

Schematic of a Bioretention Facility (MDE, 2000)



Description

An infiltration basin is a shallow impoundment that is designed to infiltrate stormwater. Infiltration basins use the natural filtering ability of the soil to remove pollutants in stormwater runoff. Infiltration facilities store runoff until it gradually exfiltrates through the soil and eventually into the water table. This practice has high pollutant removal efficiency and can also help recharge groundwater, thus helping to maintain low flows in stream systems. Infiltration basins can be challenging to apply on many sites, however, because of soils requirements. In addition, some studies have shown relatively high failure rates compared with other management practices.

California Experience

Infiltration basins have a long history of use in California, especially in the Central Valley. Basins located in Fresno were among those initially evaluated in the National Urban Runoff Program and were found to be effective at reducing the volume of runoff, while posing little long-term threat to groundwater quality (EPA, 1983; Schroeder, 1995). Proper siting of these devices is crucial as underscored by the experience of Caltrans in siting two basins in Southern California. The basin with marginal separation from groundwater and soil permeability failed immediately and could never be rehabilitated.

Advantages

- Provides 100% reduction in the load discharged to surface waters.
- The principal benefit of infiltration basins is the approximation of pre-development hydrology during which a

Design Considerations

- Soil for Infiltration
- Slope
- Aesthetics

Targeted Constituents

<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Sediment	■
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Nutrients	■
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Trash	■
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Metals	■
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Bacteria	■
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Oil and Grease	■
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Organics	■

Legend (Removal Effectiveness)

- Low ■ High
▲ Medium



significant portion of the average annual rainfall runoff is infiltrated and evaporated rather than flushed directly to creeks.

- If the water quality volume is adequately sized, infiltration basins can be useful for providing control of channel forming (erosion) and high frequency (generally less than the 2-year) flood events.

Limitations

- May not be appropriate for industrial sites or locations where spills may occur.
- Infiltration basins require a minimum soil infiltration rate of 0.5 inches/hour, not appropriate at sites with Hydrologic Soil Types C and D.
- If infiltration rates exceed 2.4 inches/hour, then the runoff should be fully treated prior to infiltration to protect groundwater quality.
- Not suitable on fill sites or steep slopes.
- Risk of groundwater contamination in very coarse soils.
- Upstream drainage area must be completely stabilized before construction.
- Difficult to restore functioning of infiltration basins once clogged.

Design and Sizing Guidelines

- Water quality volume determined by local requirements or sized so that 85% of the annual runoff volume is captured.
- Basin sized so that the entire water quality volume is infiltrated within 48 hours.
- Vegetation establishment on the basin floor may help reduce the clogging rate.

Construction/Inspection Considerations

- Before construction begins, stabilize the entire area draining to the facility. If impossible, place a diversion berm around the perimeter of the infiltration site to prevent sediment entrance during construction or remove the top 2 inches of soil after the site is stabilized. Stabilize the entire contributing drainage area, including the side slopes, before allowing any runoff to enter once construction is complete.
- Place excavated material such that it can not be washed back into the basin if a storm occurs during construction of the facility.
- Build the basin without driving heavy equipment over the infiltration surface. Any equipment driven on the surface should have extra-wide ("low pressure") tires. Prior to any construction, rope off the infiltration area to stop entrance by unwanted equipment.
- After final grading, till the infiltration surface deeply.
- Use appropriate erosion control seed mix for the specific project and location.

Performance

As water migrates through porous soil and rock, pollutant attenuation mechanisms include precipitation, sorption, physical filtration, and bacterial degradation. If functioning properly, this approach is presumed to have high removal efficiencies for particulate pollutants and moderate removal of soluble pollutants. Actual pollutant removal in the subsurface would be expected to vary depending upon site-specific soil types. This technology eliminates discharge to surface waters except for the very largest storms; consequently, complete removal of all stormwater constituents can be assumed.

There remain some concerns about the potential for groundwater contamination despite the findings of the NURP and Nightingale (1975; 1987a,b,c; 1989). For instance, a report by Pitt et al. (1994) highlighted the potential for groundwater contamination from intentional and unintentional stormwater infiltration. That report recommends that infiltration facilities not be sited in areas where high concentrations are present or where there is a potential for spills of toxic material. Conversely, Schroeder (1995) reported that there was no evidence of groundwater impacts from an infiltration basin serving a large industrial catchment in Fresno, CA.

Siting Criteria

The key element in siting infiltration basins is identifying sites with appropriate soil and hydrogeologic properties, which is critical for long term performance. In one study conducted in Prince George's County, Maryland (Galli, 1992), all of the infiltration basins investigated clogged within 2 years. It is believed that these failures were for the most part due to allowing infiltration at sites with rates of less than 0.5 in/hr, basing siting on soil type rather than field infiltration tests, and poor construction practices that resulted in soil compaction of the basin invert.

A study of 23 infiltration basins in the Pacific Northwest showed better long-term performance in an area with highly permeable soils (Hilding, 1996). In this study, few of the infiltration basins had failed after 10 years. Consequently, the following guidelines for identifying appropriate soil and subsurface conditions should be rigorously adhered to.

- Determine soil type (consider RCS soil type 'A, B or C' only) from mapping and consult USDA soil survey tables to review other parameters such as the amount of silt and clay, presence of a restrictive layer or seasonal high water table, and estimated permeability. The soil should not have more than 30% clay or more than 40% of clay and silt combined. Eliminate sites that are clearly unsuitable for infiltration.
- Groundwater separation should be at least 3 m from the basin invert to the measured ground water elevation. There is concern at the state and regional levels of the impact on groundwater quality from infiltrated runoff, especially when the separation between groundwater and the surface is small.
- Location away from buildings, slopes and highway pavement (greater than 6 m) and wells and bridge structures (greater than 30 m). Sites constructed of fill, having a base flow or with a slope greater than 15% should not be considered.
- Ensure that adequate head is available to operate flow splitter structures (to allow the basin to be offline) without ponding in the splitter structure or creating backwater upstream of the splitter.

- Base flow should not be present in the tributary watershed.

Secondary Screening Based on Site Geotechnical Investigation

- At least three in-hole conductivity tests shall be performed using USBR 7300-89 or Bouwer-Rice procedures (the latter if groundwater is encountered within the boring), two tests at different locations within the proposed basin and the third down gradient by no more than approximately 10 m. The tests shall measure permeability in the side slopes and the bed within a depth of 3 m of the invert.
- The minimum acceptable hydraulic conductivity as measured in any of the three required test holes is 13 mm/hr. If any test hole shows less than the minimum value, the site should be disqualified from further consideration.
- Exclude from consideration sites constructed in fill or partially in fill unless no silts or clays are present in the soil boring. Fill tends to be compacted, with clays in a dispersed rather than flocculated state, greatly reducing permeability.
- The geotechnical investigation should be such that a good understanding is gained as to how the stormwater runoff will move in the soil (horizontally or vertically) and if there are any geological conditions that could inhibit the movement of water.

Additional Design Guidelines

- (1) Basin Sizing - The required water quality volume is determined by local regulations or sufficient to capture 85% of the annual runoff.
- (2) Provide pretreatment if sediment loading is a maintenance concern for the basin.
- (3) Include energy dissipation in the inlet design for the basins. Avoid designs that include a permanent pool to reduce opportunity for standing water and associated vector problems.
- (4) Basin invert area should be determined by the equation:

$$A = \frac{WQV}{kt}$$

where A = Basin invert area (m²)

WQV = water quality volume (m³)

k = 0.5 times the lowest field-measured hydraulic conductivity (m/hr)

t = drawdown time (48 hr)

- (5) The use of vertical piping, either for distribution or infiltration enhancement shall not be allowed to avoid device classification as a Class V injection well per 40 CFR146.5(e)(4).

Maintenance

Regular maintenance is critical to the successful operation of infiltration basins. Recommended operation and maintenance guidelines include:

- Inspections and maintenance to ensure that water infiltrates into the subsurface completely (recommended infiltration rate of 72 hours or less) and that vegetation is carefully managed to prevent creating mosquito and other vector habitats.
- Observe drain time for the design storm after completion or modification of the facility to confirm that the desired drain time has been obtained.
- Schedule semiannual inspections for beginning and end of the wet season to identify potential problems such as erosion of the basin side slopes and invert, standing water, trash and debris, and sediment accumulation.
- Remove accumulated trash and debris in the basin at the start and end of the wet season.
- Inspect for standing water at the end of the wet season.
- Trim vegetation at the beginning and end of the wet season to prevent establishment of woody vegetation and for aesthetic and vector reasons.
- Remove accumulated sediment and regrade when the accumulated sediment volume exceeds 10% of the basin.
- If erosion is occurring within the basin, revegetate immediately and stabilize with an erosion control mulch or mat until vegetation cover is established.
- To avoid reversing soil development, scarification or other disturbance should only be performed when there are actual signs of clogging, rather than on a routine basis. Always remove deposited sediments before scarification, and use a hand-guided rotary tiller, if possible, or a disc harrow pulled by a very light tractor.

Cost

Infiltration basins are relatively cost-effective practices because little infrastructure is needed when constructing them. One study estimated the total construction cost at about \$2 per ft (adjusted for inflation) of storage for a 0.25-acre basin (SWRPC, 1991). As with other BMPs, these published cost estimates may deviate greatly from what might be incurred at a specific site. For instance, Caltrans spent about \$18/ft³ for the two infiltration basins constructed in southern California, each of which had a water quality volume of about 0.34 ac.-ft. Much of the higher cost can be attributed to changes in the storm drain system necessary to route the runoff to the basin locations.

Infiltration basins typically consume about 2 to 3% of the site draining to them, which is relatively small. Additional space may be required for buffer, landscaping, access road, and fencing. Maintenance costs are estimated at 5 to 10% of construction costs.

One cost concern associated with infiltration practices is the maintenance burden and longevity. If improperly maintained, infiltration basins have a high failure rate. Thus, it may be necessary to replace the basin with a different technology after a relatively short period of time.

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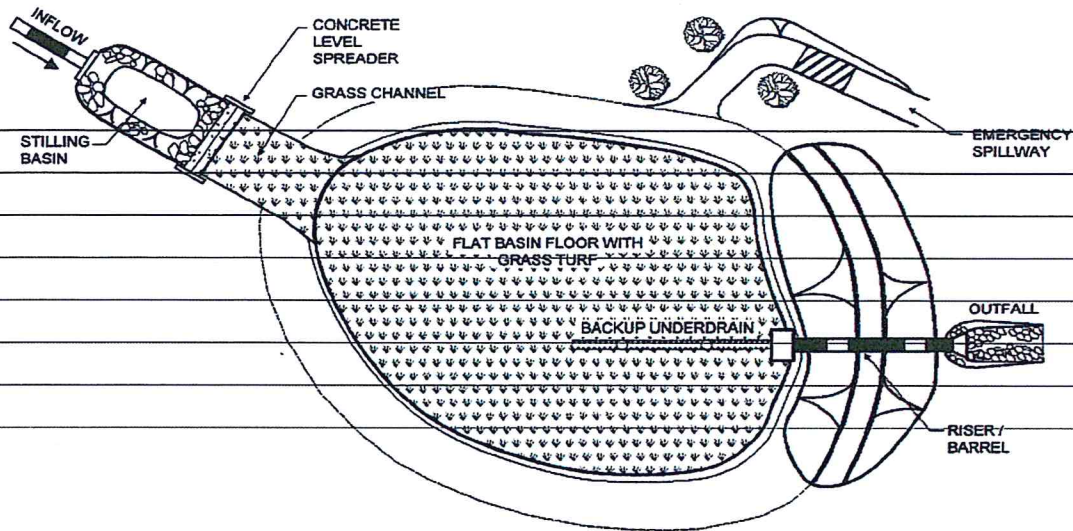
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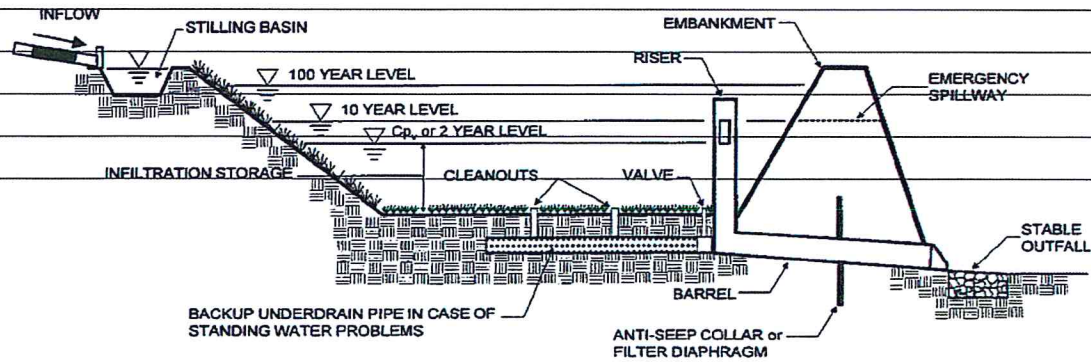
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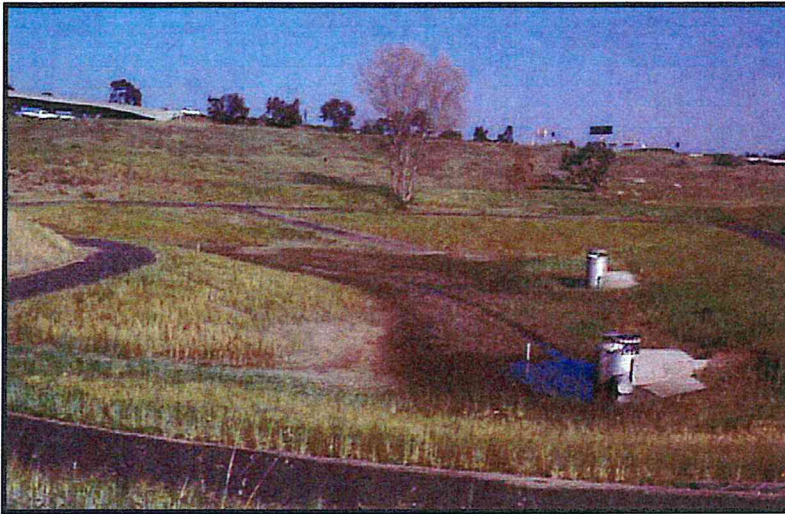
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PLAN VIEW



PROFILE



Description

Dry extended detention ponds (a.k.a. dry ponds, extended detention basins, detention ponds, extended detention ponds) are basins whose outlets have been designed to detain the stormwater runoff from a water quality design storm for some minimum time (e.g., 48 hours) to allow particles and associated pollutants to settle. Unlike wet ponds, these facilities do not have a large permanent pool. They can also be used to provide flood control by including additional flood detention storage.

California Experience

Caltrans constructed and monitored 5 extended detention basins in southern California with design drain times of 72 hours. Four of the basins were earthen, less costly and had substantially better load reduction because of infiltration that occurred, than the concrete basin. The Caltrans study reaffirmed the flexibility and performance of this conventional technology. The small headloss and few siting constraints suggest that these devices are one of the most applicable technologies for stormwater treatment.

Advantages

- Due to the simplicity of design, extended detention basins are relatively easy and inexpensive to construct and operate.
- Extended detention basins can provide substantial capture of sediment and the toxics fraction associated with particulates.
- Widespread application with sufficient capture volume can provide significant control of channel erosion and enlargement caused by changes to flow frequency

Design Considerations

- Tributary Area
- Area Required
- Hydraulic Head

Targeted Constituents

<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Sediment	▲
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Nutrients	●
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Trash	■
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Metals	▲
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Bacteria	▲
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Oil and Grease	▲
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Organics	▲

Legend (Removal Effectiveness)

- Low
- High
- ▲ Medium



relationships resulting from the increase of impervious cover in a watershed.

Limitations

- Limitation of the diameter of the orifice may not allow use of extended detention in watersheds of less than 5 acres (would require an orifice with a diameter of less than 0.5 inches that would be prone to clogging).
- Dry extended detention ponds have only moderate pollutant removal when compared to some other structural stormwater practices, and they are relatively ineffective at removing soluble pollutants.
- Although wet ponds can increase property values, dry ponds can actually detract from the value of a home due to the adverse aesthetics of dry, bare areas and inlet and outlet structures.

Design and Sizing Guidelines

- Capture volume determined by local requirements or sized to treat 85% of the annual runoff volume.
- Outlet designed to discharge the capture volume over a period of hours.
- Length to width ratio of at least 1.5:1 where feasible.
- Basin depths optimally range from 2 to 5 feet.
- Include energy dissipation in the inlet design to reduce resuspension of accumulated sediment.
- A maintenance ramp and perimeter access should be included in the design to facilitate access to the basin for maintenance activities and for vector surveillance and control.
- Use a draw down time of 48 hours in most areas of California. Draw down times in excess of 48 hours may result in vector breeding, and should be used only after coordination with local vector control authorities. Draw down times of less than 48 hours should be limited to BMP drainage areas with coarse soils that readily settle and to watersheds where warming may be determined to downstream fisheries.

Construction/Inspection Considerations

- Inspect facility after first large to storm to determine whether the desired residence time has been achieved.
- When constructed with small tributary area, orifice sizing is critical and inspection should verify that flow through additional openings such as bolt holes does not occur.

Performance

One objective of stormwater management practices can be to reduce the flood hazard associated with large storm events by reducing the peak flow associated with these storms. Dry extended detention basins can easily be designed for flood control, and this is actually the primary purpose of most detention ponds.

Dry extended detention basins provide moderate pollutant removal, provided that the recommended design features are incorporated. Although they can be effective at removing some pollutants through settling, they are less effective at removing soluble pollutants because of the absence of a permanent pool. Several studies are available on the effectiveness of dry extended detention ponds including one recently concluded by Caltrans (2002).

The load reduction is greater than the concentration reduction because of the substantial infiltration that occurs. Although the infiltration of stormwater is clearly beneficial to surface receiving waters, there is the potential for groundwater contamination. Previous research on the effects of incidental infiltration on groundwater quality indicated that the risk of contamination is minimal.

There were substantial differences in the amount of infiltration that were observed in the earthen basins during the Caltrans study. On average, approximately 40 percent of the runoff entering the unlined basins infiltrated and was not discharged. The percentage ranged from a high of about 60 percent to a low of only about 8 percent for the different facilities. Climatic conditions and local water table elevation are likely the principal causes of this difference. The least infiltration occurred at a site located on the coast where humidity is higher and the basin invert is within a few meters of sea level. Conversely, the most infiltration occurred at a facility located well inland in Los Angeles County where the climate is much warmer and the humidity is less, resulting in lower soil moisture content in the basin floor at the beginning of storms.

Vegetated detention basins appear to have greater pollutant removal than concrete basins. In the Caltrans study, the concrete basin exported sediment and associated pollutants during a number of storms. Export was not as common in the earthen basins, where the vegetation appeared to help stabilize the retained sediment.

Siting Criteria

Dry extended detention ponds are among the most widely applicable stormwater management practices and are especially useful in retrofit situations where their low hydraulic head requirements allow them to be sited within the constraints of the existing storm drain system. In addition, many communities have detention basins designed for flood control. It is possible to modify these facilities to incorporate features that provide water quality treatment and/or channel protection. Although dry extended detention ponds can be applied rather broadly, designers need to ensure that they are feasible at the site in question. This section provides basic guidelines for siting dry extended detention ponds.

In general, dry extended detention ponds should be used on sites with a minimum area of 5 acres. With this size catchment area, the orifice size can be on the order of 0.5 inches. On smaller sites, it can be challenging to provide channel or water quality control because the orifice diameter at the outlet needed to control relatively small storms becomes very small and thus prone to clogging. In addition, it is generally more cost-effective to control larger drainage areas due to the economies of scale.

Extended detention basins can be used with almost all soils and geology, with minor design adjustments for regions of rapidly percolating soils such as sand. In these areas, extended detention ponds may need an impermeable liner to prevent ground water contamination.

The base of the extended detention facility should not intersect the water table. A permanently wet bottom may become a mosquito breeding ground. Research in Southwest Florida (Santana et al., 1994) demonstrated that intermittently flooded systems, such as dry extended detention ponds, produce more mosquitoes than other pond systems, particularly when the facilities remained wet for more than 3 days following heavy rainfall.

A study in Prince George's County, Maryland, found that stormwater management practices can increase stream temperatures (Galli, 1990). Overall, dry extended detention ponds increased temperature by about 5°F. In cold water streams, dry ponds should be designed to detain stormwater for a relatively short time (i.e., 24 hours) to minimize the amount of warming that occurs in the basin.

Additional Design Guidelines

In order to enhance the effectiveness of extended detention basins, the dimensions of the basin must be sized appropriately. Merely providing the required storage volume will not ensure maximum constituent removal. By effectively configuring the basin, the designer will create a long flow path, promote the establishment of low velocities, and avoid having stagnant areas of the basin. To promote settling and to attain an appealing environment, the design of the basin should consider the length to width ratio, cross-sectional areas, basin slopes and pond configuration, and aesthetics (Young et al., 1996).

Energy dissipation structures should be included for the basin inlet to prevent resuspension of accumulated sediment. The use of stilling basins for this purpose should be avoided because the standing water provides a breeding area for mosquitoes.

Extended detention facilities should be sized to completely capture the water quality volume. A micropool is often recommended for inclusion in the design and one is shown in the schematic diagram. These small permanent pools greatly increase the potential for mosquito breeding and complicate maintenance activities; consequently, they are not recommended for use in California.

A large aspect ratio may improve the performance of detention basins; consequently, the outlets should be placed to maximize the flowpath through the facility. The ratio of flowpath length to width from the inlet to the outlet should be at least 1.5:1 (L:W) where feasible. Basin depths optimally range from 2 to 5 feet.

The facility's drawdown time should be regulated by an orifice or weir. In general, the outflow structure should have a trash rack or other acceptable means of preventing clogging at the entrance to the outflow pipes. The outlet design implemented by Caltrans in the facilities constructed in San Diego County used an outlet riser with orifices



Figure 1
Example of Extended Detention Outlet Structure

sized to discharge the water quality volume, and the riser overflow height was set to the design storm elevation. A stainless steel screen was placed around the outlet riser to ensure that the orifices would not become clogged with debris. Sites either used a separate riser or broad crested weir for overflow of runoff for the 25 and greater year storms. A picture of a typical outlet is presented in Figure 1.

The outflow structure should be sized to allow for complete drawdown of the water quality volume in 72 hours. No more than 50% of the water quality volume should drain from the facility within the first 24 hours. The outflow structure can be fitted with a valve so that discharge from the basin can be halted in case of an accidental spill in the watershed.

Summary of Design Recommendations

- (1) **Facility Sizing** - The required water quality volume is determined by local regulations or the basin should be sized to capture and treat 85% of the annual runoff volume. See Section 5.5.1 of the handbook for a discussion of volume-based design.

Basin Configuration – A high aspect ratio may improve the performance of detention basins; consequently, the outlets should be placed to maximize the flowpath through the facility. The ratio of flowpath length to width from the inlet to the outlet should be at least 1.5:1 (L:W). The flowpath length is defined as the distance from the inlet to the outlet as measured at the surface. The width is defined as the mean width of the basin. Basin depths optimally range from 2 to 5 feet. The basin may include a sediment forebay to provide the opportunity for larger particles to settle out.

A micropool should not be incorporated in the design because of vector concerns. For online facilities, the principal and emergency spillways must be sized to provide 1.0 foot of freeboard during the 25-year event and to safely pass the flow from 100-year storm.

- (2) **Pond Side Slopes** - Side slopes of the pond should be 3:1 (H:V) or flatter for grass stabilized slopes. Slopes steeper than 3:1 (H:V) must be stabilized with an appropriate slope stabilization practice.
- (3) **Basin Lining** – Basins must be constructed to prevent possible contamination of groundwater below the facility.
- (4) **Basin Inlet** – Energy dissipation is required at the basin inlet to reduce resuspension of accumulated sediment and to reduce the tendency for short-circuiting.
- (5) **Outflow Structure** - The facility's drawdown time should be regulated by a gate valve or orifice plate. In general, the outflow structure should have a trash rack or other acceptable means of preventing clogging at the entrance to the outflow pipes.

The outflow structure should be sized to allow for complete drawdown of the water quality volume in 72 hours. No more than 50% of the water quality volume should drain from the facility within the first 24 hours. The outflow structure should be fitted with a valve so that discharge from the basin can be halted in case of an accidental spill in the watershed. This same valve also can be used to regulate the rate of discharge from the basin.

The discharge through a control orifice is calculated from:

$$Q = CA(2g(H-H_o))^{0.5}$$

where: Q = discharge (ft³/s)
 C = orifice coefficient
 A = area of the orifice (ft²)
 g = gravitational constant (32.2)
 H = water surface elevation (ft)
 H_o = orifice elevation (ft)

Recommended values for C are 0.66 for thin materials and 0.80 when the material is thicker than the orifice diameter. This equation can be implemented in spreadsheet form with the pond stage/volume relationship to calculate drain time. To do this, use the initial height of the water above the orifice for the water quality volume. Calculate the discharge and assume that it remains constant for approximately 10 minutes. Based on that discharge, estimate the total discharge during that interval and the new elevation based on the stage volume relationship. Continue to iterate until H is approximately equal to H_o. When using multiple orifices the discharge from each is summed.

- (6) Splitter Box - When the pond is designed as an offline facility, a splitter structure is used to isolate the water quality volume. The splitter box, or other flow diverting approach, should be designed to convey the 25-year storm event while providing at least 1.0 foot of freeboard along pond side slopes.
- (7) Erosion Protection at the Outfall - For online facilities, special consideration should be given to the facility's outfall location. Flared pipe end sections that discharge at or near the stream invert are preferred. The channel immediately below the pond outfall should be modified to conform to natural dimensions, and lined with large stone riprap placed over filter cloth. Energy dissipation may be required to reduce flow velocities from the primary spillway to non-erosive velocities.
- (8) Safety Considerations - Safety is provided either by fencing of the facility or by managing the contours of the pond to eliminate dropoffs and other hazards. Earthen side slopes should not exceed 3:1 (H:V) and should terminate on a flat safety bench area. Landscaping can be used to impede access to the facility. The primary spillway opening must not permit access by small children. Outfall pipes above 48 inches in diameter should be fenced.

Maintenance

Routine maintenance activity is often thought to consist mostly of sediment and trash and debris removal; however, these activities often constitute only a small fraction of the maintenance hours. During a recent study by Caltrans, 72 hours of maintenance was performed annually, but only a little over 7 hours was spent on sediment and trash removal. The largest recurring activity was vegetation management, routine mowing. The largest absolute number of hours was associated with vector control because of mosquito breeding that occurred in the stilling basins (example of standing water to be avoided) installed as energy dissipaters. In most cases, basic housekeeping practices such as removal of debris accumulations and vegetation

management to ensure that the basin dewatered completely in 48-72 hours is sufficient to prevent creating mosquito and other vector habitats.

Consequently, maintenance costs should be estimated based primarily on the mowing frequency and the time required. Mowing should be done at least annually to avoid establishment of woody vegetation, but may need to be performed much more frequently if aesthetics are an important consideration.

Typical activities and frequencies include:

- Schedule semiannual inspection for the beginning and end of the wet season for standing water, slope stability, sediment accumulation, trash and debris, and presence of burrows.
- Remove accumulated trash and debris in the basin and around the riser pipe during the semiannual inspections. The frequency of this activity may be altered to meet specific site conditions.
- Trim vegetation at the beginning and end of the wet season and inspect monthly to prevent establishment of woody vegetation and for aesthetic and vector reasons.
- Remove accumulated sediment and re-grade about every 10 years or when the accumulated sediment volume exceeds 10 percent of the basin volume. Inspect the basin each year for accumulated sediment volume.

Cost

Construction Cost

The construction costs associated with extended detention basins vary considerably. One recent 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, and
V = Volume (ft³).

Using this equation, typical construction costs are:

\$ 41,600 for a 1 acre-foot pond

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

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

Interestingly, these costs are generally slightly higher than the predicted cost of wet ponds (according to Brown and Schueler, 1997) on a cost per total volume basis, which highlights the difficulty of developing reasonably accurate construction estimates. In addition, a typical facility constructed by Caltrans cost about \$160,000 with a capture volume of only 0.3 ac-ft.

An economic concern associated with dry ponds is that they might detract slightly from the value of adjacent properties. One study found that dry ponds can actually detract from the

perceived value of homes adjacent to a dry pond by between 3 and 10 percent (Emmerling-Dinovo, 1995).

Maintenance Cost

For ponds, the annual cost of routine maintenance is typically estimated at about 3 to 5 percent of the construction cost (EPA website). Alternatively, a community can estimate the cost of the maintenance activities outlined in the maintenance section. Table 1 presents the maintenance costs estimated by Caltrans based on their experience with five basins located in southern California. Again, it should be emphasized that the vast majority of hours are related to vegetation management (mowing).

Activity	Labor Hours	Equipment & Material (\$)	Cost
Inspections	4	7	183
Maintenance	49	126	2282
Vector Control	0	0	0
Administration	3	0	132
Materials	-	535	535
Total	56	\$668	\$3,132

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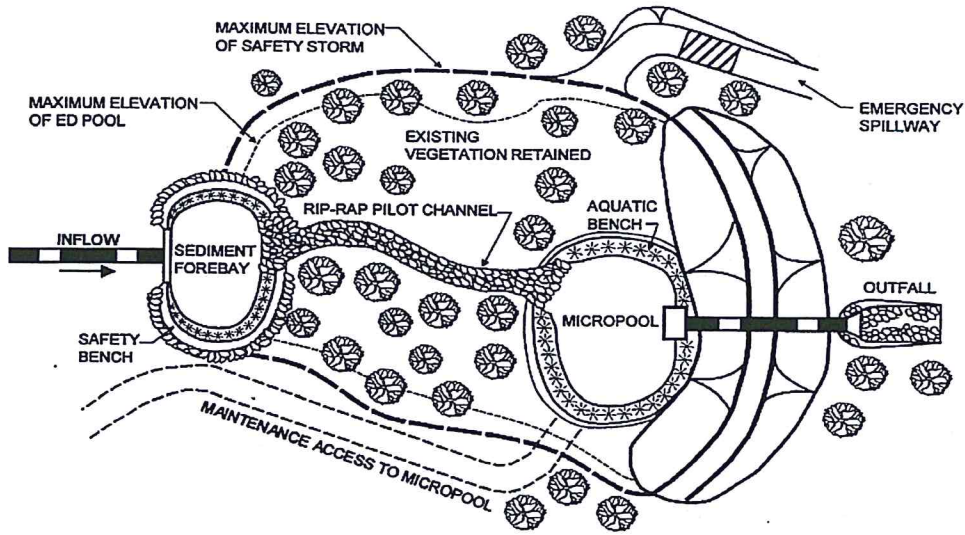
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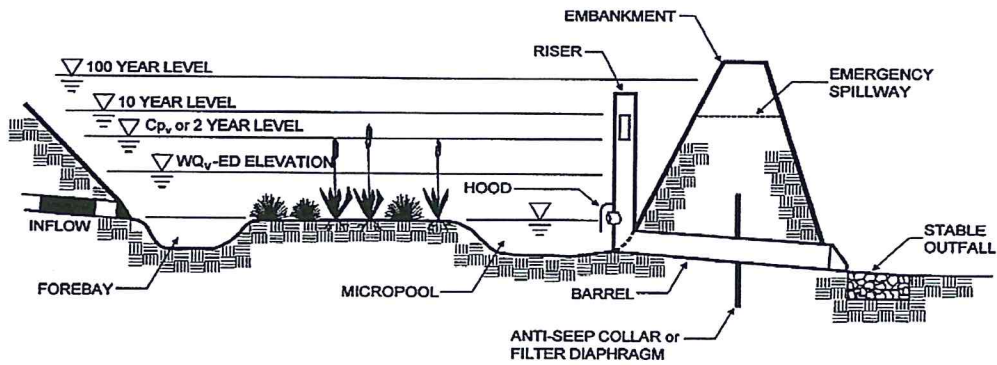
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PLAN VIEW



PROFILE

Schematic of an Extended Detention Basin (MDE, 2000)



Design Considerations

- Tributary Area
- Area Required
- Slope
- Water Availability

Description

Vegetated swales are open, shallow channels with vegetation covering the side slopes and bottom that collect and slowly convey runoff flow to downstream discharge points. They are designed to treat runoff through filtering by the vegetation in the channel, filtering through a subsoil matrix, and/or infiltration into the underlying soils. Swales can be natural or manmade. They trap particulate pollutants (suspended solids and trace metals), promote infiltration, and reduce the flow velocity of stormwater runoff. Vegetated swales can serve as part of a stormwater drainage system and can replace curbs, gutters and storm sewer systems.

California Experience

Caltrans constructed and monitored six vegetated swales in southern California. These swales were generally effective in reducing the volume and mass of pollutants in runoff. Even in the areas where the annual rainfall was only about 10 inches/yr, the vegetation did not require additional irrigation. One factor that strongly affected performance was the presence of large numbers of gophers at most of the sites. The gophers created earthen mounds, destroyed vegetation, and generally reduced the effectiveness of the controls for TSS reduction.

Advantages

- If properly designed, vegetated, and operated, swales can serve as an aesthetic, potentially inexpensive urban development or roadway drainage conveyance measure with significant collateral water quality benefits.

Targeted Constituents

<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Sediment	▲
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Nutrients	●
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Trash	●
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Metals	▲
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Bacteria	●
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Oil and Grease	▲
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Organics	▲

Legend (Removal Effectiveness)

- Low
- High
- ▲ Medium



- Roadside ditches should be regarded as significant potential swale/buffer strip sites and should be utilized for this purpose whenever possible.

Limitations

- Can be difficult to avoid channelization.
- May not be appropriate for industrial sites or locations where spills may occur
- Grassed swales cannot treat a very large drainage area. Large areas may be divided and treated using multiple swales.
- A thick vegetative cover is needed for these practices to function properly.
- They are impractical in areas with steep topography.
- They are not effective and may even erode when flow velocities are high, if the grass cover is not properly maintained.
- In some places, their use is restricted by law: many local municipalities require curb and gutter systems in residential areas.
- Swales are more susceptible to failure if not properly maintained than other treatment BMPs.

Design and Sizing Guidelines

- Flow rate based design determined by local requirements or sized so that 85% of the annual runoff volume is discharged at less than the design rainfall intensity.
- Swale should be designed so that the water level does not exceed 2/3rds the height of the grass or 4 inches, which ever is less, at the design treatment rate.
- Longitudinal slopes should not exceed 2.5%
- Trapezoidal channels are normally recommended but other configurations, such as parabolic, can also provide substantial water quality improvement and may be easier to mow than designs with sharp breaks in slope.
- Swales constructed in cut are preferred, or in fill areas that are far enough from an adjacent slope to minimize the potential for gopher damage. Do not use side slopes constructed of fill, which are prone to structural damage by gophers and other burrowing animals.
- A diverse selection of low growing, plants that thrive under the specific site, climatic, and watering conditions should be specified. Vegetation whose growing season corresponds to the wet season are preferred. Drought tolerant vegetation should be considered especially for swales that are not part of a regularly irrigated landscaped area.
- The width of the swale should be determined using Manning's Equation using a value of 0.25 for Manning's n.

Construction/Inspection Considerations

- Include directions in the specifications for use of appropriate fertilizer and soil amendments based on soil properties determined through testing and compared to the needs of the vegetation requirements.
- Install swales at the time of the year when there is a reasonable chance of successful establishment without irrigation; however, it is recognized that rainfall in a given year may not be sufficient and temporary irrigation may be used.
- If sod tiles must be used, they should be placed so that there are no gaps between the tiles; stagger the ends of the tiles to prevent the formation of channels along the swale or strip.
- Use a roller on the sod to ensure that no air pockets form between the sod and the soil.
- Where seeds are used, erosion controls will be necessary to protect seeds for at least 75 days after the first rainfall of the season.

Performance

The literature suggests that vegetated swales represent a practical and potentially effective technique for controlling urban runoff quality. While limited quantitative performance data exists for vegetated swales, it is known that check dams, slight slopes, permeable soils, dense grass cover, increased contact time, and small storm events all contribute to successful pollutant removal by the swale system. Factors decreasing the effectiveness of swales include compacted soils, short runoff contact time, large storm events, frozen ground, short grass heights, steep slopes, and high runoff velocities and discharge rates.

Conventional vegetated swale designs have achieved mixed results in removing particulate pollutants. A study performed by the Nationwide Urban Runoff Program (NURP) monitored three grass swales in the Washington, D.C., area and found no significant improvement in urban runoff quality for the pollutants analyzed. However, the weak performance of these swales was attributed to the high flow velocities in the swales, soil compaction, steep slopes, and short grass height.

Another project in Durham, NC, monitored the performance of a carefully designed artificial swale that received runoff from a commercial parking lot. The project tracked 11 storms and concluded that particulate concentrations of heavy metals (Cu, Pb, Zn, and Cd) were reduced by approximately 50 percent. However, the swale proved largely ineffective for removing soluble nutrients.

The effectiveness of vegetated swales can be enhanced by adding check dams at approximately 17 meter (50 foot) increments along their length (See Figure 1). These dams maximize the retention time within the swale, decrease flow velocities, and promote particulate settling. Finally, the incorporation of vegetated filter strips parallel to the top of the channel banks can help to treat sheet flows entering the swale.

Only 9 studies have been conducted on all grassed channels designed for water quality (Table 1). The data suggest relatively high removal rates for some pollutants, but negative removals for some bacteria, and fair performance for phosphorus.

Removal Efficiencies (% Removal)							
Study	TSS	TP	TN	NO ₃	Metals	Bacteria	Type
Caltrans 2002	77	8	67	66	83-90	-33	dry swales
Goldberg 1993	67.8	4.5	-	31.4	42-62	-100	grassed channel
Seattle Metro and Washington Department of Ecology 1992	60	45	-	-25	2-16	-25	grassed channel
Seattle Metro and Washington Department of Ecology, 1992	83	29	-	-25	46-73	-25	grassed channel
Wang et al., 1981	80	-	-	-	70-80	-	dry swale
Dorman et al., 1989	98	18	-	45	37-81	-	dry swale
Harper, 1988	87	83	84	80	88-90	-	dry swale
Kercher et al., 1983	99	99	99	99	99	-	dry swale
Harper, 1988.	81	17	40	52	37-69	-	wet swale
Koon, 1995	67	39	-	9	-35 to 6	-	wet swale

While it is difficult to distinguish between different designs based on the small amount of available data, grassed channels generally have poorer removal rates than wet and dry swales, although some swales appear to export soluble phosphorus (Harper, 1988; Koon, 1995). It is not clear why swales export bacteria. One explanation is that bacteria thrive in the warm swale soils.

Siting Criteria

The suitability of a swale at a site will depend on land use, size of the area serviced, soil type, slope, imperviousness of the contributing watershed, and dimensions and slope of the swale system (Schueler et al., 1992). In general, swales can be used to serve areas of less than 10 acres, with slopes no greater than 5 %. Use of natural topographic lows is encouraged and natural drainage courses should be regarded as significant local resources to be kept in use (Young et al., 1996).

Selection Criteria (NCTCOG, 1993)

- Comparable performance to wet basins
- Limited to treating a few acres
- Availability of water during dry periods to maintain vegetation
- Sufficient available land area

Research in the Austin area indicates that vegetated controls are effective at removing pollutants even when dormant. Therefore, irrigation is not required to maintain growth during dry periods, but may be necessary only to prevent the vegetation from dying.

The topography of the site should permit the design of a channel with appropriate slope and cross-sectional area. Site topography may also dictate a need for additional structural controls. Recommendations for longitudinal slopes range between 2 and 6 percent. Flatter slopes can be used, if sufficient to provide adequate conveyance. Steep slopes increase flow velocity, decrease detention time, and may require energy dissipating and grade check. Steep slopes also can be managed using a series of check dams to terrace the swale and reduce the slope to within acceptable limits. The use of check dams with swales also promotes infiltration.

Additional Design Guidelines

Most of the design guidelines adopted for swale design specify a minimum hydraulic residence time of 9 minutes. This criterion is based on the results of a single study conducted in Seattle, Washington (Seattle Metro and Washington Department of Ecology, 1992), and is not well supported. Analysis of the data collected in that study indicates that pollutant removal at a residence time of 5 minutes was not significantly different, although there is more variability in that data. Therefore, additional research in the design criteria for swales is needed. Substantial pollutant removal has also been observed for vegetated controls designed solely for conveyance (Barrett et al, 1998); consequently, some flexibility in the design is warranted.

Many design guidelines recommend that grass be frequently mowed to maintain dense coverage near the ground surface. Recent research (Colwell et al., 2000) has shown mowing frequency or grass height has little or no effect on pollutant removal.

Summary of Design Recommendations

- 1) The swale should have a length that provides a minimum hydraulic residence time of at least 10 minutes. The maximum bottom width should not exceed 10 feet unless a dividing berm is provided. The depth of flow should not exceed 2/3rds the height of the grass at the peak of the water quality design storm intensity. The channel slope should not exceed 2.5%.
- 2) A design grass height of 6 inches is recommended.
- 3) Regardless of the recommended detention time, the swale should be not less than 100 feet in length.
- 4) The width of the swale should be determined using Manning's Equation, at the peak of the design storm, using a Manning's n of 0.25.
- 5) The swale can be sized as both a treatment facility for the design storm and as a conveyance system to pass the peak hydraulic flows of the 100-year storm if it is located "on-line." The side slopes should be no steeper than 3:1 (H:V).
- 6) Roadside ditches should be regarded as significant potential swale/buffer strip sites and should be utilized for this purpose whenever possible. If flow is to be introduced through curb cuts, place pavement slightly above the elevation of the vegetated areas. Curb cuts should be at least 12 inches wide to prevent clogging.
- 7) Swales must be vegetated in order to provide adequate treatment of runoff. It is important to maximize water contact with vegetation and the soil surface. For general purposes, select fine, close-growing, water-resistant grasses. If possible, divert runoff (other than necessary irrigation) during the period of vegetation

establishment. Where runoff diversion is not possible, cover graded and seeded areas with suitable erosion control materials.

Maintenance

The useful life of a vegetated swale system is directly proportional to its maintenance frequency. If properly designed and regularly maintained, vegetated swales can last indefinitely. The maintenance objectives for vegetated swale systems include keeping up the hydraulic and removal efficiency of the channel and maintaining a dense, healthy grass cover.

Maintenance activities should include periodic mowing (with grass never cut shorter than the design flow depth), weed control, watering during drought conditions, reseeding of bare areas, and clearing of debris and blockages. Cuttings should be removed from the channel and disposed in a local composting facility. Accumulated sediment should also be removed manually to avoid concentrated flows in the swale. The application of fertilizers and pesticides should be minimal.

Another aspect of a good maintenance plan is repairing damaged areas within a channel. For example, if the channel develops ruts or holes, it should be repaired utilizing a suitable soil that is properly tamped and seeded. The grass cover should be thick; if it is not, reseed as necessary. Any standing water removed during the maintenance operation must be disposed to a sanitary sewer at an approved discharge location. Residuals (e.g., silt, grass cuttings) must be disposed in accordance with local or State requirements. Maintenance of grassed swales mostly involves maintenance of the grass or wetland plant cover. Typical maintenance activities are summarized below:

- Inspect swales at least twice annually for erosion, damage to vegetation, and sediment and debris accumulation preferably at the end of the wet season to schedule summer maintenance and before major fall runoff to be sure the swale is ready for winter. However, additional inspection after periods of heavy runoff is desirable. The swale should be checked for debris and litter, and areas of sediment accumulation.
- Grass height and mowing frequency may not have a large impact on pollutant removal. Consequently, mowing may only be necessary once or twice a year for safety or aesthetics or to suppress weeds and woody vegetation.
- Trash tends to accumulate in swale areas, particularly along highways. The need for litter removal is determined through periodic inspection, but litter should always be removed prior to mowing.
- Sediment accumulating near culverts and in channels should be removed when it builds up to 75 mm (3 in.) at any spot, or covers vegetation.
- Regularly inspect swales for pools of standing water. Swales can become a nuisance due to mosquito breeding in standing water if obstructions develop (e.g. debris accumulation, invasive vegetation) and/or if proper drainage slopes are not implemented and maintained.

Cost

Construction Cost

Little data is available to estimate the difference in cost between various swale designs. One study (SWRPC, 1991) estimated the construction cost of grassed channels at approximately \$0.25 per ft². This price does not include design costs or contingencies. Brown and Schueler (1997) estimate these costs at approximately 32 percent of construction costs for most stormwater management practices. For swales, however, these costs would probably be significantly higher since the construction costs are so low compared with other practices. A more realistic estimate would be a total cost of approximately \$0.50 per ft², which compares favorably with other stormwater management practices.

Table 2 Swale Cost Estimate (SEWRPC, 1991)

Component	Unit	Extent	Unit Cost			Total Cost		
			Low	Moderate	High	Low	Moderate	High
Mobilization / Demobilization-Light	Swale	1	\$107	\$274	\$441	\$107	\$274	\$441
Site Preparation								
Clearing ^a	Acre	0.5	\$2,200	\$3,800	\$5,400	\$1,100	\$1,900	\$2,700
Grubbing ^b	Acre	0.25	\$3,800	\$5,200	\$6,800	\$950	\$1,300	\$1,650
General Excavation ^d	Yd ³	372	\$2.10	\$3.70	\$5.30	\$781	\$1,376	\$1,972
Level and Till ^e	Yd ²	1,210	\$0.20	\$0.35	\$0.50	\$242	\$424	\$605
Site Development								
Salvaged Topsoil	Yd ²	1,210	\$0.40	\$1.00	\$1.60	\$484	\$1,210	\$1,938
Seed, and Mulch ^f ..	Yd ²	1,210	\$1.20	\$2.40	\$3.60	\$1,452	\$2,904	\$4,358
Sod ^g	--	--	--	--	--	\$5,116	\$9,388	\$13,660
Subtotal								
Contingencies	Swale	1	25%	25%	25%	\$1,279	\$2,347	\$3,415
Total	--	--	--	--	--	\$6,395	\$11,735	\$17,075

Source: (SEWRPC, 1991)

- ^a Note: Mobilization/demobilization refers to the organization and planning involved in establishing a vegetative swale.
- ^b Swale has a bottom width of 1.0 foot, a top width of 10 feet with 1:3 side slopes, and a 1,000-foot length.
- ^c Area cleared = (top width + 10 feet) x swale length.
- ^d Area grubbed = (top width x swale length).
- ^e Volume excavated = (0.67 x top width x swale depth) x swale length (parabolic cross-section).
- ^f Area filled = (top width + $\frac{8(\text{swale depth})^2}{3(\text{top width})}$) x swale length (parabolic cross-section).
- ^g Area seeded = area cleared x 0.5.
- ^h Area sodded = area cleared x 0.5.

Vegetated Swale

TC-30

Table 3 Estimated Maintenance Costs (SEWRPC, 1991)

Component	Unit Cost	Swale Size (Depth and Top Width)		Comment
		1.5 Foot Depth, One-Foot Bottom Width, 10-Foot Top Width	3-Foot Depth, 3-Foot Bottom Width, 21-Foot Top Width	
Lawn Mowing	\$0.85 / 1,000 ft ² / mowing	\$0.14 / linear foot	\$0.21 / linear foot	Lawn maintenance area = (top width + 10 feet) x length. Mow eight times per year
General Lawn Care	\$9.00 / 1,000 ft ² / year	\$0.18 / linear foot	\$0.28 / linear foot	Lawn maintenance area = (top width + 10 feet) x length
Swale Debris and Litter Removal	\$0.10 / linear foot / year	\$0.10 / linear foot	\$0.10 / linear foot	-
Grass Reseeding with Mulch and Fertilizer	\$0.30 / yd ²	\$0.01 / linear foot	\$0.01 / linear foot	Area revegetated equals 1% of lawn maintenance area per year
Program Administration and Swale Inspection	\$0.15 / linear foot / year, plus \$25 / inspection	\$0.15 / linear foot	\$0.15 / linear foot	Inspect four times per year
Total	--	\$0.58 / linear foot	\$0.75 / linear foot	-