



LOW-IMPACT
DEVELOPMENT
CENTER

Low Impact Development (LID)

A Literature Review

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

A literature review was conducted to determine the availability and reliability of data to assess the effectiveness of low impact development (LID) practices for controlling stormwater runoff volume and reducing pollutant loadings to receiving waters.

Background information concerning the uses, ownership and associated costs for LID measures was also compiled. In general LID measures are more cost effective and lower in maintenance than conventional, structural stormwater controls. Not all sites are suitable for LID. Considerations such as soil permeability, depth of water table and slope must be considered, in addition to other factors. Further, the use of LID may not completely replace the need for conventional stormwater controls.

Maintenance issues can be more complicated than for conventional stormwater controls because the LID measures reside on private property. In most instances, homeowners agree to only the first year of maintenance. Homeowner associations could be a mechanism for providing long-term maintenance to these areas. Generally, bioretention facilities require replacement of dead or diseased vegetation, mulching as needed, and replacement of soils after 5–10 years. Grass swales require periodic mowing and removal of sediments. Maintenance of permeable pavements requires annual high-powered vacuuming of the area to remove sediments.

Several studies have been conducted to analyze the effectiveness of various LID practices based on hydrology and pollutant removal capabilities. Bioretention areas, grass swales, permeable pavements and vegetated roof tops were the most common practices studied. These techniques reduce the amount of Effective Impervious Area (EIA) in a watershed. EIA is the directly connected impervious area to the storm drain system and contributes to increased watershed volumes and runoff rates. There are documented case studies that conclusively link urbanization and increased watershed imperviousness to hydrologic impacts on streams. Existing reports and case studies provide strong evidence that urbanization negatively affects streams and results in water quality problems such as loss of habitat, increased temperatures, sedimentation and loss of fish populations (USEPA, 1997)

In general bioretention areas were found to be effective in reducing runoff volume and in treating the first flush (first ½ inch) of stormwater. Results from three different studies indicate that removal efficiencies were quite good for both metals and nutrients. Removal rates for metals were more consistent than for nutrients. Removal rates for metals ranged from 70–97% for lead, 43–97% for copper and 64–98% for zinc. Nutrient removal was more variable and ranged from 0–87% for phosphorus, 37–80% for Total Kjeldahl Nitrogen, <0–92% for ammonium and for nitrate <0–26%. Effluent volumes were lower than influent volumes. These studies were conducted by means of simulated rainfall events. Analysis of actual long-term rainfall events would produce more reliable data.

The effectiveness of grass swales was also quite good for both pollutant removal and runoff volume reduction. A study of three different sites in the United States reveal similar results despite the differences in location. In general, performance of swales is

dependant on not only channel length, but also longitudinal slope and the use of check dams to slow flows and allow for greater infiltration. Further, the removal of metals was found to be directly related to the removal rate of total suspended solids, and the removal rate of metals was greater than removal of nutrients.

Reduction of impervious surfaces can greatly reduce the volume of runoff generated by rainfall. Several methods can be employed to reduce total impervious surface area. Permeable pavements and vegetated rooftops are two methods to accomplish this goal. Vegetated rooftops have been used extensively in Germany for more than 25 years and results show up to 50% reduction in annual runoff in temperate climates. Many opportunities exist to retrofit these systems into older highly urbanized areas of the United States. The Philadelphia project case study provides an example of this practice.

Permeable pavements can also reduce impervious surfaces. However, they are more expensive to construct than traditional asphalt pavements. Costs of these systems may be off set by the reduction of traditional curb and gutter systems to convey stormwater. Benefits of these alternate pavement types include better infiltration, ground water recharge, reduction in runoff volume and treatment of stormwater for pollutants. The study conducted in Tampa, Florida outlines these benefits as well as the opportunity to retrofit permeable pavements into existing parking lots with little or no loss of parking space. Less than 20% of rainfall was converted to runoff when using permeable pavements. Study results from the University of Washington, compare several different treatments of varying permeability. The study shows that the higher the amount of perviousness of the treatment, the greater the reduction of runoff volume and pollutant loadings.

The use of LID is relatively new and not widespread. Most of the available data are from Prince George's County, Maryland, which pioneered the use of LID. The data available for bioretention analysis were from single simulated storm events in actual bioretention facilities or from laboratory constructed and tested bioretention systems. The data for grass swales were for only a few storm events, collected over a short period of time. The only available data for a long-term study came from the Aquarium parking lot in Tampa, Florida and the Washington permeable pavement project. More long-term analysis is required to more accurately assess the effectiveness of LID and to determine long term trends.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Executive Summary	i
Table of Contents	iii
List of Figures	iv
List of Tables.....	v
1 Low Impact Development.....	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 Benefits and Limitations	2
2 Low Impact Development Practices	4
2.1 Bioretention.....	4
2.2 Grass Swales	7
2.3 Vegetated Roof Covers	7
2.4 Permeable Pavements.....	8
2.5 Other LID Strategies	8
3 Evaluation of LID Effectiveness.....	9
3.1 Hydrological Measures	9
3.2 Pollutant Removal Measures.....	10
4 Case Studies	11
4.1 Bioretention Facility, Laboratory and Field Study, Beltway Plaza Mall Parking Lot, Greenbelt, MD.....	12
4.2 Bioretention Facility, Field Study, Peppercorn Plaza Parking Lot at Inglewood Center, Landover, MD	15
4.3 Permeable Pavements and Swales, Field Study, Stormwater Management, Florida Aquarium Parking Lot, Tampa, FL	18
4.4 Vegetated Roof Covers, Field Study, Green Rooftop, Philadelphia, PA.....	23
4.5 Permeable Pavements, Field Study, Permeable Pavements for Stormwater Management, Olympia, WA	25
4.6 Grass Swales, Field Study, Highway Grass Channels, Northern Virginia, Maryland, and Florida	29
5 Conclusion.....	31
6 Recommendations	33
7 References	34

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Changes in Stormwater Hydrology as a Result of Urbanization.....	2
Figure 2: Typical Bioretention System (Prince George's County Department of Environmental Resources, 1993)	4
Figure 3: Pollutant Removal Rates for All Systems	14
Figure 4: Bioretention System at Peppercorn Place, Inglewood Plaza (Davis, 1999).....	16
Figure 5: Florida Parking Lot Study Site (Rushton, 1999).....	19
Figure 6: Percent of Rainfall Volume Converted to Runoff Volume for Events Less Than 2cm	20
Figure 7: Structure of the Philadelphia Vegetated Roof Cover (Miller, 1998).....	23
Figure 8: A Rainfall Event of 0.4 inches with Media Completely Saturated (Miller, 1998).....	24
Figure 9: Surface Runoff from 60% Impervious Pavement vs. Asphalt (Booth, 1996) ...	26
Figure 10: Subsurface Runoff From Pavement Less Than 5% Impervious Compared to Precipitation (Booth, 1996).....	27
Figure 11: Surface Runoff From Asphalt Compared to Precipitation (Booth, 1996).....	27
Figure 12: Pollutant Removal Rates for Laboratory and Field Experiments of Bioretention Systems	32

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Example Maintenance Schedule for Bioretention Areas (Prince George’s County, Department of Environmental Resources, 1993)..... 6

Table 2: Low Impact Hydrologic Design and Analysis Components (Coffman, 2000)..... 9

Table 3: Summary of Results for Smaller System—Standard Conditions 13

Table 4: Summary of Results for Large System—Standard Conditions 13

Table 5: Summary of Results for Field Bioretention Study..... 14

Table 6: Summary of Pollutant Removal Results of Bioretention System at Inglewood Place..... 17

Table 7: Summary of Pollutant Removal Efficiency for the Various Treatment Types... 21

Table 8: Long Term Pollutant Removal Estimates for Grassed Swales 30

Table 9: Pollutant Removal Efficiencies for Laboratory and Field Bioretention Studies 31

1 LOW IMPACT DEVELOPMENT

1.1 Introduction

Low impact development (LID) is a relatively new concept in stormwater management. LID techniques were pioneered by Prince George's County, Maryland, in the early 1990's, and several projects have been implemented within the state. Some LID principles are now being applied in other parts of the country, however, the use of LID is infrequent and opportunities are often not investigated. The purpose of this report is to conduct a literature review to determine existing information about the application of LID in new development and existing urbanized areas, including ownership, operation and maintenance issues. A related objective was to locate relevant studies of LID projects, which would provide evidence of the effectiveness of LID in retaining predevelopment hydrology and as a mechanism for pollutant removal for stormwater. The data from the studies were analyzed for usefulness and validity and the findings are summarized.

LID is a site design strategy with a goal of maintaining or replicating the pre-development hydrologic regime through the use of design techniques to create a functionally equivalent hydrologic landscape. Hydrologic functions of storage, infiltration, and ground water recharge, as well as the volume and frequency of discharges are maintained through the use of integrated and distributed micro-scale stormwater retention and detention areas, reduction of impervious surfaces, and the lengthening of flow paths and runoff time (Coffman, 2000). Other strategies include the preservation/protection of environmentally sensitive site features such as riparian buffers, wetlands, steep slopes, valuable (mature) trees, flood plains, woodlands and highly permeable soils.

LID principles are based on controlling stormwater at the source by the use of micro-scale controls that are distributed throughout the site. This is unlike conventional approaches that typically convey and manage runoff in large facilities located at the base of drainage areas. These multifunctional site designs incorporate alternative stormwater management practices such as functional landscape that act as stormwater facilities, flatter grades, depression storage and open drainage swales. This system of controls can reduce or eliminate the need for a centralized best management practice (BMP) facility for the control of stormwater runoff. Although traditional stormwater control measures have been documented to effectively remove pollutants, the natural hydrology is still negatively affected (inadequate base flow, thermal fluxes or flashy hydrology), which can have detrimental effects on ecosystems, even when water quality is not compromised (Coffman, 2000). LID practices offer an additional benefit in that they can be integrated into the infrastructure and are more cost effective and aesthetically pleasing than traditional, structural stormwater conveyance systems.

Conventional stormwater conveyance systems are designed to collect, convey and discharge runoff as efficiently as possible. The intent is to create a highly efficient drainage system, which will prevent on lot flooding, promote good drainage and quickly convey runoff to a BMP or stream. This runoff control system decreases groundwater

recharge, increases runoff volume and changes the timing, frequency and rate of discharge. These changes can cause flooding, water quality degradation, stream erosion and the need to construct end of pipe BMPs. Discharge rates using traditional BMPs may be set only to match the predevelopment peak rate for a specific design year. This approach only controls the rate of runoff allowing significant increases in runoff volume, frequency and duration of runoff from the predevelopment conditions and provides the mechanisms for further degradation of receiving waters (Figure 1).

LID has often been compared to other innovative practices, such as Conservation Design, which uses similar approaches in reducing the impacts of development, such as reduction of impervious surfaces and conservation of natural features. Although the goals of Conservation Design protect natural flow paths and existing vegetative features, stormwater is not treated directly at the source. Conservation Design protects large areas adjacent to the development site and stormwater is directed to these common areas.

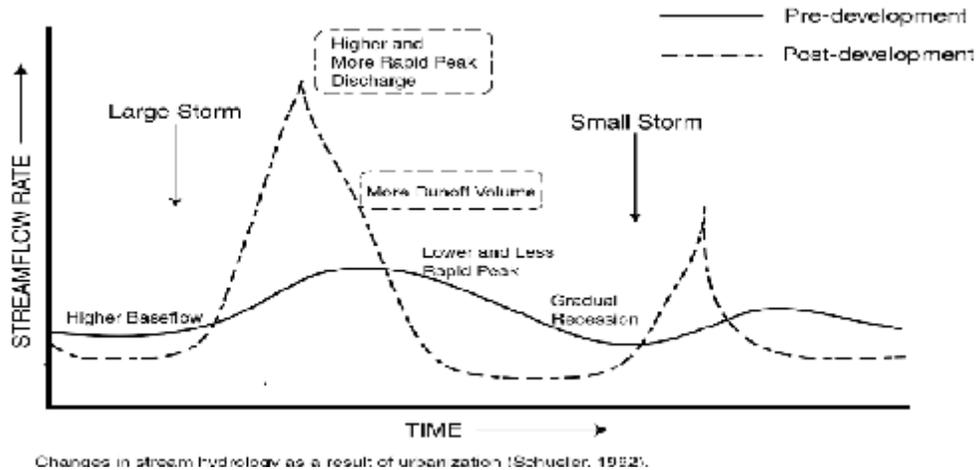


Figure 1: Changes in Stormwater Hydrology as a Result of Urbanization

Although this approach protects trees and does reduce runoff, there is still potentially a significant amount of connected impervious area and centralized stormwater facilities that may contribute to stream degradation through stormwater volume, frequency and thermal impacts. Therefore, the hydrologic and hydraulic impacts of this approach on receiving waters may still be significant, although the volume and flows will be less than without the conservation design. The stormwater control measures used in Conservation Design are off-site and therefore not the individual property owner's responsibility. However, maintenance is generally provided by the homeowners association and financed through association fees.

1.2 Benefits and Limitations

The use of LID practices offers both economical and environmental benefits. LID measures result in less disturbance of the development area, conservation of natural features and can be less cost intensive than traditional stormwater control mechanisms. Cost savings for control mechanisms are not only for construction, but also for long-term

maintenance and life cycle cost considerations. For example, an alternative LID stormwater control design for a new 270 unit apartment complex in Aberdeen, NC will save the developer approximately 72% or \$175,000 of the stormwater construction costs. On this project, almost all of the subsurface collection systems associated with curb and gutter projects have been eliminated. Strategically located bioretention areas, compact weir outfalls, depressions, grass channels, wetland swales and specially designed storm water basins are some of the LID techniques used. These design features allow for longer flow paths, reduce the amount of polluted runoff and filter pollutants from stormwater runoff (Blue Land, Water and Infrastructure, 2000).

Today many states are facing the issue of urban sprawl, a form of development that consumes green space, promotes auto dependency and widens urban fringes, which puts pressure on environmentally sensitive areas. "Smart growth" strategies are designed to reconfigure development in a more eco-efficient and community oriented style. LID addresses many of the environmental practices that are essential to smart growth strategies including the conservation of open green space. LID does not address the subject of availability of public transportation.

LID provides many opportunities to retrofit existing highly urbanized areas with pollution controls, as well as address environmental issues in newly developed areas. LID techniques such as rooftop retention, permeable pavements, bioretention and disconnecting rooftop rain gutter spouts are valuable tools that can be used in urban areas. For example, stormwater flows can easily be directed into rain barrels, cisterns or across vegetated areas in high-density urban areas. Further, opportunities exist to implement bioretention systems in parking lots with little or no reduction in parking space. The use of vegetated rooftops and permeable pavements are 2 ways to reduce impervious surfaces in highly urbanized areas.

LID techniques can be applied to a range of lot sizes. The use of LID, however, may necessitate the use of structural BMPs in conjunction with LID techniques in order to achieve watershed objectives. The appropriateness of LID practices is dependent on site conditions, and is not based strictly on spatial limitations. Evaluation of soil permeability, slope and water table depth must be considered in order to effectively use LID practices. Another obstacle is that many communities have development rules that may restrict innovative practices that would reduce impervious cover. These "rules" refer to a mix of subdivision codes, zoning regulations, parking and street standards and other local ordinances that determine how development happens (Center for Watershed Protection, 1998). These rules are responsible for wide streets, expansive parking lots and large-lot subdivisions that reduce open space and natural features. These obstacles are often difficult to overcome.

Additionally, community perception of LID may prevent its implementation. Many homeowners want large-lots and wide streets and view reduction of these features as undesirable and even unsafe. Furthermore, many people believe that without conventional controls, such as curbs and gutters and end of pipe BMPs, they will be required to contend with basement flooding and subsurface structural damage.

2 LOW IMPACT DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES

LID measures provide a means to address both pollutant removal and the protection of predevelopment hydrological functions. Some basic LID principles include conservation of natural features, minimization of impervious surfaces, hydraulic disconnects, disbursement of runoff and phytoremediation. LID practices such as bioretention facilities or rain gardens, grass swales and channels, vegetated rooftops, rain barrels, cisterns, vegetated filter strips and permeable pavements perform both runoff volume reduction and pollutant filtering functions.

2.1 Bioretention

Bioretention systems are designed based on soil types, site conditions and land uses. A bioretention area can be composed of a mix of functional components, each performing different functions in the removal of pollutants and attenuation of stormwater runoff (Figure 2).

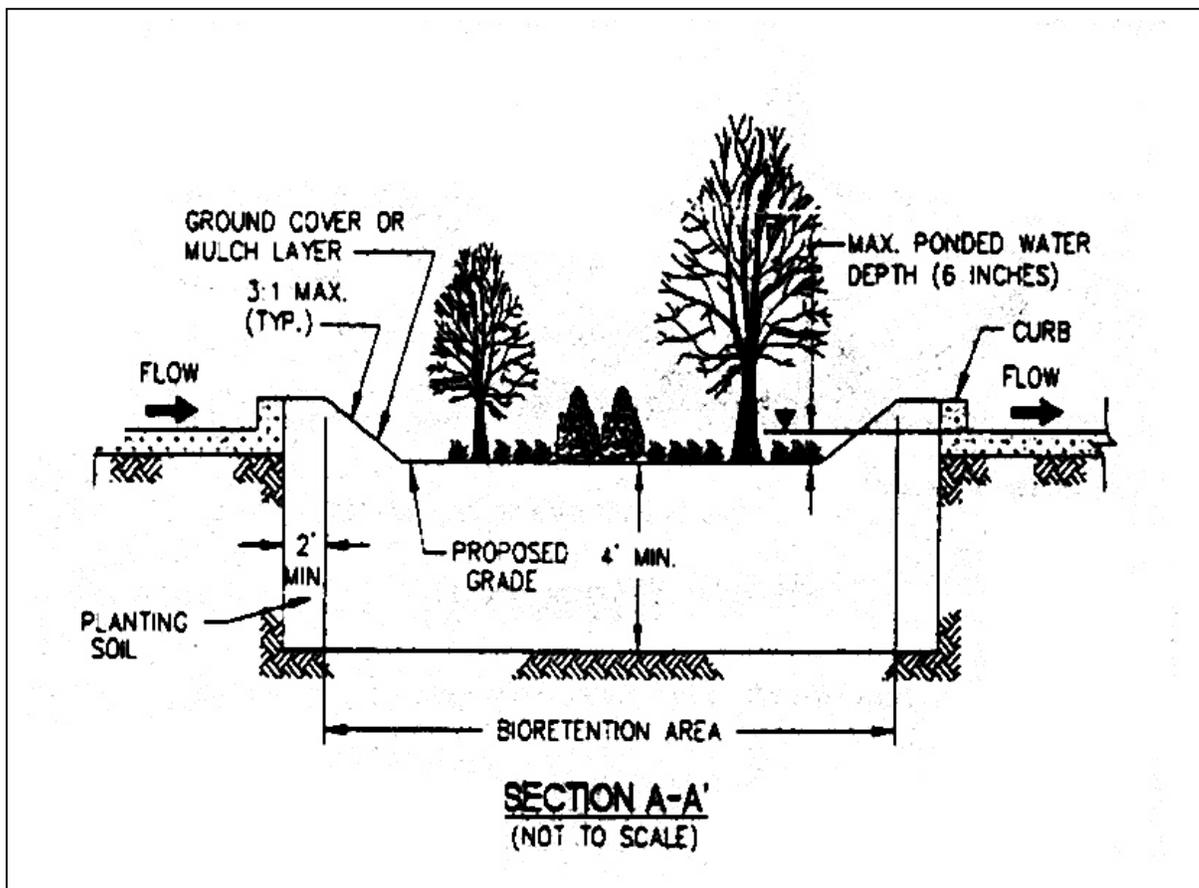


Figure 2: Typical Bioretention System (Prince George's County Department of Environmental Resources, 1993)

Six typical components found in bioretention cells:

- Grass buffer strips reduce runoff velocity and filter particulate matter.
- Sand bed provides aeration and drainage of the planting soil and assists in the flushing of pollutants from soil materials.
- Ponding area provides storage of excess runoff and facilitates the settling of particulates and evaporation of excess water.
- Organic layer performs the function of decomposition of organic material by providing a medium for biological growth (such as microorganisms) to degrade petroleum-based pollutants. It also filters pollutants and prevents soil erosion.
- Planting soil provides the area for stormwater storage and nutrient uptake by plants. The planting soils contain some clays which adsorb pollutants such as hydrocarbons, heavy metals and nutrients.
- Vegetation (plants) functions in the removal of water through evapotranspiration and pollutant removal through nutrient cycling.

Bioretention facilities are less cost intensive than traditional structural stormwater conveyance systems. Construction of a typical bioretention area in Prince George's County, Maryland is between \$5,000 and \$10,000 per acre drained, depending on soil type (Weinstein, 2000). Other sources estimate the costs for developing bioretention sites at between \$3 and \$15 per square foot of bioretention area. Design guidelines recommend that bioretention systems occupy 5-7% of the drainage basin. Additional savings can be realized in reduced construction costs for storm drainpipe. For example, bioretention practices reduced the amount of storm drain pipe at a Medical Office building in Prince George's County, Maryland from 800 to 230 feet, which resulted in a cost savings of \$24,000 or 50% of the overall drainage cost for the site (Dept. of Env. Resources, 1993).

Components of the bioretention area should meet required guidelines in order to provide the most productive system possible. The mulch layer should be approximately 2-3 inches thick and replaced annually. Soil should be tested for several criteria before being used.

- pH range 5.5–6.5
- Organic matter 1.5–3.0%
- Magnesium (Mg) 35lbs/acre
- Phosphorus (P₂O₅) 100lbs/acre
- Potassium (K₂O) 85lbs/acre
- Soluble salts < 500 ppm

Plant material should be obtained from certified nurseries that have been inspected by state or federal agencies (Dept. of Env. Resources, 1993). Native species should be used and selected according to their moisture regime, morphology, susceptibility to pests and diseases and tolerance to pollutants. Selection of plant species should be based on site conditions and ecological factors. A minimum of three species of trees and three species of shrubs should be selected to insure diversity, differing rates of transpiration and ensure a more constant rate of evapotranspiration and nutrient and pollutant uptake throughout the growing season (Dept. of Env. Resources, 1993). Species that require regular maintenance should be avoided or restricted. Prince George's County recommends a warranty be established with the nursery as part of the plant installation, and should include care and 80% replacement of plants for the first year.

Table 1: Example Maintenance Schedule for Bioretention Areas (Prince George's County, Department of Environmental Resources, 1993)

Description	Method	Frequency	Time of Year
Soil			
Inspect and Repair Erosion	Visual	Monthly	Monthly
Organic Layer			
Remulch void areas	By Hand	As Needed	As Needed
Remove previous mulch layer before applying new layer (optional)	By Hand	Once a Year	Spring
Additional mulch added (optional)	By Hand	Once a Year	Spring
Plants			
Remove and replace all dead and diseased vegetation that cannot be treated	See Planting Specifications	Twice a Year	Mar 15–Apr 30 and Oct 1–Nov 30
Treat all diseased trees and shrubs	Mechanical or by Hand	N/A	Varies, depends on insect or disease infestation
Water of plant materials, at the end of the day for 14 consecutive days after planting	By Hand	Immediately after Completion of Projects	N/A
Replace stakes after one year	By Hand	Once a Year	Remove only in the Spring
Replace deficient stakes or wires	By Hand	N/A	As Needed

Annual maintenance is required for the overall success of bioretention systems. This includes maintenance of plant material, soil layer and the mulch layer. A maintenance schedule outlining methods, frequency and time of year for bioretention maintenance should be developed. Table 1 is a typical maintenance checklist. Plants will provide enhanced environmental benefit over time as root systems and leaf canopies increase in size and pollutant uptake and removal efficiencies. Soils, however, begin filtering pollutants immediately and can lose their ability to function in this capacity over time. Therefore, evaluation of soil fertility is important in maintaining an effective bioretention system. Substances in runoff such as nutrients and metals eventually disrupt normal soil

functions by lowering the cation exchange capacity (CEC) (Dept. of Env. Resources, 1993). CEC is the soil's ability to adsorb pollutant particles through ion attraction and will decrease over time. It is recommended that soils be tested annually and replaced when soil fertility is lost. Depending on environmental factors, this usually occurs within 5-10 years of construction. Replacement of soil can be accomplished in 1-2 days for approximately \$1,000-\$2,000 for a typical system which will drain one acre in the northeastern U.S. (Weinstein, 2000).

2.2 Grass Swales

Grass swales or channels are adaptable to a variety of site conditions, are flexible in design and layout, and are relatively inexpensive (USDOT, 1996). Generally open channel systems are most appropriate for smaller drainage areas with mildly sloping topography (Center for Watershed Protection, 1998). Their application is primarily along residential streets and highways. They function as a mechanism to reduce runoff velocity and as filtration/infiltration devices. Sedimentation is the primary pollutant removal mechanism, with additional secondary mechanisms of infiltration and adsorption. In general grass channels are most effective when the flow depth is minimized and detention time is maximized. The stability of the channel or overland flow is dependant on the erodibility of the soils in which the channel is constructed (USDOT, 1996). Decreasing the slope or providing dense cover will aid in both stability and pollutant removal effectiveness.

Engineered swales are less costly than installing curb and gutter/storm drain inlet and storm drain pipe systems. The cost for traditional structural conveyance systems ranges from \$40-\$50 per running foot. This is two to three times more expensive than an engineered grass swale (Center for Watershed Protection, 1998). Concerns that open channels are potential nuisance problems, present maintenance problems, or impact pavement stability can be alleviated by proper design. Periodic removal of sediments and mowing are the most significant maintenance requirements.

2.3 Vegetated Roof Covers

Vegetative roof covers or green roofs are an effective means of reducing urban stormwater runoff by reducing the percentage of impervious surfaces in urban areas. They are especially effective in older urban areas with chronic combined sewer overflow (CSO) problems, due to the high level of imperviousness. The green roof is a multilayered constructed material consisting of a vegetative layer, media, a geotextile layer and a synthetic drain layer. Vegetated roof covers in urban areas offer a variety of benefits, such as extending the life of roofs, reducing energy costs and conserving valuable land that would otherwise be required for stormwater runoff controls. Green roofs have been used extensively in Europe to accomplish these objectives. Many opportunities are available to apply this LID measure in older U.S. cities with stormwater infrastructures that have reached their capacities.

Green roofs are highly effective in reducing total runoff volume. Simple vegetated roof covers, with approximately 3 inches of substrate can reduce annual runoff by more than 50 percent in temperate climates (Miller, 2000). Research in Germany shows that the 3-inch design offers the highest benefit to cost ratio. Properly designed systems not only reduce runoff flows, but also can be added to existing rooftops without additional reinforcement or structural design requirements. The value of green roofs for reducing runoff is directly linked to the design rainfall event considered. Design should be developed for the storm events that most significantly contribute to CSOs, hydraulic overloads and runoff problems for a given area.

2.4 Permeable Pavements

The use of permeable pavements is an effective means of reducing the percent of imperviousness in a drainage basin. More than thirty different studies have documented that stream, lake and wetland quality is reduced sharply when impervious cover in an upstream watershed is greater than 10%. Porous pavements are best suited for low traffic areas, such as parking lots and sidewalks. The most successful installations of alternative pavements are found in coastal areas with sandy soils and flatter slopes (Center for Watershed Protection, 1998). Permeable pavements allow stormwater to infiltrate into underlying soils promoting pollutant treatment and recharge, as opposed to producing large volumes of rainfall runoff requiring conveyance and treatment. Costs for paving blocks and stones range from \$2 to \$4, whereas asphalt costs \$0.50 to \$1 (Center for Watershed Protection, 1998).

2.5 Other LID Strategies

Another strategy to minimize the impacts of development is the implementation of rain gutter disconnects. This practice involves redirecting rooftop runoff conveyed in rain gutters out of storm sewers, and into grass swales, bioretention systems and other functional landscape devices. Redirecting runoff from rooftops into functional landscape areas can significantly reduce runoff flow to surface waters and reduce the number of CSO events in urban areas. As long as the stormwater is transported well away from foundations, concerns of structural damage and basement flooding can be alleviated. As an alternative to redirection of stormwater to functional landscape, rain gutter flows can be directed into rain barrels or cisterns for later use in irrigating lawns and gardens. Disconnections of rain gutters can effectively be implemented on existing properties with little change to present site designs.

Many strategies exist to reduce the amount of impervious surface in development areas. Designing residential streets for the minimum required width needed to support traffic, on-street parking and emergency service vehicles, can reduce imperviousness. Other practices include shared driveways and parking lots, alternative pavements for overflow parking areas, center islands in cul-de-sacs, alternative street designs rather than traditional grid patterns and reduced setbacks and frontages for homes.

3 EVALUATION OF LID EFFECTIVENESS

3.1 Hydrological Measures

Enhancements in site drainage from traditional stormwater control measures, such as curbs and gutters that eliminate potential on-site flooding, often result in an increase in surface runoff. These alterations can cause an increase in volume, frequency and velocity of runoff flows, resulting in flooding, high erosion and a reduction in groundwater infiltration, as well as a reduction in water quality and habitat degradation. Four hydrological functions should be considered when investigating the effectiveness of LID practices. The runoff curve number (CN), time of concentration, retention and detention. LID techniques and the hydrological design and analysis components are represented in (Table 2).

Table 2: Low Impact Hydrologic Design and Analysis Components (Coffman, 2000)

LID Practice	Low Impact Hydrologic Design and Analysis Components			
	Lower Post-Development CN	Increase Tc	Retention	Detention
Flatten Slopes		X		
Increase Flow Path		X		
Increase Roughness		X		
Minimize Disturbances	X			
Flatten Slopes on Swale		X		X
Infiltration Swales	X		X	
Vegetative Filter Strips	X	X	X	
Disconnected Impervious Areas	X	X		
Reduce Curb and Gutter	X	X		
Rain Barrels		X	X	X
Rooftop Storage		X	X	X
Bioretention	X	X	X	
Revegetation	X	X	X	
Vegetation Presentation	X	X	X	

The runoff potential for a site is characterized by the runoff curve number or CN. One method of measuring hydrological function on a developed site is to compare the pre and post developed curve number. The CN method is used extensively in the analysis of environmental impact and design rainfall-runoff hydrology. The curve number measures a watershed or subwatershed's hydrological response and is determined based on soil type, land cover and amount of impervious surfaces (Hawkins 1998). A detailed evaluation of both proposed and existing land cover is the basis for determining the low-impact development CN, which is a calculation of the potential for runoff at a development site. One of the goals of LID is to design a system so that the post-developed CN is as close as possible to the predevelopment CN for the site. Limiting the percent of imperviousness is one technique to accomplishing this. The runoff coefficient, which can be derived from the CN, calculates the percent of rainfall converted to runoff.

The time of concentration (Tc) refers to the amount of time it takes for water to travel from the most distant point to the watershed outlet. By retaining predevelopment Tc, negative impacts associated with development can be reduced. Retention and detention of rainfall are the key components of increases in Tc. As the amount of impervious surface increases within a site, altering drainage paths, the contribution of total land area to excess rainfall increases, causing the time for stormwater to reach downstream outlets to decrease. This decrease in Tc reduces the pollutant removal capabilities of the site as well as resulting in an increase in the peak runoff rate. Maintaining Tc can be achieved by:

- Maintaining flow path lengths
- Increasing surface roughness
- Detaining flows
- Minimizing disturbances at the site
- Flattening grades in impact areas
- Disconnecting impervious surfaces
- Connecting pervious surfaces

3.2 Pollutant Removal Measures

Changes in site runoff characteristics can contribute to a reduction in water quality and degradation of aquatic and terrestrial habitats. LID practices provide a high level of water quality treatment controls due to runoff volume control of the "first flush" (first ½ inch) of runoff, which contains the highest pollutant loadings. Often LID practices control up to the first 2 inches of runoff and therefore treat a much greater volume of annual runoff (Coffman, 2000). By increasing the Tc and decreasing the flow velocity, LID practices result in a reduction in pollutant transport capacity and overall pollutant loading. Further, LID practices support pollution prevention by modifying human activities, which lower the introduction of pollutants into the environment.

LID practices such as bioretention facilities or rain gardens can be used as a mechanism for infiltration and pollutant removal, which is performed through physical and biological treatment processes occurring in the plant and soil complex. These processes include filtration, decomposition, ion exchange, adsorption and volatilization (Dept. of Env. Resources, 1993). Pollutant loadings are concentrated in the "first flush" of runoff from impervious surfaces and contain grease and oil, nutrients (nitrogen and phosphorous), sediments and heavy metals. Pollutant loadings and water quality impacts from development have been well documented in numerous studies. Concentrations of pollutants are appropriate to look at bio affects, but pollutant loads are better for assessing impacts to downstream habitats when cumulative effects are considered (Rushton, 1999). Studies should consider investigating both total metals and dissolved metals, when analyzing LID practice's effectiveness.