.
6. Bioretention area should be inspected at least two times per year for sediment buildup, erosion, and to evaluate the health of the vegetation. If sediment buildup reaches 25 percent of the ponding depth, it should be removed. If erosion is noticed within the bioretention area, additional soil stabilization measures should be applied. If vegetation appears to be in poor health with no obvious cause, a landscape specialist should be consulted.
7. Bioretention vegetation may require watering, especially during the first year of planting. Ensure the maintenance plan includes a watering schedule for the first year, and in times of extreme drought after plants have been established.
8. Bioretention areas should not be mowed on a regular basis. Trim vegetation as necessary to maintain healthy plant growth.

Planting Tip

When planting your bioretention area, it is usually helpful to mark the different planting areas. An effective method is using spray paint and flags to mark designated areas. This is especially helpful when utilizing volunteers.

Winter Considerations

Use salt-tolerant vegetation where significant snow-melt containing deicing chemicals is expected. The use of sand, cinders, and other winter abrasives should be minimized. If abrasives are used, additional maintenance may be required to remove them in the spring. Bioretention soils can be expected to resist freezing and remain functioning for most of the year (although biological pollutant

removal processes will be reduced during winter). Bioretention areas can even be used for snow storage assuming this will not harm the vegetation. Pipes, inlets, overflow devices, and other stormwater structures associated with bioretention should be designed according to general guidance on cold climate construction.

Cost

Bioretention areas often replace areas that were intensively landscaped and require high maintenance. In addition, bioretention areas can decrease the cost for stormwater conveyance systems on a site. Bioretention areas cost approximately \$5-7 per cubic foot of storage to construct.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Rain Gardens/Bioretention

Item	Page No.	Yes	No	N/A	Notes
Was Soil infiltration Testing Protocol Appendix followed?*					
Appropriate areas of the site evaluated?	--				
Infiltration rates measured? <i>Moderate infiltration rates: > 0.25 inches/hour. If < 0.25 inches/hour, special variations may apply – such as using amended subsoils or underdrains.</i>	8				
Were the bioretention design guidelines followed?					
Minimum 2-foot separation between the bed bottom and bedrock/ SHWT?	8				
Soil permeability acceptable?	8				
If not, appropriate underdrain provided? <i>6-12 inches in diameter; perforated pipes</i>	10				
Natural, uncompacted soils?	11				
Level infiltration area (bed bottom)?	11				
Excavation in rain garden areas minimized?	--				
Hotspots/pretreatment considered?	1				
➤ Loading ratio below 5:1 (described in infiltration BMP)?	8				
Ponding depth limited to 18 inches?	1,7,8				
Drawdown time less than 48 hours?	1				
Positive overflow from system?	7,8				
Erosion and Sedimentation control?	12				
Feasible construction process and sequence?	11,12				
Entering flow velocities non-erosive or erosion control devices?	7,8				
Acceptable planting soil specified? ➤ 20-40% organic material (compost), 30-50% sand, 20-30% topsoil)	9				
➤ Appropriate native plants selected?	9				
Maintenance accounted for and plan provided? Review of treatment volume? Review of calculations?	10-13				

* In general, the protocol should be followed as much as possible.

➤ Denotes Minimum Design Considerations

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BMP Fact Sheet

CAPTURE REUSE

Structures designed to intercept and store runoff from rooftops allow for its reuse, reducing volume and overall water quality impairment. Stormwater is contained in the structures and typically reused for irrigation or other water needs.



Figure 1 Above ground cistern, Chicago, IL (USEPA, picasaweb)

Applications		Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Residential	Yes	Volume	High
Commercial	Yes	Groundwater Recharge	Low
Ultra Urban	Yes	Peak Rate	Low*
Industrial	Yes	Stormwater Quality Functions	
Retrofit	Yes	TSS	Med
Highway/Road	No	TP	Med
Recreational	Yes	NO ₃	Med
		Temperature	Med

* Depends on site design

Additional Considerations	
Cost • Rain Barrel • Cistern • Manufactured product	Low Med Varies
Maintenance	Med
Winter Performance	Med

Variations

- Rain barrels
- Cisterns, both underground and above ground
- Tanks
- Storage beneath a surface (using manufactured products)

Key Design Features

- Small storm events are captured with most structures
- Provide overflow for large storm events
- Discharge water before next storm event
- Consider site topography, placing structure up-gradient in order to eliminate pumping needs

Site Factors

- Water table to bedrock depth: N/A (although must be considered for subsurface systems)
- Soils: N/A
- Slope: N/A
- Potential hotspots: Yes, with treatment
- Maximum drainage area: N/A

Benefits

- Provides supplemental water supply
- Wide applicability
- Reduces potable water use
- Related cost savings and environmental benefits

Limitations

- Manages only relatively small storm events which requires additional management and use for the stored water

Description and Function

Capture reuse is the practice of collecting rainwater in a container and reusing it in the future. Other terms for this BMP include *storage/reuse*, *rainwater harvesting*, and *rainwater catchment system*.

This structural BMP reduces potable water needs while simultaneously reducing stormwater discharges. When rain barrels or cisterns are full, rooftop runoff should be directed to drywells, planters, or bioretention areas where it will be infiltrated.

Variations

Rain Barrels

Commonly, rooftop downspouts are connected to a rain barrel that collects runoff and stores water until needed for a specific use. Rain barrels are often used at individual homes where water is reused for garden irrigation, including landscaped beds, trees, or other vegetated areas. Other uses include commercial and institutional facilities where the capacity of stormwater can be captured in smaller volume rain barrels.

Cisterns

A cistern is a container or tank that has a greater storage capacity than a rain barrel. Typically, cisterns are used to supplement greywater needs (i.e., toilet flushing, or some other sanitary sewer use), though they can also be used for irrigation. Cisterns may be comprised of fiberglass, concrete, plastic, brick, or other materials and can be located either above or below ground. The storage capacity of cisterns can range from 200 gallons to 10,000 gallons. Very large cisterns, essentially constructed like an underground parking level, can also be used. **Figure 2** highlights the typical components of a cistern.

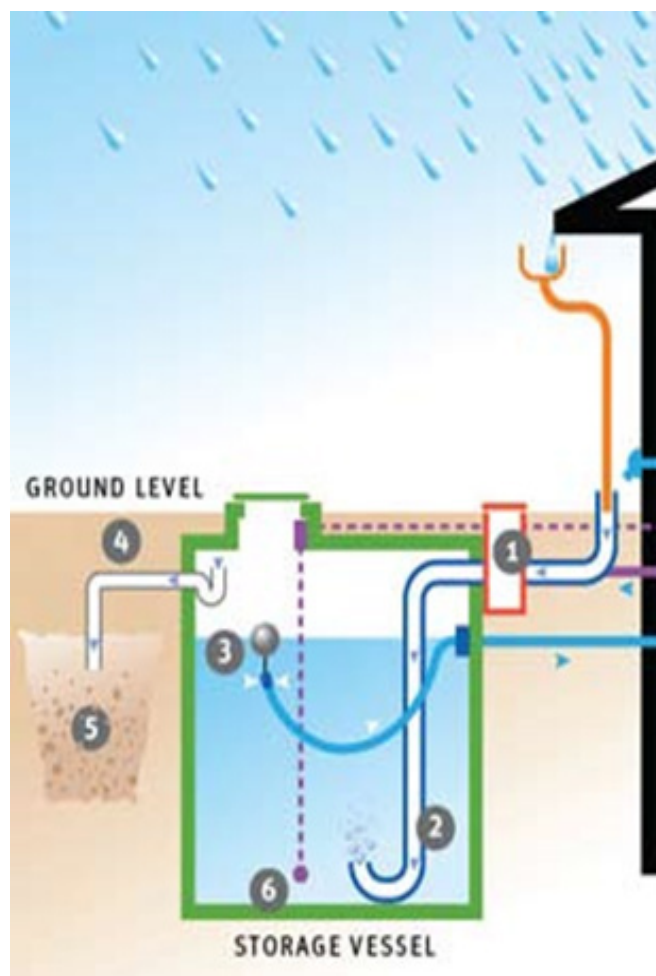


Figure 2 Typical cistern components

Source: This image generously provided by www.rainkeeper.us

Figure Description:

1. Filter/screening mechanism to filter runoff
2. Inflow into cistern
3. Intake for water use
4. Cistern overflow
5. Subsequent stormwater system (infiltration system in this case) for cistern overflow
6. Optional level gauge

Vertical storage

A vertical storage container is a structure designed to hold a large volume of stormwater drained from a large impervious area and is the largest of the capture reuse containers. The use of these structures is a function of drainage area and water needs. Vertical structures are best used for intensive irrigation needs or even fire suppression requirements, and should be designed by a licensed professional. These storage systems can be integrated into commercial sites where water needs may be high.

Storage beneath structure

Stormwater runoff can be stored below ground under pavement and landscaped surfaces through the use of structural plastic storage units and can supplement onsite irrigation needs. These structures can provide large storage volumes without the need for additional structural support from the building.

Designing a capture reuse system in which the storage unit is underground is best used in institutional or commercial settings. This type of subsurface storage is larger, more elaborate, typically designed by a licensed professional, and requires pumps to connect to the irrigation system.

Applications

Capture reuse containers can be used in urbanized areas where the need for supplemental onsite irrigation or other high water use exists. Areas that would benefit from using a capture reuse container include:

- Parking garage,
- Office building,
- Residential home or building, and
- Other building use (commercial, light industrial, institutional, etc.).

Design Considerations

Design and installation procedures for capture reuse containers can vary from simple residential rain barrels to highly engineered

underground systems in ultra-urban areas. **Table 1** provides general information on cistern holding capacity. The following procedures should be considered when designing sites with capture reuse containers.

Height (feet)	6-foot Diameter	12-foot Diameter	18-foot Diameter
6	1,269	5,076	11,421
8	1,692	6,768	15,227
10	2,115	8,460	19,034
12	2,538	10,152	22,841
14	2,961	11,844	26,648
16	3,384	13,535	30,455
18	3,807	15,227	34,262
20	4,230	16,919	38,069

Table 1 Round Cistern Capacity (Gallons)

Source: The Texas Manual on Rainwater Harvesting

1. Identify opportunities where water can be reused for irrigation or indoor greywater reuse and then calculate the water need for the intended uses. For example, if a 2,000 square foot landscaped area requires irrigation for four months in the summer at a rate of one inch per week, the designer must determine how much water will be needed to achieve this goal (1,250 gallons per week, approximately 22,000 gallons for the season), and how often the storage unit will be refilled with precipitation. The usage requirements and the expected rainfall volume and frequency must be determined.
2. Rain barrels and cisterns should be positioned to receive rooftop runoff.
3. If cisterns are used to supplement greywater needs, a parallel conveyance system must be installed to separate greywater from other potable water piping systems. Do not connect to domestic or commercial potable water system.
4. Consider household water demands (**Table 2**) when sizing a system to supplement residential greywater use.

Fixture	Use	Flow Rate
Toilet	# flushes per person per day	1.6 gallons per flush (new toilet)
Shower	# minutes per person per day (5 minutes suggested max.)	2.75 gallons per minute (restricted flow head)
Bath	# baths per person per day	50 gallons per bath (average)
Faucets	Bathroom and kitchen sinks	10 gallons per day
Washing Machine	# loads per day	50 gallons per load (average)
Dishwasher	# loads per day	9.5 gallons per load

Table 2 Household Water Demand Chart
Source: Philadelphia Stormwater Manual

5. Discharge points and storage units should be clearly marked "Caution: Untreated Rainwater, Do Not Drink."
6. Screens should be used to filter debris from runoff flowing into the storage units. Screens should be made of a durable, non-corrodible material and be easily maintainable.
7. Protect storage elements from direct sunlight by positioning and landscaping. Limit light into devices to minimize algae growth.
8. The proximity to building foundations should be considered for overflow conditions. The minimum setback distance for capture and reuse systems is 10 feet.
9. If the capture and reuse system or any elements of the system are exposed to freezing temperatures, then it should be emptied during the winter months to prevent ice damage.
10. Cisterns should be watertight (joints sealed with nontoxic waterproof material) with a smooth interior surface.
11. Covers and lids should have a tight fit to keep out surface water, insects (mosquitoes), animals, dust, and light.

12. Release stored water between storm events for the necessary storage volume to be available.
13. Positive outlet for overflow should be provided a few inches from the top of the cistern and sized to safely discharge the appropriate design storms when the cistern is full.
14. Rain barrels require a release mechanism in order to drain empty between storm events. Connect a soaker hose to slowly release stored water to a landscaped area.
15. Observation risers should be at least six inches above grade for buried cisterns.
16. Reuse may require pressurization. Water stored has a pressure of 0.43 psi per foot of water elevation. A 10-foot tank when full would have a pressure of 4.3 psi (0.43*10). Most irrigation systems require at least 15 psi. To add pressure, a pump, pressure tank, and fine mesh filter can be used. While this adds to the cost of the system, it makes the system more versatile and therefore practical.
17. Capture/reuse can also be achieved using a subsurface storage reservoir which provides temporary storage of stormwater runoff for reuse. The stormwater storage reservoir may consist of clean uniformly graded aggregate and a waterproof liner or pre-manufactured structural stormwater storage units.

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Volume reduction

In order to keep storage costs to a minimum, it makes sense to size the storage tank so that it does not greatly exceed the water need. Where this is done, especially where a high-volume demand greatly exceeds runoff (e.g., irrigation or industrial makeup water), runoff volume

reduction for a particular storm can be assumed to equal the total volume of storage.

Where the captured water is the sole source for a particular operation (e.g., flushing toilets), the user does not want the stored water to be depleted before the next runoff event that replenishes it. In that case, the appropriate volume to store will be relatively easy to calculate based on the daily water need. After water need is determined, choose which structure will be large enough to contain the

Additional Volume Reduction Considerations

For storage vessels that are not drained down completely before the next runoff event, the volume available to be filled by a particular storm may be difficult to calculate. Typical LID sizing criteria is based on the volume that goes to storage during a particular storm. That volume can be subtracted from the runoff volume, and the designer/developer can size the storage unit to achieve the targeted volume reduction. But sizing criteria under these capture and reuse circumstances may become need based. The designer/builder may estimate the volume removal for a particular storm, but estimates should be realistic given the use rate and storm runoff frequency. The estimate can be based on an average available storage capacity or preferably on a water balance analysis based on actual rainfall statistics.

amount of water needed. The amount replenished by a particular storm is equal to the volume reduction.

Available Volume for Capture (gallons) =
Runoff Coefficient (unitless) * Precipitation
(inches) * Area (ft²) * 1 foot/12 inches *
7.4805 gallons/ft³

OR

$$V = 0.62 * C * P * A$$

Where:

V = available volume for capture (gallons)

0.62 = unit conversion (gal/in./ft²)

C = volumetric runoff coefficient (unitless),
typically 0.9 to 0.95 for impervious areas

P = precipitation amount (inches)

A = drainage area to cistern (ft²)

Sizing the tank is a mathematical exercise that balances the available collection (roof) area, annual rainfall, intended use of rainwater and cost. In other words, balance what can be collected against how the rainwater will be used and the financial and spatial costs of storing it. In most areas of the country, it's possible to collect 80 percent of the rain that falls on the available roof area. The 20 percent reduction accounts for loss due to mist and heavy storms that release more rain than the tank can accommodate. That level of capture would yield approximately 500 gallons per inch of rain per 1000 SF of capture area. **Table 3** includes available capture volumes based on drainage area and annual rainfall.

Note: Although utilization of Capture Reuse BMP is beneficial and encouraged, no runoff reduction recognition is considered for this practice towards the required Channel Protection Volume or Water Quality Volume discussed under LID Approach in Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of Technical Standards.

Peak rate mitigation

Overall, capture and reuse takes a volume of water out of site runoff and puts it back into the ground. This reduction in volume will translate to a lower overall peak rate for the site.

Water quality improvement

Pollutant removal takes place through filtration of recycled primary storage, and/or natural filtration through soil and vegetation for overflow discharge. Quantifying pollutant removal will depend on design. Sedimentation will depend on the area below the outlet that is designed for sediment accumulation, time in

Annual Rainfall Yield in Gallons for Various Impervious Surface Sizes and Rainfall Amounts								
Impervious Surface Area (ft ²)	Rainfall (inches)							
	26	28	30	32	34	36	38	40
200	3,079	3,316	3,553	3,790	4,027	4,264	4,501	4,738
400	6,159	6,633	7,106	7,580	8,054	8,528	9,002	9,475
600	9,238	9,949	10,660	11,370	12,081	12,792	13,502	14,213
800	12,318	13,265	14,213	15,160	16,108	17,056	18,003	18,951
1,000	15,397	16,582	17,766	18,951	20,135	21,319	22,504	23,688
1,200	18,477	19,898	21,319	22,741	24,162	25,583	27,005	28,426
1,400	21,556	23,214	24,873	26,531	28,189	29,847	31,505	33,164
1,600	24,636	26,531	28,426	30,321	32,216	34,111	36,006	37,901
1,800	27,715	29,847	31,979	34,111	36,243	38,375	40,507	42,639
2,000	30,795	33,164	35,532	37,901	40,270	42,639	45,008	47,377
2,200	33,874	36,480	39,086	41,691	44,297	46,903	49,508	52,114
2,400	36,954	39,796	42,639	45,481	48,324	51,167	54,009	56,852
2,600	40,033	43,113	46,192	49,272	52,351	55,431	58,510	61,589
2,800	43,113	46,429	49,745	53,062	56,378	59,694	63,011	66,327
3,000	46,192	49,745	53,299	56,852	60,405	63,958	67,512	71,065
3,200	49,272	53,062	56,852	60,642	64,432	68,222	72,012	75,802
3,400	52,351	56,378	60,405	64,432	68,459	72,486	76,513	80,540
3,600	55,431	59,694	63,958	68,222	72,486	76,750	81,014	85,278
3,800	58,510	63,011	67,512	72,012	76,513	81,014	85,515	90,015

Table 3 Annual Rainfall yield (in gallons) for impervious surfaces

storage, and maintenance frequency. Filtration through soil will depend on flow draining to an area of soil, the type of soil (infiltration capacity), and design specifics (stone bed, etc.).

Maintenance

Rain Barrels

- Inspect rain barrels four times per year, and after major storm events.
- Remove debris from screen as needed.
- Replace screens, spigots, downspouts, and leaders as needed.
- To avoid damage, drain container prior to winter, so that water is not allowed to freeze in devices.

Cisterns

- Flush cisterns annually to remove sediment.
- Brush the inside surfaces and thoroughly disinfect twice per year.
- To avoid damage, drain container prior to winter, so that water is not allowed to freeze in devices.

Cost

Both rain barrels and cisterns are assumed to have a life span of 25 years. **Table 4** shows typical costs for rain barrels and cisterns.

	Capacity	Cost Range
Rain barrel	40-75 gal.	\$100-\$250
Cistern	200-10,000 gal.	Varies by manufacturer and material
Vertical storage	64-12,000 gal	\$100-\$11,000

Table 4 Capacities and Costs

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Capture Reuse

Type and size (gallons) of storage system provided: _____

ITEM*	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Capture area defined and calculations performed?	5,6				
Pretreatment provided to prevent debris/sediment from entering storage system?	4				
Water use identified and calculations performed?	3,4				
If the use is seasonal, has off-season operation been considered?	--				
Draw-down time considered?	--				
Is storage system located optimally for the use?	--				
Is a pump required?	--				
If so, has an adequate pump system been developed?	4				
Acceptable overflow provided?	4				
Winter operation (protection from freezing) considered?	4,6				
Observation/clean-out port provided?	4				
Maintenance accounted for and plan provided?	6				

* These items primarily relate to larger systems, not residential rain barrels

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BMP Fact Sheet

CONSTRUCTED FILTER

Constructed filters are structures or excavated areas containing a layer of sand, compost, organic material, peat, or other media that reduce pollutant levels in stormwater runoff by filtering sediments, metals, hydrocarbons, and other pollutants. Constructed filters are suitable for sites without sufficient surface area available for bioretention.



Figure 1 Constructed filter, Portland, OR (City of Portland 2004 Stormwater Management Manual)

Applications		Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Residential	Limited	Volume	Low/High*
Commercial	Yes	Groundwater Recharge	Low/High*
Ultra Urban	Yes	Peak Rate	Low/High*
Industrial	Yes	Stormwater Quality Functions	
Retrofit	Yes	TSS	High**
Highway/Road	Yes	TP	Medium**
Recreational	Yes	TN	Medium**
		Temperature	Low

Additional Considerations	
Cost	Med/High
Maintenance	High
Winter Performance	Medium

* Function is low without infiltration and increases when infiltration is provided

** Sand filters only (For filters with infiltration, see Subsurface Infiltration Bed section, or other infiltration BMP sections. For manufactured systems, see manufacturer's information, as well as results from independent verification.)

Variations

- Surface non-vegetated
- Vegetated
- Infiltration
- Contained
- Linear perimeter
- Small subsurface
- Large subsurface
- Manufactured filtration systems

Key Design Features

- Depth of filtering medium 18-30"
- Surface ponding should drain down within 72 hours (3-6" ponding depth)
- May be designed to infiltrate
- May require pretreatment for debris and sediment
- Some systems require sufficient head (2-6 feet)
- Flow splitter or positive overflow required to bypass large storms
- Requires minimum permeability of filtration medium
- Underdrains may be needed if infiltration is infeasible

Site Factors

- Water table to bedrock depth: N/A
- Soils: N/A
- Slope: N/A
- Potential hotspots: Yes
- Maximum drainage area: N/A

Benefits

- Good water quality performance
- Lots of variations for a variety of applications
- Can be used effectively as pretreatment for other BMPs

Limitations

- Limited water quantity benefits
- Relatively high cost
- High maintenance needs

Description and Function

A constructed filter is a structure or excavation filled with material that filters stormwater runoff to remove particulate matter and the pollutants attached to it. The filter media may be comprised of materials such as sand, peat, compost, granular activated carbon (GAC), perlite, or inorganic materials. In some applications, the stormwater runoff flows through an unfilled “pretreatment” chamber to allow the large particles and debris to settle out. Surface vegetation is another good option for pretreatment, as long as it is extensive enough to protect the filter from sediment during large storm events. The runoff then passes through the filter media where additional pollutants are filtered out, and is collected in an underdrain and returned to the conveyance system, receiving waters, or infiltrated into the soil. In general, constructed filters are best applied at sites without sufficient surface area available for bioretention.

Variations

There are a wide variety of constructed filter applications, including surface and subsurface, vegetated, and with or without infiltration. There are also a variety of manufactured filter products that may be purchased (see water quality devices BMP). In general, constructed filters consist of some, if not all, of the following components: excavation or container for media, pretreatment, flow entrance/inlet, surface storage (ponding area), filter media, underdrain (if necessary), and positive overflow. Examples of these variations include:

- Surface non-vegetated filter,
- Surface vegetated filter,
- Surface contained filter,
- Surface linear “perimeter” filter,
- Small subsurface filter, and
- Large subsurface filter.

Surface Infiltration Filter

Filters may be designed to allow some or all of the treated water to infiltrate. Infiltration design criteria apply for all filters designed (**Figure 2**) with infiltration. In all cases, a positive overflow system is recommended.

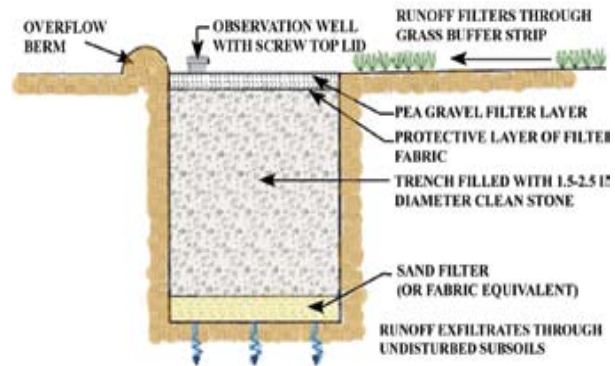


Figure 2 Filter with infiltration to subsoils

Surface non-vegetated filter

A surface non-vegetated filter is constructed by excavation or by use of a structural container. The surface may be covered in gravel, sand, peat, river stone, or similar material.

Surface vegetated filter

A layer of vegetation is planted on top of the filtering medium (**Figure 3**). Compost-amended soil may serve as a filter medium. (See soil restoration BMP for precautions about compost materials, to prevent exporting phosphorus from the filter.) For filters composed of filtering media such as sand (where topsoil is required for vegetation), a layer of nonwoven, permeable geotextile should separate the topsoil and vegetation from the filter media.

Surface contained filter

In contained filters, infiltration is not incorporated into the design. Contained filters may consist of a physical structure, such as a precast concrete box, or they may be excavated chambers or trenches. For excavated contained filters, an impermeable liner is added to the bottom of the excavation to convey the filtered runoff downstream.

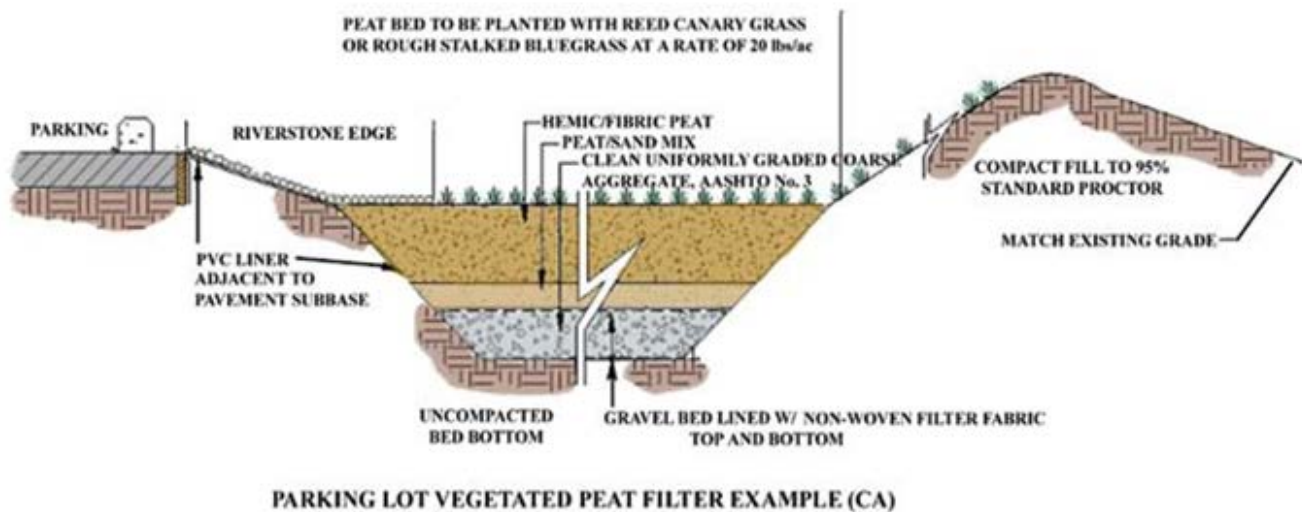


Figure 3 Vegetated peat filter adjacent to a parking lot

Surface linear “perimeter” filter

Perimeter filters may consist of enclosed chambers (such as trench drains) that run along the perimeter of an impervious surface. Perimeter filters may also be constructed by excavation, and be vegetated. All perimeter filters must be designed with the necessary filter medium and sized in accordance with the drainage area.

Small subsurface filter

A small subsurface filter (**Figure 4**) is an inlet designed to treat runoff at the collection source. Small subsurface filters are useful for hot spot pretreatment and are similar in function to water quality inlets/inserts. Small subsurface filters must be carefully designed and maintained so that runoff is directed through the filter media (see Design Considerations).

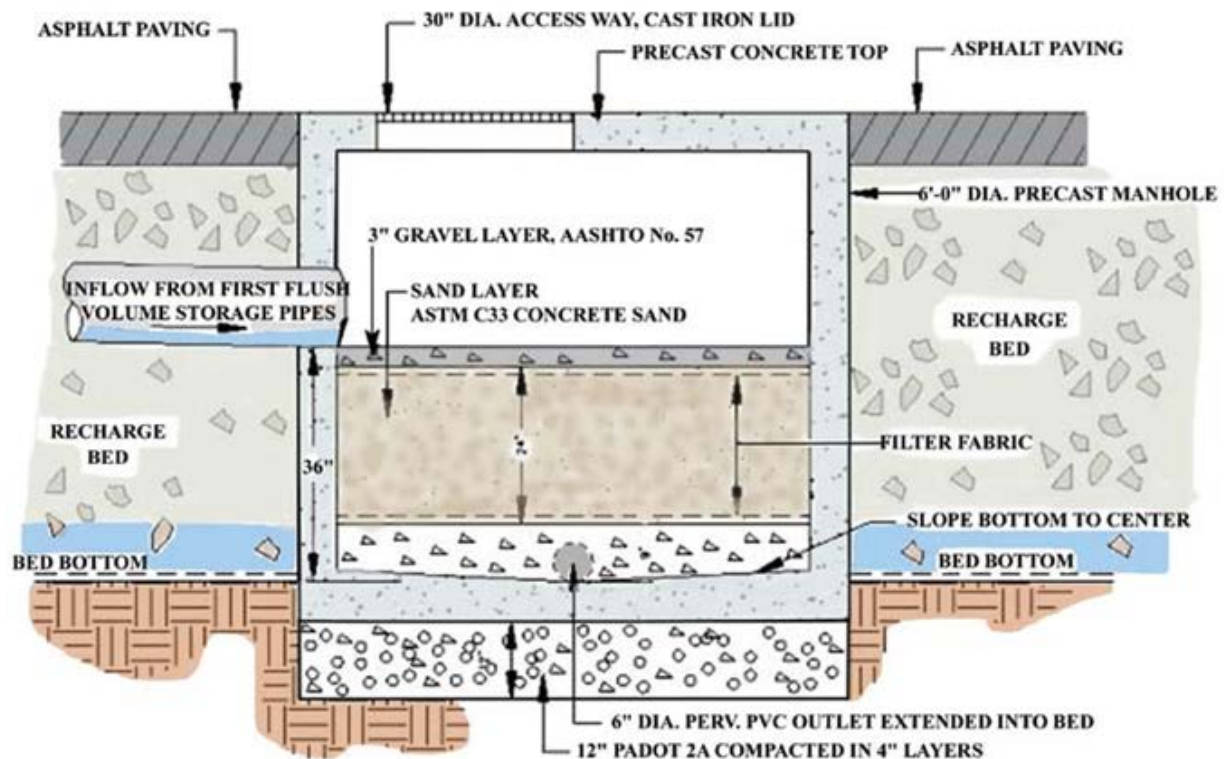


Figure 4 Small subsurface filter

Source: Pennsylvania Stormwater BMP Manual

Large subsurface filter

Large subsurface filters (Figure 5) receive relatively large amounts of flow directed into an underground box that has separate chambers. One chamber settles large particles, and the other chamber contains media to filter small particles. The water discharges through an outlet pipe and into the stormwater system.

residential projects (constructed filters are generally used for areas with high impervious cover).

Filters are applicable in urban areas of high pollutant loads and are especially applicable where there is limited area for constructing BMPs. Filters may be used as a pretreatment BMP for other BMPs such as wet ponds or infiltration systems, but input

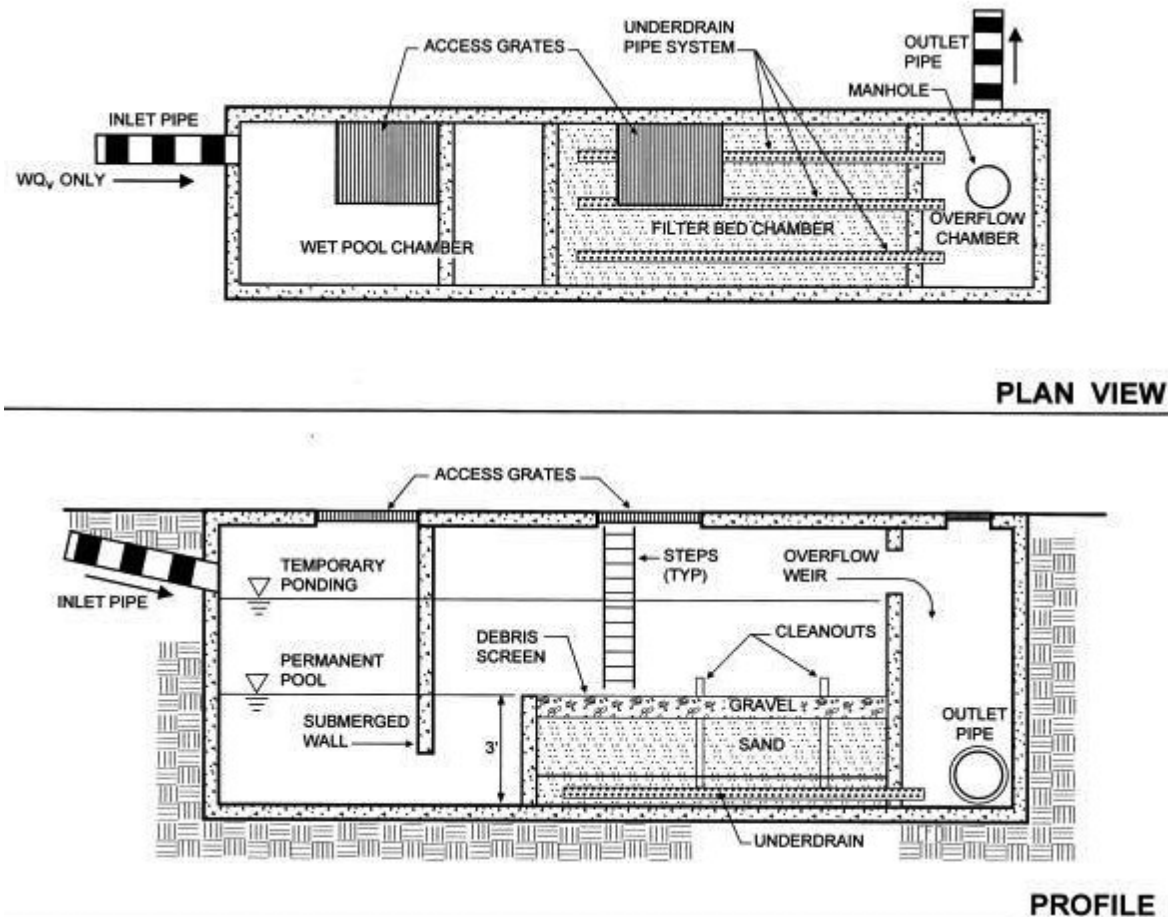


Figure 5 Large subsurface filter
Source: New York Stormwater BMP Manual

Applications

Constructed filters can be used in a wide variety of applications, from commercial/industrial developments to ultra-urban sites and even transportation projects. Their application in residential settings, especially low-density residential, can be limited because they require extensive maintenance. Moreover, other BMPs are more cost effective for stormwater management in

to many filters also requires pretreatment to reduce large settled particulates or debris.

Filters may be used in hot spot areas for water quality treatment, and spill containment capabilities may be incorporated into a filter. Examples of typical areas that benefit from the use of a constructed filter include:

- Parking lots,
- Roadways and highways,

- Light industrial sites,
- Marina areas,
- Transportation fueling and maintenance facilities,
- Fast food and shopping areas,
- Waste transfer stations, and
- Urban streetscapes.

Design Considerations

1. All constructed filters must be designed so that larger storms may safely overflow or bypass the filters. Flow splitters, multi-stage chambers, or other devices may be used. A flow splitter may be necessary to allow only a portion of the runoff to enter the filter. This would create an “off-line” filter, where the volume and velocity of runoff entering the filter is controlled. If the filter is “on-line”, excess flow should be designed to bypass the filter and continue to another water quality BMP.
2. **Entering velocity must be controlled.** A level spreader may be used to spread flow evenly across the filter surface during all storms without eroding the filter material. Level spreaders for this purpose should use a concrete lip or other non soil material to avoid clogging as a result of failure of the level spreader lip. Parking lots may be designed to sheet flow into filters. Small rip-rap or landscaped riverstone edges may be used to reduce velocity and distribute flows more evenly.
3. Contributing areas must be **stabilized** with vegetation or other permanent soil cover before runoff enters filters. Permanent filters should not be installed until the site is stabilized. Excessive sediment generated during construction can clog the filter and prevent or reduce the anticipated post-construction water quality benefits.
4. **Pretreatment** may be necessary in areas with especially high levels of debris, large settled particulates, etc. Pretreatment may include a forebay, oil/grit separators, vegetated filter strips, or grass swales. These measures will settle out the large particles and reduce

velocity of the runoff before it enters the filter. Regular maintenance of the pretreatment is critical to avoid wastes being flushed through and causing the filter to fail. Forebays must be in compliance with local Stormwater Management Ordinance and standard detailed drawing requirements.

5. There should be sufficient space (head) between the top of the filtering bed and the overflow of the filter to allow for the maximum head designed to be stored before filtration.
6. The **filter media** may be a variety of materials (sand, peat, GAC, leaf compost, pea gravel, etc) and in most cases should have a minimum depth of 18 inches and a maximum depth of 30 inches, although variations on these guidelines are acceptable if justified by the designer. Coarser materials allow for greater hydraulic conductivity, but finer media filter particles of a smaller size.

Sand has been found to provide a good balance between these two criteria, but different types of media remove different pollutants. While sand is a reliable material to remove total suspended solids, peat removes slightly more total phosphorous, copper, cadmium, and nickel than sand (Debusk and Langston, 1997).

The filter media should have a minimum hydraulic conductivity (k) as follows:

- Sand 3.5 feet/day
- Peat 2.5 feet/day
- Leaf compost 8.7 feet/day

Depending on the characteristics of the stormwater runoff, a combination of filter materials will provide the best quality results. In addition to determining the degree of filtration, media particle size determines the travel time in the filter and plays a role in meeting release rate requirements.

Sand filtration enhanced with steel wool, calcareous sand, or limestone provides a practical and cost-effective method for

reducing levels of dissolved phosphorus (Erickson et al, Journal of Environmental Engineering, 2007). Sand enhanced with steel wool fabric proved especially effective, removing between 25 percent and 99 percent of dissolved phosphorus and enhancing the quantity and duration of phosphorous retention as compared to sand alone. Sand enhanced with calcareous sand or limestone exhibited signs of clogging in the Erickson et al study. The study also found that enhancing sand filtration with steel wool fabric would modestly increase construction costs by approximately three to five percent. As with other sand filtration systems, steel-enhanced sand filters should be sized and installed according to local guidelines, with consideration given to proper pretreatment for influent solids, as necessary.

7. A **gravel layer** at least six inches deep is recommended beneath the filter media.
8. **Underdrain piping** should be double-walled with four-inch minimum (diameter) perforated pipes, with a lateral spacing of no more than 10 feet. A collector pipe can be used, (running perpendicular to laterals) with a slope of one percent. All underground pipes should have clean-outs accessible from the surface. Underdrain design must minimize the chance of clogging by including a pea gravel filter of at least three inches of gravel under the pipe and six inches above the pipe.
9. Infiltration filters should be underlain by a layer of permeable nonwoven geotextile.
10. A total **drawdown time** of no more than 72 hours is recommended for constructed filters, though the surface should drawdown between 24 and 48 hours. The drawdown time can be estimated using the filter surface area and the saturated vertical infiltration rate of the filter media. If the storage does not drawdown in the time allowed, adjust the pretreatment depth, the filter media depth, and the surface area. Adjust the design until the volume (if applicable) and drainage time constraints are met.

11. The filter **surface area** may be estimated initially using Darcy's Law, assuming the soil media is saturated:

$$A = V * d_f / [k * (h_f + d_f) * t_f]$$

A = Surface area of filter (ft²)

V = Water volume (ft³)

d_f = Depth of filter media (min 1.5 ft; max 2.5 ft)

t_f = Drawdown time (days), not to exceed 3 days

h_f = Head (average head in feet; typically ½ of the maximum head on the filter media, which is typically ≤ to 6 ft)

k = Hydraulic conductivity (ft/day)

12. For vegetated filters, a layer of nonwoven geotextile between non-organic filter media and planting media is recommended.
13. Filters, especially those that are subsurface, must be **designed with sufficient maintenance access** (clean-outs, room for surface cleaning, entry space, etc.). Filters that are visible and simple in design are more likely to be maintained correctly. For underground vault heights greater than four feet, ladder access is necessary.
14. In areas where infiltration is infeasible due to a hot spot or unstable fill that threatens an existing structure, specify an **impervious liner**.

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Volume reduction

If a filter is designed to include infiltration, the infiltration BMP should be followed. There is minimal, if any, volume reduction for filters that are not designed to infiltrate.

Peak rate mitigation

Constructed filters generally provide little, if any, peak rate reduction. However, if the filter is designed to infiltrate, then medium to high levels of peak rate attenuation can be expected.

Water quality improvement

Constructed filters are considered an excellent stormwater treatment practice with the primary pollutant removal mechanism being filtration and settling. Less significant pollutant removal may result from evaporation, transpiration, biological and microbiological uptake, and soil adsorption.

Sand filters have been shown to have a high removal efficiency of Total Suspended Solids (TSS), and medium removal efficiencies for Total Nitrogen (TN) and Total Phosphorus (TP). Organic filter media also perform very well for TSS and standard for TP, but perform relatively poorly for TN (See **Table 1**).

For filters that are also designed to infiltrate, see the water quality summary in the subsurface infiltration bed section, or in the infiltration BMP. For manufactured, proprietary systems, see the manufacturer's information. Also see the Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of Technical Standards, which addresses pollutant removal effectiveness of this BMP.

Construction Guidelines

1. Follow the recommended materials for constructed filters listed in Recommended Materials Appendix.
2. Structures such as inlet boxes, reinforced concrete boxes, etc. should be installed in accordance with the guidance of the manufacturers or design engineer.
3. Excavated or structural filters that infiltrate should be excavated in such a manner as to avoid compaction of the subbase. Structures may be set on a layer of clean, lightly compacted gravel (such as AASHTO #57).
4. Place underlying gravel/stone in maximum six-inch lifts and lightly compact. Place underdrain pipes in gravel during placement.
5. Wrap and secure gravel/stone with nonwoven geotextile to prevent clogging with sediments.

6. Lay filtering material. Do not compact.
7. Saturate filter media with water and allow media to drain to properly settle and distribute.

Maintenance

Filters require a regular inspection and maintenance program to maintain the integrity of filtering systems and pollutant removal mechanisms. Studies have shown that filters are very effective upon installation, but quickly decrease in efficiency as sediment accumulates in the filter. Odor is also a concern for filters that are not maintained. Inspection of the filter is recommended at least four times a year.

When a filter has accumulated sediment in its pore space, its hydraulic conductivity is reduced, along with its ability to removal pollutants. Inspection and maintenance are essential for continued performance of a filter. Based upon inspection, some or all portions of the filter media may require replacement.

During the inspection the following conditions should be considered:

- **Standing water** – any water left in a surface filter after the design drain down time indicates the filter is not functioning according to design criteria.
- **Film or discoloration** of any surface filter material – this indicates organics or debris have clogged the filter surface.
- Remove trash and debris as necessary
- Scrape silt with rakes, if collected on top of the filter
- Till and aerate filter area
- Replenish filtering medium if scraping/removal has reduced depth of filtering media
- Repair leaks from the sedimentation chamber or deterioration of structural components
- Clean out accumulated sediment from filter bed chamber and/or sedimentation chamber
- Clean out accumulated sediment from underdrains

Studies	No. of studies	TSS % Removal		TN % Removal		TP % Removal	
		Range	Median	Range	Median	Range	Median
U.S.*	18	80 - 92	86	30-47	32	41-66	59
International**	38		75		44		45
Organic media*	N/A	85-100		poor		50-85	

Table 1 Pollutant Removal efficiencies for sand filters

*The Center for Watershed Protection, in its National Pollutant Removal Performance Database – Version 3 (September 2007)

**The International Stormwater Best Management Practices (BMP) Database, October 2007

In areas where the potential exists for the discharge and accumulation of toxic pollutants (such as metals), filter media removed from filters must be handled and disposed of in accordance with all state and federal regulations.

Winter Considerations

Indiana's winter temperatures can go below freezing for a few months out of every year and surface filtration does not work as well in the winter. Peat and compost may hold water freeze, and become relatively impervious on the surface. Design options that allow directly for subsurface discharge into the filter media during cold weather may overcome this condition. Otherwise, the reduced performance when the filter media may be temporarily frozen should be considered.

There are various filtration options available for treating snowmelt runoff. In some cases, installations are built below the frost line (trenches, subgrade proprietary chambers) and do not need further adaptation for the cold. However, some special consideration is highly recommended for surface systems.

The main problem with filtration in cold weather is the ice that forms both over the top of the facility and within the soil. To avoid these problems to the extent possible, it is recommended that the facility be actively managed to keep it dry before it freezes in the late fall. Additional modifications, such as increasing the size of underdrains to eight inches, increasing the slope of the underdrains to one percent, and increasing the thickness of the gravel layer to at least 12 inches can prevent freezing and are recommended by EPA.

Proprietary, subsurface filter systems provide an alternative to standard surface-based systems. Essentially, these systems provide an insulated (i.e., subsurface) location for pre-treated snowmelt to be

filtered. The insulating value of these systems adds to their appeal as land conserving alternatives to ponds and surface infiltration basins.

Cost

Filter costs vary according to the filtering media (sand, peat, compost), land clearing, excavation, grading, inlet and outlet structures, perforated pipes, encasing structure (if used), and maintenance cost. Underground structures may contribute significantly to the cost of a filter. In general, filters are one of the more costly and maintenance-intensive BMPs.

Underground sand filters are generally considered to be a high-cost option for water quality management. In 1994, the construction cost was estimated between \$10,000 to \$14,000 per impervious acre served, excluding real estate, design, and contingency costs (Schueler, 1994).

In ultra-urban areas where land costs are high, however, underground sand filters can represent significant cost savings in reduced land consumption. For small ultra-urban areas with no land available, underground sand filters may be the only practical option for stormwater quality treatment as they can be placed under roads or parking lots.

In recent years, various manufacturers have made available prefabricated units that include precast vaults and inlets delivered to the site either partially or fully assembled. These units have generally resulted in decreased construction costs. Typical significant cost variables include the location of subsurface utilities, type of lids and doors, customized casting of weirs, sections, or holes, and depth of the vault.

The surface sand filter design is a moderately expensive water quality option to employ (Claytor

and Schueler, 1996). However, the cost of installation is strongly correlated with the nature of the construction employed. If the filter is installed within an ultra-urban setting, it is likely that relatively expensive concrete walls will be used to create the various chambers. This type of installation will be significantly more expensive than an earthen-walled design, where relatively inexpensive excavation and compaction construction techniques lower the installation cost. However, earthen-wall designs require a greater land area commitment, which can offset the reduction in construction costs.

The construction cost of surface sand filters is also related to economies of scale: the cost per impervious acre served typically decreases with an increase in the service area. In 1994, the construction costs for surface sand or organic media filters were \$16,000 per impervious acre for facilities serving less than two acres (Schueler, 1994). Once again, these construction cost estimates exclude real estate, design, and contingency costs.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Constructed Filters

Type of constructed filter(s) proposed: _____

Type of filter media proposed: _____

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Adequate depth of filter media? ➤ <i>Minimum Depth: 18 inches; maximum depth: 36 inches</i>	1				
Acceptable drawdown time (72 hour max.)?	1,6				
Pretreatment provided?	2,5				
Adequate hydraulic head available for filter to operate?	1,5				
➤ Flow bypass and/or overflow provided?	1,4-5				
Permeability of filter media acceptable? <i>Minimum hydraulic conductivity (k); sand = 3.5 ft/day; peat = 2.5 ft/day; compost = 8.7 ft/day</i>	5				
Underdrain provided for non infiltration systems?	1				
Appropriate placement of nonwoven filter fabric?	2-3,6				
Gravel layer provided beneath filter media? <i>Minimum depth: 6 inches</i>	6				
➤ Non-erosive inflow condition?	5				
➤ Adequate surface area provided?	6				
Construction timing places installation after site stabilization?	5				
Erosion control provided during construction?	--				
Cleanouts included?	6				
Maintenance accounted for and plan provided?	7				

➤ *Denotes Minimum Design Considerations*

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BMP Fact Sheet

DETENTION BASINS - CONSTRUCTED WETLAND

A constructed wetland is a type of detention basin that is developed as shallow marsh system planted with emergent vegetation designed to treat stormwater runoff.



Figure 1 Photo Courtesy of USDA NRCS

Applications	
Residential	Yes
Commercial	Yes
Ultra Urban	No
Industrial	Yes
Retrofit	Yes
Highway/Road	Yes
Recreational	Yes

Stormwater Quality Functions

Varies by type as follows:

Type	TSS	TP	TN	Temperature
Constructed Wetland	High	Medium	Medium	Low/Medium

Variations

- Shallow Wetlands
- Extended Detention Shallow Wetlands
- Pocket Wetlands
- Pond/Wetland

Key Design Features

- Storage capacity highly dependent on available site area
- Outlet structure configuration determines peak rate reduction effectiveness
- Regular maintenance of vegetation and sediment removal required
- Natural high groundwater table required
- Relatively impermeable soils or impermeable liner
- Forebay for sediment collection and removal
- Dewatering mechanism required
- Stabilized emergency overflow and energy dissipation at all outlets

Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Volume	Low
Groundwater Recharge	None or Low
Peak Rate	High

Site Factors

Type	Basin Bottom Relative to Water Table	Soils	Slope	Potential Hotspots	Max. Drainage Area (acres)	Benefits	Limitations
Const. Wetland	Can be below WT	C or D*	Low	Yes w/ considerations	50	Good peak rate & water quality performance, wide applicability, potential aesthetic/habitat value	Limited volume/GW recharge benefits, high total cost, potentially thermal impact

*C or D soils typically work without modification. A and B soils may require modifications to reduce their permeability.

Additional Considerations

Cost

- High – Cost must include excavation of basin and enhanced vegetation.
- The cost of each basin is highly dependent on the size of the basin and site characteristics.

Maintenance

Type	Maintenance
Constructed Wetland	Low/Med

Winter Performance

- Med/High

Description and Function

Constructed wetlands are shallow marsh systems planted with emergent vegetation designed to treat stormwater runoff. While they are one of the best BMPs for pollutant removal, constructed wetlands can also mitigate peak rates and even reduce runoff volume to a certain degree. They also can provide considerable aesthetic and wildlife benefits. Constructed wetlands use a relatively large amount of space and may require an adequate source of inflow if a permanent water surface is maintained. (Not all constructed wetlands maintain a water surface year round).

Applications

Constructed wetlands can be used in a wide variety of applications when the necessary space is available. Their use is limited in ultra urban areas and some redevelopment projects simply due to a

lack of available space (in these cases underground and/or special detention may be used).

Variations

Constructed wetlands can be designed as either online (within the stormwater system) or offline facilities. They can be used effectively in series with other flow/ sediment reducing BMPs that reduce the sediment load and equalize incoming flows to the constructed wetland. They are a good option for retrofitting existing detention basins and are often organized into the following four groups:

- **Shallow wetlands** are large surface area constructed wetlands that primarily accomplish water quality improvement through displacement of the permanent pool.
- **Extended detention shallow wetlands** are similar to shallow wetlands but use extended detention as another mechanism for water quality and peak rate control.
- **Pocket wetlands** are smaller constructed wetlands that serve drainage areas between approximately 5 and 10 acres and are constructed near the water table.
- **Pond/wetland** systems are a combination of wet ponds and constructed wetlands.

Although discussion of constructed wetlands in this BMP focuses on surface flow as described above, subsurface flow constructed wetlands can also be used to treat stormwater runoff.

While typically used for wastewater treatment, subsurface flow constructed wetlands for

stormwater can offer some advantages over surface flow wetlands, such as improved reduction of total suspended solids and biological oxygen demand. They also can reduce the risk of disease vectors (especially mosquitoes) and safety risks associated with open water. However, nitrogen removal may be deficient (Campbell and Ogden, 1999) if most of the incoming nitrogen is in the form of ammonia. Subsurface flow wetlands are poor converters of ammonia to nitrate (nitrification) but are excellent converters of nitrate to nitrogen gas (denitrification). Perhaps the biggest concern regarding subsurface constructed wetlands is their relatively high cost. They can be two to three times more expensive to construct than surface flow constructed wetlands.

Design Considerations

Hydrology

- Constructed wetlands should be designed to mitigate peak runoff rates for the one-year through 100-year rainfall events.
- Inflow and discharge hydrographs should be calculated for each selected design storm. Hydrographs should be based on the 24-hour rainfall event or that required in the local Stormwater Ordinance. Typically, the NRCS 24-hour Type II rainfall distribution should be utilized to generate hydrographs.
- Constructed wetlands must be able to receive and retain enough flow from rain, runoff, and groundwater to ensure long-term viability. Hydrologic calculations (e.g., a water balance) must be performed to verify this. Shallow marsh areas can become dry at the surface but not for greater than one month, even in the most severe drought. A permanent water surface in the deeper areas of the constructed wetland should be maintained during all but the driest periods. The average target pool depth to maintain emergent wetland vegetation is six to 12 inches. Maximum water depths of three to four feet should not be exceeded for more than 12 hours at a time, for more than a few days out of the year. The deeper the water and the longer it sits, the greater the chances that a wetland vegetation monoculture, such as cattails, will develop. A relatively stable

normal water surface elevation reduces the stress on wetland vegetation. A constructed wetland must have a drainage area of at least 10 acres (five acres for “pocket” wetlands) or some means of sustaining constant inflow. Even with a large drainage area, a constant source of inflow can improve the biological health and effectiveness of a constructed wetland. Indiana’s precipitation is generally well distributed throughout the year and is therefore suited for constructed wetlands.

Storage volume, depth, and duration

- Constructed wetlands should be designed to treat the runoff volume produced by the water quality design storm unless additional upstream BMPs are provided.
- If high water table conditions are anticipated, then the design of a constructed wetland should be considered.
- Ponding depths should not exceed 3 – 4 feet for more than 12 hours.
- Detention time is defined as the time from when the maximum storage volume is reached until only 10 percent of that volume remains in the basin. In order to achieve an 80 percent total suspended solids removal rate, a 36-hour detention time is required within an extended detention basin, with no more than 40% of the maximum stored volume released within the first 12 hours.

Basin sizing and configuration

- Constructed wetlands should be shaped to maximize the hydraulic length of the stormwater flow pathway. A minimum length-to width ratio of 3:1 is recommended to maximize sedimentation. If the length-to-width ratio is lower, the flow pathway should be maximized. A wedge-shaped pond with the major inflows on the narrow end can prevent short-circuiting and stagnation.
- Irregularly shaped basins are acceptable and may even be encouraged to improve site aesthetics.
- Distances of flow paths from inflow points to outlets should be maximized.
- If site conditions inhibit construction of a long, narrow basin, baffles consisting of

earthen berms or other materials can be incorporated into the pond design to lengthen the stormwater flow path.

- Constructed wetlands must have one or more sediment forebays or equivalent upstream pretreatment to trap coarse sediment, prevent short circuiting and facilitate maintenance (i.e., sediment removal). The forebay should consist of a separate cell, formed by a structural barrier. The forebay will require periodic sediment removal.
- Permanent access must be provided to the forebay, outlet, and embankment areas. It should be at least nine feet wide, having a maximum slope of 15 percent, and be stabilized for vehicles.
- An emergency outlet or spillway capable of conveying the spillway design flood (SDF) must be included in the design. The SDF is usually equal to the 1.25 times the 100-year design flood.
- Constructed wetlands should be designed so that the 10-year water surface elevation does not exceed the normal water surface elevation by more than three feet. Slopes in and around constructed wetlands should be 4:1 to 5:1 (horizontal:vertical) whenever possible.
- All areas that are deeper than four feet should have two safety benches, each four to six feet wide. One should be situated about one to 1.5 feet above the normal water elevation and the other 2 to 2.5 feet below the water surface.

Embankments

- Vegetated embankments less than or equal to three feet in height are recommended. Embankments should have side slopes no steeper than 3:1 (horizontal to vertical).
- The constructed wetland should have a minimum freeboard of one foot above the SDF elevation to the top of the berm.
- Woody vegetation is generally discouraged in the embankment area because of the risk of compromising the integrity of the embankment.
- Embankments should incorporate measures, such as buried chain link fencing, to prevent or discourage damage caused by tunneling wildlife (e.g., muskrat).

Constructed wetland location

- Constructed wetlands should be located down gradient of disturbed or developed areas on the site. The constructed wetland should collect as much site runoff as possible, especially from the site's impervious surfaces (roads, parking, buildings, etc.), and where other BMPs are not proposed.
- Constructed wetlands should not be constructed on steep slopes, nor should slopes be significantly altered or modified to reduce the steepness of the existing slope, for the purpose of installing a basin.
- Constructed wetlands should not worsen the runoff potential of the existing site by removing trees for the purpose of installing a basin.
- Constructed wetlands should not be constructed within 10 feet of the property line or within 50 feet of a private well or septic system.
- Constructed wetlands should not be constructed in areas with high quality and/or well draining soils, which are adequate for installing BMPs capable of achieving stormwater infiltration and, hence, volume reduction.

Outlet design

- The low-flow orifice should typically be no smaller than 4 inches in diameter. However, the orifice diameter may be reduced to two inches if adequate protection from clogging is provided.
- The hydraulic design of all outlet structures must consider any significant tailwater effects of downstream waterways.
- The primary and low flow outlets should be protected from clogging by an external trash rack or other mechanism.
- Online facilities should have an emergency spillway that can safely pass 1.25 times the 100-year storm with one foot of freeboard. All outflows should be conveyed downstream in a safe and stable manner.
- Outlet control devices should be in open water areas, four to six feet deep, comprising about five percent of the total surface area to prevent clogging and allow the wetland to be drained for maintenance. Outlet devices are

generally multistage structures with pipes, orifices, or weirs for flow control. All outflows should be conveyed downstream in a safe and stable manner.

Inlet structures

- Erosion protection measures should be used to stabilize inflow structures and channels.

Sediment forebay

- Forebays must be in compliance with local Stormwater Management Ordinance and standard detailed drawing requirements.
- Forebays must be incorporated into the basin design. Forebays should be provided at all major inflow points to capture coarse sediment, prevent excessive sediment accumulation in the main basin, and minimize erosion by inflow.
- Forebays should be vegetated to improve filtering of runoff, to reduce runoff velocity, and to stabilize soils against erosion. Forebays should adhere to the following criteria:
 - A minimum length of 10 feet.
 - Storage should be provided to trap sediment over from storms with return periods between 1 and 10 years.
 - Forebays should be physically separated from the rest of the pond by a berm, gabion wall, etc.
 - Flows exiting the forebay must be non-erosive to the newly constructed basin.
 - Forebays should be installed with permanent vertical markers that indicate sediment depth.
 - Storage volume of 10 to 15 percent of the total permanent pool volume and is four to six feet deep.
 - All major inflow points to dry detention basins should include sediment forebays sized for 10 percent of the water quality volume.

Vegetation and soils protection

- Underlying soils must be identified and tested. Generally, hydrologic soil groups “C” and “D” are suitable without modification; “A” and “B” soils may require a clay or synthetic liner. Soil permeability must be

tested in the proposed constructed wetland location to ensure that excessive infiltration will not cause it to dry out. Field results for permeability should be used in the water balance calculations to confirm suitability. If necessary, constructed wetlands should have highly compacted subsoil or an impermeable liner to minimize infiltration.

- Organic soils should be used for constructed wetlands. Organic soils can serve as a sink for pollutants and generally have high water holding capacities. They will also facilitate plant growth and propagation and may hinder invasion of undesirable species. Care must be taken to ensure that soils used are free of invasive or nuisance plant seed.
- About half of the emergent vegetation zone should be high marsh (up to six inches deep) and half should be low marsh (6 to 18 inches deep). Varying depths throughout the constructed wetland can improve plant diversity and health.
- The open water zone (approximately 35 to 40 percent of the total surface area) should be between 18 inches and six feet deep. Allowing a limited five-foot deep area can prevent short-circuiting by encouraging mixing, enhance aeration of water, prevent resuspension, minimize thermal impacts, and limit mosquito growth. Alternating areas of emergent vegetation zone (up to 18 inches deep) and open water zone can also minimize short-circuiting and hinder mosquito propagation.

General Specifications

The following specifications are provided for information purposes only. These specifications include information on acceptable materials for typical applications, but are by no means exclusive or limiting. The designer is responsible for developing detailed specifications for individual design projects in accordance with the project conditions.

Excavation

- The area to be used for the constructed wetland should be excavated to the required depth below the desired bottom elevation to

accommodate any required impermeable liner, organic matter, and/or planting soil.

- The compaction of the subgrade and/or the installation of any impermeable liners will follow immediately.

Subsoil preparation

- Subsoil should be free from hard clods, stiff clay, hardpan, ashes, slag, construction debris, petroleum hydrocarbons, or other undesirable material. Subsoil must not be delivered in a frozen or muddy state.
- Scarify the subsoil to a depth of 8 to 10 inches with a disk, rototiller, or similar equipment.
- Roll the subsoil under optimum moisture conditions to a dense seal layer with four to six passes of a sheepsfoot roller or equivalent. The compacted seal layer should be at least eight inches thick.

Impermeable liner

- If necessary, install impermeable liner in accordance with manufacturer's guidelines.
- Place a minimum 12 inches of subsoil on top of impermeable liner in addition to planting soil.

Earth fill material & placement

- The fill material should be taken from approved designated excavation areas. It should be free of roots, stumps, wood, rubbish, stones greater than six inches, or other objectionable materials. Materials on the outer surface of the embankment must have the capability to support vegetation.
- Areas where fill is to be placed should be scarified prior to placement. Fill materials for the embankment should be placed in maximum eight-inch lifts. The principal spillway must be installed concurrently with fill placement and not excavated into the embankment.
- Control movement of the hauling and spreading equipment over the site.

Embankment core

- The core should be parallel to the centerline of the embankment as shown on the plans. The top width of the core should be at least four feet. The height should extend up to at least the 10-year water elevation or as shown on the plans. The side slopes should be 1:1 or flatter. The core should be compacted with construction equipment, rollers, or hand tampers to assure maximum density and minimum permeability. The core should be placed concurrently with the outer shell of the embankment.
- Construction of the berm should follow specifications by the project's geotechnical engineer.

Structure backfill

- Backfill adjacent to pipes and structures should be of the type and quality conforming to that specified for the adjoining fill material. The fill should be placed in horizontal layers not to exceed eight inches in thickness and compacted by hand tampers or other manually directed compaction equipment. The material should fill completely all spaces under and adjacent to the pipe. At no time during the backfilling operation should driven equipment be allowed to operate closer than four feet to any part of the structure. Equipment should not be driven over any part of a concrete structure or pipe, unless there is a compacted fill of 24 inches or greater over the structure or pipe.
- Backfill content and placement should follow specifications by the project's geotechnical engineer.

Pipe conduits

Corrugated metal pipe – All of the following criteria should apply for corrugated metal pipe:

- Materials – Polymer coated steel pipe, aluminum coated steel pipe, aluminum pipe. This pipe and its appurtenances should conform to the requirements of AASHTO specifications with watertight coupling bands or flanges.

- Coupling bands, anti-seep collars, end sections, etc., must be composed of the same material and coatings as the pipe. Metals must be insulated from dissimilar materials with use of rubber or plastic insulating materials at least 24 mils in thickness.
- Connections – All connections with pipes must be completely watertight. The drain pipe or barrel connection to the riser should be welded all around when the pipe and riser are metal. Anti-seep collars should be connected to the pipe in such a manner as to be completely watertight. Dimple bands are not considered to be watertight.
- Bedding – The pipe should be firmly and uniformly bedded throughout its entire length. Where rock or soft, spongy or other unstable soil is encountered, all such material should be removed and replaced with suitable earth compacted to provide adequate support.
- Backfilling should conform to “structure backfill.”
- Other details (anti-seep collars, valves, etc.) should be as shown on drawings.

Reinforced concrete pipe - All of the following criteria should apply for reinforced concrete pipe:

- Materials – Reinforced concrete pipe should have bell and spigot joints with rubber gaskets and should equal or exceed ASTM standards.
- Laying pipe – Bell and spigot pipe should be placed with the bell end upstream. Joints should be made in accordance with recommendations of the manufacturer of the material. After the joints are sealed for the entire line, the bedding should be placed so that all spaces under the pipe are filled. Take care to prevent any deviation from the original line and grade of the pipe.
- Backfilling should conform to “structure backfill.”
- Other details (anti-seep collars, valves, etc.) should be as shown on drawings.

Plastic pipe

- Materials – PVC pipe should be PVC-1120 or PVC-1220, conforming to ASTM standards. Corrugated High Density Polyethylene

(HDPE) pipe, couplings, and fittings should meet AASHTO specifications.

- Joints and connections to anti-seep collars should be completely watertight.
- Bedding – The pipe should be firmly and uniformly bedded throughout its entire length. Where rock or soft, spongy or other unstable soil is encountered, all such material should be removed and replaced with suitable earth compacted to provide adequate support.
- Backfilling should conform to “structure backfill.”
- Other details (anti-seep collars, valves, etc.) should be as shown on drawings.

Drainage diaphragms – When a drainage diaphragm is used, a registered professional engineer must supervise the design and construction inspection.

Planting soil (topsoil)

- See local specifications for general planting soil requirements.
- Use a minimum of 12 inches of topsoil in the emergent vegetation zone (less than 18” inches deep) of the pond. If natural topsoil from the site is to be used it must have at least eight percent organic carbon content (by weight) in the A-horizon for sandy soils, and 12 percent for other soil types.
- If planting soil is imported, it should be made up of equivalent proportions of organic and mineral materials. All soils used should be free of invasive or nuisance seeds.
- Lime should not be added to planting soil unless absolutely necessary, as it may encourage the propagation of invasive species.
- The final elevations and hydrology of the vegetative zones should be evaluated prior to planting to determine if grading or planting changes are required.

Vegetation

- See Recommended Plant List for BMPs Appendix for plant lists for constructed wetlands. Substitutions of specified plants should be subject to prior approval of the designer. Planting locations should be based on the planting plan and directed in the field

by a qualified wetland ecologist. Plant material should be selected based on tolerance to standing water as identified in Recommended Plant List for BMPs Appendix.

- All wetland plant stock should exhibit live buds or shoots. All plant stock should be turgid, firm, and resilient. Internodes of rhizomes may be flexible and not necessarily rigid. Soft or mushy stock should be rejected. The stock should be free of deleterious insect infestation, disease, and defects such as knots, sun-scald, injuries, abrasions, or disfigurement that could adversely affect the survival or performance of the plants.
- All stock should be free from invasive or nuisance plants or seeds.
- During all phases of the work, including transport and onsite handling, the plant materials should be carefully handled and packed to prevent injuries and desiccation. During transit and onsite handling, the plant material should be kept from freezing and be covered, moist, cool, out of the weather, and out of the wind and sun. Plants should be watered to maintain moist soil and/or plant conditions until accepted.
- Plants not meeting these specifications or damaged during handling, loading, and unloading will be rejected.

Outlet control structure

- Outlet control structures should be constructed of non-corrodible material.
- Outlets should be resistant to clogging by debris, sediment, floatables, plant material, or ice.
- Materials should comply with applicable specifications (INDOT or AASHTO, latest edition).
- For maximum flexibility with wetland water levels (if actual depths are uncertain) adjustable water level control structures are recommended (see EPA, 2000 in reference section for design concepts).

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Volume reduction

Although not typically considered a volume-reducing BMP, constructed wetlands can achieve some volume reduction through infiltration and evapotranspiration, especially during small storms and high temperature periods. The volume stored between the predicted water level (from the water balance calculations) and the lowest outlet elevation will be removed from the storm that occurs under those conditions.

Peak rate mitigation

Inflow and discharge hydrographs must be calculated for each design storm.

Peak rate is primarily controlled in detention facilities through the transient storage above any permanent water surface. The degree to which peak rate is controlled is a function of the transient storage volume provided (i.e., depth and area) and the configuration of the outlet control structure.

Water quality improvement

Constructed wetlands rely on physical, biological, and chemical processes to remove pollutants from influent stormwater runoff. The primary treatment mechanism is settling by gravity of particulates and their associated pollutants, while stormwater is retained in the pond. Another mechanism for the removal of pollutants, especially nutrients, is uptake by algae and aquatic vegetation. Typical pollutant removal efficiencies are provided in the Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of the Technical Standards.

The longer the runoff remains in a constructed wetland, the more settling (and associated pollutant removal) and other treatment can occur. After the particulates reach the bottom, the permanent pool protects them from resuspension when additional runoff enters.

Construction Guidelines

The following guidelines pertain to constructed wetlands:

- Install all temporary erosion and sedimentation controls.
- Separate pond area from contributing drainage area.
- All channels/pipes conveying flows to the pond must be routed away from the pond area until it is completed and stabilized.
- Prior to construction of the pond, the area immediately adjacent to the pond must be stabilized in accordance with the erosion and sediment control methods discussed in the Erosion and Sediment Control Requirements Chapter of the Technical Standards and the latest requirements of IDEM's Soil Erosion and Sedimentation Control (Rule 5) Program.
- Prepare site for excavation and/or embankment construction.
- All existing vegetation should remain, if feasible, and only be removed if necessary for construction.
- Care should be taken to prevent compaction of the basin bottom.
- If excavation is required, clear the area of all vegetation. Remove all tree roots, rocks, and boulders only in the excavation area.
 - Excavate bottom of basin to desired elevation (if necessary).
- Install surrounding embankments and inlet and outlet control structures.
- Grade and prepare subsoil in bottom of basin. Compact bottom of basin in constructed wetlands.
 - Apply and grade planting soil. Matching design grades is crucial especially in constructed wetlands because aquatic plants can be very sensitive to depth.
 - Apply geo-textiles and other erosion-control measures.
- Seed, plant, and mulch according to landscaping plan.
- Install any safety or anti-grazing measures, if necessary.
- Follow required maintenance and monitoring guidelines.

Maintenance

Constructed wetlands must have a maintenance plan and privately owned facilities should have an easement, deed restriction, or other legal measure to prevent neglect or removal.

A basin maintenance plan should be developed which includes the following measures:

- All basin structures should be inspected for clogging and excessive debris and sediment accumulation at least four times per year, as well as after every storm greater than one inch. Structures that should be inspected include basin bottoms, trash racks, outlets structures, riprap or gabion structures, and inlets.
- Sediment should be removed from the forebay before it occupies 50 percent of the forebay, typically every 3 to 10 years. Sediment removal should be conducted when the basin is completely dry.
- Constructed wetlands should be drained prior to sediment removal. Sediment should be disposed of properly and once sediment is removed, disturbed areas need to be immediately stabilized and re-vegetated. Proper disposal of removed material depends on the nature of the drainage area and the intent and function of the detention basin. Material removed from detention basins that treat hot spots such as fueling stations or areas with high pollutant concentrations should be disposed according to IDEM regulations for solid waste. Detention basins that primarily catch sediment from areas such as lawns may redistribute the waste on site.
- The wetland drain should be inspected and tested four times per year.
- The embankment should be inspected for evidence of tunneling or burrowing wildlife at least twice during the growing season. If damage is found, the damage should be repaired and the animals removed.
- Mowing and/or trimming of vegetation should be performed as necessary to sustain the system, but all detritus must be removed from the basin. Embankment should be mowed 1–2 times per year to prevent the establishment of woody vegetation.

- Inspections should assess the vegetation, erosion, flow channelization, bank stability, inlet/outlet conditions, embankment, and sediment/debris accumulation.
- Vegetated areas should be inspected annually for unwanted growth of invasive species.
- Vegetative cover should be maintained at a minimum of 85 percent.

Winter Considerations

One of the biggest problems associated with proper constructed wetland operation during cold weather is the freezing and clogging of inlet and outlet pipes. To avoid these problems, the Center for Watershed Protection (Caraco and Claytor, 1997) made some general design suggestions, which are adapted as follows:

- Inlet pipes should typically not be submerged, since this can result in freezing and upstream damage or flooding.
- Burying all pipes below the frost line can prevent frost heave and pipe freezing. Wind protection can also be an important consideration for pipes above the frost line. In these cases, design modifications that have pipes “turn the corner” are helpful.
- Incorporate lower winter operating levels as part of the design to introduce available storage for melt events.
- Increase the slope of inlet pipes to a minimum of one percent to prevent standing water in the pipe, reducing the potential for ice formation. This design may be difficult to achieve at sites with flat local slopes.
- If perforated riser pipes are used, the minimum opening diameter should be ½-inch. In addition, the pipe should have a minimum 8-inch diameter.
- When a standard weir is used, the minimum slot width should be 3 inches, especially when the slot is tall.
- Baffle weirs can prevent ice reformation during the spring melt near the outlet by preventing surface ice from blocking the outlet structure.
- In cold climates, riser hoods should be oversized and reverse slope pipes should draw from at least 6 inches below the typical ice layer.

- Alternative outlet designs that have been successful include using a pipe encased in a gravel jacket set at the elevation of the aquatic bench as the control for water-quality events. This practice both avoids stream warming and serves as a non-freezing outlet.
- Trash racks should be installed at a shallow angle to prevent ice formation. Constructed wetland performance can be decreased in spring months when large volumes of runoff occur in a relatively short time carrying the accumulated pollutant load from the winter months. Since constructed wetlands are relatively shallow, freezing of the shallow pool can occur.

Cost

The cost of constructed wetlands varies greatly depending on the configuration, location, site specific conditions, etc. Typical construction costs in 2004 dollars range from approximately \$30,000 to \$65,000 per acre (USEPA Wetlands Fact Sheet, 1999). Costs are generally most dependent on the amount of earthwork and planting. Annual maintenance costs have been reported to be approximately two to five percent of the capital costs (USEPA, 2000).

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Constructed Wetlands

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Used in conjunction with other BMPs for groundwater recharge and/or water quality?	1,3				
Adequate drainage area/water supply/groundwater table to maintain permanent water surface? ➤ <i>Min. drainage area: 10 acres, 5 acres for pocket wetland</i> ➤ <i>Max. drainage area: 50 acres</i>	2-4				
➤ Relatively impermeable soils and/or soil modification?	6				
Hydrologic calculations (e.g., water balance) performed?	3,4				
Stable inflow points provided?	6				
➤ Forebay and/or pretreatment provided for sediment removal? <i>Min. width of permanent access: 9 ft</i> <i>Max. slope: 15%</i>	4-6				
➤ Adequate length to width ratio?	4				
Appropriate and varying water depths for diverse vegetation? ➤ <i>Max. water depth: 3-4 feet, no longer than 12 hours for more than a few days annually</i>	4,6				
Sudden water level fluctuations minimized to reduce stress on vegetation?	4				
Acceptable side slopes?	5				
Safety benches provided?	5				
Properly designed outlet structure?	4,5				
Adjustable permanent pool and dewatering mechanism provided?	--				
Trash rack provided to prevent clogging?	5				
Stable emergency overflow and outflow points?	5				
➤ Adequate soils for plantings?	6,7				
➤ Appropriate native plants selected in and around wetland?	9				
25-foot buffer provided?	--				
Erosion and sedimentation control considered?	--				
Maintenance accounted for and plan provided? <i>Min. vegetative cover to be maintained: 85%</i> ➤ <i>Denotes Minimum Design Consideration</i>	10,1 1				

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BMP Fact Sheet

DETENTION BASINS - DRY POND

Also called Dry-bottom Detention Ponds, Dry Ponds are earthen structures that provide temporary storage of runoff and release the stored volume of water over time to help reduce flooding.



Figure 1 Photograph Courtesy of US Environmental Protection Agency

Key Design Features

- Storage capacity highly dependent on available site area
- Outlet structure configuration determines peak rate reduction effectiveness
- Regular maintenance of vegetation and sediment removal required
- Relatively impermeable soils or impermeable liner
- Forebay for sediment collection and removal
- Stabilized emergency overflow and energy dissipation at all outlets

Applications	
Residential	Yes
Commercial	Yes
Ultra Urban	No
Industrial	Yes
Retrofit	Yes
Highway/Road	Yes
Recreational	Yes

Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Volume	Low
Groundwater Recharge	None or Low
Peak Rate	High

Stormwater Quality Functions

Type	TSS	TP	TN	Temperature
Dry Pond	Medium	Medium	Low	Low

Site Factors

Type	Basin Bottom Relative to Water Table	Soils	Slope	Potential Hotspots	Max. Drainage Area (acres)	Benefits	Limitations
Dry Pond	Above	N/A	Low/ Med	Yes w/ considerations	50	Good peak rate performance, wide applicability, can be used as temporary sediment basin	Low volume/GW recharge and water quality benefits, must be combined with other BMPs, high total cost

**C or D soils typically work without modification. A and B soils may require modifications to reduce their permeability.*

Additional Considerations

Cost

- High – Cost for above ground basins must include excavation of basin, construction of berm, and installation of storm sewer conveyance system, including pipes and structures.
- The cost of each basin is highly dependent on the size of the basin and site characteristics.

Maintenance

Type	Maintenance
Dry Pond	High/Low - Year round maintenance for vegetation; one time per year sediment removal

Winter Performance

- Med/High

Description and Function

Dry ponds are earthen structures that provide temporary storage of runoff and release the stored volume of water over time to help reduce flooding. They are constructed either by impounding a natural depression or excavating existing soil, and are intended to enhance the settlement process in order to maximize water quality benefits, while achieving reduced runoff volume.

Applications

Dry ponds can be used in a wide variety of applications when the necessary space is available. Their

uses are limited in ultra urban areas and some redevelopment projects simply due to a lack of available space (in these cases underground and/or special detention may be used).

Design Considerations

Hydrology

- Dry ponds should be designed to mitigate peak runoff rates for the 1-year through 100-year rainfall events.
- Inflow and discharge hydrographs should be calculated for each selected design storm. Hydrographs should be based on the 24-hour rainfall event or that required in the Stormwater Ordinance. Typically, the local NRCS 24-hour Type II rainfall distribution should be utilized to generate hydrographs.

Storage volume, depth, and duration

- Dry ponds should be designed to treat the runoff volume produced by the water quality design storm unless additional upstream BMPs are provided.
- The lowest elevation within a dry detention basin should be at least two feet above the seasonal high water table. If high water table conditions are anticipated, then the design of a wet pond, constructed wetland, or bioretention facility should be considered.
- The maximum water depth of the basin should not exceed 4 feet.
- Detention time is defined as the time from when the maximum storage volume is reached until only 10 percent of that volume remains in the basin. In order to

achieve an 80 percent total suspended solids removal rate, a 36-hour detention time is required within an extended detention basin, with no more than 40% of the maximum stored volume released within the first 12 hours.

- The low flow orifice should be sized and positioned to detain the calculated water quality runoff volume for at least 24 hours, but no more than 36 hours. The low flow orifice may be allowed as small as 4 inches in diameter if adequate protection from clogging is provided.

Basin sizing and configuration

- Dry ponds should be shaped to maximize the hydraulic length of the stormwater flow pathway. A minimum length-to-width ratio of 3:1 is recommended to maximize sedimentation. If the length-to-width ratio is lower, the flow pathway should be maximized. A wedge-shaped pond with the major inflows on the narrow end can prevent short-circuiting and stagnation.
- Irregularly shaped basins are acceptable and may even be encouraged to improve site aesthetics.
- Distances of flow paths from inflow points to outlets should be maximized.
- If site conditions inhibit construction of a long, narrow basin, baffles consisting of earthen berms or other materials can be incorporated into the pond design to lengthen the stormwater flow path.
- Basins must have one or more sediment forebays or equivalent upstream pretreatment to trap coarse sediment, prevent short circuiting and facilitate maintenance (i.e., sediment removal). The forebay should consist of a separate cell, formed by a structural barrier. The forebay will require periodic sediment removal.
- Permanent access must be provided to the forebay, outlet, and embankment areas. It should be at least nine feet wide, having a maximum slope of 15 percent, and be stabilized for vehicles.
- An emergency outlet or spillway capable of conveying the spillway design flood (SDF) must be included in the design. The SDF is

usually equal to the 1.25 times the 100-year design flood.

Embankments

- Vegetated embankments less than or equal to three feet in height are recommended. Embankments should have side slopes no steeper than 3:1 (horizontal to vertical).
- The basin should have a minimum freeboard of one foot above the SDF elevation to the top of the berm.
- Woody vegetation is generally discouraged in the embankment area because of the risk of compromising the integrity of the embankment.
- Embankments should incorporate measures, such as buried chain link fencing, to prevent or discourage damage from tunneling wildlife (e.g., muskrat).



Figure 2 Dry Pond: Photo courtesy of Fairfax County VA Department of Public Works and Environmental Services.

Dry pond location

- Dry ponds should be located down gradient of disturbed or developed areas on the site. The pond should collect as much site runoff as possible, especially from the site's impervious surfaces (roads, parking, buildings, etc.), and where other BMPs are not proposed.
- Dry ponds should not be constructed on steep slopes, nor should slopes be significantly altered or modified to reduce the steepness of the existing slope, for the purpose of installing a pond.
- Dry ponds should not worsen the runoff potential of the existing site by removing trees for the purpose of installing a pond.

- Dry ponds should not be constructed within 10 feet of the property line or within 50 feet of a private well or septic system.
- Dry ponds should not be constructed in areas with high quality and/or well draining soils, which are adequate for installing BMPs capable of achieving stormwater infiltration and, hence, volume reduction.

Additional design considerations for extended detention basins (Figure 3)

- Dry detention basins should not be constructed within jurisdictional waters, including wetlands, or their regulated buffers.

Outlet design

- The low-flow orifice should typically be no

smaller than 4 inches in diameter. However, the orifice diameter may be reduced to two inches if adequate protection from clogging is provided.

- The hydraulic design of all outlet structures must consider any significant tailwater effects of downstream waterways.
- The primary and low flow outlets should be protected from clogging by an external trash rack or other mechanism.
- Online facilities should have an emergency spillway that can safely pass the 1.25 times the 100-year storm with one foot of freeboard. All outflows should be conveyed downstream in a safe and stable manner.
- When designed to meet discharge criteria for a range of storms, basins should incorporate a multistage outlet structure. Three elements are typically included in

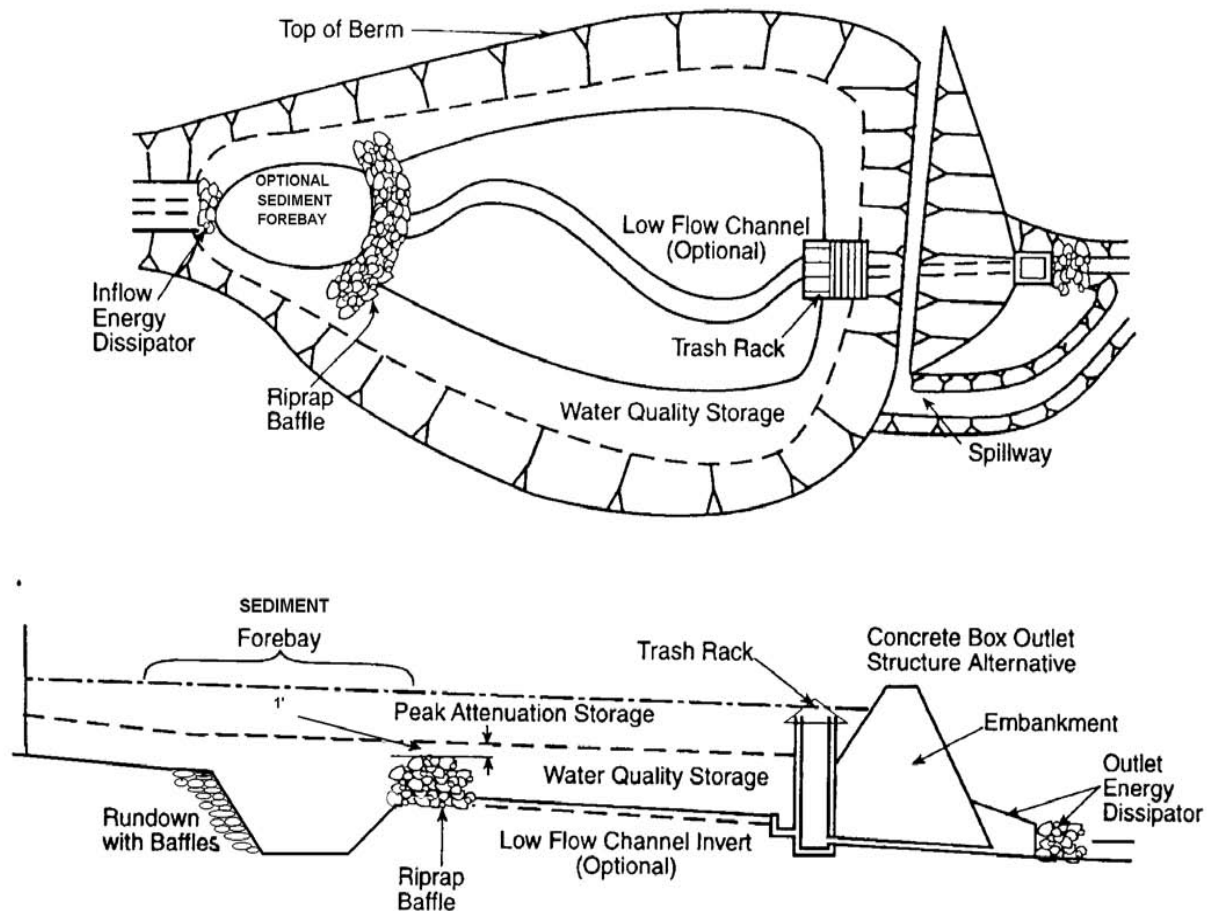


Figure 3 Extended Detention Basin
Source: New Jersey BMP Manual

this design:

- o A low-flow outlet that controls the extended detention and functions to slowly release the water quality or channel protection design storm.
- o A primary outlet that functions to attenuate the peak of larger design storms.
- o An emergency overflow outlet/spillway. The emergency spillway should be at the top of the berm.
- The primary outlet structure should incorporate weirs, orifices, pipes, or a combination of these to control runoff peak rates for multiple design storms. Water quality storage should be provided below the invert of the primary outlet. When routing basins, the low-flow outlet should be included in the depth-discharge relationship.
- Energy dissipaters should be placed at the end of the primary outlet to prevent erosion. If the basin discharges to a channel with dry weather flow, care should be taken to minimize tree clearing along the downstream channel, and to reestablish a forested riparian zone between the outlet and natural channel. Where feasible, a multiple orifice outlet system is preferred to a single pipe.

Inlet structures

- Erosion protection measures should be used to stabilize inflow structures and channels.

Sediment forebay

- [Must be in compliance with local Stormwater Management Ordinance and standard detailed drawing requirements.](#)
- Forebays must be incorporated into the basin design. Forebays should be provided at all major inflow points to capture coarse sediment, prevent excessive sediment accumulation in the main basin, and minimize erosion by inflow.
- Forebays should be vegetated to improve filtering of runoff, to reduce runoff velocity, and to stabilize soils against erosion. Forebays should adhere to the following criteria:

- o A minimum length of 10 feet.
- o Storage should be provided to trap sediment over from storms with return periods between 1 and 10 years.
- o Forebays should be physically separated from the rest of the pond by a berm, gabion wall, etc.
- o Flows exiting the forebay must be non-erosive to the newly constructed basin.
- o Forebays should be installed with permanent vertical markers that indicate sediment depth.
- o Storage volume of 10 to 15 percent of the total permanent pool volume and is four to six feet deep.
- o All major inflow points to dry detention basins should include sediment forebays sized for 10 percent of the water quality volume.

Vegetation and soils protection

- Care should be taken to prevent compaction of soils in the bottom of the extended detention basin in order to promote healthy plant growth and encourage infiltration. If soils compaction is not prevented during construction, soils should be restored as discussed in the Soils Restoration BMP.
- Basin bottoms and side slopes should be vegetated with a diverse native planting mix to reduce maintenance needs, promote natural landscapes, and increase infiltration potential.
- Vegetation may include trees, woody shrubs, and meadow/wetland herbaceous plants.
- Woody vegetation is generally discouraged in the embankment.
- Meadow grasses or other deeply rooted herbaceous vegetation is recommended on the interior slope of embankments.
- Fertilizers and pesticides should not be used.

General Specifications

The following specifications are provided for information purposes only. These specifications include information on acceptable materials for typical applications, but are by no means exclusive or limiting. The designer is responsible for developing detailed specifications for individual design projects in accordance with the project conditions.

Site preparation

All excavation areas, embankments, and structure locations should be cleared and grubbed as necessary, but trees and existing vegetation should be retained and incorporated within the dry detention basin area where possible. Trees should not be removed unless absolutely necessary.

Where feasible, trees and other native vegetation should be protected, even in areas where temporary inundation is expected. A minimum 10-foot radius around the inlet and outlet structures can be cleared to allow room for construction.

Any cleared material should be used as mulch for erosion control or soil stabilization.

Care should be taken to prevent compaction of the bottom of the reservoir. If compaction should occur, soils should be restored and amended.

Earth fill material & placement

- The fill material should be taken from approved designated excavation areas. It should be free of roots, stumps, wood, rubbish, stones greater than six inches, or other objectionable materials. Materials on the outer surface of the embankment must have the capability to support vegetation.
- Areas where fill is to be placed should be scarified prior to placement. Fill materials for the embankment should be placed in maximum eight-inch lifts. The principal spillway must be installed concurrently with fill placement and not excavated into the embankment.

- Control movement of the hauling and spreading equipment over the site.

Embankment core

- The core should be parallel to the centerline of the embankment as shown on the plans. The top width of the core should be at least four feet. The height should extend up to at least the 10-year water elevation or as shown on the plans. The side slopes should be 1:1 or flatter. The core should be compacted with construction equipment, rollers, or hand tampers to assure maximum density and minimum permeability. The core should be placed concurrently with the outer shell of the embankment.
- Construction of the berm should follow specifications by the project's geotechnical engineer.

Structure backfill

- Backfill adjacent to pipes and structures should be of the type and quality conforming to that specified for the adjoining fill material. The fill should be placed in horizontal layers not to exceed eight inches in thickness and compacted by hand tampers or other manually directed compaction equipment. The material should fill completely all spaces under and adjacent to the pipe. At no time during the backfilling operation should driven equipment be allowed to operate closer than four feet to any part of the structure. Equipment should not be driven over any part of a concrete structure or pipe, unless there is a compacted fill of 24 inches or greater over the structure or pipe.
- Backfill content and placement should follow specifications by the project's geotechnical engineer.

Pipe conduits

Corrugated metal pipe – All of the following criteria should apply for corrugated metal pipe:

- Materials – Polymer coated steel pipe, aluminum coated steel pipe, aluminum pipe. This pipe and its appurtenances should conform to the requirements of AASHTO specifications with watertight coupling bands or flanges.
- Coupling bands, anti-seep collars, end sections, etc., must be composed of the same material and coatings as the pipe. Metals must be insulated from dissimilar materials with use of rubber or plastic insulating materials at least 24 mils in thickness.
- Connections – All connections with pipes must be completely watertight. The drain pipe or barrel connection to the riser should be welded all around when the pipe and riser are metal. Anti-seep collars should be connected to the pipe in such a manner as to be completely watertight. Dimple bands are not considered to be watertight.
- Bedding – The pipe should be firmly and uniformly bedded throughout its entire length. Where rock or soft, spongy or other unstable soil is encountered, all such material should be removed and replaced with suitable earth compacted to provide adequate support.
- Backfilling should conform to “structure backfill.”
- Other details (anti-seep collars, valves, etc.) should be as shown on drawings.

Reinforced concrete pipe - All of the following criteria should apply for reinforced concrete pipe:

- Materials – Reinforced concrete pipe should have bell and spigot joints with rubber gaskets and should equal or exceed ASTM standards.
- Laying pipe – Bell and spigot pipe should be placed with the bell end upstream. Joints should be made in accordance with recommendations of the manufacturer of the material. After the joints are sealed for the entire line, the bedding should be placed so that all spaces under the pipe are filled. Take care to prevent any deviation from the original line and grade of the pipe.
- Backfilling should conform to “structure backfill.”

- Other details (anti-seep collars, valves, etc.) should be as shown on drawings.

Plastic pipe

- Materials – PVC pipe should be PVC-1120 or PVC-1220 conforming to ASTM standards. Corrugated High Density Polyethylene (HDPE) pipe, couplings, and fittings should meet AASHTO specifications.
- Joints and connections to anti-seep collars should be completely watertight.
- Bedding – The pipe should be firmly and uniformly bedded throughout its entire length. Where rock or soft, spongy or other unstable soil is encountered, all such material should be removed and replaced with suitable earth compacted to provide adequate support.
- Backfilling should conform to “structure backfill.”
- Other details (anti-seep collars, valves, etc.) should be as shown on drawings.

Drainage diaphragms – When a drainage diaphragm is used, a registered professional engineer must supervise the design and construction inspection.

Rock riprap

Rock riprap should meet the Construction BMP requirements contained in the Technical Standards document and the latest requirements of IDEM’s Soil Erosion and Sedimentation Control Program (Rule 5).

Stabilization

All borrow areas should be graded to provide proper drainage and left in a stabilized condition. All exposed surfaces of the embankment, spillway, spoil and borrow areas, and berms should be stabilized by seeding, planting, and mulching in accordance with Construction BMP requirements contained in the Technical Standards document and the latest requirements of IDEM’s Soil Erosion and Sedimentation Control Program (Rule 5).

Operation and maintenance

An operation and maintenance plan in accordance with local or state regulations must be prepared for all basins. At a minimum, include a dam and inspection checklist as part of the operation and maintenance plan and perform at least annually.

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Volume reduction

Dry ponds do not provide an appreciable amount of volume reduction.

Peak rate mitigation

Inflow and discharge hydrographs must be calculated for each design storm.

Peak rate is primarily controlled through the transient storage above the bottom elevation of the dry detention facility. The degree to which peak rate is controlled is a function of the transient storage volume provided (i.e., depth and area) and the configuration of the outlet control structure.

Water quality improvement

The primary treatment mechanism is settling by gravity of particulates and their associated pollutants while stormwater is retained in the pond.

Construction Guidelines

The following guidelines pertain to dry ponds:

- Install all temporary erosion and sedimentation controls.
- Separate pond area from contributing drainage area.
- All channels/pipes conveying flows to the pond must be routed away from the pond area until it is completed and stabilized.
- Prior to construction of the pond, the area immediately adjacent to the pond must be stabilized in accordance with the erosion and sediment control methods discussed in the Erosion and Sediment Control Requirements Chapter of the Technical Standards and the latest requirements of

IDEM's Soil Erosion and Sedimentation Control Program (Rule 5).

- Prepare site for excavation and/or embankment construction.
- All existing vegetation should remain, if feasible, and only be removed if necessary for construction.
- Care should be taken to prevent compaction of the basin bottom.
- If excavation is required, clear the area of all vegetation. Remove all tree roots, rocks, and boulders only in excavation area.
 - Excavate bottom of basin to desired elevation (if necessary).
- Install surrounding embankments and inlet and outlet control structures.
- Grade and prepare subsoil in bottom of basin while taking care to prevent compaction. Equipment that will apply pressure to the basin bottom of less than or equal to four pounds per square inch is recommended. Compact only the surrounding embankment areas and around inlet and outlet structures.
 - Apply and grade planting soil.
 - Apply geo-textiles and other erosion-control measures.
- Seed, plant, and mulch according to landscaping plan.
- Install any safety or anti-grazing measures, if necessary.
- Follow required maintenance and monitoring guidelines.

Maintenance

Dry ponds must have a maintenance plan and privately owned facilities should have an easement, deed restriction, or other legal measure to prevent neglect or removal.

A basin maintenance plan should be developed which includes the following measures:

- All basin structures should be inspected for clogging and excessive debris and sediment accumulation at least four times per year, as well as after every storm greater than one inch. Structures that should be inspected include basin bottoms, trash racks, outlets

structures, riprap or gabion structures, and inlets.

- Sediment should be removed from the forebay before it occupies 50 percent of the forebay, typically every three to 10 years. Sediment removal should be conducted when the basin is completely dry.
- Sediment should be disposed of properly and once sediment is removed, disturbed areas need to be immediately stabilized and re-vegetated. Proper disposal of removed material depends on the nature of the drainage area and the intent and function of the detention basin. Material removed from detention basins that treat hot spots, such as fueling stations or areas with high pollutant concentrations, should be disposed according to IDEM regulations for solid waste. Detention basins that primarily catch sediment from areas such as lawns may redistribute the waste on site.
- The pond drain should be inspected and tested four times per year.
- The embankment should be inspected for evidence of tunneling or burrowing wildlife at least twice during the growing season. If damage is found, the damage should be repaired and the animals removed.
- Mowing and/or trimming of vegetation should be performed as necessary to sustain the system, but all detritus must be removed from the basin. Embankment should be mowed 1–2 times per year to prevent the establishment of woody vegetation.
- Inspections should assess the vegetation, erosion, flow channelization, bank stability, inlet/outlet conditions, embankment, and sediment/debris accumulation.
- Vegetated areas should be inspected annually for unwanted growth of invasive species.

- Vegetative cover should be maintained at a minimum of 85 percent.

Winter Considerations

Dry ponds should be inspected and maintained during winter months. Application of sand, ash, cinders, or other anti-skid materials may cause sediment forebays to fill more quickly. Otherwise, dry ponds should function as intended in cold weather.

Cost

The construction costs associated with dry ponds can vary considerably. One study evaluated the cost of all pond systems (Brown and Schueler, 1997). Adjusting for inflation, the cost of dry extended detention ponds can be estimated with the equation:

$$C = 12.4V^{0.760}$$

Where:

C = Construction, design and permitting cost

V = Volume needed to control the 10-year storm (ft³)

Using this equation, typical construction costs are:

\$41,600 for a one acre-foot pond

\$239,000 for a 10 acre-foot pond

\$1,380,000 for a 100 acre-foot pond

Dry ponds using highly structural design features (riprap for erosion control, etc.) are more costly than natural basins. An installation cost savings is associated with a natural vegetated slope treatment, which is magnified by the additional environmental benefits provided. Long-term maintenance costs for processes such as mowing and fertilizing are reduced when more naturalized approaches are used, due to the ability of native vegetation to adapt to local weather conditions and a reduced need for maintenance.

Annual maintenance costs for dry ponds have been reported to be approximately three to five percent of the capital costs, though there is little data available to support this. Alternatively, a community can estimate the cost of the maintenance activities

outlined in the maintenance section. Ponds are long-lived facilities (typically longer than 20 years). Thus, the initial investment into pond systems may be spread over a relatively long time period.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Dry Extended Detention Ponds

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Used in conjunction with other BMPs for groundwater recharge and/or water quality?	1				
Adequate drainage area/water supply/groundwater table to maintain permanent water surface? <i>Max. drainage area: 50 acres</i>	2				
Relatively impermeable soils and/or soil modification?	--				
Stable inflow points provided?	6				
Forebay and/or pretreatment provided for sediment removal? <i>Min. width of permanent access: 9 ft</i> <i>Max. slope: 15%</i> <i>Min. length of forebay: 10 ft</i>	3,6				
Adequate length to width ratio? ➤ <i>Min. length-to-width ratio: 3:1</i>	3				
Appropriate and varying water depths? <i>Max. water depth: 4 feet</i> <i>Lowest elevation: at least 2 feet above seasonal high water table</i>	3				
Acceptable side slopes? <i>Max. side slopes: 3:1</i>	4				
Safety benches provided?	--				
Properly designed outlet structure?	5				
➤ Dewatering mechanism provided?	--				
Trash rack provided to prevent clogging?	5				
Stable emergency overflow and outflow points?	5				
Soil compaction minimized?	6,9				
Adequate soils for plantings?	--				
Appropriate native plants selected in and around pond?	6				
25-foot buffer provided?	--				
Erosion and sedimentation control considered?	8,9				
Maintenance accounted for and plan provided?	10				

➤ Denotes Minimum Design Consideration

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- Brown, W. and T. Schueler. *The Economics of Stormwater BMPs in the Mid-Atlantic Region*. Ellicott City, MD: Center for Watershed Protection, 1997.
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BMP Fact Sheet

DETENTION BASINS - UNDERGROUND DETENTION

An Underground Detention system is a type of detention basin that is completely underground.



Figure 1 Photograph courtesy of Vertex Design Group

Variations

- Underground Detention Beds
- Underground Vaults

Key Design Features

- Storage capacity highly dependent on available site area
- Outlet structure configuration determines peak rate reduction effectiveness
- Regular maintenance of vegetation and sediment removal required
- Relatively impermeable soils or impermeable liner
- Forebay for sediment collection and removal
- Stabilized emergency overflow and energy dissipation at all outlets

Applications	
Residential	Yes
Commercial	Yes
Ultra Urban	Yes
Industrial	Yes
Retrofit	Yes
Highway/Road	Yes
Recreational	Yes

Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Volume	Low
Groundwater Recharge	None or Low
Peak Rate	High

Stormwater Quality Functions

Type	TSS	TP	TN	Temperature
Underground Detention	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

Site Factors

Type	Basin Bottom Relative to Water Table	Soils	Slope	Potential Hotspots	Max. Drainage Area (acres)	Benefits	Limitations
Under-ground Detention	Above	N/A	Low/Med	Yes w/ considerations	30	Dual use, good peak rate performance, wide applicability (including ultra-urban and redevelopment.)	Low volume/GW recharge and water quality benefits, must be combined with other BMPs, high cost, maintenance considerations

*C or D soils typically work without modification. A and B soils may require modifications to reduce their permeability.

Additional Considerations

Cost

- The cost of each basin is highly dependent on the size of the basin and site characteristics.

Maintenance

Type	Maintenance
Underground Detention	Med/High

Winter Performance

- Med/High

Description and Function

Underground systems can be provided in a variety of subsurface structural elements, such as underground aggregate-filled beds or vaults, tanks, large pipes, or other fabricated structures placed in aggregate-filled beds in the soil mantle. All such systems are designed to provide runoff peak rate attenuation as their primary function. Regular maintenance is required, because sediment must be removed from the structures within their respective design periods to ensure detention capacity for subsequent rainfall events.

Applications

Detention systems can be used in a wide variety of applications when the necessary space is available. Their use is limited in ultra-urban areas and some redevelopment projects simply due to a lack of available space (in these cases underground and/or special detention may be used).

Variations

Underground detention

These facilities are usually intended for applications on sites where space is limited and are not intended to provide significant water quality treatment. Examples include:

Underground detention beds

Underground detention beds can be constructed by excavating a broad area and filling it with uniformly graded aggregate. Runoff can be stored within the void spaces of the aggregate while the aggregate bed structurally supports overlying land uses.

- Storage design and routing methods are the same as for surface detention basins.
- Underground detention beds may be used where space is limited, but subsurface infiltration is not feasible due to high water table conditions, shallow soil mantle, or poorly draining soils.
- Underground detention beds provide minimal water quality treatment and should

be used in combination with a pretreatment BMP.

- Except where runoff is, or may become toxic and contamination of soil or the water table below the site is possible, underground detention beds should not be lined with an impervious geomembrane. By not installing a geomembrane, a minimal amount of infiltration may still occur. If infiltration is allowed, proper pretreatment is necessary to avoid polluting groundwater. See the infiltration practices BMP for more information.

Underground vaults

Underground vaults are stormwater storage facilities usually constructed of precast reinforced concrete or a structural high density polyethylene plastic system. Tanks are usually constructed of large diameter metal or plastic pipe. Concrete, metal, or plastic pipes may also be installed with no slope as part of a network designed for storage.

- Storage design and routing methods are the same as for surface detention basins.
- Underground detention beds may be used where space is limited but subsurface infiltration is not feasible due to high water table conditions, a shallow soil mantle, or poorly draining soils.
- Underground vaults provide minimal water quality treatment and should be used in combination with a pretreatment BMP.

Design Considerations

Hydrology

- Underground detention basins should be designed to mitigate peak runoff rates for the 1-year through 100-year rainfall events.
- Inflow and discharge hydrographs should be calculated for each selected design storm. Hydrographs should be based on the 24-hour rainfall event or that required in the local Stormwater Ordinance. Typically, the NRCS 24-hour Type II rainfall distribution should be utilized to generate hydrographs.

Storage volume, depth, and duration

- If water quality treatment is one of the objectives of the system, the underground detention basins should be designed to treat the runoff volume produced by the water quality design storm, unless additional upstream BMPs are provided.
- Detention time is defined as the time from when the maximum storage volume is reached until only 10 percent of that volume remains in the basin.

Detention basin location

- Underground detention basins should be located down gradient of disturbed or developed areas on the site. The basin should collect as much site runoff as possible, especially from the site's impervious surfaces (roads, parking, buildings, etc.), and where other BMPs are not proposed.
- Basins should not be constructed on steep slopes, nor should slopes be significantly altered or modified to reduce the steepness of the existing slope, for the purpose of installing a basin.
- Basins should not worsen the runoff potential of the existing site by removing trees for the purpose of installing a basin.
- Basins should not be constructed within 10 feet of the property line or within 50 feet of a private well or septic system.
- Detention basins should not be constructed in areas with high quality and/or well-draining soils, which are adequate for installing BMPs capable of achieving stormwater infiltration and, hence, volume reduction.

Outlet design

- The low-flow orifice should typically be no smaller than 4 inches in diameter. However, the orifice diameter may be reduced to 2 inches if adequate protection from clogging is provided.
- The hydraulic design of all outlet structures must consider any significant tailwater effects of downstream waterways.
- The primary and low flow outlets should be protected from clogging by an external trash rack or other mechanism.

Inlet structures

- Erosion protection measures should be used to stabilize inflow structures and channels.
- Cleanouts or inlets should be installed at a few locations within the system at appropriate intervals to allow access to the piping network and/or storage media and

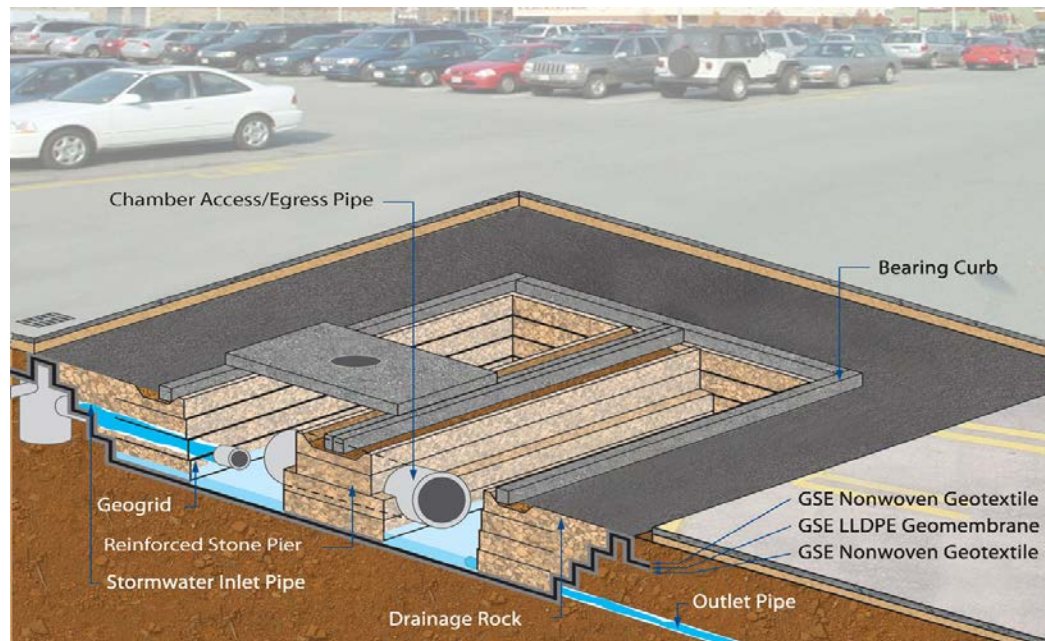


Figure 2 Schematic of underground detention facility, courtesy of CETCO Contracting Services

Vegetation and soils protection

- Underground systems that provide storage within the void space of a stone layer should be wrapped (bottom, top, and sides) in nonwoven geotextile filter fabric to prevent migration of the subsoils into the voids.
- Control of sediment is critical. Rigorous erosion and sediment control measures are required to prevent sediment deposition within the underground system. Nonwoven geotextile may be folded over the edge of the system until the site is stabilized. To minimize maintenance and prevent siltation of the system, pretreatment devices are strongly recommended.
- Aggregate, if used for storage, should be clean, durable and contain a high percentage of void space (typically 40 percent).
- Perforated pipes, if used to distribute runoff to/from the system, should connect structures (such as cleanouts and inlet boxes).

complete removal of accumulated sediment.

General Specifications

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Underground structures

Site preparation

All excavation areas and structure locations should be cleared and grubbed as necessary.

Where feasible, trees and other native vegetation should be protected, even in areas where temporary inundation is expected. A minimum 10-foot radius around the inlet and outlet structures can be cleared to allow room for construction.

Any cleared material should be used as mulch for erosion control or soil stabilization.

Care should be taken to prevent compaction of the bottom of the reservoir. If compaction should occur, soils should be restored and amended.

Structure backfill

- Backfill adjacent to pipes and structures should be of the type and quality conforming to that specified for the adjoining fill material. The fill should be placed in horizontal layers not to exceed eight inches in thickness and compacted by hand tampers or other manually directed compaction equipment. The material should fill completely all spaces under and adjacent to the pipe. At no time during the backfilling operation should driving equipment be allowed to operate closer than four feet to any part of the structure. Equipment should not be driven over any part of a concrete structure or pipe, unless there is a compacted fill of 24 inches or greater over the structure or pipe.
- Backfill content and placement should follow specifications by the project's geotechnical engineer.

Pipe conduits

Corrugated metal pipe – All of the following criteria should apply for corrugated metal pipe:

- Materials – Polymer coated steel pipe, aluminum coated steel pipe, aluminum pipe. This pipe and its appurtenances should conform to the requirements of AASHTO specifications with watertight coupling bands or flanges.
- Coupling bands, anti-seep collars, end sections, etc., must be composed of the same material and coatings as the pipe. Metals must be insulated from dissimilar materials with use of rubber or plastic insulating materials at least 24 mils in thickness.
- Connections – All connections with pipes must be completely watertight. The drain

pipe or barrel connection to the riser should be welded all around when the pipe and riser are metal. Anti-seep collars should be connected to the pipe in such a manner as to be completely watertight. Dimple bands are not considered to be watertight.

- Bedding – The pipe should be firmly and uniformly bedded throughout its entire length. Where rock or soft, spongy or other unstable soil is encountered, all such material should be removed and replaced with suitable earth compacted to provide adequate support.
- Backfilling should conform to “structure backfill.”
- Other details (anti-seep collars, valves, etc.) should be as shown on drawings.

Reinforced concrete pipe - All of the following criteria should apply for reinforced concrete pipe:

- Materials – Reinforced concrete pipe should have bell and spigot joints with rubber gaskets and should equal or exceed ASTM standards.
- Laying pipe – Bell and spigot pipe should be placed with the bell end upstream. Joints should be made in accordance with recommendations of the manufacturer of the material. After the joints are sealed for the entire line, the bedding should be placed so that all spaces under the pipe are filled. Take care to prevent any deviation from the original line and grade of the pipe.
- Backfilling should conform to “structure backfill.”
- Other details (anti-seep collars, valves, etc.) should be as shown on drawings.

Plastic pipe

- Materials – PVC pipe should be PVC-1120 or PVC-1220 conforming to ASTM standards. Corrugated High Density Polyethylene (HDPE) pipe, couplings, and fittings should meet AASHTO specifications.
- Joints and connections to anti-seep collars should be completely watertight.
- Bedding – The pipe should be firmly and uniformly bedded throughout its entire length. Where rock or soft, spongy or other

unstable soil is encountered, all such material should be removed and replaced with suitable earth compacted to provide adequate support.

- Backfilling should conform to “structure backfill.”
- Other details (anti-seep collars, valves, etc.) should be as shown on drawings.

Drainage diaphragms – When a drainage diaphragm is used, a registered professional engineer must supervise the design and construction inspection.

Operation and maintenance

An operation and maintenance plan in accordance with local or state regulations must be prepared for all underground detention basins. At a minimum, include a dam and inspection checklist as part of the operation and maintenance plan and perform at least annually.

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Volume reduction

Underground detention systems do not provide an appreciable amount of volume reduction.

Peak rate mitigation

Inflow and discharge hydrographs must be calculated for each design storm.

Peak rate is primarily controlled in detention facilities through the transient storage above any permanent water surface. The degree to which peak rate is controlled is a function of the transient storage volume provided (i.e., depth and area) and the configuration of the outlet control structure.

Water quality improvement

Underground detention facilities are usually intended for applications on sites where space is limited and are not intended to provide significant water quality treatment. When appropriate, underground detention may incorporate infiltration practices. For limitations refer to Infiltration Considerations (Introduction to Structural BMPs).

Construction Guidelines

Underground detention systems should be installed per the manufacturer’s recommendations.

Maintenance

Underground detention facilities must have a maintenance plan and privately owned facilities should have an easement, deed restriction, or other legal measure to prevent neglect or removal.

Maintenance activities required for underground detention systems focus on regular sediment and debris removal. All catch basins, inlets, and pretreatment devices draining to the underground bed should be inspected and cleaned at least two times per year. The underground bed and its outlet should be inspected at least once per year and cleaned as needed. A basin maintenance plan should be developed which includes the following measures:

- All basin structures should be inspected for clogging and excessive debris and sediment accumulation at least four times per year, as well as after every storm greater than one inch. Structures that should be inspected include basin bottoms, trash racks, outlets structures, riprap or gabion structures, and inlets.
- Sediment should be disposed of properly and once sediment is removed, disturbed areas need to be immediately stabilized and re-vegetated. Proper disposal of removed material depends on the nature of the drainage area and the intent and function of the detention basin. Material removed from detention basins that treat hot spots, such as fueling stations or areas with high pollutant concentrations, should be disposed according to IDEM regulations for solid waste. Detention basins that primarily catch sediment from areas such as lawns may redistribute the waste on site.
- The underground detention drain should be inspected and tested four times per year.

- Inspections should assess the inlet/outlet conditions and sediment/debris accumulation.

Cost

The construction cost of underground detention can vary greatly depending on the design, configuration, location, storage volume and media, and site specific conditions, among other factors. Typical construction costs are approximately \$8 to \$10 per cubic foot for proprietary high capacity storage systems. Systems using uniformly graded aggregate as the primary storage media will typically be less expensive but require additional area and/or depth for an equivalent storage volume.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Underground Detention

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Used in conjunction with other BMPs for water quality and groundwater recharge?	1,4				
Stable inflow points provided?	4				
➤ Pretreatment provided for sediment removal?	5				
Properly designed outlet structure?	4				
Adequate cleanouts/maintenance access provided?	5				
Stable emergency overflow and outflow points?	--				
Drawdown time less than 36 hours for 90% of stored volume?	--				
Soil compaction minimized?	5				
Clean, washed, open-graded aggregate specified, if applicable?	5				
Geotextile specified?	5				
If proprietary storage media is used, were the manufacturer recommendations followed?	--				
Appropriate native plants selected, if applicable?	--				
Erosion and sedimentation control considered?	5				
Maintenance accounted for and plan provided?	7				

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BMP Fact Sheet

DETENTION BASINS - WET POND

Wet Ponds, also called wet-bottom detention ponds, are earthen structures that provide temporary storage of runoff and release the stored volume of water over time to help reduce flooding while providing a permanent pool of water for aesthetics, recreation, and settlement of sediments.



Figure 1 Pond collecting runoff from rooftops, sidewalks, and yards, Wilsonville, Oregon (USEPA, picasaweb)

Applications	
Residential	Yes
Commercial	Yes
Ultra Urban	No
Industrial	Yes
Retrofit	Yes
Highway/Road	Yes
Recreational	Yes

Stormwater Quality Functions

Type	TSS	TP	TN	Temperature
Wet Pond	High	Medium	Medium	Low/Medium

Key Design Features

- Wet Ponds
- Wet Detention Ponds
- Pocket Wet Ponds

Key Design Features

- Storage capacity highly dependent on available site area
- Outlet structure configuration determines peak rate reduction effectiveness
- Regular maintenance of vegetation and sediment removal required
- Natural high groundwater table required
- Relatively impermeable soils or impermeable liner
- Forebay for sediment collection and removal
- Dewatering mechanism required
- Stabilized emergency overflow and energy dissipation at all outlets

Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Volume	Low
Groundwater Recharge	None or Low
Peak Rate	High

Site Factors

Type	Basin Bottom Relative to Water Table	Soils	Slope	Potential Hotspots	Max. Drainage Area (acres)	Benefits	Limitations
Wet Pond	Can be below WT	C or D*	Low	Yes w/ considerations	50	Good peak rate & TSS performance, wide applicability, potential aesthetic value; can be used as temporary sediment basin	Low volume/GW recharge benefits, high total cost, potentially thermal impact

*C or D soils typically work without modification. A and B soils may require modifications to reduce their permeability.

Additional Considerations

Cost

- High – Cost for above ground basins must include excavation of basin, construction of berm, and installation of storm sewer conveyance system, including pipes and structures. Additional cost may be added for enhanced vegetation.
- The cost of each basin is highly dependent on the size of the basin and site characteristics.

Maintenance

Type	Maintenance
Wet Pond	Low/Med

Winter Performance

- Med/High

Description and Function

Wet ponds are earthen structures that provide temporary storage of runoff and release the stored volume of water over time to help reduce flooding. They are constructed either by impounding a natural depression or excavating existing soil, and are intended to enhance the settlement process in order to maximize water quality benefits, while achieving reduced runoff volume.

Wet ponds include a permanent pool for water quality treatment and additional capacity above the permanent pool for temporary storage. The pond perimeter should generally be covered by a dense stand of emergent wetland vegetation. While they do not achieve significant groundwater recharge or volume reduction, wet ponds can be effective for pollutant removal and peak rate mitigation.

Wet ponds can also provide aesthetic and wildlife benefits. Wet ponds require an adequate source of inflow to maintain the permanent water surface. Due to the potential to discharge warm water, wet ponds should be used with caution near temperature-sensitive water bodies. Properly designed and maintained wet ponds generally do not support significant mosquito populations.

Applications

Wet ponds can be used in a wide variety of applications when the necessary space is available. Their use is limited in ultra urban areas and some redevelopment projects simply due to a lack of available space (in these cases underground and/or special detention may be used).

Variations

Wet ponds can be designed as either online or offline facilities. They can also be used effectively in series with other sediment-reducing BMPs, such as vegetated filter strips, swales, and filters. Wet ponds may be a good option for retrofitting existing dry detention basins. Wet ponds are often organized into the following three groups:

- **Wet ponds** primarily accomplish water quality improvement through displacement of the permanent pool and are generally only effective for small inflow volumes (often they are placed offline to regulate inflow).
- **Wet detention ponds** are similar to wet ponds but use extended detention as another mechanism for water quality and peak rate control. (Discussion of wet ponds in this BMP section focuses on wet detention ponds as described above because this tends to be the most common and effective design.)
- **Pocket wet ponds** are smaller wet ponds that serve drainage areas between approximately 5 and 10 acres and are constructed near the water table to help maintain the permanent pool. They often include extended detention.

Design Considerations

Hydrology

- Wet ponds should be designed to mitigate peak runoff rates for the 1-year through 100-year rainfall events.
- Inflow and discharge hydrographs should be calculated for each selected design storm. Hydrographs should be based on the 24-hour rainfall event or that required in the local Stormwater Ordinance. Typically, the NRCS 24-hour Type II rainfall distribution should be utilized to generate hydrographs.
- Wet ponds must be able to receive and retain enough flow from rain, runoff, and groundwater to ensure long-term viability. A permanent water surface in the deeper areas of the wet pond should be maintained during all but the driest periods. A relatively stable permanent water surface elevation will reduce the stress on vegetation in an area adjacent to the pond. A wet pond should have a drainage area of at least 10 acres (5 acres for pocket wet ponds) or some means of sustaining constant inflow. Even with a large drainage area, a constant source of inflow can improve the biological health and effectiveness of a wet pond while discouraging mosquito growth.

Storage volume, depth, and duration

- Wet ponds should be designed to treat the runoff volume produced by the water quality design storm unless additional upstream BMPs are provided.
- Detention time is defined as the time from when the maximum storage volume is reached until only 10 percent of that volume remains in the basin. In order to achieve an 80 percent total suspended solids removal rate, a 36-hour detention time is required, with no more than 40% of the maximum stored volume released within the first 12 hours.

Additional design considerations for extended detention (Figure 2)

The low flow orifice should be sized and positioned to detain the calculated water quality runoff volume for at least 24 hours, but no more than 36 hours. The low flow orifice may be allowed as small as 4 inches in diameter if adequate protection from clogging is provided.

Basin sizing and configuration

- Wet ponds should be shaped to maximize the hydraulic length of the stormwater flow pathway. A minimum length-to width ratio of 3:1 is recommended to maximize sedimentation. If the length-to-width ratio is lower, the flow pathway should be maximized. A wedge-shaped pond with the major inflows on the narrow end can prevent short-circuiting and stagnation.
- Irregularly shaped basins are acceptable and may even be encouraged to improve site aesthetics.
- Distances of flow paths from inflow points to outlets should be maximized.
- If site conditions inhibit construction of a long, narrow basin, baffles consisting of earthen berms or other materials can be incorporated into the pond design to lengthen the stormwater flow path.
- Basins must have one or more sediment forebays or equivalent upstream pretreatment to trap coarse sediment, prevent short circuiting and facilitate maintenance (i.e., sediment removal). The forebay should consist of a separate cell, formed by a

structural barrier. The forebay will require periodic sediment removal.

- Permanent access must be provided to the forebay, outlet, and embankment areas. It should be at least nine feet wide, having a maximum slope of 15 percent, and be stabilized for vehicles.
- An emergency outlet or spillway capable of conveying the spillway design flood (SDF) must be included in the design. The SDF is usually equal to the 1.25 times the 100-year design flood.
- The area required for a wet pond is generally one to three percent of its drainage area. Wet ponds should be sized to treat the water

quality volume and to mitigate the peak rates for larger events.

- All areas that are deeper than four feet should have two safety benches, totaling 15 feet in width. One should start at the normal water surface and extend up to the pond side slopes at a maximum slope of 10 percent. The other should extend from the water surface into the pond to a maximum depth of 18 inches, also at slopes no greater than 10 percent.
- Slopes in and around wet ponds should be 4:1 to 5:1 (horizontal: vertical) or flatter whenever possible (10:1 max. for safety/aquatic benches).

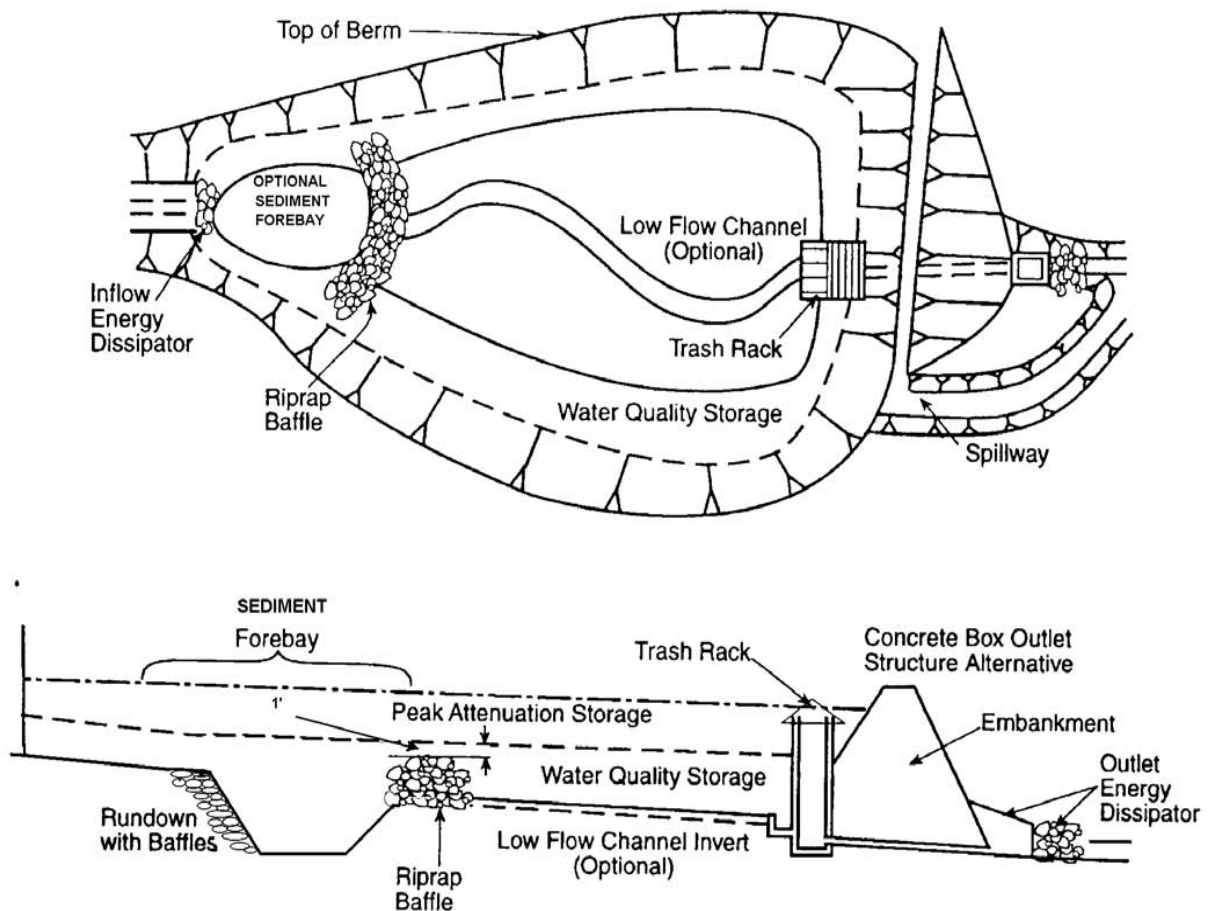


Figure 2 Extended detention basin
Source: New Jersey BMP Manual

Embankments

- Vegetated embankments less than or equal to three feet in height are recommended. Embankments should have side slopes no steeper than 3:1 (horizontal to vertical).
- The basin should have a minimum freeboard of one foot above the SDF elevation to the top of the berm.
- Woody vegetation is generally discouraged in the embankment area because of the risk of compromising the integrity of the embankment.
- Embankments should incorporate measures, such as buried chain link fencing, to prevent or discourage damage from tunneling wildlife (e.g., muskrat).

Wet pond location

- Wet ponds should be located down gradient of disturbed or developed areas on the site. The wet pond should collect as much site runoff as possible, especially from the site's impervious surfaces (roads, parking, buildings, etc.), and where other BMPs are not proposed.
- Wet ponds should not be constructed on steep slopes, nor should slopes be significantly altered or modified to reduce the steepness of the existing slope, for the purpose of installing a wet pond.
- Wet ponds should not worsen the runoff potential of the existing site by removing trees for the purpose of installing a wet pond.
- Wet ponds should not be constructed within 10 feet of the property line or within 50 feet of a private well or septic system.
- Wet ponds should not be constructed in areas with high quality and/or well draining soils, which are adequate for installing BMPs capable of achieving stormwater infiltration and, hence, volume reduction.

Additional design considerations for extended detention (Figure 2)

- Wet detention ponds should not be constructed within jurisdictional waters, including wetlands, or their regulated buffers.

Outlet design

- The low-flow orifice should typically be no smaller than 4 inches in diameter. However, the orifice diameter may be reduced to two inches if adequate protection from clogging is provided.
- The hydraulic design of all outlet structures must consider any significant tailwater effects of downstream waterways.
- The primary and low flow outlets should be protected from clogging by an external trash

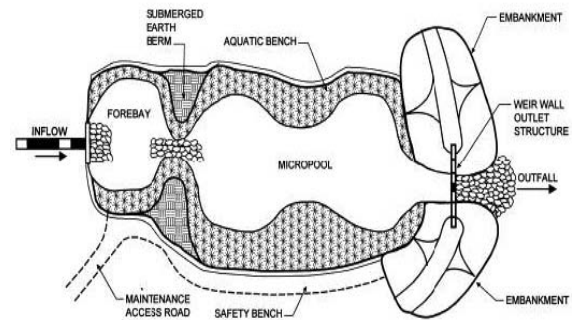


Figure 3 Pocket wet pond

Source: Maryland Stormwater Manual, 2000

- rack or other mechanism.
- Online facilities should have an emergency spillway that can safely pass the 1.25 times the 100-year storm with one foot of freeboard. All outflows should be conveyed downstream in a safe and stable manner.
- When designed to meet discharge criteria for a range of storms, basins should incorporate a multistage outlet structure. Three elements are typically included in this design:
 - o An outlet that controls the extended detention and functions to slowly release the water quality or channel protection design storm.
 - o A primary outlet that functions to attenuate the peak of larger design storms.
 - o An emergency overflow outlet/spillway. The emergency spillway should be at the top of the berm.
- The primary outlet structure should incorporate weirs, orifices, pipes, or a combination of these to control runoff peak rates for multiple design storms. Water quality storage should be provided above the permanent pool elevation. When routing

basins, the water quality outlet should be included in the depth-discharge relationship.

- Energy dissipaters should be placed at the end of the primary outlet to prevent erosion. If the basin discharges to a channel with dry weather flow, care should be taken to minimize tree clearing along the downstream channel, and to reestablish a forested riparian zone between the outlet and natural channel. Where feasible, a multiple orifice outlet system is preferred to a single pipe.

Inlet structures

- Erosion protection measures should be used to stabilize inflow structures and channels.

Sediment forebay

- Forebays must be in compliance with local Stormwater Management Ordinance and standard detailed drawing requirements.
- Forebays must be incorporated into the basin design. Forebays should be provided at all major inflow points to capture coarse sediment, prevent excessive sediment accumulation in the main basin, and minimize erosion by inflow.
- Forebays should be vegetated to improve filtering of runoff, to reduce runoff velocity, and to stabilize soils against erosion. Forebays should adhere to the following criteria:
 - o A minimum length of 10 feet.
 - o Storage should be provided to trap sediment over from storms with return periods between 1 and 10 years.
 - o Forebays should be physically separated from the rest of the pond by a berm, gabion wall, etc.
 - o Flows exiting the forebay must be non-erosive to the newly constructed basin.
 - o Forebays should be installed with permanent vertical markers that indicate sediment depth.
 - o Storage volume of 10 to 15 percent of the total permanent pool volume and is four to six feet deep.
 - o All major inflow points to dry detention basins should include sediment forebays sized for 10 percent of the water quality volume.

Vegetation and soils protection

- Underlying soils must be identified and tested. Generally, hydrologic soil groups “C” and “D” are suitable without modification, though “A” and “B” soils may require modification to reduce their natural permeability. Soil permeability must be tested in the proposed wet pond location to ensure that excessive infiltration will not cause the wet pond to dry out.
- Organic soils should be used for shallow areas within wet ponds. Organic soils can serve as a sink for pollutants and generally have high water holding capacities. They will also facilitate plant growth and propagation and may hinder invasion of undesirable species. Care must be taken to ensure that soils used are free of invasive or nuisance plant seeds.
- To enhance habitat value, visual aesthetics, water temperature, and pond health, a 25-foot buffer should be provided, measured outward from the maximum water surface elevation. The buffer should be planted with trees, shrubs, and native ground covers. Except in maintenance access areas, turf grass should not be used. Existing trees within the buffer should be preserved. If soils in the buffer will become compacted during construction, soil restoration should take place to aid buffer vegetation.

General Specifications

The following specifications are provided for information purposes only. These specifications include information on acceptable materials for typical applications, but are by no means exclusive or limiting. The designer is responsible for developing detailed specifications for individual design projects in accordance with the project conditions.

Excavation

- The area to be used for the wet pond should be excavated to the required depth below the desired bottom elevation to accommodate any required impermeable liner, organic matter, and/or planting soil.

- The compaction of the subgrade and/or the installation of any impermeable liners will follow immediately.

Subsoil preparation

- Subsoil should be free from hard clods, stiff clay, hardpan, ashes, slag, construction debris, petroleum hydrocarbons, or other undesirable material. Subsoil must not be delivered in a frozen or muddy state.
- Scarify the subsoil to a depth of 8 to 10 inches with a disk, rototiller, or similar equipment.
- Roll the subsoil under optimum moisture conditions to a dense seal layer with four to six passes of a sheepsfoot roller or equivalent. The compacted seal layer should be at least eight inches thick.

Impermeable liner

- If necessary, install impermeable liner in accordance with manufacturer's guidelines.
- Place a minimum 12 inches of subsoil on top of impermeable liner in addition to planting soil.
- May be required when in proximity to a public water supply. See Infiltration Considerations (Introduction to Structural BMPs).

Earth fill material & placement

- The fill material should be taken from approved designated excavation areas. It should be free of roots, stumps, wood, rubbish, stones greater than six inches, or other objectionable materials. Materials on the outer surface of the embankment must have the capability to support vegetation.
- Areas where fill is to be placed should be scarified prior to placement. Fill materials for the embankment should be placed in maximum eight-inch lifts. The principal spillway must be installed concurrently with fill placement and not excavated into the embankment.
- Control movement of the hauling and spreading equipment over the site.

Embankment core

- The core should be parallel to the centerline of the embankment as shown on the plans. The top width of the core should be at least four feet. The height should extend up to at least the 10-year water elevation or as shown on the plans. The side slopes should be 1:1 or flatter. The core should be compacted with construction equipment, rollers, or hand tampers to assure maximum density and minimum permeability. The core should be placed concurrently with the outer shell of the embankment.
- Construction of the berm should follow specifications by the project's geotechnical engineer.

Structure backfill

- Backfill adjacent to pipes and structures should be of the type and quality conforming to that specified for the adjoining fill material. The fill should be placed in horizontal layers not to exceed eight inches in thickness and compacted by hand tampers or other manually directed compaction equipment. The material should completely fill all spaces under and adjacent to the pipe. At no time during the backfilling operation should driving equipment be allowed to operate closer than four feet to any part of the structure. Equipment should not be driven over any part of a concrete structure or pipe, unless there is a compacted fill of 24 inches or greater over the structure or pipe.
- Backfill content and placement should follow specifications by the project's geotechnical engineer.

Pipe conduits

Corrugated metal pipe – All of the following criteria should apply for corrugated metal pipe:

- Materials – Polymer coated steel pipe, aluminum coated steel pipe, aluminum pipe. This pipe and its appurtenances should conform to the requirements of AASHTO specifications with watertight coupling bands or flanges.

- Coupling bands, anti-seep collars, end sections, etc., must be composed of the same material and coatings as the pipe. Metals must be insulated from dissimilar materials with use of rubber or plastic insulating materials at least 24 mils in thickness.
- Connections – All connections with pipes must be completely watertight. The drain pipe or barrel connection to the riser should be welded all around when the pipe and riser are metal. Anti-seep collars should be connected to the pipe in such a manner as to be completely watertight. Dimple bands are not considered to be watertight.
- Bedding – The pipe should be firmly and uniformly bedded throughout its entire length. Where rock or soft, spongy or other unstable soil is encountered, all such material should be removed and replaced with suitable earth compacted to provide adequate support.
- Backfilling should conform to “structure backfill.”
- Other details (anti-seep collars, valves, etc.) should be as shown on drawings.

Reinforced concrete pipe - All of the following criteria should apply for reinforced concrete pipe:

- Materials – Reinforced concrete pipe should have bell and spigot joints with rubber gaskets and should equal or exceed ASTM standards.
- Laying pipe – Bell and spigot pipe should be placed with the bell end upstream. Joints should be made in accordance with recommendations of the manufacturer of the material. After the joints are sealed for the entire line, the bedding should be placed so that all spaces under the pipe are filled. Take care to prevent any deviation from the original line and grade of the pipe.
- Backfilling should conform to “structure backfill.”
- Other details (anti-seep collars, valves, etc.) should be as shown on drawings.

Plastic pipe

- Materials – PVC pipe should be PVC-1120 or PVC-1220 conforming to ASTM standards. Corrugated High Density Polyethylene (HDPE) pipe, couplings, and fittings should meet AASHTO specifications.

- Joints and connections to anti-seep collars should be completely watertight.
- Bedding – The pipe should be firmly and uniformly bedded throughout its entire length. Where rock or soft, spongy or other unstable soil is encountered, all such material should be removed and replaced with suitable earth compacted to provide adequate support.
- Backfilling should conform to “structure backfill.”
- Other details (anti-seep collars, valves, etc.) should be as shown on drawings.

Drainage diaphragms – When a drainage diaphragm is used, a registered professional engineer must supervise the design and construction inspection.

Planting soil (topsoil)

- See local specifications for general planting soil requirements.
- Use a minimum of 12 inches of topsoil in the emergent vegetation zone (less than 18” deep) of the pond. If natural topsoil from the site is to be used it must have at least eight percent organic carbon content (by weight) in the A-horizon for sandy soils and 12 percent for other soil types.
- If planting soil is imported, it should be made up of equivalent proportions of organic and mineral materials. All soils used should be free of invasive or nuisance seeds.
- Lime should not be added to planting soil unless absolutely necessary as it may encourage the propagation of invasive species.
- The final elevations and hydrology of the vegetative zones should be evaluated prior to planting to determine if grading or planting changes are required.

Vegetation

- See Recommended Plant List for BMPs Appendix for plant lists for wet ponds. Substitutions of specified plants should be subject to prior approval of the designer. Planting locations should be based on the planting plan and directed in the field by a qualified wetland ecologist. Plant material should be selected based on tolerance to

standing water as identified in Recommended Plant List for BMPs Appendix.

- All wet pond plant stock should exhibit live buds or shoots. All plant stock should be turgid, firm, and resilient. Internodes of rhizomes may be flexible and not necessarily rigid. Soft or mushy stock should be rejected. The stock should be free of deleterious insect infestation, disease, and defects such as knots, sun-scald, injuries, abrasions, or disfigurement that could adversely affect the survival or performance of the plants.
- All stock should be free from invasive or nuisance plants or seeds.
- During all phases of the work, including transport and onsite handling, the plant materials should be carefully handled and packed to prevent injuries and desiccation. During transit and onsite handling, the plant material should be kept from freezing and be covered, moist, cool, out of the weather, and out of the wind and sun. Plants should be watered to maintain moist soil and/or plant conditions until accepted.
- Plants not meeting these specifications or damaged during handling, loading, and unloading will be rejected.

Outlet control structure

- Outlet control structures should be constructed of non-corrodible material.
- Outlets should be resistant to clogging by debris, sediment, floatables, plant material, or ice.
- Materials should comply with applicable specifications (INDOT or AASHTO, latest edition).

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Volume reduction

Although not typically considered a volume-reducing BMP, wet ponds can achieve some volume reduction through infiltration and evapotranspiration, especially during small storms and high temperature periods.

According to the International Stormwater BMP Database, wet ponds have an average annual volume reduction of seven percent (Strecker et al., 2004). Hydrologic calculations should be performed to verify that the wet pond will have a viable amount of inflow and to predict the water surface elevation under varying conditions. The volume stored between the predicted water level and the lowest outlet elevation will be removed from the storm that occurs under those conditions.

Peak rate mitigation

Inflow and discharge hydrographs must be calculated for each design storm.

Peak rate is primarily controlled in detention facilities through the transient storage above any permanent water surface. The degree to which peak rate is controlled is a function of the transient storage volume provided (i.e., depth and area) and the configuration of the outlet control structure.

Water quality improvement

Wet ponds rely on physical, biological, and chemical processes to remove pollutants from influent stormwater runoff. The primary treatment mechanism is settling by gravity of particulates and their associated pollutants while stormwater is retained in the pond. Another mechanism for the removal of pollutants, especially nutrients, is uptake by algae and aquatic vegetation. Typical pollutant removal efficiencies are provided in the Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of the Technical Standards.

The longer the runoff remains in a wet pond, the more settling (and associated pollutant removal) and other treatment can occur. After the particulates reach the bottom, the permanent pool protects them from resuspension when additional runoff enters.

The long detention or retention time associated with wet ponds can be problematic in coldwater fisheries due to the potential increase in water temperature. In these situations, detention times should be limited to a maximum of 12 hours, or other treatment alternatives (e.g., infiltration) should be explored.

Construction Guidelines

The following guidelines pertain to wet ponds:

- Install all temporary erosion and sedimentation controls.
- Separate pond area from contributing drainage area.
- All channels/pipes conveying flows to the pond must be routed away from the pond area until it is completed and stabilized.
- The area immediately adjacent to the pond must be stabilized in accordance with the erosion and sediment control methods discussed in the Erosion and Sediment Control Requirements Chapter of the Technical Standards and the latest requirements of IDEM's Soil Erosion and Sedimentation Control Program prior to construction of the pond (Rule 5).
- Prepare site for excavation and/or embankment construction.
- All existing vegetation should remain if feasible and only be removed if necessary for construction.
- Care should be taken to prevent compaction of the basin bottom.
- If excavation is required, clear the area of all vegetation. Remove all tree roots, rocks, and boulders only in excavation area.
- Excavate bottom of basin to desired elevation (if necessary).
- Install surrounding embankments and inlet and outlet control structures.
- Grade and prepare subsoil in bottom of basin. Compact bottom of basin in wet ponds.
 - Apply and grade planting soil. Matching design grades is crucial in wet ponds because aquatic plants can be very sensitive to depth.
 - Apply geo-textiles and other erosion-control measures.
- Seed, plant, and mulch according to landscaping plan.
- Install any safety or anti-grazing measures, if necessary.
- Follow required maintenance and monitoring guidelines.

Maintenance

Wet ponds must have a maintenance plan and privately owned facilities should have an easement, deed restriction, or other legal measure to prevent neglect or removal.

A basin maintenance plan should be developed which includes the following measures:

- All basin structures should be inspected for clogging and excessive debris and sediment accumulation at least four times per year, as well as after every storm greater than one inch. Structures that should be inspected include basin bottoms, trash racks, outlets structures, riprap or gabion structures, and inlets.
- Sediment should be removed from the forebay before it occupies 50 percent of the forebay, typically every 3 to 10 years. Sediment removal should be conducted when the basin is completely dry.
- Wet ponds should be drained prior to sediment removal. Sediment should be disposed of properly and once sediment is removed, disturbed areas need to be immediately stabilized and re-vegetated. Proper disposal of removed material depends on the nature of the drainage area and the intent and function of the detention basin. Material removed from detention basins that treat hot spots, such as fueling stations or areas with high pollutant concentrations, should be disposed according to IDEM regulations for solid waste. Detention basins that primarily catch sediment from areas such as lawns may redistribute the waste on site.
- The pond drain should be inspected and tested four times per year.
- The embankment should be inspected for evidence of tunneling or burrowing wildlife at least twice during the growing season. If damage is found, the damage should be repaired and the animals removed.

- Mowing and/or trimming of vegetation should be performed as necessary to sustain the system, but all detritus must be removed from the basin. Embankment should be mowed 1–2 times per year to prevent the establishment of woody vegetation.
- Inspections should assess the vegetation, erosion, flow channelization, bank stability, inlet/outlet conditions, embankment, and sediment/debris accumulation.
- Vegetated areas should be inspected annually for unwanted growth of invasive species.
- Vegetative cover should be maintained at a minimum of 85 percent.

Winter Considerations

One of the biggest problems associated with proper wet pond operation during cold weather is the freezing and clogging of inlet and outlet pipes. To avoid these problems, the Center for Watershed Protection (Caraco and Claytor, 1997) made some general design suggestions, which are adapted as follows:

- Inlet pipes should typically not be submerged, since this can result in freezing and upstream damage or flooding.
- Burying all pipes below the frost line can prevent frost heave and pipe freezing. Wind protection can also be an important consideration for pipes above the frost line. In these cases, designs modifications that have pipes “turn the corner” are helpful.
- Incorporate lower winter operating levels as part of the design to introduce available storage for melt events.
- Increase the slope of inlet pipes to a minimum of one percent to prevent standing water in the pipe, reducing the potential for ice formation. This design may be difficult to achieve at sites with flat local slopes.
- If perforated riser pipes are used, the minimum opening diameter should be ½-

inch. In addition, the pipe should have a minimum eight-inch diameter.

- When a standard weir is used, the minimum slot width should be three inches, especially when the slot is tall.
- Baffle weirs can prevent ice reformation during the spring melt near the outlet by preventing surface ice from blocking the outlet structure.
- In cold climates, riser hoods should be oversized and reverse slope pipes should draw from at least six inches below the typical ice layer.
- Alternative outlet designs that have been successful include using a pipe encased in a gravel jacket set at the elevation of the aquatic bench as the control for water-quality events. This practice both avoids stream warming and serves as a non-freezing outlet.
- Trash racks should be installed at a shallow angle to prevent ice formation. Constructed wetland performance can be decreased in spring months when large volumes of runoff occur in a relatively short time carrying the accumulated pollutant load from the winter months. Since constructed wetlands are relatively shallow, freezing of the shallow pool can occur.

Cost

The construction cost of wet ponds varies greatly depending on the configuration, location, site specific conditions, etc. Typical construction costs in 2007 dollars range from approximately \$30,000 to \$60,000 per acre-foot of storage (based on USEPA, 1999). Alternately, the construction cost of a wet pond can be estimated as \$6,000 per acre of contributing drainage area. Costs are generally most dependent on the amount of earthwork and the planting.

In addition to the water resource protection benefits of wet ponds, there is some evidence to suggest that they may provide an economic benefit by increasing property values. The results of one study

suggest that “pond front” property can increase the selling price of new properties by about 10 percent (USEPA, 1995). Another study reported that the perceived value (i.e., the value estimated by residents of a community) of homes was increased by about 15 to 25 percent when located near a wet pond (Emmerling-Dinovo, 1995).

Annual maintenance costs for wet ponds have been reported to be approximately three to five percent of the capital costs, though there is little data available to support this. Alternatively, a community can estimate the cost of the maintenance activities outlined in the maintenance section. Ponds are long-lived facilities (typically longer than 20 years). Thus, the initial investment into pond systems may be spread over a relatively long time period.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Wet Detention Ponds

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Used in conjunction with other BMPs for water quality and groundwater recharge?	1				
Adequate drainage area/water supply/groundwater table to maintain permanent water surface? <i>Min. drainage area: 10 acres, 5 acres for pocket wet pond</i> <i>Max. drainage area: 50 acres</i>	2-4				
Stable inflow points provided?	6				
Forebay and/or pretreatment provided for sediment removal? <i>Min. width of permanent access: 9 ft</i> <i>Max. slope: 15%</i> <i>Min. length of forebay: 10 ft</i>	4,6,7				
Adequate length to width ratio? ➤ <i>Min. length-to-width ratio: 3:1</i>	4				
Total depth limited? <i>Max. depth: 10 ft</i>	8				
Acceptable side slopes? <i>Max. slope: 10%</i>	4,5				
Safety benches provided?	4				
Properly designed outlet structure?	6				
Trash rack provided to prevent clogging?	6				
Stable emergency overflow and outflow points?	6				
Drawdown time less than 36 hours for 90% of stored volume?	4				
Soil compaction minimized?	--				
Adequate underlying soils?	7,8				
Appropriate native plants selected?	7,8				
25-foot buffer provided?	7				
Erosion and sedimentation control considered?	11				
Maintenance accounted for and plan provided? <i>Min. vegetative cover to be maintained: 85%</i>	12				

➤ *Denotes Minimum Design Consideration*

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BMP Fact Sheet

INFILTRATION PRACTICES

Infiltration practices are natural or constructed land areas located in permeable soils that capture, store, and infiltrate the volume of stormwater runoff into surrounding soil.



Figure 1 Infiltration Bed, Seattle, WA (USEPA, picasaweb)

Variations

- **Dry Wells**, also referred to as seepage pits, French drains or Dutch drains, are a subsurface storage facility (structural chambers or excavated pits, backfilled with a coarse stone aggregate) that temporarily store and infiltrate stormwater runoff from rooftop structures. Due to their size, dry wells are typically designed to handle stormwater runoff from smaller drainage areas, less than one acre in size.
- **Infiltration basins** are shallow surface impoundments that temporarily store, capture, and infiltrate runoff over a period of several days on a level and uncompacted surface. Infiltration basins are typically used for drainage areas of 5 to 50 acres with land slopes that are less than 20 percent.
- **Infiltration berms** use a site's topography to manage stormwater and prevent erosion. Berms may function independently in grassy areas or may be incorporated into the design of other stormwater control facilities such as Bioretention and Constructed Wetlands. Berms may also serve various stormwater drainage functions including: creating a barrier to flow, retaining flow for volume control, and directing flows.
- **Infiltration trenches** are linear subsurface infiltration structures typically composed of a stone trench wrapped with geotextile which is designed for both stormwater infiltration and conveyance in drainage areas less than five acres in size.
- **Subsurface infiltration beds** generally consist of a rock storage (or alternative) bed below other surfaces such as parking lots, lawns, and playfields for temporary storage and infiltration of stormwater runoff with a maximum drainage area of 10 acres.
- **Bioretention** can be an infiltration practice and is discussed in the Bioretention BMP.
- **Level spreaders** can be an infiltration practice and are discussed in the Level Spreader BMP.

Key Design Features

- Depth to water table or bedrock
- Pretreatment is often needed to prevent clogging
- Often requires level infiltration surface
- Proximity to buildings, drinking water supplies, karst features, and other sensitive areas
- Soil types
- Provide positive overflow in most uses

Site Factors

- Maximum Site Slope: 20 percent
- Minimum depth to bedrock: Two feet
- Minimum depth to seasonally high water table: Two feet
- Potential Hotspots: Yes, with pretreatment and/or impervious liner
- NRCS Soil Type: A, B, C*, D*

* C & D soils have limited infiltration ability and may require an underdrain

Infiltration BMP	Max. Drainage Area
Berming	5 acres
Dry Well	1 acre
Infiltration Basin	10 acres
Infiltration Trench	2 acres
Subsurface Infiltration Bed	5 acres

Benefits

- Reduces volume of stormwater runoff
- Reduces peak rate runoff
- Increases groundwater recharge
- Provides thermal benefits

Limitations

- Pretreatment requirements to prevent clogging
- Not recommended for areas with steep slopes

Applications

	Residential	Commercial	Ultra Urban	Industrial	Retrofit	Highway/ Road	Recreational
Dry well	Yes	Yes	Yes	Limited	Yes	No	No
Infiltration basin	Yes	Yes	Limited	Yes	Limited	Limited	No
Infiltration berm	Yes	Yes	Limited	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Infiltration trench	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Subsurface infiltration bed	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Limited	No

Stormwater Quantity Functions

	Volume	Groundwater Recharge	Peak Rate
Dry well	Medium	High	Medium
Infiltration basin	High	High	High
Infiltration berm	Low/Medium	Low/Medium	Medium
Infiltration trench	Medium	High	Low/Medium
Subsurface infiltration bed	High	High	High

Stormwater Quality Functions

	TSS	TP	NO3	Temperature
Dry well	High	High/Medium	Medium/Low	High
Infiltration basin	High	Medium/High	Medium	High
Infiltration berm	Medium/High	Medium	TN-Medium	Medium
Infiltration trench	High	High/Medium	Medium/Low	High
Subsurface infiltration bed	High	Medium/High	Low	High

Description and Function

Infiltration practices are designed to store, capture, and infiltrate stormwater runoff into the surrounding soils. During periods of rainfall, infiltration BMPs reduce the volume of runoff and help to mitigate potential flooding events, downstream erosion, and channel morphology changes. This recharged water serves to provide base-flow to streams and maintain stream water quality.

Infiltration BMPs provide excellent pollutant removal effectiveness because of the combination of a variety of natural functions occurring within the soil mantle, complemented by existing vegetation (where this vegetation is preserved). Soil functions include physical filtering, chemical interactions (e.g., ion exchange, adsorption), as well as a variety of forms of biological processing, conversion, and uptake. The inclusion of appropriate vegetation for some infiltration basins reinforces the work of the soil by reducing velocity and erosive forces, soil anchoring, and further uptake of nonpoint source pollutants. In many cases, even the more difficult-to-remove soluble nitrates can be reduced as well. It should be noted that infiltration BMPs tend to be excellent for removal of many pollutants, especially those that are in particulate form. However, there are limitations to the removal of highly soluble pollutants, such as nitrate, which can be transmitted through the soil.

In addition to the removal of chemical pollutants, infiltration can address thermal pollution. Maintaining natural temperatures in stream systems is recognized as an issue of increasing importance for protection of overall stream ecology. While detention facilities tend to discharge heated runoff flows, the return of runoff to the groundwater through use of infiltration BMPs guarantees that these waters will be returned at natural groundwater temperatures, considerably cooler than ambient air in summer and warmer in winter. As a result, seasonal extreme fluctuations in stream water temperature are minimized. Fish, macro-invertebrates, and a variety of other biota will benefit as the result.

Infiltration Limitations

The use of sediment pretreatment with infiltration BMPs is required for many infiltration BMPs to prevent clogging of the infiltration surface area. Sediment pretreatment can take the form of a water quality filtering device, a settling basin, filter strips, sediment trap, or a combination of these practices upstream of the infiltration practice. Pretreatment practices should be inspected and maintained at least once per year. Before entering an infiltration practice, stormwater should first enter a pretreatment practice sized to treat a minimum volume of 25% of the water quality volume (V_{wq}).

Sites that include hot spots, such as gasoline stations, vehicle maintenance areas, and high intensity commercial uses, may need additional pretreatment practices to prevent impairment of groundwater supplies. Infiltration may occur in areas of hot spots provided pretreatment is suitable to address concerns.

Pretreatment devices that operate effectively in conjunction with infiltration include grass swales, vegetated filter strips, bioretention, settling chambers, oil/grit separators, constructed wetlands, sediment sumps, and water quality inserts. Selection of pretreatment practices should be guided by the pollutants of greatest concern, and the extent of the land development under consideration.

Selection of pretreatment techniques will vary depending upon whether the pollutants are of a particulate (sediment, phosphorus, metals, etc.) versus a soluble (nitrogen and others) nature.

Applications

Infiltration systems can be used in a variety of applications, from small areas in residential properties to extensive systems under commercial parking lots or large basins in open space. Industrial, retrofit, highway/ road, and recreational areas can also readily incorporate

infiltration to varying degrees. The use of infiltration basins and berming in ultra-urban and redevelopment settings is limited primarily due to space constraints.

Dry wells have limited applicability in industrial settings as they are designed for runoff from relatively small roof areas (therefore they are also not applicable to transportation corridors). Infiltration basins, subsurface infiltration beds, and berming are also limited for transportation projects due to space constraints and grading requirements (however berming can be used to some degree – especially along the edge of the right of way – to capture runoff).

Variations

Subsurface infiltration

A subsurface infiltration bed generally consists of a rock storage (or alternative) bed below other surfaces such as parking lots, lawns and playfields for temporary storage and infiltration of stormwater runoff. Subsurface storage is enhanced with perforated or open bottom piping. Subsurface infiltration beds can be stepped or terraced down sloping terrain, provided that the base of the bed remains level. Stormwater runoff from nearby impervious areas is conveyed to the subsurface storage media, receives necessary pretreatment and is then distributed via a network of perforated piping.

The storage media for subsurface infiltration beds typically consists of clean-washed, uniformly graded aggregate. However, other storage media alternatives are available. These alternatives are generally variations on plastic cells that can more than double the storage capacity of aggregate beds. Storage media alternatives are ideally suited for sites where potential infiltration area is limited.

If designed, constructed, and maintained using the following guidelines, subsurface infiltration features can stand alone as significant stormwater runoff volume, rate, and quality control practices. These systems can also provide some aquifer recharge, while preserving or creating valuable open space and recreation areas. They have the

added benefit of functioning year-round, because the infiltration surface is typically below the frost line.

Various methods can be utilized to connect to subsurface infiltration areas:

Connection of roof leaders

Runoff from nearby roofs can be directly conveyed to subsurface beds via roof leader connections to perforated piping. Roof runoff generally has relatively low sediment levels, making it ideally suited for connection to an infiltration bed.

Connection of inlets

Catch basins, inlets, and area drains may be connected to subsurface infiltration beds. However, sediment, oil and grease, and debris removal must be provided. Storm structures should include sediment trap areas below the inverts of discharge pipes to trap solids and debris. Parking lots and roadways must provide for the removal of oil and grease and other similar constituents through appropriate treatment. In areas of high traffic or excessive generation of sediment, litter, and other similar materials, a water quality insert or other pretreatment device may be required.

Infiltration trench

An infiltration trench is a linear stormwater BMP consisting of a continuously perforated pipe within a sub-surface stone-filled trench wrapped with geotextile. Usually, an infiltration trench is part of a conveyance system and is designed so that large storm events are conveyed through the pipe with some runoff volume reduction. During small storm events, volume reduction may be significant and there may be little or no discharge.

All infiltration trenches should be designed with a positive overflow. Sediment pretreatment of runoff from impervious areas should be considered to prevent clogging within the trench, particularly when conveying runoff from roadways and parking areas.

An infiltration trench differs from an infiltration bed in that it may be constructed in more confined areas. The designer must still consider the impervious area to infiltration area loading rate. It can be located beneath or within roadways or

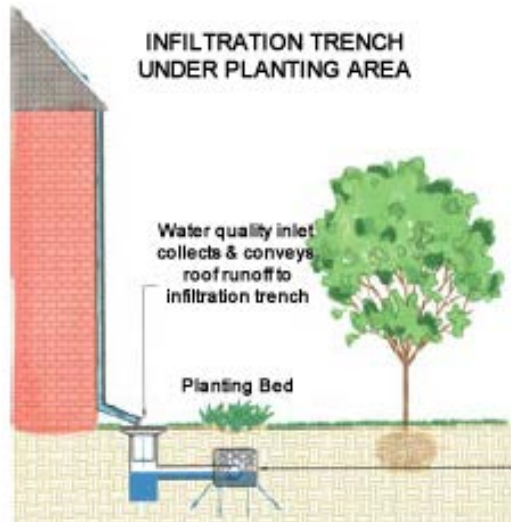


Figure 2 Infiltration trench with continuously perforated pipe for distribution with positive overflow

impervious areas (Figure 2) and can also be located down a mild slope by “stepping” the sections between control structures.

Infiltration basin

Infiltration basins (Figure 3) are shallow, impounded areas designed to temporarily store and infiltrate storm-water runoff. The size and

shape can vary from one large basin to multiple, smaller basins throughout a site.

Infiltration basins use the existing soil and native vegetation to reduce the volume of stormwater runoff by infiltration and evapotranspiration. Therefore, the use of sediment pretreatment is imperative to prevent clogging of the infiltration surface area within the basin. Sediment pretreatment can take the form of a water quality filtering device, vegetative filter strips, a settling basin, or a sediment trap. The key to promoting infiltration is to provide enough surface area for the volume of runoff to be absorbed within 72 hours.

An engineered overflow structure must be provided for the larger storms and can be designed for peak rate attenuation. With the use of a properly designed outlet structure, infiltration basins can be designed to mitigate volume and water quality for small frequent storms, while managing peak rates for large design storms.

Dry well

A dry well (Figure 4) is a subsurface storage facility that temporarily stores and infiltrates stormwater runoff from rooftops. Roof leaders usually connect directly into the dry well, which may be either an excavated pit filled with uniformly graded aggregate wrapped in geotextile or a prefabricated storage chamber or pipe segment. For structures without gutters or

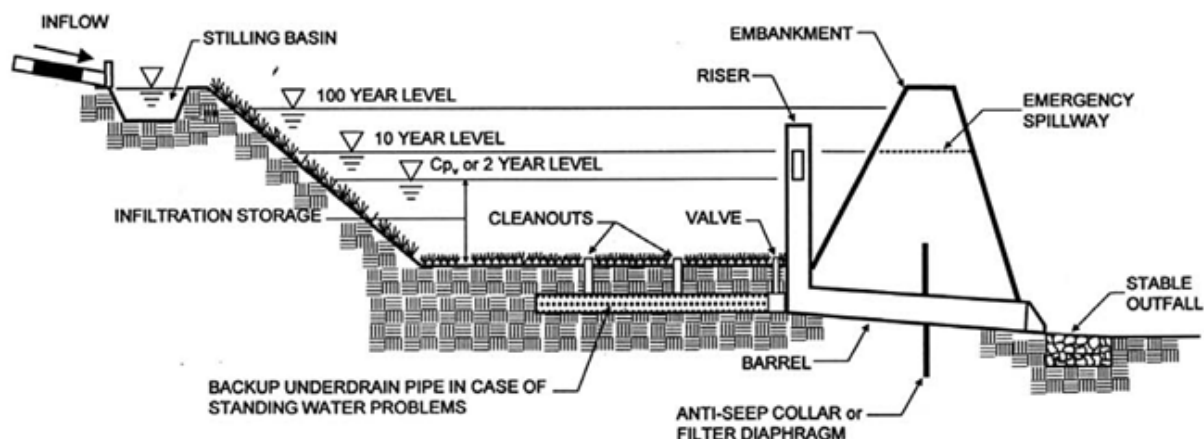


Figure 3 Residential Rain Garden with surface connection to subsurface infiltration bed under garden

downspouts, runoff can be designed to sheet flow off a pitched roof surface and onto a stabilized ground cover that is then directed toward a dry well via stormwater pipes or swales.

Dry wells discharge the stored runoff via infiltration into the surrounding soils. In the event that the dry well is overwhelmed in an intense storm event, an overflow mechanism (e.g., surcharge pipe, connection to larger infiltration area, etc.) will ensure that additional runoff is safely conveyed downstream.

Prefabricated Dry Wells

There are a variety of prefabricated, predominantly plastic subsurface storage chambers on the market today that can replace aggregate dry wells. Since these systems have significantly greater storage capacity than aggregate, space requirements are reduced and associated costs may be defrayed. If the following design guidelines are followed and infiltration is still encouraged, prefabricated chambers can prove just as effective as standard aggregate dry wells.

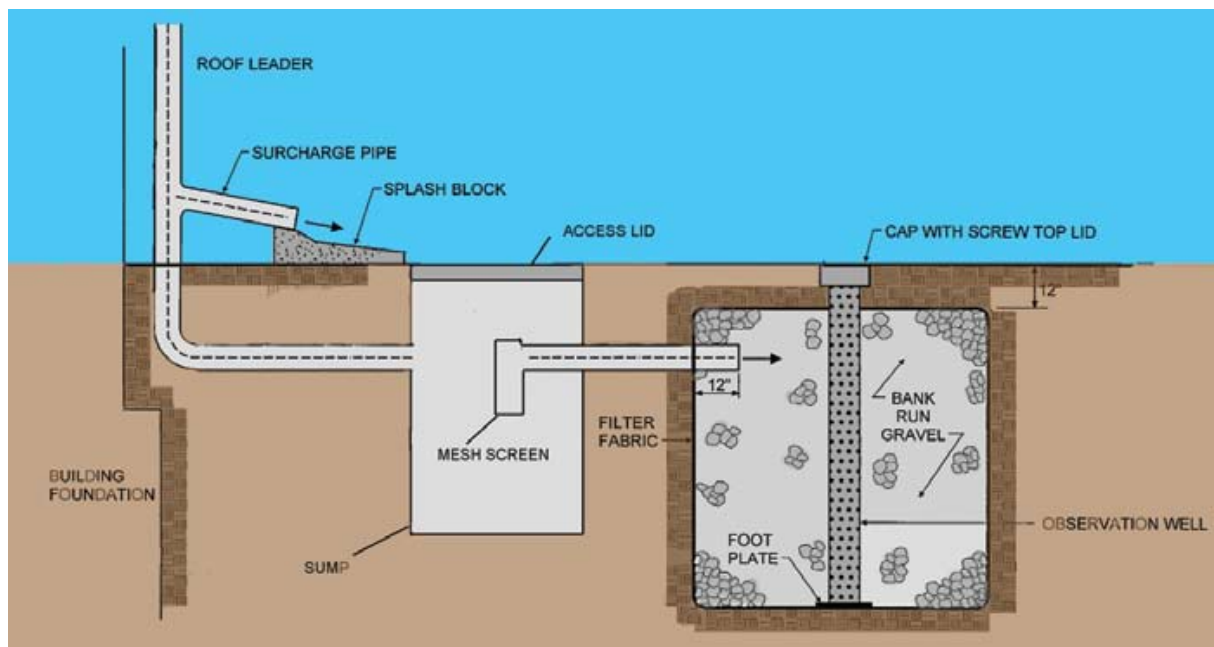


Figure 4 Cross Section of dry well with "sumped" catch basin for sediment pretreatment

Infiltration berm

Infiltration berms are linear vegetation features located along (i.e. parallel to) existing site contours in a moderately sloping area. They are built-up earthen embankments with sloping sides, which function to retain, slow down, or divert stormwater flows. Infiltration berms also have shallow depressions created by generally small earthen embankments that collect and temporarily store stormwater runoff, allowing it to infiltrate into the ground and recharge groundwater.

Infiltration berms can be constructed in various areas on the site, including:

Diversion berms

Diversion berms can be used to protect slopes from erosion and to slow runoff rate. Like swales, berms may divert concentrated discharge from a developed area away from the sloped area. Additionally, berms may be installed in series down the slope to retain flow and spread it out along multiple, level berms to discourage concentrated flow.

Diversion berms can also be used to direct stormwater flow in order to promote longer flow pathways, thus increasing the time of concentration. For example, berms can be installed such that vegetated stormwater flow pathways are allowed to “meander” so that stormwater travel time is increased.

Meadow/woodland infiltration berms

Woodland infiltration berms can be installed within existing wooded areas for additional stormwater management. Berms in wooded areas can even improve the health of existing vegetation, through enhanced groundwater recharge. Care should be taken during construction to ensure minimum disturbance to existing vegetation, especially tree roots.

Berms are also utilized for a variety of reasons independent of stormwater management, such as to add aesthetic value to a flat landscape, create a noise or wind barrier, separate land uses, screen undesirable views or to enhance or emphasize landscape designs. Berms are often used in conjunction with recreational features, such as pathways through woodlands. In summary, even when used for stormwater management, berms can be designed to serve multifunctional purposes and are easily incorporated into the landscape.

Design Considerations

The following general design considerations are for all BMPs utilizing infiltration. These include site conditions and constraints, as well as general design considerations. Specific design considerations for each BMP follow these same considerations.

Site conditions and constraints for all infiltration BMPs

- **Depth to seasonal high water table.** A four-foot clearance above the seasonally high water table is recommended. A two-foot clearance can be used, but may reduce the performance of the BMP. This reduces the likelihood that temporary groundwater mounding will affect the system, and

allows sufficient distance of water movement through the soil to assure adequate pollutant removal. In special circumstances, filter media may be employed to remove pollutants if adequate soil layers do not exist.

- **Depth to bedrock.** A four-foot minimum depth to bedrock is recommended to assure adequate pollutant removal and infiltration. A two-foot depth can be used, but may reduce the performance of the BMP. In special circumstances, filter media may be employed to remove pollutants if adequate soil mantle does not exist.
- **Soil infiltration.** Soils underlying infiltration devices should have infiltration rates between 0.1 and 10 inches per hour, which in most development programs should result in reasonably sized infiltration systems. Where soil permeability is extremely low, infiltration may still be possible, but the surface area required could be large, and other volume reduction methods may be warranted. Undisturbed Hydrologic Soil Groups A, B, and C often fall within this range and cover most of the state. Type D soils may require the use of a double-walled underdrain.

Soils with rates in excess of six inches per hour may require an additional soil buffer (such as an organic layer over the bed bottom) if the Cation Exchange Capacity (CEC) is less than 10 and pollutant loading is expected to be significant. In carbonate soils, excessively rapid drainage may increase the risk of sinkhole formation, and some compaction or additional measures may be appropriate.

- **Setbacks.** Infiltration BMPs should be sited so that any risk to groundwater quality is minimized and they present no threat to sub-surface structures such as foundations and septic systems. (Table 1)

General design considerations for all infiltration BMPs

Setback from	Minimum Distance (feet)
Property Line	10
Building Foundation*	10
Private Well	50
Public Water Supply Well**	50
Septic System Drainfield***	100

Table 1 Setback Distances

* Minimum with slopes directed away from building. 100 feet up gradient from basement foundations.

** At least 200 feet from Type I or IIa wells, 75 feet from Type IIb and III wells

*** 50 feet for septic systems with a design flow of less than 1,000 gallons per day

- **Do not infiltrate in compacted fill.** Infiltration in native soil without prior fill or disturbance is preferred but not always possible. Areas that have experienced historic disturbance or fill are suitable for infiltration provided sufficient time has elapsed and the soil testing indicates the infiltration is feasible. In disturbed areas, it may be necessary to infiltrate at a depth that is beneath soils that have previously been compacted by construction methods or long periods of mowing, often 18 inches or more. If site grading requires placement of an infiltration BMP on fill, compaction should be minimal to prevent excess settlement. The infiltration capacity of the compacted fill should be measured in the field to ensure the design values used are valid.
- **A level infiltration area (one percent or less slope) is preferred.** Bed bottoms should always be graded into the existing soil mantle, with terracing as required to construct flat structures. Sloped bottoms tend to pool and concentrate water in small areas, reducing the overall rate of infiltration and longevity of the BMP. The longitudinal slope may range only from the preferred zero percent up to one percent, and that lateral slopes are held at zero percent. It is highly recommended that the maximum side slopes for an infiltration practice be 1:3 (V: H).
- **The soil mantle should be preserved for surface infiltration BMPs and excavation**

should be minimized. Those soils that do not need to be disturbed for the building program should be left undisturbed. Macropores can provide a significant mechanism for water movement in surface infiltration systems, and the extent of macropores often decreases with depth. Maximizing the soil mantle also increases the pollutant removal capacity and reduces concerns about groundwater mounding. Therefore, excessive excavation for the construction of infiltration systems is strongly discouraged.

- **Isolate hot spot areas.** Site plans that include infiltration in hot spots need to be reviewed carefully. Hot spots are most often associated with some industrial uses and high traffic – gasoline stations, vehicle maintenance areas, and high intensity commercial uses (fast food restaurants, convenience stores, etc.). Infiltration may occur in areas of hot spots provided pretreatment is suitable to address concerns.
- **Utilize pretreatment.** Pretreatment should be utilized for most infiltration BMPs, especially for hot spots and areas that produce high sediment loading. Pretreatment devices that operate effectively in conjunction with infiltration include grass swales, vegetated filter strips, settling chambers, oil/grit separators, constructed wetlands, sediment sumps, and water quality inserts. Selection of pretreatment should be guided by the pollutants of greatest concern, site by site, depending upon the nature and extent of the land development under consideration. Selection of pretreatment techniques will vary depending upon whether the pollutants are of a particulate (sediment, phosphorus, metals, etc.) versus soluble (nitrogen and others) nature. Types of pretreatment (i.e., filters) should be matched with the nature of the pollutants expected to be generated.
- **The loading ratio of impervious area to bed bottom area must be considered.**

One of the more common reasons for infiltration system failure is the design of a system that attempts to infiltrate a substantial volume of water in a very small area. Infiltration systems work best when the water is “spread out”. The loading ratio describes the ratio of impervious drainage area to infiltration area, or the ratio of total drainage area to infiltration area. In general, the following loading ratios are recommended (some situations, such as highly permeable soils, may allow for higher loading ratios):

- o Maximum impervious loading ratio of 5:1 relating impervious drainage area to infiltration area.
- o Maximum total loading ratio of 8:1 relating total drainage area to infiltration area.
- **The hydraulic head or depth of water should be limited.** The total effective depth of water within the infiltration BMP should generally not be greater than two feet to avoid excessive pressure and potential sealing of the bed bottom. Typically, the water depth is limited by the loading ratio and drawdown time and is not an issue.
- **Drawdown time must be considered.** In general, infiltration BMPs should be designed so that they completely empty within a 72-hour period in most situations (a 48-hour period is preferred).
- **All infiltration BMPs should be designed with a positive overflow** that discharges excess volume in a non-erosive manner, and allows for controlled discharge during extreme rainfall events or frozen bed conditions. Infiltration BMPs should never be closed systems dependent entirely upon infiltration in all storm frequency situations.
- **Geotextiles should be incorporated into the design as necessary.** Infiltration BMPs that are subject to soil movement into the stone medium or excessive sediment

deposition must be constructed with suitably permeable non-woven geotextiles to prevent the movement of fines and sediment into the infiltration system. The designer is encouraged to err on the side of caution and use geotextiles as necessary within the BMP structure.

- **Aggregates used in construction should be washed.** In general, bank run material will contain fines that will wash off and clog the infiltration surface.
- **Infiltration utilizing vegetation.** Adequate soil cover (generally 12 to 18 inches) must be maintained above the infiltration bed to allow for a healthy vegetative cover. Vegetation over infiltration beds can be native grasses, meadow mix, or other low-growing, dense species (see Recommended Plant List for BMPs Appendix). These plants have longer roots than traditional grass and will likely benefit from the moisture in the infiltration bed, improving the growth of these plantings and, potentially increasing evapotranspiration.
- **Using underdrains in poor draining soils.** Double-walled underdrains can be used in infiltration BMPs where in situ soils are expected to cause ponding lasting longer than 48 hours. If used, underdrains are typically small diameter (6 to 12 inches) perforated pipes in a clean gravel trench wrapped in geotextile fabric (or in the storage/infiltration bed). Underdrains should have a flow capacity greater than the total planting soil infiltration rate and should have at least 18 inches of soil/gravel cover. They can daylight to the surface or connect to another stormwater system. A method to inspect and clean underdrains should be provided (via cleanouts, inlet, overflow structure, etc.)

Infiltration practices are prohibited in proximity to public water supply wells as discussed in the Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Chapter, Section F Step 5 of the Technical Standards.

designed to flow adjacent to (parallel to),

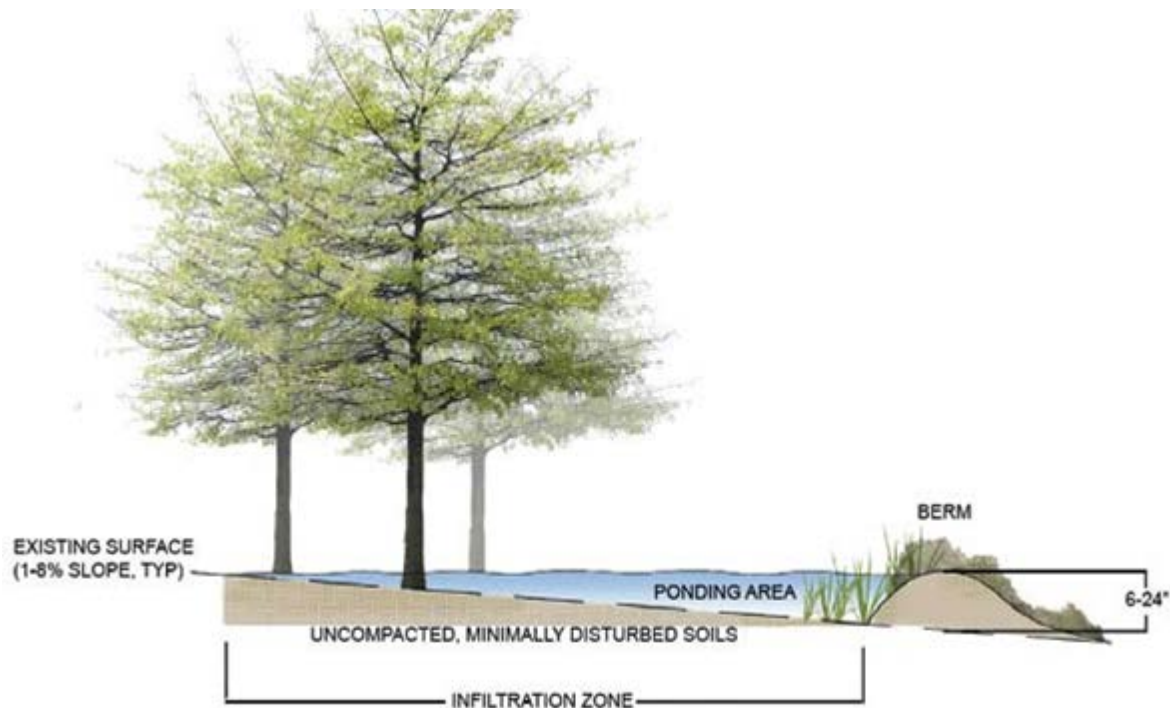


Figure 5 Typical Components of a Berm

- **Freeboard.** It is recommended that two feet of freeboard be provided from the 100-year flood elevation of the infiltration practice to the lowest basement floor elevation of residential, commercial, industrial, and institutional buildings located adjacent to the BMP, unless local requirements recommend or stipulate otherwise.

Additional design considerations for infiltration berms

- Sizing criteria (**Figure 5**) are dependent on berm function, location, and storage volume requirements.
 - Low **berm height** (less than or equal to 24 inches) is recommended to encourage maximum infiltration and to prevent excessive ponding behind the berm. Greater heights may be used where berms are being used to divert flow or to create “meandering” or lengthened flow pathways. In these cases, stormwater is

rather than over the crest of the berm. Generally, more berms of smaller size are preferable to fewer berms of larger size.

- **Berm length** is dependent on functional need and site size. Berms installed along the contours should be level and located across the slope. Maximum length will depend on width of the slope.
- Infiltration berms should be constructed along (parallel to) contours at a **constant level elevation**.
- **Soil.** The top one foot of a berm needs to consist of high quality topsoil, with well-drained, stable fill material making up the remainder of the berm. A berm may also consist entirely of high quality topsoil, but this is the more expensive option.

The use of gravel is not recommended in the layers directly underneath the topsoil because

of the tendency of the soil to wash through the gravel. In some cases, the use of clay may be required due to its cohesive qualities (especially where the berm height is high or relatively steeply sloped). However, well-compacted soil is usually sufficient provided that the angle of repose, the angle at which the soil will rest and not be subject to slope failure (discussed below), is adequate for the soil medium used.

- The **angle of repose** of any soil will vary with the texture, water content, compaction, and vegetative cover. Typical angles of repose are given below:
 - Non-compacted clay: 5 to 20 percent
 - Dry Sand: 33 percent
 - Loam: 35 to 40 percent
 - Compacted clay: 50 to 80 percent
- **Slope** The angle of repose for the soil used in the berm should determine the maximum slope of the berm with additional consideration being given to aesthetic, drainage, and maintenance needs. If a berm is to be mowed, the slope should not exceed a 4:1 ratio (horizontal to vertical) in order to avoid “scalping” by mower blades. If trees are to be planted on berms, the slope should not exceed a 5:1 to 7:1 ratio. Other herbaceous plants which do not require mowing can tolerate slopes of 3:1, though this slope ratio may promote increased runoff rate and erosive conditions. Berm side slopes should never exceed a 2:1 ratio.
- **Plant materials.** It is important to consider the function and form of the berm when selecting plant materials. When using native trees and shrubs, plant them in a pattern that appears natural and accentuates the form of the berm. Consider native species from a rolling prairie or upland forest habitat. If turf will be combined with woody and herbaceous plants, the turf should be placed to allow for easy maneuverability while mowing. Low maintenance native plantings, such as trees and meadow plants, rather than turf and formal landscaping, are encouraged and

can be found in Recommended Plant List for BMPs Appendix. Additionally, plant material should be selected based on tolerance to standing water as identified in Recommended Plant List for BMPs Appendix.

- **Infiltration trench option.** Soil testing is required for infiltration berms that will utilize a subsurface infiltration trench. Infiltration trenches are not recommended in existing woodland areas, because excavation and installation of subsurface trenches could damage tree root systems. See the infiltration trench section for information on infiltration trench design.
- **Aesthetics.** To the extent possible, berms should reflect the surrounding landscape. Berms should be graded so that the top of the berm is smoothly convex and the toes of the berms are smoothly concave. Natural, asymmetrical berms are usually more effective and attractive than symmetrical berms, which tend to look more artificial. The crest of the berm should be located near one end of the berm rather than in the middle.
- **Pretreatment.** The small depression created by an infiltration berm can act as a sediment forebay prior to stormwater entering a down slope BMP, such as a bioretention basin, a subsurface infiltration bed, or another such facility. Sediment forebays must be in compliance with local Stormwater Management Ordinance and standard detailed drawing requirements.

Additional design considerations for dry wells

- Dry wells typically consist of 18 to 48 inches of clean washed, uniformly graded aggregate with 40 percent void capacity (AASHTO No. 3, or similar). Dry well aggregate is wrapped in a nonwoven geotextile, which provides separation between the aggregate and the surrounding soil. Typically, dry wells will be covered in

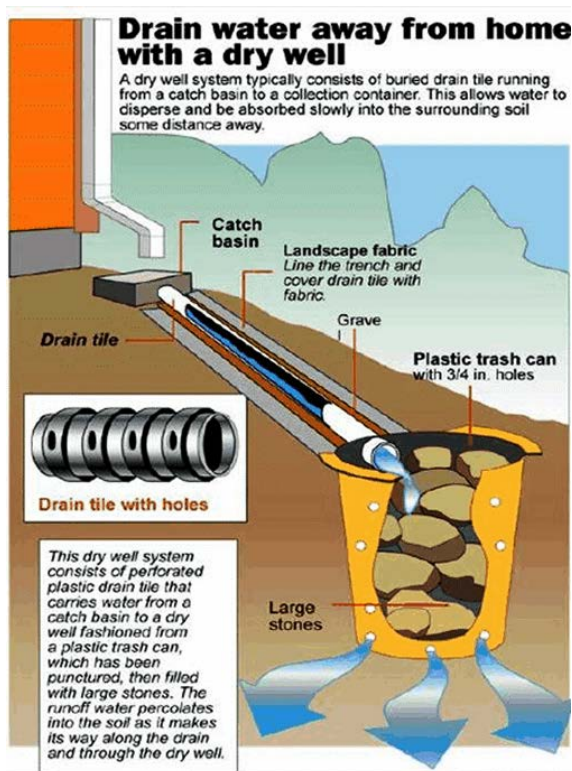


Figure 6 Residential dry well
Source - AP/Stan Kohler

at least 12 inches of soil or six inches of gravel or riverstone. An alternative form of dry well is a subsurface, prefabricated chamber, a number of which are currently available on the market.

- All dry wells must be able to convey system overflows to downstream drainage systems. System overflows can be incorporated either as surcharge (or overflow) pipes extending from roof leaders or via connections from the dry well itself.
- The design depth of a dry well should take into account frost depth to prevent frost heave.
- A removable filter with a screened bottom should be installed in the roof leader below the surcharge pipe in order to screen out leaves and other debris.
- Inspection and maintenance access to the dry well should be provided. Observation

wells not only provide the necessary access to the dry well, but they also provide a conduit through which pumping of stored runoff can be accomplished in case of slowed infiltration.

- Though roofs are generally not a significant source of runoff pollution, they can still be a source of particulates and organic matter, as well as sediment and debris during construction. Measures such as roof gutter guards, roof leader clean-outs with sump, or an intermediate sump box can provide pretreatment for dry wells by minimizing the amount of sediment and other particulates that enter it.

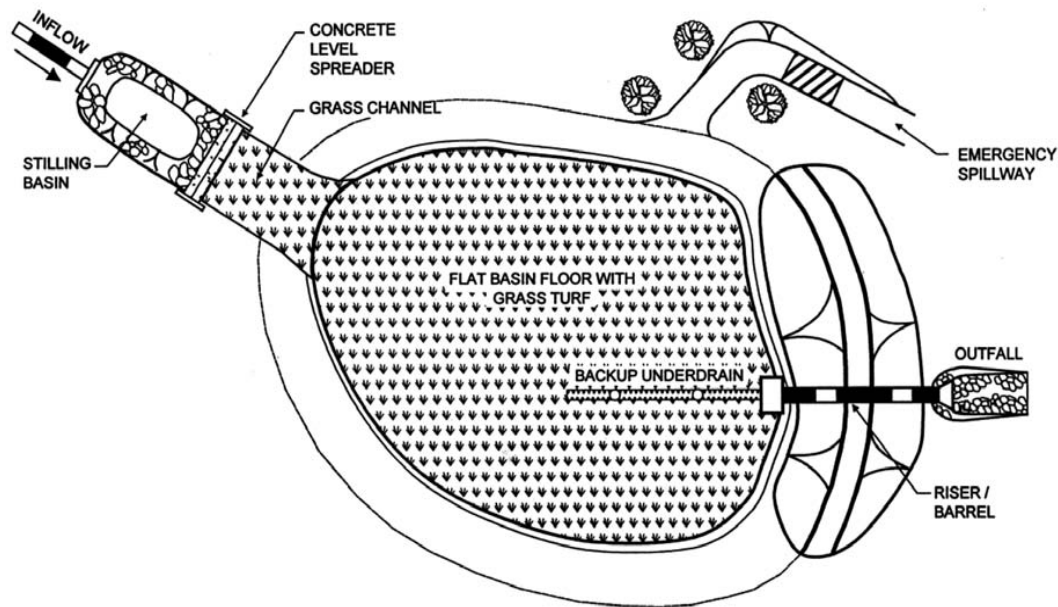


Figure 7 Infiltration Basin Sketch

Additional Design Considerations for Infiltration Basins

- Infiltration basins are typically used for drainage areas of 5 to 50 acres with land slopes that are less than 20 percent.
- A six-inch layer of sand must be placed on the bottom of an infiltration basin (**Figure 7**). This sand layer can intercept silt, sediment, and debris that could otherwise clog the top layer of the soil below the basin.
- An infiltration basin does not normally have a structural outlet to discharge runoff from the stormwater quality design storm. Instead, outflow from an infiltration basin is through the surrounding soil. An infiltration basin may also be combined with an extended detention basin to provide additional runoff storage for both stormwater quality and quantity management. A structural outlet or emergency spillway is provided for storms that exceed the design of the infiltration basin.
- The berms surrounding the basin should be compacted earth with a slope of not less than 3:1, and a top width of at least two feet.
- The overflow from the infiltration basin must be properly designed for anticipated flows. Large infiltration basins may require multiple outlet control devices to effectively allow for overflow water during the larger storms. Emergency overflow systems can be constructed to direct large storm overflows.
- The sediment pre-treatment structure should be designed to provide for access and maintenance.
- In some cases, basins may be constructed where impermeable soils on the surface are removed and where more permeable underlying soils are used for the basin bottom. Care should be taken in the excavation process to make sure that soil compaction does not occur.
- The inlets into the basin should have erosion protection.
- Use of a backup, double-walled underdrain or low-flow orifice may be considered in

the event that the water in the basin does not drain within 72 hours.

Additional design considerations for infiltration trenches

- The infiltration trench (**Figure 8**) is typically comprised of a section of uniformly graded aggregate, such as AASHTO No. 3, which ranges one to two inches in gradation. Depending on local aggregate availability, both larger and smaller size aggregate may be used. The critical requirements are that the aggregate be uniformly-graded, clean-washed, and contain at least 40 percent void space. The depth of the trench is a function of stormwater storage requirements, frost depth considerations, and site grading.

inlets capable of removing oil and grease and similar pollutants. Untreated parking lot and road runoff should never be directly discharged underground.

- Cleanouts, observation wells, or inlets must be installed at both ends of the infiltration trench and at appropriate intervals to allow access to the perforated pipe.
- When designed as part of a storm sewer system, a continuously perforated pipe that extends the length of the trench and has a positive flow connection may be included to allow high flows to be conveyed through the infiltration trench. Depending on size, these pipes may provide additional storage volume.
- Trees may be planted over the infiltration

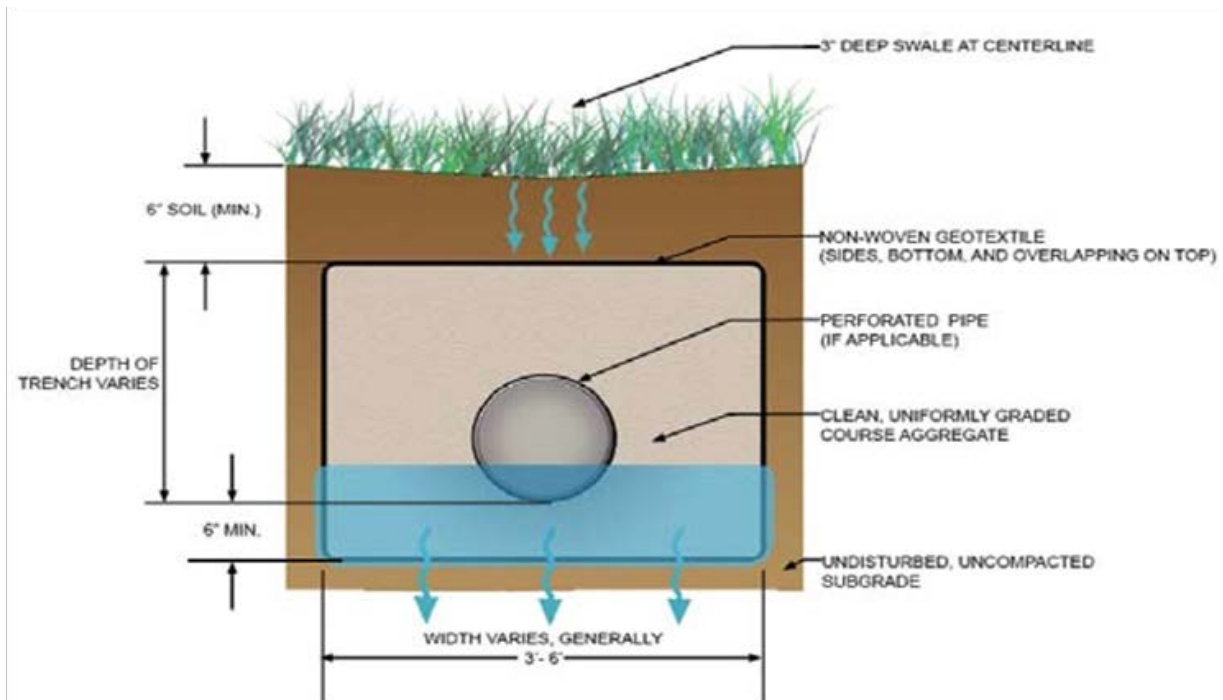


Figure 8 Infiltration trench cross section

- Water quality inlets or catch basins with sumps are required for all surface inlets to prevent clogging of the infiltration trench with sediment and debris. Parking lot and street runoff must be treated by vegetated filter strips, bioretention, or water quality

trench provided that adequate soil media is provided above the trench (a minimum of three feet).

- While most infiltration trenches areas consist of an aggregate storage bed, alternative subsurface storage products

may also be employed. These include a variety of proprietary, interlocking plastic units that contain much greater storage capacity than aggregate, though at an increased cost.

Additional design considerations for subsurface infiltration beds

- The infiltration bed must be wrapped in nonwoven geotextile filter fabric to prevent migration of the subsoils into the stone voids (bottom, top, and sides).

- A water quality inlet or catch basin with sump is required for all surface inlets to avoid standing water for periods greater than 72 hours.
- Perforated pipes along the bottom of the bed can be used to evenly distribute runoff over the entire bed bottom. Continuously perforated pipes should connect structures (such as cleanouts and inlet boxes). Pipes should lay flat along the bed bottom to

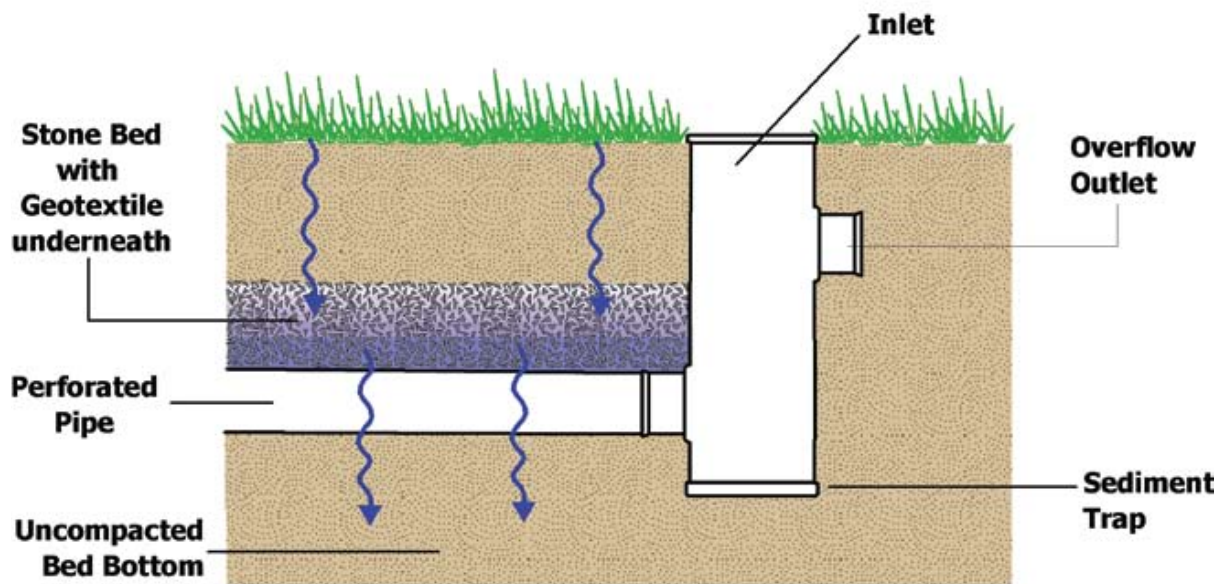


Figure 9 Schematic of subsurface infiltration bed cross section

- The subsurface infiltration bed (**Figure 9**) is typically comprised of a 12 to 36-inch section of aggregate, such as AASHTO No.3, which ranges from one to two inches in gradation. Depending on local aggregate availability, both larger and smaller size aggregate has been used. The critical requirements are that the aggregate be uniformly-graded, clean-washed, and contain at least 40 percent void space. The depth of the bed is a function of stormwater storage requirements, frost depth considerations, and site grading. Infiltration beds are typically sized to mitigate the increased runoff volume from a two-year design storm.

provide for uniform distribution of water. Depending on size, these pipes may provide additional storage volume.

- Cleanouts or inlets should be installed at a few locations within the bed at appropriate intervals to allow access to the perforated piping network and storage media.
- Grading of adjacent contributing areas should be mildly sloped between one percent and three percent to facilitate drainage.
- In areas with poorly-draining soils, subsurface infiltration areas may be

designed to slowly discharge to adjacent wetlands or bioretention areas.

- The subsurface bed and overflow may be designed and evaluated in the same manner as a detention basin to demonstrate the mitigation of peak flow rates. In this manner, detention basins may be eliminated or significantly reduced in size.
- During construction, the excavated bed may serve as a temporary sediment basin or trap, which can reduce overall site disturbance. The bed should be excavated to at least one foot above the final bed bottom elevation for use as a temporary sediment trap or basin. Following construction and site stabilization, sediment should be removed and final grades established.

Incorporating a Safety Factor into Infiltration BMP Design

For the purposes of site suitability, areas with tested soil infiltration rates as low as 0.1 inches per hour may be used for infiltration BMPs. However, in the design of these BMPs and the sizing of the BMP, the designer should incorporate a safety factor. Safety factors between 1 (no adjustment) and 10 have been used in the design of stormwater infiltration systems, with a factor of two being used in most cases. Therefore a measured infiltration rate of 0.5 inches per hour should generally be considered as a rate of 0.25 inches per hour in design. See the Soil Infiltration Protocol Index in Appendix E for guidance on performing infiltration tests.

Modeling Infiltration Systems

As discussed in the Post-Construction Stormwater Management Chapter of Technical Standards, infiltration systems can be modeled similarly to traditional detention basins. The marked difference with modeling infiltration systems is the inclusion of the infiltration rate, which can be considered as another outlet. For modeling purposes, it is sometimes useful to develop infiltration rates that vary (based on the infiltration area provided as the system fills with runoff) for inclusion in the stage-storage-discharge table.

	Volume	Peak Rate	Water Quality
Infiltration Berms	Can be used to reduce the volume of runoff and provide infiltration in accordance with LID stormwater goals. The volume reduction potential of berms is a function of the storage provided (surface and subsurface, if applicable) and the infiltration that will occur.	Can be used at mitigating peak rates for larger storms through two mechanisms: providing storage for detention (and on-going infiltration) behind them and, in some cases, elongating the flow path through a site, thereby extending the time of concentration.	Can be expected to achieve pollutant removals between 30% - 70% and in the upper ranges especially for smaller storms.
Infiltration Basins	Provides an excellent means of capturing and infiltrating runoff. Provides runoff volume storage during storm events, while the undisturbed vegetated surface allows infiltration of runoff into the underlying soil mantle. Can be sized to meet the entire channel protection volume recommended by LID criteria or sized smaller and used in conjunction with other LID practices.	Provides effective management of peak rates to meet the LID design criteria. The basin acts as a storage reservoir during large storm events, even while runoff infiltrates. Outlet structures can be designed to manage peak rates with the use of weir and orifice controls and systems can be designed to manage peak rates for storms up to and including the 100-year storm.	Effective in reducing total suspended solids, nutrients, metals, and oil and grease. Both the vegetative surface and the underlying soils allow pollutant filtration. When designed to capture and infiltrate runoff volumes from small storm events, they provide very high pollutant reductions.
Infiltration Trenches	Provides an excellent means of capturing and infiltrating runoff from small storms. The trench provides runoff volume storage and infiltration during small storm events, while the perforated pipe allows runoff conveyance during large design storms or more extreme events.	Provides limited management of peak rates. The trench may provide more peak rate benefit for small frequent storms, rather than large design storms. Because infiltration trenches help to provide a decentralized approach to stormwater management, they may benefit peak rate mitigation by contributing to increased stormwater travel time.	Effective in reducing total suspended solids, metals, and oil and grease. They provide very high pollutant reductions when designed to capture the volume from small storms because there is little, if any, discharge of runoff carrying the highest pollutant loads. Provide limited treatment of dissolved pollutants, such as nitrates.
Dry Wells	Dry wells are typically designed to capture and infiltrate runoff volumes from small storm events from roof area.	Provides limited management of peak rates. Provides some peak rate benefit by reducing direct connections of impervious area to storm sewer collection systems, and by contributing to increased stormwater travel time.	Effective at capturing and infiltrating the water quality volume or “first flush”. Provides very high pollutant reductions because there is little, if any, discharge of “first flush” runoff, which carries the highest pollutant loads.
Subsurface Infiltration	Provides effective management of volume. A well-designed system is capable of infiltrating the majority of small frequent storms on an annual basis.	Can be designed to manage peak rates by utilizing the stormwater storage bed, including simple rate controls such as weirs and orifices in the overflow control structure. Capable of infiltrating the majority of small frequent storms, while managing peak rates for designs storms up to the 100-year frequency storm.	Very effective at reducing total suspended solids, phosphorus, metals, and oil and grease. Because many systems are designed to capture and infiltrate small, frequent storms, they provide effective water quality control by reducing pollutants associated with the “first-flush”.

Table 2 Stormwater Functions by Infiltration BMP Type

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Infiltration practices can provide excellent benefits for managing volume and water quality protection. While some BMPs are better than others in managing peak rates, all infiltration BMPs provide some peak rate benefit by removing direct connections from impervious surfaces and increasing time of travel. **Table 2** provides a summary of the stormwater functions by BMP type.

Calculations for Infiltration BMPs

Infiltration area

The minimum infiltration area should be based on the following (according to the loading ratio):

$$\text{Minimum Surface Infiltration Area} = [\text{Contributing impervious area}] / 5^{\#}$$

- May be increased depending on soil infiltration capacity (e.g., where soils are Type A or rapidly draining). For carbonate, geologic areas may be decreased to three.

This actual infiltration area (**Table 3**) should be greater than the minimum infiltration area.

Protecting Groundwater Quality

The protection of groundwater quality is of utmost importance in any Indiana watershed. The potential to contaminate groundwater by infiltrating stormwater in properly designed and constructed BMPs with proper pretreatment is low.

Numerous studies have shown that stormwater infiltration BMPs have a minor risk of contaminating either groundwater or soil. The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency summarized in “Potential Groundwater Contamination from Intentional and Non-intentional Stormwater Infiltration” (Pitt et al., 1994) the potential of pollutants to contaminate groundwater as either low, low/moderate, moderate, or high. Of the 25 physical pollutants listed, one has a “high” potential (chloride), and two have “moderate” potential (fluoranthene and pyrene) for polluting groundwater through the use of shallow infiltration systems with some sediment pretreatment.

While chloride can be found in significant quantities due to winter salting, relatively high concentrations are generally safe for both humans and aquatic biota. Pentachlorophenol, cadmium, zinc, chromium, lead, and all the pesticides listed are classified as having a “low” contamination potential. Even nitrate, which is soluble and mobile, is only given a “low/moderate” potential.

BMP	Infiltration Area Definition
Infiltration Berms	Total Infiltration Area (Ponding Area) = Length of Berm * Average Width of ponding behind berm.
Infiltration Basin	The Infiltration Area is the bottom area of the basin. This is the area to be considered when evaluating the Loading Ratio to the Infiltration basin.
Infiltration Trench	The Infiltration Area is the bottom area of the trench. This is the area to be considered when evaluating the Loading Rate to the Infiltration basin. [Length of Trench] x [Width of Trench] = Infiltration Area (Bottom Area) Some runoff reduction recognition can be taken for the side area that is frequently inundated, as appropriate.
Dry Well	A dry well may consider both bottom and side (lateral) infiltration according to design.
Subsurface Infiltration	The Infiltration Area is the bottom area of the bed. Some runoff reduction recognition can be taken for the side area that is frequently inundated as appropriate.

Table 3 Definition of Infiltration Area for Infiltration BMPs

Volume reduction

Infiltration BMPs can be used to reduce the volume of runoff and provide infiltration in accordance with LID stormwater goals. The volume reduction potential is a function of the storage provided (surface and subsurface, if applicable) and the infiltration that will occur. If a perforated pipe or double-walled underdrain is used in the design that discharges directly to surface water, the volume of water discharged must be subtracted from the volume reduction calculation.

Total Volume Reduced = Surface Storage Volume (if applicable) + Subsurface Volume (if applicable) + Infiltration Volume

Where,

Surface storage volume (ft³) = Average bed area * (ft²) x maximum design water depth (ft)

Subsurface storage/Infiltration bed volume (ft³) = Infiltration area (ft²) * Depth of underdrain material (ft) * Void ratio of storage material

**Depth is the depth of the water stored during a storm event, depending on the drainage area, conveyance to the bed, and outlet control.*

Estimated Infiltration Volume (CF) = [Bed bottom area (ft²)] * [Infiltration design rate (in/hr)] * [Infiltration period[#] (hr)] / 12 inches/ft.

- Infiltration Period is the time during the storm event when bed is receiving runoff and capable of infiltration at the design rate (typically 6 to 12 hours).

Peak rate mitigation

The amount of peak rate control provided by infiltration practices is dependent on the cumulative runoff volume removed by all the infiltration practices applied to a site. Where sufficient infiltration is provided to control the runoff volume from any size storm, the corresponding peak runoff rate will also be restored and the peak runoff rate from larger, less frequent storms will be reduced. Where possible, reducing peak rate of runoff through volume

control is generally more effective than fixed rate controls.

Some infiltration BMPs (e.g., infiltration basins) can manage peak rates better than others (e.g., infiltration berms). However, all infiltration BMPs provide some peak rate benefit (e.g., by removing direct connections from impervious surfaces and increasing time of travel).

Water quality improvement

Infiltration practices are effective in reducing pollutants such as total suspended solids, nutrients, metals, oil and grease. The vegetative surface and the underlying soils allow pollutant filtration and studies have shown that pollutants typically are bound to the soils and do not migrate deeply below the surface (i.e. greater than 30-inches). Infiltration practices should be used as part of a treatment train when capturing runoff from storm-water hot spots, such as industrial parking lots, due to the increased level of pollutants. Typical ranges of pollutant reduction efficiencies for infiltration practices are based on available literature data and listed below:

TSS – 75 to 90 percent
TP – 60 to 75 percent
TN – 55 to 70 percent
NO₃ – 30 percent

Construction Guidelines

The following guidelines apply for all infiltration BMPs.

- **Do not compact soil infiltration beds during construction.** Prohibit all heavy equipment from the infiltration area and absolutely minimize all other traffic. Equipment should be limited to vehicles that will cause the least compaction, such as low ground pressure (maximum four pounds per square inch) tracked vehicles. Areas for Infiltration should be clearly marked before any site work begins to avoid soil disturbance and compaction during construction.
- Protect the infiltration area from sediment by ensuring erosion and sediment control

practices are implemented until the surrounding site is completely stabilized. Methods to prevent sediment from washing into BMPs should be clearly shown on plans. Where geotextile is used as a bed bottom liner, this should be extended several feet beyond the bed and folded over the edge to protect from sediment wash into the bed during construction, and then trimmed.

- Runoff from construction areas should never be allowed to drain to infiltration BMPs. This can usually be accomplished by diversion berms and immediate vegetative stabilization. The infiltration area may be used as a temporary sediment trap or basin during earlier stages of construction. However, if an infiltration area is also to be utilized as a temporary sediment basin, excavation should be limited to within one foot of the final bottom invert of the infiltration BMP to prevent clogging and compacting the soil horizon, and final grade removed when the contributing site is fully stabilized.
- All infiltration BMPs should be finalized at the end of the construction process, when upstream soil areas have a dense vegetative cover. In addition, do not remove inlet protection or other erosion and sediment control measures until site is fully stabilized. Any sediment which enters inlets during construction is to be removed within 24 hours.
- Provide thorough construction oversight. Long-term performance of infiltration BMPs is dependent on the care taken during construction. Generally, plans and specifications must be followed precisely. The designer is encouraged to meet with the contractor to review the plans and construction sequence prior to construction, and to inspect the construction at regular intervals and prior to final acceptance of the BMP.
- Provide quality control of materials. As with all BMPs, the final product is only as

good as the materials and workmanship that went into it. The designer is encouraged to review and approve materials and workmanship, especially as related to aggregates, geotextiles, soil and topsoil, and vegetative materials.

Additional Construction Guidelines for Infiltration Berms

The following is a typical construction sequence for an infiltration berm without a subsurface infiltration trench, though alterations will be necessary depending on design variations.

- Lightly scarify (by hand) the soil in the area of the proposed berm before delivering soil to site (if required). Heavy equipment should not be used within the berm area.
- Bring in fill material to make up the major portion of the berm (as necessary) as soon as subgrade preparation is complete in order to avoid accumulation of debris. Soil should be added in eight-inch lifts and compacted after each addition according to design specifications. The slope and shape of the berm should be graded out as soil is added.
- Protect the surface ponding area at the base of the berm from compaction. If compaction of this area does occur, scarify soil to a depth of at least 8 inches.
- After allowing for settlement, complete final grading within two inches of proposed design elevations. Tamp soil down lightly and smooth sides of the berm. The crest and base of the berm should be level along the contour.
- Seed and plant berm with turf, meadow plants, shrubs or trees, as desired. Water vegetation at the end of each day for two weeks after planting is completed. (Recommended Plant List for BMPs Appendix).

- Mulch planted and disturbed areas with compost to prevent erosion while plants become established.

Additional Construction Guidelines for Subsurface Infiltration

- Where erosion of subgrade has caused accumulation of fine materials and/or surface ponding, this material should be removed with light equipment and the underlying soils scarified to a minimum depth of six inches with a York rake (or equivalent) and light tractor. All fine grading should be done by hand. All bed bottoms are to be at level grade.
- Earthen berms (if used) between infiltration beds should be left in place during excavation.
- Geotextile and bed aggregate should be placed immediately after approval of subgrade preparation and installation of structures. Adjacent strips of geotextile should overlap a minimum of 18 inches, and should also be secured at least four feet outside of the bed to prevent any runoff or sediment from entering the storage bed. This edge strip should remain in place until storage media is placed in the bed.
- Clean washed, uniformly graded aggregate should be placed in the bed in maximum eight-inch lifts. Each layer should be lightly compacted, with construction equipment kept off the bed bottom as much as possible.
- Once bed aggregate has been installed, geotextile can be folded over the top of the aggregate bed. Additional geotextile should be placed as needed to provide a minimum overlap of 18 inches between adjacent geotextile strips.
- Place approved engineered soil media over infiltration bed in maximum six-inch lifts.
- Seed and stabilize topsoil.

Additional Construction Guidelines for Infiltration Trenches

- Excavate infiltration trench bottom to a uniform, level uncompacted subgrade free from rocks and debris. Do NOT compact subgrade.
- Place nonwoven geotextile along bottom and sides of trench. Nonwoven geotextile rolls should overlap by a minimum of 16 inches within the trench. Fold back and secure excess geotextile during stone placement.
- Install upstream and downstream control structures, cleanouts, observation wells, etc.
- Place uniformly graded, clean-washed aggregate in 8-inch lifts, lightly compacting between lifts.
- Install continuously perforated pipe as indicated on plans. Backfill with uniformly graded, clean-washed aggregate in 8-inch lifts, lightly compacting between lifts.
- Fold and secure nonwoven geotextile over infiltration trench, with minimum overlap of 16 inches.
- If vegetated, place a minimum six-inch lift of approved topsoil over infiltration trench, as indicated on plans.
- Seed and stabilize topsoil.

Additional Construction Guidelines for Infiltration Basins

- If necessary, excavate infiltration basin bottom to provide a level and uncompacted subgrade free from rocks and debris. Never compact subgrade.
- Install outlet control structures.
- Seed and stabilize topsoil (Planting with native species is preferred).

Additional Construction Guidelines

Causes of Infiltration BMP Failure

With respect to stormwater infiltration BMPs, the result of “failure” is a reduction in the volume of runoff anticipated or the discharge of stormwater with excessive levels of some pollutants. Where the system includes built structures, such as porous pavements, failure may include loss of structural integrity for the wearing surface, whereas the infiltration function may continue uncompromised. For infiltration systems with vegetated surfaces, such as play fields or rain gardens, failure may include the inability to support surface vegetation, caused by too much or too little water.

The primary causes of reduced performances are:

- Poor construction techniques, especially soil compaction/smearing, which results in significantly reduced infiltration rates.
- A lack of site soil stabilization prior to the BMP receiving runoff, which greatly increases the potential for sediment clogging from contiguous land surfaces.
- Inadequate pretreatment, especially of sediment-laden runoff, which can cause a gradual reduction of infiltration rates.
- Lack of proper maintenance (erosion repair, re-vegetation, removal of detritus, catch basin cleaning, vacuuming of pervious pavement, etc.), which can reduce the longevity of infiltration BMPs.
- Inadequate design
- Inappropriate use of geotextile

Infiltration systems should always be designed such that failure of the infiltration component does not completely eliminate the peak rate attenuation capability of the BMP. Because infiltration BMPs are designed to infiltrate small, frequent storms, the loss or reduction of this capability may not significantly impact the storage and peak rate mitigation of the BMP during extreme events.

for Dry Wells

- Excavate dry well bottom to a uniform, level uncompacted subgrade, free from rocks and debris. Do NOT compact

subgrade. To the greatest extent possible, excavation should be performed with the lightest practical equipment. Excavation equipment should be placed outside the limits of the dry well.

- Completely wrap dry well with nonwoven geotextile. If sediment and/or debris have accumulated in dry well bottom, remove prior to geotextile placement. Geotextile rolls should overlap by a minimum of 18-24 inches within the trench. Fold back and secure excess geotextile during stone placement.
- Install continuously perforated pipe, observation wells, and all other dry well structures. Connect roof leaders to structures as indicated on plans.
- Place uniformly graded, clean-washed aggregate in 6-inch lifts, between lifts.
- Fold and secure nonwoven geotextile over trench, with minimum overlap of 12 inches.
- Place 12-inch lift of approved topsoil over trench, as indicated on plans.
- Seed and stabilize topsoil.
- Connect surcharge pipe to roof leader and position over splashboard.

Maintenance

There are a few general maintenance practices that should be followed for all infiltration BMPs. These include:

- All catch basins and inlets should be inspected and cleaned at least twice per year.
- The overlying vegetation of subsurface infiltration features should be maintained in good condition, and any bare spots re-vegetated as soon as possible.

- Vehicular access on subsurface infiltration areas should be prohibited (unless designed to allow vehicles), and care should be taken to avoid excessive compaction by mowers.

Additional Maintenance Information for Infiltration Berms

Infiltration berms have low to moderate maintenance requirements, depending on the design. Unless otherwise noted, the following maintenance actions are recommended on an as-needed basis.

Infiltration berms

- Regularly inspect to ensure they are infiltrating; monitor drawdown time after major storm events (total drawdown of the system should not exceed 72 hours; surface drawdown should not exceed 48 hours).
- Inspect any structural components, such as inlet structures, to ensure proper functionality
- If planted in turf grass, maintain by mowing (maintain two to four-inch height); other vegetation will require less maintenance; trees and shrubs may require annual mulching, while meadow planting requires annual mowing and clippings removal
- Avoid running heavy equipment over the infiltration area at the base of the berms; the crest of the berm may be used as access for heavy equipment when necessary to limit disturbance.
- Do not apply pesticides or fertilizers in and around infiltration structures
- Routinely remove accumulated trash and debris
- Remove invasive plants as needed
- Inspect for signs of flow channelization and/or erosion; restore level spreading

immediately after deficiencies are observed (monthly)

Diversion berms

- Regularly inspect for erosion or other failures (monthly)
- Regularly inspect structural components to ensure functionality
- Maintain turf grass and other vegetation by mowing and re-mulching
- Do not apply pesticides or fertilizers where stormwater will be conveyed
- Remove invasive plants as needed
- Routinely remove accumulated trash and debris

Additional Maintenance Information for Infiltration Basins

- Inspect the basin after major storm events and make sure that runoff drains down within 72 hours. Mosquitoes should not be a problem if the water drains in 72 hours. Mosquitoes require a considerably long breeding period with relatively static water levels.
- Inspect for accumulation of sediment, damage to outlet control structures, erosion control measures, signs of water contamination/spills, and slope stability in the berms.
- Mow only as appropriate for vegetative cover species.
- Remove accumulated sediment from the sediment pretreatment device/forebay as needed. Inspect pretreatment forebay at least one time per year.
- If the infiltration basin bottom becomes clogged, scrape bottom and remove sediment and restore original cross section. Properly dispose of sediment.

Additional Maintenance Information for Dry Wells

- Inspect dry wells at least four times a year, as well as after every storm exceeding one inch.
- Remove sediment, debris/trash, and any other waste material from the dry well and dispose of at a suitable disposal/recycling site and in compliance with local, state, and federal waste regulations.
- Evaluate the drain-down time of the dry well to ensure the maximum time of 72 hours is not being exceeded. If drain down time exceeds the maximum, drain the dry well via pumping and clean out perforated piping, if included. If slow drainage persists, the system may need replacing.
- Regularly clean out gutters and ensure proper connections which will facilitate the effectiveness of the dry well.
- Replace filter screen that intercepts roof runoff as necessary.
- If an intermediate sump box exists, clean it out at least once per year.

summary of both construction and maintenance costs. This information should be strictly as guidance. More detailed cost information should be discerned for the specific site before assessing the applicability of the BMP.

	Construction Costs	Maintenance Costs
Dry well*	\$4-9/ft ³	5-10% of capital costs
Infiltration basin	Varies depending on excavation, plantings, and pipe configuration.	Disposal costs
Infiltration trench**	\$20-30/ ft ³	5-10% of capital costs
Subsurface infiltration bed	\$13/ ft ³	

Table 4 Summary of construction and maintenance costs for infiltration BMPs

*2003 dollars.

**City of Portland. 2006 dollars.

Winter Considerations

Most infiltration practices are typically located below the frost line and continue to function effectively throughout the winter. It is imperative to prevent salt, sand, cinder, and any other deicers from clogging the surface area of infiltration practices by avoiding piling snow in these areas. Sand and cinder deicers could clog infiltration devices and soluble deicers, such as salt, can damage the health of vegetation.

Cost

The construction cost of many infiltration BMPs can vary greatly depending on the configuration, location, site conditions, etc. Following is a

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Infiltration Berms

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
➤ Was the Soil Infiltration Testing Protocol followed?*	--				
Appropriate areas of the site evaluated?	--				
Infiltration rates measured? <i>Min. infiltration rate: 0.1 in/hr</i> <i>Max. infiltration rate: 10in/hr</i>	8				
Was the Infiltration BMP followed?	--				
➤ Two-foot separation from bedrock/SHWT?	2,8				
Soil permeability acceptable?	8				
Natural, uncompacted soils?	9				
Excavation in berm areas minimized?	9				
Loading ratio considered? ➤ <i>Max. impervious drainage area loading ratio – 5:1</i> ➤ <i>Max. total drainage area loading ratio – 8:1</i> ➤ <i>Max. drainage area: 5 acres</i>	10				
Drawdown time less than 72 hours?	10				
Erosion and Sedimentation control?	--				
Feasible construction process and sequence?	20				
Entering flow velocities non-erosive?	--				
Berm height 6 to 24 inches?	11				
Berm designed for stability (temporary and permanent)?	--				
Acceptable berm side slopes? <i>Max. side slopes: 2:1 (H:V)</i>	12				
Are berm materials resistant to erosion?	--				
Located level, along contour?	11				
Acceptable soil for plants specified?	11				
Appropriate plants selected?	10				
Maintenance accounted for and plan provided?	23				

➤ *Denotes Minimum Design Considerations*

* *In general, the protocol should be followed as much as possible (although there is more flexibility for berms than for other BMPs such as pervious pavement and subsurface infiltration that rely almost entirely on infiltration).*

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Infiltration Trenches, Infiltration Basins, Dry Wells, and Subsurface Infiltration Beds

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
➤ Was the Soil Infiltration Testing Protocol followed?	--				
Appropriate areas of the site evaluated?	--				
Infiltration rates measured? <i>Min. infiltration rate: 0.1 in/hr</i> <i>Max. infiltration rate: 10in/hr</i>	8				
Was the Infiltration BMP followed?	--				
➤ Two-foot separation between the bed bottom and bedrock/ SHWT?	2,8				
Soil permeability acceptable?	8				
If not, appropriate underdrain provided?	--				
Adequate separations from wells, structures, etc.? ➤ <i>Minimum Setback Distances:</i> o <i>Property Line – 10 feet</i> o <i>Building Foundation – 10 feet</i> o <i>Private Well – 50 feet</i> o <i>Public Water Supply Well – 50 feet</i> o <i>Septic System Drainfield – 100 feet</i>	9				
Natural, uncompacted soils?	9				
➤ Level infiltration area (e.g., trench bottom, bed bottom)?	9				
Excavation in infiltration area minimized?	9				
➤ Hotspots/pre-treatment considered?	9				
Loading ratio below 5:1? ➤ <i>Max. impervious drainage area loading ratio – 5:1</i> ➤ <i>Max. total drainage area loading ratio – 8:1</i> ➤ <i>Max. drainage area:</i> o <i>Dry Well – 1 acre</i> o <i>Infiltration Basin – 10 acres</i> o <i>Infiltration Trench – 2 acres</i> o <i>Subsurface Infiltration Bed – 5 acres</i>	10				
➤ Storage depth limited to two feet?	10				
Drawdown time less than 72 hours?	10,24				
Positive overflow from system?	2,7, 10,12				
Erosion and sedimentation control?	14,19, 20				
Feasible construction process and sequence?	21,22				
Geotextile specified?	10,12				

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Pretreatment provided?	4,9				
Clean, washed, open-graded aggregate specified?	10,12, 15				
Stable inflows provided (infiltration basin)?	--				
Appropriate perforated pipe, if applicable?	--				
Appropriate plants selected, if applicable?	10				
Observation well/clean out provided, if applicable?	13,15				
Maintenance accounted for and plan provided?	22-24				
Additional Design Considerations <i>Infiltration Basins</i> - o Berms – Min. 3:1 slope; Min. top width – 2 feet <i>Infiltration Trenches</i> - o Soil media for tree planting – Min. of 3 feet	--				

➤ Denotes Minimum Design Considerations

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BMP Fact Sheet

LEVEL SPREADERS

Level spreaders promote infiltration and improve water quality by evenly distributing flows over a stabilized, vegetated surface. This allows for better infiltration and treatment. There are several different types of level spreaders. Examples include concrete sills, earthen berms, and level perforated pipes.



Figure 1 Level spreader, Charlotte, NC (NC State University)

Applications			Stormwater Quantity Functions
Residential	Yes	Volume	Low
Commercial	Yes	Groundwater Recharge	Low
Ultra Urban	No	Peak Rate	Low
Industrial	Yes	Stormwater Quality Functions	
Retrofit	Yes	TSS	Low
Highway/Road	Yes	TP	Low
Recreational	Yes	NO ₃	Low
		Temperature	Low

Additional Considerations	
Cost	Low
Maintenance	Low
Winter Performance	High

Variations (optional)

- Inflow
- Outflow

Key Design Features

- Ultimate outlet from structural BMPs
- Roof downspout connections (roof area > 500 ft²)
- Inlet connections (impervious area > 500 ft²)
- Inflow to structural BMP, such as a filter strip, infiltration basin, or vegetated swale

Site Factors

- Water table to bedrock depth: N/A
- Soils: Permeability not critical but should be considered for erodibility
- Slope: 1 to 8 percent max
- Potential hotspots: Yes
- Maximum drainage area: Varies (five acres maximum)

Benefits

- Low Cost
- Wide applicability
- Ability to work with other BMPs in a treatment train
- Avoids concentrated dischargers and their associated potential erosion

Limitations

- Low stormwater benefits by itself
- Careful design and construction required to function properly

Description and Function

Level spreaders are designed to disperse concentrated stormwater flows and are often used with other BMPs over a wide enough area to prevent erosion. Erosion can undermine a BMP, and can be a significant source of sediment pollution to streams and other natural water bodies. By dispersing flows, level spreaders assist vegetated BMPs in pollutant removal via filtration, infiltration, absorption, adsorption, and volatilization. Level spreaders also reduce the impact of a stormwater outlet to a receiving water body.

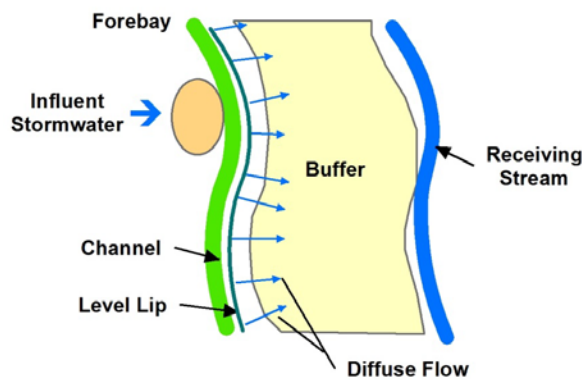


Figure 2 Level spreader located between a sediment forebay and a buffer
Source: NCSU-BAE

Variations

Inflow

Inflow level spreaders are meant to evenly distribute flow entering into another structural BMP, such as a filter strip, infiltration basin, or vegetated swale. Examples of this type of level spreader include concrete sills and earthen berms.

Outflow

Outflow level spreaders are intended to reduce the erosive force of high flows while at the same time enhancing natural infiltration opportunities. Examples of this second type include earthen berms and a level, perforated pipe in a shallow aggregate trench (Figure 3). In this example, the flow is from the left (from an outlet control device from another BMP) and flow reaches the spreader via the solid pipe.

Applications

Level spreaders can be used in a variety of applications, from residential areas to highway/road projects. The primary requirement is that there must be adequate area with an acceptable slope to receive the outflow from the spreader. In ultra-urban settings, there is typically not adequate space for level spreaders.

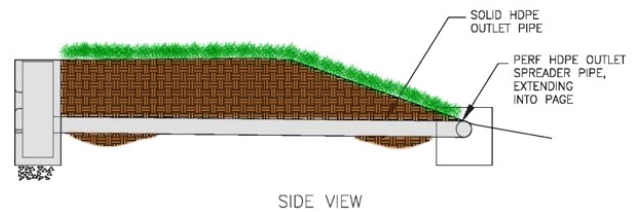


Figure 3 A level spreader with a perforated pipe

Figure 4, a close-up of Figure 3, shows an outlet pipe from an upstream BMP that serves as an inflow to the level spreader.

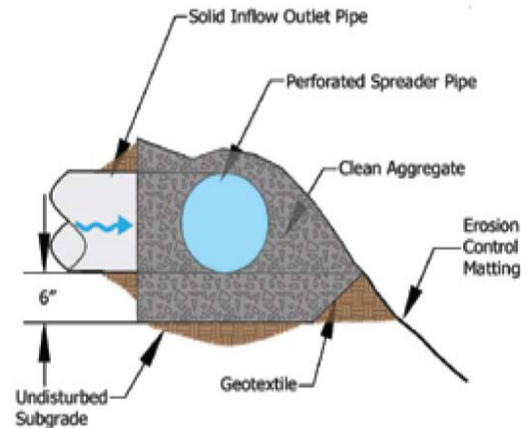


Figure 4 Level spreader with inflow pipe

Design Considerations

Level spreaders are considered a permanent part of a site's stormwater management system. Therefore, uphill development should be stabilized before any dispersing flow techniques are installed. If the level spreader is used as an erosion and sedimentation control measure, it must be reconfigured (flush perforated pipe, clean out all sediment) to its

original state before use as a permanent stormwater feature.

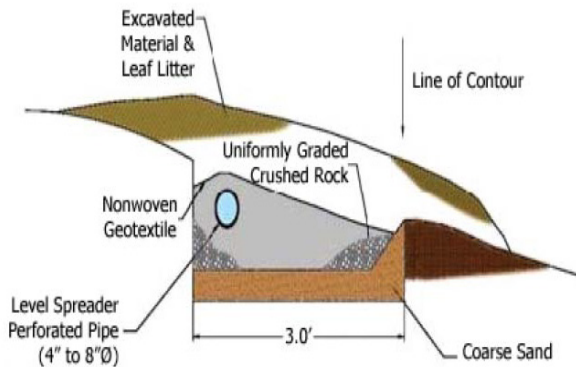


Figure 5 Level spreader with geotextile surrounding the aggregate helping to create a sloped area

All contributing stormwater elements (infiltration beds, inlets, outlet control structures, pipes, etc) should be installed first.

1. Provide as many outfalls as possible and avoid concentrating stormwater. This can reduce or even eliminate the need for engineered devices to provide even distribution of flow.
2. Level spreaders are not applicable in areas with easily erodible soils and/or little vegetation. The slope below the level spreader should be at a maximum eight percent in the direction of flow to discourage channelization. More gentle slopes (e.g., as low as one percent) are also acceptable.
3. The minimum length of flow after the level spreader (of the receiving area) should be 15 feet.
4. For design considerations of earthen berm level spreaders, refer to the Infiltration BMP.
5. Level spreaders should not be constructed in uncompacted fill. Undisturbed virgin soil and compacted fill is much more resistant to erosion and settlement than uncompacted fill.
6. Most variations of level spreaders should not be used alone for sediment removal. Significant sediment deposits in a level

spreader will render it ineffective. A level spreader may be protected by adding a forebay to remove sediment from the influent. This can also make sediment cleanout easier.

7. Perforated pipe used in a level spreader may range in size from 4-12 inches in diameter. The pipe is typically laid in an aggregate envelope, the thickness of which is left to the discretion of the engineer. A deeper trench will provide additional volume reduction and should be included in such calculations (see Infiltration BMP). A layer of nonwoven geotextile filter fabric separates the aggregate from the adjacent soil layers, preventing migration of fines into the trench.
8. The length of level spreaders is primarily a function of the calculated influent flow rate. The level spreader should be long enough to freely discharge the desired flow rate. At a minimum, the desired flow rate should be that resulting from a 10-year design storm. This flow rate should be safely diffused without the threat of failure (i.e., creation of erosion, gullies, or rills). Diffusion of the storms greater than the 10-year storm is possible only if space permits. Generally, level spreaders should have a minimum length of 10 feet and a maximum length of 200 feet.
9. Conventional level spreaders designed to diffuse all flow rates should be sized based on the following:
 - For grass or thick ground cover vegetation:
 - 13 linear feet of level spreader for every one cubic feet per second (cfs) of flow
 - Slopes of eight percent or less from level spreader to toe of slope
 - For forested areas with little or no ground cover vegetation:
 - 100 linear feet of level spreader for every one cfs of flow
 - Slopes of six percent or less from level spreader to toe of slope

For slopes up to 15 percent for forested areas and grass or thick ground cover, level spreaders may be installed in series. The above recommended lengths should be followed.

10. The length of a perforated pipe level spreader may be further refined by determining the discharge per linear foot of pipe. A level spreader pipe should safely discharge in a distributed manner at the same rate of inflow, or less. If the number of perforations per linear foot (based on pipe diameter) and average head above the perforations are known, then the flow can be determined by the following equation:

$$L = Q_p / Q_L$$

Where:

L = length of level spreader pipe (ft.)
 Q_p = design inflow for level spreader (cfs)
 Q_L = level spreader discharge per length (cfs/ft)

AND

$$Q_L = Q_o * N$$

Where:

Q_L = level spreader discharge per length (cfs/ft)
 Q_o = perforation discharge rate (cfs)
 N = number of perforations per length of pipe, provided by manufacturer based on pipe diameter (Number/ft)

AND

$$Q_o = C_d * A * \sqrt{2gH}$$

Where:

Q_o = perforation discharge rate (cfs)
 C_d = Coefficient of discharge (typically 0.60)
 A = Cross sectional area of one perforation (ft²)
 g = acceleration due to gravity, 32.2 ft./sec²
 H = head, average height of water above perforation (ft.) (provided by manufacturer)

11. Flows may bypass a level spreader in a variety of ways, including an overflow

structure or upturned ends of pipe. Cleanouts/overflow structures with open grates can also be installed along longer lengths of perforated pipe. Bypass may be used to protect the level spreader from flows above a particular design storm.

12. Erosion control matting, compost blanketing, or riprap on top of filter fabric are recommended immediately downhill and along the entire length of the level spreader, particularly in areas that are unstable or have been recently disturbed by construction activities. Generally, low flows that are diffused by a level spreader do not require additional stabilization on an already stabilized and vegetated slope.

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Volume reduction

In general, level spreaders do not substantially reduce runoff volume. However, if level spreaders are designed similarly to infiltration trenches, a volume reduction can be achieved. Furthermore, for outflow level spreaders, the amount of volume reduction will depend on the length of level spreader, the density of receiving vegetation, the downhill length and slope, the soil type of the receiving area, and the design runoff. Large areas with heavy, dense vegetation will absorb most flows, while barren or compacted areas will absorb limited runoff.

Peak rate mitigation

Level spreaders will not substantially decrease the overall discharge rate from a site.

Water quality improvement

While level spreaders are low in water quality pollutant removal, they are often an important BMP used in concert with other BMPs. For example, level spreaders can work effectively (and improve performance) with related BMPs such as filter strips and buffers. In addition, level spreaders can avoid erosion problems associated with concentrated discharges.

Construction Guidelines

The condition of the area downhill of a level spreader must be considered prior to installation. For instance, the slope, density and condition of vegetation, natural topography, and length (in the direction of flow) will all impact the effectiveness of a distributed flow measure. Areas immediately downhill from a level spreader may need to be stabilized, especially if they have been recently disturbed. Erosion control matting, compost blanketing, and/or riprap are the recommended measures for temporary and permanent downhill stabilization. Manufacturer's specifications should be followed for the chosen stabilization measure.

Maintenance

Compared with other BMPs, level spreaders require only minimal maintenance efforts, many of which may overlap with standard landscaping demands. The following recommendations represent the minimum routine inspection maintenance effort for level spreaders:

Once a month and after every heavy rainfall (greater than two inches):

1. Inspect the diverter box and clean and make repairs. Look for clogged inlet or outlet pipes and trash or debris in the box.
2. Inspect the forebay and level spreader. Clean and make repairs. Look for:
 - Sediment in forebay and along level spreader lip,
 - Trash and/or leaf buildup,
 - Scour, undercutting of level spreader,
 - Settlement of level spreader structure (no longer level; you see silt downhill below level spreader),
 - Fallen trees on level spreader, and
 - Stone from below the level spreader lip washing downhill.
3. Inspect the filter strip and the bypass swale and make repairs as needed. Look for:

- Damaged turf reinforcement or riprap rolling downhill,
- Erosion within the buffer or swale, and
- Gullies or sediment flows from concentrated flows downhill of level spreader,

Once a year:

1. Remove any weeds or shrubs growing on level spreader or in swale.

Cost

Level spreaders are relatively inexpensive and easy to construct. There are various types of level spreaders, so costs will vary. Per foot material and equipment cost will range from \$5 to \$20 depending on the type of level spreader desired. Concrete level spreaders may cost significantly more than perforated pipes or berms, but they provide a more sure level surface, are easier to maintain, and more reliable.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Level Spreaders

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Avoidance of stormwater concentration as much as practical?	--				
Soil erodibility considered?	--				
Slope considered and appropriate? ➤ <i>Max Slope: 8%</i>	1,3				
Receiving vegetation considered?	4,5				
Located in undisturbed virgin soil?	3				
If not, will soil be properly compacted and stabilized?	--				
Acceptable minimum flow path length below level spreader?	--				
Level spreader length calculations performed? ➤ <i>Min length: 10 feet; Max length: 200 feet</i>	3				
Erosion control matting, compost blankets, etc. provided?	4,5				
Appropriate vegetation selected for stabilization?	--				
Feasible construction process and sequence?	--				
Erosion and sedimentation control provided to protect spreader?	4,5				
Maintenance accounted for and plan provided?	5				
Soils stable or vegetation established before flows are directed to the level spreader?	3				
If used during construction, are accumulated soils removed?	3				

➤ *Denotes Minimum Design Considerations*

References

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BMP Fact Sheet

NATIVE REVEGETATION

Native revegetation includes the restoration of forest savanna (scattered trees among prairie plants), and/or prairie. Revegetation should primarily use native vegetation due to the numerous benefits, including reduced maintenance needs.



Figure 1 Native vegetation utilized in a wetland, Philadelphia, PA (USEPA, picasaweb)

Potential Applications			Stormwater Quantity Functions
Residential	Yes	Volume	Low/Med/High
Commercial	Yes	Groundwater Recharge	Low/Med/High
Ultra Urban	Limited	Peak Rate	Low/Med
Industrial	Yes	Stormwater Quality Functions	
Retrofit	Yes	TSS	High
Highway/Road	Limited	TP	High
Recreational	Yes	TN	Med/High
		Temperature	Med

Additional Considerations	
Cost	Low/Med
Maintenance	Low
Winter Performance	Medium

Variations

- Prairie
- No-mow lawn area
- Woodland
- Constructed wetlands
- Buffer areas
- Replacement lawn areas

Key Design Features

- Minimize traditional turf lawn area
- Develop landscape plan using native materials, determining the most appropriate
- Protect areas during construction
- Use integrated pest management (IPM) approach

Site Factors

- Water table to bedrock depth: N/A
- Soils: Vegetation should match soil types
- Slope: Applicable on most slopes (up to 1H:1V)
- Potential hotspots: No
- Maximum drainage area: Optimal is five times (maximum 20 times) the revegetated area

Benefits

- Low long-term maintenance needs
- Improves water quality
- Reduces volume

Limitations

- Establishment period requires more intensive maintenance, such as weeding and watering

Description and Function

Using native plants to vegetate an area is an effective method of improving the quality and reducing the volume of site runoff. Native plants significantly change the soil medium by adding carbon, decreasing bulk density, and increasing infiltration rates by as much as a factor of 10 or more even in clay soils (see Bharati, et.al, 2002 and Fuentes, et.al, 2004).

Native species are generally described as those existing in a given geographic area prior to European settlement. Over time, native vegetation does not typically require significant chemical maintenance by fertilizers and pesticides. This results in additional water quality benefits. Native species are typically more tolerant and resistant to pest, drought, and other local conditions than non-native species. Landscape architects and ecologists specializing in native plant species are usually able to identify a wide variety of plants that meet these criteria anywhere in the state. Recommended Plan List for BMPs Appendix provides lists of commercially available native species. Additional information relating to native species and their use in landscaping is available from the Indiana Native Plant and Wildflower Society at www.inpaws.org.

In addition to chemical applications, minimum maintenance also means minimal mowing and irrigation in established areas. Native grasses and other herbaceous materials that do not require mowing or intensive maintenance are preferred. Because selecting such materials begins at the concept design stage, this BMP can generally result in a site with reduced runoff volume and rate, as well as significant nonpoint source load reduction/prevention.

A complete elimination of traditional lawns as a site design element can be a difficult BMP to implement, given the extent to which the lawn as an essential landscape design feature is embedded in current national culture. Instead, the landscape design should strategically incorporate areas of native plantings – surrounding limited turf grass areas – to act as buffers that will capture and filter stormwater flowing off of turf grasses or pavements.

Native species, being strong growers with denser root and stem systems than turf grass (**Figure 2**), result in:

- A greater volume of water uptake (evapotranspiration)
- Improved soil conditions through organic material and macropore formation
- Carbon sequestration
- Enhanced infiltration

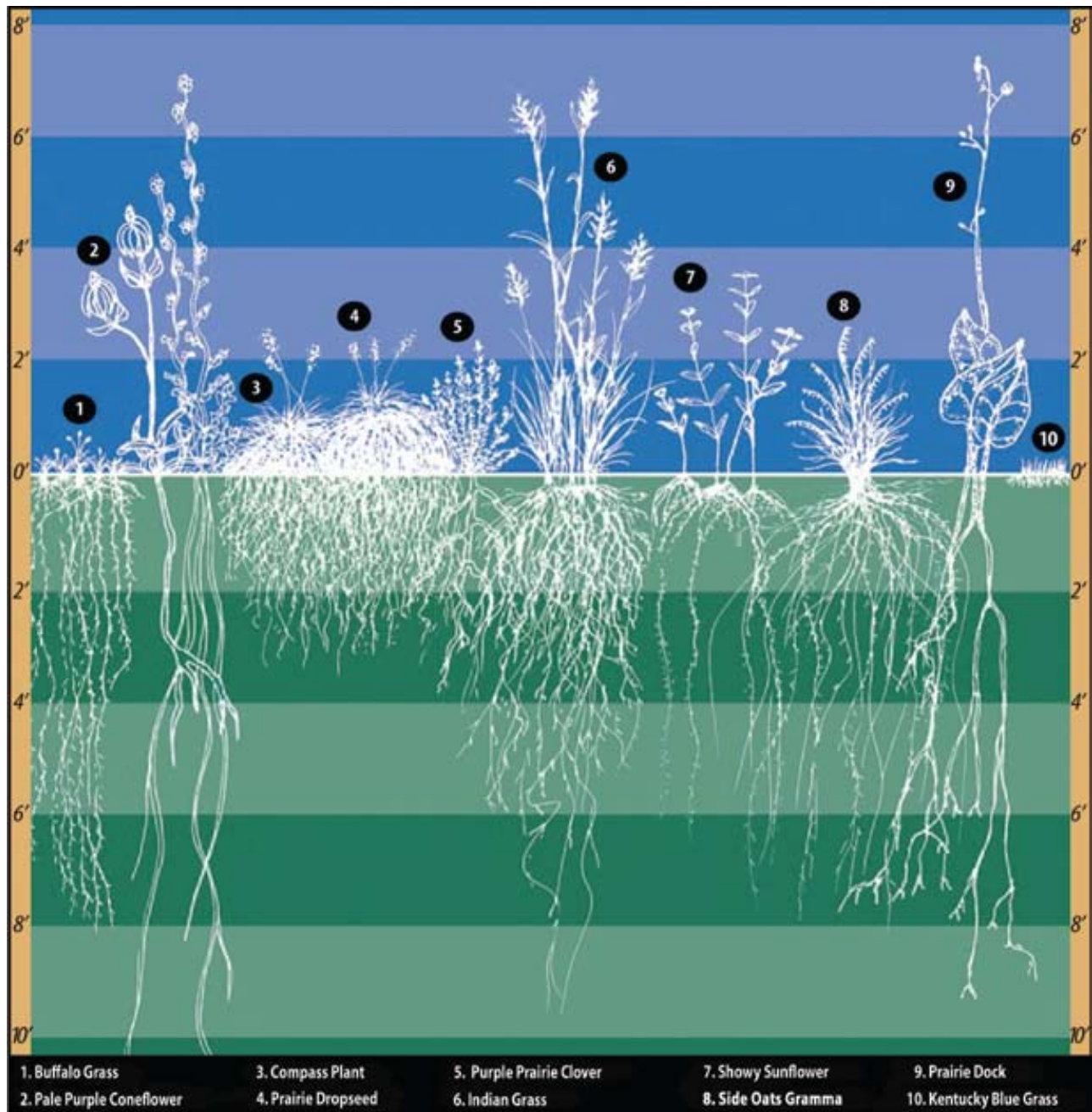


Figure 2 Native meadow species compared to turf grass

Source: JF New

If the objective is to revegetate an area with woodland species, the longer-term effect is a significant reduction in runoff volumes when contrasted with a conventional lawn planting. This decrease in runoff is caused by increases in interception, infiltration, evapotranspiration, and recharge. Peak runoff rate reduction also is achieved. Similarly, prairie reestablishment is also more beneficial than a conventional lawn planting. Again, these benefits are long term in nature and will not be apparent until the species have an

opportunity to grow and mature (one advantage of the prairie planting is that this maturation process requires considerably less time than a woodland area).

In general, seeded prairie plantings grow roots in the first two years of planting, and by the third year, start to show substantial top growth. Therefore, a prairie planting may not be aesthetically pleasing during the first several years. Aesthetic expectations should therefore be adjusted accordingly. Posting

signs explaining this fact to passersby can increase understanding and alleviate concerns about the look of the new planting. The signs can also explain the environmental benefits of planting native grasses.

Variations

Most newly-created native landscapes in Indiana fall under the category of either woodlands or prairies. Woodlands will provide shade, vertical structure, and a high level of rainfall interception in the long term. However, woodlands typically require a significant amount of time to mature. Prairies, on the other hand, have a tendency to establish and regain function rather quickly (3-10 years), and can provide lower-growing vegetation with highly attractive native grasses and wildflowers.

Species selection for any native landscape should be based on function, availability, and level of appropriateness for site conditions. Native species plantings can achieve variation in landscape across a variety of characteristics, such as texture, color, and habitat potential. Plant material should be selected based on tolerance to standing water as identified in Recommended Plant List for BMPs Appendix.

Properly selected mixes of flowering prairie species can provide seasonal color; native grasses offer seasonal variation in texture. Seed production is a food source for wildlife and reinforces habitat. In all cases, selection of native species should strive to achieve species variety and balance, avoiding creation of single-species or limited species “monocultures” which pose multiple problems. In sum, many different aspects of native species planting reinforce the value of native landscape restoration, typically increasing in their functional value as species grow and mature over time. Examples include:

- Prairie – Install forb/grass matrix that bears similarities to historic Indiana prairies and savannas
- No-mow lawn area – Install low-growing native grasses that are used as a substitute for lawn or cool-season grass plantings.

- Woodland – Install a balance of native trees, shrubs, forbs, grasses, and sedges that would historically be represented in Indiana woodlands.
- Constructed wetlands – Historic drained wetlands or existing artificial low areas may be planted with wetland species that will thrive in standing water or saturated conditions.
- Buffer areas – Bands of re-established native vegetation occurring between impermeable surfaces, lawns, or other non-native land uses and existing natural areas.
- Replacement lawn areas – Existing turf lawns may be converted to native prairies, wetlands, or woodlands to minimize maintenance while increasing stormwater benefits and wildlife habitat.

Applications

- Residential – Native landscapes can be incorporated into common areas of residential developments. Additionally, individual homeowners may incorporate native landscapes into their own properties. Native revegetation should also be used to provide buffers around any existing natural areas that are undisturbed within the residential development.
- Commercial – Common areas and open spaces within commercial developments may be planted with native species, as well as any created detention/retention basins or artificial waterways. Native revegetation should also be used to provide buffers around any existing natural areas that are undisturbed within the commercial development.
- Ultra Urban – Use of native revegetation in limited in ultra-urban settings because of the lack of available green space. Wherever possible, however, native species should be incorporated.

- Industrial – Use of native revegetation in industrial settings is very similar to that in commercial settings.
- Retrofit – Established turf grass may be converted into prairie, woodland, or wetland.
- Highway/Road – Native plants may be established in rights-of-way to minimize long-term maintenance while establishing linear habitat corridors.

Design Considerations

The basis for native revegetation design scheme begins with assessing the site for:

- Existing native vegetation,
- Soil,
- Hydrologic regimes,
- Sun exposure, and
- Aesthetics

Existing native vegetation is a good starting point for determining what can thrive on a given site. However, the designer must also consider and balance various factors in developing a successful plant list. The hydrologic patterns set the stage for where the moisture continuum plants will be most successful (easily found in native plant resource guides). The amount of sun and shade that a given species tolerates is also critical in successful plant selection (and is easy to find as well). Soil texture and pH (less often found in resources guides) will further narrow the plant choices. If soils are strongly acidic or basic, the pH will greatly influence and reduce plant choices. Once the potential plant list has run through the sieves of moisture, sun/shade, and soil characteristics, the designer will hopefully have a suite of loosely associated native plants that grow in similar conditions.

Besides the plants' physical requirements, there is the cultural issue of aesthetics to consider. Common issues that people have with native landscapes are the potential height and lack of cultivated

appearance (tall and thin, smaller flowers, looser look, etc.). If the designed areas are highly visible, then these aesthetic issues can be addressed with good design principles and a solid understanding of native plants.

1. Analyze site's physical conditions

The most important physical condition of the site is the topography, hydrology, and soil, each of which will guide protection activities and plant selection. Evaluate the soil using the USDA soil survey to determine important soil characteristics such as flooding potential, seasonal high water table, soil pH, soil moisture, and other characteristics. Evaluate the topography based on USGS maps or a topographical survey of the site.

2. Analyze site's vegetative features

Existing vegetation present at the site should be examined to determine the overall strategy for vegetation restoration and establishment. Strategies will differ whether pre-existing conditions are pasture, overgrown abandoned field, mid-succession forest, or another type of setting. An effort to inventory existing vegetation for protection and to determine type of pre-settlement vegetation should be made to guide efforts.

- Identify desirable species:* Use native tree and shrub species that thrive in local habitat. These species should be identified in the restoration site and protected. Several native vines and shrubs can provide an effective ground cover during establishment of the area, though they should be controlled to prevent herbaceous competition.
- Identify undesirable species:* Control invasive plants prior to planting new vegetation.
- Identify sensitive species:* Because many areas are rich in wildlife habitat and could potentially harbor wetland plant species, be aware of any rare, threatened, or endangered plant or animal species. Take

care to protect sensitive species during restoration activities.

3. *Map the site:* Prepare an existing conditions sketch of the site that denotes important features, including stream width, length, stream bank condition, adjacent land uses, stream activities, desired width of buffer, discharge pipes, obstructions, etc.
4. *Create a design that meets multiple stakeholder objectives*
 - a. *Landowner objectives:* Consider the current use of the existing vegetation, especially if the area will be protected by the landowner in perpetuity. Determine how the revegetated area will complement or conflict with existing and probable future uses of the property.
 - b. *Local objectives:* Consider linking the revegetated area to an existing or planned green infrastructure system, which may include trails, parks, preserves, and wildlife habitat corridors. Evaluate how the new vegetation could help achieve local outdoor recreation goals.
 - c. *Watershed objectives:* Examine the local watershed plan to identify goals related to establishing native plants. Have goals related to water quality been emphasized, or is wildlife habitat of primary concern? If no watershed plan has been prepared, examine other regional resource or recreation plans for reference to native plantings.
5. *Amend soil:* In those sites where soils have been disturbed, restore compromised soils by subsoiling and/or adding a soil amendment, such as compost. This will help in reestablishing its long-term capacity for infiltration and pollution removal.
6. Limit the development footprint as much as possible, preserving natural site features, such as vegetation and topography. In contrast to turf, “natural forest soils with similar overall slopes can store up to 50 times more

precipitation than neatly graded turf.” (Arendt, *Growing Greener*, pg. 81) If lawns are desired in certain areas of a site, they should be confined to those areas with slopes less than six percent.

7. Prairie restoration can reduce turf or create a buffer between turf and forest. Meadow buffers along forests help reduce off-trail trampling and direct pedestrian traffic in order to avoid “desire-lines” which can further concentrate stormwater.

Prepare the site for a prairie planting by weeding well before planting and during the first year. Perennial weeds may require year-long smothering, repeated sprayings with herbicides, or repeated tillage with equipment that can uproot and kill perennial weeds.

The site should be sunny, open, and well-ventilated, as prairie plants require at least a half a day of full sun.

Erosion prone sites should be planted with a nurse crop (such as annual rye or seed oats) for quick vegetation establishment to prevent seed and soil loss. Steep slopes (25 percent or steeper) and areas subject to water flow should be stabilized with erosion blankets, selected to mitigate expected runoff volumes and velocities. Hydro-seeding is generally not recommended for native species. There is tremendous variation among seed suppliers; choose seeds with a minimum percent of non-seed plant parts. Native seed should also be PLS (Pure Live Seed) tested by a third party to gauge seed viability.

8. Converting turf grass areas to prairie requires that all turf be killed or removed before planting, and care taken to control weeds prior to planting.
9. Forest restoration includes planting of tree species, 12-18 inches in height, and shrubs at 18-24 inches, with quick establishment of an appropriate ground cover to stabilize the soil and prevent colonization of invasive species. Trees and shrubs should be planted on eight-

foot centers, with a total of approximately 430 trees per acre.

Reforestation can be combined with other volume control BMPs such as retentive berming, vegetated filter strips and swales. Plant selection should mimic the surrounding native vegetation and expand on the native species already found on the site. A mixture of native trees and shrubs is recommended and should be planted once a ground cover is established.

10. Ensure adequate stabilization, since native grasses, meadow flowers, and woodlands establish more slowly than turf. Stabilization can be achieved for forest restoration by establishing a ground cover before planting of trees and shrubs. When creating meadows, it may be necessary to plant a fast growing nurse crop with meadow seeds for quick stabilization. Annual rye can be planted in the fall or spring with meadow seeds and will establish quickly and usually will not present a competitive problem. Erosion prone sites should be planted with a nurse crop and covered with weed-free straw mulch, while steep slopes and areas subject to runoff should be stabilized with erosion control blankets suitable for the expected volume and velocity of runoff.
11. Prepare a landscape maintenance plan that identifies weeding plans, mowing goals, irrigation needs, and trimming of herbaceous perennials or key tree specimens, as needed.

Maintenance

Local land conservancies are excellent resources when considering the long-term stewardship of the area. If a site has critical value, a local conservancy may be interested in holding a conservation easement on the area, or may be able to provide stewardship services and assistance. Wild Ones (www.for-wild.org/) is a national organization with local chapters which may also provide stewardship resources.

Applying a carefully selected herbicide (Roundup® or similar glyphosate herbicide) around the protective tree shelters/tubes may be necessary,

reinforced by selective cutting/manual removal, if necessary. This initial maintenance routine is often necessary for the first two to three years of growth and may be needed for up to five years until tree growth and tree canopy form, naturally inhibiting weed growth. Once shading is adequate, growth of invasive species and other weeds will be naturally prevented, and the woodland becomes self-maintaining. Survey the new woodland intermittently to determine if replacement trees should be provided. Keep in mind that some modest rate of planting failure is usual.

Prairie management is somewhat more straightforward. A seasonal mowing or burning may be required, although care must be taken to make sure that any management is coordinated with essential reseeding and other important aspects of meadow reestablishment. In addition, burning needs to be coordinated with the local fire department and follow local regulations. In the first year, weeds must be carefully controlled and consistently mowed back to four to six inches tall when they reach 12-18 inches in height.

In the second year, continue to monitor and mow weeds and hand-treat perennial or rhizomatous weeds with herbicide. Weeds should not be sprayed with herbicide if the drift from the spray may kill large patches of desirable plants; weeds will most likely move in to these new open areas. If necessary, controlled spot herbicide applications may be used to treat invasive plants if the treatments can be completed without damage to off-target vegetation.

A prescribed burn should be conducted at the end of the second or beginning of the third growing season. If burning is not possible, the prairie should be mowed very closely to the ground instead. If possible or practical, the mowed material should be removed from the site to expose the soil to the sun. This helps encourage rapid soil warming which favors the establishment of “warm season” plants over “cool season” weeds. Long-term maintenance should incorporate burning or mowing on a two to five year cycle to minimize woody species growth while encouraging development of the native prairie species.

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Volume and peak rate

Native revegetation will lower runoff volume and peak rates by lowering the runoff coefficient (i.e., curve number). Designers can receive runoff reduction recognition based on the square feet of trees or shrubs being added. Proposed trees and shrubs to be planted under the requirements of these BMPs can be assigned a curve number (CN) reflecting a woodlot in “good” condition associated with the pre-development underlying soil layer for an area of 200 square feet per tree or the estimated tree canopy, whichever is greater. For shrubs, the area should be 25 square feet per shrub. Calculation methodology to account for this BMP is provided under LID Approach in Post-Construction Water Quality Management Chapter of Technical Standards.

Water quality improvement

Landscape restoration using native species (which includes minimizing disturbance and maintenance), improves water quality preventively by minimizing the application of fertilizers and pesticides. Avoiding this nonpoint pollutant source is an important water quality objective.

Cost

Cost estimates for various aspects of native landscaping, including material and installation costs, are the following:

- \$1,000-\$2,500/acre for prairie installation or woodland understory installation
- \$1,800-\$2,600/acre for bare-root tree installation (10-foot spacing)
- \$10-\$20/plant for gallon-potted native perennial
- \$2.50-\$3.50/plant for plug-sized native perennial
- \$250-\$400/tree for balled-and-burlap tree installation

Costs for meadow re-establishment are lower than those for woodland, largely due to the need for tree installation. Again, such costs can be expected to be

greater than installing a conventional lawn (seeding and mulching), although installation cost differences diminish when conventional lawn seeding is redefined in terms of conventional planting beds.

Cost differentials grow greater when longer term operating and maintenance costs are taken into consideration. If lawn mowing can be eliminated, or even reduced significantly to a once per year requirement, substantial maintenance cost savings result, often in excess of \$2,000-\$3,000 per acre per year.

If chemical application (fertilization, pesticides, etc.) can be eliminated, substantial additional savings result with use of native species. These reductions in annual maintenance costs resulting from a native landscape re-establishment quickly outweigh any increased installation costs that are required at project initiation. The aesthetic, water quality, and environmental protection benefits of native landscaping are clear. Nonetheless, implementation is often hindered because parties paying the higher up-front costs (usually the developer) are different than the parties reaping the benefits of reduced maintenance costs. Overcoming this impediment involves recognizing that native landscaping is another part of the “infrastructure” that communities must build into design in order to achieve the desired outcome of appearance and water quality protection.

Criteria to receive runoff reduction recognition for Native Revegetation

To receive runoff reduction recognition for native revegetation under a location regulation, the following criteria must be met:

- ☐ Area is protected by clearly showing the limits of disturbance on all construction drawings and delineated in the field.
- ☐ Area to receive runoff reduction recognition for trees is 200 square feet per tree or the estimated tree canopy, whichever is greater.
- ☐ Area to receive runoff reduction recognition for shrubs is 25 square feet per shrub.
- ☐ Area is located on the development project.
- ☐ Area has a maintenance plan that includes weeding and watering requirements from initial installation through ongoing maintenance.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Native Revegetation

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Avoidance of stormwater concentration as much as practical?	--				
Soil erodibility considered?	6				
Slope considered and appropriate?	6				
Existing and surrounding vegetation assessed, including desirable, sensitive, and non-native species?	5				
Site mapped?	5				
Does the design meet all stakeholder objectives, including storm-water, habitat, aesthetics, and timeframe for establishment?	5				
Does the soil require amendment?	6				
Erosion control matting, compost blankets, etc. provided as needed?	6				
Feasible construction process and sequence?	--				
Short and long-term maintenance accounted for and plan provided?	7				

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BMP Fact Sheet

PERVIOUS PAVEMENT WITH INFILTRATION

Pervious pavement is an infiltration technique that combines stormwater infiltration, storage, and structural pavement consisting of a permeable surface underlain by a storage reservoir. Pervious pavement is well suited for parking lots, walking paths, sidewalks, playgrounds, plazas, tennis courts, and other similar uses.

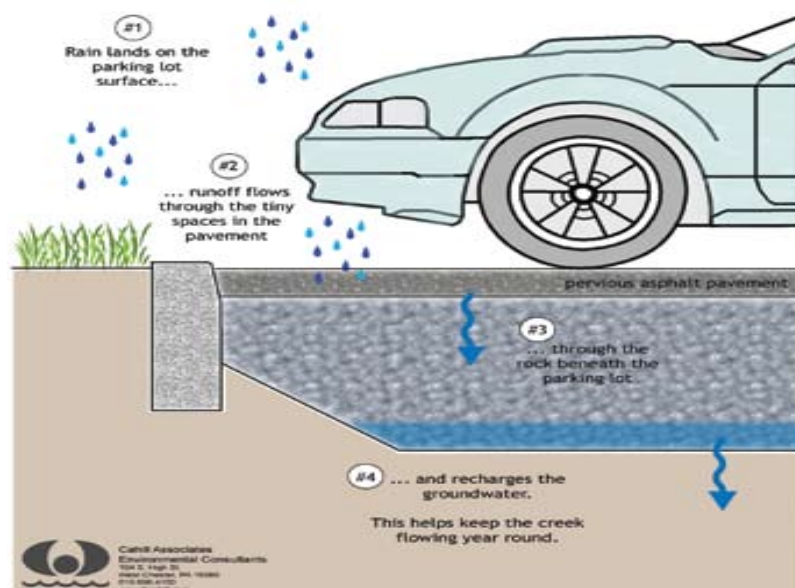


Figure 1 Pervious Pavement with infiltration schematic

Applications		Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Residential	Yes*	Volume	High
Commercial	Yes	Groundwater Recharge	High
Ultra Urban	Yes	Peak Rate	Med/High
Industrial	Yes*	Stormwater Quality Functions	
Retrofit	Yes*	TSS	High**
Highway/Road	Limited	TP	Med/High
Recreational	Yes	TN	Medium
		Temperature	High

Additional Considerations	
Cost	Medium
Maintenance	High
Winter Performance	Medium

*Applicable with special design considerations.

**Pretreatment for TSS is recommended.

Variations

- Porous asphalt
- Pervious concrete
- Permeable paver blocks
- Reinforced turf/gravel

Key Design Features

- Follow soil infiltration testing protocol (Appendix D4) and infiltration BMP guidelines
- Do not infiltrate on compacted soil
- Level storage bed bottoms
- Provide positive stormwater overflow from bed
- Surface permeability > 20"/hour

Site Factors

- Water table/Bedrock separation: two-foot minimum***
- Feasibility on steeper slopes: Low
- Potential hotspots: Not without design of pretreatment system

Benefits

- Volume control and groundwater recharge, moderate peak rate control
- Dual use for pavement structure and stormwater management

Limitations

- Pervious pavement not suitable for all uses
- High maintenance needs

*** Four feet recommended, if possible

Description and Function

A pervious pavement system consists of a porous surface course underlain by a storage reservoir placed on uncompacted subgrade to facilitate stormwater infiltration (**Figure 2**). The storage reservoir may consist of a stone bed of uniformly graded, clean, and washed coarse aggregate with a void space of approximately 40 percent or other pre-manufactured structural storage units (see Infiltration BMP for detailed information on the use of structural storage units). The pervious pavement may consist of porous asphalt, pervious concrete, permeable paver blocks, or reinforced turf/gravel.

Stormwater drains through the surface course where it is temporarily held in the voids of the stone bed, and then slowly infiltrates into the underlying, uncompacted soil mantle (in some extreme cases, minimal compaction of the soil may be required). The stone bed can be designed with an overflow control structure so that during large storm events peak rates are controlled. At no time does the water level rise to the pavement level.

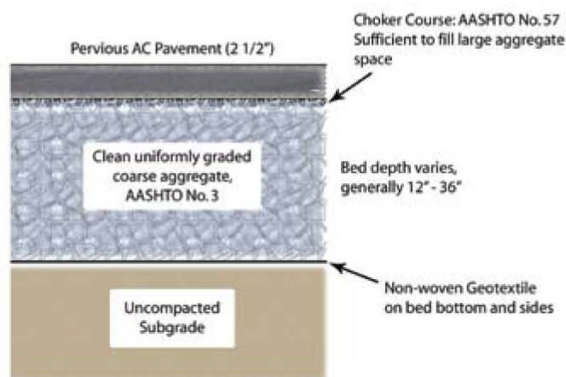


Figure 2 Example cross-section of porous asphalt system

A layer of nonwoven geotextile filter fabric separates the aggregate from the underlying soil, preventing the migration of fines into the bed. The bed bottoms should be level and uncompacted to allow for even and distributed stormwater infiltration.

If new fill is required, it should consist of additional stone and not compacted soil. It is recommended that a failsafe be built into the system in the event that the pervious surface is adversely affected and suffers reduced performance. Many designs incorporate a riverstone/rock edge treatment or

inlets which are directly tied to the bed so that the stormwater system will continue to function despite the performance of the pervious pavement surface.

Pervious pavement is well suited for parking lots, walking paths, sidewalks, playgrounds, plazas, tennis courts, and other similar uses. Pervious pavement can be used in driveways if the homeowner is aware of the stormwater functions of the pavement. Pervious pavement roadways have seen wider application in Europe and Japan than in the U.S., although at least one U.S. system has been constructed successfully. (In Japan and the U.S., applying an open-graded asphalt pavement of one inch or less on roadways has been used to provide lateral surface drainage and prevent hydroplaning, but these are applied over impervious pavement on compacted subgrade. This application is not considered a stormwater BMP.)

Properly installed and maintained pervious pavement has a significant life span. For example, existing systems that are more than 20 years old continue to function successfully. Because water drains through the surface course and into the subsurface bed, freeze-thaw cycles do not tend to adversely affect pervious pavement.

Pervious pavement is most susceptible to failure difficulties during construction and, therefore, it is important that construction be undertaken in such a way as to prevent:

- Compacted underlying soil (except in certain limited conditions),
- Contaminated stone subbase with sediment and fines,
- Tracking of sediment or any temporary storage of soil on the pavement surface, and
- Drainage of sediment-laden waters onto pervious surface or into constructed bed.

Staging, construction practices, and erosion and sediment control must all be considered when using pervious pavements.

When properly designed, pervious pavement systems provide effective management of stormwater volume and peak rates. The storage reservoir below the pavement surface can be sized

to manage both direct runoff and runoff generated by adjacent areas, such as rooftops. Because the stone bed provides storage, outlet structures can be designed to manage peak rates with the use of weir and orifice controls. A well-designed system can infiltrate the majority of frequent small storms on an annual basis while providing peak rate control for storms up to and including the 100-year frequency storm event.

Studies have shown that pervious systems have been very effective in reducing contaminants such as total suspended solids, metals, and oil and grease. Because pervious pavement systems often have zero net discharge of stormwater for small frequent storms, they provide effective water quality control. The pervious surface and underlying soils below the storage bed allow filtration of most pollutants.

However, care must be taken to prevent infiltration in areas where toxic/contaminated materials are present in the underlying soils or within the stormwater itself. When designed, constructed, and maintained according to the following guidelines, pervious pavement with underlying infiltration systems can dramatically reduce both the rate and volume of runoff, recharge the groundwater, and improve water quality.

In northern climates, pervious pavements have less of a tendency to form black ice and often require less plowing. Sand and other abrasives should never be used on pervious pavements, although salt may be used on pervious asphalt as long as it does not contain significant non-soluble particles. Commercial deicers may be used on pervious concrete. Pervious pavement surfaces often provide better traction for walking paths in rain or snow conditions.

Variations

Porous asphalt

Early work on porous asphalt pavement was conducted in the early 1970s by the Franklin Institute in Philadelphia. It consists of standard bituminous asphalt in which the fines have been screened and reduced, allowing water to pass through small voids. Pervious asphalt is typically

placed directly on the stone subbase in a single 3½ to 4-inch lift that is lightly rolled to a finished thickness of 2½ to 3 inches.

Because porous asphalt is standard asphalt with reduced fines, it is similar in appearance to standard asphalt. Newer open-graded mixes for highway application give improved performance through the use of additives and higher-grade binders. Porous asphalt is suitable for use in any climate where standard asphalt is appropriate.

Pervious concrete

Pervious Portland Cement Concrete, or pervious concrete, was developed by the Florida Concrete Association. Like pervious asphalt, pervious concrete is produced by substantially reducing the number of fines in the mix in order to establish voids for drainage. In northern and mid-Atlantic climates such as Indiana, pervious concrete should always be underlain by a stone subbase designed for stormwater management and should never be placed directly onto a soil subbase.

While porous asphalt is very similar in appearance to standard asphalt, pervious concrete has a coarser appearance than conventional concrete. A clean, swept finish cannot be achieved. Care must be taken during placement to avoid working the surface and creating an impervious layer. Placement should be done by a contractor experienced with pervious concrete. Appropriately installed pervious concrete has proven to be an effective stormwater management BMP. Additional information pertaining to pervious concrete, including specifications, is available from the Indiana Ready Mixed Concrete Association (www.irmca.com).

Permeable paver blocks

Permeable paver blocks consist of interlocking units (often concrete) that provide some portion of surface area that may be filled with a pervious material such as gravel. These units are often very attractive and are especially well suited to plazas, patios, parking areas, and low-speed streets. As new products are always being developed, the designer is encouraged to evaluate the benefits of various products with respect to the specific application.

Reinforced turf/gravel

Reinforced turf consists of interlocking structural units that contain voids or areas for turf grass growth or gravel and suitable for traffic loads and parking. Reinforced turf units may consist of concrete or plastic and are underlain by a stone and/or sand drainage system for stormwater management.

Reinforced turf/gravel applications are excellent for fire access lanes, overflow parking, and occasional-use parking (such as at religious and athletic facilities). Reinforced turf is also an excellent application to reduce the required standard pavement width of paths and driveways that must occasionally provide for emergency vehicle access.

Other

There are other proprietary products similar to pervious asphalt and concrete, but they use clear binders so that the beauty of the natural stone is visible. Material strength varies, so some of these products are not suitable for vehicular traffic. Typical applications include tree pits, walkways, plazas, and playgrounds. There are also pervious pavements made using recycled tires.

Applications

Pervious pavements have been widely applied in retrofit situations when existing standard pavements are being replaced. Care must be taken when using pervious pavements in industrial and commercial applications where pavement areas are used for material storage or the potential for surface clogging is high due to pavement use. They have also been used extensively for parking areas, walkways, playgrounds, basketball courts, tennis courts, streets, and alleys.

Pervious pavement systems are often used to provide total site stormwater management where rooftops and other impervious surfaces are tied into the infiltration bed below the pavement surface. This can be an effective means to manage stormwater for a development site, while reducing land disturbance for stormwater BMPs.

If pervious pavement systems receive runoff from adjacent areas, proper sediment pretreatment for that runoff must be considered to prevent clogging of the storage bed. Typical pretreatment can be achieved by the use of properly maintained cleanouts, inlet sediment traps, and water quality inserts or filter devices.

It is recommended that direct surface sheet flow conveyance of large impervious areas to the pervious pavement surface be avoided. High sheet flow loading to pervious pavement surfaces can lead to premature clogging of the pavement surface. To avoid this, it is recommended that adjacent impervious areas be drained and conveyed to the infiltration bed via inlets and trench drains with proper sediment pretreatment.

Design Considerations

While evaluating the following design considerations, there are also several additional resources to consider when implementing pervious pavement. These include the Soil Infiltration Testing Protocol (Soil Infiltration Testing Protocol Appendix), the Recommendations for Materials are specific to porous asphalt and porous concrete (Recommended Materials Appendix), and additional steps set forth in the Introduction to Structural BMPs segment of this Appendix.

Siting

1. The overall site should be evaluated for potential pervious pavement/infiltration areas *early* in the design process because effective pervious pavement design requires consideration of grading.
2. A four foot clearance above the seasonally high water table and bedrock is recommended. A two foot clearance can be used but may reduce the performance of the infiltration BMP used.
3. Orientation of the parking bays along the existing contours will significantly reduce the need for cut and fill.

4. Pervious pavement and infiltration beds **should not be placed on areas of recent fill** or compacted fill. If fill is unavoidable, permeable stone subbase material should be used wherever possible (and applicable infiltration rates should be used in the design). Areas of historical fill (>5 years) may also be considered for pervious pavement.
5. In those areas where the threat of spills and groundwater contamination is likely, pretreatment systems, such as filters and wetlands, may be required before any infiltration occurs. In hot spot areas, such as truck stops and fueling stations, the appropriateness of pervious pavement must be carefully considered. A stone infiltration bed located beneath standard pavement, preceded by spill control and water quality treatment, may be more appropriate.
6. The use of pervious pavement must be carefully considered in areas where the pavement may be seal-coated or paved over due to lack of awareness, such as individual home driveways. In those situations, a system that is not easily altered by the property owner may be more appropriate. An example would include an infiltration system constructed under a conventional driveway. Educational signage at pervious pavement installations can encourage proper maintenance and is recommended.
7. In areas with poorly draining soils, infiltration beds below pervious pavement may be designed to slowly discharge to adjacent swales, wetlands, or bioretention areas. Only in extreme cases (e.g., industrial sites with contaminated soils) will the aggregate bed need to be lined to prevent infiltration.

Design

1. Bed bottoms must be level (0 percent slope) or nearly level. Sloping bed bottoms will lead to areas of ponding and reduced stormwater distribution within the bed. However, beds may be placed on a slope by benching or terracing parking bays (**Figure 3**). Orienting

parking bays along existing contours will reduce site disturbance and cut/fill requirements.



Figure 3 Slope stepping with berms Source: Andropogon

2. All systems should be designed with an overflow system. Water within the subsurface stone bed should typically never rise to the level of the pavement surface. Inlet boxes can be used for cost-effective overflow structures. All beds should empty within 72 hours, preferably within 48 hours.
3. While infiltration beds are typically sized to handle the increased volume from a two-year design storm, they must also be able to convey and mitigate the peak of the less-frequent, more-intense storms, such as the 100-year storm. Control in the beds is usually provided in the form of an outlet control structure. A modified inlet box with an internal weir and low-flow orifice is a common type of control structure (**Figure 4**). The specific design of these structures may vary, depending on factors such as rate and storage requirements, but it always must include positive overflow from the system to prevent surface ponding.
4. A weir plate or weir within an inlet or overflow control structure may be used to maximize the water level in the stone bed while providing sufficient cover for overflow pipes (**Figure 3**).
5. The subsurface bed and overflow may be designed and evaluated in the same manner as a detention basin to demonstrate the

mitigation of peak flow rates. In this manner, the need for a detention basin may be eliminated or significantly reduced in size.

8. Perforated pipes can also be used as underdrains where necessary. Underdrains must be double-walled. Underdrains can ultimately discharge to daylight or to another

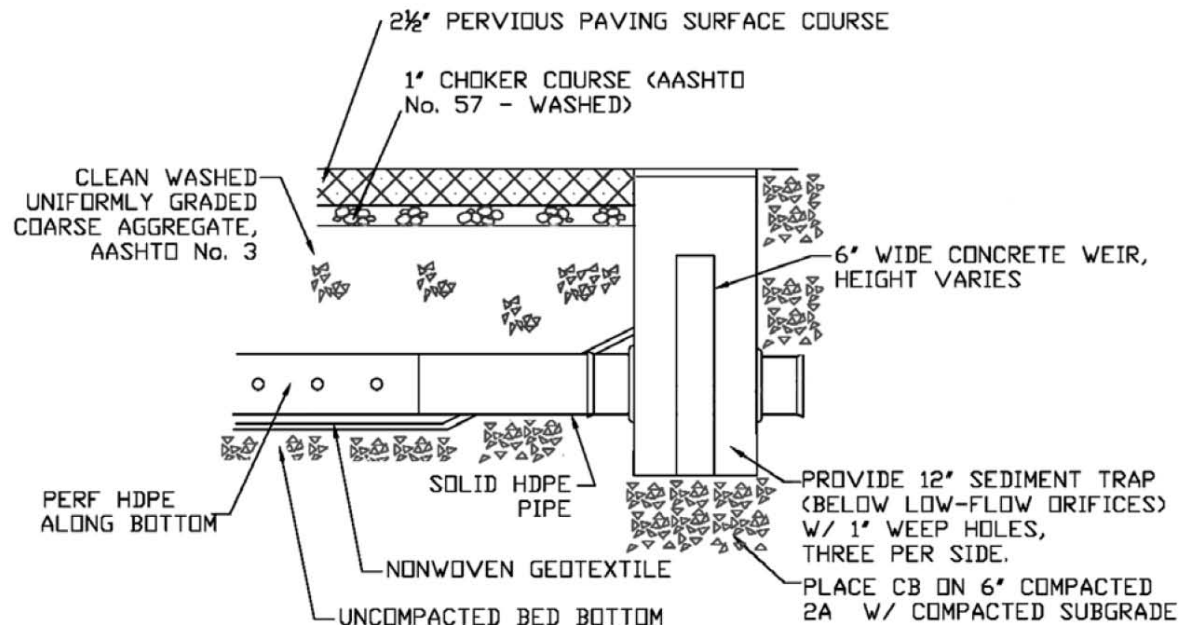


Figure 4 Example cross-section of porous asphalt system

6. Pervious pavement installations should have a backup method for water to enter the stone storage bed in the event that the pavement fails or is altered. In uncurbed lots, this backup drainage may consist of an unpaved one-to-two foot wide stone edge drain connected directly to the bed. In curbed lots, inlets with sediment traps may be used at low spots. Backup drainage elements will ensure the functionality of the infiltration system if the pervious pavement is compromised.
7. Perforated pipes along the bottom of the bed may be used to evenly distribute runoff over the entire bed bottom (especially if runoff from adjacent areas is being brought into the bed). Continuously perforated pipes should connect structures (such as cleanouts and inlet boxes). Pipes may lay flat along the bed bottom and connect to the overflow structure (Figure 4). Depending on size, these pipes may provide additional storage volume.

stormwater system. They should be accessible for inspection and maintenance via cleanouts, overflow devices (Figure 4), or other structures.

9. Sediment transport to pervious systems should be minimized as much as possible to reduce maintenance requirements and extend the life of these systems. If roof leaders and area inlets convey water from adjacent areas to the bed, then native vegetation, water quality inserts, and/ or sumped inlets should be used to prevent the conveyance of sediment and debris into the bed. Areas of impervious pavement draining directly onto pervious pavements should also be minimized as they can lead to clogging near the impervious-pervious boundary.
10. Infiltration areas should be located within the immediate project area in order to control runoff at its source. Expected use and traffic demands should also be considered in pervious pavement placement. An impervious

water stop should be placed along infiltration bed edges where pervious pavement meets standard impervious pavements.

11. The underlying infiltration bed is typically 8 to 36 inches deep and comprised of clean, uniformly graded aggregate with approximately 40 percent void space. Local aggregate availability typically dictates the size of the aggregate used. The critical requirements are that the aggregate be uniformly graded, clean washed, and contain a significant void content. The depth of the bed is a function of stormwater storage requirements, frost depth considerations, site grading, and structural needs.
12. Proper pervious pavement applications are resistant to freeze-thaw problems because of their permeable and open-graded components (the pavement surface should not be saturated and the base has a high void content which allows for expansion). In somewhat frost-susceptible soils, it may be necessary to increase the minimum bed depth to 14-22 inches (depending on loading and specific soil conditions). In extremely susceptible soils, the bed and/or improved soils can be placed down to the full frost depth (Smith, 2006).
13. While most pervious pavement installations are underlain by an aggregate bed, alternative subsurface storage products may also be used. These include a variety of proprietary plastic units that contain much greater storage capacity than aggregate, at an increased cost.

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Infiltration area

The infiltration area is defined as the plan area of the storage reservoir under the pervious pavement. The minimum infiltration area should be based on the following equation:

Minimum infiltration area = Contributing impervious area (including pervious pavement) / 5[#]

[#] - May be increased depending on soil infiltration capacity (where soils are Type A or rapidly draining).

Volume reduction

Pervious pavements with infiltration provide an excellent means of capturing and infiltrating runoff. The storage bed below the pavement provides runoff volume storage during storm events, while the undisturbed subgrade allows infiltration of runoff into the underlying soil mantle. The total volume reduction can be estimated by summing the storage and infiltration volumes described below.

Storage volume = Depth[#] (ft) * Area (ft²) * Void space (i.e., 0.40 for aggregate)

[#] - Depth is the depth of the water stored during a storm event, depending on the drainage area, conveyance to the bed, and outlet control.

Infiltration volume = Bed bottom area (ft²) * Infiltration design rate (in/hr) * Infiltration period[#] (hr) * (1/12)

[#] - Infiltration period is the time when bed is receiving runoff and capable of infiltrating at the design rate. Not to exceed 72 hours.

Peak rate mitigation

Properly designed pervious pavement systems provide effective management of peak rates. The infiltration bed below the pavement acts as a storage reservoir during large storm events, even while runoff exfiltrates through the soil mantle through the process of infiltration. Outlet structures can be designed to manage peak rates with the use of weir and orifice controls and carefully designed systems may be able to manage peak rates for storms up to and including the 100-year storm.

Water quality improvement

Pervious pavement systems are effective in reducing pollutants such as total suspended solids, metals, and oil and grease. Both the pervious pavement surface and the underlying soils below the infiltration bed allow pollutant filtration.

When pervious pavement systems are designed to capture and infiltrate runoff volumes from small

storm events, they provide very high pollutant reductions because there is little if any discharge of runoff carrying the highest pollutant loads. Pervious pavement systems require pretreatment of TSS when adjacent areas drain to them, resulting in a high reduction of TSS and other particulates. However, pervious pavement systems will provide limited treatment of dissolved pollutants, such as nitrates. Typical ranges of pollutant reduction efficiencies for pervious pavements are listed as follows:

- TSS[#] – 65-100%
- TP – 30-90%
- NO₃ – 30%

[#] - Pretreatment for TSS is recommended if adjacent areas drain to pervious pavement

Construction Guidelines

1. Follow the Recommendations for Materials that are specific to porous asphalt and porous concrete in Recommended Materials Appendix.
2. Due to the nature of construction sites, pervious pavement and other infiltration measures should be installed toward the end of the construction period, if possible. Infiltration beds under pervious pavement may be used as temporary sediment basins or traps provided that they are not excavated to within 12 inches of the designated bed bottom elevation. Once the site is stabilized and sediment storage is no longer required, the bed is excavated to its final grade and the pervious pavement system is installed.
3. The existing subgrade under the bed areas should **not** be compacted or subject to excessive construction equipment traffic prior to geotextile and stone bed placement. (Minor areas of unavoidable compaction can be partially remediated by scarifying the soil; see below.)

Where erosion of subgrade has caused accumulation of fine materials and/or surface ponding, this material should be removed with light equipment and the underlying soils

scarified to a minimum depth of six inches with a York rake (or equivalent) and light tractor. All fine grading should be done by hand. All bed bottoms are level grade.

4. Earthen berms (if used) between infiltration beds may be left in place during excavation. These berms do not require compaction if proven stable during construction.
5. Geotextile and bed aggregate should be placed immediately after approval of subgrade preparation. Geotextile is to be placed in accordance with manufacturer's standards and recommendations.

Adjacent strips of geotextile should overlap a minimum of 18 inches. It should also be secured at least four feet outside of bed in order to prevent any runoff or sediment from entering the storage bed. This edge strip should remain in place until all bare soils contiguous to beds are stabilized and vegetated. As the site is fully stabilized, excess geotextile along bed edges can be cut back to bed edge.

6. Clean (washed) uniformly graded aggregate is placed in the bed in eight-inch lifts. Each layer should be lightly compacted, with construction equipment kept off the bed bottom. Once bed aggregate is installed to the desired grade, approximately one inch of choker base course crushed aggregate should be installed uniformly over the surface in order to provide an even surface for paving (if required).
7. Cement mix time: Mixtures should be produced in central mixers or in truck mixers. When concrete is delivered in agitating or non-agitating units, the concrete should be mixed in the central mixer for a minimum of 1.5 minutes or until a homogenous mix is achieved. Concrete mixed in truck mixers should be mixed at the speed designated as mixing speed by the manufacturer for 75-100 revolutions.
8. The Portland Cement aggregate mixture may be transported or mixed onsite and should be

used within one hour of the introduction of mix water, unless otherwise approved by an engineer. This time can be increased to 90 minutes when using the specified hydration stabilizer. Each truck should not haul more than two loads before being cycled to another type concrete. Prior to placing concrete, the subbase should be moistened and in a wet condition. Failure to provide a moist subbase will result in reduced strength of the pavement.

9. A minimum of 30 revolutions at the manufacturer's designated mixing speed is required following any water added to the mix. Discharge should be a continuous operation and completed as quickly as possible. Concrete should be deposited as close to its final position as practicable and such that fresh concrete enters the mass of previously placed concrete.
10. Placing and finishing concrete equipment: The contractor should provide mechanical equipment of either slipform or form riding with a following compactive unit that will provide a minimum of 10 psi vertical force. The pervious concrete pavement will be placed to the required cross section and should not deviate more than +/- 3/8 inch in 10 feet from profile grade.

Placement should be continuous and spreading and strikeoff should be rapid. It is recommended to strike off about 1/2 to 3/4 inch above the forms to allow for compaction. This can be accomplished by attaching a temporary wood strip above the top of the form to bring it to the desired height. After strikeoff, the strips are removed and the concrete is consolidated to the height of the forms.

11. Consolidation should be accomplished by rolling over the concrete with a steel roller, and compacting the concrete to the height of the forms. Consolidation should be completed within 10 minutes of placement to prevent problems associated with rapid hardening and evaporation. After mechanical or other approved strike-off and compaction

operation, no other finishing operation is needed. The contractor will be restricted to pavement placement widths of a maximum of 15 feet.

12. Jointing: Control (contraction) joints should be installed at maximum 20-foot intervals. They should be installed at a depth of 1/4 the thickness of the pavement. These joints can be installed in the plastic concrete or saw cut. However, installing in the plastic concrete is recommended. Joints installed in the plastic concrete should be constructed using a small roller (salt or joint roller) to which a beveled fin with a minimum depth of 1/4 the thickness of the slab has been welded around the circumference of a steel roller. When this option is used it should be performed immediately after roller compaction and prior to curing. If saw cut, the procedure should begin as soon as the pavement has hardened sufficiently to prevent raveling and uncontrolled cracking (normally just after curing).

Transverse construction joints should be installed whenever placing is suspended a sufficient length of time that concrete may begin to harden. In order to assure aggregate bond at construction joints, a bonding agent suitable for bonding fresh concrete should be brushed, tolled, or sprayed on the existing pavement surface edge. Isolation (expansion) joints will not be used except when pavement is abutting slabs or other adjoining structures.

13. Curing procedures should begin within 15 minutes after placement. The pavement surface should be covered with a minimum six millimeter thick polyethylene sheet or other approved covering material. Prior to covering, a fog or light mist should be sprayed on the surface. The cover should overlap all exposed edges and should be completely secured (without using dirt) to prevent dislocation due to winds or adjacent traffic conditions.
14. Porous asphalt should not be installed on wet surfaces or when the ambient air temperature is below 50 degrees Fahrenheit. The

temperature of the bituminous mix should be determined by the results of the Draindown test (ASTM D6390), but typically ranges between 275 degrees Fahrenheit and 325 degrees Fahrenheit (as determined by the testing and recommendations of the asphalt supplier).

Pervious pavement should be laid in one lift directly over the storage bed and stone base course to a 2.5- to 3-inch finished thickness. Compaction of the surface course should take place when the surface is cool enough to resist a 10-ton roller. One or two passes is all that is required for proper compaction. More rolling could cause a reduction in the surface course porosity.

15. Do not place Portland Cement pervious pavement mixtures when the ambient temperature is 40 degrees Fahrenheit or lower, unless otherwise permitted in writing by the engineer.
16. Mixing, placement, jointing, finishing, and curing do not apply to permeable paver systems. A manual on Permeable Interlocking Concrete Pavements from the Interlocking Concrete Pavement Institute (Smith, 2006) offers detailed guidance on the design and construction of permeable paver systems.
17. After final pervious asphalt or concrete installation, no vehicular traffic of any kind should be permitted on the pavement surface until cooling and hardening or curing has taken place, and not within the first 72 hours (many permeable paver systems can be used right away). The full permeability of the pavement surface should be tested by applying clean water at the rate of at least five gallons per minute over the surface using a hose or other distribution device. All water should infiltrate directly without puddle formation or surface runoff.

Maintenance

The primary goal of pervious pavement maintenance is to prevent the pavement surface

and/or underlying infiltration bed from being clogged with fine sediments. To keep the system clean and prolong its life span, the pavement surface should be vacuumed twice per year with a commercial cleaning unit. Pavement washing systems or compressed air units are generally not recommended but may be acceptable for certain types of pavement. All inlet structures within or draining to the infiltration beds should also be cleaned out twice a year.

Planted areas adjacent to pervious pavement should be well maintained to prevent soil washout onto the pavement. If any washout does occur, immediately clean it off the pavement to prevent further clogging of the pores. Furthermore, if any bare spots or eroded areas are observed within the planted areas, they should be replanted and/or stabilized at once. Planted areas should be inspected twice a year. All trash and other litter should be removed during these inspections.

Superficial dirt does not necessarily clog the pavement voids. However, dirt that is ground in repeatedly by tires can lead to clogging. Therefore, trucks or other heavy vehicles should be prevented from tracking or spilling dirt onto the pavement. Furthermore, all construction or hazardous materials carriers should be prohibited from entering a pervious pavement lot.

Potholes in pervious pavement are unlikely, though settling might occur if a soft spot in the subgrade is not removed during construction. For damaged areas of less than 50 square feet, a depression could be patched by any means suitable with standard pavement, with the loss of porosity of that area being insignificant. The depression can also be filled with pervious mix.

If an area greater than 50 sq. ft. is in need of repair, approval of patch type must be sought from either the engineer or owner. If feasible, permeable pavers can be taken up and then simply re-installed (replacing damaged pavers if necessary). **Under no circumstance should the pavement surface ever be seal-coated.** Any required repair of drainage structures should be done promptly to ensure continued proper functioning of the system.

Pervious pavement maintenance considerations are summarized below:

Prevent clogging of pavement surface with sediment

- Vacuum pavement twice a year,
- Maintain planted areas adjacent to pavement,
- Immediately clean any soil deposited on pavement,
- Do not allow construction staging, soil/mulch storage, etc., on unprotected pavement surface, and
- Clean inlets draining to the subsurface bed twice a year.

Snow/Ice removal

- Pervious pavement systems generally perform better and require less treatment than standard pavements,
- Do not apply abrasives such as sand or cinders on or adjacent to pervious pavement,
- Snow plowing is fine but should be done carefully (i.e., set the blade slightly higher than usual), and
- Salt application is acceptable, although alternative deicers are preferable.

Repairs

- Surface should never be seal-coated,
- Damaged areas less than 50 sq. ft. can be patched with pervious or standard pavement,
- Larger areas should be patched with an approved pervious pavement,
- Permeable pavers should be repaired/replaced with similar permeable paver block material, and
- Permeable pavers and gravel pavers may require the addition of aggregate on an annual basis or as needed, in order to replenish material used to fill in the open areas of the pavers. Turf pavers may require reseeding if bare areas appear.

Winter Considerations

Pervious pavement systems should perform equally well in the winter, provided that infiltration bed design considers the soil frost line, and proper snow removal and deicing procedures are followed. Winter maintenance for pervious pavement may be necessary but is sometimes less intensive than that required for a standard pavement (especially for pervious asphalt). The underlying stone bed tends to absorb and retain heat so that freezing rain and snow melt faster on pervious pavement. Therefore, ice and light snow accumulation are generally not as problematic. However, snow will accumulate during heavier storms.

Abrasives such as sand or cinders should not be applied on or adjacent to the pervious pavement.

Snow plowing is fine, provided it is done carefully (i.e., by setting the blade slightly higher than usual, about an inch). Salt with low non-soluble solids content is acceptable for use as a deicer on the pervious pavement. Non-toxic, organic deicers applied either as blended, magnesium chloride-based liquid products or as pretreated salt, are preferred.

Cost

The majority of added cost of a pervious pavement/infiltration system lies in the underlying stone bed, which is generally deeper than a conventional subbase and wrapped in geotextile. Costs may also be higher in areas where experienced contractors are not readily available. However, these additional costs are often offset by the significant reduction in the required number of inlets and pipes. Also, since pervious pavement areas are often incorporated into the natural topography of a site, there is generally less earthwork and/or deep excavations involved. Furthermore, pervious pavement areas with subsurface infiltration beds often eliminate the need (and associated costs, space, etc.) for detention basins. When all of these factors are considered, pervious pavement with infiltration has often proven itself less expensive than impervious pavement with associated stormwater management.

- Porous asphalt, with additives, is generally 15 percent to 25 percent higher in cost than standard asphalt on a unit area basis. Unit costs for pervious asphalt (without infiltration bed) range from about \$4/ft² to \$5/ft².
- Pervious concrete as a material is generally more expensive than asphalt and requires more labor and expertise to install. Unit cost of a six-inch-thick pervious concrete (without infiltration bed) section is about \$4/ ft² to \$6/ ft².
- Permeable paver blocks vary in cost depending on type and manufacturer.
- NOTE: The data provided are based on average market costs. For greater accuracy, a site and market-specific cost estimate should be developed.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Pervious Pavement with Infiltration Bed

Type of pervious pavement(s) proposed: _____

Source of mix design or material source: _____

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Appropriate application of pervious pavement (e.g., use, traffic loading, slopes)?	--				
Was the Soil Infiltration Testing Protocol followed?	1				
Appropriate areas of the site evaluated?	--				
Infiltration rates measured?	1				
Was the Infiltration BMP followed?	1				
Two-foot minimum separation between the bed bottom and bedrock/SHWT?	1				
Soil permeability acceptable?	--				
If not, appropriate underdrain provided?	--				
Adequate separations from wells, structures, etc.?	--				
Natural, uncompacted soils?	2				
Level infiltration area (bed bottom)?	1,5				
Excavation in pervious pavement areas minimized?	-				
Hotspots/pretreatment considered?	1,5				
Loading ratio below 5:1?	--				
Storage depth limited to two feet?	--				
Drawdown time less than 48 hours?	5				
Positive overflow from system?	1,5				
Erosion and Sedimentation control?	2				
Feasible construction process and sequence?	--				
Geotextile specified?	2				
Clean, washed, open-graded aggregate specified?	2				
Properly designed/specified pervious pavement surface?	8-10				
Maintenance accounted for and plan provided?	10				
Signage provided?	5				

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BMP Fact Sheet

PLANTER BOXES

Planter boxes receive runoff from multiple impervious surfaces, which is used for irrigation of the vegetation in the planter box preventing stormwater from directly draining into nearby sewers. They also play an important role in urban areas by minimizing stormwater runoff, reducing water pollution, and creating a greener and healthier appearance of the built environment by providing space for plants and trees near buildings and along streets. There are three main types of planter boxes which can be used on sidewalks, plazas, rooftops, and other impervious areas: contained, infiltration, and flow-through.



Figure 1 Streetside planter, Portland, OR (city of Portland, Bureau of Environmental Services)

Potential Applications		Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Residential	Yes	Volume	Low/Med
Commercial	Yes	Groundwater Recharge	Low/Med
Ultra Urban	Yes	Peak Rate	Low
Industrial	Limited	Stormwater Quality Functions	
Retrofit	Yes	TSS	Medium
Highway/Road	No	TP	Medium
Recreational	Yes	TN	Low/Med
		Temperature	Low/Med

Additional Considerations	
Cost	High
Maintenance	Medium
Winter Performance	Medium

Variations

- Contained
- Infiltration
- Flow-through

Key Design Features

- May be designed as pretreatment
- May be designed to infiltrate
- Captures runoff to drain out in three to four hours after a storm event
- Receives less than 15,000 ft² of impervious area runoff
- Planters should be made of stone, concrete, brick, or pressure-treated wood

Benefits

- Enhances the area where they are placed
- Potential air quality and climate benefits
- Can be used in a wide range of areas, including ultra-urban

Limitations

- Limited stormwater quantity/quality benefits
- Relatively high cost due to structural components

Description and Function

Planter boxes receive runoff from multiple impervious surfaces, including rooftops, sidewalks, and parking lots. Runoff is used for irrigation purposes, and the vegetation in the planter box absorbs stormwater and releases it back into the atmosphere through evapotranspiration. Boxes can take any form and can be made out of a variety of materials, although many are constructed from wood.

Construction specifications are critical to ensure that an appropriate volume of runoff from smaller storms “feeds” the carefully selected vegetation types in the boxes; however, consistent watering is necessary during dry periods.

In general, planter boxes must be carefully designed to accommodate the desired amount of runoff. In addition, plantings must be carefully selected, and boxes must be carefully maintained, to accomplish stormwater objectives, and perhaps, most importantly, to succeed in a landowner’s overall landscaping objectives.

Stormwater benefits of planter boxes include reduction in runoff volumes and some reduction in peak rates of runoff. Boxes which overflow also effectively reduce peak rates of runoff. Depending on the type of box selected, evapotranspiration will increase along with infiltration and groundwater recharge. Water quality may benefit, depending upon how much runoff is directed into the ground and prevented from worsening erosive stream flows.

When well designed, installed, and maintained, planter boxes are extremely attractive additions to homes, commercial businesses, and office buildings. In fact, an essential objective in developing planter boxes is to enhance overall landscape aesthetics. Boxes are ideal for buffers around structures, foundation plantings, providing seat walls, and for defining walkways, patios, terraces, drives, and courtyards.

Variations

Of all the BMPs listed in this manual, planter boxes are probably the most adaptable to all types of sites with all types of site constraints. The infiltration variation is influenced by all factors which are limiting to any infiltration-oriented BMP (i.e., bedrock/seasonal high water table at or close to the surface, very poorly draining soils, etc., all of which are described in the Infiltration BMP of this manual). However, both the contained and flow-through variations can be used on virtually every type of site - large or small, front yard or backyard, flat or sloping, shady or sunny.

Contained

Contained planter boxes (**Figure 2**) are generally traditional planters that have weep holes to drain excess water from the planter. They effectively reduce impervious area by retaining rainwater which slows stormwater runoff from draining into sewers. Contained planters are used for planting trees, shrubs, perennials, and annuals. The planter is either prefabricated or permanently constructed in a variety of shapes and sizes. Planters are typically placed on impervious surfaces like sidewalks, plazas, and rooftops. Contained planters may drain onto impervious surfaces through their base or into an overflow structure.

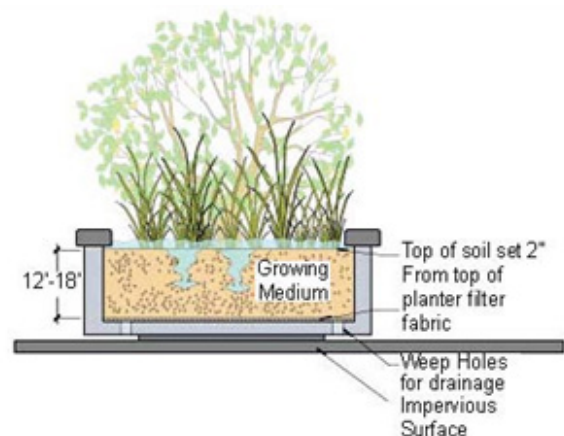


Figure 2 Schematic of Contained Planter Box
Source: City of Portland, OR, Bureau of Environmental Services

Native vegetation should be used in contained planter boxes (Recommended Plant List for BMPs

Appendix). They are hardy and self-sustaining with little need for fertilizers or pesticides. Irrigation needs to be monitored, since plants will need to be watered during dry periods. Sensors can help to regulate moisture in the planter box, ensuring consistent moisture. Smaller trees are highly encouraged because of the canopy and shade they will provide, reducing the urban heat island effect. Planters should be constructed of stone, concrete, brick, wood, or any other suitable material.

This type of planter box can be installed to retrofit an existing urban streetscape or large area of pavement, such as at an entryway to a building.

Infiltration

An infiltration planter box (**Figure 3**) is designed to allow runoff to filter through the planter soils (thus capturing pollutants) and then infiltrate into native soils below the planter. These planters are generally constructed to be flush with surrounding paved areas. The planter is sized to accept runoff and temporarily store the water in a reservoir on top of the soil. Different design variations are encouraged, but should allow a minimum delay in stormwater runoff capture of three to four hours after a wet weather event.

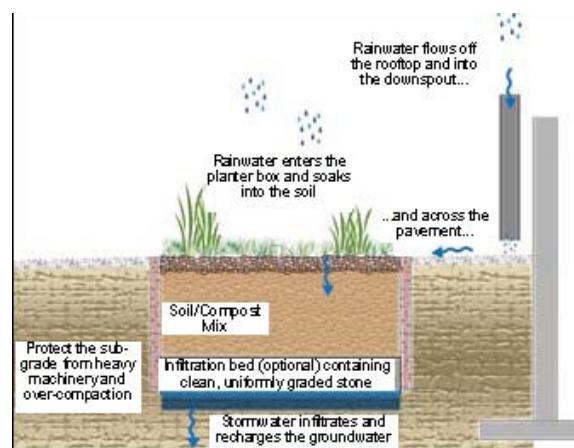


Figure 3 Schematic of Infiltration Planter Box

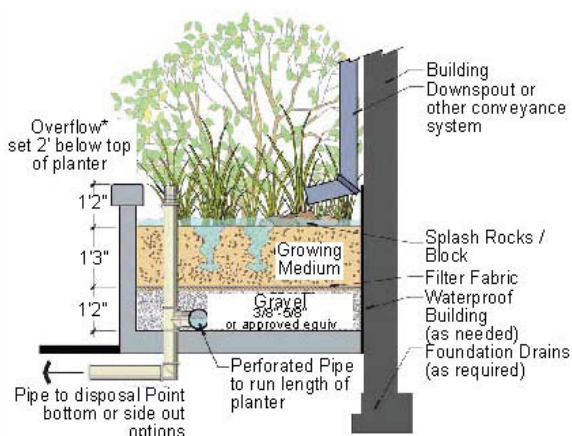
Recommended vegetation includes native rushes, reeds, sedges, irises, dogwoods, and currants. Also, the dimensions of the sand/gravel area used in these designs should be determined by an engineer and designed to receive less than approximately 15,000 square feet of impervious area runoff. The

minimum planter width is typically 30 inches with no minimum length or required shape.

Suggested structural elements of infiltration planter boxes are stone, concrete, brick, or pressure-treated wood. In general, infiltration facilities should be greater than 10 feet from structures and at least five feet from an adjoining property line or as required by local ordinances.

Flow-through

The flow-through planter box (**Figure 4**) is completely contained and drains to a stormwater system. These planters are designed with an impervious bottom or are placed on an impervious surface. Pollutant reduction is achieved as the water filters through the soil/ growing medium. Flow control is obtained by ponding runoff above the soil and in a gravel layer beneath it. In most storm events, runoff flows through the soil into the gravel layer and is slowly discharged via the perforated pipe. In more extreme events, inflow may exceed the capacity of the soil and some runoff may be discharged through surface overflow. This type of planter can be used adjacent to a building if the planter box and/or building are adequately waterproofed to allow for saturated soil and temporary ponded runoff next to the building.



* Water reservoir depth may be reduced if planter surface is increased.

Figure 4 Schematic of Flow-through Planter Box

Flow-through planter boxes should be designed to retain water for no more than three to four hours after an average storm event. Recommended vegetation includes native rushes, reeds, sedges, irises, dogwoods, and currants. The minimum planter width is typically 18 inches with no minimum length or required shape. Planters should be designed to receive less than 15,000 square-feet of impervious area runoff.

Potential Applications

Planter boxes can be used in urbanized areas of high pollutant loads. They are especially applicable where there is limited area for construction of other BMPs. Planter boxes may be used as a pretreatment BMP for other BMPs such as wet ponds or infiltration systems. Areas that would benefit from using a planter box include:

- Parking garage
- Office building
- Residential building
- Other building use (commercial, light industrial, institutional, etc.)
- Transportation facilities
- Urban streetscapes

Design Considerations

- **Suggested structural elements** of planters are stone, concrete, brick, or pressure-treated wood. Flow-through planters are completely contained and, therefore, not designed to drain directly into the ground. Pipes can also be designed to transport water to an approved disposal point. It is recommended that planter boxes have setback distances of 10 feet from structures and five feet from property lines, unless the planter height is less than 30 inches or as required by local ordinances.
- The **flow entrance/inflow** must be designed to prevent erosion in the planter box. Some alternatives include gravel, splash blocks, perforated pipe, and erosion control mats.
- A **positive overflow system** should be designed to safely convey away excess runoff. The overflow can be routed to the surface in a non-erosive manner or to another stormwater system. Some alternatives include domed risers, inlet structures, weirs, and openings in the planter box wall.
- **Planting soil** should be capable of supporting a healthy vegetative cover and should generally be between 12 and 36 inches deep. Planting soil should be approximately four inches deeper than the bottom of the largest root ball.
- A subsurface **gravel layer**, if used, should be at least six inches thick and constructed of clean gravel with a significant void space for runoff storage (typically 40 percent) and wrapped in geotextile (filter) fabric.
- If used, **underdrains** are typically small diameter (412 inches) perforated pipes in a clean gravel trench wrapped in geotextile fabric (or in the gravel layer). Underdrains should be double-walled and have a flow capacity capable of draining the planter box system in approximately 12 hours. They can daylight to the surface or connect to another stormwater system. A way to inspect and clean underdrains should be provided (via cleanouts, inlet, overflow structure, etc.)
- **Native trees and shrubs** may require irrigation during dryer summer months to remain healthy. Monitoring vegetation in planter boxes is critical to the health of the plants, as they may need supplemental watering, in addition to the water received from storms.
- **Many planter box styles and sizes** are used to improve site aesthetics and stormwater management. Incorporating smaller planter boxes over the site adds visual appeal and a greater surface area.

Design variations:

▪ **Contained boxes**

Plants should be relatively self-sustaining, with little need for fertilizers or pesticides. Irrigation is optional, although plant viability should be maintained. Trees are encouraged and will receive added runoff reduction recognitions for the canopy that will extend beyond the planter walls. Structural elements of the planters should be stone, concrete, brick, wood, or other durable material. Treated wood that may leach out any toxic chemicals should not be used.

▪ **Infiltration**

Allow captured runoff to drain out in three to four hours after a storm event. The sand/gravel area width, depth, and length are to be determined by an engineer or a dry well may be required for complete onsite infiltration. Planters should be designed to receive less than 15,000 square-feet of impervious area runoff. Minimum planter width is 30 inches; there is no minimum length or required shape. The structural elements of the planters should be stone, concrete, brick, or pressure-treated wood. Treated wood that may leach out any toxic chemicals should not be used.

▪ **Flow-through**

Allow captured runoff to drain out in three to four hours after a storm event. Minimum planter width is 18 inches; there is no minimum length or required shape. Planters should be designed to receive less than 15,000 square-feet of impervious area runoff. Structural elements of the planters should be stone, concrete, brick, or pressure-treated wood. Treated wood that may leach out any toxic chemicals should not be used. The flow-through planter box is contained and, thus, not designed to drain into the ground near a building. Irrigation is optional, although plant viability should be maintained.

- The plants within the **perimeter planter boxes** are designed to accept stormwater runoff from adjacent impervious areas. Plants and vegetation absorb most of the water volume. Overflow gradually drains to the surface, which slows the peak rates.

- Review the materials list in Recommended Materials Appendix for recommended planter box specifications.

• **Landscaping requirements**

The following quantities are recommended per 100 square feet of planter box area:

- Four large shrubs/small trees in three-gallon containers or equivalent.
- Six shrubs/large grass-like plants in one-gallon containers or equivalent
- Ground cover plants (perennials/annuals) one per 12 inches on center, triangular spacing. Minimum container: four-inch pot. Spacing may vary according to plant type.
- Plantings can include rushes, reeds, sedges, iris, dogwood, currants, and numerous other shrubs, trees, and herbs/grasses (Recommended Plant List for BMPS Appendix).
- Container planting requires that plants be **supplied with nutrients** that they would otherwise receive from being part of an ecosystem. Since they are cut off from these processes, they must be cared for accordingly.
- **Tree planting** in planters is encouraged where practical. Tree planting is also encouraged near planters.
- Generally, plants requiring **moist-wet conditions** are preferred for flow-through planters.

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Volume reduction

If a planter box is designed to infiltrate, the volume reduction is a function of the area of the filter and the infiltration rate. There is generally less volume reduction for planter boxes that are not designed to infiltrate.

$$\text{Infiltration Volume}^{\#} = \text{Bottom Area (ft}^2\text{)} * \text{Infiltration Rate (in/hr)} * \text{Drawdown time}^{\#\#} \text{ (hr)}$$

[#] - For filters with infiltration only

^{##} - Not to exceed 3-4 hours

Peak rate mitigation

Planter boxes generally provide little, if any, peak rate reduction. However, if the planter box is designed to infiltrate, then a modest level of peak rate attenuation can be expected.

Water Quality Improvement

Planter boxes are considered a moderate stormwater treatment practice with the primary pollutant removal mechanism being filtration and settling. Less significant processes can include evaporation, infiltration (if applicable), transpiration, biological and microbiological uptake, and soil adsorption. The extent to which planter boxes remove pollutants in runoff is primarily a function of their design, configuration, plant species/ density, and soil type.

For planter boxes that are also designed to infiltrate, see the water quality summary in the Subsurface Infiltration Bed section of Infiltration Practices Fact Sheet, or in the other infiltration BMP sections. For manufactured planters, see the manufacturer's information, as well as findings from independent studies.

Construction Guidelines

Constructing or retrofitting planter boxes varies in difficulty at each site. Boxes may be ideal for inclusion in patio or walkway design and integrate easily with roof downspouts. In most cases, a landscape architect is essential, especially if the

more complex infiltration and flow through variation is being constructed, and as the size/scale of the planter box grows larger.

1. Areas for planter boxes, especially the infiltration type, should be clearly marked before any site work begins to avoid soil disturbance and compaction during construction.
2. Planter boxes should generally be installed after the site is stabilized. Excessive sediment generated during construction can clog the planter and prevent or reduce the anticipated post-construction water quality benefits. Stabilize all contributing areas before runoff enters the filters.
3. Structures such as inlet boxes, reinforced concrete boxes, etc. should be installed in accordance with the guidance of the manufacturers or design engineer.
4. Infiltration planter boxes should be excavated in such a manner as to avoid compaction of the subbase. Structures may be set on a layer of clean, lightly compacted gravel (such as AASHTO #57).
5. Infiltration planter boxes should be underlain by a layer of permeable, nonwoven-geotextile.
6. Place underlying gravel/stone in minimum six-inch lifts and lightly compact. Place underdrain pipes in gravel.
7. Wrap and secure nonwoven geotextile to prevent gravel/stone from clogging with sediments.
8. Install planting soil per the recommendations of the landscape architect. Do not compact.
9. Install native vegetation (trees, shrubs, etc.) per the recommendations of the landscape architect.

Maintenance

Planter boxes are relatively high maintenance, as is the case with any containerized garden. Property owners should be especially prepared for maintaining the vegetation itself, which will vary depending upon planting. In many cases, planter boxes may need additional watering during extremely dry periods. Selection of planter box construction material is also important (e.g., masonry construction is easier to maintain than wood construction).

Generally speaking, stormwater facilities need an adequate amount of space for proper maintenance. The minimum required width for maintenance is typically eight feet and the maximum slope is 10 percent. If structural surfaces need to support maintenance vehicles, access routes should be constructed of gravel or other permeable paving surface.

Winter Considerations

Indiana's winter temperatures can go below freezing for a few months every year and surface filtration may not take place in the winter. Winterizing becomes an important issue in plant species selection, especially for larger, hardy or nearly hardy species intended to winter over. In these cases, planter boxes must be designed and dimensioned so that plantings are adequately protected.

Depending on the composition of the planting soil, it may hold water, freeze, and become impervious on the surface. Design options that allow directly for subsurface discharge into the underlying infiltration bed, if applicable, during cold weather may overcome this condition, but at the possible expense of surface filtration.

Cost

Costs for planter boxes are quite modest. However, based on unit cost of cubic foot or gallons of runoff being managed, costs tend to be rather high. Because of the extreme variability of design and construction, costs will range based on the goals of the designer. Smaller boxes with smaller-scale vegetation will be less expensive than larger boxes with more mature vegetation.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Planter Boxes

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
For infiltration planters, was Soil Testing Infiltration Protocol (Soil Infiltration Testing Protocol Appendix) followed?*	--				
Appropriate areas of the site evaluated?	--				
Infiltration rates measured?	--				
For infiltration planters, was the Infiltration BMP followed?*	--				
Two-foot separation between the bed bottom and bedrock/ seasonally high water table?	--				
Soil permeability acceptable?	--				
If not, appropriate underdrain provided?	-				
Natural, uncompacted soils?	--				
Excavation in infiltration areas minimized?	--				
Drawdown time less than 48 hours?	--				
Erosion and sedimentation control?	--				
Adequately stable inflow point(s)?	4				
Positive overflow from system?	4				
Waterproofing provided, as necessary?	3				
Acceptable soil/growing medium specified? ➤ <i>Between 12 and 36 inches deep; 4 inches deeper than bottom of largest root ball</i>	4				
Gravel layer specified properly? ➤ <i>At least 6 inches thick</i>	4				
Underdrain positioned and sized? ➤ <i>Should be sized to drain within approximately 12 hours</i>	4				
Appropriate native plants selected?	3-5				
Feasible construction process and sequence?	--				
Maintenance accounted for and plan provided? ➤ <i>Minimum maintenance width = 8 ft; max. width = 10 ft</i>	6,7				

➤ Denotes Minimum Design Considerations

* In general, the Protocol and Infiltration BMP should be followed as much as possible (although there is more flexibility for infiltration planters than for other BMPs such as pervious pavement and subsurface infiltration that rely almost entirely on infiltration).

References

Stormwater Management Guidance Manual, Version 2.0. Office of Watersheds, Philadelphia, PA: Water Department. www.phillyriverinfo.org/programs/SubProgramMain.aspx?Id=StormwaterManual

Stormwater Management Manual, Revision 3. Portland, OR: Environmental Services, Clean River Works, September 2004. www.portlandonline.com

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BMP Fact Sheet

RIPARIAN BUFFER RESTORATION

A riparian buffer is the area of land that exists between low, aquatic areas such as rivers, streams, lakes, and wetlands, and higher, dry upland areas such as forests, farms, cities, and suburbs. Unaltered riparian buffers may exist as various types of floodplain forest or wetland ecosystems. The Michigan Natural Features Inventory (MNFI) has identified multiple types of distinct natural communities which may occur in Michigan's riparian areas, such as southern floodplain forest, southern wet meadow, emergent marsh, and hardwood conifer swamp.



Figure 1 Suburban riparian buffer - Edward Drain, West Bloomfield, MI
Source: JF New

Applications		Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Residential	Yes	Volume	Low/Med
Commercial	Yes	Groundwater Recharge	Low/Med
Ultra Urban	Yes	Peak Rate	Low/Med
Industrial	Yes	Stormwater Quality Functions	
Retrofit	Yes	TSS	Med/High
Highway/Road	Limited	TP	Med/High
Recreational	Yes	NO ₃	Med/High
		Temperature	Med/High

Additional Considerations	
Cost	Low/Med
Maintenance	Low
Winter Performance	High

Key Design Features

Riparian buffers consist of three distinct zones:

- **Zone 1:** Streamside zone extends a minimum distance of 25 feet
- **Zone 2:** Middle zone extends immediately from the outer edge of Zone 1 for a minimum of 55 feet
- **Zone 3:** Outer zone extends a minimum of 20 feet immediately from outer edge of Zone 2

Site Factors

- Water table to bedrock depth: N/A
- Soils: Match vegetation to soils to maximize long-term viability of plantings
- Slope: N/A
- Potential hotspots: No
- Maximum drainage area: 5 to 20 times the buffer area

Benefits

- Water Quality
- Ecological and aesthetic value
- Low cost

Limitations

- Reduced volume and peak control

Description and Function

A riparian buffer is a permanent restoration area of trees, shrubs, and herbaceous vegetation adjacent to a waterbody that serves to protect water quality and provide critical wildlife habitat. A riparian buffer can be designed to intercept surface runoff and subsurface flow from upland sources for the purpose of removing or buffering the effects of associated nutrients, sediment, organic matter, pesticides, or other pollutants prior to entry into surface waters and groundwater recharge areas.

The riparian buffer is most effective when used as a component of a sound land management system including nutrient management and runoff and sediment and erosion control practices. Use of this practice without other runoff and sediment and erosion control practices can result in adverse impacts on riparian buffer vegetation and hydraulics including high maintenance costs, the need for periodic replanting, and the flow of excess nutrients and sediment through the buffer.

Riparian buffer restoration areas consist of three distinct zones and can be designed to filter surface runoff as sheet flow and down-slope subsurface flow, which occurs as shallow groundwater. For the purposes of these buffer strips, shallow groundwater is defined as saturated conditions which occur near or within the root zone of trees and other woody vegetation and at relatively shallow depths where bacteria, low oxygen concentrations, and soil temperature contribute to denitrification. Riparian buffers are designed to encourage sheet flow and infiltration and impede concentrated flow.

Buffer widths and vegetation types

When developing specific widths for riparian buffers (**Figure 2**), keep site specific factors in mind, and use exact measurements as a guide for each site. Various buffer widths and vegetation types may be appropriate depending on:

- Project goals,
- The natural features of the river valley, wetlands, lake, and floodplain, and
- Wildlife habitat requirements.

Buffer averaging and minimum distances

Buffer ordinances that set specific and minimum buffer dimensions allow the local government to accept buffer averaging in order to accommodate variability in terrain or development plans. For example, a wetland normally entitled by ordinance to a 75-foot minimum buffer may be able to tolerate a 50-foot buffer over part of its margin if a wider buffer is provided along another part. This depends upon such issues as water flow, topography, habitat, and species needs, and other factors that can best be assessed on a case-by-case basis.

Port Townsend, Washington allows buffer averaging if the applicant demonstrates that the averaging will not adversely affect wetland functions and values, that the aggregate area within the buffer is not reduced, and that the buffer is not reduced in any location by more than 50 percent or to less than 25 feet.

Woodbury, Minnesota allows buffer averaging where averaging will provide additional protection to the wetland resource or to environmentally valuable adjacent uplands, provided that the total amount of buffer remains the same.

Source: Environmental Law Institute

Zone 1: Also termed the “streamside zone,” begins at the edge of the stream bank of the active channel and extends a minimum distance of 25 feet; this is measured horizontally on a line perpendicular to the water body.

Undisturbed vegetated area helps protect the physical and ecological integrity of the stream ecosystem. The vegetative target for the streamside zone is undisturbed native woody species with native plants forming canopy, understory, and duff layer where such forest does not grow naturally; then native vegetative cover appropriate for the area (such as grasses, forbs, or shrubs) is the vegetative target. (*HRWC Model Ordinance*, p. 8)

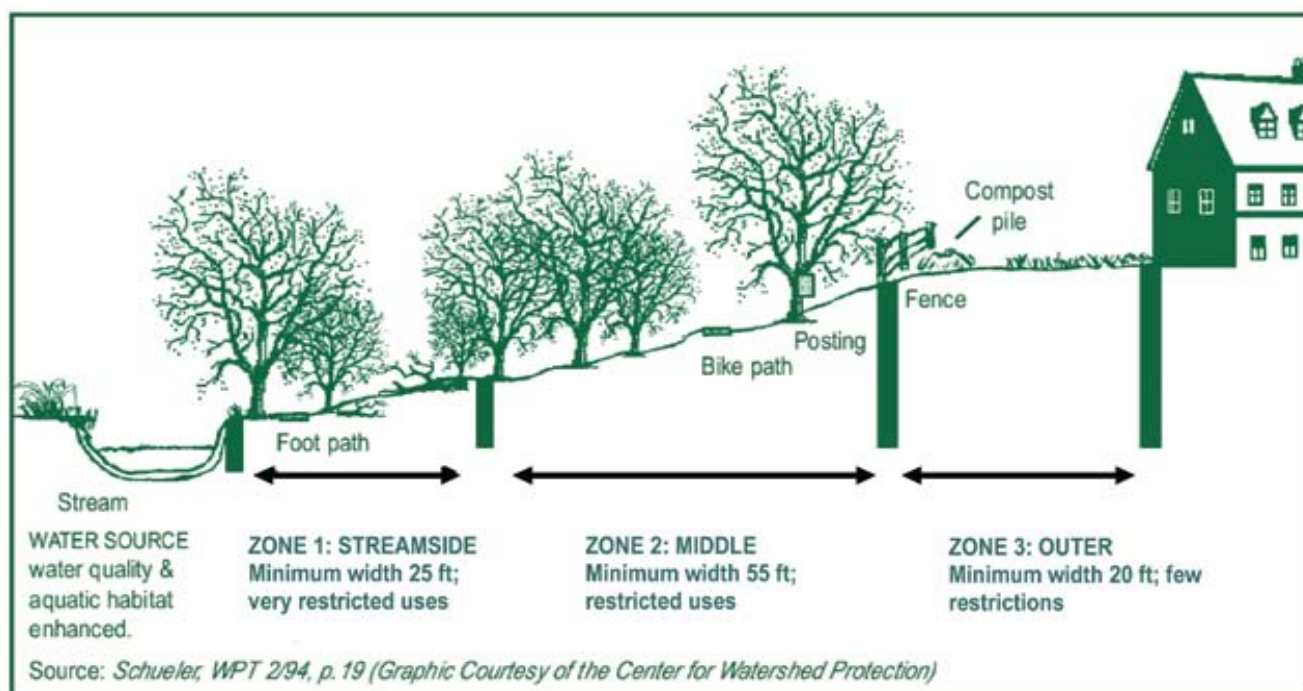


Figure 2 Source of a three-zone buffer

Source: Schueler, Watershed Protection Techniques, 1994 (Graphic courtesy of the Center for Watershed Protection)

Zone 2: Also termed the “middle zone,” extends immediately from the outer edge of Zone 1 for a minimum distance of 55 feet.

This managed area of native vegetation protects key components of the stream ecosystem and provides distance between upland development and the stream-side zone. The vegetative target for the middle zone is either undisturbed or managed native woody species or, in its absence, native vegetative cover of shrubs, grasses, or forbs. Undisturbed forest, as in Zone 1, is strongly encouraged to protect further water quality and the stream ecosystem. (*HRWC Model Ordinance* p. 8)

Zone 3: Also termed the “outer zone,” it extends a minimum of 20 feet immediately from outer edge of Zone 2.

This zone prevents encroachment into the riparian buffer area, filters runoff from adjacent land, and encourages sheet flow of runoff into the buffer. The vegetative target for the outer zone is native woody and herbaceous vegetation to increase the total width of the buffer. Native grasses and forbs are acceptable. (*HRWC Model Ordinance* p. 8)

To maximize wildlife habitat, restoration buffers should reflect the type of riparian vegetation that was found at the site before alteration. If water quality protection is the primary goal, greater emphasis may be placed on installing vegetation that enhances soil stability and absorbs pollutants. If the riparian area is very wet, wetland vegetation may be required.

In addition to installing vegetation, riparian buffer restoration may require physical restoration of soils, topography, or hydrology to achieve the desired result. Geographic factors such as the presence of steep slopes may necessitate an expanded buffer to achieve soil stability. If a river valley is very narrow, the buffer may be adjusted accordingly.

Applications

Riparian buffers are used adjacent to any wetland and bodies of water, such as lakes, streams, swales, and detention ponds. They are not typically applicable in upland areas where water bodies are not present. While riparian buffers provide

significant water quality and ecological benefits, they have only very little benefit for volume control, unless they have some ability to trap and rapidly infiltrate water. Therefore, they should be used with other BMPs that will fulfill any volume control requirements.

Restoring riparian buffers can be applied in many settings:

1. Adjacent to permanent or intermittent streams,
2. At the margins of lakes or ponds,
3. At the margin of intermittent or permanently flooded, environmentally sensitive, open water wetlands,
4. On karst formations at the margin of sinkholes and other small groundwater recharge areas, and
5. Between manicured lawns, cultivated areas or hardscape and swales, streams or rivers to help dissipate and treat runoff and help stabilize the tops of channel banks.

Design Considerations

Restoring riparian buffer areas requires a plan to ensure long-term success. Below is a summary of the steps that groups, designers, engineers, or volunteers should undertake during the planning stages of a riparian buffer project.

1. Confirm suitability for restoration

If stream banks are extensively eroded, consider an alternative location for preparing the riparian buffer, or consider stream bank restoration first. Rapidly eroding stream banks may undermine top of bank restoration efforts.

2. Analyze site's physical conditions

Consider site specific factors to determine the particular width of the individual zones:

- Watershed condition,
- Slope,
- Stream order,
- Soil depth and erodibility,
- Hydrology,

- Seasonal high water table,
- Floodplains,
- Wetlands,
- Streambanks,
- Soil type,
- Vegetation type, and
- Stormwater systems.

3. Analyze site's vegetative features

Existing vegetation at the restoration site should be examined to determine the overall strategy for buffer protection and establishment. Strategies will differ whether pre-restoration conditions are pasture, overgrown abandoned field, mid-succession forest, predominantly invasive vegetation, or another type of setting. An effort to inventory existing vegetation for protection and to determine type of pre-settlement vegetation should be made to guide efforts.

- *Identify desirable species:* Native tree and shrub species that thrive in riparian habitats in Michigan should be used. These species should be identified in the restoration site and protected. Several native vines and shrubs can provide an effective ground cover when establishing the buffer, though they should be controlled to prevent herbaceous competition.
- *Identify non-native and invasive species:* Consider using undesirable species for shading during buffer establishment. Control invasive plants prior to buffer planting may be necessary.
- *Identify sensitive species:* Because riparian zones are rich in wildlife habitat and wetland plant species, be aware of any rare, threatened, or endangered plant or animal species. Be sure to protect sensitive species during riparian buffer restoration.

4. Map the site

Prepare an existing conditions sketch of the site noting important features such as stream width, length, stream bank condition, adjacent land uses, stream activities, desired width of buffer, discharge pipes, obstructions, etc.

5. Create a design that accomplishes multiple stakeholder objectives

Ideally, the three-zone system should be incorporated into the design to meet landowner, community, and watershed objectives:

- *Landowner objectives:* Consider the current use of the buffer by the landowner, especially if the buffer will be protected by the landowner in perpetuity. How will the riparian buffer complement or conflict with existing and probable future uses of the property?
- *Community objectives:* Consider linking the buffer to an existing or planned green infrastructure system, which may include trails, parks, preserves, and wildlife habitat buffers. How can a buffer help achieve local recreation and green space goals?
- *Watershed objectives:* Examine the local watershed plan to identify goals related to riparian buffers. Have goals related to water quality been emphasized. Is wildlife habitat a primary concern?

6. Design measures

The following elements represent a menu of design measures for riparian and natural resource protection that communities may choose to encourage or require developers to incorporate during the site plan review process.

- *Stream size* – A majority of Indiana's stream system is comprised of small streams (first, second, and third order). It is important to reduce nutrient inputs to these streams.
- *Availability of areas for continuous buffers* – Establishing continuous riparian buffers on the landscape should be given a priority over establishing fragmented

buffers. Continuous buffers provide better shading and water quality protection as well as buffers for the wildlife movement.

- *Degrees of degradation* – Urban streams have often been buried or piped as a result of previous development. Streams in areas without forestation may benefit the most from buffer restoration.
- *Loading rates* - The potential for removing pollutants is generally highest where nutrient and sediment loading are the highest.
- *Land uses* – Land uses adjacent to the riparian buffer may influence the required buffer width and vegetation types. While the three-zone riparian buffers described herein are ideal, the full widths of each zone may not always be feasible to establish, especially in urban areas.
- *Habitats* – Establishing a buffer for habitat enhancement requires additional strategies beyond installing a buffer for increased water quality.

7. Determine the appropriate buffer width

Riparian buffer areas need not have a fixed linear boundary, but may vary in shape, width, and vegetative type and character, depending on the goals of the restoration and the natural geography of the water body and riparian area. The desired function of the buffer (habitat, water quality, etc.) determines buffer width. Many factors, including slope, soil type, adjacent land uses, floodplain, vegetative type, and watershed condition influence the design of the buffer. A rule of thumb is “the bigger, the better.” Buffer widths for water quality and habitat maintenance should generally be 35 to 100 feet. Buffers less than 35 feet generally do not protect aquatic resources in the long term.

- *Streamside buffers*

The minimum width of streamside buffer areas can be determined by a number of methods suitable to the geographic area.

Based on soil hydrologic groups as shown in the soil survey report, the width of Zone 2 should be increased to occupy any soils designated as Hydrologic Group D and those soils of Hydrologic Group C that are subject to frequent flooding. If soils of Hydrologic Groups A or B occur adjacent to intermittent or perennial streams, the combined width of Zones 1 and 2 may be limited to the 80-foot minimum.

Based on area, the width of Zone 2 should be increased to provide a combined width of Zones 1 and 2 equal to one-third of the slope distance from the stream bank to the top of the pollutant source area. The effect is to create a buffer strip between field and stream that occupies approximately one-third of the source area.

- Pond and lake-side buffers

The area of pond or lake-side buffer strips should be at least one-fifth the drainage area of the cropland and pastureland source area. The width of the buffer strip is determined by creating a uniform width buffer of the required area between field and pond. Hydrologic group determining width remains the same as for streamside buffers. Minimum widths apply in all cases.

8. Vegetation selection

Zone 1 and 2 vegetation should consist of native streamside species on soils of Hydrologic Groups C and D and native upland species on soils of Hydrologic Groups A and B.

Deciduous species are important in Zone 2 due to the production of carbon leachate from leaf litter, which drives bacterial processes that remove nitrogen and sequester nutrients in growth processes. In warmer climates, evergreens are also important due to the potential for nutrient uptake during the winter

months. In both cases, a variety of species is important to meet the habitat needs of insects important to the aquatic food chain.

Zone 3 vegetation should consist of perennial grasses and forbs. Species recommendations for restoring riparian buffers depend on the geographic location of the buffer. Suggested species lists can be developed in collaboration with appropriate state and federal forestry agencies, the Natural

Green Development Standards

In 2007, the U.S. Green Building Council finalized pilot rating standards for the new Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design – Neighborhood Development (LEED –ND) certification program, which set standards for environmentally superior development practices. Developers can earn certification credit for preserving a buffer around all wetlands and water bodies located on site in perpetuity. Local governments that adopt buffer ordinances encourage LEED-ND developments.

Source: Environmental Law Institute

Resources Conservation Service, and the USDA Fish and Wildlife Service. Species lists should include trees, shrubs, grasses, legumes, and forbs, as well as site preparation techniques. Please refer to the plant list in Recommended Plant List for BMPs Appendix for a recommended list of native trees and shrubs.

The choice of planting stock (seeds, container seedling, bare-root seedlings, plugs, etc.) is often determined by cost. Larger plants usually cost more, though will generally establish more rapidly.

Many factors threaten the long-term viability of riparian plant protection or establishment. With proper foresight, these problems can be minimized. The following items should be considered during the planning stage:

- Deer control
 - Look for signs of high deer densities, including an overgrazed understory with a browse line five to six feet above the ground.
 - Select plants that deer do not prefer (e.g., paper birch, beech, common elderberry)
 - Apply homemade deer repellants
 - Install tree shelters
- Tree shelters
 - Tree shelters, such as plastic tubes that fit over newly planted trees, are extremely successful in protecting seedlings. They may be secured with a wooden stake and netting may be placed over top of the tree tube. They are recommended for riparian plantings where deer or human intrusion may be a problem. Tree shelters should be removed two to three years after the saplings emerge. ° Tree shelters protect trees from accidental strikes from mowing or trimming.
 - Tree shelters create favorable microclimate for seedlings.
 - Tree shelters should be inspected at least four times per year. The following maintenance should be performed as necessary:
 - Repair broken stakes
 - Tighten stake lines
 - Straighten leaning tubes
 - Clean debris from tube
 - Remove netting as tree grows
 - Remove when tree trunk is approximately two inches wide
- Stream buffer fencing
 - Farm animals may cause great damage to stream banks. Consider permanent

fencing such as high-tensile smooth wire fencing or barbed fencing.

- The least expensive fencing is eight-foot plastic fencing, which is also effective against deer and is easily repaired
- Vegetation
 - Consider using plants that are able to survive frequent or prolonged flooding conditions. Plant trees that can withstand high water table conditions.
 - Soil disturbance can allow for unanticipated infestation by invasive plants.
- Accidental or purposeful destruction by landowners
 - Signage, posts, fencing, boulders, etc., may be required to alert adjacent landowners to the location, purpose, and management aims of riparian buffers. This is particularly important where actively managed landscaped areas abut native plant buffers. Signs that stress no mow/no pesticide and fertilizer zones may need to be in several languages, e.g., English and Spanish.

9. **Restoration design within your budget** The planting design (density and types) must ultimately conform to the financial constraints of the project. See discussion below for estimating direct costs of planting and maintenance.

10. **Draw a restoration planting plan**

- Planting layout: The planting plan should be based on the plant types and density. The plan must show the site with areas denoted for trees and shrub species and plant spacing and buffer width.
- Planting density: Trees should be planted at a density sufficient to provide 320 trees per

Spacing (feet)	Trees (number)	Spacing (feet)	Trees (number)	Spacing (feet)	Trees (number)
2x2	10,890	7x9	691	12x15	242
3x3	4,840	7x10	622	12x18	202
4x4	2,722	7x12	519	12x20	182
4x5	2,178	7x15	415	12x25	145
4x6	1,815	8x8	681	13x13	258
4x7	1,556	8x9	605	13x15	223
4x8	1,361	8x10	544	13x20	168
4x9	1,210	8x12	454	13x25	134
4x10	1,089	8x15	363	14x14	222
5x5	1,742	8x25	218	14x15	207
5x6	1,452	9x9	538	14x20	156
5x7	1,245	9x10	484	14x25	124
5x8	1,089	9x12	403	15x15	194
5x9	968	9x15	323	15x20	145
5x10	871	10x10	436	15x25	116
6x6	1,210	10x12	363	16x16	170
6x7	1,037	10x15	290	16x20	136
6x8	908	10x18	242	16x25	109
6x9	807	11x11	360	18x18	134
6x10	726	11x12	330	18x20	121
6x12	605	11x15	264	18x25	97
6x15	484	11x20	198	20x20	109
7x7	889	11x25	158	20x25	87
7x8	778	12x12	302	25x25	70

Table 1 Tree spacing per acre

acre at maturity. To achieve this density, approximately 436 (10 x 10 feet spacing) to 681 (8 x 8 feet spacing) trees per acre should be planted initially. Some rules of thumb for tree spacing and density based on plant size at installation follow:

- o Seedlings 6 to 10 feet spacing (~700 seedlings/acre)
- o Bare root stock 4 to 16 feet spacing (~200 plants/acre)
- o Larger & Container 16 to 18 feet spacing (~150 plants/acre)

Formula for estimating number of trees and shrubs:

Number of Plants = length x width of buffer (feet) / 50 ft²

This formula assumes each tree will occupy an average of 50 square feet, random placement of

plants approximately 10 feet apart, and a mortality rate of up to 40 percent.

Alternatively, the table below can be used to estimate the number of trees per acre needed for various methods of spacing.

11. **Prepare site for restoration** Existing site conditions determine the degree of preparation needed prior to planting. Invasive plant infestation and vegetative competition are variable and must be considered in the planning stages. Site preparation should begin in the fall prior to planting. Determine whether the use of herbicides is necessary.

Mark the site with flags, or marking paint, so that the plants are placed in the correct locations.

County Regulated Drain Considerations: Special attention needs to be paid regarding the type and density of vegetation used if the natural drainage pathway or stream is or will be a part of the County Regulated Drain system. The County may require

that at least one side of the regulated drain is clear of woody vegetation, with continuous access provided for reconstruction and maintenance. Pre-coordination with the local County Surveyor's Office is highly recommended.

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Volume and peak rate

Restoration of the riparian buffer will lower runoff volume and peak rates through lowering the runoff coefficient (i.e., curve number). Designers can receive runoff reduction recognition based on the square feet of trees or shrubs being added. Proposed trees and shrubs to be planted under the requirements of these BMPs can be assigned a curve number (CN) reflecting a woodlot in "good" condition associated with the pre-development underlying soil layer for an area of 200 square feet per tree or the estimated tree canopy, whichever is greater. For shrubs, calculate based an area of 25 square feet per shrub. Calculation methodology to account for this BMP is provided in the LID Approach discussion of the Post-Construction Stormwater Management Chapter of Technical Standards.

Water quality improvement

Water quality benefits of restoring riparian buffers are medium to high. The amount of benefit is based on flow characteristics and nutrient, sediment, and pollutant loadings of the runoff as well as the length, slope, type, and density of vegetation in the riparian buffer.

Runoff entering Zone 3 filters sediment, begins nutrient uptake, and converts concentrated flow to uniform, shallow sheet flow. Zone 2 provides contact time and carbon energy sources in which buffering processes can take place. It also provides long-term sequestering of nutrients. Zone 1 provides additional soil and water contact area to further facilitate nutrient buffering processes, provides shade to moderate and stabilize water temperature, and encourages production of beneficial algae.

Maintenance

An effective riparian buffer restoration project should include stewardship guidelines to manage and maintain the site in perpetuity. The most critical period of riparian buffer establishment is canopy closure, which is typically the first three to five years after saplings are planted. Buffer boundaries should be well defined with clear signs or markers. During this time, the riparian buffer should be monitored four times annually (February, May, August, and November are recommended) and inspected after any severe storm. Maintenance measures that should be performed regularly include:

1. Watering

- Plantings need deep, regular watering during the first growing season, either natural watering via rainfall, or planned watering via caretaker.
- Planting in the fall increases the likelihood of sufficient rain during planting establishment.

2. Mulching

- Mulch provides moisture retention in the root zone of plantings, or potentially impacted vegetation from construction, moderate soil temperature, and some weed suppression.
- Use coarse, organic mulch that is slow to decompose in order to reduce the need for repeat application.
- Apply a two to four-inch layer, leaving air space around tree trunk to prevent fungus growth.
- Use a combination of woodchips, leaves, and twigs that have been stockpiled for six months to a year.

3. Weed and invasive plant control

- Invasive plants can overrun even a well-designed planting. It is essential that there is a plan in place to monitor and remove

invasive vegetation as the planting matures. Use the Nature Conservancy's Global Invasive Species Team Web page as a resource for management techniques. (<http://tncweeds.ucdavis.edu/esadocs.html>) Non-chemical weed control methods are preferred since chemicals can easily be washed into the stream.

- *Herbicides*

Using herbicides is a short-term maintenance technique (two to three years) that is generally considered less expensive and more flexible than mowing and will result in a quicker establishment of the buffer. Consider and evaluate the proximity of herbicide use to water features.

- *Mowing*

Mowing controls the height of the existing grasses, yet increases nutrient uptake. Therefore, competition for nutrients will persist until the canopy closure shades out lower layers of growth. A planting layout similar to a grid format will facilitate ease of mowing, but will yield an unnaturally spaced community. Mowing may result in strikes to tree trunks unless protective measures are used. Mowing should occur twice each growing season. Mower height should be set between eight and 12 inches.

- *Weed mats*

Weed mats are geo-textile fabrics used to suppress weed growth around newly planted vegetation by blocking sunlight and preventing seed deposition. Weed mats are installed after planting, and should be removed once the trees have developed a canopy that will naturally shade out weeds.

4. **Stable debris**

As Zone 1 reaches 60 years of age or is hit with pests or disease, it will begin to produce large debris. Large debris, such as logs, create small dams which trap and hold debris for processing by aquatic insects, thus adding

energy to the stream ecosystem, strengthening the food chain, and improving aquatic habitat. Wherever possible, stable debris should be conserved.

- Where debris dams must be removed, try to retain useful, stable portions which can provide storage. (A state permit may be required). For guidance on evaluating debris impacts on streams and methods for managing debris jams, refer to the "Primer on Large Woody Debris Management" developed by the City of Rochester Hills (see References).

Deposit removed material a sufficient distance from the stream so that it will not be refloated by high water.

5. **Resources for assistance** Local land conservancies are excellent resources when considering the long-term stewardship of the area. If a site has critical value, a local conservancy may be interested in holding a conservation easement on the area, or may be able to provide stewardship services and assistance. Wild Ones (www.for-wild.org/) is a national organization with local chapters which may also provide stewardship resources.

Winter Considerations

Volume reduction, peak rate mitigation, and water quality benefits are not as pronounced in winter months compared to the rest of the year in riparian buffers because infiltration rates are generally lower during prolonged cold weather periods. In addition, evapotranspiration rates are lower in winter months because most vegetation is dormant. However, riparian buffers still provide stormwater management benefits even in winter.

Cost

Installing a riparian buffer involves site preparation, planting, second year reinforcement planting, and additional maintenance. Costs may fluctuate based on numerous variables including whether or not volunteer labor is used, and whether plantings and

other supplies are donated or provided at a reduced cost. The following table presents an estimate of typical costs for riparian buffer restoration.

Criteria to receive runoff reduction recognition for Riparian Buffer Restoration

To receive runoff reduction recognition for riparian buffer restoration under a location regulation, the following criteria must be met:

- ☐ Area is protected by having the limits of disturbance clearly shown on all construction drawings and delineated in the field. 3
- ☐ Area to receive runoff reduction recognition for trees is 200 square feet per tree or the estimated tree canopy, whichever is greater.
- ☐ Area to receive runoff reduction recognition for shrubs is 25 square feet per shrub.
- ☐ Area is located on the development project.
- ☐ Area has a maintenance plan that includes weeding and watering requirements from initial installation throughout ongoing maintenance.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Riparian Buffer Restoration

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Avoidance of stormwater concentration as much as practical?	--				
Appropriate buffer widths designed? ➤ <i>Ideal minimum widths</i> ○ <i>Zone 1: 25 feet</i> ○ <i>Zone 2: 55 feet</i> ○ <i>Zone 3: 20 feet</i> ○ <i>Water Quality/Habitat Maintenance: 35-100 feet</i> ➤ <i>Various Buffer widths and vegetation types may be appropriate depending on:</i> ○ <i>Project Goals</i> ○ <i>Natural features of river valley, wetlands, lake, and floodplain</i> ○ <i>Wildlife Habitat Requirements</i>	1-3, 5,6				
Soil erodibility considered?	4				
Slope considered and appropriate?	--				
Appropriate vegetation selected based on soils, hydrology, and ecoregion?	6,7				
Appropriate vegetation selected based on budget and aesthetics?	--				
Appropriate plant spacing designed?	7,8				
Appropriate balance of woody to herbaceous species?	6				
Seasonality of planting/construction considered?	8				
Erosion and sedimentation control provided?	--				
Maintenance accounted for and plan provided?	9,10				

➤ *Denotes Minimum Design Considerations*

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BMP Fact Sheet

SOIL RESTORATION

Soil is a key ingredient in effective stormwater and water quality management, making proper care of soils a key component of low impact development.

Soil restoration is a technique used to enhance and restore soils by physical treatment and/or mixture with additives – such as compost – in areas where soil has been compacted. Soil media restoration increases the water retention capacity of soil, reduces erosion, improves soil structure, immobilizes and degrades pollutants (depending on soil media makeup), supplies nutrients to plants, and provides organic matter. Soil restoration is also used to reestablish the soil's long term capacity for infiltration and to enhance the vitality of the soil as it hosts all manner of microbes and plant root systems in complex, symbiotic relationships.



Table 1 Soil restoration, Colerain Park, OH (Colerain Township)

Applications		Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Residential	Yes	Volume	Medium
Commercial	Yes	Groundwater Recharge	Low
Ultra Urban	Yes	Peak Rate	Medium
Industrial	Yes	Stormwater Quality Functions	
Retrofit	Limited	TSS	High*
Highway/Road	Yes	TP	High*
Recreational	Yes	NO ₃	Medium
		Temperature	Medium

Additional Considerations	
Cost	Medium
Maintenance	Low
Winter Performance	High

Key Design Features

- Follow nonstructural BMP to minimize soil compaction
- Evaluate existing soil conditions using methods referenced in Soil Infiltration Testing Protocol (found in AppendixD4) before creating a soil restoration strategy
- Soil media used in restoration is either organic or inorganic (man-made) and is mixed into existing soil

Benefits

- Widely applicable
- Relatively low cost
- Additional benefits such as improved plant health and reduced erosion

Limitations

- Relatively limited stormwater benefits on a unit area basis

*Newly amended soils are susceptible to erosion and release of TSS and phosphorus until stabilized with mulch, erosion blanket, sod, or some other covering.

Description and Function

Soil can be restored after construction to partially recondition that which has been degraded by compaction. Bulk density field tests measure soil compaction and can be used to help determine if soil restoration is necessary. Restoring the soil improves its structure and function, increases infiltration potential, and supports healthy vegetative communities.

A healthy soil (**Figure 1**) provides a number of vital functions including water storage and nutrient storage, regulate the flow of water, and immobilize and degrade pollutants. Healthy soil contains a diverse community of beneficial microorganisms, a sufficient amount of plant nutrients (nitrogen and phosphorous), some trace elements (e.g., calcium and magnesium), and organic matter (generally 5 to 10 percent). Healthy soil typically has a neutral or slightly acidic pH and good structure which includes various sizes of pores to support water movement, oxygenation, and a variety of other soil processes.

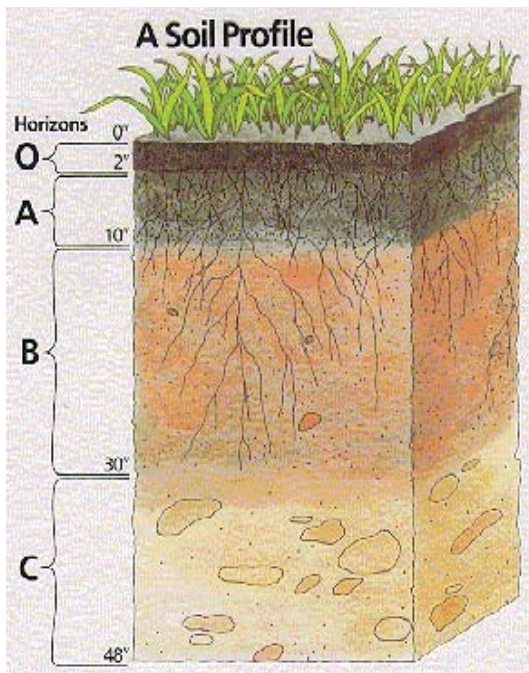


Figure 1 Healthy Soil Profile
Source: USDA NRCS

Caring for soil is also a critical component of water management, especially during development activities, such as construction grading, which often

result in erosion, sedimentation, and soil compaction. Proper protection and restoration of soil is a critical BMP to combat these issues. Soil restoration prevents and controls erosion by enhancing the soil surface to prevent the initial detachment and transport of soil particles.

Soil compaction

Soil compaction is the enemy of water quality protection. Soil compaction occurs when soil particles are pressed together, reducing the pore space necessary to allow for the movement of air and water throughout the soil (**Figure 2**). This decrease in porosity causes an increase in bulk density (weight of solids per unit volume of soil). The greater the bulk density of the soil, the lower the infiltration and therefore, the larger the volume of runoff.

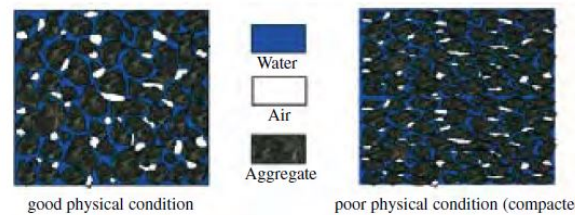


Figure 2 Compacted soil constrains movement of air and water
Source: USDA NRCS

Compaction limits vegetative root growth, restricting the health of plants as well as the biological diversity of the soil. Compaction also affects the infiltrating and water quality capacity of soils. Soil compaction can lead to increased erosion and stormwater runoff, low infiltration rates, increased flooding, and decreased water quality from polluted runoff. After compaction, a typical soil has strength of about 6,000 kilopascals (kPa), while studies have shown that root growth is not possible beyond 3,000 kPa. There are two types of compaction, minor and major, each of which requires a particular restoration technique(s) or method:

- **Minor compaction** – Surface compaction within 8-12 inches due to contact pressure and axle load greater than 20 tons can compact through root zone up to one-foot deep. Soil restoration activities can include: subsoiling, organic matter amendment, and

native landscaping. Tilling/scarifying is an option as long as it is deep enough (i.e., 8-12 inches) and the right equipment is used (should not be performed with common tillage tools such as a disk or chisel plow because they are too shallow and can compact the soil just beneath the tillage depth).

- **Major compaction** – Deep compaction, contact pressure and axle load greater than 20 tons can compact up to two-feet deep (usually large areas are compacted to increase strength for paving and foundation with overlap to “lawn” areas). Soil restoration activities can include: deep tillage, organic matter amendment, and native landscaping.

To evaluate the level of compaction in soils, bulk density field tests are conducted. **Table 2** shows the ideal bulk densities for various textures of soils.

Amending media

Compacted soil can be amended by first tilling the soil, breaking apart the compaction, and then applying various soil media. For minor soil compaction, six inches of soil media (18.5 cubic yards per 1,000 square feet of soil) should be applied, and then tilled into the existing soil up to eight inches. For major soil compaction, 10 inches of soil media (31 cubic yards per 1,000 square feet of soil) should be applied and then tilled into the existing soil up to 20 inches.

Soil media used for amendment may be comprised of either organic or inorganic material. Organic media can increase soil organic matter content,

which improves soil aeration, water infiltration, water and nutrient holding capacity, and is an important energy source for bacteria, fungi, and earthworms.

Organic media:

- Compost,*
- Aged manure,*
- Biosolids* (must be a Grade 1 biosolid),
- Sawdust, (can tie up nitrogen and cause deficiency in plants),
- Wood ash (can be high in pH or salt),
- Wood chips (can tie up nitrogen and cause deficiency in plants),
- Grass clippings,
- Straw, and
- Sphagnum peat (low pH;).

**Materials containing animal wastes can cause phosphorus to be exported from the amended soils.*

Inorganic media:

- Vermiculite,
- Perlite,
- Pea gravel, and
- Sand.

Soil Texture	Ideal Bulk densities, g/cm ³	Bulk densities that may affect root growth, g/cm ³	Bulk densities that restrict root growth, g/cm ³
Sands, loamy sands	<1.60	1.69	1.8
Sandy loams, loams	<1.40	1.63	1.8
Sandy clay loams, loams, clay loams	<1.40	1.6	1.75
Silt, silt loams	<1.30	1.6	1.75
Silt loams, silty clay loams	<1.10	1.55	1.65
Sandy clays, silty clays, some clay loams (35-45% clay)	<1.10	1.49	1.58
Clays (>45% clay)	<1.10	1.39	1.47

Table 2 Bulk Densities for Soil Textures

Source: Protecting Urban Soil Quality, USDA-NRCS

Applications

Soil restoration can occur anywhere to alleviate soil compaction. It can be specifically addressed in the following examples:

- **New development (residential, commercial, industrial)** – Heavily compacted soils can be restored prior to lawn establishment and/or landscaping to increase the porosity of the soils and aid in plant establishment.
- **Detention basin retrofits** – The inside face of detention basins are usually heavily compacted, and tilling the soil mantle will encourage infiltration to take place and aid in establishing vegetative cover.
- **Golf courses** – Using compost as part of landscaping upkeep on the greens has been shown to alleviate soil compaction, erosion, and turf disease problems.

Design Considerations

1. Tilling the soil (also referred to as scarification, ripping, or subsoiling)
 - a. Effective when performed on dry soils.
 - b. Should be performed where subsoil has become compacted by equipment operation, dried out, and crusted, or where necessary to obliterate erosion rills.
 - c. Should be performed using a solid-shank ripper and to a depth of 20 inches, (eight inches for minor compaction).
 - d. Should be performed before amending media is applied and after any excavation is completed.
 - e. Should not be performed within the drip line of any existing trees, over underground utility installations within 30 inches of the surface, where trenching/drainage lines are installed, where compaction is by design, and on inaccessible slopes.
- f. The final pass should be parallel to slope contours to reduce runoff and erosion.
- g. Tilled areas should be loosened to less than 1,400 kPa (200 psi) to a depth of 20 inches below final topsoil grade.
- h. The subsoil should be in a loose, friable condition to a depth of 20 inches below final topsoil grade and there should be no erosion rills or washouts in the subsoil surface exceeding three inches in depth.
- i. Tilling should form a two-directional grid. Channels should be created by a commercially available, multi-shanked, parallelogram implement (solid-shank ripper), capable of exerting a penetration force necessary for the site.
- j. No disc cultivators, chisel plows, or spring-loaded equipment should be used for tilling. The grid channels should be spaced a minimum of 12 inches to a maximum of 36 inches apart, depending on equipment, site conditions, and the soil management plan.
- k. The channel depth should be a minimum of 20 inches or as specified in the soil management plan. If soils are saturated, delay operations until the soil, except for clay, will not hold a ball when squeezed.
- l. Only one pass should be performed on erodible slopes greater than one vertical to three horizontal.
2. Applying soil media for amendment
 - a. Soil media should not be used on slopes greater than 30 percent. In these areas, deep-rooted vegetation can be used to increase stability.
 - b. Soil restoration should not take place within the critical root zone of a tree to avoid damaging the root system. (Where one inch of tree trunk diameter at breast height (DBH) is equal to one foot of soil area on the ground away from the tree trunk.)

- c. Onsite soils with an organic content of at least five percent can be stockpiled and reused to amend compacted soils, saving costs. Note: These soils must be properly stockpiled to maintain organic content.
- d. Soils should generally be amended at about a 2:1 ratio of native soil to media. If a proprietary product is used, follow the manufacturer's instructions for the mixing and application rate.
- e. Add six inches compost or other media and till up to eight inches for minor compaction. (Six inches of compost equates to 18.5 yd³ per 1,000 ft² of soil.)
- f. Add 10 inches compost or other amendment and till up to 20 inches for major compaction. 10 inches of compost equates to approx. 30.9 yd³ per 1,000 ft².
- g. Compost can be amended with bulking agents, such as aged crumb rubber from used tires, or wood chips. This can be a cost-effective alternative that reuses waste materials while increasing permeability of the soil.

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Volume and peak rate reduction

Restored soils result in increased infiltration, decreased volume of runoff, and significantly delayed runoff.

Soil restoration will lower runoff volume and peak rates by lowering the runoff coefficient (i.e., curve number). Designers can receive runoff reduction recognition based on areas (acres) complying with the requirements of these BMPs. These areas can be assigned a curve number (CN) reflecting the pre-development hydrologic soil group of underlying soil layer type instead of what is required for other disturbed pervious areas. The LID Approach discussion of Post-Construction Stormwater Management Chapter of Technical Standards show how to calculate the runoff reduction recognition for this BMP.

Water quality improvement

Although either organic or inorganic materials may be used as soil media, only organic matter can improve water quality by increasing the nutrient holding capacity of soils. Soils rich in organic matter contain microorganisms that immobilize or degrade pollutants. See LID Approach discussion of Post-Construction Stormwater Management Chapter of Technical Standards for information on how to calculate the volume of runoff that needs treatment for water quality improvement.

Organic materials that include fecal matter or animal renderings should not be used where water may infiltrate through the soil and carry nutrients, primarily phosphorus, to surface waters (Hunt and Lord, 2006).

Maintenance

Soil restoration may need to be repeated over time, due to compaction by use and/or settling. Taking soil core samples will help to determine the degree of soil compaction and if additional media application is necessary.

Winter Considerations

Since soil restoration is performed in conjunction with plantings, this BMP should be undertaken in spring or autumn and during dry weather, so that plantings can establish.

Cost

Cost information has been compiled by Cahill Associates and reflects 2007 conditions:

- Tilling costs range from \$800/acre to \$1,000/acre
- Compost costs range from \$860/acre to \$1,000/acre. Costs of other soil media would vary greatly depending on their individual material costs and the amounts used.

Criteria to receive runoff reduction recognition for Soil Restoration

To receive runoff reduction recognition for soil restoration under a location regulation, the following criteria must be met:

- ☐ Area is clearly shown on all construction drawings and delineated in the field.
- ☐ Tilling the soil is required if subsoil is compacted; needs to occur before amending media is applied.
- ☐ Area is not located on slopes greater than 30 percent.
- ☐ Area is not within the critical root zone of any tree.
- ☐ Amendment consists of six inches for minor compaction; 10 inches of amendment for major compaction.
- ☐ Area is located on the development project.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Soil Restoration

Type of soil amendment(s) proposed: _____

Amount of amendments(s) to be used: _____

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Appropriate soil amendment(s) for the site conditions? ➤ Do not use soil media on slopes > 30%	3,4				
Adequate amount of amendment materials?	3				
Bulk density/degree of compaction considered?	2,3				
Appropriate decompaction techniques and equipment?	4				
Appropriate construction sequencing?	--				
Sensitive areas (e.g., near existing trees, shallow utilities, and steep slopes) accounted for?	4				
Appropriate vegetation selected?	--				
Seasonality of planting/construction considered?	5				
Erosion and sedimentation control provided?	--				
Maintenance accounted for and plan provided?	5				

➤ Denotes Minimum Design Considerations

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BMP Fact Sheet

VEGETATED FILTER STRIP

A vegetated filter strip is a permanent, maintained strip of vegetation designed to slow runoff velocities and filter out sediment and other pollutants from urban stormwater. Filter strips require the presence of sheet flow across the strip, which can be achieved through the use of level spreaders. Frequently, filter strips are designed where runoff is directed from a parking lot into a stone trench, a grass strip, and a longer naturally vegetative strip.

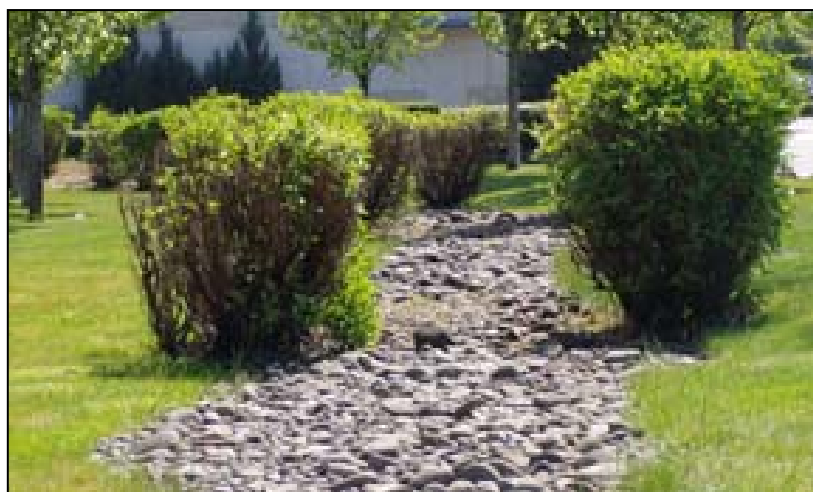


Figure 1 Gravel trench directing water from the parking lot to a vegetated filter strip in Springfield, OR (Springfield Environmental Services Division)

Applications		Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Residential	Yes	Volume	Low
Commercial	Yes	Groundwater Recharge	Low
Ultra Urban	Limited*	Peak Rate	Low
Industrial	Limited*	Stormwater Quality Functions	
Retrofit	Yes	TSS	Med/High
Highway/Road	Yes	TP	Med/High
Recreational	Yes	NO ₃	Med/High
		Temperature	Med/High

* According to site characteristics

Additional Considerations	
Cost	Low
Maintenance	Low/Medium Varies dependent on type of vegetation
Winter Performance	High

Variations

- Turf grasses
- Prairie grasses, shrubs, and groundcover vegetation, including trees
- Indigenous woods and dense vegetation

Key Design Features

- Use with level spreaders to promote sheet flow across strips
- Longitudinal slope from 1-6 percent
- Maintain dense vegetation

Site Factors

- Water table to bedrock depth: N/A
- Soils: N/A for permeability
- Slope: 2-5 percent preferred (1-10 percent if soils/vegetation allow)
- Potential hotspots: Yes with special design considerations
- Max. drainage area: 100 feet impervious or 150 feet pervious up gradient

Benefits

- Low cost
- Good water quality performance
- Aesthetic and habitat benefits

Limitations

- Generally should be coupled with other BMPs for comprehensive stormwater management

Description and Function

Filter strips (**Figure 2**) are gently sloping areas that combine a grass strip and dense vegetation to filter, slow, and infiltrate sheet flowing stormwater. Filter strips are best used to treat runoff from roads and highways, roof downspouts, small parking lots, and other impervious surfaces. They are generally not recommended as stand-alone features, but as pretreatment systems for other BMPs, such as infiltration trenches or bioretention areas. Therefore, filter strips generally should be combined with other BMPs as part of a treatment train so that water quality and quantity benefits are sufficient to meet recommended site design criteria.

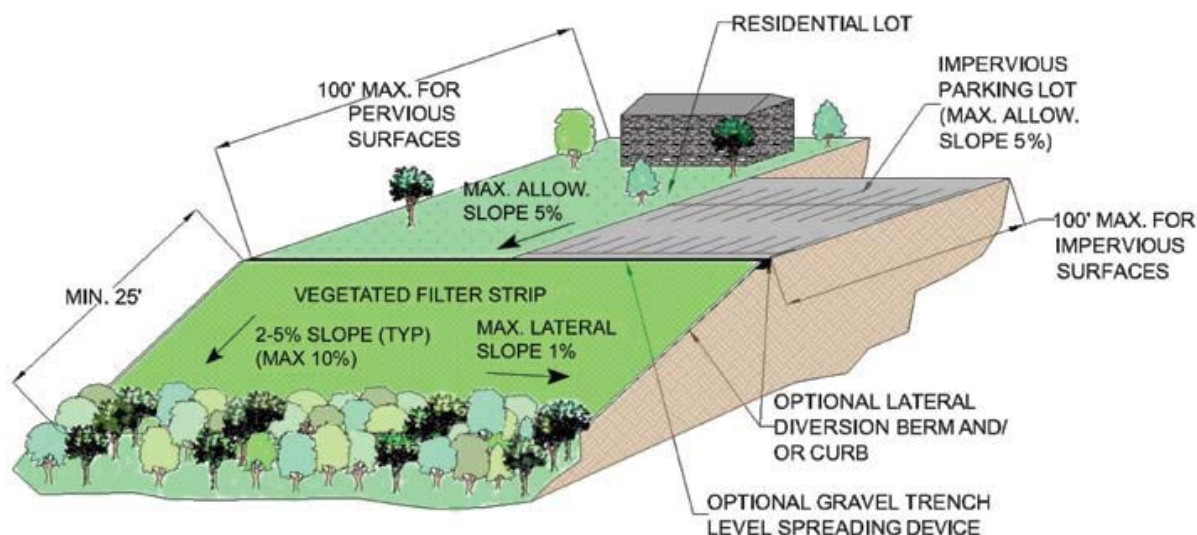


Figure 2 Diagram showing elements of a vegetated filter strip

Maintaining a dense growth pattern that includes turf-forming grasses and vegetation on a filter strip is critical for maximizing pollutant removal efficiency and erosion prevention.

The grass portion of the filter strip provides a pretreatment of the stormwater before it reaches the densely vegetated, or wooded area. In addition, a stone drop can be located at the edge of the impervious surface to prevent sediment from depositing at this critical entry point.

In addition to a stone drop, a pervious berm can reduce runoff velocity and increase volume reduction by providing a temporary, shallow

ponded area for the runoff. The berm should have a height of not more than six to 12 inches and be constructed of sand, gravel, and sandy loam to encourage growth of a vegetative cover.

An outlet pipe(s) or an overflow weir may be provided and sized to ensure that the area drains within 24 hours or to allow larger storm events to pass. The berm must be erosion resistant under the full range of storm events. Likewise, the ponded area should be planted with vegetation that is resistant to frequent inundation.

Filter strips are primarily designed to reduce total suspended solids (TSS) levels. However, pollutants such as hydrocarbons, heavy metals, and nutrients

may also be reduced. Pollutant removal mechanisms include sedimentation, filtration, absorption, infiltration, biological uptake, and microbial activity. Depending on soil properties, vegetative cover type, slope, and length of the filter strip, a reduction in runoff volume may also be achieved by infiltration.

Applications

Vegetated filter strips can be used in a wide variety of applications from residential/commercial developments to industrial sites and even transportation projects where the required space is available. Lack of available space limits use in ultra urban areas and some redevelopment projects.

Design Considerations

1. The design of vegetated filter strips is determined by existing drainage area conditions including drainage area size, length, and slope. In addition, the filter strip soil groups, proposed cover type, and slope needs to be determined. This information is used to determine the length of the filter strip using the appropriate graph (Figures 5 through 9).
2. Level spreading devices are highly recommended to provide uniform sheet flow conditions at the interface of the adjacent site area and the filter strip (see Level Spreader BMP Fact Sheet for detailed information). Concentrated flows should not be allowed to flow onto filter strips, as they can lead to erosion and, thus, failure of the system. Examples of level spreaders include:
 - a. A gravel-filled trench (**Figure 3**), installed along the entire up-gradient edge of the strip. The gravel in the trenches may range from pea gravel (ASTM D 448 size no. 6, 1/8" to 3/8") for most cases to shoulder ballast for roadways. Trenches are typically 12" wide, 24-36" deep, and lined with a nonwoven geotextile. When placed directly adjacent to an impervious surface, a drop (between the pavement edge and the trench) of 1-2" is recommended, in order to inhibit the
 - b. A concrete curb stop with cutouts (**Figure 4**) can be used to provide uniform sheet flow across a vegetated filter strip.
 - c. Concrete sill (or lip).
 - d. An earthen berm (**Figure 5**) with optional perforated pipe.
3. Where possible, natural spreader designs and materials, such as earthen berms, are generally recommended, though they can be more susceptible to failure due to irregularities in berm elevation and density of vegetation. When it is desired to treat runoff from roofs or curbed impervious areas, a more structural approach, such as a gravel trench, is required. In this case, runoff should be directly conveyed, via pipe from downspout or inlet, into the subsurface gravel and uniformly distributed by a perforated pipe along the trench bottom.
4. The upstream edge of a filter strip should be level and directly abut the contributing drainage area.
5. In areas where the soil infiltration rate has been compromised (e.g., by excessive compaction), the filter strip should be tilled prior to establishing vegetation. However, tilling will only have an effect on the top 12-18 inches of the soil layer. Therefore, other measures, such as planting trees and shrubs,

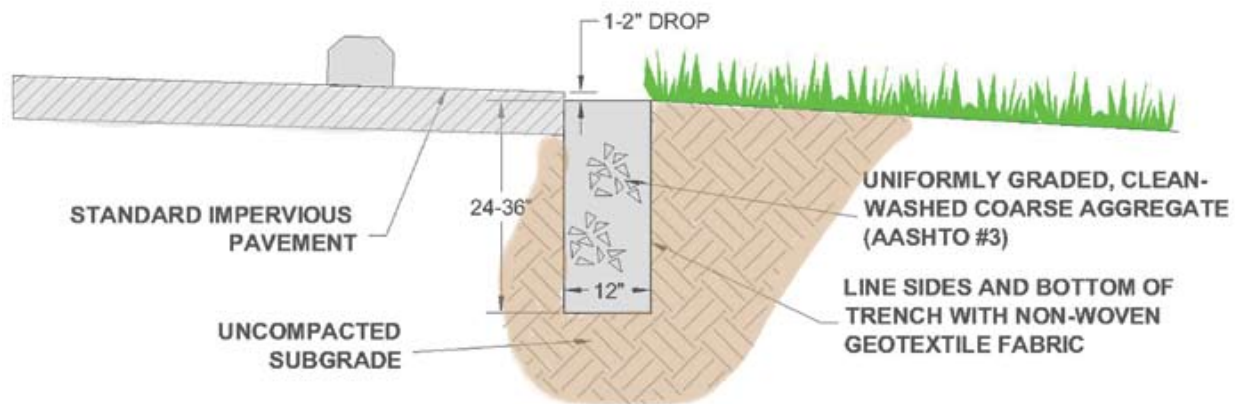


Figure 3 A Level Spreader device (gravel-filled trench)

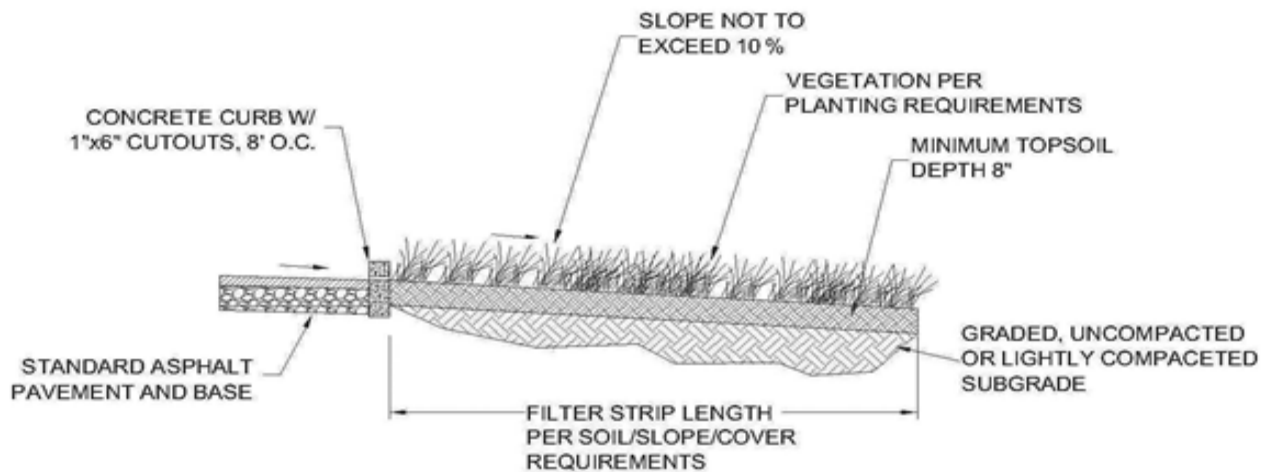


Figure 4 Concrete curb stop schematic

may be needed to provide deeper aeration. Deep root penetration will promote greater absorptive capacity of the soil.

6. The ratio of contributing drainage area to filter strip area should never exceed 6:1.
7. The filter strip area should be densely vegetated with a mix of salt-tolerant, drought-tolerant, and erosion-resistant plant species. Filter strip vegetation, whether planted or existing, may range from turf and native grasses to herbaceous and woody vegetation. The optimal vegetation strategy consists of plants with dense growth patterns, a fibrous root system for stability, good regrowth ability (following dormancy and cutting), and adaptability to local soil and climatic conditions. Native vegetation is always

preferred. (See Recommended Plant List for BMPs Appendix for vegetation recommendations.)

8. Natural areas, such as forests and meadows, should never be unduly disturbed when creating a filter strip. If these areas are not already functional as natural filters, they may be enhanced by restorative methods or by constructing a level spreader.
9. The maximum lateral slope of a filter strip is one percent.
10. To prohibit runoff from laterally bypassing a strip, berms and/or curbs can be installed along the sides of the strip, parallel to the direction of flow.

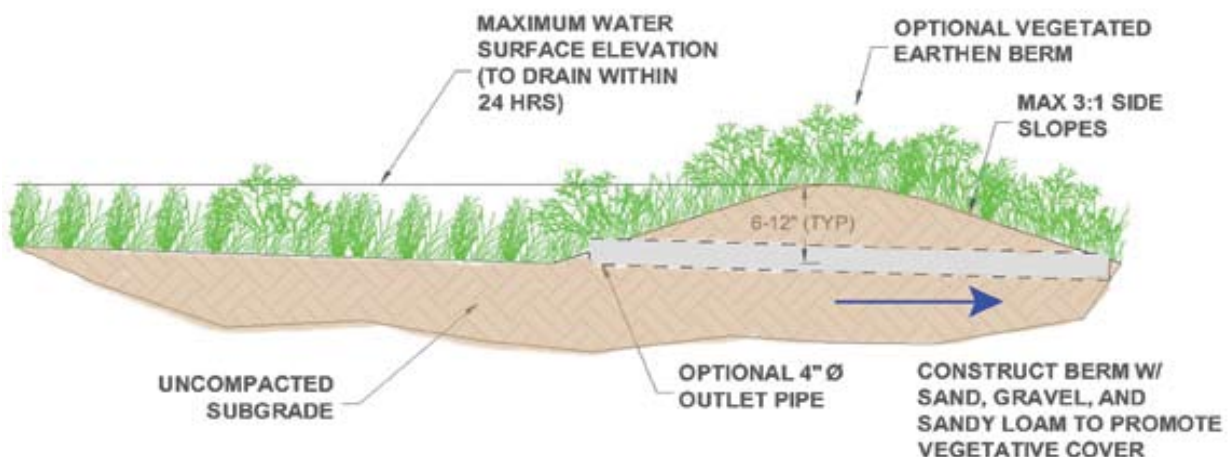


Figure 5 Optional earthen berm at bottom of vegetated filter strip

As shown in **Figure 6, Figure 7, Figure 8, Figure 9, and Figure 10**, the recommended filter strip length varies depending on the type of soil, the type of vegetation, and the filter strip slope. Generally, the more permeable the soil and/or the lower the slope, the shorter the filter strip may be for equivalent storm-water benefits.

County Regulated Drain Considerations: Special attention needs to be paid regarding the type and density of vegetation used if the natural drainage pathway or stream is or will be a part of the County Regulated Drain system. The County may require that at least one side of the regulated drain is clear of woody vegetation, with continuous access provided for reconstruction and maintenance. Pre-coordination with the County Surveyor's Office is highly recommended.

Filter Strip Soil Type	Hydrologic Soil Group	Maximum Filter Strip Slope (Percent)	
		Turf Grass, Native Grasses and Meadows	Planted and Indigenous Woods
Sand	A	7	5
Sandy Loam	B	8	7
Loam, Silt Loam	B	8	8
Sandy Clay Loam	C	8	8
Clay Loam, Silty Clay, Clay	D	8	8

Table 1 Recommended Length as a Function of Slope, Soil Cover

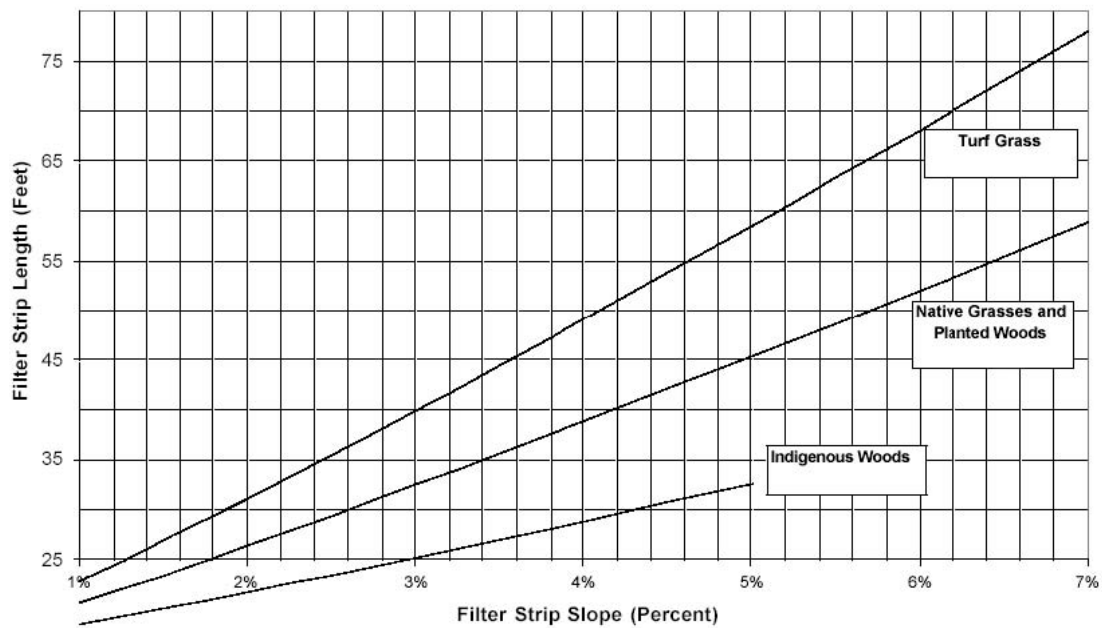


Figure 6 Sandy Soils with Hydrologic Soil Group A
Source: New Jersey Stormwater Best Management Practices Manual, February 2004

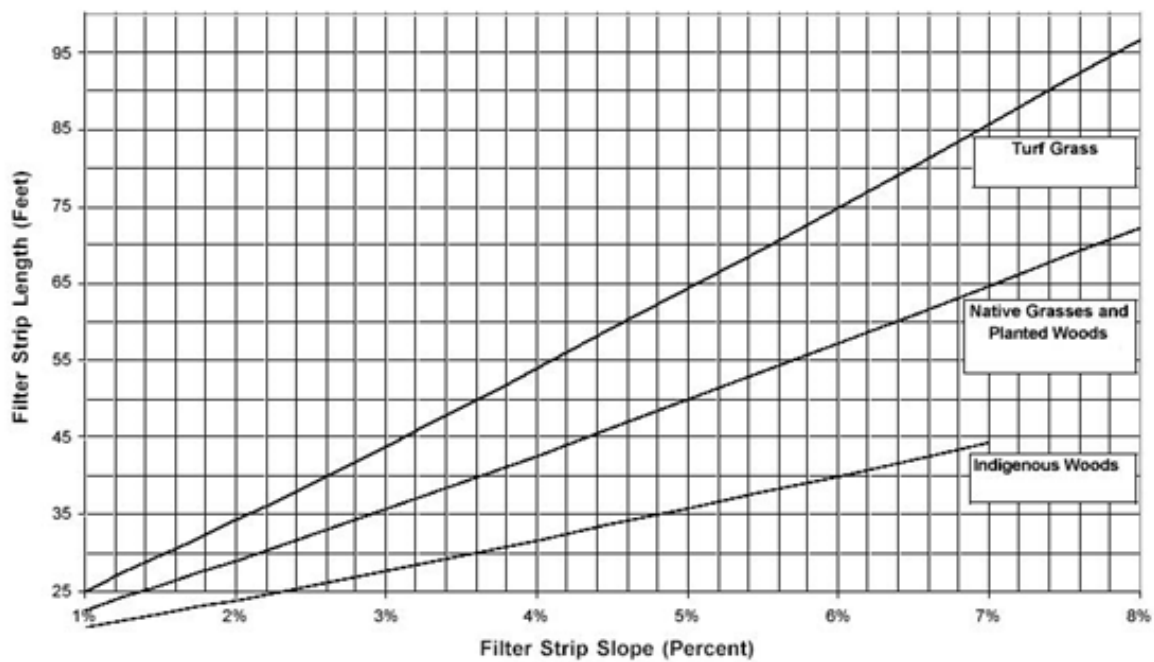


Figure 7 Sandy Loam Soils with Hydrologic Soil Group B
Source: New Jersey Stormwater Best Management Practices Manual, February 2004

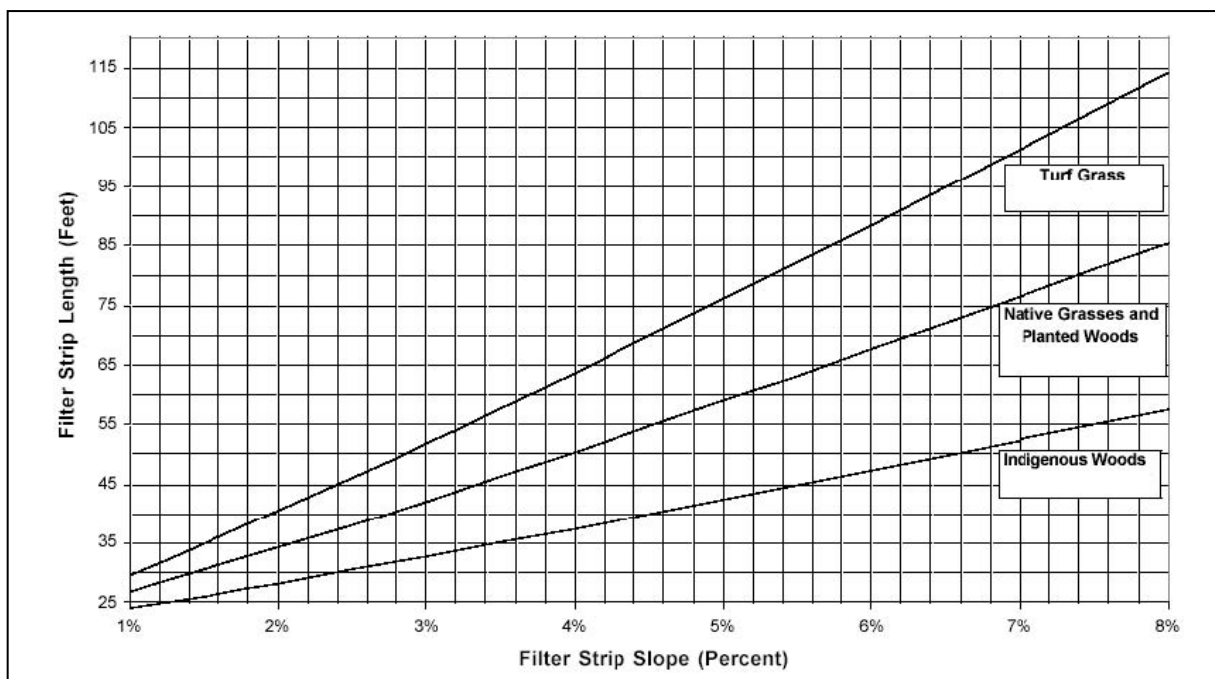


Figure 8 Loam, Silt-Loam Soils Hydrologic Soil Group B
Source: New Jersey Stormwater Best Management Practices Manual, February 2004

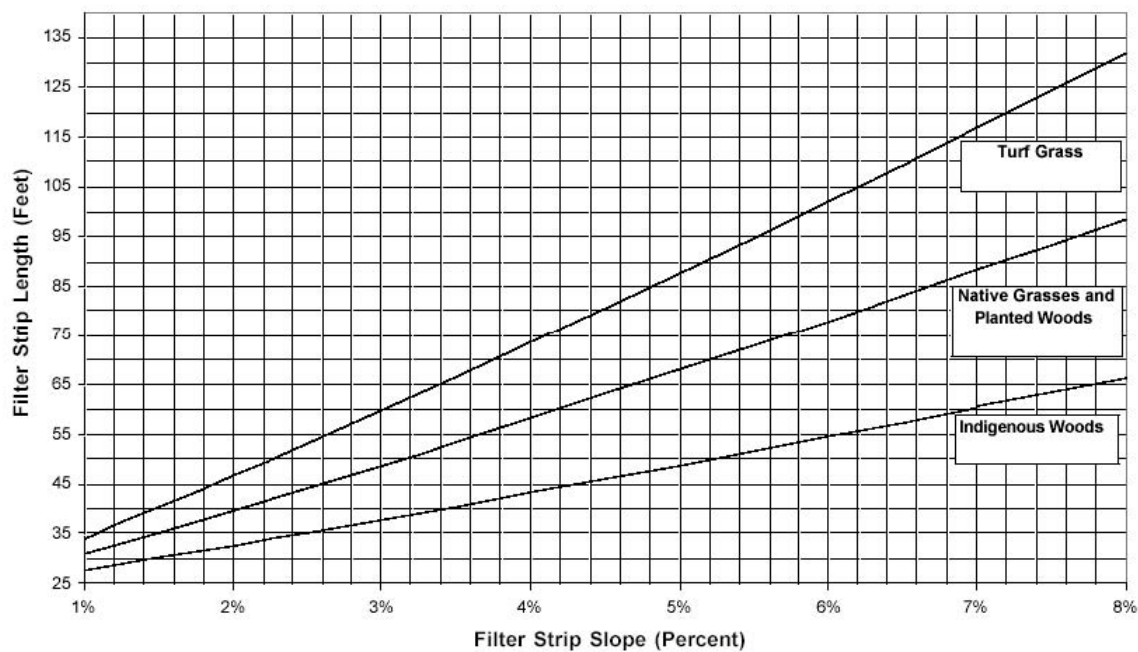


Figure 9 Sandy Clay Loam Soils with Hydrologic Soil Group C
Source: New Jersey Stormwater Best Management Practices Manual, February 2004

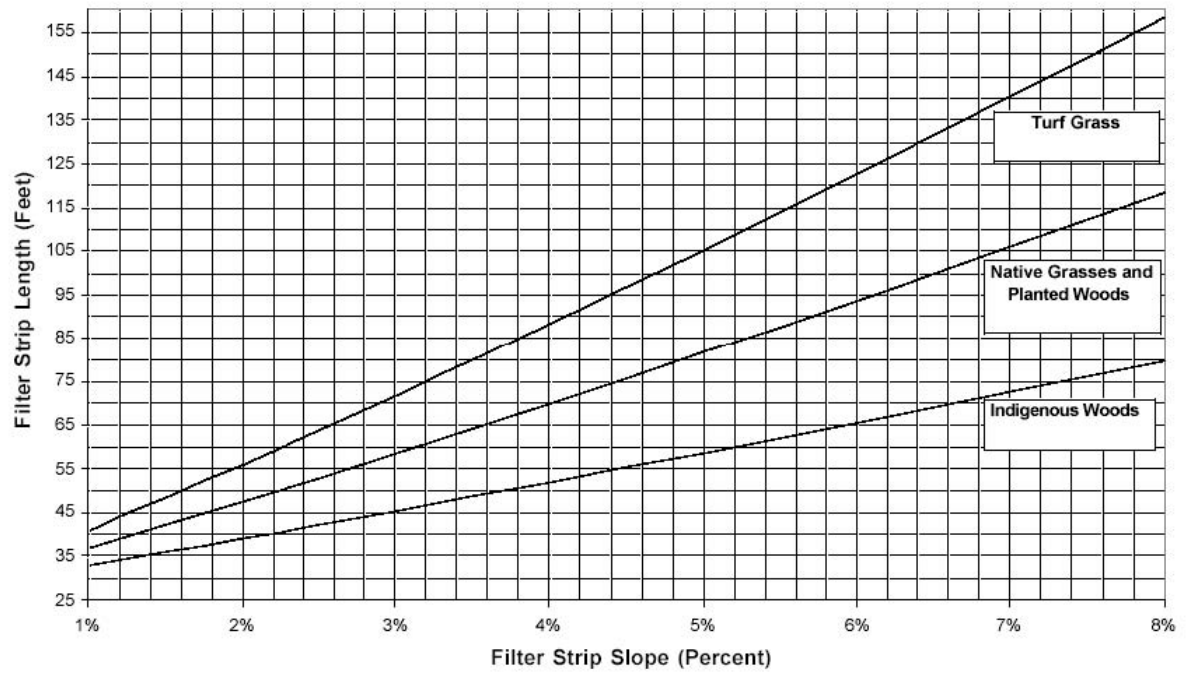


Figure 10 Clay Loam, Silty Clay or Clay Soils with Hydrologic Soil Group D
Source: New Jersey Stormwater Best Management Practices Manual, February 2004

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Volume reduction

Although not typically considered a volume-reducing BMP, vegetated filter strips can achieve some volume reduction through infiltration and evapotranspiration, especially during small storms (storms less than approximately one inch). The volume reduction benefit of a filter strip can be estimated through hydrologic calculations. Two recommended methods are weighting the curve number of the drainage area with that of the filter strip (see LID discussion in Post-Construction Stormwater Quality Management Chapter of Technical Standards) or routing the runoff from the drainage area onto the filter strip area as inflow in addition to incident precipitation.

Large areas with dense vegetation may absorb unconcentrated flows that result from small storms, while areas covered by turf grass will absorb limited runoff. If a berm is constructed at the down-gradient end of the filter strip, an additional volume will be detained and may infiltrate the underlying soil.

Peak rate mitigation

Vegetated filter strips do not substantially reduce the peak rate of discharge. However, if a volume reduction is achieved through infiltration and evapotranspiration, a related reduction in peak rate will occur. If a berm is constructed at the down-gradient end of the filter strip, the rate of release of the detained volume may be controlled by an outlet structure.

Water quality improvement

Water quality benefits of vegetated filter strips are medium to high. The amount of benefit is based on flow characteristics and nutrient, sediment, and pollutant loadings of the runoff, as well as the length, slope, type, and density of vegetation in the filter strip.

Studies have shown 85 to 90 percent reductions in TSS and 40 to 65 percent reductions in nitrates (NO₂) from runoff being treated by vegetated filter strips. In these studies, the vegetated filter strips were between 25 and 29 feet wide with mild (0.7

percent to 1.7 percent) slopes, with grass and mixed vegetation.

Other studies have shown that suspended solids and metals are reduced to steady state amounts within several meters of the edge of the filter strip. (Note: If a filter strip is used for temporary sediment control, it should be regraded and reseeded immediately after construction and stabilization has occurred.)

Construction Guidelines

1. Follow the recommendations for materials in Recommended Materials Appendix.
2. Begin filter strip construction only when the up-gradient site has been sufficiently stabilized and temporary erosion and sediment control measures are in place. The strip should be installed at a time of the year when successful establishment without irrigation is most likely. However, temporary irrigation may be needed in periods of little rain or drought.
3. For non-indigenous filter strips, clear and grade site as needed. Care should be taken to disturb as little existing vegetation as possible, whether in the designated filter strip area or in adjacent areas, and to avoid soil compaction. Grading a level slope may require removing existing vegetation.
4. Grade the filter strip area, including the berm at the toe of the slope. Pressure applied by construction equipment should be limited to four pounds per square inch to avoid excessive compaction or land disturbance.
5. Construct level spreader device at the upgradient edge of the filter strip. For gravel trenches, do not compact the subgrade. (Follow construction sequence for Infiltration Trench.)
6. Fine grade the filter strip area. Accurate grading is crucial for filter strips. Even the smallest irregularities may compromise sheet flow conditions.

7. Seed, sod, or plant more substantial vegetation, as proposed. If sod is proposed, place tiles tightly to avoid gaps, and stagger the ends to prevent channelization along the strip. Use a roller on sod to prevent air pockets from forming between the sod and soil.
8. Stabilize seeded filter strips with appropriate permanent soil stabilization methods, such as erosion control matting or blankets. Erosion control for seeded filter strips should be required for at least the first 75 days following the first storm event of the season.
9. Once the filter strip is sufficiently stabilized after one full growing season, remove temporary erosion and sediment controls.

Maintenance

As with other vegetated BMPs, filter strips must be properly maintained to ensure their effectiveness. In particular, it is critical that sheet flow conditions are sustained throughout the life of the filter strip. Field observations of strips in urban settings show that their effectiveness can deteriorate due to lack of maintenance, inadequate design or location, and poor vegetative cover. Compared with other vegetated BMPs, filter strips require only minimal maintenance efforts, many of which may overlap with standard landscaping demands.

- Inspect sediment devices quarterly for clogging, excessive accumulations, and channelization for the first two years following installation, and then twice a year thereafter. Inspections should also be made after every storm event greater than one inch during the establishment period.
- Sediment and debris should be removed when buildup exceeds two inches in depth in either the filter strip or the level spreader. Improve the level spreader if erosion is observed. Rills and gullies observed along the strip may be filled with topsoil, stabilized with erosion control matting, and either seeded or sodded. For channels less than 12 inches wide, filling with crushed gravel, which allows grass to creep in over time, is acceptable. For wider

channels (greater than 12 inches), regrading and reseeding may be necessary. Small bare areas may only require overseeding. Regrading may also be required when pools of standing water are observed along the slope. In no case should standing water be tolerated for longer than 48 to 72 hours.

- If check dams are proposed, inspect for cracks, rot, structural damage, obstructions, or any other factors that cause altered flow patterns or channelization. Inlets or sediment sumps that drain to filter strips should be cleaned periodically or as needed.
- Remove sediment when the filter strip is thoroughly dry. Dispose of sediment and debris at a suitable disposal or recycling site that complies with applicable local, state, and federal waste regulations.
- When a filter strip is used for sediment control, it should be regraded and reseeded immediately after construction.
- Guidance information, usually in written manual form, for operating and maintaining filter strips, should be provided to all facility owners and tenants. Facility owners are encouraged to keep an inspection log, for recording all inspection dates, observations, and maintenance activities.
- Grass cover should be mowed to maintain a height of 4-6 inches.
- Invasive plants should be removed on an annual basis. Vegetative cover should be sustained at 85 percent and reestablished if damage greater than 50 percent is observed.
- If a filter strip exhibits signs of poor drainage, periodic soil aeration or liming may help to improve infiltration.

Winter Considerations

Filter strips often make convenient areas for snow storage. Thus, vegetation should be salt-tolerant and

the maintenance schedule should include removing sand buildup at the toe of the slope.

The bottom of the gravel trench (if used as the level spreader) should be placed below the frost line to prohibit water from freezing in the trench. The perforated pipe in the trench should be at least eight inches in diameter to further discourage freezing. Other water quality options may be explored to provide backup to filter strips during the winter, when pollutant removal ability is reduced.

Cost

The cost of constructing filter strips includes grading, sodding (when applicable), installing vegetation, constructing a level spreader, and constructing a pervious berm, if proposed. Depending on whether seed or sod is applied, enhanced vegetation use or design variations such as check dams, construction costs may range anywhere from no cost (assuming the area was to be grassed regardless of use as treatment) to \$50,000 per acre. The annual cost of maintaining filter strips (mowing, weeding, inspecting, litter removal, etc.) generally runs from \$100 to \$1,400 per acre and may overlap with standard landscape maintenance costs. Maintenance costs are highly variable, as they are a function of frequency and local labor rates.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Vegetated Filter Strips

Soil type and HSG category: _____

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
➤ Sheet flow provided?	1				
Recommended slope ranges followed? ➤ <i>Max. lateral slope = 1%</i>	1				
➤ Appropriate length for soil, vegetation, and slope?	4-7				
Slope of drainage area below five percent?	--				
If not, is energy dissipation provided?	3				
➤ Length/area of incoming drainage appropriately limited?	3				
Receiving vegetation considered?	2				
Located in undisturbed virgin soil?	4				
If not, will soil be properly compacted and stabilized?	8,9				
Appropriate vegetation selected for stabilization?	3,4				
Feasible construction process and sequence?	8,9				
Soil compaction avoided or mitigated?	--				
Erosion and sedimentation control provided to protect filter strip during construction?	8,9				
Maintenance accounted for and plan provided? <i>Remove sediment/debris if > 2 inches deep.</i> <i>Standing water should not exceed 48-72 hours</i> <i>Grass cover: 4-6 inches high</i>	9				
Additional Design Considerations <i>Underlying soils should have low permeability, ranging between 0.06 and 0.6 inches/hour</i> <i>Hydraulic residence time no less than 5 minutes; optimal time is 9 minutes</i> <i>Average velocity no greater than 0.9 feet/second</i> <i>Average depth of flow no more than 0.5 inches</i>	--				

➤ Denotes Minimum Design Considerations

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BMP Fact Sheet

VEGETATED ROOF

Vegetated roofs, or green roofs, are conventional rooftops that include a thin covering of vegetation allowing the roof to function more like a vegetated surface. The overall thickness of the vegetated roof may range from 2 to 6 inches, typically containing multiple layers consisting of waterproofing, synthetic insulation, non-soil engineered growth media, fabrics, synthetic components, and foliage.



Figure 1 Vegetated Roof, Washington, DC (USEPA, picasaweb)

Applications		Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Residential	Limited	Volume	Med/High
Commercial	Yes	Groundwater Recharge	Low*
Ultra Urban	Yes	Peak Rate	Medium
Industrial	Yes	Stormwater Quality Functions	
Retrofit	Yes	TSS	Medium
Highway/Road	N/A	TP	Medium
Recreational	Yes	TN	Medium
		Temperature	High

Additional Considerations	
Cost	High
Maintenance	Medium
Winter Performance	Medium

* Although vegetated roofs can be used very successfully in combination with infiltration systems.

Variations

- Intensive
- Semi-intensive
- Extensive

Key Design Features

- Extensive roofs are most commonly used for rainfall runoff migration
- Roofs with pitches steeper than 2:12 (9.5 degrees) must incorporate supplemental measures

Benefits

- Good stormwater volume control
- Heating and cooling energy benefits
- Increased lifespan of roof
- Heat island reduction
- Enhance habitat value

Limitations

- Cost (intensive systems)
- Careful design and construction required
- Maintenance requirements until plants established
- Can't store or treat stormwater from other parts of the property

Description and Function

Vegetated roofs involve growing plants on rooftops, thus replacing the vegetated footprint that was removed when the building was constructed. Vegetated roof covers are an “at source” measure for reducing the rate and volume of runoff released during rainfall events. The water retention and detention properties of vegetated roof covers can be enhanced through selection of the engineered media and plants. Depending on the plant material and planned usage for the roof area, modern vegetated roofs can be categorized as systems that are intensive, semi-intensive, or extensive (Table 1).

Intensive vegetated roofs utilize a wide variety of plant species that may include trees and shrubs, require deeper substrate layers (usually greater than four inches), are generally limited to flat roofs, require ‘intense’ maintenance, and are often park-like areas accessible to the general public.

Extensive vegetated roofs are limited to herbs, grasses, mosses, and drought tolerant succulents such as sedum, can be sustained in a shallow substrate layer (less than four inches), require minimal maintenance once established, and are generally not designed for access by the public. These vegetated roofs are typically intended to achieve a specific environmental benefit, such as rainfall runoff mitigation. Extensive roofs are well suited to rooftops with little load bearing capacity and sites which are not meant to be used as roof gardens. The mineral substrate layer, containing little nutrients, is not very deep but suitable for less demanding and low-growing plant communities.

Semi-intensive vegetated roofs fall between intensive and extensive vegetated roof systems. More maintenance, higher costs and more weight are the characteristics for this intermediate system compared to that of the extensive vegetated roof.

Vegetated system layers

A proprietary system provides a growing environment on the roof which adequately compensates for the plant’s natural environment. It ensures reliable technical and ecological functionality for decades. Vegetated roof systems

contain the following functional layers (from bottom to top):

Root barrier: The root barrier protects the roof construction from being damaged by roots. If the waterproofing is not root resistant a separate root barrier has to be installed.

Waterproof membrane: This layer protects the roof structure from moisture and can include a unique root-resistant compound to prevent roots from penetrating.

Protection layer: A specially designed perforation resistant protection mat prevents mechanical damage of the root barrier and roof construction during the installation phase. Depending on the thickness and the material the protection layer can also retain water and nutrients.

Drainage Layer: The drainage layer allows for excess water to run-off into the water outlets. Depending on the design and the material the drainage layer has additional functions such as water storage, enlargement of the root zone, space for aeration of the system and protection for the layers below it. Due to the weight constraints of the roof, the drainage layer is made of light-weight materials. Molded drainage elements made of rubber or plastic are used quite often. Other drainage layers are made of gravel, lava, expanded clay or clay tiles.

Filter layer: The filter layer separates the plant and substrate layers from the drainage layer below. Especially small particles, humic and organic materials, are retained by the filter sheet and are therefore available for the plants. In addition, the filter sheet ensures that the drainage layer and the water outlet are not clogged with silt. Filter layers are preferably made of geo-textiles such as fleece or other woven materials.

Growing medium: The growing medium is the basis of the vegetated roof. A sufficient depth for the root zone has to be ensured as well as an adequate nutrient supply and a well balanced water-air relation. Depending on the type of vegetated roof and the construction requirements, a variety of different system substrates are available.

	Extensive Vegetated Roof	Semi-Intensive Vegetated Roof	Intensive Vegetated Roof
Maintenance	Low	Periodically	High
Irrigation (after plants are established)*	No	Periodically	Regularly
Plant Communities	Moss, Sedum, Herbs, and Grasses	Grass, Herbs, and Shrubs	Perennials, Shrubs, and Trees
System build-up height	60-200 mm	120-250 mm	150-400 mm Underground garages = > 1000 mm
Weight	60 - 150 kg/m ² 13-30 lbs/ ft ²	120 - 200 kg/m ² 25-40 lbs/ ft ²	180 - 500 kg/m ² 35-100 lbs/ft ²
Construction costs	Low	Medium	High
Desired use	Ecological protection layer	Designed vegetated roof	Park-like garden

Table 1 Vegetated roof types

*Irrigation is required regularly to establish plant communities, especially during the first season.

Source: Adapted from International Green Roof Association

Light-weight mineral materials, with high water retention capacity and good water permeability, such as lava, pumice, expanded clay, expanded schist, and clay tiles, have proven to be reliable for many years. Untreated organic material and top soil have disadvantages in terms of weight and drainage function; they are only used as additions to mineral substrates.

Plant level: The plant selection depends on the growing medium as well as local conditions, available maintenance and the desired appearance. Low maintenance, durable and drought resistant plants are used for extensive vegetated roofs, versus, a nearly limitless plant selection for intensive vegetated roofs.

Variations

Some specialized vegetated roof companies offer installation using vegetated blankets/mats or trays. Pre-vegetated blankets/mats are grown off-site and brought to the site for installation (similar to the concept of sod for grass). They can provide an immediate vegetative coverage which can prevent erosion, reduce installation times, and reduce maintenance during what would otherwise be the establishment period for vegetation.

Modular systems are manufactured trays filled with various vegetated roof layers (often pre-vegetated as well) that are delivered to the site and installed on a prepared roof. Manufacturers of these systems claim that benefits include faster installation and

easier access to the roof if maintenance or leak repairs are necessary (in addition to the potential benefits of a pre-vegetated system). Others argue that these benefits are not significant and that trays can have drawbacks such as increased cost, poor aesthetics (module edges being visible), and reduced performance (wet and dry spots resulting from the barriers between modules in the system).

Extensive vegetated roofs

Extensive vegetated roofs are the most commonly used systems due to their higher mitigation of stormwater runoff as well as their lower cost compared to the other systems. Extensive systems have three variations of assemblies that can be considered in design.

Single media assemblies

Single media assemblies (**Figure 2**) are commonly used for pitched roof applications and for thin and lightweight installations. These systems typically incorporate very drought tolerant plants and utilize coarse engineered media with high permeability. A typical profile would include the following layers:

1. Waterproofing membrane
2. Protection layer
3. Root barrier (optional, depending on the root-fastness of the waterproofing)
4. Drainage layer
5. Filter layer
6. Growth media
7. Vegetation

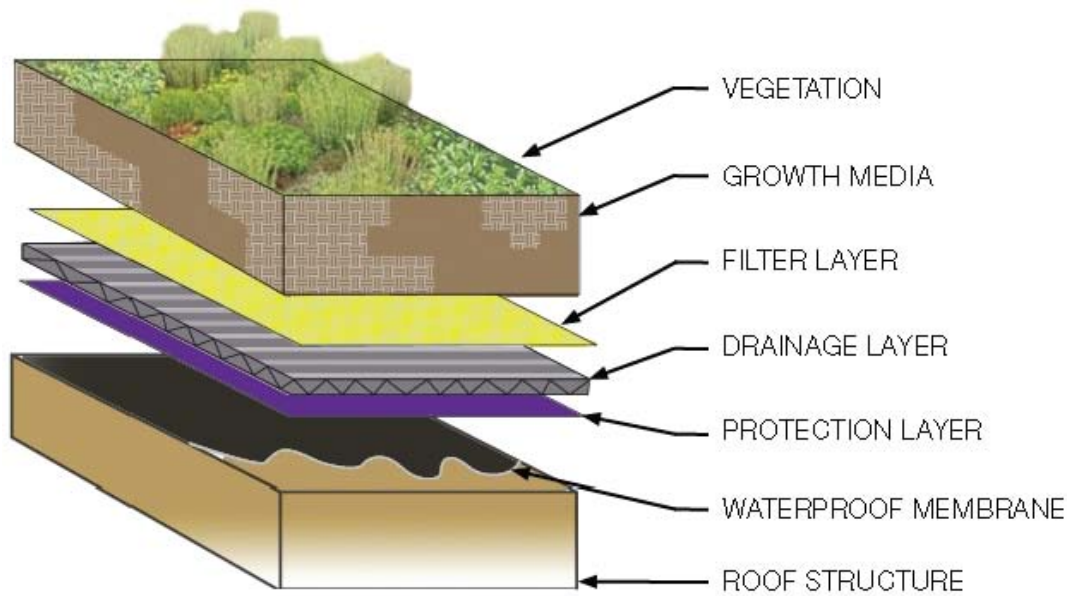


Figure 2 Single media assembly

Pitched roof applications may require the addition of slope bars, rigid slope stabilization panels, cribbing, reinforcing mesh, or similar method of preventing sliding instability.

Flat roof applications with mats as foundations typically require a network of perforated internal drainage conduit to enhance drainage of percolated rainfall to the deck drains or scuppers.

Dual media assemblies

Dual media (**Figure 3**) assemblies utilize two types of non-soil growth media. In this case a finer-grained media with some organic content is placed over a base layer of coarse lightweight mineral aggregate. They do not include a geocomposite drain.

The objective is to improve drought resistance by replicating a natural alpine growing environment in which sandy topsoil overlies gravelly subsoil. These assemblies are typically 4 to 6 inches thick and include the following layers:

1. Waterproofing membrane
2. Root barrier/ protection layer
3. Coarse-grained drainage media
4. Filter layer
5. Growth media
6. Vegetation

These assemblies are suitable for roofs with pitches less than, or equal to about 1.5:12 (7.1 degrees). Large vegetated covers will generally incorporate a network of perforated internal drainage conduit located within the coarse grained drainage layer.

Dual media with synthetic retention/detention layer

These assemblies introduce impervious plastic panels with cup-like receptacles on their upper surface (i.e., a modified geocomposite drain sheet). The panels are in-filled with coarse lightweight mineral aggregate. The cups trap and retain water. They also introduce an air layer at the bottom of the assembly. A typical profile would include:

1. Waterproof membrane
2. Protection layer
3. Retention/detention panel
4. Coarse-grained drainage media
5. Filter layer
6. Growth media
7. Vegetation

These assemblies are suitable on roof with pitches less than or equal to 1:12 (4.8 degrees). Due to their complexity, these systems are usually a minimum of five inches deep. If required, irrigation can be provided via surface spray or mid-level drip.

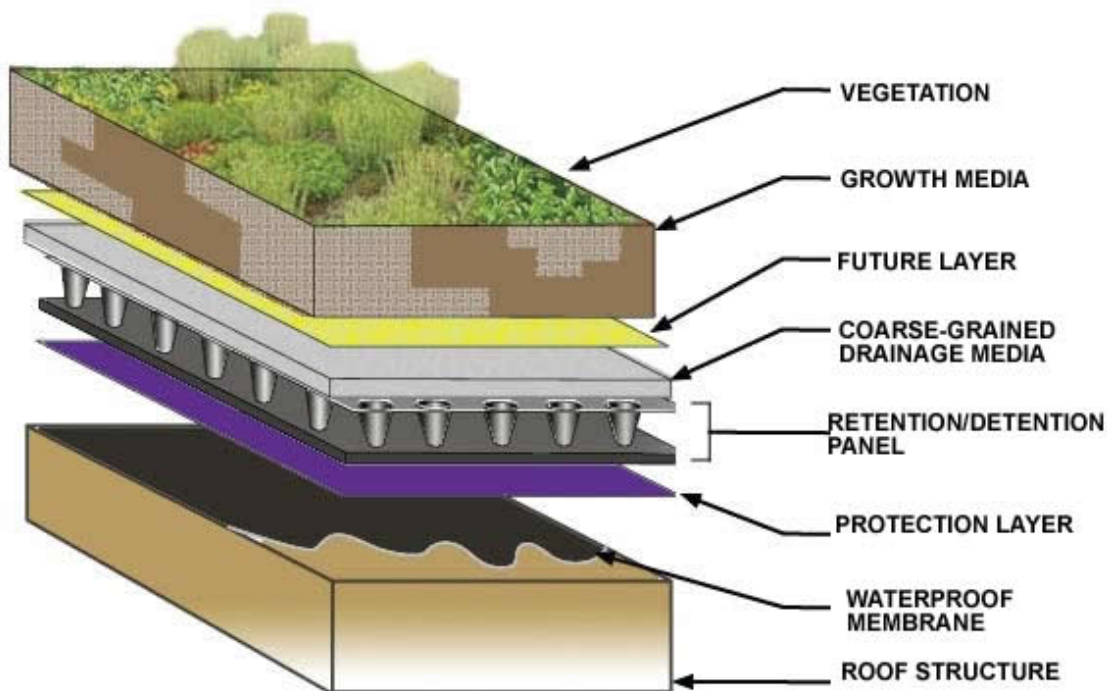


Figure 3 Dual media assembly

Treatment Train

Vegetated roof covers are frequently combined with ground infiltration measures. This combination can be extremely effective for stormwater management and is one of the best ways to replicate the natural hydrologic cycle. Vegetated roofs evapotranspire a significant fraction of annual rainfall and typically discharge larger storm events relatively slowly. If overflow is directed to an infiltration system, the discharge can be infiltrated efficiently as the system has more time to absorb water as it is slowly released from the roof. Vegetated roof covers improve the efficiency of infiltration devices by:

- Reducing the peak runoff rate,
- Prolonging the runoff, and
- Filtering runoff to produce a cleaner effluent.

Benefits

Establishing plant material on rooftops provides numerous ecological and economic benefits including stormwater management, energy conservation, mitigation of the urban heat island effect, increased longevity of roofing membranes, as well as providing a more aesthetically pleasing environment to work and live. A major benefit of green roofs is their ability to absorb stormwater and

release it slowly over a period of several hours, retaining 60-100 percent of the stormwater they receive, depending on the duration and the intensity of the storm.

In addition, green roofs have a longer life-span than standard roofs because they are protected from ultraviolet radiation and the extreme fluctuations in temperature that cause roof membranes to deteriorate. A vegetated roof has a life expectancy of 60 years — three times as long as a traditional roof.

As pervious surfaces are replaced with impervious surfaces due to urban development, the need to recover green space is becoming increasingly critical for the health of our environment. Vegetated roof covers have been used to create functional meadows and wetlands to mitigate the development of open space. This can be accomplished with assemblies as thin as six inches.

Design Considerations

Roof substructure

Wooden constructions, metal sheeting as well as reinforced concrete decks can be considered as

appropriate roof substructures. The base for the vegetated roof is a waterproof roof construction with appropriate load bearing capacity.

Root barrier

Root barriers should be thermoplastic membranes with a thickness of at least 30 mils. Thermoplastic sheets can be bonded using hot-air fusion methods, rendering the seams safe from root penetration. Membranes that have been certified for use as root-barriers are recommended.

Over a period of time roots can damage the waterproofing and roof construction if there have been no corresponding protection measures taken. The root resistance of the waterproofing is determined from the “Procedure for investigating resistance to root penetration at green-roof sites” by the FLL (The Landscaping and Landscape Development Research Society). Over 70 different waterproofing products meet the requirements of this test. If the waterproofing is not root resistant, an additional root barrier has to be installed. Aside from the roof surface, the upstands, perimeters, joints and roof edges also have to be protected against root penetration.

Growth media

Growth media should be a soil-like mixture containing not more than 15 percent organic content. The appropriate grain-size distribution is essential for achieving the proper moisture content, permeability, nutrient management, and non-capillary porosity, and ‘soil’ structure. The grain-size guidelines vary for single and dual media vegetated cover assemblies.

Separation fabric

Separation fabric should be readily penetrated by roots, but provide a durable separation between the drainage and growth media layers. (Only lightweight nonwoven geotextiles are recommended for this function.)

Roof penetrations

For vegetated roofs, the following upstand and perimeter heights have to be considered:

- Upstand height for adjacent building parts and penetrations: minimum of 6 inches.
- Upstand height for roof edges: minimum of 4 inches.

Important: The upstand height is always measured from the upper surface of the vegetated roof system build up or gravel strip. Clamping profiles

Even though it is possible to build pitched green roofs with a slope of 45°, it is not recommended to exceed 10° due to significant limited accessibility for upkeep and maintenance.

guarantee reliable protection and a tight connection of the upstand areas. Roof penetrations (e.g. water connections, building parts for the usage of the roof area, etc.), when possible, should be grouped in order to keep roof penetration to a minimum.

Roof slope

Using modern technologies it is possible to install a reliable vegetated roof system not only on conventional flat roofs, but also on saddle roofs, shed roofs and barrel roofs. Special technical precautions for the mitigation of existing shear forces and erosion are only necessary for a roof slope over 10°.

Roofs with a slope of more than 45° are normally not suitable for a vegetated roof system. Roofs with a slope of less than two percent are special roof constructions on which puddles often develop.

In order to avoid damage to extensive vegetated roofs by water retention, specific arrangements for the roof drainage are necessary. In contrast, it can be beneficial for intensive vegetated roofs to design the roof construction without slope to allow for dam up irrigation.

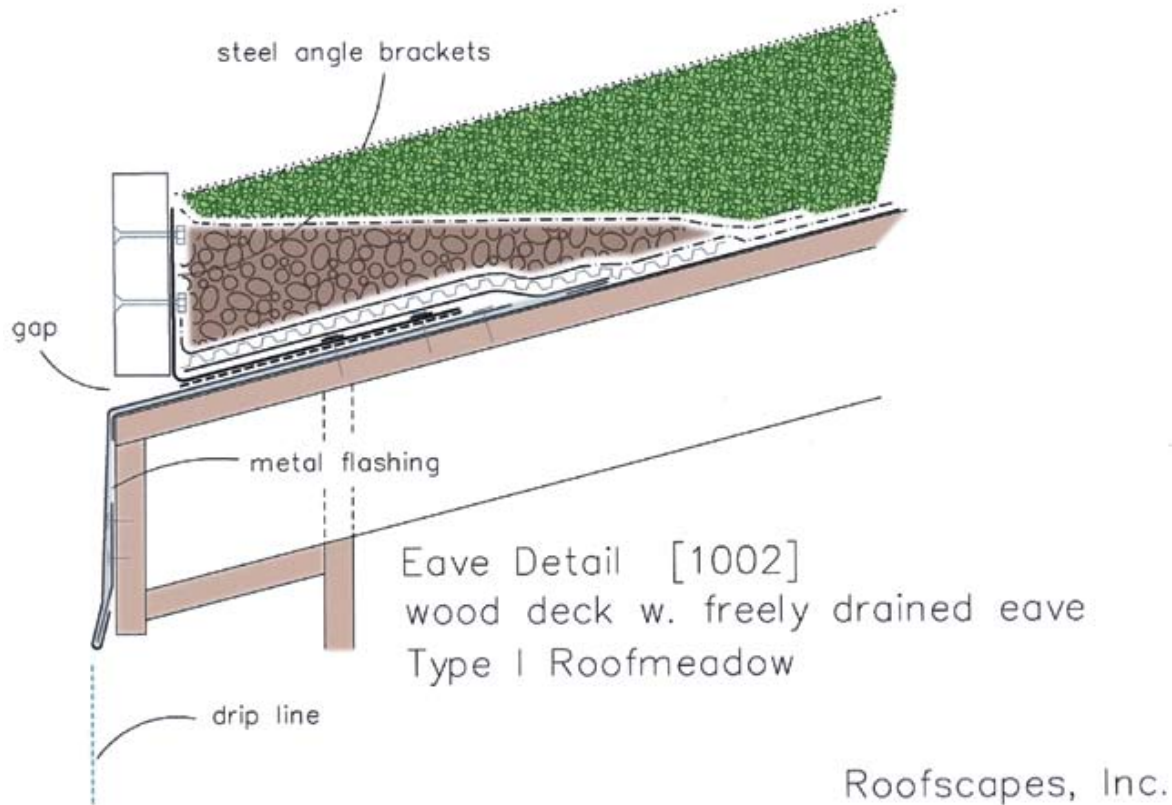


Figure 4 Example Eave Detail for sloped roof
Source: Roofscapes, Inc.

Load calculations

The maximum load bearing capacity of the roof construction must be considered when installing vegetated roofs. Therefore, the water saturated weight of the green roof system, including vegetation must be calculated as permanent load. Extensive vegetated roofs weigh between 60-150 kg/m² (13.0-30.0 lb/ft².) depending on the thickness of the vegetated roof system build-up. Trees, shrubs, and construction elements such as pergolas and walkways cause high point loads and, therefore, have to be calculated accordingly.

Wind uplift

A vegetated roof must be tight to the roof, especially in cases of strong wind. When designing and installing the vegetated roof, safety measures against wind uplift are to be considered.

This is especially important when the vegetated roof provides the load for a loose laid waterproofing and root barrier. The actual influence from the wind depends on the local wind zone, height of the

building, roof type, slope, and area (whether corner, middle or edge) and the substructure.

Roof drainage

Vegetated roof systems store a major part of the annual precipitation and release it to the atmosphere by transpiration. Depending on the thickness of the vegetated roof system build-up and rain intensity, surplus water may accumulate at certain times and must be drained off the roof area. The number of roof outlets and the penetrability factor, or more precisely, the water retaining capacity of the vegetated roof system build-up, has to be adjusted to the average local precipitation.

Roof outlets are to be kept free of substrate and vegetation and have to be controllable at all times. For this purpose “inspection chambers” are installed over the roof outlets. Due to safety precautions, roof areas with inlayed drainage must always have two drainage outlets or one outlet and one safety overflow. For facades and roof areas, gravel strips,

Pitched Vegetated Roofs

Technical Requirements

Root resistant waterproofing is necessary for pitched vegetated roofs; installing an additional root barrier, requires much effort and increases the risk of slippage. Stable abutments have to be installed on the eaves edges to transfer shear forces from the vegetated roof system build-up and the additional snow load into the roof construction. Additional shear barriers may be necessary to transfer the shear forces depending on the roof slope and the roof length. It is recommended the design for the shear barriers and the eaves profiles be done by a structural engineer. With increasing slope, the vegetated roof system build-up is more complicated and the substrate has to be protected from erosion; plastic grid elements can be used for this purpose.

Plant Selection

The success of the landscaping on pitched roofs depends on the plants. Fast surface coverage is the highest priority. A dense planting of root ball plants or pre-cultivated vegetation mats are used in cases of steep slopes and allow for rapid coverage. It is also important to consider the exposure of the roof area, the slope and the location of the building when selecting plants. Perennials and grasses can be used whereas Sedum is the most suitable for pitched roofs, due to the species' high water retention capacity and erosion protection. The water run-off is much faster on pitched roofs compared to a flat roof. It is advisable to plan for an additional irrigation system to provide water during dry periods. The irrigation can be provided either by drip irrigation or by sprinkler systems.

gullies and grids provide fast drainage of rainwater into the drainage system.

Irrigation

Extensive vegetated roofs with drought resistant plant species have to be irrigated only during planting and installation maintenance over the first two years. After its establishment, the annual rainfall is sufficient to sustain the vegetation. In

contrast, the requirements are more involved for intensive vegetated roofs with lawn, shrubs, or trees. An adequate number of precisely dimensioned hoses with automatic irrigation units make plant maintenance during drought periods more manageable. The water supply for roof gardens with no slope can be increased through additional dam-up irrigation. Vegetated roofs can also be irrigated with cistern water.

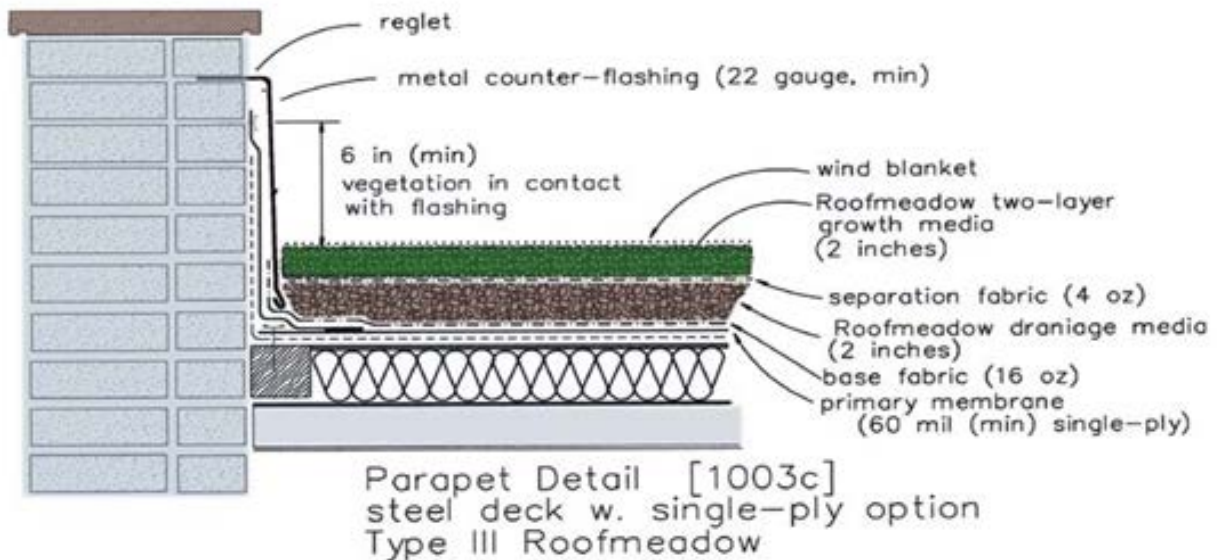


Figure 5 Example parapet flashing detail for flat roof
Source: Roofscapes, Inc.

Fire prevention

As a part of the “hard roof” classification, intensive vegetated roofs provide preventative fire protection in the case of sparks and radiating heat. The criteria that extensive vegetated roofs must meet in order to be considered fire resistant, are already met by most vegetated roof systems that are offered by suppliers. Openings within the vegetated roof (e.g. skylights) need to be installed with a vegetation free zone (approximately 20 inches). On larger roof areas a vegetation free zone (e.g. gravel strip or concrete slabs) are to be installed at least every 130 feet.

Vegetation Considerations

Extensive vegetated roofs

Plants for extensive vegetated roofs have to survive intense solar radiation, wind exposure, drought, low nutrient supply, freezing temperatures and limited root area. Suitable plant varieties are those growing in severe locations with little moisture and nutrient supply, such as dry meadows. The main varieties are sedum, and delosperma. The plants are able to store high amounts of water in the leaves, are stress resistant and recover easily from periods of drought. Other varieties such as dianthus species, asteraceae and ornamental grasses are also suitable for these conditions.

Intensive green roofs

Having an appropriate vegetated roof system and sufficient growing medium (with higher root penetration volume, nutrients and water supply) growth of sophisticated plant varieties on the roof is possible. The selected plants need to be resistant to intense solar radiation and strong winds. Vegetation with various plant varieties such as perennials, herbs, grasses and trees allow for a natural character on the roof. Having a broader plant community increases the amount of maintenance required.

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

The performance of vegetated roof covers as stormwater best management practices cannot be represented by simple algebraic expressions used for surface runoff. In the analysis of vegetated roof covers, the water that is discharged from the roof is

not surface runoff, but rather underflow, i.e., percolated water. The rate and quantity of water released during a particular storm can be predicted based on knowledge of key physical properties, including:

- Maximum media water retention
- Field capacity
- Plant cover type
- Saturated hydraulic conductivity
- Non-capillary porosity

The maximum media water retention is the maximum quantity of water that can be held against gravity under drained conditions. Standards that have been developed specifically for measuring this quantity in roof media are available from FLL and ASTM (E2399).

Conventional runoff coefficients, such as the NRCS runoff curve number, CN, can be back-calculated from computer simulation or measurements of vegetated roof cover assemblies. However, these coefficients will only apply for the specific design storm for which they have been determined. Runoff reduction recognition in CN determination for this practice is discussed under LID Approach in Post-Construction Stormwater Management Chapter of Technical Standards.

Volume reduction

All vegetated roof covers have both retention and detention volume components. Benchmarks for these volumes can be developed from the physical properties described above.

Peak rate mitigation

Vegetated roof covers can exert a large influence on peak rate, especially in less extreme storms such as the 1-, 2-, and 5-year storms. Because volume is reduced, there is some peak rate reduction achieved for all storms. An evaluation of peak runoff rates requires either computer simulation or measurements made using prototype assemblies.

A general rule for vegetated roof covers is that rate of runoff from the covered roof surface will be less than or equal to that of open space (i.e., NRCS curve number of about 65) for storm events with total rainfall volumes up to three times the

maximum media water retention of the assembly. For example, a representative vegetated roof cover with maximum moisture retention of one inch will react like open space for storms up to and including the three-inch magnitude storm.

Using computer simulations, municipalities could generate a table of CN values for specific design storms and green roof types. The table would relate maximum moisture capacity to the CN coefficients. Runoff reduction recognition in CN determination for this practice is discussed under LID Approach in Post-Construction Stormwater Management Chapter of Technical Standards.

Water quality improvement

Direct runoff from roofs is a contributor to pollutants in stormwater runoff. Vegetated roof covers can significantly reduce this source of pollution. Assemblies intended to produce water quality benefits will employ engineered media with almost 100 percent mineral content. Furthermore, following the plant establishment period (usually about 18 months), on-going fertilization of the cover is no longer needed. Experience indicates that it may take five or more years for a water quality vegetated cover to attain its maximum pollutant removal efficiency.

Maintenance

- Irrigation will be required as necessary during the plant establishment period and in times of drought.
- During the plant establishment period, three to four visits to conduct basic weeding, fertilization, and infill planting is recommended.
- The soluble nitrogen content (nitrate plus ammonium ion) of the soil should be adjusted to between one and five parts per million, based on soil test.
- Once plants are established, it is crucial to maintain the roof once or twice a year. Weeds and other unwanted plants on the entire roof, at the perimeters and at the upstands need to be removed. For grass and herb vegetation

the organic buildup has to be removed once a year. Intensive vegetated roofs require higher maintenance and service throughout the year.

Dam-up Irrigation in Vegetated Roof

Intensive Vegetated Roofs depend mainly on additional irrigation. To install an irrigation system which does not use fresh water, a water dam-up irrigation unit is recommended.

Requirements of a dam-up irrigation unit:

- flat roof
- dam-up elements above roof outlets
- an appropriate drainage layer with the necessary height

In case of heavy rain the reservoir is filled primarily and any excess water is collected in the cistern. During dry periods the water on the roof is used first, then water is pumped from the cistern onto the roof and supplied to the plants.

This process can be carried out either manually or electronically. The water in the cistern can also be used for other purposes, provided the reservoir is big enough.

Winter Considerations

Applicable snow load must be considered in the design of the roof structure.

Cost

The construction cost of vegetated roof covers varies greatly, depending on factors such as:

- Height of the building
- Accessibility to the structure by large equipment such as cranes and trailers
- Depth and complexity of the assembly
- Remoteness of the project from sources of material supply
- Size of the project

However, under 2007 market conditions, extensive vegetated covers for roof will typically range

between \$8 and \$16 per square foot, including design, installation, and warranty service (not including waterproofing). Basic maintenance for extensive vegetated covers typically requires about 2-3 person-hours per 1,000 square feet, annually.

Although vegetated roofs are relatively expensive compared to other BMPs in terms of stormwater management, they can have other significant benefits which serve to reduce their life-cycle costs. For example, the longevity of the roof system may be greatly increased. In addition, heating and cooling costs can be significantly reduced.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Vegetated Roofs

Type of vegetated roof(s) proposed: _____

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Load and structural capacity analyzed?	7				
Waterproofing layer and protection adequate?	2,6				
Leak protection system provided?	3-5				
Internal drainage capacity for large storms?	--				
Appropriate growing medium?	3,6				
Appropriate drainage media and/or layer?	2				
Geotextile/filter fabric specified?	2,6				
Good detailing (flashings, penetrations, drains, gravel edges, etc.)?	--				
Slope stability provided, if necessary?	4,8				
Appropriate vegetation selected?	3,6, 8,9				
Plant establishment (temporary irrigation/fertilization) procedures provided?	8				
Erosion control / wind protection provided?	7				
Maintenance accounted for and plan provided?	10				

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BMP Fact Sheet

VEGETATED SWALE

A vegetated swale (or bioswale) is a shallow stormwater channel that is densely planted with a variety of grasses, shrubs, and/or trees designed to slow, filter, and infiltrate stormwater runoff. Check dams can be used to improve performance and maximize infiltration, especially in steeper areas.



Figure 1 Vegetated Swale, Philadelphia, PA (USEPA, picasaweb)

Applications		Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Residential	Yes	Volume	Low/Med
Commercial	Yes	Groundwater Recharge	Low/Med
Ultra Urban	Limited	Peak Rate	Low/Med
Industrial	Yes	Stormwater Quality Functions	
Retrofit	Limited	TSS	Med/High
Highway/Road	Yes	TP	Low/High
Recreational	Yes	TN	Medium
		Temperature	Medium

Additional Considerations	
Cost	Low/Med
Maintenance	Low/Med
Winter Performance	Medium

Variations

- Vegetated swale with infiltration trench
- Linear wetland swale
- Grass swale

Key Design Features

- Handles the 10-year storm event with some freeboard
- Two-year storm flows do not cause erosion
- Maximum size is five acres
- Bottom width of two to eight feet
- Side slopes from 3:1 (H:V) to 5:1
- Longitudinal slope from one to six percent
- Check dams can provide additional storage and infiltration

Site Factors

- Water table to bedrock depth: 2 foot minimum.*
- Soils: A, B preferred; C & D may require an underdrain (see infiltration BMP)
- Slope: 1 to 6 percent. (less than one percent can be used w/ infiltration)
- Potential hotspots: No
- Maximum drainage area: 5 acres

Benefits

- Can replace curb and gutter for site drainage and provide significant cost savings
- Water quality
- Peak and volume control with

Limitations

- Limited application in areas where space is a concern
- Unless designed for infiltration, there is limited peak and volume control

* four feet recommended, if possible

Description and Function

Vegetated swales are broad, shallow, earthen channels designed to slow runoff, promote infiltration, and filter pollutants and sediments in the process of conveying runoff. Water is filtered through the soil to under drains and the swale is quickly dewatered, preventing standing water. Vegetated swales are an excellent alternative to conventional curb and gutter conveyance systems, because they provide pretreatment and can distribute stormwater flows to subsequent BMPs.

Vegetated swales are sometimes used as pretreatment devices for other structural BMPs, especially from roadway runoff. While swales themselves are intended to effectively treat runoff from highly impervious surfaces, pretreatment measures are recommended to enhance swale performance. Pretreatment can dramatically extend the functional life of any BMP, as well as increase its pollutant removal efficiency by settling out some of the coarser sediments. This treatment volume is typically obtained by installing check dams at pipe inlets and/or driveway crossings. Other

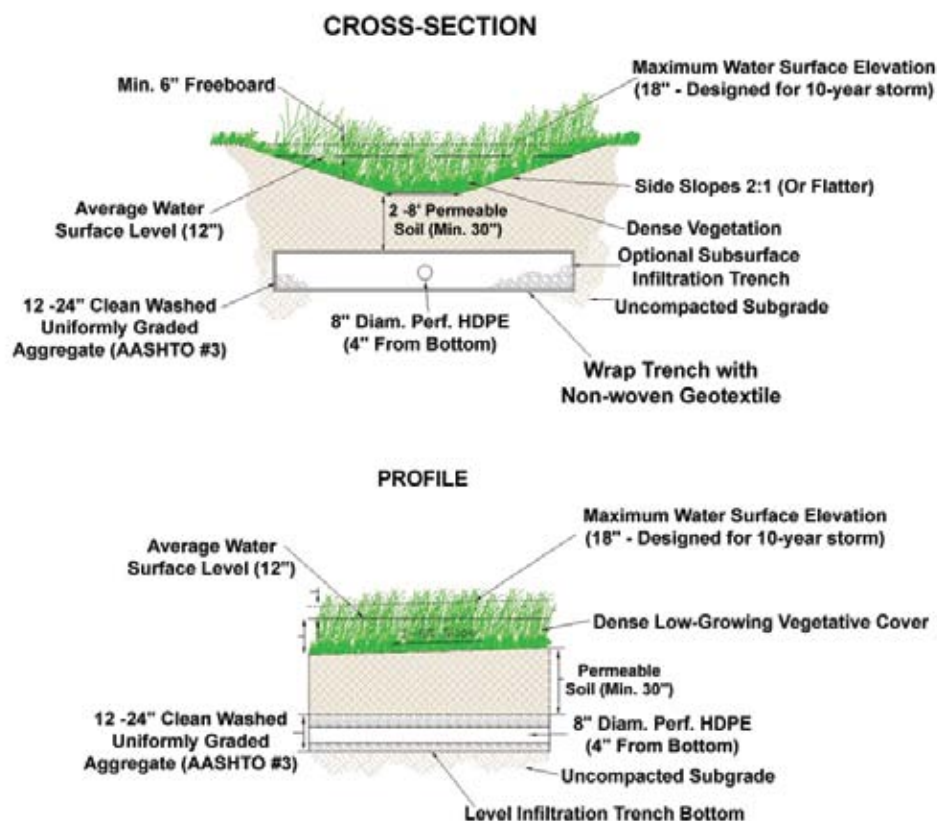


Figure 2 Schematics of Vegetated Swale with an underlying aggregate layer
Source: Pennsylvania Stormwater BMP Manual, 2006

A vegetated swale typically consists of a band of dense vegetation, underlain by at least 12 inches of permeable soil (greater than 0.5 inches/hour). Swales constructed with an underlying aggregate layer (**Figure 2**) can provide significant volume and peak rate reductions. The permeable soil media should have a minimum infiltration rate of 0.5 inches per hour.

pretreatment options include a vegetated filter strip, a sediment fore-bay (or plunge pool) for concentrated flows, or a pea gravel diaphragm (or alternative) with a six-inch drop where parking lot sheet flow is directed into a swale.

Check dams made of wood, stone, or concrete are often employed to enhance infiltration capacity, decrease runoff volume, rate, and velocity. They

also promote additional filtering and settling of nutrients and other pollutants. Check-dams create a series of small, temporary pools along the length of the swale, which drain down within a maximum of 48 hours.

Weep holes may be added to a wood or concrete check dam to allow the retained volume to slowly drain out. Care should be taken to ensure that the weep holes are not subject to clogging. For stone check dams, allow lower flows (two-year storm) to drain through the stone, while allowing higher flows (10-year storm) to drain through a lower section in the center (thereby reducing the potential erosion from water flowing around the sides of the check dam). Flows through a stone check dam are a function of stone size, flow depth, flow width, and flow path length through the dam.

Conveyance

It is highly recommended that a flow splitter or diversion structure be provided to allow larger flows to bypass this practice as needed. Contributing drainage areas should be limited to five acres and an overflow should be provided within the practice to pass the excess flows to a stabilized water course or storm drain. Weirs are common overflow systems with media filters and can control velocities so that they are non-erosive at the outlet point to prevent downstream erosion.

Media filters should be equipped with a minimum eight-inch diameter underdrain in a one-foot gravel bed. Increasing the size of the underdrain makes freezing less likely. The porous gravel bed prevents standing water in the system by promoting drainage. Gravel is also less susceptible to frost heaving than finer grained media. It is also highly recommended that a permeable filter fabric be placed between the underdrain and gravel layer but not extend laterally from the pipe more than two feet on either side (**Figure 2**).

Variations

Vegetated swale with infiltration trench

This option includes a six to 24-inch aggregate bed or trench, wrapped in a nonwoven geotextile (See Infiltration BMP for further design guidelines). The

addition of an aggregate bed or trench can substantially increase volume control and water quality performance although cost is also increased.

Vegetated swales with infiltration trenches are best fitted for milder sloped swales (< 1 percent) or poorly-drained soils where the addition of the aggregated bed system can help to make sure that the maximum allowable ponding time of 48 hours is not exceeded. Ideally, the subsurface system should be designed like an infiltration trench (see Infiltration Practices BMP Fact Sheet). The subsurface trench should be comprised of terraced levels, though sloping trench bottoms may also be acceptable. The storage capacity of the infiltration trench may be added to the surface storage volume to achieve the desired storage.

Grass swale

Grass swales are essentially conventional drainage ditches. They typically have milder side and longitudinal slopes than their vegetated counterparts. Grass swales are usually less expensive than vegetated swales. However, they provide far less infiltration and pollutant removal opportunities and should be used only as pretreatment for other structural BMPs. Grassed swales, where appropriate, are preferred over catch basins and pipes because of their ability to increase travel time and reduce peak flow rates from a site.

Linear wetland swale

Wetland swales occur when the water table is located very close to the surface, incorporating long, shallow, permanent pools or marshy conditions that can sustain wetland vegetation. Like the dry swale, the entire water quality treatment volume is stored within a series of cells created by check dams.

Potential Applications

1. Residential – Swales can be used along road rights of ways and for side yard and backyard drainage.
2. Commercial/Industrial – Swales can provide site drainage around a site, within a site and can help take/slow discharge from other BMPs that outlet to the swale (**Figure 3**).

3. Ultra-urban – There may be some opportunity for swales in ultra-urban areas. However, swales are usually no less than two feet deep. With horizontal to vertical side slopes between 3:1 to 5:1 (horizontal to vertical), the top width of the swale can prohibit its use in this setting where space is usually at a premium.

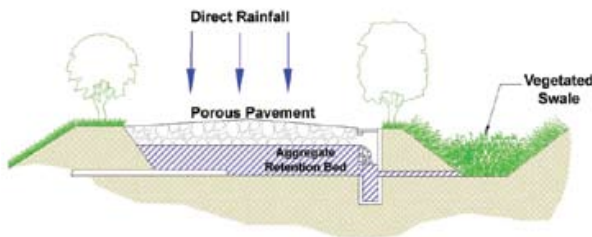


Figure 3 Slow discharge from porous pavement bed to vegetated swale

Source: Pennsylvania Stormwater BMP Manual 2006

4. Retrofit – Potential application in retrofit situations will depend strongly on space and topographic limitations. On sites with little to no slope, swales may not be the best drainage option. In these areas, swales may end up not moving water fast enough or may be prone to long periods of flooding or inundation in areas meant to be mostly dry.
5. Highway/Road – Vegetated swales are an excellent alternative to curb and gutter systems. Appropriately sized roadside swales should be able to handle all the runoff from the roadway and may also be able to handle runoff from areas outside the road surface.

Design Considerations

1. Sizing
 - a. Convey the calculated peak discharge from a 10- year storm event. Use Manning's equation to calculate the velocity associated with the flow to make sure velocities are not larger than permissible velocities discussed in Technical Standards.
 - b. Temporarily store and infiltrate the one-inch storm event, while providing capacity for up to the 10-year storm with 12 inches of freeboard.
 - c. Flows for up to the 2-year storm should be conveyed without causing erosion.
 - d. Maintain a maximum ponding depth of 18 inches at the end point of the channel, with a 12-inch average maintained throughout.
 - e. The maximum ponding time should be 24 hours. It is critical that swale vegetation not be submerged during smaller storms, because it could cause the vegetation to bend over with the flow. This leads to reduced roughness of the swale, higher flow velocities, and reduced contact filtering opportunities.
 - f. Bottom widths typically range from two to eight feet. The maximum bottom width to depth ratio for a trapezoidal swale should be 12:1.
2. Longitudinal slopes between one and six percent are recommended.
3. Swale side slopes are best within a range of 3:1 to 5:1 and should never be greater than 2:1 for ease of maintenance and side inflow from sheet flow.
4. Check dams
 - a. Recommended for vegetated swales with longitudinal slopes greater than three percent or when additional detention or infiltration is desired.
 - b. Should be constructed to a height of six to 18 inches and regularly spaced.
 - c. Should be keyed into the bottom and sides of the swale, usually at least one to two feet on all sides. The height of the key on both sides should exceed the water surface elevation of the 10-year event by at least six inches.

- d. The middle of the check dam crest should be below the sides of the check dam to help focus flow over the check dam and away from the channel sides.
5. Maximum drainage area is five acres.
6. Soil testing is required when infiltration is planned (Soil Infiltration Testing Protocol Appendix).
7. Runoff can be directed as concentrated flows or as lateral sheet flow drainage. Both are acceptable provided sufficient stabilization or energy dissipation is included. If flow is to be directed into a swale via curb cuts, provide a two- to three-inch drop at the interface of pavement and swale. Curb cuts should be at least 12 inches wide to prevent clogging and should be spaced appropriately to minimize the number of cuts but maximize area drained.
8. Soil should be at least 12 inches of loamy or sand with an infiltration rate of at least 0.5 inches per hour.
9. Inundation time is 24 hours. Rototill and replant swale if draw down time is more than 24 hours.
10. Prior to establishment of vegetation, a swale is particularly vulnerable to scour and erosion and therefore its seed bed must be protected with temporary erosion control, such as straw matting, straw-coconut matting, compost blankets, or fiberglass roving. Most vendors will provide information about the Manning's 'n' value and will specify the maximum permissible velocity. It is critical that the selected erosion control measure is adequate to prevent scour.

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Utilize Manning's equation to calculate the velocity associated with the flow from the peak discharge of the 10 year storm or local standard. Maintain

velocity of the 10 year and water quality criteria at non-erosive rates.

Manning's Equation

$$Q = VA = \frac{1.49}{n} \left(\frac{A}{WP} \right)^{2/3} S^{1/2}$$

Where;

Q = Flow in cfs

V = Velocity in ft/sec

A = Area in ft²

n = Manning's roughness coefficient

WP = Wetted Perimeter in ft

S = Slope in ft/ft

Manning's roughness coefficient, or 'n' value in the equation, varies with the type of vegetative cover and design flow depth. Therefore, more conservative, lower numbers in the "n" value guidance tables should be used in design to determine flow velocities.

If driveways or roads cross a swale, culvert capacity may supersede Manning's equation for determination of design flow depth. In these cases, use standard culvert calculations to establish that the backwater elevation would not exceed the banks of the swale. If the maximum permissible velocity is exceeded at the culvert outlet, energy dissipation measures must be implemented.

Volume calculations (as it relates to the use of check dams)

The volume stored behind each check-dam (**Figure 4**) can be approximated from the following equation:

$$\text{Storage Volume} = 0.5 * (\text{Length of Swale Impoundment Area per Check Dam}) * (\text{Depth of Check Dam}) * [(\text{Top Width of Check Dam}) + (\text{Bottom Width of Check Dam})] / 2$$

Active infiltration during the storm should also be accounted for when appropriate according to guidance provided in the Infiltration Practices BMP Fact Sheet.

Peak rate mitigation

Vegetated swales can help reduce peak flows by increasing travel times, reducing volume through infiltration, and storing runoff behind check dams, culverts, etc.

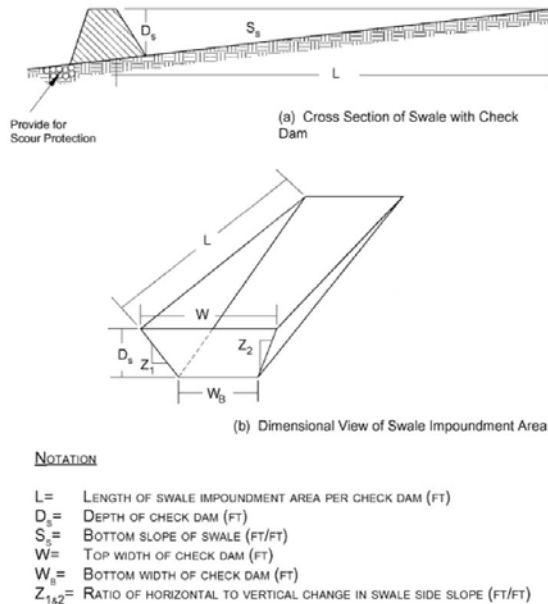


Figure 4 Storage behind check dam

Source: Northern Virginia Planning District Commission, 1992

Water quality improvement

Although the reported water quality benefits of vegetated swales vary widely, they can be expected to remove a high amount of total suspended solids (typically 70 percent to 90 percent), a low-to-medium amount of total phosphorus (approximately 10 percent to 50 percent), and a medium amount of total nitrogen (often 40 percent to 75 percent). There is some research to suggest that longer swales provide additional treatment. Vegetated swales can be used effectively for pretreatment prior to discharge to other BMPs (see Post-Construction Stormwater Management Chapter of Technical Standards for water quality criteria and calculations).

Construction Guidelines

1. Begin vegetated swale construction only when the upgradient site has been sufficiently stabilized and temporary erosion and

sediment control measures are in place. Vegetated swales should be constructed and stabilized very early in the construction schedule, preferably before mass earthwork and paving increase the rate and volume of runoff.

2. Rough grade the vegetated swale. Equipment should avoid excessive compaction and/or land disturbance. Excavating equipment should operate from the side of the swale and never on the bottom. If excavation leads to substantial compaction of the subgrade (where an infiltration trench is not proposed), the compacted soils should be removed and replaced with a blend of topsoil and sand to promote infiltration and biological growth. At the very least, topsoil should be thoroughly deep plowed into the subgrade in order to penetrate the compacted zone and promote aeration and the formation of macropores. Following this, the area should be disked prior to final grading of topsoil.
3. After rough grading, fine grade the vegetated swale. Accurate grading is crucial for swales. Even the smallest non-conformities may compromise flow capacity or soil stability.
4. Vegetation should consist of a dense and diverse selection of close-growing, water-tolerant plants (See Recommended Plant List for BMPs Appendix for complete list). Common species used in vegetated swales in Michigan include Canada Bluejoint (*Calamagrostis canadensis*), Virginia Wild Rye (*Elymus virginicus*), Switch Grass (*Panicum virgatum*), and Prairie Cord Grass (*Spartina pectinata*). Additionally, a cover crop of seed oats (*Avena sativa*) and Annual Rye (*Lolium multiflorum*) should be used for quick germination and stability.

Maintenance

1. Irrigation will be necessary during plant establishment and may be needed in periods of little rain or drought. Vegetation should be established as soon as possible to prevent erosion and scour.

2. Stabilize freshly seeded swales with appropriate temporary or permanent soil stabilization methods, such as erosion control matting or blankets. Erosion control for seeded swales should be required for at least the first 75 days following the first storm event after planting. If runoff velocities are high, consider sodding the swale or diverting runoff until vegetation is fully established.
3. Annually inspect and correct erosion problems, damage to vegetation, and sediment and debris accumulation (address when greater than three inches at any spot or covering vegetation).
4. Annually mow and trim vegetation to ensure safety, aesthetics, proper swale operation, or to suppress weeds and invasive vegetation. Dispose of cuttings in a local composting facility; mow only when swale is dry to avoid rutting.
5. Annually inspect for uniformity in cross-section and longitudinal slope; correct as needed.
6. Inspect and correctly check dams when signs of altered water flow (channelization, obstructions, etc.) are identified.

Winter Considerations

Plowing snow into swales will help insulate the bottom of the swale. However, snow that has accumulated salt or sand from de-icing operations should not be pushed into swales. Winter conditions also necessitate additional maintenance concerns, which include the following:

1. Inspect swale immediately after the spring melt, remove residuals (e.g., sand) and replace damaged vegetation without disturbing remaining vegetation.
2. If roadside or parking lot runoff is directed to the swale, mulching and/or soil aeration/manipulation may be required in the spring to restore soil structure and moisture capacity and to reduce the impacts of de-icing agents.
3. Use nontoxic, organic de-icing agents, applied either as blended, magnesium chloride-based liquid products or as pretreated salt.
4. Consider the use of salt-tolerant vegetation in swales.

Cost

Vegetated swales provide a cost-effective alternative to traditional curbs and gutters, including associated underground storm sewers (**Table 1**). The following table compares the cost of a typical vegetated swale (15-foot top width) with the cost of traditional conveyance elements.

It is important to note that the costs listed are strictly estimates and should be used for rough estimating purposes only. Also, these costs do not include the cost of activities such as clearing, grubbing, leveling, filling, and sodding of vegetated swale (if required). When all construction, operation, and maintenance activities are considered, the cost of vegetated swale installation and maintenance is far less than that of traditional conveyance elements.

	SWALE	Underground Pipe	Curb & Gutter
Construction Cost (per linear foot)	\$4.50 - \$8.50 (from seed)	\$2 per foot per inch of diameter	\$13 - \$15
	\$15 - \$20 (from sod)	(e.g. a 12" pipe would cost \$24 per linear foot)	
Annual O & M Cost (per linear foot)	\$0.75	No Data	No Data
Total annual cost (per linear foot)	\$1 from seed \$2 from sod	No Data	No Data
Lifetime (years)	50		20

Table 1 Cost Comparison showing vegetated swale to pipe, curb, and gutter
Source: Bay Area Stormwater Management Agencies Association, June 1997

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Vegetated Swales

Type of vegetated swale proposed: _____

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
Can the swale safely (with freeboard) convey the 10-year event? <i>Max. drainage area: 5 acres</i> <i>Max. ponding depth at end point of channel: 18 inches</i> <i>Max. ponding time: 24 hours</i>	1,4				
Are bottom slopes between one percent and six percent?	1,4				
Are check dams provided for slopes > 3%?	4				
Are check dams adequately keyed into swale bottom and sides?	4				
Are two-year and ten-year flows non-erosive?	1,4,5				
Will the swale completely drain in 48 hours?	2,3				
Are side slopes between 3:1 and 5:1 H:V?	1,3,4				
Are swale soils loam, loamy sand or sandy loam? <i>Min. infiltration rate of permeable media: 0.5 in/hr</i>	5				
Underdrain provided for infiltration swales? <i>Min. diameter of underdrain: 8 inches</i>	2,3				
Vegetation and Manning's coefficient selected?	4,6				
Non-erosive inflow condition(s)?	--				
Erosion control provided during construction?	5				
Maintenance accounted for and plan provided?	6,7				
Additional Design Factors ➤ Hydraulic residence time no less than 5 minutes; optimal time is 9 minutes ➤ Average velocity no greater than 0.9 ft/sec ➤ Bottom width at least 2 feet ➤ Denotes Minimum Design Considerations					

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BMP Fact Sheet

WATER QUALITY DEVICES

Various proprietary, commercially available BMPs have been designed to remove non-point source pollutants from the conveyance system for storm-water runoff. These structural BMPs vary in size and function, but all utilize some form of filtration, settling, or hydrodynamic separation to remove particulate pollutants from overland or piped flow. The devices are generally configured to remove pollutants including coarse sediment, oil and grease, litter, and debris. Some filtration devices employ additional absorbent/adsorbent material for removal of toxic pollutants. Pollutants attached to sediment such as phosphorus, nitrates, and metals may be removed from stormwater by effective filtration or settling of suspended solids. Regular maintenance is critical for the continued proper functioning of water quality devices.



Figure 1 Installation of hydrodynamic separator (Johnson County, Kansas Stormwater Management Program)

Variations

- Filtration
- Settling
- Hydrodynamic separation

Key Design Features

- Located below ground, as part of the stormwater conveyance system
- Devices may be internal to the conveyance system
- Devices may be installed in an offline configuration, so that a certain flow will be treated while allowing a surcharge flow to bypass the treatment.

Benefits

- Can be used in a variety of applications including retrofitting existing stormwater systems

Limitations

- Virtually no water quantity benefits
- Potentially high costs
- Typically require frequent maintenance

Applications		Stormwater Quantity Functions	
Residential	Yes	Volume	None
Commercial	Yes	Groundwater Recharge	None
Ultra Urban	Yes	Peak Rate	None
Industrial	Yes	Stormwater Quality Functions	
Retrofit	Yes	TSS	Varies
Highway/Road	Yes	TP	Varies
Recreational	Yes	TN	Varies
		Temperature	None

Additional Considerations	
Cost	Varies
Maintenance	Varies, but no less than two inspections and cleanings per year
Winter Performance	High

Description and Function

Water quality devices are generally proprietary, commercially available units designed to improve the quality of stormwater by removing pollutants as the stormwater flows through the system. Devices designed to reduce particulate solids may also reduce pollutants since pollutants can be bound to solid particles.

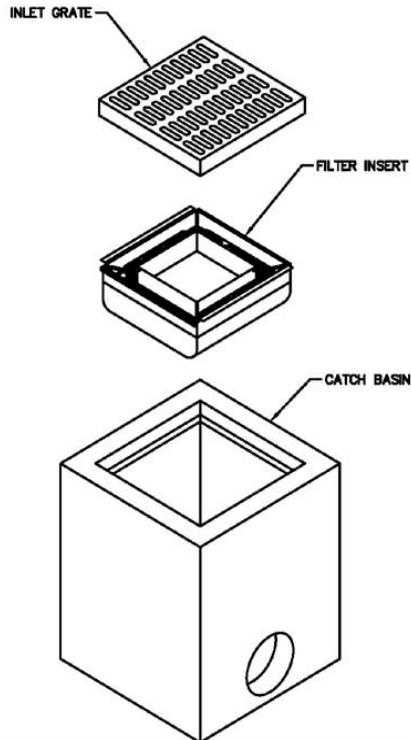


Figure 2 Tray type insert

Source: Pennsylvania Stormwater BMP Manual, 2004

Water quality devices are often employed in areas with high concentrations of pollutants in runoff and may effectively reduce sediment particles in stormwater runoff before they reach other BMPs, such as infiltration systems. Manufacturers of the devices usually provide the internal design specifications and installation instructions. Most are designed to treat a “first flush” of stormwater and provide an overflow or bypass route for large storm events. The first flush is generally measured as a volume of runoff from a specified storm.

The advantage of the manufactured devices is their adaptability to ultra urban and retrofit situations, where they can be installed beneath most surface infrastructure such as roads and parking lots.

Variations

Water quality devices may be separated into three categories: filtration (including absorption and adsorption), settling, and hydrodynamic separation.

Filtration devices

These devices usually take the form of catch basin inserts. They are installed within catch basins directly below the grates, and may be tray, bag, or basket types. Runoff passes through the device before discharging into the outlet pipe. Some modification of the catch basin inlet is sometimes necessary to accommodate and support the insert, and to allow bypass from large storms. Trays, baskets and bag type inserts perform similar functions – removing debris and sediment.

Tray type inserts

Tray type inserts (**Figure 2**) allow flow to pass through filtration media contained in a tray around the perimeter of the catch basin. High flows pass over the tray and into the catch basin directly.

Bag type inserts

Bag type inserts are made of fabric that hangs down below the catch basin grate. Overflow holes are usually provided to allow larger flows to pass without causing flooding at the grate. Certain manufactured products include polymer textiles that are intended to increase pollutant removal effectiveness.

Basket type inserts

Basket type inserts (**Figure 3**) are also installed in catch basins. Most have a handle to remove the basket for maintenance. Tray and basket inserts can



Figure 3 Catch basin insert showing basket frame

Source Stormwater 360

be fitted with packets of absorbent or adsorbent material to aid with removal of oil, grease, or toxic pollutants. Small orifices allow small storm events to weep through, while larger storms overflow the basket. Tray and basket inserts are generally useful for debris and large sediment, and require consistent maintenance.

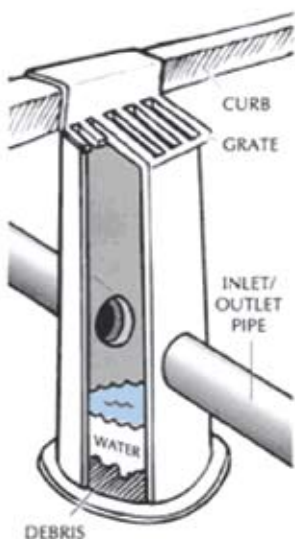


Figure 4 Sumped catch basin
Source: City of Farmington Hills, MI

Settling devices

Settling devices provide sump areas where stormwater can collect within the conveyance system. Stormwater pools in the sump area, where velocity decreases and suspended solids settle out. Cleaner water pours over the top to the next link in the conveyance system. An example of a settling water quality device is a sumped catch basin.

Sumped catch basins

Sumped catch basins (Figure 4) are constructed in the same way as standard catch basins, but are constructed with approximately 12 to 24 inches of storage depth below the invert of the outlet pipe. Where suitable soils exist and groundwater is not a concern, weep holes should be drilled into the bottom of the inlet to prevent standing water from remaining in the inlet for long periods of time.

Hydrodynamic devices

Hydrodynamic devices (Figure 5) are flow-through devices designed to serve within the stormwater conveyance system. Many products available from various manufacturers employ various mechanical methods to remove sediment, debris, and pollutants from storm-water. These methods include inclined plane settlement plates, vortexes, baffle systems, tubular settlement chambers, or combinations of these. Sediment, debris, and pollutant removal efficiencies vary widely among devices and according to the rate, quantity, and quality characteristics of the flow reaching the device. These devices work most effectively in combination with other BMPs.

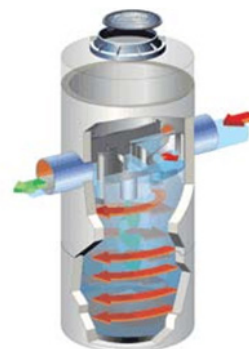
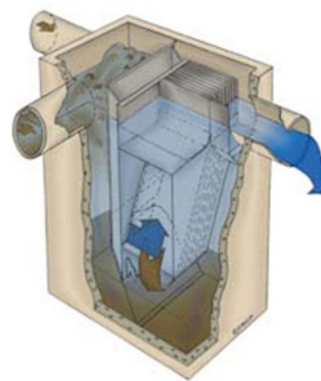


Figure 5 Example of Hydrodynamic Devices
Sources: Stormwater Solutions (top) and Terre Hill Stormwater Solutions (bottom)

Applications

The wide variety of commercially available water quality devices allows for them to be used in many different applications. However, their use in low-density residential projects is likely to be limited by their maintenance burden and the fact that other BMPs are more cost effective for stormwater management in residential projects (they are generally used for areas with high impervious cover).

Water quality devices are useful in any existing or proposed conveyance systems that have or are expected to have significant levels of sediment or debris, or in areas that have pollutant hot spots. Such areas include, but are not limited to: parking lots, gas stations, golf courses, streets, driveways, and material handling at industrial or commercial sites.

Water quality devices are commonly used as pre-treatment before other structural BMPs. Long term functionality of these devices is dependent on regular long term inspection and cleaning. Long term maintenance must be considered when specifying these devices.

Design Considerations

1. Consider the requirements of the site including anticipated sediment loading and the components of each water quality device. The proposed land use should determine specific pollutants to be removed from runoff.
2. Design to ensure easy access to the device for people and also the necessary tools for maintenance. Frequent inspection and maintenance is required. To avoid re-suspension of pollutants, perform maintenance well before sediment or debris has filled the device to capacity.
3. Consider the head requirements for the device to work properly, especially when determining the total head requirements for a treatment train. Catch basin inserts have the advantage of fitting into existing drainage

systems at points where head loss already occurs.

4. The stormwater management system for the site should be designed to provide treatment for bypassed water. This occurs when storms in excess of the device's hydraulic capacity bypass the device and fail to achieve the designed runoff treatment standard for the site.
5. Properly design and select water quality devices to prevent re-suspension of captured sediments during storm events that exceed the system capacity.

Stormwater Functions and Calculations

Volume reduction

Water quality devices do not provide volume reduction.

Peak rate mitigation

Water quality devices do not provide peak rate reduction.

Water quality improvement

Water quality benefits may be quantified according to a third party review and testing of the technology, such as the U.S. EPA which offers a searchable clearinghouse of approximately 220 independent tests of BMP performance at: <http://www.bmpdatabase.org/>

If third party test results are not available for a device, the manufacturers' specifications and tests for removal efficiencies of a device may be considered.

For the purpose of this Technical Standards, accepted treatment rates for Water Quality Devices must be based on procedure described in the Post-Construction Stormwater Management Chapter of Technical Standards.

Winter Considerations

A limited amount of data is available concerning cold weather effects on water quality insert effectiveness. Freezing may result in runoff

bypassing the treatment system. Salt stratification may also reduce detention time. Colder temperatures reduce the settling velocity of particles, which can result in fewer particles being “trapped”. Salt and sand loadings may significantly increase in the winter and may warrant more frequent maintenance.

Water quality inserts (tray, bag, or basket types) as well as hydrodynamic devices should be inspected and maintained during winter months. Application of sand, ash, cinders, or other anti-skid materials may cause water quality devices to fill more quickly. Clogged inserts in cold weather can be especially problematic if flow is restricted and ponded water freezes over to create a safety hazard or render a portion of the site unusable.

Maintenance

Follow the manufacturer’s guidelines for maintenance taking into account expected sediment and pollutant load and site conditions.

Inspect each water quality device at least twice per year and after all major storm events if possible. Post-construction, they should be emptied when full of sediment (and trash) and cleaned at least twice a year.

Vactor trucks may be an efficient cleaning mechanism for devices with firm or solid floors or sumps. Vactors should not be used for bag type filters or other devices where they could damage filter membranes or absorptive/adsorptive materials.

Maintenance is crucial to the effectiveness of water quality devices. The more frequent a water quality insert is cleaned, the more effective it will be. One study (Pitt, 1985) found that water quality inserts can effectively store sediment up to 60 percent of their sump volumes. Once the stored volume exceeds 60 percent, the inflow re-suspends the sediments into the stormwater. Keeping a maintenance log of sediment amounts and dates removed is helpful in planning a maintenance schedule.

Cost

Costs vary widely according to manufacturer, type, and size of water quality devices. Contact manufacturers to determine current costs.

Installation and maintenance costs for in-line or off-line devices installed below ground can run significantly higher than for vegetative filters and infiltration devices that provide similar levels of treatment.

Designer/Reviewer Checklist for Water Quality Devices

Type of water quality device(s) proposed: _____

Manufacturer(s) & model(s) proposed: _____

Independent Verifications (ETV, TARP, etc.): _____

ITEM	Page No.	YES	NO	N/A	NOTES
If system is off-line, adequate flow diversion system?	--				
If system is on-line, adequate bypass/overflow that minimizes release of captured pollutants?	--				
Adequate hydraulic head available for device to operate?	5				
Properly sized for drainage area, flow, pollutant capture?	--				
Has device been independently verified for adequate pollutant removal for appropriate particle sizes (especially if it is the primary water quality BMP)?	4				
Manufacturer's recommendations followed?	--				
Details provided for device and connections?	--				
Erosion control provided, if necessary?	--				
Easy access/visibility for maintenance?	4				
Maintenance accounted for and a detailed plan provided (including the amount sediment/debris accumulation that triggers the need for cleaning)?	5				

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