

Prepared in cooperation with the Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources, the City of Madison, Cities in the Waukesha Permit Group, Hydro International, Earth Tech Incorporated, National Sanitation Foundation International, and the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency

Parking Lot Runoff Quality and Treatment Efficiencies of a Hydrodynamic-Settling Device in Madison, Wisconsin, 2005–6



Scientific Investigations Report 2011–5145

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By Judy A. Horwath and Roger T. Bannerman

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Scientific Investigations Report 2011–5145

U.S. Department of the Interior
U.S. Geological Survey

U.S. Department of the Interior
KEN SALAZAR, Secretary

U.S. Geological Survey
Marcia K. McNutt, Director

U.S. Geological Survey, Reston, Virginia: 2012

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Suggested citation:

Horwath, J.A., and Bannerman, R.T., 2012, Parking lot runoff quality and treatment efficiencies of a hydrodynamic-settling device in Madison, Wisconsin, 2005–6: U.S. Geological Survey Scientific Investigations Report 2011–5145, 35 p. plus 11 app.

Cover: A hydrodynamic-settling device installed in an employee parking lot in downtown Madison, Wisconsin. (Photographs from Earth Tech, Inc., September 2005.)

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Conversion Factors

Multiply	By	To obtain
Length		
inch (in.)	25.4	millimeter (mm)
foot (ft)	0.3048	meter (m)
mile (mi)	1.609	kilometer (km)
micrometer (μm)	0.00003937	inch (in.)
Area		
acre	4,047	square meter (m^2)
acre	0.4047	hectare (ha)
Volume		
cubic foot (ft^3)	0.02832	cubic meter (m^3)
liter (L)	0.2642	gallon (gal)
Flow rate		
cubic foot per second (ft^3/s)	0.028317	cubic meter per second (m^3/s)
inch per hour (in/hr)	25.40	millimeter per hour (m/hr)
Mass		
pound, avoirdupois (lb)	0.4536	kilogram (kg)
gram (g)	0.03527	ounce (oz)
Mass per area		
pound per cubic foot (lb/ft^3)	16.02	kilogram per cubic meter
Specific gravity		
gram per cubic centimeter (g/cm^3)	62.43	pound per cubic foot (lb/ft^3)

Temperature in degrees Celsius ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) may be converted to degrees Fahrenheit ($^{\circ}\text{F}$) as follows:
 $^{\circ}\text{F}=(1.8\times^{\circ}\text{C})+32$.

Temperature in degrees Fahrenheit ($^{\circ}\text{F}$) may be converted to degrees Celsius ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) as follows:
 $^{\circ}\text{C}=(^{\circ}\text{F}-32)/1.8$.

Concentrations of chemical constituents in water are given either in milligrams per liter (mg/L) or micrograms per liter ($\mu\text{g}/\text{L}$).

Particle sizes of sediment are given in micrometers (μm). A micrometer is one-thousandth of a millimeter.

Concentrations of sieved solids as a dried weight are in milligrams per kilogram (mg/kg).

Abbreviations or Acronyms Used in this Report

DCRA	Dane County Regional Airport
DCu	dissolved copper
DP	dissolved phosphorus
DZn	dissolved zinc
EPA	Environmental Protection Agency
ETV	Environmental Technology Verification
IJC	International Joint Commission
LOQ	limit of quantification
MLE	Maximum Likelihood Estimation
NOAA	National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
NPDES	National Pollution Discharge Elimination System
NSF International	National Sanitation Foundation International
NURP	Nationwide Urban Runoff Program
PAH	polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon
PVC	polyvinyl chloride
PSD	particle-size distribution
R ²	correlation coefficient
RPD	relative percent difference
SLOH	State Laboratory of Hygiene
SM	standard methods
SOL	summation of loads
SRS	standard reference sample
SS	suspended sediment
TCu	total recoverable copper
TDS	total dissolved solids
TP	total phosphorus
TSS	total suspended solid
TZn	total recoverable zinc
USGS	U.S. Geological Survey
VSS	volatile suspended solids
WDNR	Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources

Parking Lot Runoff Quality and Treatment Efficiencies of a Hydrodynamic-Settling Device in Madison, Wisconsin, 2005–6

By Judy A. Horwath¹ and Roger T. Bannerman²

Abstract

A hydrodynamic-settling device was installed in 2004 to treat stormwater runoff from a roof and parking lot located at the Water Utility Administration Building in Madison, Wis. The U.S. Geological Survey, in cooperation with the Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources, the City of Madison, cities in the Waukesha Permit Group, Hydro International, Earth Tech, Inc., National Sanitation Foundation International, and the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, monitored the device from November 2005 through September 2006 to evaluate it as part of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency's Environmental Technology Verification Program. Twenty-three runoff events monitored for flow volume and water quality at the device's inlet and outlet were used to calculate the percentage of pollutant reduction for the device. The geometric mean concentrations of suspended sediment (SS), "adjusted" total suspended solids (TSS), total phosphorus (TP), dissolved phosphorus (DP), total recoverable zinc (TZn), and total recoverable copper (TCu) measured at the inlet were 107 mg/L (milligrams per liter), 92 mg/L, 0.17 mg/L, 0.05 mg/L, 38 µg/L (micrograms per liter), and 12 µg/L, respectively, and these concentrations are in the range of values observed in stormwater runoff from other parking lots in Wisconsin and Michigan.

Efficiency of the settling device was calculated using the efficiency ratio and summation of loads (SOL) methods. Using the efficiency ratio method, the device reduced concentrations of SS, and DP, by 19, and 15, percent, respectively. Using the efficiency ratio method, the device increased "adjusted" TSS and TZn concentrations by 5 and 19, respectively. Bypass occurred for 3 of the 23 runoff events used in this assessment, and the bypass flow and water-quality concentrations were used to determine the efficiency of the bypass system. Concentrations of SS, "adjusted" TSS, and DP were reduced for the system by 18, 5, and 18, respectively; however, TZn increased by 5 percent. Some of the TSS concentrations were "adjusted" to add the particles that remained on the sieves during sample processing. The loads of SS, "adjusted" TSS, and

DP were reduced using the SOL method for the settling device by 38, 9, and 19 percent, respectively, and TZn increased by 13 percent. For the bypass system, the loads of SS, "adjusted" TSS, and DP had percentage reductions of 39, 12, 22, respectively, however TZn increased by 4 percent. The SOL method produced percentage reductions for SS and "adjusted" TSS that were twice those for the efficiency ratio method. Removing the two large runoff events on August 23 and 24, 2006, from the SOL calculation brought the reduction for SS down to 16 and increased "adjusted" TSS by 4 percent. The two large runoff events were anomalies in that the runoff volumes and dissolved solids concentrations were greatly increased by overflow from an adjacent recycling facility.

The SOL method was used to determine the percentage of SS load reduction for six different particle sizes for both the settling device and bypass system. Essentially no load reduction was observed for particles less than 125 micrometers (µm) in diameter, and about a 90-percent reduction occurred for particle sizes greater than 250 µm in diameter. The large removal efficiencies for particle sizes greater than 250 µm in diameter were further supported by the fact that more than 80 percent of the particle sizes trapped in the sump were greater than 250 µm in diameter. These results support the claim by the manufacturer of achieving a large percentage load reduction for particle sizes greater than 250 µm in diameter.

Introduction

Urban runoff can adversely affect aquatic systems by altering a stream's normal flow regime, destroying fish habitat, and degrading water quality (Booth and Reinelt, 1993; Horner and others, 1994; Masterson and others 1994; Pitt and others, 1995; Bannerman and others, 1996; Wang and others, 2001; Weber and Bannerman, 2004; Richards and others, 2006). To help control the effects of urbanization on aquatic systems, the Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources (WDNR) has promulgated a series of stormwater performance standards that attempt to mitigate both water-quantity and water-quality

¹ U.S. Geological Survey.

² Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources.

effects associated with urban runoff (Wisconsin Administrative Code NR 151, 2004). Water-quality benefits are based on reduction of total suspended solids (TSS) loads by 80 percent for new development, 40 percent for redevelopment, and 40 percent for a retrofit reduction. Wisconsin's municipalities will be required to meet these performance standards as part fulfillment of their U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) National Pollution Discharge Elimination System (NPDES) Phase II permit. Municipalities can select from among a number of different types of proprietary and nonproprietary types of stormwater control practices to achieve the TSS performance standards, but to reduce the uncertainty in the selection process, more information is needed about their ability to reduce TSS loads and their total cost.

To help reduce the uncertainty in the selection of proprietary stormwater control practices, a number of products have been evaluated in Wisconsin (Waschbusch and others, 1999, Horwath and others, 2004, 2010). These evaluations included both filtration and hydrodynamic-settling devices, which use sedimentation as the principle mechanism for removing TSS. These types of devices are usually installed underground, which makes them attractive for achieving TSS reduction goals at sites with limited above-ground space, such as retrofit or redevelopment sites. Results from these evaluations are being used by the WDNR to develop technical standards for both proprietary filters and hydrodynamic-settling devices. The technical standards provide criteria for proper design and installation. Also, the evaluations help calibrate and verify models used to identify the TSS reduction assigned to each installation.

As part of the continuing effort to reduce the uncertainty in the selection of proprietary stormwater control practices, the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) in cooperation with the WDNR, the City of Madison, cities in the Waukesha Permit Group, Hydro International (Portland, ME), Earth Tech, Inc. (Madison, Wis.), National Sanitation Foundation International (NSF International), and the EPA Environmental Technology Verification (ETV) Program evaluated the effectiveness of a hydrodynamic-settling device, the Downstream Defender®, which is manufactured by Hydro International. This single chamber device is designed to treat stormwater runoff and limit the resuspension of entrained sediment. The newly installed device was located at the City of Madison Water Utility Administrative Building site. Most of the drainage area consists of an employee parking lot and roofs. Monitoring of flow was conducted at the inlet, outlet, and bypass to the device from November 2005 through September 2006.

Because the evaluation described in this report is part of the ETV program, it followed EPA-approved monitoring protocols, and the results are nationally distributed by the EPA (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2002a). The ETV program sets a national focus on verifying manufacturer's claims for the performance of commercially available stormwater control practices. The EPA cooperates with the NSF International as its verification partner, and NSF International

is in charge of the following tasks: (1) create a national protocol to test wet-weather flow technologies, (2) contract independent groups to evaluate the effectiveness of the stormwater-treatment practices of interest, (3) review and implement the verification testing plans, and (4) make study results available to the general public (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2002a). A separate ETV report was prepared with the results from the evaluation described herein (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2007).

The purpose of the evaluation described in this report was to provide information needed by municipalities to reduce the uncertainty they might have in using proprietary practices to achieve their pollutant reduction goals. The overall purpose of the evaluation can be divided into three specific objectives. One specific objective is to determine the efficiency of the hydrodynamic-settling device in reducing the contaminant loads in runoff from the site. A second specific objective was to collect sufficient data to calibrate and verify models estimating TSS reduction by hydrodynamic-settling devices and to add to the database characterizing the quality of runoff from an office complex. This objective required adding particle-size distributions to the constituent list. A third specific objective was to verify the manufacturer's claim for TSS reduction.

Purpose and Scope of Report

This report describes the methods and results from the evaluation of the efficiency of a hydrodynamic-settling device installed at the City of Madison Water Utility Administration Building site. The methods include collecting flow volume and water-quality data at the inlet, outlet, and bypass locations for the device. Methods for collecting rainfall data at the site are also described. Results are presented in the form of concentrations and loads of selected constituents at different locations in the hydrodynamic-settling device. Separate procedures are described for using the concentrations and loads to calculate the ability of the device to improve water quality. Results from 23 runoff events were used for the efficiency calculations. Additional calculations are described that test the accuracy of the rainfall data, the flow data, and the water-quality data.

Flow volume and water-quality data used for the efficiency calculations were collected from November 2005 through August 2006. Water-quality samples collected at the inlet, outlet, and bypass locations were analyzed for as many as 31 constituents. These constituents might include particulate and dissolved forms of solids, trace metals, particle-size distributions, and 18 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs). Some of the constituents had been analyzed by previous studies of similar source areas, and these concentrations were compared with the results from this study. Rainfall records from the closest weather stations were used to evaluate the accuracy of the rainfall data measured at the study site. Sufficient particle-size distribution data were collected at the inlet and outlet to represent the efficiency of the device

for each particle size. The accuracy of the loads measured at the different sampling locations was evaluated by comparing the difference in the inlet and outlet suspended-sediment (SS) loads to the amount of sediment trapped in the sump of the device.

Previous Investigations

The USGS has a long history of conducting urban water-quality investigations in Wisconsin. Starting with the EPA-funded International Joint Commission (IJC) study in 1974 (Bannerman and others, 1979) the USGS has been involved continuously with partners in Wisconsin trying to find solutions to urban runoff problems. The IJC study helped characterize the level of pollution contributed from urban areas to the Great Lakes. In 1978, the EPA established the Nationwide Urban Runoff Program (NURP) to assess the water-quality characteristics of urban runoff. When the City of Milwaukee, Wis., was chosen by the EPA as a NURP site, a partnership between the WDNR and the USGS was developed to evaluate urban runoff in Milwaukee. Since the NURP study, the USGS and the WDNR have continued their partnership and have completed more than 16 studies in at least six cities. Other studies have focused on understanding the cause of degradation in urban streams, the level of pollutant control needed to improve the urban resources, evaluating the efficiency of different stormwater control practices, and improving modeling of urban runoff. Results from all of these efforts have assisted Wisconsin and other States in the implementation of more cost-effective stormwater management programs. See appendix 1 for a list of references for these previous investigations.

Site Description

The hydrodynamic-settling device was installed in the parking lot of the Water Utility Administration Building in Madison, Wis., during the fall of 2004. The utility building is located at 119 East Olin Avenue in Madison. The latitude and longitude coordinates are 43°03'09"N and 89°22'55" W (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2007).

The building grounds cover about 5.5 acres, and 1.91 acres of the grounds drain to the settling device (fig. 1, table 1). The device is sized to treat the runoff from the 1.91 acres. All the runoff from the 1.91 acres is delivered to the device through a storm-sewer collection system. The storm-sewer system that collects the runoff reaching the device consists of 12- and 15-in. diameter concrete pipes. The catch basins do not have sumps, and there are no other stormwater control practices in the area. After leaving the outlet to flow diversion structure, the treated (and bypassed) water enters a wet detention pond also located on the Water Utility property.

Water leaving the wet detention pond flows through the city storm-sewer system to Wingra Creek, which is a tributary to Lake Monona. Wingra Creek is on the WDNR 303(d) impaired waters list (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 1998, 2002b). Wingra Creek's impairments are aquatic toxicity and contaminated sediment.

Madison, Wis., has a climate typical of interior North America, with a large annual temperature range and frequent short-period temperature changes. Nearly 60 percent of the approximately 33 in. of average annual rainfall falls in the months of May through September (National Climate Data Center, 2003). The average amount of snowfall is 44 in.

Table 1. Characteristics of drainage area that contribute runoff to hydrodynamic-settling device at Madison Water Utility Administration Building, Madison, Wisconsin.

Land use	Acres	Total runoff contribution (percent)
Parking lot and roadway	1.05	55
Roofs	0.49	26
Lawn	0.29	15
Sidewalks	0.08	4

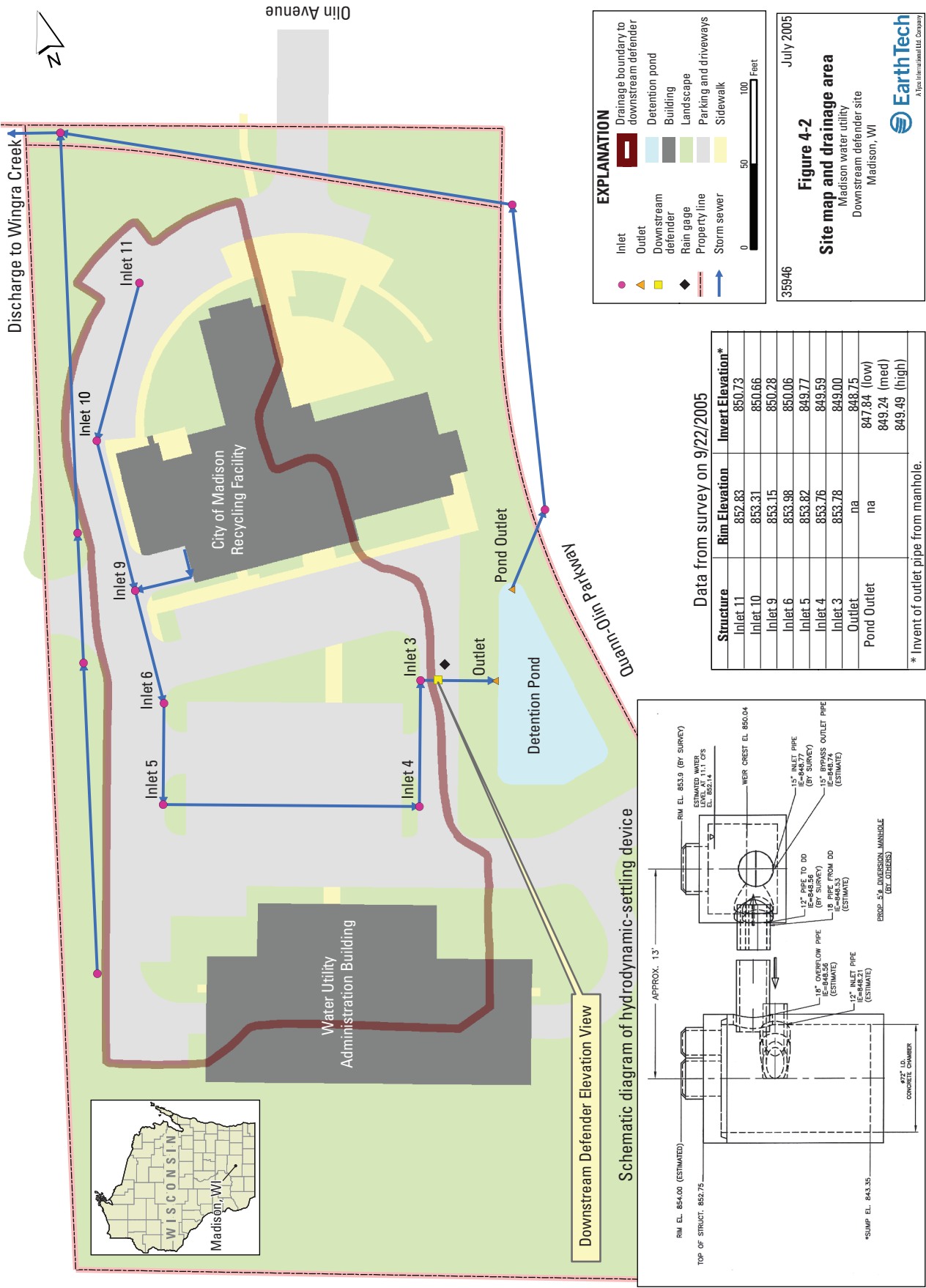


Figure 1. Location of study area in Madison, Wisconsin, drainage area of parking lot, inlets, manholes, hydrodynamic-settling device, and storm-sewer pipes (modified from J.A. Bachhuber, Earth Tech, Inc., written commun., 2005).

Design of Hydrodynamic-Settling Device

The 6-ft diameter hydrodynamic-settling device installed at the Madison Water Utility Administration Building site is designed to remove settleable solids, oil, and floatables in stormwater runoff. The device has no moving parts and no external power requirements. It consists of a cylindrical concrete vessel, with polypropylene internal components, a 304 stainless-steel support frame, and connecting hardware (fig. 2). The concrete vessel is a standard precast cylindrical manhole with a tangential inlet pipe that is installed below ground. Two ports at ground level provide access for inspection and clean out of stored floatables and sediment. The internal components consist of two concentric hollow cylinders (the dip plate and center shaft), an inverted cone (the center cone), a benching skirt, and a floatables lid (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2007).

The device is designed to collect accumulated sediment outside the treatment flow path and beneath the benching skirt. The internal components help minimize turbulence and hydraulic-head losses, which can enhance separation and prevent resuspension of previously stored sediment. The center cone is one component that protects resuspension of previously stored sediment by redirecting the main flow upwards and inwards under the dip plate into the inner annular space (fig. 2).

The installation includes a flow diversion structure that is located approximately 13 ft north of the device (fig. 3). Stormwater runoff from the drainage area enters the 5-ft diameter flow diversion manhole by a 1.125-ft polyvinyl chloride (PVC) pipe (fig. 3, point A). The manhole housed a 0.97-ft PVC device inlet pipe (point B), a 1.4-ft PVC device outlet pipe (point C), a 1.1-ft system outlet PVC pipe (point D), and a 2-ft high weir wall (point E). When flow is bypassed over the weir, the hydrodynamic-settling device and the diversion structure are acting as a system. Because the settling device used for the study is sized to treat flows up to 3 ft³/s, the diversion structure will bypass when flows exceed 3 ft³/s up to 8 ft³/s.

The hydrodynamic-settling device installed at the study site is designed to remove settleable solids from stormwater runoff. Generally, the removal efficiency of the device decreases or possibly negative with increasing flow rates, finer particles, and cooler water temperatures. For runoff at 15 °C and flow rates up to 3 ft³/s, the device will remove over 80 percent of settleable solids when the specific gravity equals 2.65 with a particle-size distribution (PSD) similar to the Maine Department of Transportation's road sand. Hydro International defines "settleable sediment" as particles greater than 62 µm in size. Because 80 percent of the particles in the road sand PSD are about 290 µm in diameter or greater, the device can achieve the performance standard by trapping mostly particles in the medium sand-size fraction or greater (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2007). The device has a sediment storage capacity of 56.7 ft³.

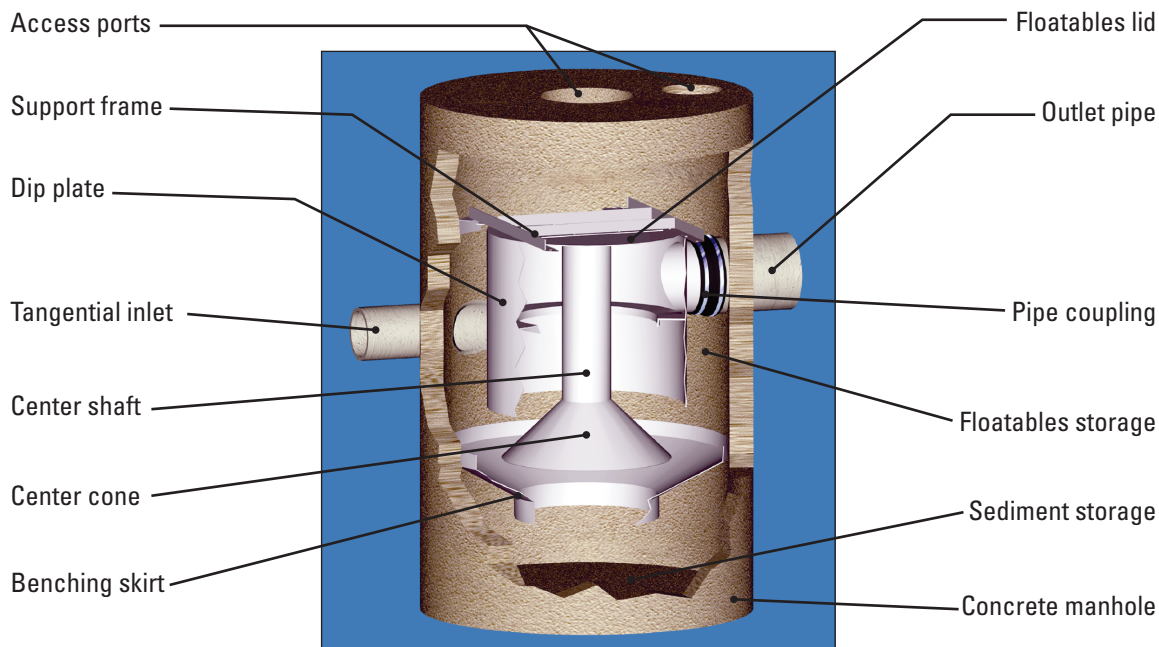


Figure 2. Hydrodynamic-settling device.

sample line was installed 2 ft upstream from where flow exits the device (point C). To sample bypassing runoff events, a water-quality sample line was installed 1 in. below the top of the upstream side weir wall (point E). All sample lines were Teflon lined and installed perpendicular to flow and approximately 1 in. from the bottom of the pipe. The automatic samplers were programmed with a pre-sample purge and rinses cycle before each sample. Sample lines were not replaced between events. The data logger in the monitoring station was programmed to initiate a subsample for a predefined volume of flow; consequently, more subsamples were collected for large-volume runoff events than for small-volume runoff events. Flow-weighted sampling allowed for the collection of one composite sample per stormwater runoff event, consisting

of numerous subsamples collected throughout the course of the event. This approach resulted in a single flow-weighted or “event mean” concentration for each runoff event. The volume between subsamples was determined such that a minimum of five 1-L subsamples were collected for each event. The maximum sampler capacity was 40 1-L subsamples into 4 glass bottles. For events greater than or equal to 0.2 in. of rainfall and a minimum of five 1-L subsamples, the subsamples were processed for all constituents (tables 2 and 3); otherwise, subsamples were processed for concentrations of SS, TSS, and total dissolved solids (TDS). Samples were processed according to the churn-splitting procedure described by Horowitz and others (1997) and further described in this report.

Table 2. Limits of detection and analytical methods for inorganic constituents analyzed in samples collected at the hydrodynamic-settling device in Madison, Wisconsin.

[mg/L, milligrams per liter; P, phosphorus; µg/L, micrograms per liter; NA, not applicable]

Constituent or characteristic	Unit	Limit of detection	Limit of quantification ¹	Method
Dissolved solids, total	mg/L	50	167	SM2540C ²
Suspended solids, total	mg/L	2	7	EPA 160.2 ³
Volatile solids, total	mg/L	2	7	EPA 160.2 ³
Suspended sediment	mg/L	2	7	ASTM D3977–97 ²
Phosphorus, dissolved	mg/L as P	0.005	0.016	EPA 365.1 ³
Phosphorus, total	mg/L as P	0.005	0.016	EPA 365.1 ³
Calcium, total recoverable	mg/L	0.02	0.07	EPA 200.7 ^{2,3}
Magnesium, total recoverable	mg/L	0.03	0.7	EPA 200.7 ^{2,3}
Zinc, dissolved ⁴	mg/L	1	3	EPA 200.9 ²
Zinc, total recoverable ⁴	mg/L	1	3	EPA 200.9 ²
Copper, dissolved	mg/L	1	3	SM3113B ²
Copper, total recoverable	mg/L	1	3	SM3113B ²
Wet-sieve of sediment	NA	NA	NA	Burton ⁵
Coulter counter of sediment	NA	NA	NA	Burton ⁵
Laser diffraction of sediment	NA	NA	NA	Burton ⁵
Microfiltration of sediment	NA	NA	NA	Burton ⁵

¹Limit of quantification is the low standard in the calibration curve.

²American Public Health Association and others (1989); SM, standard methods.

³U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) (1986).

⁴The first 3 events had limit of detection and limit of quantification of 16 and 50, respectively.

⁵Burton and Pitt (2002).

Device Outlet Flows

Flows from the device outlet (point C) flowmeter were not used to calculate loads for three reasons: (1) flows from device outlet and inlet should be equal, and the inlet meter was calibrated with dye dilution; (2) the device outlet flows overestimated inlet flow; and (3) bypassing conditions may affect the device outlet.

Monitoring Complications

Backwater from Pond. It was noticed in the fall of 2005 that stormwater was taking several hours to drain out of the device. There was standing water at the system outlet that

could have affected the device performance. The detention pond (downstream from the device) was backing water into the manhole. In January 2006, the detention pond control structure was widened to reduce pond elevation.

No Flow Data Spikes. Programming changes between the data logger and the velocity meter were added that omitted data spikes during no flow. Communications from the area-velocity meter to the data logger were managed through serial string translation. During periods of no flow, data were recorded for the first minute of the hour. When particles were not available for the area-velocity meter, the meter could not correctly determine the velocity within that minute; therefore, the data logger translated the velocity data as an extremely high or low data point. To replace the high or low data point

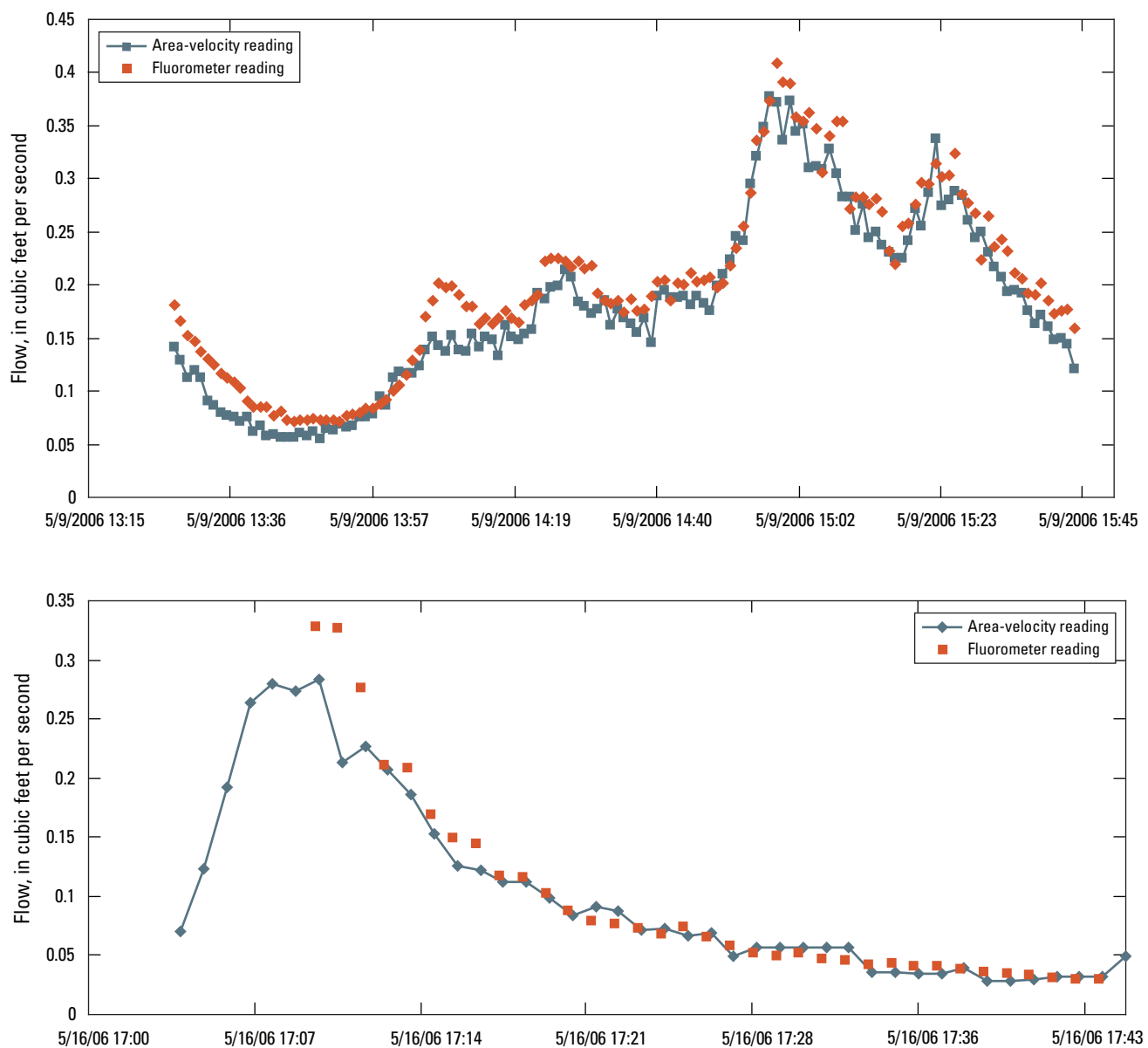


Figure 4. Comparison of flow measured using dye dilution fluorometer and inlet area-velocity meter for two runoff events, May 9 and 16, 2006.

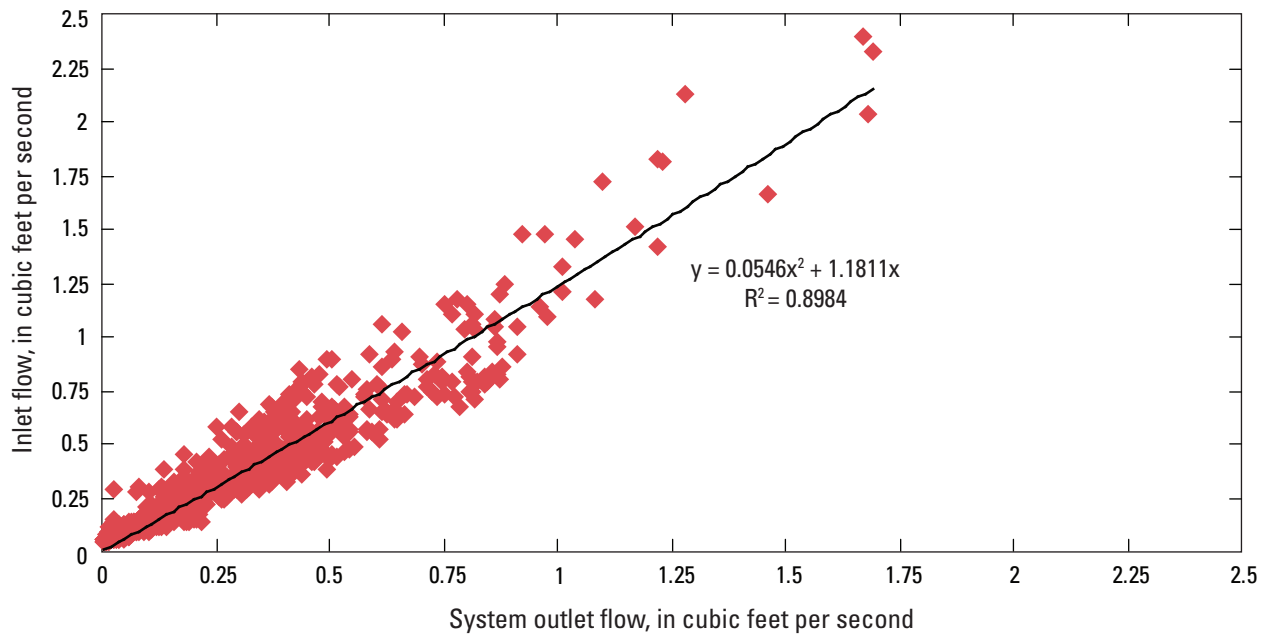


Figure 5. Graph showing stormwater flow volumes at flow system outlet corrected by dye dilution in relation to inlet flow volumes, 2006.

with the last valid velocity recorded by the area-velocity meter, high and low cutoff thresholds were programmed into the data logger. To validate removal of these high or low data points, the velocity data recorded by the data logger were compared to velocity recorded by the internal memory of the area-velocity meter. The area-velocity meter stored 15-second data for approximately 2 days then overwrote it with new data. Programming changes were made in April 2006.

Power Failures. During the summer of 2006, a few runoff events were missed due to power failures with the samplers. High summer temperatures increased the power needs to cool refrigerators. When the sampler tried to take a sample, there was not enough power to turn on the pumps, resulting in power failures. Adding an extra battery to the system alleviated this problem.

Rodent Damage. Sample tubing was replaced at the inlet sampler in June 2006 due to damage from a rodent. This caused a runoff event on June 10, 2006, to be missed.

Water Temperature Probe Failure. A temperature probe mounted near the bypass wall did not record correctly after May 1, 2006. Temperature readings from another monitoring site, 3 mi northeast of the settling device, were substituted for the remaining events. The substituted probe was installed in May 2006 at a downtown Madison, Wis., parking lot stormwater monitoring site.

Hydrograph Errors for Two Runoff Events. It was noticed that the ends of two flow event hydrographs showed discrepancies in flow; there was more flow at the inlet sampler than at the outlet sampler (events for August 24 and 25, 2006). To determine which meter was in error, stage versus velocity plots were made for several sampled runoff events. From these plots, the inlet and system outlet meters produced a regression

equation with correlation coefficients (R^2) of 0.97 and 0.93, respectively, but the system outlet meter had greater scattered. By inserting the events in question on the regression plot, volumes were visibly low. The tail end of the system outlet hydrograph was corrected for those two events by replacing the low volume with the recorded inlet volume.

Overflow from Adjacent Recycling Facility. West of the Madison Water Utility Administration Building is a City of Madison recycling facility with outside storage of yard and brush waste. Most of this storage area is impervious. During the first inspections of the study site, it was noticed that some of the runoff from the recycling facility could potentially enter the drainage area being monitored. To reduce the chances of this additional runoff from entering the study area, the City of Madison constructed a 3-in. high speed bump diversion across the driveway connecting the two properties (fig. 6).

Blockage of Culvert Draining Adjacent Recycling Facility. During the last month of the monitoring period, the pipe designed to drain a large portion of the adjacent recycling facility became clogged with sediment. This pipe (fig. 1) is located in a grassy depressed area on the west end of the study area parking lot (figs. 7 and 8). Visual observation of the debris line around this pipe indicated that the depression would fill with runoff and overflow into the drainage area for the monitoring site. Based on site inspections, the extent of additional drainage could be as much as 4 acres for a total drainage area of 5.9 acres. The additional runoff volume would vary with rainfall factors such as depth and intensity and with extent of blockage at the inlet. The additional flow would not decrease the accuracy of the flow meters, but the higher flows could increase the chances of some runoff bypassing the settling device.



Figure 6. Watershed barrier (speed bump) installed to prevent runoff from City of Madison recycling facility (fenced area to left of photograph).

Figure 7. Debris on speed bump overtopping watershed divide with stormwater runoff from adjacent City of Madison recycling facility, August 2006.



Figure 8. Blockage of culvert draining the Madison recycling facility adjacent to the Madison Water Utility Administration Building, August 2006.

Evaluation of Hydrodynamic-Settling Device

Rainfall, flow volume, particle-size, and water-quality data were all important in evaluating the effectiveness of the hydrodynamic-settling device. A comparison of monitored rainfall depths and long-term trends in rainfall depths helped determine if the monitoring data were representative of rainfall patterns in Madison. The flow data were needed to determine the volumes of runoff entering and leaving the settling device and bypass system. The ratio of runoff volumes to rainfall volumes was used to help test the accuracy of the runoff-flow data. Both flow volume and constituent concentrations were needed to evaluate the efficiency of the settling device. Particle-size data helped explain the magnitude of the efficiency determined for the device.

Rainfall Data

For the study period of November 5, 2005, to September 12, 2006, the rain gage on the study site recorded 71 rainfall events (appendix 4). Because the rain gage could not be used to measure frozen rainfall accurately, the data set in appendix 4 does not include any events in December 2005, January 2006, and February 2006. In addition to the rainfall depths,

appendix 4 includes the rainfall volumes, maximum 15- and 30-minute rainfall intensities, the erosivity index (a measure of the erosive force of a specific rainfall), and the number of days without rain before each event. Rainfall data collected at the site were compared to National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) data collected at the Dane County Regional Airport (DCRA), which is about 6 mi from the study site (table 4).

The difference between the total from the USGS (onsite) rainfall data and the 2005–6 total from the DCRA rainfall data was less than 1 percent. This indicates that the rain gage at the study site was comparable to the DCRA rainfall data, where larger differences generally occurred for individual months, but localized convective storms can cause substantial differences over distances as small as 6 mi. The rainfall at the Madison Water Utility Administration Building was 3.5 in. higher than the long-term (1971–2000) average at DCRA (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, 2007).

Probability distributions for USGS and DCRA rainfall data sets were constructed by use of the Weibull plotting position (Helsel and Hirsch, 1992). Rainfall amounts for individual rainfall events were computed for both data sets. Rainfall amounts greater than or equal to 0.05 in. (the minimum amount recorded during this evaluation) were ranked from lowest to highest. A cumulative probability distribution then was computed for both data sets by use of the formula:

Table 4. Comparison of monthly rainfall between U.S. Geological Survey rain gage at study site and National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration rainfall gage at Dane County Regional Airport, Madison, Wisconsin, November 2005–September 2006.

[Rainfall is presented in inches. USGS, U.S. Geological Survey; DCRA, Dane County Regional Airport;—, no data]

Month and year	USGS rain gage	DCRA rain gage	DCRA long-term average ¹
November 2005	2.5	3.4	2.3
December 2005	—	—	—
January 2006	—	—	—
February 2006	—	—	—
March 2006	1.7	2.3	2.3
April 2006	5.8	4.2	3.4
May 2006	3.8	4.6	3.2
June 2006	1.9	2.3	4.0
July 2006	5.8	4.2	3.9
August 2006	5.1	5.4	4.3
September 2006	3.4	3.3	3.1
Total	30	30	27

¹Average from 1971–2000 for Dane County Regional Airport, Madison, Wis. (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, 2007).

$$P_R = i_R / (n + 1), \quad (4)$$

where

R is precipitation event;

P_R is probability of an event having precipitation less than that of event;

i_R is ranking of event R ; and

n is total number of events in the data set.

Except for a moderate deviation for rainfall depths between 0.65 and 0.9 in., the distribution of the sampled events was very similar to the long-term distribution (fig. 9).

Stormwater Flow Data

Stormwater flow data were collected for 47 of the 71 rainfall events from November 2005 to September 2006 (appendix 5). All of the flow data were collected during warm-weather months. Because the settling device outlet flows (point C in fig. 3) were not calibrated, the flow from the device outlet was less accurate than the device inlet flows (point B in fig. 3). The stormwater flow data from the settling device outlet were excluded from the data analysis. Because the inlet and outlet flow volumes are the same, the device inlet flows were used to represent the device outlet flows. These flow data were also used to determine (1) peak flow rates at the settling device inlet and system outlet (point D in fig. 3), (2) inlet volume,

(3) volume over the flow splitter weir (point E in fig. 3), and (4) runoff coefficient for the settling device system. Only the flow events on April 16, May 24, July 27, and August 23 and 24, 2006, had enough bypass volume to significantly affect the magnitude of the percentage of runoff.

Most of the data representing flow had a wide range in values. The device inlet peak flows ranged from 0.10 to 2.9 ft³/s (appendix 5). The system outlet peak flows ranged from 0.04 to 5.8 ft³/s. The maximum peak flows at the system outlet should be higher than the flows at the device inlet because the flow splitter is designed to limit the flows to the device inlet to 3 ft³. The runoff volumes at the device inlet ranged from 138 to 17,200 ft³ with majority of the volumes greater than 1,000 ft³. The volume of the sump below the outlet pipe elevation is about 147 ft³, so the storage volume of the device is replaced at least seven times for most flow events.

Water-quality samples were collected for 26 of the 47 flow events with measured flow (appendix 5). The range of rainfall depths for the sampled events was 0.05 to 2.2 in. with a mean of 0.59 in. There were 13 runoff events that had rainfall depths less than 0.2 in. Only 5 of the 13 events were sampled because there was insufficient depth of water in the pipe to collect a sample. Twenty-five of the 47 flow events had between 0.2 and 1.0 in. of rainfall, and samples were collected from 13 of them. One was not sampled due to rodent damage on the sample line. There were nine rainfall events greater than 1 in., and eight were sampled; the event not sampled was due

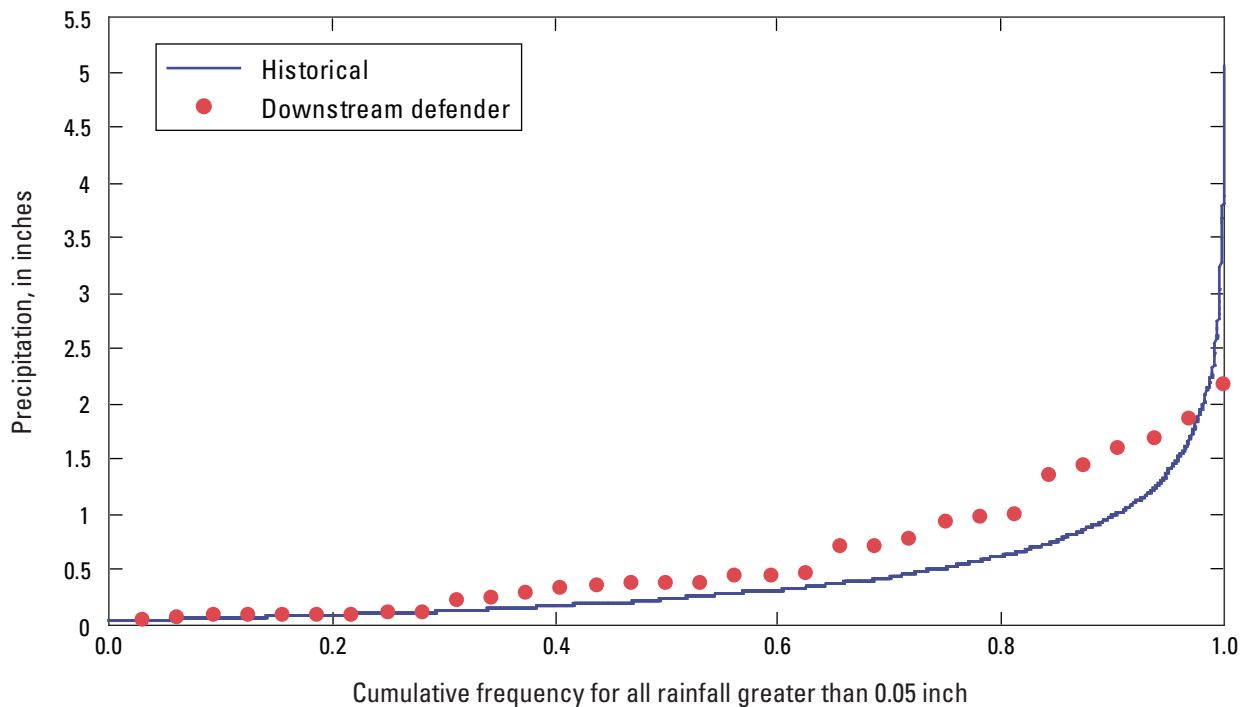


Figure 9. Cumulative rainfall for study site (2005–6) in relation to cumulative frequency for all rainfall greater than 0.05 inch (1949–92) determined on basis of National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration rainfall gage at Dane County Regional Airport, Madison, Wisconsin.

to overheating of the sampler. Nine of the 25 flow events with rainfall greater than 0.2 in. were not sampled because they occurred either before the project started or after project sampling was completed but before sediment was removed from the device. Overall, the number of stormwater flow events not sampled due to equipment problems was minimal for rainfall events greater than 0.2 in. Twenty-one of the 25 flow events with rainfall greater than 0.2 in. were sampled for a sampling efficiency of 84 percent during the sampling period.

The settling device was designed to treat up to 3 ft³/s before flow bypassing begins, and bypassing did occur when flows exceeded 3 ft³/s (appendix 5). This occurred during seven stormwater flow events, and for five of those events, water-quality samples were collected at the weir wall. The sampled flow events occurred on April 16, May 24, July 27, and August 23 and 24, 2006, and the bypass events that were not sampled were on July 9 and September 12, 2006. On July 9, 2006, flow bypassing occurred for 4 minutes of the flow event; however, this was too short for the bypass sampler to be activated. Stormwater flow events on May 24, July 27, and August 24, 2006, had flow bypassing for almost the entire event, whereas the events on April 16 and August 23, 2006, flow bypassed the settling device for less than 5 percent of the flow duration. Of the eight sampled events with rainfall of 1 in. or greater in depth, five of the stormwater flow events were the sampled events with bypass flows (appendix 5). The difference between the bypass flow events with larger rainfall and those with no flow bypass is the intensity of the rainfall. The peak 15-minute rainfall intensity for the sampled flow events with bypass ranged from 2.0 to 5.5 in/hr, whereas the three larger events without bypass had peak 15-minute intensities ranging from 0.4 to 0.9 in/hr.

Results from 3 of the 26 sampled flow events were not used in any of the calculations in the rest of this report. The dates for these events were May 15 and 24, and July 27, 2006. Data from the event on May 15, 2006, were not complete because the sampler at the device outlet did not collect enough water to process. Not only did the flow events on May 24 and July 27, 2006, have continuous bypass, but the pipes were surcharging to the point where water was coming out of the manhole at the top of the device. The high intensities and large rainfall volumes for these two runoff events produced pipe-full conditions that lasted more than 15 minutes for each event. It was not possible to measure flow accurately under these conditions.

Comparison of Runoff Volumes to Rainfall Volumes

Another check on the accuracy of the stormwater flow and rainfall measurements was used to calculate the runoff coefficients for each flow event. By dividing the volume of rainfall into the runoff volume, it was possible to determine

whether the amount of rainfall produced the expected amount of runoff. The percentage of directly connected impervious area was an important factor in the magnitude of the runoff coefficient, and the percentage of connected impervious area in the study site was about 84 percent. This value assumed that all of the parking lot, roof, and sidewalks were directly connected. For small rainfall depths, almost all of the runoff originated directly from connected areas, but pervious areas and disconnected impervious areas contributed during larger flow events. Runoff coefficients estimated for areas with different amounts of directly connected imperviousness clay soils indicated that the runoff coefficients for the study area probably average about 60 percent (Bochis-Micu and Pitt, 2005).

For most sampled runoff events, the runoff coefficients ranged between about 75 and 85 percent (appendix 5; fig. 10). The average of runoff coefficients for 23 of the sampled events was 84 percent. This is higher than the expected value of about 60 percent. The runoff events on August 23 and 24, 2006, significantly increased the average, with runoff coefficients of about 133 and 216 percent, respectively. The runoff volume for these two events was larger than the recorded rainfall volume. These two runoff events not only occurred during the last month of the study when the inlet draining the adjacent recycling center was clogged (described in more detail in the section on “Methods of Data Collection”), but they also represent relatively large rainfalls. Although the flow measurements were probably accurate for these two events, the overflow from the adjacent recycling center could have easily increased the runoff coefficients above 100 percent. Without these two events, the average runoff coefficient decreases to 75 percent.

Although the 75 percent might be close enough to the suggested value of 60 percent, it is closer to the average runoff coefficient of 70 percent observed for runoff from a hospital site in Green Bay, Wis. (Horwath and others, 2004). The hospital drainage area had a connected impervious value of 90 percent, and the Bochis-Micu curves estimated a runoff coefficient of about 70 percent for an area with 90 percent connected imperviousness. It might be reasonable to increase the study site connected imperviousness by 6 percent to about 90 percent if the new lawns at the study site are assumed to produce more runoff than the calculations done by Bochis-Micu. Runoff measurements for lawns 1 to 3 years old and those older than 10 years showed that the runoff volumes from newly developed lawns was significantly greater than runoff from older lawns (Legg and others, 1996). The potential for extra runoff from the 0.29 acre of new lawn at the Water Utility site could be responsible for the somewhat higher than expected average runoff coefficient for the site. By assuming a slightly higher percentage of imperviousness for the site, the flows and rainfall depths measured in this study appear good enough to produce an accurate average runoff coefficient.

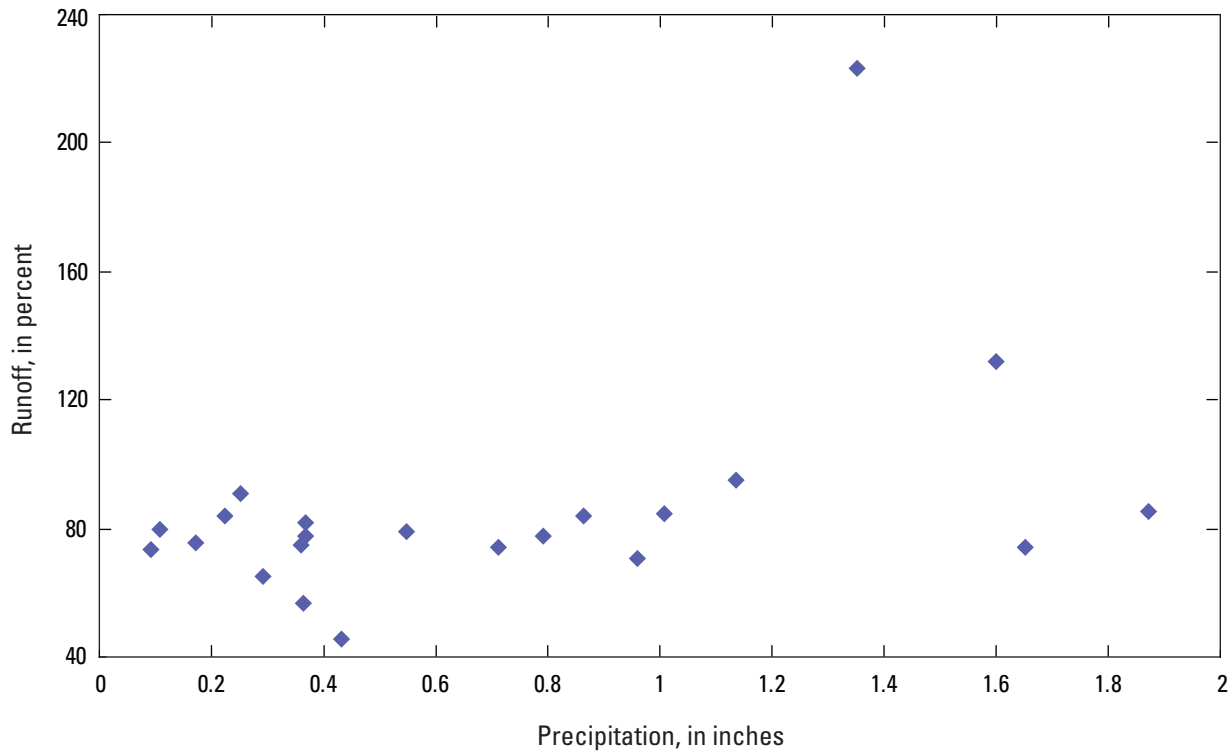


Figure 10. Comparison of percentage of parking lot runoff and rainfall for hydrodynamic-settling device, November 2005–August 2006.

Water-Quality Data for Inlet and Outlet

Runoff event mean water-quality concentrations were determined for 31 constituents at the inlet and outlet of the hydrodynamic-settling device (appendixes 6–8). Eighteen of the constituents were individual compounds of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs). Analysis for concentrations of SS, TSS, and TDS were done for all 23 sampled runoff events at both the inlet and outlet of the device. Depending on the amount of water available for analysis, between 17 and 21 of the events were processed for other constituents. Testing for PAHs was limited to seven of the sampled events because the PAH analysis was not performed on samples that were sieved before the splitting process. Bypass samples collected at the weir wall for three runoff events were analyzed for all the constituents except PAHs. Data from the events sampled on May 15 and 24, and July 27, 2006, are not included in the appendixes because of previously discussed problems with the flow monitoring and sample collection.

When a sample was sieved prior to the sample-splitting process, the volatile suspended solids (VSS) and TSS concentrations were not determined for the material left on the sieves. An analysis was done, however, on the material left on the sieve for TP, TZn, and TCu. Because VSS represents the organic material such as leaves and grass clippings in the stormwater, a lot of the VSS material would probably be left on the sieves. Therefore, VSS concentrations are probably

underestimated for nine events at the hydrodynamic-settling device inlet, four events at device outlet, and three events at the weir wall. These events were excluded from the appendixes. This leaves 12 runoff events with VSS concentrations for both the inlet and outlet. Total suspended solids concentrations measured in the water were increased to account for the amount on the sieves by using a method (described in the "Methods of Data Collection" section of the report) that is based on the sieve mass and PSD of the material left on the sieve.

All of the water-quality constituents except PAHs, TDS, and DZn had inlet and outlet concentrations greater than detection levels. Dissolved zinc concentrations were less than detection limits for only two runoff events, and the dissolved solids had four events with concentrations less than detection limits. In contrast, the nondetectable compounds composed a substantial proportion of the total PAHs results. Nondetectable compounds were less than detection limits for samples from the device outlet more often than samples from the inlet.

Summary statistics for the individual PAH compounds were not computed because of the large number of runoff events that had individual concentrations that were less than detection limits. To calculate the summary statistics for total PAHs, a method was needed to account for the nondetected concentrations. Methods included using the limit of detections, one-half the limit of detections, and zero. To be consistent

Particle-Size Distributions

Particle-size distributions are available for 21 runoff events at the inlet and outlet of the hydrodynamic-settling device (appendix 9). The nine particle sizes analyzed for this study included 500, 250, 125, 63, 31, 16, 8, 4, and 2 μm in diameter. The PSD at the inlet and outlet varied for each event. For the inlet samples, the portion of sand particles (greater than 63 μm in diameter) ranged from 16 to 93 percent, and the outlet samples ranged from 36 to 93 percent. Based on average particle sizes for all the runoff events, the average median particle size for the device inlet was about 50 μm in diameter, and the average amount of sand in the samples was about 48 percent (fig. 11, table 7). These averages agree very well with the averages observed at another parking lot monitored in Madison, Wis. (Horwath and Bannerman, 2010). In the 2010 study, both the average median particle size and level of sand in the samples were slightly less at about 50 and 43 percent, respectively. A wide range in the percentage of sand in each sample was also observed in the runoff from the other parking lot.

Two groups of runoff events were responsible for the extreme values observed in most particle sizes observed at the hydrodynamic-settling device inlet. Compared to the average median particle size and percentage of sand-sized particles for all the runoff events, the events on March 8 and 12, and April 2 and 12, 2006, had the smaller percentages. These four events had an average median particle size of only about 8 μm in diameter, and the average percentage of sand in the samples was about 12 percent (fig. 11). At the other extreme, the runoff events on August 17, 23, and 24, 2006 (events 24–26), and water samples had a relatively large percentage of larger particles. The average percentage of sand-sized particles was 70 percent for these three runoff events, and the average median particle size was more than 500 μm in diameter. These three events could have had a relatively large amount of large particles in the runoff because of the overflow from the adjacent recycling center. The events occurred during the last month of sampling when the inlet draining the adjacent facility was clogged. Wood chips transported from the recycling facility were observed deposited on the parking lot (figs. 7 and 8) and were observed in the water samples. A few wood chips could greatly increase the percentage of larger particles in the samples.

Table 6. Comparison of geometric mean concentrations from this study with geometric mean and median concentrations observed in other parking lot studies in Wisconsin and Michigan.

[mg/L, milligrams per liter; $\mu\text{g/L}$, micrograms per liter; med, median; —, no data available]

Study	Total suspended solids (mg/L)	Suspended-sediment concentration (mg/L)	Dissolved phosphorus (mg/L)	Total phosphorus (mg/L)	Total copper ($\mu\text{g/L}$)	Total zinc ($\mu\text{g/L}$)
City of Madison Water Utility, Madison (this study, (Nov. 2005–August 2006)	92	107	0.05	0.17	12	38
Employee parking lot, Madison, Wis. (Horwath and Bannerman, 2010)	15 (med)	19	0.03	0.06	4	20
St. Mary's Hospital parking lot, Green Bay, Wis. (Horwath and others, 2004)	23 (med)	31	0.02	0.06	—	50
City garbage truck parking area, Milwaukee, Wis. (Corsi and others, 1999)	232 (med)	—	0.002	0.26	32	150
Retail parking lot, Madison, Wis. (Waschbusch and others, 1999)	50	—	0.02	0.10	—	—
Retail parking lot Marquette, Mich., (Steuer and others, 1997)	110	—	0.022	0.20	22	178
Retail parking lot, Madison, Wis. (Bannerman and others, 1993)	58	—	0.05	0.19	15	178
Retail parking lot, Milwaukee, Wis. (Bannerman and others, 1983)	48	—	0.02	0.10	—	133

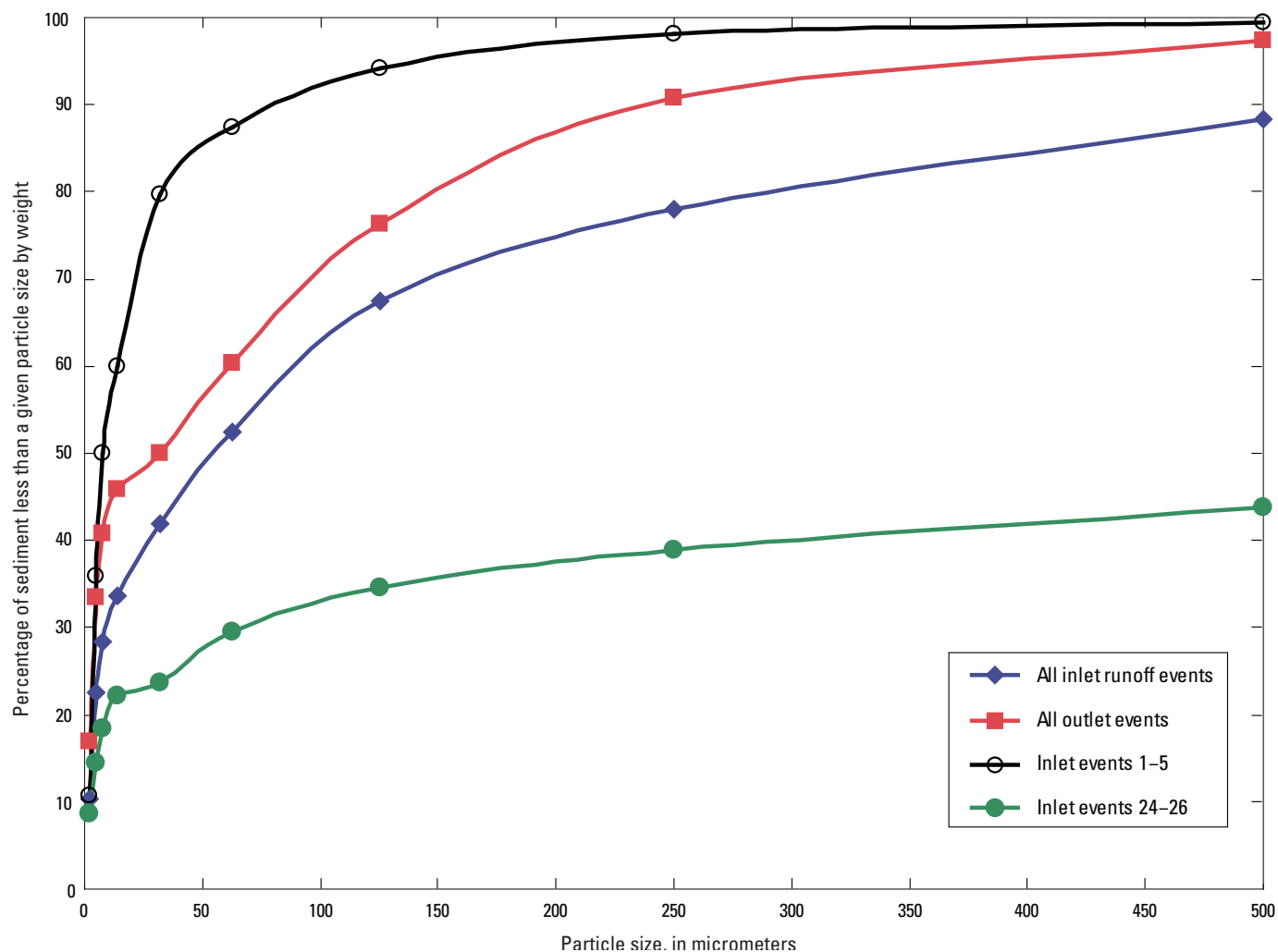


Figure 11. Particle-size distributions determined at inlet and outlet of hydrodynamic-settling device for selected runoff events, November 2005–August 2006.

Table 7. Average particle-size distributions determined at inlet and outlet of hydrodynamic-settling device for selected runoff events, Madison, Wisconsin, November 2005–August 2006.

[All values are in percent less than by mass; μm , micrometers in diameter]

Particle size (μm)	500	250	125	63	31	16	8	4	2
Device inlet—all runoff events	88	78	67	52	42	34	28	23	10
Device outlet—all runoff events	97	91	77	59	47	38	31	25	12
First four device inlet runoff events	98	95	89	83	76	59	51	39	15
Last three device inlet runoff events	44	39	35	29	24	22	18	14	9

Water samples collected at the outlet of the hydrodynamic-settling device had a larger percentage of fine particles than inlet samples (fig. 11, table 7). From the inlet to the outlet, the average median particle size decreased from 52 to 44 μm in diameter. The average percentage of particles less than 63 μm in diameter increased from 52 to 59 percent. Some of the largest changes in the percentage of particles sizes occurred in the 16 and 250 μm in diameter. Average percentages of particles less than 16 μm in diameter increased from about 34 to 38 percent, and the average percentage of particles greater than 250 μm in diameter decreased from about 22 to 9 percent (fig. 11). This increase in finer particle sizes coupled with the decrease in larger particle sizes indicates that the settling device was preferentially trapping the larger particles.

In previous studies of stormwater control practices, the PSD was shown to have some effect on the efficiency of the device (Waschbusch, 1999; Horwath and others, 2004). Based on average PSD at the inlet, a device would need to control all the particles greater than about 250 μm in diameter to achieve a 20-percent reduction in TSS. To achieve the performance standards in NR151, particles greater than 90 μm in diameter and about 3 μm in diameter would need to be controlled to achieve the 40-percent and 80-percent reduction in TSS reduction, respectively. With all the variability in the PSD, the efficiency of the settling device would be expected to vary somewhat among runoff events.

Efficiency Calculations

Two methods typically used by investigators to determine the removal efficiency of constituents by a stormwater control practice are the efficiency ratio and summation of loads (SOL) (National Cooperative Highway Research Program, 2006). The efficiency ratio uses runoff event mean concentration of contaminants detected in samples collected during the study. The SOL is used to evaluate the treatment efficiency on a percentage basis by comparing the sum of the influent and effluent loads (the product of multiplying the constituent concentration by the runoff volume) for all monitored events.

Each method uses data from the inlet and outlet to produce a single number that is designed to represent removal efficiency of the device. Unfortunately, these methods are not designed to evaluate the statistical differences in the data, so there is insufficient information generated by the methods to determine whether the differences in water-quality measurements for samples from the inlet and outlet are significant. These efficiency calculations can be supplemented with a statistical test that indicates whether the medians for nonparametric concentrations are statistically significant (Helsel and Hirsch, 1992).

A paired statistical test was used to determine whether the constituent concentrations at the inlet were greater than those at the outlet. A paired statistical test was considered valid for this data set because concentrations at the inlet and outlet were paired for each runoff event. Most of the constituents were log normally distributed; therefore, the nonparametric one-sided Wilcoxon signed-rank test was applied (Helsel and Hirsch, 1992). A test for significance and efficiency ratios calculations was not done for calcium and magnesium because the concentrations of these two constituents were only used in the calculation of hardness. In addition, a test for PAHs was not done because only seven samples were collected, and results from these samples were mostly nondetections.

Inlet and outlet concentrations were significantly different at the 95-confidence level for 4 of the 28 constituents analyzed during this study. Concentrations in runoff at the settling device inlet were larger than concentrations at the device outlet for SS and DP, but the concentrations for VSS and TZn were significantly larger at the device outlet than at the inlet. At the 84-percent confidence level, the “adjusted” TSS inlet concentrations were larger than the outlet concentrations. Because VSS was not analyzed for the particulate matter trapped on the sieves during sample processing, the number of runoff events available for the efficiency calculation was relatively small. For this reason, VSS efficiencies are not reported for this study even though there is a significant difference between the inlet and outlet concentrations. Concentrations of TDS, TP, TCu, DCu, and DZn were not significantly different for the inlet and outlet samples, so efficiencies were not determined for these constituents.

Efficiency Ratio

The efficiency ratio comparison evaluates treatment efficiencies on a percentage basis by dividing the constituent concentration at the outflow of the hydrodynamic-settling device by the concentration at the inflow of the device and multiplying the quotient by 100. This method of calculating efficiencies of a device weights all runoff events equally. For example, a large volume of flow with large constituent concentrations has the same weight as a small volume of flow with small constituent concentrations. The device outlet concentration could be affected by the water stored in the device between events; however, sufficient runoff volume exchange occurred for the runoff events to minimize the effect of this stored volume. As discussed previously, the volume exchanges at least 8 times for most events, and the volume is replaced at least 16 times for more than one-half of the runoff events. Efficiency ratio calculations were done for both the device and

Sum of Loads

The SOL is used to evaluate the treatment efficiency on a percentage basis by comparing the sum of the influent and effluent loads (the product of multiplying the constituent concentration by the runoff volume for an event) for sampled events. The SOL method of calculating efficiencies is weighted by the runoff volume of each event. This means that a small number of events with larger runoff volumes can have more effect on the SOL than a large number of events with small runoff volumes. The settling device inlet runoff volumes were used to calculate both the inlet and outlet loads because the inlet volumes were calibrated and considered more accurate than the outlet volumes. As discussed for the efficiency ratio calculations, the water stored in the device between runoff events was considered too small to have a significant effect on the SOL.

The equation calculating the device percentage of load reduction is:

$$\text{Summation of loads} = \left[1 - \left(\frac{\text{sum of outlet loads}}{\text{sum of inlet load}} \right) \right] \quad (7)$$

The SOL for the settling device does not account for the load that bypassed the device without being treated. By including the load that bypassed in the efficiency calculation, a more realistic assessment of the device's benefits to the receiving waters is possible. Calculating the SOL for the whole system will usually lower the percentage of load reduction values (Waschbusch, 1999).

The equation calculating the control system percentage of load reduction using the sum of the loads is:

$$\text{Summation of loads for the system} = 100 * \left[\frac{(\text{sum of the device inlet load} - \text{sum of the device outlet load})}{(\text{sum of the device inlet load} + \text{sum of the bypass load})} \right],$$

where

sum of inlet load is the sum of (runoff volume at point

B*concentration at point B);

sum of outlet load is the sum of (runoff volume at point

C*concentration at point C); and

(8)

$$\text{sum of bypass load} = \text{the sum of} \left[(\text{volume at point D} - \text{runoff volume at point B}) \right] * \text{concentration at point E}$$

where

point B is the device inlet;

point C is the device outlet; and

point E is the bypassing over the weir.

As for the efficiency ratios, the SOLs were only calculated for constituents with significantly different inlet and outlet runoff event mean concentrations. The SOLs for the settling device and the bypass system were calculated for “adjusted” TSS, SS, DP, and TZn (table 9, appendix 10 and 11). Similar to the results for the efficiency ratio, the percentage of load reduction for SS is larger than the “adjusted” TSS. As discussed before, the smaller “adjusted” TSS load is probably due to the loss of some of the larger particles during the TSS analysis. As expected, the percentages of load reductions for the bypass system were slightly less than the reduction for the settling device. The similarity between the reductions for the settling device and bypass system indicates that the amount of bypass flow was insufficient to reduce the benefit of the device. The bypass loads for both “adjusted” TSS and SS were less than 15 percent of the total inlet load, and the bypass load for DP was only 4 percent of the inlet load.

The percentage of bypass system load reduction for “adjusted” TSS of 9 percent is lower than the reduction observed in evaluations of other hydrodynamic-settling devices. Monitoring of settling devices in a Madison urban stormwater study (Waschbusch, 1999) and in a Milwaukee highway runoff study (Horwath and others, 2010) indicated TSS load reductions of 21 and 25 percent, respectively. The TZn load reduction for these two other studies was about 17 percent compared to an increase in load observed for the study described in this report. The only obvious difference in the runoff characteristics between the sites in this study and the other two studies was that the TZn runoff event mean concentrations were much higher at the device inlet for the other two studies. The bypass system load reductions for DP measured at the two Madison sites were very similar at 17 percent.

If the two runoff events on August 23 and 24, 2006, had not been sampled, the percentages of load reduction for SS and “adjusted” TSS would have been significantly less. The SS load at the inlet without these two event is 469 lb and at the outlet is 396 lb and the for “adjusted” TSS load inlet is 368 lb and outlet is 383 lb. Removing these two events from the SOL

Table 9. Summary of constituent loads and percentage efficiency for hydrodynamic-settling device in Madison, Wisconsin, November 2005–August 2006.

[SOL, summation of loads; lb, pounds; %, percent]

Constituent	Inlet SOL (lb)	Outlet SOL (lb)	Bypass SOL (lb)	Device SOL (%)	System SOL (%)
Suspended sediment	1,590	979	228	38	39
Suspended solids, total “adjusted”	1,090	993	134	9	12
Phosphorus, dissolved	1.15	0.930	0.049	19	22
Zinc, total recoverable	0.211	0.239	0.0193	–13	–4

calculations lessens the settling-device percentages of load reduction to 16 percent for SS and to –4 percent for “adjusted” TSS (appendix 10), which is a notable change in load reduction when comparing it to using all 23 runoff events in the SOL calculations. Similar reductions would be expected for DP, but it was not measured for the runoff event on August 24.

The August 23 and 24 runoff events have a large effect on SOL because they not only represented about 70 percent of the total inlet load but they also experienced relatively large reductions in SS and “adjusted” TSS. For SS the device reductions on August 23 and 24 were 38 and 54 percent, respectively, and the “adjusted” TSS reductions were 0 and 26 percent, respectively (appendix 10). Because these two runoff events had additional runoff from an adjacent city recycling facility, an unusually large amount of runoff and particulate matter was delivered to the settling device. Although these two events should be included in the efficiency calculations, the effect of these runoff events does indicate that the performance of the device might be somewhat less for similar sites not affected by additional sources of particulate matter, such as recycling facilities and soil erosion.

The effect of the August 23 and 24 runoff events might also explain the large differences between the efficiency ratios and percentage of load reductions for SS and “adjusted” TSS (tables 8 and 9). When the two events are removed from the SOL calculation, the resulting percentage of load reductions for SS and “adjusted” TSS are very similar to the efficiency ratios. The percentage reduction in load is 16 percent for SS, which is very close to the efficiency ratio of 19 percent. Differences in the two types of efficiency calculations are relatively small for DP because the August 24 runoff event was not included in either calculation. The effect of the two August runoff events demonstrates potential differences between the two methods of determining efficiencies of a settling device but also puts emphasis on evaluating the uniqueness of any runoff event when calculating the SOL.

Sum of Loads by Particle Size

Calculating the SOLs by particle size determines how the PSD might affect the efficiency of the hydrodynamic-settling device. The manufacturer’s claim for the performance of the

device is based on a given PSD (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2007). For runoff at 15 °C, the manufacturer claims the device will remove more than 80 percent of the settleable solids with a PSD similar to the Maine Department of Transportation road sand and a specific gravity of 2.65. Almost all the particles in Maine Department of Transportation road sand are in the sand-size fraction or greater than 63 µm in diameter (table 10). The median particle size for the Maine Department of Transportation is 700 µm in diameter. To achieve an 80-percent removal with the Maine Department of Transportation PSD, the device would have to be only efficient at removing particles greater than 250 µm in diameter.

The settling device inlet and outlet SOL by particle size was determined by multiplying the concentration of SS for each particle size times the inlet volume. Because the particle-size analysis captures all the particles at each size, the analysis is a representation of SS and not TSS. The percentage of SS load reduction was determined for each particle size for both the settling device and bypass system (table 11). Most of the reduction in SS occurred for particles greater than 250 µm in diameter. Because about 45 percent of the particles were greater than 250 µm in diameter, an estimate of the percentage of load reduction for SS could be made by multiplying the 90-percent reduction times 45 percent. The result of this calculation is 40 percent, and this is very similar to the SS load reduction determined for the settling device (table 8). These results support the manufacturer’s claim of achieving a high percentage reduction for the larger particles.

Factors That Affect Variability in Efficiency

Suspended-sediment settling-device efficiencies for individual runoff events (fig. 12) varied from as low as –47 percent to as high as 70 percent. Two potential sources of variability between runoff events are the factors affecting the settling velocity of the particulate matter and any bias caused by the sampling techniques. Variability due to the settling velocity of the particles is more easily evaluated with the available data, but literature is available to support some speculation about the importance of sampling bias. Because sedimentation is the primary mechanism for the settling device to remove suspended particulate matter from the water column, the

Table 10. Particle-size distribution for Maine Department of Transportation road sand (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2007).

[>, greater than]

Particle size (micrometers)	>10,000	2,000	1,000	500	320	250	125	63
Percent less than	98	78	58	43	30	15	8	5

Table 11. Sum of loads and percentage of suspended-sediment load reduction by particle size for hydrodynamic-settling device and bypass system in Madison, Wisconsin, November 2005–August 2006.

[SOL, summation of loads; lb, pounds; %, percent; >, greater than]

Particle size (micrometers)	Device inlet SOL (lb)	Device outlet SOL (lb)	Bypass SOL (lb)	Inlet load percentage of total load	Device SOL (%)	Bypass system SOL (%)
>500	242	15	32	17	94	83
500–250	406	41	22	28	90	85
250–125	129	121	20	9	6	5
125–63	114	133	22	8	–17	–14
63–32	110	112	18	7	–2	–1
32–14	448	473	76	31	–6	–5

most commonly used equations for estimating the degree of sedimentation depend on knowing the settling velocity of the particles (Minton, 2005; Strecker and others, 2005; Field and others, 2006). Settling velocity is affected by particle size and shape, specific gravity of the particles, and water temperature. Peak-flow through rate and the degree of turbulence during a runoff event are two other factors frequently found in equations used to design sedimentation devices.

Using the ratio of VSS to “adjusted” TSS as an indicator of specific gravity of the particles, one source of variability is certainly the wide range in percentage of VSS. The range in percentage of VSS for the inlet runoff events was 17 to 67 percent with an average of 41 percent for 13 events (appendix 6). The average concentrations for VSS of 32 mg/L and TSS “adjusted” 98 mg/L for a ratio of 33 percent for 13 events (appendix 6). These particles probably have their origins in dead vegetative material, and many of them would be captured in the sand-sized fractions. The specific gravities for the particulate matter in most stormwater samples can range from 1.5 to 2.5 (Burton and Pitt, 2002). Variability in the specific gravities may be affected by the organic content of the particles (Kayhanian and others, 2008). Specific gravities of organic detritus found in stormwater samples have been reported to range from 1.1 to 1.8 g/cm³ (Christina and others, 2002; Kayhanian and others, 2008). Because the particles associated with the VSS concentration would be less likely to settle to

the bottom of the device, the removal efficiency of the device could be affected by the percentage of VSS in the runoff.

Results from this study show a high variability in removal efficiencies with peak flows that are less than the design flow (fig. 12). The efficiencies tended to be all positive at the lowest peak flows. Four runoff events with peak flows between about 1.8 and 2.7 ft³/s had negative efficiencies. Testing of two other hydrodynamic-settling devices in Wisconsin also showed a high variability in concentrations of SS and TSS removal efficiencies for peak flows that were less than the design flow (Waschbusch, 1999; Horwath and other, 2010). Three of the events (April 16 and August 23 and 24, 2006) in this study had bypass system peak flows that were greater than the design flow, but the flow splitter prevented the flow from exceeding the design flow at the device inlet. Contrary to results from the other four runoff events with high peak flows, these three events had positive efficiencies. Their efficiencies were enhanced by the high percentage of particles greater than 125 μ m in diameter (appendix 9). For the two other hydrodynamic-settling devices monitored in Wisconsin, the removal efficiencies tended to be low or negative when their peak flows exceeded the design flows. Changes in peak flows by themselves do not seem to be good indicators of changes in efficiencies except a when a negative efficiency might be

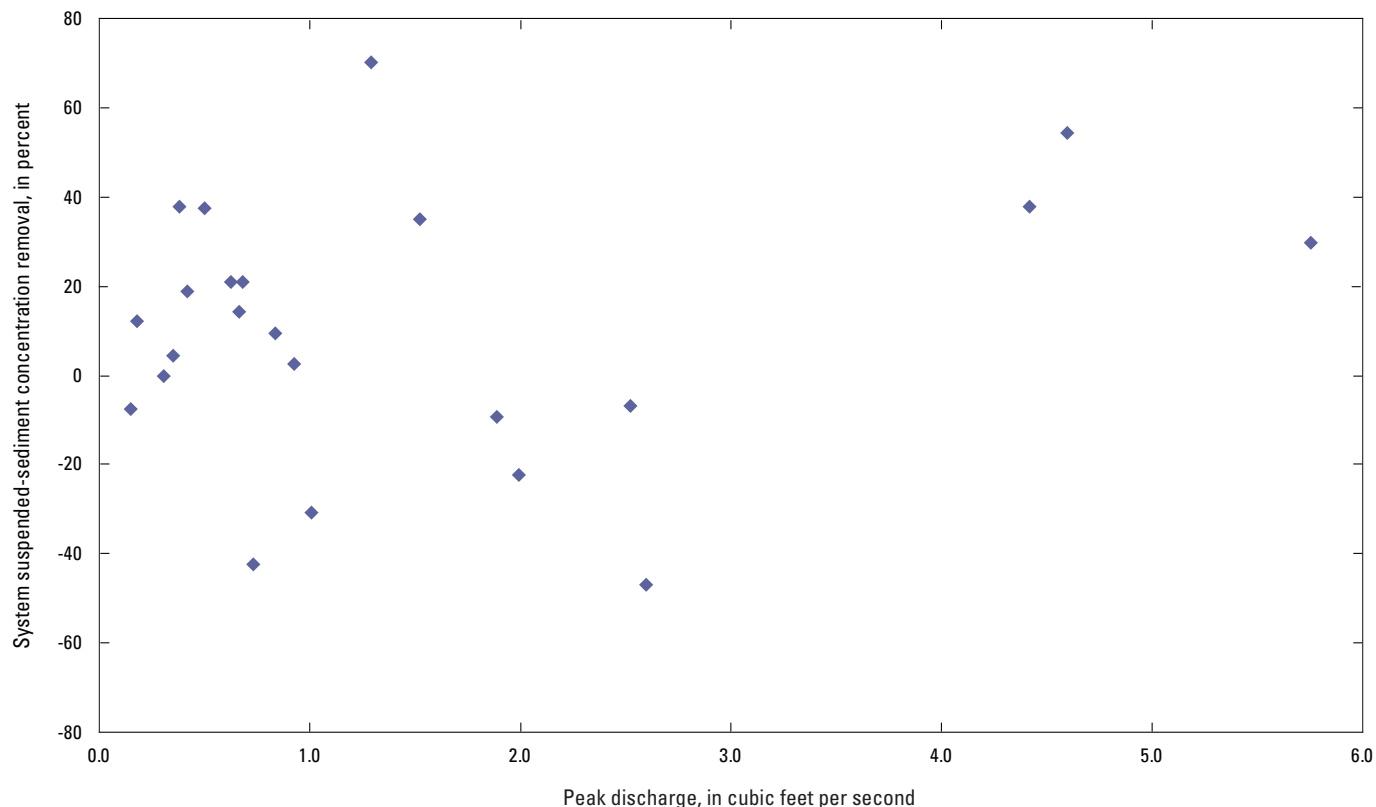


Figure 12. Removal efficiency of suspended solids and total solids as a function of peak flow for hydrodynamic-settling device system, November 2005–August 2006.

expected as peak flows approach or exceed the design flow at the inlet.

Although the variations in the removal efficiency of a wet pond (House and others, 1993) was shown to be related to all particle sizes (Greb and Bannerman, 1997), the results from the study described herein indicate that the only relationship between influent particle size and removal efficiency might be for particle sizes greater than 125 μm in diameter. The SS efficiencies tend to be greater if the percentage of 125 μm in diameter particles is more than about 45 percent (fig. 13). Above 45 percent, there is a trend of increasing SS efficiency with increasing percentage of 125 μm in diameter particles. Influent particle size does not seem to significantly affect the variability in the SS efficiency for particles less than 125 μm in diameter. Particle size appears to have a somewhat stronger effect on SS efficiencies than peak flow, but neither one by themselves have a strong enough effect to explain all the variability in the SS efficiencies.

The other source of variability to consider is potential bias due to the way the samples were collected. A number of authors have reported potential problems with trying to collect a representative sample with an automatic sampler, especially if there are large amounts of sand-sized particles in the water column (Clark and others, 2008; DeGroot and others, 2009; Fowler and others, 2009). When the sampler is not able to intake the proper proportion of large particles,

the concentration of SS can be underestimated (Clarke and others, 2008). Conversely, the concentration of SS might be overestimated if the larger particles are stratified in the pipe, and the sampling tube intake is located near the bottom of the pipe (DeGroot and others, 2009; Selbig and Bannerman, 2010), as in this study. One possible indicator of stratification is a relatively large percentage of larger particles in a sample. Several events had greater than 50 percent of the particles in the sand size fraction for the inlet samples (appendix 9). These events are also characterized by relatively large flows and SS concentrations. If the inlet SS concentrations for these events were positively biased due to stratification, the load reductions would be overestimated for the events. Since these events also represent a large percentage of the total inlet SS load for the study period, the SOL for the SS could also be an overestimate. The SOL for other particulate constituents, such as TSS and TP, would be less affected, because the laboratory procedures for retrieving an aliquot from the sample bottle tends to reduce the percentage of large particles in the sub-sample to be analyzed (Selbig and Bannerman, 2011).

Accuracy of Efficiency Calculations

One way of checking the accuracy of the measured SS loads at the inlet and outlet of a settling device is to weigh

the sediment that is retained in the sediment-storage sump. The weight of the sediment retained in the device should be reasonably close to the calculated reduction in SS loads. To remove as much as possible from the sediment trapped in the storage sump, the sediment was removed from the sump on three different dates. On September 15, 2006, the City of

Madison filled a vacuum truck to capacity with water and sediment from the settling device. The material was transported to the USGS Water Science Center in Madison where the particulates in the slurry were allowed to settle while still in the truck. The truck drained the water from the slurry into a city storm sewer. The remaining slurry was dumped into a

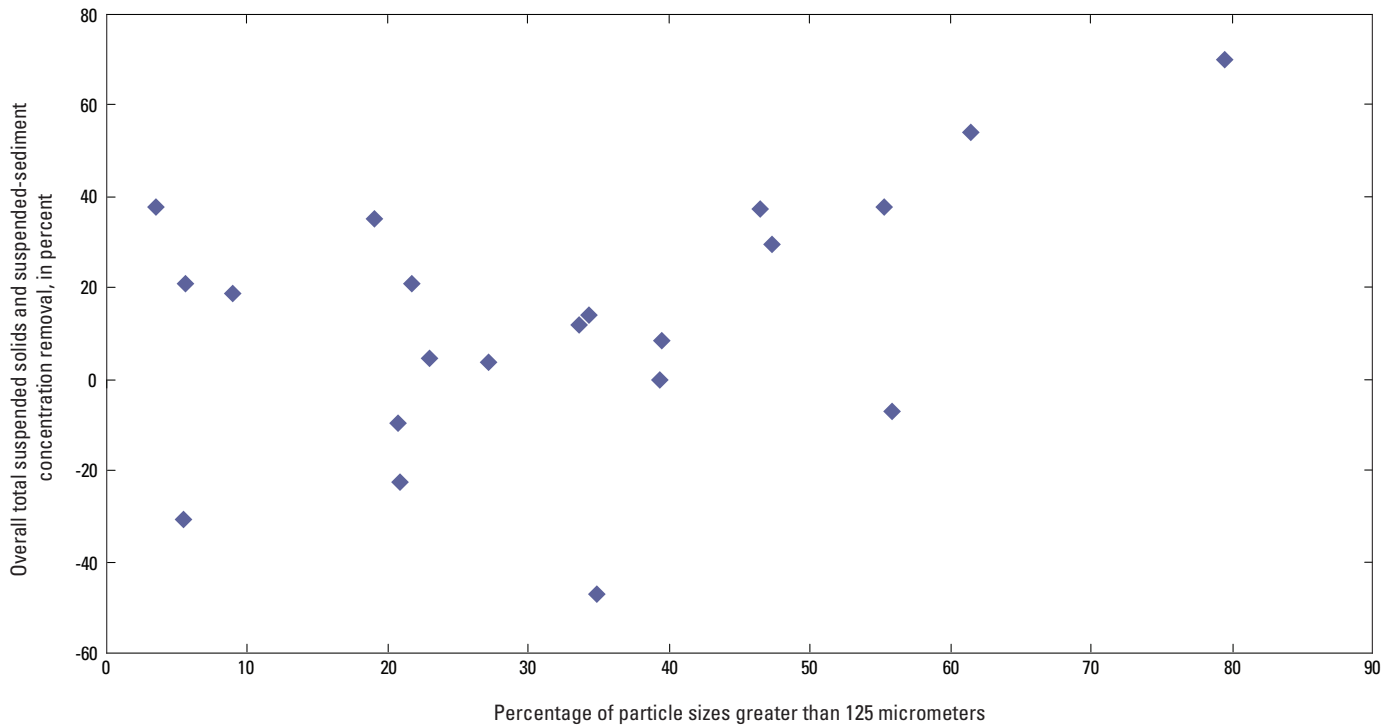


Figure 13. Variability in suspended-solids removal efficiency relative to percentage of particle sizes greater than 125 micrometers for hydrodynamic-settling device, November 2005–August 2006.



Figure 14. Slurry tank for drying material vacuumed from bottom of hydrodynamic-settling device.

reduced for the particle-size ranges of 63 to 125, 125 to 250, and greater than 250 μm in diameter for both the inlet and the outlet. Based on work done at the St. Anthony Falls Laboratory, a different percentage reduction was selected for each particle-size range. The percentage reductions selected for the ranges of 63 to 125, 125 to 250, and greater than 250 μm in diameter were 3, 15, and 30 percent, respectively. The 15- and 30-percent reductions were determined by multiplying the 3-percent value by 5 and 10, respectively. These two multiples approximate the relative errors observed at the St. Anthony Falls Laboratory for fine and coarser sand.

Although the testing by DeGroot and others (2009) supports using much larger reductions than 3, 15, and 30 percent, these values were based on the Degroot's relative reductions for each particle-size range and produced a value close to the measured weight of sediment in the sump. The much smaller reductions are justifiable when the differences between the laboratory and field testing are considered. Because the particles in both the inlet and the outlet water only traveled a short distance before the sampler intake tube, they had much less time to settle to the bottom than the particles injected into the pipe at the St. Anthony Falls Laboratory. After being well mixed in the flow splitter, the inlet water only had 2 ft to travel before the intake tube. At the St. Anthony Falls Laboratory, the particles traveled about 35 ft before reaching the intake tube. In addition, the settling rate for many of particles in the runoff water was probably less than the silica sand used for testing by DeGroot and others (2009). With inlet VSS concentrations that averaged 32 percent of the average "adjusted" TSS concentrations many of the particles would have a relatively low specific gravity and be much less likely to settle to the bottom of the pipe.

The difference between the "adjusted" SS loads for the inlet and outlet of the hydrodynamic-settling device is 505 lb (table 13). This value is very close to the weight of 473 lb measured for the sediment removed from the sump. Although there is a large degree of uncertainty in applying the laboratory findings from the St. Anthony Falls Laboratory to data collected from the environment, the process of matching the

measured weight of sediment in the sump gives some validity to the magnitude of the adjustments. Because the relatively small adjustments were only needed for the sand-sized particles, the stratification of the sand-sized particles in the inlet and outlet pipes was probably responsible for overestimating the weight of sediment in the sump. However, the uncertainty in using results from the St. Anthony Falls Laboratory to adjust the SS loads still makes it inappropriate to use the "adjusted" SS loads to calculate new SOL values for SS (table 9).

The appropriate use of the "adjusted" SS loads is to determine if the error caused by the stratification increases or decreases the SOL value. The SOL for SS using the adjusted sampled SS loads is 30 percent. Because this is less than the 38 percent calculated for the sampled events (table 9), the stratification of the sand particles increases the SOL values. This positive bias is probably true for all of the particulate constituents. The SOLs (table 9) are probably overestimated except the ones for DP. Future studies need to address the stratification issue by modifying the sampling methods or by developing site-specific adjustment equations, such as developed by Smith (2002), and Smith and Granato (2010).

Particle-Size Distribution of Sediment Retained in Sump

Five subsamples were randomly collected from the sump sediment, and each subsample was sieved to determine the PSD. Volatile solids were also determined for each of the five subsamples. Average PSD and VSS values were determined for the sediment in the sump by averaging the results of the five subsamples. At 8 percent in the sump, the average VSS was much smaller than the average of 32 percent observed for the inlet water samples. With a lower specific gravity, volatile solids such as bits of vegetation are less likely to be trapped by the settling device. The majority of the particles trapped in the device were in the sand or larger sized particles (table 14). More than 80 percent of the particles in the sump were 250 μm

Table 13. Monitored and estimated loads after concentrations of suspended sediment were adjusted for three largest particle sizes at inlet and outlet of hydrodynamic-settling device in Madison, Wisconsin, November 2005 and September 2006.

[All values in pounds; SS, suspended sediment]

Site	Adjusted monitored SS load ¹	Adjusted estimated SS load ¹	Total adjusted SS load
Inlet	1,220	1,115	2,335
Outlet	855	975	1,830

¹ Percentages of 3, 15, and 30 were used on each monitored runoff event to reduce SS concentration for particle sizes 63 to 125, 125 to 250, and greater than 250 micrometers in diameter, respectively.

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Appendix 2. Concentrations of selected water-quality constituents in field-equipment blank samples collect at inlet, outlet, and bypass of hydrodynamic-settling device in Madison, Wisconsin, October 2005 and May 2006.

[LOD, limit of detection; LOQ, limit of quantification; mg/L, milligrams per liter; <, less than; —, no sample processed; µg/L, micrograms per liter]

Constituent	Unit	Blank1			Blank2			Blank2.1		
		10/4/2005			5/8/2006			Outlet	LOD	LOQ
		Inlet	Outlet	Bypass	Inlet	Outlet	Bypass			
Suspended-sediment concentration	mg/L	<2	<2	<2	<2	<2	<2		2	7
Suspended solids, total	mg/L	<2	<2	<2	<2	<2	<2		2	7
Volatile solids, total	mg/L	<2	<2	<2	<2	<2	<2		2	7
Dissolved solids	mg/L	<50	<50	<50	<50	<50	<50		50	167
Phosphorus, total	mg/L	<0.005	<0.005	<0.005	<0.005	<0.005	<0.005		0.005	0.016
Phosphorus, dissolved	mg/L	<0.005	<0.005	<0.005	<0.005	<0.005	<0.005		0.005	0.016
Copper, total recoverable	µg/L	—	—	—	27	8	18		1	3
Copper, dissolved	µg/L	—	—	—	<1	2.3	1.2	<1	1	3
Zinc, total recoverable	µg/L	<16	<16	<16	21	3	11		16	50
Zinc, dissolved	µg/L	<16	<16	<16	2	3	2	3	16	50
Calcium, total recoverable	mg/L	<0.2	<0.2	<0.2	<0.2	<0.2	<0.2		0.02	0.07
Magnesium, total recoverable	mg/L	<0.2	<0.2	<0.2	<0.2	<0.2	<0.2		0.03	0.07

Appendix 5. Stormwater peak discharge, runoff volumes, and percentage runoff at hydrodynamic-settling device in Madison, Wisconsin, November 2005–September 2006.—Continued

[mm, month; dd, day, yyyy, year; hh, hour; mm, minute; in., inch; ft³, cubic foot; ft³/s, cubic foot per second. Shading indicates data that have been excluded from efficiency calculations]

Sampling event number	Start date and time (mm/dd/yyyy hh:mm)	End date and time (mm/dd/yyyy hh:mm)	Total precipitation (in.)	Peak discharge at unit inlet (ft ³ /s)	Inlet volume (ft ³)	Peak discharge at system outlet (ft ³ /s)	Bypassing volume over weir wall (ft ³)	Percentage runoff for system
26	08/24/2006 13:25	08/24/2006 17:49	1.4	2.9	17,200	4.6	3,720	216
	08/25/2006 05:43	08/25/2006 17:00	0.95	2.8	14,300	4.5	345	222
	09/03/2006 18:32	09/03/2006 21:49	0.28	0.32	1,370	0.23		70.6
	09/04/2006 05:49	09/04/2006 08:00	0.35	0.59	1,990	0.54		82
	9/10/2006 15:08	9/10/2006 23:45	0.35	0.31	2,310	0.63		95.2
	9/11/2006 11:30	9/11/2006 12:46	0.06	0.22	372	0.45		89.4
	9/11/2006 15:13	9/11/2006 21:19	0.48	1	4,280	0.87		129
	9/12/2006 2:29	9/12/2006 12:44	0.73	1.6	14,500	0.55		286
	9/12/2006 14:35	9/12/2006 20:25	0.6	2.1	14,000	1.9		337
	Count	47		45	45		5	45
	Minimum	0.05		0.1	138	0.04	40	32
	Maximum	2.2		2.9	17,200	5.8	3720	340
	Average	0.59		0.94	3,850	0	0	70

Publishing support provided by the U.S. Geological Survey Science
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