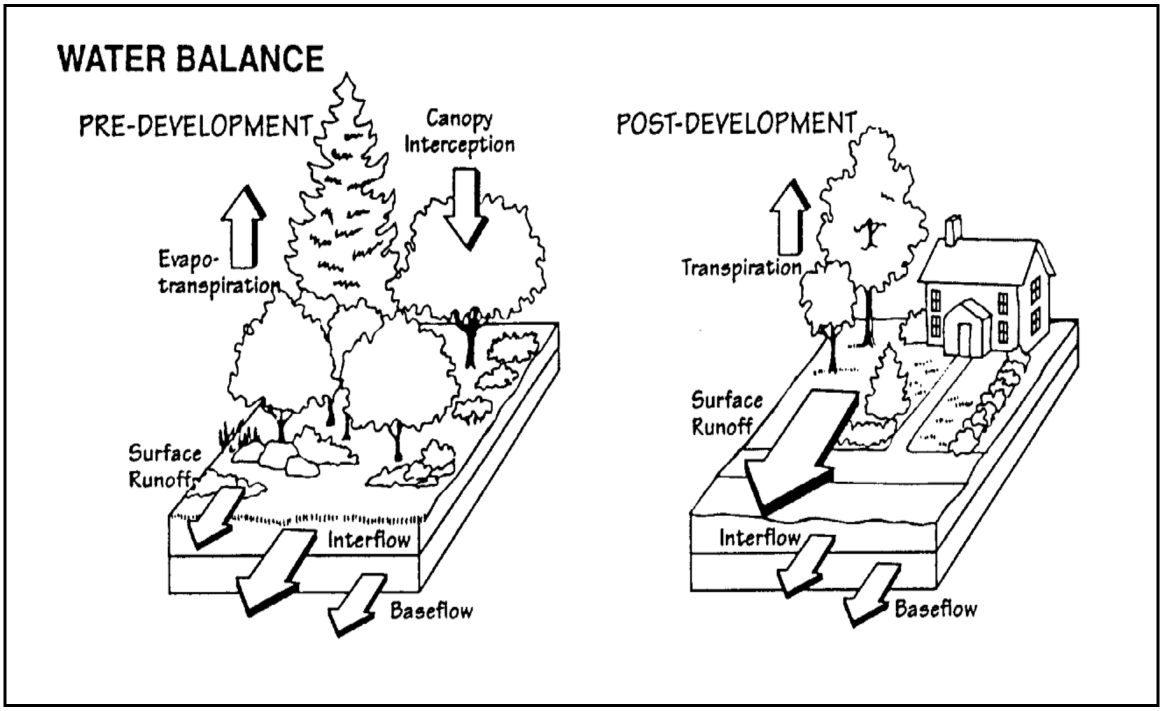
Urban development has a profound influence on the quality of New York's waters. To start, development dramatically alters the local hydrologic cycle (see Figure 2.1). The hydrology of a site changes during the initial clearing and grading that occur during construction. Trees that had intercepted rainfall are removed, and natural depressions that had temporarily ponded water are graded to a uniform slope. The spongy humus layer of the forest floor that had absorbed rainfall is scraped off, eroded or severely compacted. Having lost its natural storage capacity, a cleared and graded site can no longer prevent rainfall from being rapidly converted into stormwater runoff.

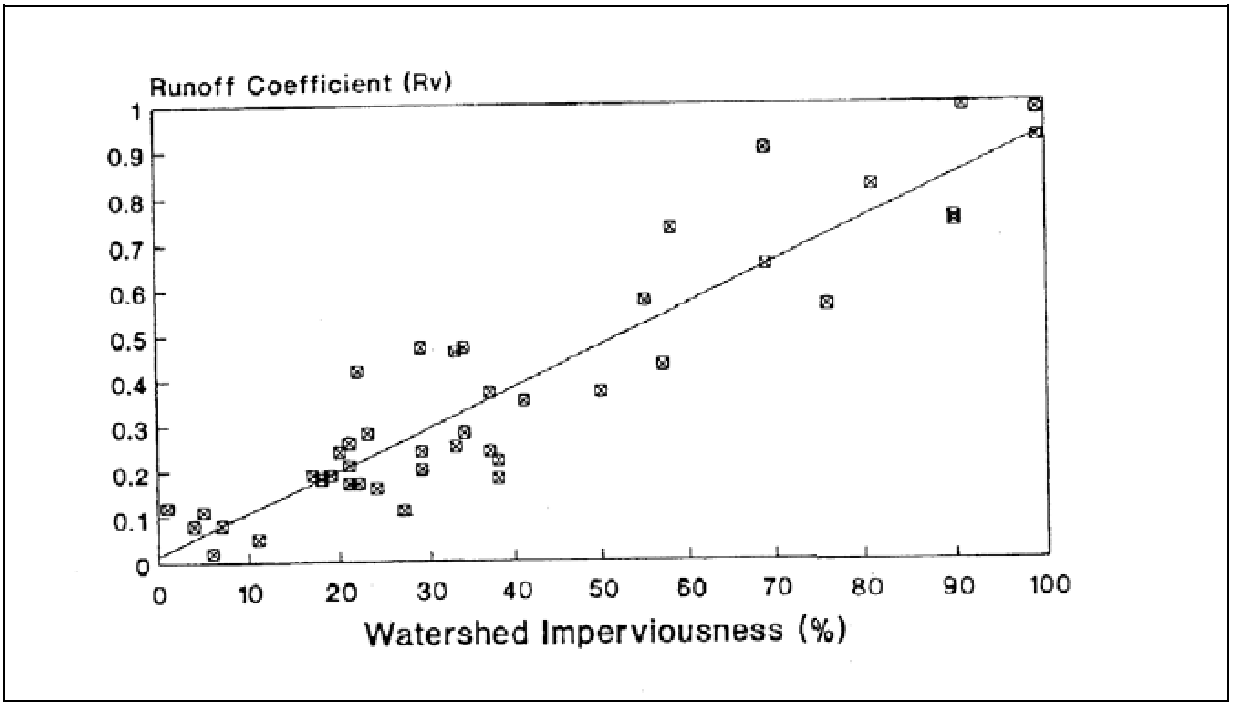
Figure 2.1 Water Balance at a Developed and Undeveloped Site (Schueler, 1987)



The situation worsens after construction. Rooftops, roads, parking lots, driveways and other impervious surfaces no longer allow rainfall to soak into the ground. Consequently, most rainfall is directly converted into stormwater runoff. This phenomenon is illustrated in Figure 2.2, which shows the increase in the volumetric runoff coefficient (R_v) as a function of site imperviousness. The runoff coefficient expresses the fraction of rainfall volume that is converted into stormwater runoff. As can be seen, the volume of stormwater runoff increases sharply with impervious cover. For example, a one-acre parking lot can produce 16 times more stormwater runoff than a one-acre meadow each year (Schueler, 1994).

The increase in stormwater runoff can be too much for the existing drainage system to handle. As a result, the drainage system is often "improved" to rapidly collect runoff and quickly convey it away (using curb and gutter, enclosed storm sewers, and lined channels). The stormwater runoff is subsequently discharged to downstream waters, such as streams, reservoirs, lakes or estuaries.

Figure 2.2 Relationship Between Impervious Cover and Runoff Coefficient (Schueler, 1987)



Section 2.1 Declining Water Quality

Impervious surfaces accumulate pollutants deposited from the atmosphere, leaked from vehicles, or windblown in from adjacent areas. During storm events, these pollutants quickly wash off, and are rapidly delivered to downstream waters. Some common pollutants found in urban stormwater runoff are profiled in Table 2.1.

Sediment (Suspended Solids)

Sources of sediment include washoff of particles that are deposited on impervious surfaces and erosion from streambanks and construction sites. Streambank erosion is a particularly important source of sediment, and some studies suggest that streambank erosion accounts for up to 70% of the sediment load in urban watersheds (Trimble, 1997).

Table 2.1 National Median Concentrations for Chemical Constituents in Stormwater		
Constituent	**Units**	**Concentration**
Total Suspended Solids[1]	mg/l	54.5
Total Phosphorus[1]	mg/l	0.26
Soluble Phosphorus[1]	mg/l	0.10
Total Nitrogen[1]	mg/l	2.00
Total Kjeldhal Nitrogen[1]	mg/l	1.47
Nitrite and Nitrate[1]	mg/l	0.53
Copper[1]	ug/l	11.1
Lead[1]	ug/l	50.7
Zinc[1]	ug/l	129
BOD[1]	mg/l	11.5
COD[1]	mg/l	44.7
Organic Carbon[2]	mg/l	11.9
PAH[3]	mg/l	3.5*
Oil and Grease[4]	mg/l	3.0*
Fecal Coliform[5]	col/100 ml	15,000*
Fecal Strep[5]	col/ 100 ml	35,400*
Chloride (snowmelt)[6]	mg/l	116

* Represents a Mean Value
Source:
1: Pooled NURP/USGS (Smullen and Cave, 1998)
2: Derived from the National Pollutant Removal Database (Winer, 2000)
3: Rabanal and Grizzard 1995
4: Crunkilton *et al*. (1996)
5: Schueler (1999)
6: Oberts 1994

Both suspended and deposited sediments can have adverse effects on aquatic life in streams, lakes and estuaries. Turbidity resulting from sediment can reduce light penetration for submerged aquatic vegetation critical to estuary health. In addition, the reflected energy from light reflecting off of suspended sediment can increase water temperatures (Kundell and Rasmussen, 1995). Sediment can physically alter habitat by destroying the riffle-pool structure in stream systems, and smothering benthic organisms such as clams and mussels. Finally, sediment transports many other pollutants to the water resource.

Nutrients

Runoff from developed land has elevated concentrations of both phosphorus and nitrogen, which can enrich streams, lakes, reservoirs and estuaries. This process is known as eutrophication. Significant sources of nitrogen and phosphorus include fertilizer, atmospheric deposition, animal waste, organic matter, and stream bank erosion. Another nitrogen source is fossil fuel combustion from automobiles, power plants and industry. Data from the upper Midwest suggest that lawns are a significant contributor, with concentrations as much as four times higher than other land uses, such as streets, rooftops, or driveways (Steuer *et al*., 1997; Waschbusch *et al*., 2000; Bannerman *et al*., 1993).

Nutrients are of particular concern in lakes and estuaries, and are a source of degradation in many of New York's waters. Nitrogen has contributed to hypoxia in the Long Island Sound, and is a key pollutant of concern in the New York Harbor and the Peconic Estuary. Phosphorus in runoff has impacted the quality of a number of New York natural lakes, including the Finger Lakes and Lake Champlain, which are susceptible to eutrophication from phosphorus loading. Phosphorus has been identified as a key parameter in the New York City Reservoir system. The New York City DEP recently developed water quality guidance values for phosphorus for City drinking water reservoirs (NYC DEP, 1999); a source-water phosphorus guidance value of 15 µg/l has been proposed for seven reservoirs (Kensico, Rondout, Ashokan, West Branch, New Croton, Croton Falls, and Cross River) in order to protect them from use-impairment due to eutrophication, with other reservoirs using the State recommended guidance value of 20 µg/l.

Organic Carbon

Organic matter, washed from impervious surfaces during storms, can present a problem in slower moving downstream waters. Some sources include organic material blown onto the street surface, and attached to sediment from stream banks, or from bare soil. In addition, organic carbon is formed indirectly from algal growth within systems with high nutrient loads.

As organic matter decomposes, it can deplete dissolved oxygen in lakes and tidal waters. Declining levels of oxygen in the water can have an adverse impact on aquatic life. An additional concern is the formation of trihalomethane (THM), a carcinogenic disinfection by-product, due to the mixing of chlorine with water high in organic carbon. This is of particular importance in unfiltered water supplies, such as the New York City Reservoir System.

Bacteria

Bacteria levels in stormwater runoff routinely exceed public health standards for water contact recreation. Some stormwater sources include pet waste and urban wildlife. Other sources in developed land include sanitary and combined sewer overflows, wastewater, and illicit connections to the storm drain system. Bacteria is a leading contaminant in many of New York's waters, and has lead to shellfish bed closures in the New York Bight Area, on Long Island, and in the Hudson-Raritan Estuary. In addition, Suffolk, Nassau, and Erie Counties issue periodic bathing-beach advisories each time a significant rainfall event occurs (NRDC, 2000).

Hydrocarbons

Vehicles leak oil and grease that contain a wide array of hydrocarbon compounds, some of which can be toxic to aquatic life at low concentrations. Sources are automotive, and some areas that produce runoff with high runoff concentrations include gas stations, commuter parking lots, convenience stores, residential parking areas, and streets (Schueler, 1994).

Trace Metals

Cadmium, copper, lead and zinc are routinely found in stormwater runoff. Many of the sources are automotive. For example, one study suggests that 50% of the copper in Santa Clara, CA comes from brake pads (Woodward-Clyde, 1992). Other sources of metals include paints, road salts, and galvanized pipes.

These metals can be toxic to aquatic life at certain concentrations, and can also accumulate in the bottom sediments of lakes and estuaries. Specific concerns in aquatic systems include bioaccumulations in fish and macro-invertebrates, and the impact of toxic bottom sediments on bottom-dwelling species.

Pesticides

A modest number of currently used and recently banned insecticides and herbicides have been detected in urban and suburban streamflow at concentrations that approach or exceed toxicity thresholds for aquatic life. Key sources of pesticides include application to urban lawns and highway median and shoulder areas.

Chlorides

Salts that are applied to roads and parking lots in the winter months appear in stormwater runoff and meltwater at much higher concentrations than many freshwater organisms can tolerate. One study of four Adirondack streams found severe impacts to macroinvertebrate species attributed to chlorides (Demers and Sage, 1990). In addition to the direct toxic effects, chlorides can impact lake systems by altering their mixing cycle. In 1986, incomplete mixing in the Irondequoit Bay was attributed to high salt use in the region (MCEMC, 1987). A primary source of chlorides in New York State, particularly in the State's northern regions, is salt applied to road surfaces as a deicer.

Thermal Impacts.

Runoff from impervious surfaces may increase temperature in receiving waters, adversely impacting aquatic organisms that require cold and cool water conditions (e.g., trout). Data suggest that increasing development can increase stream temperatures by between five and twelve degrees Fahrenheit, and that the increase is related to the level of impervious cover in the drainage area (Galli, 1991). Thermal impacts are a serious concern in trout waters, where cold temperatures are critical to species survival.

Trash and Debris

Considerable quantities of trash and debris are washed through the storm drain networks. The trash and debris accumulate in streams and lakes and detract from their natural beauty. Depending on the type of trash, this material may also lead to increased organic matter or toxic contaminants in water bodies.

Snowmelt Concentrations

The snow pack can store hydrocarbons, oil and grease, chlorides, sediment, and nutrients. In cold regions, the pollutant load during snowmelt can be significant, and chemical traits of snowmelt change over the course of the melt event. Oberts (1994) studied this phenomenon, and describes four types of snowmelt runoff (Table 2.2). Oberts and others have reported that 90% of the hydrocarbon load from snowmelt occurs during the last 10% of the event. From a practical standpoint, the high hydrocarbon loads experienced toward the end of the season suggest that stormwater management practices should be designed to capture as much of the snowmelt event as possible.

Table 2.2 Runoff and Pollutant Characteristics of Snowmelt Stages (Oberts, 1994)			
Snowmelt Stage	**Duration/ Frequency**	**Runoff Volume**	**Pollutant Characteristics**
Pavement Melt	Short, but many times in winter	Low	Acidic, high concentrations of soluble pollutants, Cl, nitrate, lead. Total load is minimal.
Roadside Melt	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate concentrations of both soluble and particulate pollutants.
Pervious Area Melt	Gradual, often most at end of season	High	Dilute concentrations of soluble pollutants, moderate to high concentrations of particulate pollutants, depending on flow.
Rain-on-Snow Melt	Short	Extreme	High concentrations of particulate pollutants, moderate to high concentrations of soluble pollutants. High total load.

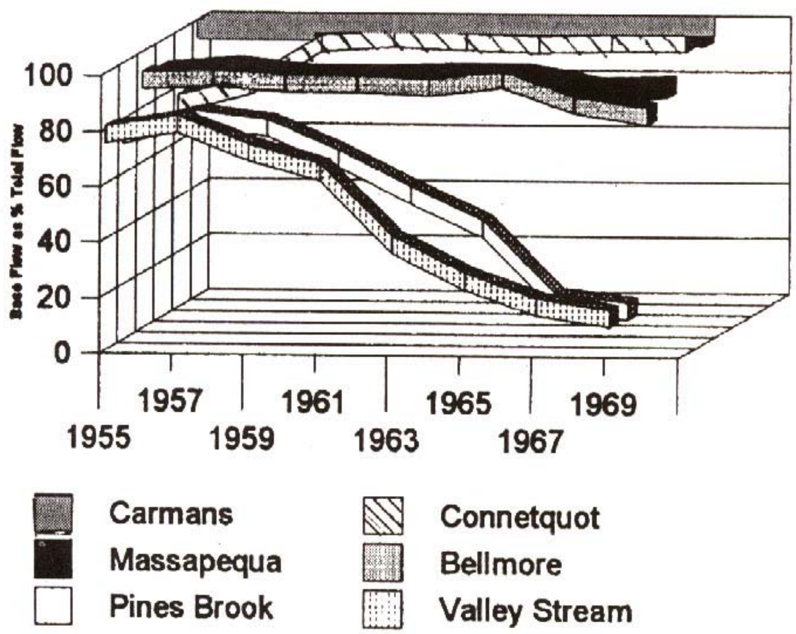
Section 2.2 Diminishing Groundwater Recharge and Quality

The slow infiltration of rainfall through the soil layer is essential for replenishing groundwater. Groundwater is a critical water resource across the State. Not only do many residents depend on groundwater for their drinking water, but the health of many aquatic systems is also dependent on its steady discharge. For example, during periods of dry weather, groundwater sustains flows in streams and helps to maintain the hydrology of non-tidal wetlands.

Because development creates impervious surfaces that prevent natural recharge, a net decrease in groundwater recharge rates can be expected in urban watersheds. Thus, during prolonged periods of dry weather, streamflow sharply diminishes. Another source of diminishing baseflow is well drawdowns as populations increase in the watershed. In smaller headwater streams, the decline in stream flow can cause a perennial stream to become seasonally dry. One study in Long Island suggests that the supply of baseflow decreased in some developing watersheds, particularly where the water supply was sewered (Spinello and Simmons, 1992; Figure 2.3).

Urban land uses and activities can also degrade *groundwater quality,* if stormwater runoff is infiltrated without adequate treatment. Certain land uses and activities are known to produce higher loads of metals and toxic chemicals and are designated as *stormwater hotspots*. Soluble pollutants, such as chloride, nitrate, copper, dissolved solids and some polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH’s) can migrate into groundwater and potentially contaminate wells. Stormwater runoff from designated hotspots should never be infiltrated, unless the runoff receives full treatment with another practice.

Figure 2.3 Declining Baseflow in Response to Development



Notes:

Carmans and Connetquot: Rural/suburban, watersheds are unsewered

Bellmore and Massapequa: Moderately urbanized, not sewered until 1989

Valley Stream and Pine Brook: Urbanized and densely populated watersheds, sewer systems completed in 1960s

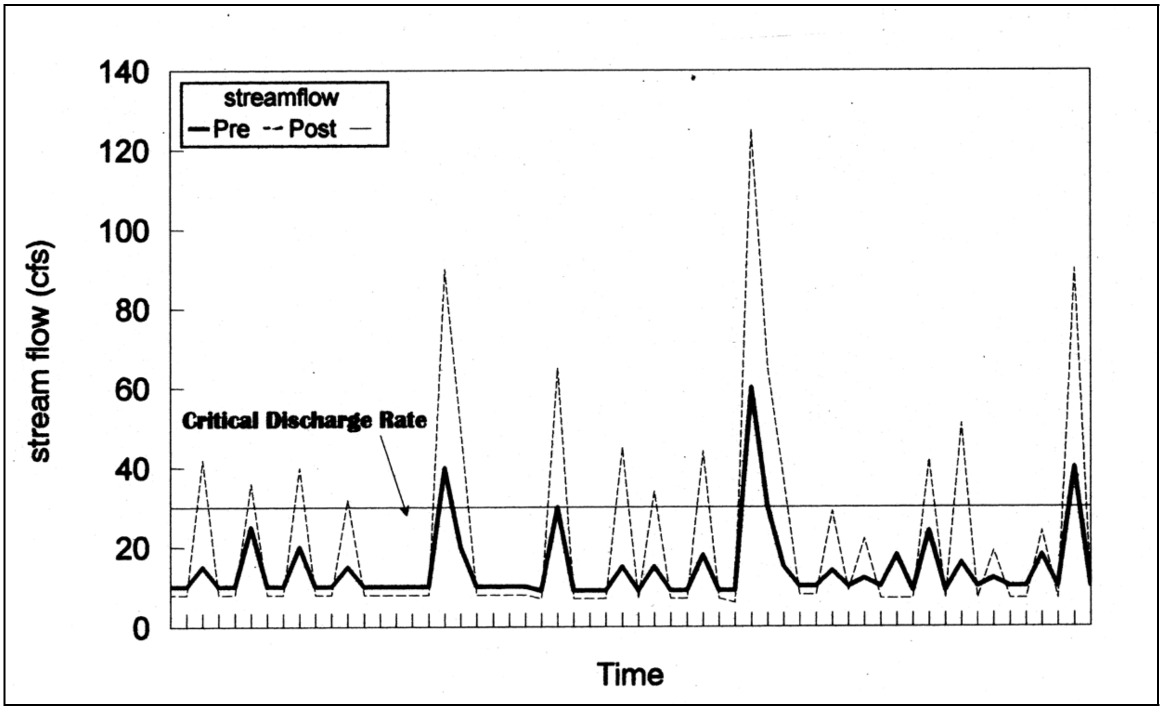
1953-1964: Period of sanitary sewer construction in eastern Nassau County

1962-1966: Drought years

Section 2.3 Impacts to the Stream Channel

As pervious meadows and forests are converted into less pervious urban soils, or pavement, both the frequency and magnitude of storm flows increase dramatically. As a result, the bankfull event occurs two to seven times more frequently after development occurs (Leopold, 1994). In addition, the discharge associated with the original bankfull storm event can increase by up to five times (Hollis, 1975). As Figure 2.4 demonstrates, the total flow beyond the "critical erosive velocity" increases substantially after development occurs. The increased energy resulting from these more frequent bankfull flow events results in erosion and enlargement of the stream channel, and consequent habitat degradation.

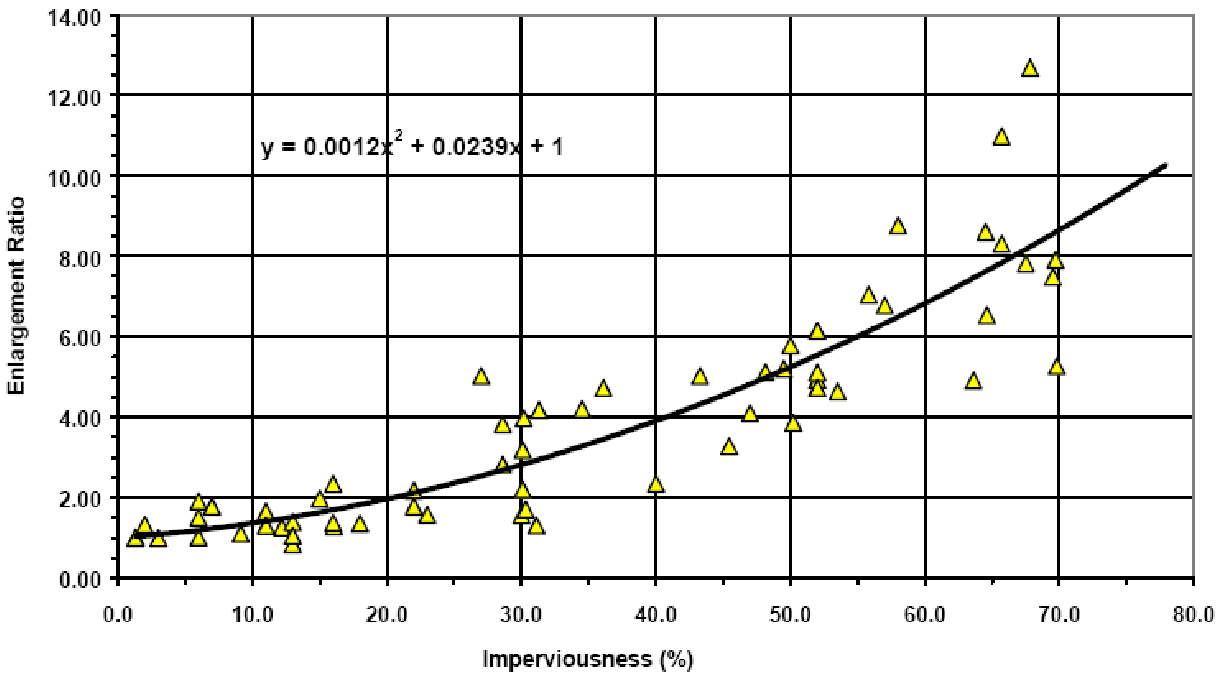
Figure 2.4 Increased Frequency of Erosive Flow After Development



Channel enlargement in response to watershed development has been observed for decades, with research indicating that the stream channel area expands to between two and five times its original size in response to upland development (Hammer, 1972; Morisawa and LaFlure, 1979; Allen and Narramore, 1985; Booth, 1990). One researcher developed a direct relationship between the level of impervious cover and the "ultimate" channel enlargement, the area a stream will eventually reach over time (MacRae, 1996; Figure 2.5).

Historically, New York has used two-year control (i.e., reduction of the peak flow from the two-year storm to predeveloped levels) to prevent channel erosion, as required in the 1993 SPDES General Permit (GP-93-06). Research suggests that this measure does not adequately protect stream channels (McCuen and Moglen, 1988, MacRae, 1996). Although the peak flow is lower, it is also extended over a longer period of time, thus increasing the duration of erosive flows. In addition, the bankfull flow event actually becomes more frequent after development occurs. Consequently, capturing the two-year event may not address the channel-forming event.

Figure 2.5 Relationship Between Impervious Cover and Channel Enlargement



This stream channel erosion and expansion, combined with direct impacts to the stream system, act to decrease the habitat quality of the stream. The stream will thus experience the following impacts to habitat (Table 2.3):

- Decline in stream substrate quality (through sediment deposition and embedding of the substrate)
- Loss of pool/riffle structure in the stream channel
- Degradation of stream habitat structure
- Creation of fish barriers by culverts and other stream crossings
- Loss of “large woody debris,” which is critical to fish habitat

Table 2.3 Impacts to Stream Habitat			
Stream Channel Impact	**Key Finding**	**Reference**	**Year**
Habitat Characteristics			
Embeddedness	Interstitial spaces between substrate fill with increasing watershed imperviousness	Horner *et al.*	1996
Large Woody Debris (LWD)	Important for habitat diversity and anadramous fish.	Spence *et al.*	1996
	Decreased LWD with increases in imperviousness	Booth *et al.*	1996
Changes in Stream Features	Altered pool/riffle sequence with urbanization	Richey	1982
	Loss of habitat diversity	Scott *et al.*	1986
Direct Channel Impacts			
Reduction in 1st Order Streams	Replaced by storm drains and pipes increases erosion rate downstream	Dunne and Leopold	1972
Channelization and hardening of stream channels	Increase instream velocities often leading to increased erosion rates downstream	Sauer *et al.*	1983
Fish Blockages	Fish blockages caused by bridges and culverts	MWCOG	1989

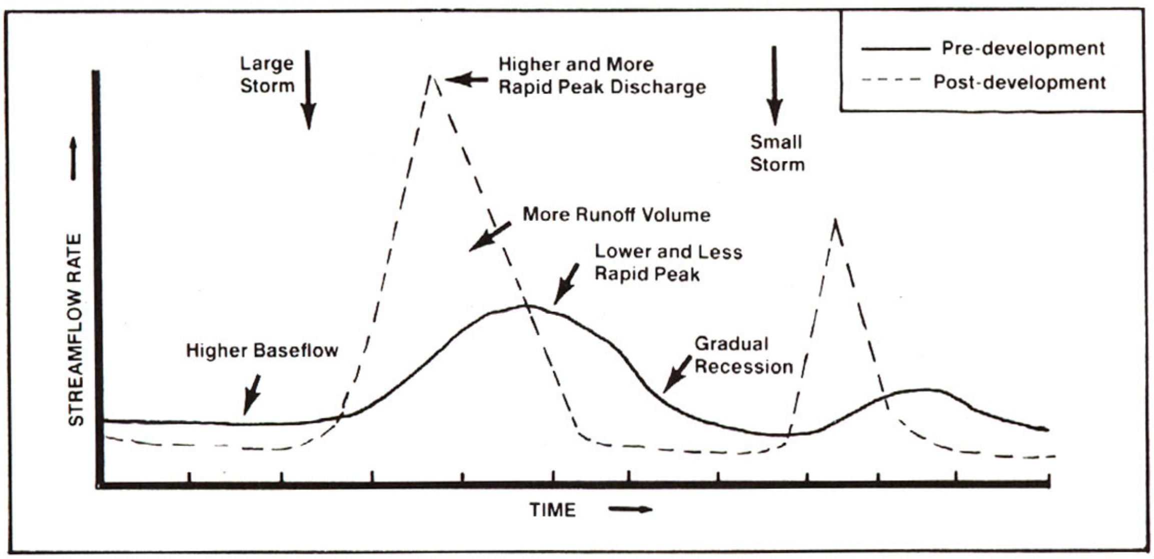
Section 2.4 Increased Overbank Flooding

Flow events that exceed the capacity of the stream channel spill out into the adjacent floodplain. These are termed "overbank" floods, and can damage property and downstream structures. While some overbank flooding is inevitable and sometimes desirable, the historical goal of drainage design in New York has been to maintain pre-development peak discharge rates for both the two- and ten-year frequency storm after development, thus keeping the level of overbank flooding the same over time. This management technique prevents costly damage or maintenance for culverts, drainage structures, and swales.

Overbank floods are ranked in terms of their statistical return frequency. For example, a flood that has a 50% chance of occurring in any given year is termed a "two-year" flood. The two-year event is also known as the "bankfull flood," as researchers have demonstrated that most natural stream channels in the State have just enough capacity to handle the two-year flood before spilling out into the floodplain. Although many factors, such as soil moisture, topography, and snowmelt, can influence the magnitude of a particular flood event, designers typically design for the "two-year" storm event. In New York State, the two-year design storm ranges between about 2.0 to 4.0 inches of rain in a 24-hour period. Similarly, a flood that has a 10% chance of occurring in any given year is termed a "ten-year flood." A ten-year flood occurs when a storm event produces between 3.2 and 6.0 inches of rain in a 24-hour period. Under traditional engineering practice, most channels and storm drains in New York are designed with enough capacity to safely pass the peak discharge from the ten-year design storm.

Urban development increases the peak discharge rate associated with a given design storm, because impervious surfaces generate greater runoff volumes and drainage systems deliver it more rapidly to a stream. The change in post-development peak discharge rates that accompany development is profiled in Figure 2.6. Note that this change in hydrology increases not only the magnitude of the peak event, but the total volume of runoff produced.

Figure 2.6 Hydrographs Before and After Development

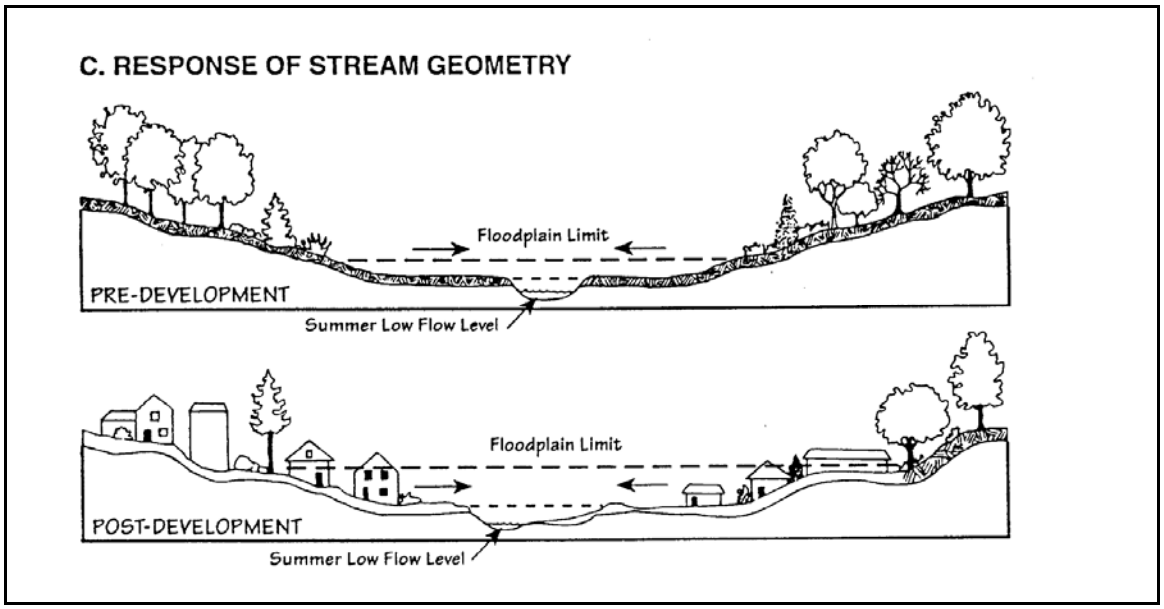


Section 2.5 Floodplain Expansion

In general, floodplains are relatively low areas adjacent to rivers, lakes, and oceans that are periodically inundated. For the purposes of this document, the floodplain is defined as the land area that is subject to inundation from a flood that has a one percent chance of-being equaled or exceeded in any given year. This is typically thought of as the 100-year flood. In New York, a 100-year flood typically occurs after between five and eight inches of rainfall in a 24-hour period (i.e., the 100-year storm). However, snow melt combined with precipitation can also lead to a 100-year flood. These floods can be very destructive, and can pose a threat to property and human life.

As with overbank floods, development sharply increases the peak discharge rate associated with the 100-year design storm. As a consequence, the elevation of a stream's 100-year floodplain becomes higher and the boundaries of its floodplain expand (see Figure 2.7). In some instances, property and structures that had not previously been subject to flooding are now at risk. Additionally, such a shift in a floodplain's hydrology can degrade wetland and forest habitats.

Figure 2.7 Floodplain Expansion with New Development



Section 2.6 Impacts to Aquatic Organisms

The decline in the physical habitat of the stream, coupled with lower base flows and higher stormwater pollutant loads, has a severe impact on the aquatic community. Research suggests that new development impacts aquatic insects, fish, and amphibians at fairly low levels of imperviousness, usually around 10% impervious cover (Table 2.4). New development appears to cause declining **richness** (the number of different species in an area or community), **diversity** (number and relative frequency of different species in an area or community), and **abundance** (number of individuals in a species).

Table 2.4 Recent Research Examining the Relationship of Urbanization to Aquatic Habitat and Organisms

Watershed Indicator	Key Finding	Reference	Year	Location
Aquatic insects and fish	A comparison of three stream types found urban streams had lowest diversity and richness. Urban streams had substantially lower EPT scores (22% vs 5% as number of all taxa, 65% vs 10% as percent abundance) and IBI scores in the poor range.	Crawford & Lenat	1989	North Carolina
Insects, fish, habitat, water quality	Steepest decline of biological functioning after 6% imperviousness. There was a steady decline, with approx 50% of initial biotic integrity at 45% I.	Horner *et al.*	1996	Puget Sound Washington
Fish, aquatic insects	A study of five urban streams found that as land use shifted from rural to urban, fish and macroinvertebrate diversity decreased.	Masterson & Bannerman	1994	Wisconsin
Insects, fish, habitat, water quality, riparian zone	Physical and biological stream indicators declined most rapidly during the initial phase of the urbanization process as the percentage of total impervious area exceeded the 5-10% range.	May *et al.*	1997	Washington
Aquatic insects and fish	There was significant decline in the diversity of aquatic insects and fish at 10% impervious cover.	MWCOG	1992	Washington, DC
Aquatic insects and fish	Evaluation of the effects of runoff in urban and non-urban areas found that native fish and insect species dominated the non-urban portion of the watershed, but native fish accounted for only 7% of the number of species found in urban areas.	Pitt	1995	California
Wetland plants, amphibians	Mean annual water fluctuation inversely correlated to plant & amphibian density in urban wetlands. Declines noted beyond 10% impervious area.	Taylor	1993	Seattle
Aquatic insects & fish	Residential urban land use in Cuyahoga watersheds created a significant drop in IBI scores at around 8%, primarily due to certain stressors that functioned to lower the non-attainment threshold When watersheds smaller than 100mi^2 were analyzed separately, the level of urban land use for a significant drop in IBI scores occurred at around 15%.	Yoder *et. al.*	1999	Ohio
Aquatic insects & fish	All 40 urban sites sampled had fair to very poor index of biotic integrity (IBI) scores, compared to undeveloped reference sites.	Yoder	1991	Ohio

IBI: Index of Biotic Integrity: A measure of species diversity for fish and macroinvertebrates
EPT: A measure of the richnies of three sensitive macro-invertebrates (may flies, caddis flies, and stone flies), used to indicate the ability of a waterbody to support sensitive organisms.