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A Guidance Manual for Program Development and Technical Assessments

by the
Center for
Watershed Protection

and
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October 2004

Notice

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A Guidance Manual for Program Development and Technical Assessments

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Chapter 11: The Outfall Reconnaissance Inventory

This chapter describes a simple field assessment known as the Outfall Reconnaissance Inventory (ORI). The ORI is designed to fix the geospatial location and record basic characteristics of individual storm drain outfalls, evaluate suspect outfalls, and assess the severity of illicit discharge problems in a community. Field crews should walk all natural and man-made streams channels with perennial and intermittent flow, even if they do not appear on available maps (Figure 19). The goal is to complete the ORI on every stream mile in the MS4 within the first permit cycle, starting with priority subwatersheds identified during the desktop analysis. The results of the ORI are then used to help guide future outfall monitoring and discharge prevention efforts.

11.1 Getting Started

The ORI requires modest mapping, field equipment, staffing and training resources. A complete list of the required and optional resources needed to perform an ORI is presented in Table 30. The ORI can be combined with other stream assessment tools, and may be supplemented by simple indicator monitoring. Ideally, a Phase II community should plan on surveying its entire drainage network at least once over the course of each five-year permit cycle. Experience suggests that it may take up to three stream walks to identify all outfalls.

Figure 19: Walk all streams and constructed open channels

Best Times to Start

Timing is important when scheduling ORI field work. In most regions of the country, spring and fall are the best seasons to perform the ORI. Other seasons typically have challenges such as over-grown vegetation or high groundwater that mask illicit discharges, or make ORI data hard to interpret[9].

Prolonged dry periods during the non-growing season with low groundwater levels are optimal conditions for performing an ORI. Table 31 summarizes some of the regional factors to consider when scheduling ORI surveys in your community. Daily weather patterns also determine whether ORI field work should proceed. In general, ORI field work should be conducted at least 48 hours after the last runoff-producing rain event.

Field Maps

The field maps needed for the ORI are normally generated during the desktop assessment phase of the IDDE program described in Chapter 5. This section

[9] Upon initial program start-up, the ORI should be conducted during periods of low groundwater to more easily identify likely illicit discharges. However, it should be noted that high water tables can increase sewage contamination in storm drain networks due to infiltration and inflow interactions. Therefore, in certain situations, seasonal ORI surveys may be useful at identifying these types of discharges. Diagnosis of this source of contamination, however, can be challenging.

Table 30: Resources Needed to Conduct the ORI

Need Area	Minimum Needed	Optional but Helpful
Mapping	• Roads • Streams	• Known problem areas • Major land uses • Outfalls • Specific industries • Storm drain network • SIC-coded buildings • Septics
Field Equipment	• 5 one-liter sample bottles • Backpack • Camera (preferably digital) • Cell phones or hand-held radios • Clip boards and pencils • Field sheets • First aid kit • Flash light or head lamp • GPS unit • Spray paint (or other marker) • Surgical gloves • Tape measure • Temperature probe • Waders (snake proof where necessary) • Watch with a second hand	• Portable Spectrophotometer and reagents (can be shared among crews) • Insect repellant • Machete/clippers • Sanitary wipes or biodegradable soap • Wide-mouth container to measure flow • Test strips or probes (e.g., pH and ammonia)
Staff	• Basic training on field methodology • Minimum two staff per crew	• Ability to track discharges up the drainage system • Knowledge of drainage area, to identify probable sources. • Knowledge of basic chemistry and biology

Table 31: Preferred Climate/Weather Considerations for Conducting the ORI

Preferred Condition	Reason	Notes/Regional Factors
Low groundwater (e.g., very few flowing outfalls)	High groundwater can confound results	In cold regions, do not conduct the ORI in the early spring, when the ground is saturated from snowmelt.
No runoff-producing rainfall within 48 hours	Reduces the confounding influence of storm water	The specific time frame may vary depending on the drainage system.
Dry Season	Allows for more days of field work	Applies in regions of the country with a "wet/ dry seasonal pattern." This pattern is most pronounced in states bordering or slightly interior to the Gulf of Mexico or the Pacific Ocean.
Leaf Off	Dense vegetation makes finding outfalls difficult	Dense vegetation is most problematic in the southeastern United States. This criterion is helpful but not required.

provides guidance on the basic requirements for good field maps. First, ORI field maps do not need to be fancy. The scale and level of mapping detail will vary based on preferences and navigational skills of field crews. At a minimum, maps should have labeled streets and hydrologic features (USGS blue line streams, wetlands, and lakes), so field crews can orient themselves and record their findings spatially.

Field maps should delineate the contributing drainage area to major outfalls, but only if they are readily available. Urban landmarks such as land use, property boundaries, and storm drain infrastructure are also quite useful in the field. ORI field maps should be used to check the accuracy and quality of pre-existing mapping information, such as the location of outfalls and stream origins.

Basic street maps offer the advantage of simplicity, availability, and well-labeled road networks and urban landmarks. Supplemental maps such as a 1”: 2000’ scale USGS Quad sheet or finer scale aerial photograph are also recommended for the field. USGS Quad sheets are readily available and display major transportation networks and landmarks, “blue line” streams, wetlands, and topography. Quad maps may be adequate for less developed subwatersheds, but are not always accurate in more urban subwatersheds.

Recent aerial photographs may provide the best opportunity to navigate the subwatershed and assess existing land cover. Aerial photos, however, may lack topography and road names, can be costly, and are hard to record field notes on due to their darkness. GIS-ready aerial photos and USGS Quad sheets can be downloaded from the internet or obtained from local planning, parks, or public works agencies.

Field Sheets

ORI field sheets are used to record descriptive and quantitative information about each outfall inventoried in the field. Data from the field sheets represent the building blocks of an outfall tracking system allowing program managers to improve IDDE monitoring and management. A copy of the ORI field sheet is provided in Appendix D, and is also available as a Microsoft Word™ document. Program managers should modify the field sheet to meet the specific needs and unique conditions in their community.

Field crews should also carry an authorization letter and a list of emergency phone numbers to report any emergency leaks, spills, obvious illicit discharges or other water quality problems to the appropriate local authorities directly from the field. Local law enforcement agencies may also need to be made aware of the field work. Figure 20 shows an example of a water pollution emergency contact list developed by Montgomery County, MD.

Equipment

Basic field equipment needed for the ORI includes waders, a measuring tape, watch, camera, GPS unit, and surgical gloves (see Table 30). GPS units and digital cameras are usually the most expensive equipment items; however, some local agencies may already have them for other applications. Adequate ranging, water-resistant, downloadable GPS units can be purchased for less than $150. Digital cameras are preferred and can cost between $200 and $400, however, conventional or disposable cameras can also work, as long as they have flashes. Hand-held data recorders and customized software can be used to record text, photos, and GPS coordinates electronically in the field. While these technologies can eliminate field sheets and data entry procedures, they can be quite expensive. Field crews should always carry basic safety items, such as cell phones, surgical gloves, and first aid kits.

Staffing

The ORI requires at least a two-person crew, for safety and logistics. Three person crews provide greater safety and flexibility, which helps divide tasks, allows one person to assess adjacent land uses, and facilitates tracing outfalls to their source. All crew members should be trained on how to complete the ORI and should have a basic understanding of illicit discharges and their water quality impact. ORI crews can be staffed by trained volunteers, watershed groups and college interns. Experienced crews can normally expect to cover two to three stream miles per day, depending on stream access and outfall density.

11.2 Desktop Analysis to Support the ORI

Two tasks need to be done in the office before heading out to the field. The major ORI preparation tasks include estimating the total stream and channel mileage in the subwatershed and generating field maps. The total mileage helps program managers scope out how long the ORI will take and how much it will cost. As discussed before, field maps are an indispensable navigational aid for field crews working in the subwatershed.

Delineating Survey Reaches

ORI field maps should contain a preliminary delineation of **survey reaches**. The stream network within your subwatershed should be delineated into discrete segments of relatively uniform character. Delineating survey reaches provides good stopping and starting points for field crews, which

WATER POLLUTION PHONE NUMBERS TO CALL WHEN A WATER QUALITY PROBLEM IS OBSERVED or TO OBTAIN FURTHER INFORMATION ABOUT WATER QUALITY ISSUES
Spring 2001

COUNTY AGENCIES

DEP: Department of Environmental Protection
- DEPC: Division of Environmental Policy & Compliance
- WMD: Watershed Management Division

DPS: Department of Permitting Services
- LDS: Land Development Services
- SWM: Stormwater Management
- WS: Wells & Septic

INTER-COUNTY AGENCIES

MNCPPC: Maryland-National Capital Park & Planning Commission

WSSC: Washington Suburban Sanitary Commission

DHCD: Department of Housing & Community Development

DPWT: Department of Public Works & Transportation

PROBLEM/QUESTION	AGENCY & TELEPHONE NUMBER	
ILLEGAL DUMPING HOTLINE	**DEPC:**	**240-777-7700** Daytime hours ←
	→ Nighttime hours	**240/777-DUMP (3867) or 240-777-7788**
Blocked storm drain, inlet or pipe or erosion from public storm drain	DPWT:	240/777-ROAD (7623) Highway Maintenance)
Discolored public drinking water, odor to drinking water		301/206-4002
Erosion, flooding, drainage problems between private properties	DHCD:	240/777-3600 (Code Enforcement)
Erosion - stream banks on park land	MNCPPC:	301/495-2535
Fire & Rescue Services (emergencies: 911)	(Non-Emergencies):	240/777-0744
Recycling Programs/Special pick up services	DPWT:	240/777-6400 or 6466
Sanitary sewer problems	WSSC:	301/206-4002
Sediment (mud) from construction site entering streams	LDS:	240/777-6366
Septic Leaks/ Septic Tanks	WS:	240/777-6300
Stormwater Management, pond safety and maintenance	DEPC:	240/777-7744
Stormwater Management and Sediment Control Plan Review issues	SWM:	240/777-6320
Stream Clean-ups	WMD:	240/777-7712
Swimming Pool Discharges	DEPC:	240/777-7770
Trash and debris in parks and streams	MNCPPC:	301/495-2535
Water main break	WSSC:	301/206-4002
Water pollution (discharging, dumping, chemical spills into streams or storm drains)	DEPC: / LDS:	240/777-7770 / 240/777-6260
Water quality monitoring programs for schools (Stream Teams)	WMD:	240/777-7714
Wells and Well Inspections	WS:	240/777-6300

askDEP.com

Figure 20: Example of a comprehensive emergency contact list for Montgomery County, MD

is useful from a data management and logistics standpoint. Each survey reach should have its own unique identifying number to facilitate ORI data analysis and interpretation. Figure 21 illustrates some tips for delineating survey reaches, and additional guidance is offered below:

- Survey reaches should be established above the confluence of streams and between road crossings that serve as a convenient access point.
- Survey reaches should be defined at the transition between major changes in land use in the stream corridor (e.g. forested land to commercial area).
- Survey reaches should generally be limited to a quarter mile or less in length. Survey reaches in lightly developed subwatersheds can be longer than those in more developed subwatersheds, particularly if uniform stream corridor conditions are expected throughout the survey reach.
- Access through private or public property should be considered when delineating survey reaches as permission may be required.

It should be noted that initial field maps are not always accurate, and changes may need to be made in the field to adjust survey reaches to account for conditions such as underground streams, missing streams or long culverts. Nevertheless, upfront time invested in delineating survey reaches makes it easier for field crews to perform the ORI.

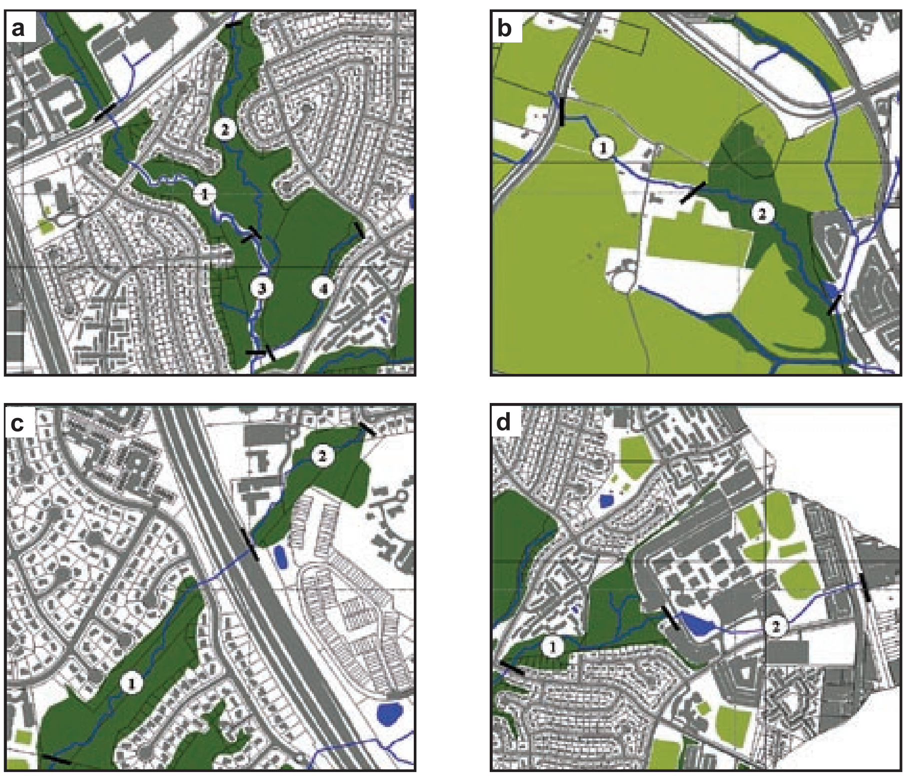


Figure 21: Various physical factors control how survey reaches are delineated. (a) Survey reaches based on the confluence of stream tributaries. (b) A long tributary split into ¼ mile survey reaches. (c) Based on a major road crossing (include the culvert in the downstream reach). (d) Based on significant changes in land use (significant changes in stream features often occur at road crossings, and these crossings often define the breakpoints between survey reaches).

11.3 Completing the ORI

Field crews conduct an ORI by walking all streams and channels to find outfalls, record their location spatially with a GPS unit and physically mark them with spray paint or other permanent marker. Crews also photograph each outfall and characterize its dimensions, shape, and component material, and record observations on basic sensory and physical indicators. If dry weather flow occurs at the outfall, additional flow and water quality data are collected. Field crews may also use field probes or test strips to measure indicators such as temperature, pH, and ammonia at flowing outfalls.

The ORI field sheet is divided into eight sections that address both flowing and non-flowing outfalls (Appendix D). Guidance on completing each section of the ORI field sheet is presented below.

Outfalls to Survey

The ORI applies to **all** outfalls encountered during the stream walk, regardless of diameter, with a few exceptions noted in Table 32. Common outfall conditions seen in communities are illustrated in Figure 22 As a rule, crews should only omit an outfall if they can definitively conclude it has no potential to contribute to a transitory illicit discharge. While EPA's Phase I guidance only targeted major outfalls (diameter of 36 inches or greater), documenting all outfalls is recommended, since smaller pipes make up the majority of all outfalls and frequently have illicit discharges (Pitt *et al.*, 1993 and Lalor, 1994). A separate ORI field sheet should be completed for each outfall.

Table 32: Outfalls to Include in the Screening

Outfalls to Record	Outfalls to Skip
• Both large and small diameter pipes that appear to be part of the storm drain infrastructure • Outfalls that appear to be piped headwater streams • Field connections to culverts • Submerged or partially submerged outfalls • Outfalls that are blocked with debris or sediment deposits • Pipes that appear to be outfalls from storm water treatment practices • Small diameter ductile iron pipes • Pipes that appear to only drain roof downspouts but that are subsurface, preventing definitive confirmation	• Drop inlets from roads in culverts (unless evidence of illegal dumping, dumpster leaks, etc.) • Cross-drainage culverts in transportation right-of-way (i.e., can see daylight at other end) • Weep holes • Flexible HDPE pipes that are known to serve as slope drains • Pipes that are clearly connected to roof downspouts via above-ground connections

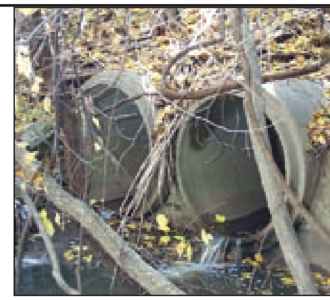
 Ductile iron round pipe	 4-6” HDPE; Check if roof leader connection (legal)	 Field connection to inside of culvert; Always mark and record.
 Small diameter (<2”) HDPE; Often a sump pump (legal), or may be used to discharge laundry water (illicit).	 Elliptical RCP; Measure both horizontal and vertical diameters.	 Double RCP round pipes; Mark as separate outfalls unless known to connect immediately up-pipe
 Culvert (can see to other side); Don’t mark as an outfall	 Open channel “chute” from commercial parking lot; Very unlikely illicit discharge. Mark, but do not return to sample (unless there is an obvious problem).	 Small diameter PVC pipe; Mark, and look up-pipe to find the origin.
 CMP outfall; Crews should also note upstream sewer crossing.	 Box shaped outfall	 CMP round pipe with two weep holes at bridge crossing. (Don’t mark weep holes)

Figure 22: Typical Outfall Types Found in the Field

Obvious Discharges

Field crews may occasionally encounter an obvious illicit discharge of sewage or other pollutants, typified by high turbidity, odors, floatables and unusual colors. When obvious discharges are encountered, field crews should STOP the ORI survey, track down the source of the discharge and immediately contact the appropriate water pollution agency for enforcement. Crews should photo-document the discharge, estimate its flow volume and collect a sample for water quality analysis (if this can be done safely). All three kinds of evidence are extremely helpful to support subsequent enforcement. Chapter 13 provides details on techniques to track down individual discharges.

11.4 ORI Section 1 - Background Data

The first section of the ORI field sheet is used to record basic data about the survey, including time of day, GPS coordinates for the outfall, field crew members, and current and past weather conditions (Figure 23). Much of the information in this section is self-explanatory, and is used to create an accurate record of when, where, and under what conditions ORI data were collected.

Every outfall should be photographed and marked by directly writing a unique identifying number on each outfall that serves as its subwatershed "address" (Figure 24). Crews can use spray paint or another temporary marker to mark outfalls, but may decide to replace temporary markings with permanent ones if the ORI is repeated later. Markings help crews confirm outfall locations during future investigations, and gives citizens a better way to report the location of spills or discharges when calling a water pollution hotline. Crews should mark the spatial location of all outfalls they encounter directly on field maps, and record the coordinates with a GPS unit that is accurate to within 10 feet. Crews should take a digital photo of each outfall, and record photo numbers in Section 1 of the field sheet.

Section 1: Background Data

Subwatershed:		Outfall ID:	
Today's date:		Time (Military):	
Investigators:		Form completed by:	
Temperature (°F):	Rainfall (in.): Last 24 hours:	Last 48 hours:	
Latitude:	Longitude:	GPS Unit:	GPS LMK #:
Camera:		Photo #s:	
Land Use in Drainage Area (Check all that apply):			
☐ Industrial		☐ Open Space	
☐ Ultra-Urban Residential		☐ Institutional	
☐ Suburban Residential		Other: ______	
☐ Commercial		Known Industries: ______	
Notes (e.g., origin of outfall, if known):			

Figure 23: Section 1 of the ORI Field Sheet

Figure 24: Labeling an outfall (a variety of outfall naming conventions can be used)

The land use of the drainage area contributing to the outfall should also be recorded. This may not always be easy to characterize at large diameter outfalls that drain dozens or even hundreds of acres (unless you have aerial photographs). On the other hand, land use can be easily observed at smaller diameter outfalls, and in some cases, the specific origin can be found (e.g., a roof leader or a parking lot; Figure 25). The specific origin should be recorded in the “notes” portion of Section 1 on the field sheet.

11.5 ORI Section 2 - Outfall Description

This part of the ORI field sheet is where basic outfall characteristics are noted (Figure 26). These include material, and presence of flow at the outfall, as well as the pipe’s dimensions (Figure 27). These measurements are used to confirm and supplement existing storm drain maps (if they are available). Many communities only map storm drain outfalls that exceed a given pipe diameter, and may not contain data on the material and condition of the pipe.

Figure 25: The origin of this corrugated plastic pipe was determined to be a roof leader from the house up the hill.

Section 2 of the field sheet also asks if the outfall is submerged in water or obstructed by sediment and the amount of flow, if present. Figure 28 provides some photos that illustrate how to characterize relative submergence, deposition and flow at outfalls. If no flow is observed at the outfall, you can skip the next two sections of the ORI field sheet and continue with Section 5.

Section 2: Outfall Description

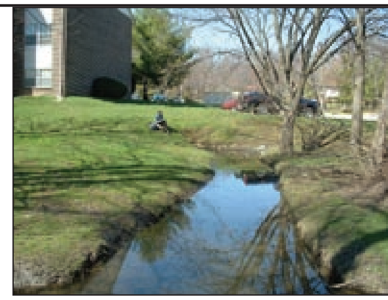
LOCATION	MATERIAL	SHAPE		DIMENSIONS (IN.)	SUBMERGED
☐ **Closed Pipe**	☐ RCP ☐ CMP ☐ PVC ☐ HDPE ☐ Steel ☐ Other: ________	☐ Circular ☐ Eliptical ☐ Box ☐ Other: _____	☐ Single ☐ Double ☐ Triple ☐ Other: _____	Diameter/Dimensions: ____________________	In Water: ☐ No ☐ Partially ☐ Fully With Sediment: ☐ No ☐ Partially ☐ Fully
☐ **Open drainage**	☐ Concrete ☐ Earthen ☐ rip-rap ☐ Other: _____	☐ Trapezoid ☐ Parabolic ☐ Other: _____		Depth: _____ Top Width: _____ Bottom Width: _____	
☐ **In-Stream**	**(applicable when collecting samples)**				
Flow Present?	☐ Yes ☐ No	***If No, Skip to Section 5***			
Flow Description (If present)	☐ Trickle ☐ Moderate ☐ Substantial				

Figure 26: Section 2 of the ORI Field Sheet

Figure 27: Measuring Outfall Diameter

Submerged: More than ½ below water

Partially submerged: Bottom is below water



Fully submerged: Can't see outfall

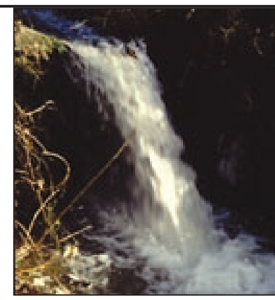
Outfall fully submerged by debris

Fully submerged from downstream trees trapping debris

Partially submerged by leaf debris "back water"

Trickle Flow: Very narrow stream of water

Moderate Flow: Steady stream, but very shallow depth



Significant flow (Source is a fire hydrant discharge)

Figure 28: Characterizing Submersion and Flow

11.6 ORI Section 3 - Quantitative Characterization for Flowing Outfalls

This section of the ORI records direct measurements of **flowing outfalls**, such as flow, temperature, pH and ammonia (Figure 29). If desired, additional water quality parameters can be added to this section. Chapter 12 discusses the range of water quality parameters that can be used.

Field crews measure the rate of flow using one of two techniques. The first technique simply records the time it takes to fill a container of a known volume, such as a one liter sample bottle. In the second technique,

Section 3: Quantitative Characterization

FIELD DATA FOR FLOWING OUTFALLS				
PARAMETER		RESULT	UNIT	EQUIPMENT
☐Flow #1	Volume		Liter	Bottle
	Time to fill		Sec	
☐Flow #2	Flow depth		In	Tape measure
	Flow width	____’ ____”	Ft, In	Tape measure
	Measured length	____’ ____”	Ft, In	Tape measure
	Time of travel		S	Stop watch
Temperature			°F	Thermometer
pH			pH Units	Test strip/Probe
Ammonia			mg/L	Test strip

Figure 29: Section 3 of the ORI Field Sheet

the crew measures the velocity of flow, and multiplies it by the estimated cross sectional area of the flow.

To use the flow volume technique, it may be necessary to use a “homemade” container to capture flow, such as a cut out plastic milk container that is marked to show a one liter volume. The shape and flexibility of plastic containers allows crews to capture relatively flat and shallow flow (Figure 30). The flow volume is determined as the volume of flow captured in the container per unit time.

The second technique measures flow rate based on velocity and cross sectional area, and is preferred for larger discharges where containers are too small to effectively capture the flow (Figure 31). The crew measures and marks off a fixed flow length (usually about five feet), crumbles leaves or other light material, and drops them into the discharge (crews can also carry peanuts or ping pong balls to use). The crew then measures the time it takes the marker to travel across the length. The velocity of flow is computed as the length of the flow path (in feet) divided by the travel time (in seconds). Next, the cross-sectional flow area is measured by taking multiple readings of the depth and width of flow. Lastly, cross-sectional area (in square feet) is multiplied by flow velocity (feet/second) to calculate the flow rate (in cubic feet/second).

Crews may also want to measure the quality of the discharge using relatively inexpensive probes and test strips (e.g., water temperature, pH, and ammonia). The choice of which indicator parameters to measure is usually governed by the overall IDDE monitoring framework developed by the community. Some communities have used probes or test strips to measure additional indicators such as conductivity, chlorine, and hardness. Research by Pitt (for this project) suggests that probes by Horiba for pH and conductivity are the most reliable and

Figure 30: Measuring flow (as volume per time)

accurate, and that test strips have limited value.

When probes or test strips are used, measurements should be made from a sample bottle that contains flow captured from the outfall. The exact measurement recorded by the field probe should be recorded in Section 3 of the field sheet. Some interpolation may be required for test strips, but do not interpolate further than the mid-range between two color points.

11.7 ORI Section 4 – Physical Indicators for Flowing Outfalls Only

This section of the ORI field sheet records data about four sensory indicators associated with **flowing outfalls**—odor, color, turbidity and floatables (Figure 32). Sensory indicators can be detected by smell or sight, and require no measurement equipment. Sensory indicators do not always reliably predict illicit discharge, since the senses can be fooled, and may result in a "false negative" (i.e., sensory indicators fail to detect an illicit discharge when one is actually present). Sensory indicators are important, however, in detecting the most severe or obvious discharges. Section 4 of the field sheet asks whether the sensory indicator is present, and if so, what is its severity, on a scale of one to three.

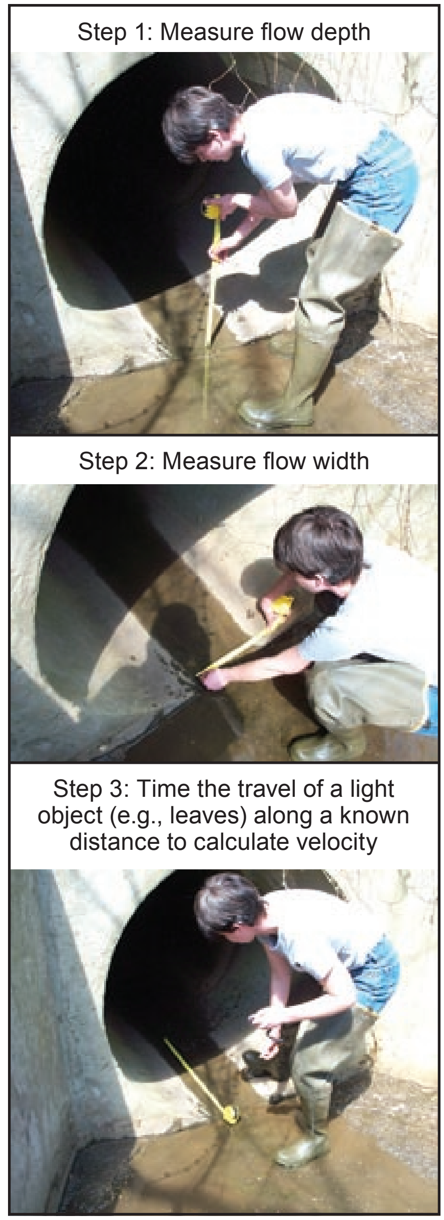


Figure 31: Measuring flow (as velocity times cross-sectional area)

Section 4: Physical Indicators for Flowing Outfalls Only
Are Any Physical Indicators Present in the flow? ☐ Yes ☐ No *(If No, Skip to Section 5)*

INDICATOR	CHECK if Present	DESCRIPTION	RELATIVE SEVERITY INDEX M(1-3)		
Odor	☐	☐ Sewage ☐ Rancid/sour ☐ Petroleum/gas ☐ Sulfide ☐ Other:	☐ 1 – Faint	☐ 2 – Easily detected	☐ 3 – Noticeable from a distance
Color	☐	☐ Clear ☐ Brown ☐ Gray ☐ Yellow ☐ Green ☐ Orange ☐ Red ☐Other:	☐ 1 – Faint colors in sample bottle	☐ 2 – Clearly visible in sample bottle	☐ 3 – Clearly visible in outfall flow
Turbidity	☐	See severity	☐ 1 – Slight cloudiness	☐ 2 – Cloudy	☐ 3 – Opaque
Floatables -Does Not Include Trash!!	☐	☐ Sewage (Toilet Paper, etc.) ☐ Suds ☐ Petroleum (oil sheen) ☐ Other:	☐ 1 – Few/slight; origin not obvious	☐ 2 – Some; indications of origin (e.g., possible suds or oil sheen)	☐ 3 - Some; origin clear (e.g., obvious oil sheen, suds, or floating sanitary materials)

Figure 32: Section 4 of the ORI Field Sheet

Odor

Section 4 asks for a description of any odors that emanate from the outfall and an associated severity score. Since noses have different sensitivities, the entire field crew should reach consensus about whether an odor is present and how severe it is. A severity score of one means that the odor is faint or the crew cannot agree on its presence or origin. A score of two indicates a moderate odor within the pipe. A score of three is assigned if the odor is so strong that the crew smells it a considerable distance away from the outfall.

TIP

Make sure the origin of the odor is the outfall. Sometimes shrubs, trash or carrion, or even the spray paint used to mark the outfall can confuse the noses of field crews.

Color

The color of the discharge, which can be clear, slightly tinted, or intense is recorded next. Color can be quantitatively analyzed in the lab, but the ORI only asks for a visual assessment of the discharge color and its intensity. The best way to measure color is to collect the discharge in a clear sample bottle and hold it up to the light (Figure 33). Field crews should also look for downstream plumes of color that appear to be associated with the outfall. Figure 34 illustrates the spectrum of colors that may be encountered during an ORI survey, and offers insight on how to rank the relative intensity or strength of discharge color. Color often helps identify industrial discharges; Appendix K provides guidance on colors often associated with specific industrial operations.

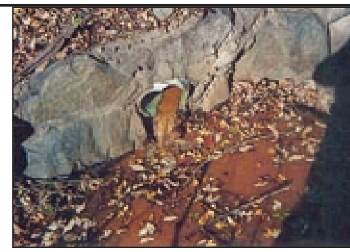
Turbidity

The ORI asks for a visual estimate of the turbidity of the discharge, which is a measure of the cloudiness of the water. Like color, turbidity is best observed in a clear sample bottle, and can be quantitatively measured using field probes. Crews should also look for turbidity in the plunge pool below the outfall, and note any downstream turbidity plumes that appear to be related to the outfall. Field crews can sometimes confuse turbidity with color, which are related but are not the same. Remember, turbidity is a measure of how easily light can penetrate through the sample bottle, whereas color is defined by the tint or intensity of the color observed. Figure 34 provides some examples of how to distinguish turbidity from color, and how to rank its relative severity.

Figure 33: Using a sample bottle to estimate color and turbidity

Color: Brown; Severity: 2
Turbidity Severity: 2

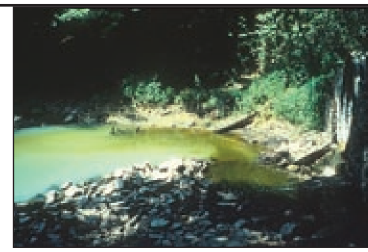
Color: Blue-green; Severity: 3
Turbidity Severity: 2



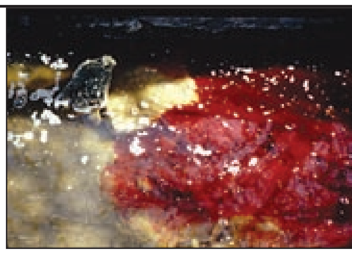
Highly Turbid Discharge
Color: Brown; Severity: 3
Turbidity Severity: 3

Sewage Discharge
Color: 3
Turbidity: 3

Paint
Color: White; Severity: 3
Turbidity: 3



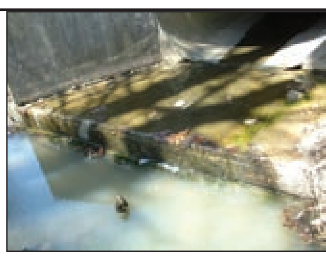
Industrial Discharge
Color: Green; Severity: 3
Turbidity Severity: 3



Blood
Color: Red; Severity: 3
Turbidity Severity: None

Failing Septic System:
Turbidity Severity: 3

Turbidity in Downstream Plume
Turbidity Severity: 2
(also confirm with sample bottle)



High Turbidity in Pool
Turbidity Severity: 2
(Confirm with sample bottle)

Iron Floc
Color: Reddish Orange; Severity: 3
(Often associated with a natural source)

Slight Turbidity
Turbidity: 1
(Difficult to interpret this observation; May be natural or an illicit discharge)

Construction Site Discharge
Turbidity Severity: 3

Discharge of Rinse from Floor Sanding (Found during wet weather)
Turbidity Severity: 3

Figure 34: Interpreting Color and Turbidity

Floatables

The last sensory indicator is the presence of any floatable materials in the discharge or the plunge pool below. Sewage, oil sheen, and suds are all examples of floatable indicators; trash and debris are generally not in the context of the ORI. The presence of floatable materials is determined visually, and some guidelines for ranking their severity are provided in Figure 35, and described below.

If you think the floatable is sewage, you should automatically assign it a severity score of three since no other source looks quite like it. Surface oil sheens are ranked based on their thickness and coverage. In some cases, surface sheens may not be related to oil discharges, but instead are created by in-stream processes, such as shown in Figure 36. A thick or swirling sheen associated with a petroleum-like odor may be diagnostic of an oil discharge.

Suds are rated based on their foaminess and staying power. A severity score of three is designated for thick foam that travels many feet before breaking up. Suds that break up quickly may simply reflect water turbulence, and do not necessarily have an illicit origin. Indeed, some streams have naturally occurring foams due to the decay of organic matter. On the other hand, suds that are accompanied by a strong organic or sewage-like odor may indicate a sanitary sewer leak or connection. If the suds have a fragrant odor, they may indicate the presence of laundry water or similar wash waters.

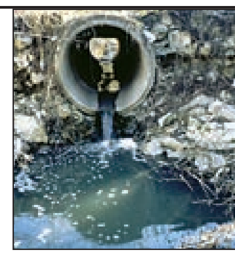
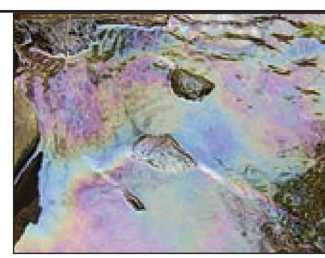
SUDS		
 Natural Foam Note: Suds only associated with high flows at the “drop off” Do not record.	 Low Severity Suds Rating: 1 Note: Suds do not appear to travel; very thin foam layer	 High severity suds Rating: 3 Sewage
OIL SHEENS		
 Low Severity Oil Sheen Rating: 1	 Moderate Severity Oil Sheen Rating: 2	 High Severity Oil Film Rating: 3

Figure 35: Determining the Severity of Floatables

Figure 36: Synthetic versus Natural Sheen (a) Sheen from bacteria such as iron floc forms a sheet-like film that cracks if disturbed (b) Synthetic oil forms a swirling pattern

11.8 ORI Section 5 - Physical Indicators for Both Flowing and Non-Flowing Outfalls

Section 5 of the ORI field sheet examines physical indicators found at both **flowing and non-flowing** outfalls that can reveal the impact of past discharges (Figure 37). Physical indicators include outfall damage, outfall deposits or stains, abnormal vegetation growth, poor pool quality, and benthic growth on pipe surfaces. Common examples of physical indicators are portrayed in Figures 38 and 39. Many of these physical conditions can indicate that an intermittent or transitory discharge has occurred in the past, even if the pipe is not currently flowing. Physical indicators are not ranked according to their severity, because they are often subtle, difficult to interpret and could be caused by other sources. Still, physical indicators can provide strong clues about the discharge history of a storm water outfall, particularly if other discharge indicators accompany them.

Section 5: Physical Indicators for Both Flowing and Non-Flowing Outfalls
Are physical indicators that are not related to flow present? ☐ Yes ☐ No *(If No, Skip to Section 6)*

INDICATOR	CHECK if Present	DESCRIPTION	COMMENTS
Outfall Damage	☐	☐ Spalling, Cracking or Chipping ☐ Peeling Paint ☐ Corrosion	
Deposits/Stains	☐	☐ Oily ☐ Flow Line ☐ Paint ☐ Other:	
Abnormal Vegetation	☐	☐ Excessive ☐ Inhibited	
Poor pool quality	☐	☐ Odors ☐ Colors ☐ Floatables ☐ Oil Sheen ☐ Suds ☐ Excessive Algae ☐ Other:	
Pipe benthic growth	☐	☐ Brown ☐ Orange ☐ Green ☐ Other:	

Figure 37: Section 5 of the ORI Field Sheet

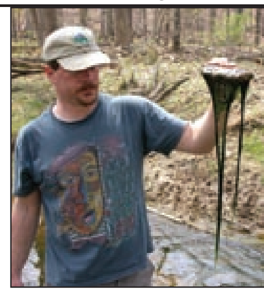
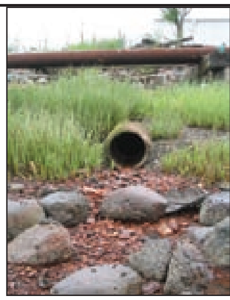
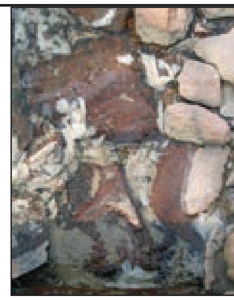
 Bacterial growth at this outfall indicates nutrient enrichment and a likely sewage source.	 This bright red bacterial growth often indicates high manganese and iron concentrations. Surprisingly, it is not typically associated with illicit discharges.	 Sporalitis filamentous bacteria, also known as “sewage fungus” can be used to track down sanitary sewer leaks.
 Algal mats on lakes indicate eutrophication. Several sources can cause this problem. Investigate potential illicit sources.	 Illicit discharges or excessive nutrient application can lead to extreme algal growth on stream beds.	 The drainage to this outfall most likely has a high nutrient concentration. The cause may be an illicit discharge, but may be excessive use of lawn chemicals.
	 This brownish algae indicates an elevated nutrient level.	

Figure 38: Interpreting Benthic and Other Biotic Indicators



Reddish staining on the rocks below this outfall indicate high iron concentrations.



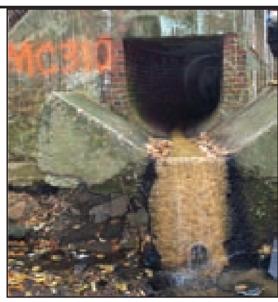
Toilet paper directly below the storm drain outlet.

Watershed Protection??

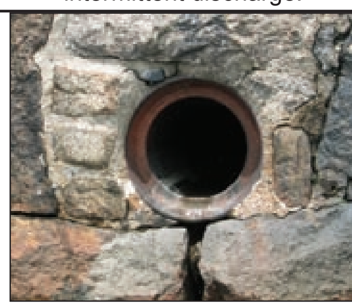
Trash is not an indicator of illicit discharges, but should be noted.

Staining at the base of the outfall may indicate a persistent, intermittent discharge.

Excessive vegetation may indicate enriched flows associated with sewage.



Brownish stain of unclear origin. May be from degradation of the brick infrastructure.



Cracked rock below the outfall may indicate an intermittent discharge.

Poor pool quality. Consider sampling from the pool to determine origin.

Figure 39: Typical Findings at Both Flowing and Non-Flowing Outfalls

11.9 ORI Sections 6-8 - Initial Outfall Designation and Actions

The last three sections of the ORI field sheet are where the crew designates the illicit discharge severity of the outfall and recommends appropriate management and monitoring actions (Figure 40). A discharge rating is designated as obvious, suspect, potential or unlikely, depending on the number and severity of discharge indicators checked in preceding sections.

It is important to understand that the ORI designation is only an initial determination of discharge potential. A more certain determination as to whether it actually is an illicit discharge is made using a more sophisticated indicator monitoring method. Nevertheless, the ORI outfall designation gives program managers a better understanding of the distribution and severity of illicit discharge problems within a subwatershed.

Section 7 of the ORI field sheet records whether indicator samples were collected for laboratory analysis, or whether an intermittent flow trap was installed (e.g., an optical brightener trap or caulk dam described in Chapter 13). Field crews should record whether the sample was taken from a pool or directly from the outfall, and the type of intermittent flow trap used, if any. This section can also be used to recommend follow-up sampling, if the crew does not carry sample bottles or traps during the survey.

The last section of the ORI field sheet is used to note any unusual conditions near the outfall such as dumping, pipe failure, bank erosion or maintenance needs. While these maintenance conditions are not directly related to illicit discharge detection, they often are of interest to other agencies and utilities that maintain infrastructure.

11.10 Customizing the ORI for a Community

The ORI method is meant to be adaptable, and should be modified to reflect local conditions and field experience. Some indicators can be dropped, added or modified in the ORI form. This section looks at four of the most common adaptations to the ORI:

- Open Channels
- Submerged/Tidally Influenced Outfalls
- Cold Climates
- Use of Biological Indicators

In each case, it may be desirable to revise the ORI field sheet to collect data reflecting these conditions.

Open Channels

Field crews face special challenges in more rural communities that have extensive open channel drainage. The ditches and channels serve as the primary storm water conveyance system, and may lack storm drain and sewer pipes. The open channel network is often very long with only a few obvious outfalls that are located far apart. While the network can have illicit discharges from septic systems, they can typically only be detected in the ORI if a straight pipe is found. Some adaptations for open channel systems are suggested in Table 33.

Section 6: Overall Outfall Characterization

☐ Unlikely	☐ Potential (presence of two or more indicators)	☐ Suspect (one or more indicators with a severity of 3)	☐ Obvious

Section 7: Data Collection

1. Sample for the lab?	☐ Yes	☐ No	
2. If yes, collected from:	☐ Flow	☐ Pool	
3. Intermittent flow trap set?	☐ Yes	☐ No	If Yes, type: ☐ OBM ☐ Caulk dam

Section 8: Any Non-Illicit Discharge Concerns (e.g., trash or needed infrastructure repairs)?

Figure 40: Sections 6-8 of the ORI Field Sheet

Submerged/Tidally Influenced Outfalls

The ORI can be problematic in coastal communities where outfalls are located along the waterfront and may be submerged at high tide. The ORI methods need to be significantly changed to address these constraints. Often, outfalls are initially located from offshore using canoes or boats, and then traced landward to the first manhole that is not tidally influenced. Field crews then access the storm drain pipe at the manhole and measure whatever indicators they can observe in the confined and dimly lit space. Table 33 recommends strategies to sample outfalls in the challenging environment of coastal communities.

Winter and Ice

Ice can be used as a discharge indicator in northern regions when ice forms in streams and pipes during the winter months (Figure 41). Because ice lasts for many weeks, and most illicit discharges are warm, astute field crews can interpret outfall history from ice melting patterns along pipes and streams. For example, exaggerated melting at a frozen or flowing outfall may indicate warm water from sewage or industrial discharge. Be careful, because groundwater is warm enough to cause some melting at below freezing temperatures. Also, ice acts like an intermittent flow trap, and literally freezes these discharges. Crews should also look for these traps to find any discolored ice within the pipe or below the outfall.

A final winter indicator is "rime ice," which forms when steam freezes. This beautiful ice formation is actually a good indicator of sewage or other relatively hot discharge that causes steam to form (Figure 41).

Biological Indicators

The diversity and pollution tolerance of various species of aquatic life are widely used as an indicator of overall stream health, and has sometimes been used to detect illicit discharges. One notable example is the presence of the red-eared slider turtle, which is used in Galveston, Texas to find sewage discharges, as they have a propensity for the nutrient rich waters associated with sewage (Figure 42).

Table 33: Special Considerations for Open Channels/Submerged Outfalls	
OPEN CHANNELS	
Challenge	**Suggested Modification**
Too many miles of channel to walk	Stop walking at a given channel size or drainage area
Difficulty marking them	Mark on concrete or adjacent to earth channel
Interpreting physical indicators	For open channels with mild physical indicators, progress up the system to investigate further.
SUBMERGED/TIDALLY INFLUENCED OUTFALLS	
Challenge	**Suggested Modification**
Access for ORI – Tidal Influence	Access during low tide
Access for ORI – Always submerged	Access by boat or by shore walking
Interpreting physical indicators	For outfalls with mild physical indicators, also inspect from the nearest manhole that is not influenced by tides
Sampling (if necessary)	Sample "up pipe"

Figure 41: Cold climate indicators of illicit discharges

Figure 42: One biological indicator is this red-eared slider turtle

11.11 Interpreting ORI Data

The ORI generates a wealth of information that can provide managers with valuable insights about their illicit discharge problems, if the data are managed and analyzed effectively. The ORI can quickly define whether problems are clustered in a particular area or spread across the community. This section presents a series of methods to compile, organize and interpret ORI data, including:

1. Basic Data Management and Quality Control
2. Outfall Classification
3. Simple Suspect Outfall Counts
4. Mapping ORI Data
5. Subwatershed and Reach Screening
6. Characterizing IDDE Problems at the Community Level

The level of detail for each analysis method should be calibrated to local resources, program goals, and the actual discharge problems discovered in the stream corridor. In general, the most common conditions and problems will shape your initial monitoring strategy, which prioritizes the subwatersheds or reaches that will be targeted for more intensive investigations.

Program managers should analyze ORI data well before every stream mile is walked in the community, and use initial results to modify field methods. For example, if initial results reveal widespread potential problems, program managers may want to add more indicator monitoring to the ORI to track down individual discharge sources (see Chapter 12). Alternatively, if the same kind of discharge problem is repeatedly found, it may be wise to investigate whether there is a common source or activity generating it (e.g., high turbidity observed at many flowing outfalls as a result of equipment washing at active construction sites).

Basic Data Management and Quality Control

The ORI produces an enormous amount of raw data to characterize outfall conditions. It is not uncommon to compile dozens of individual ORI forms in a single subwatershed. The challenge is to devise a system to organize, process, and translate this data into simpler outputs and formats that can guide illicit discharge elimination efforts. The system starts with effective quality control procedures in the field.

Field sheets should be managed using either a three-ring binder or a clipboard. A small field binder offers the ability to quickly flip back and forth among the outfall forms. Authorization letters, emergency contact lists, and extra forms can also be tucked inside.

At the end of each day, field crews should regroup at a predetermined location to compare notes. The crew leader should confirm that all survey reaches and outfalls of interest have been surveyed, discuss initial findings, and deal with any logistical problems. This is also a good time to check whether field crews are measuring and recording outfall data in the same way, and are consistent in what they are (or are not) recording. Crew leaders should also use this time to review field forms for accuracy and thoroughness. Illegible handwriting should be neatened and details added to notes and any sketches. The crew leader should also organize the forms together into a single master binder or folder for future analysis.

Once crews return from the field, data should be entered into a spreadsheet or database. A Microsoft Access database is provided with this Manual as part of Appendix D (Figure 43), and is supplied on a compact disc with each hard copy. It can also be downloaded with Appendix D from http://www.stormwatercenter.net. Information stored in this database can easily be imported into a GIS for mapping purposes. The GIS can generate its own database table that allows the user to create subwatershed maps showing outfall characteristics and problem areas.

Once data entry is complete, be sure to check the quality of the data. This can be done quickly by randomly spot-checking 10% of the entered data. For example, if 50 field sheets were completed, check five of the spreadsheet or database entries. When transferring data into GIS, quality control maps that display labeled problem outfalls should be created. Each survey crew is responsible for reviewing the accuracy of these maps.

Outfall Classification

A simple outfall designation system has been developed to summarize the discharge potential for individual ORI field sheets. Table 34 presents the four outfall designations that can be made.

Table 34: Outfall Designation System Using ORI Data

Designation	Description
1. Obvious Discharge	Outfalls where there is an illicit discharge that doesn't even require sample collection for confirmation
2. Suspect Discharge	Flowing outfalls with high severity on one or more physical indicators
3. Potential Discharge	Flowing or non-flowing outfalls with presence of two or more physical indicators
4. Unlikely Discharge	Non-flowing outfalls with no physical indicators of an illicit discharge

Simple Suspect Outfall Counts

The first priority is to count the frequency of each outfall designation in the subwatershed or the community as a whole. This simple screening analysis counts the number of problem outfalls per stream mile (i.e., the sum of outfalls designated as having potential, suspected or obvious illicit discharge potential). The density of problem outfalls per stream mile is an important metric to target and screen subwatersheds.

Based on problem outfall counts, program managers may discover that a particular monitoring strategy may not apply to the community. For example, if few problem outfalls are found, an extensive follow-up monitoring program may not be needed, so that program resources can be shifted to pollution hotlines to report and control transitory discharges such as illegal dumping. The key point of this method is to avoid getting lost in the raw data, but look instead to find patterns that can shape a cost-effective IDDE program.

Mapping ORI Data

Maps are an excellent way to portray outfall data. If a GIS system is linked to the ORI database, maps that show the spatial distribution of problem outfalls, locations of dumping, and overall reach conditions can be easily generated. Moreover, GIS provides flexibility that allows for rapid updates to maps as new data are collected and compiled. The sophistication and detail of maps will depend on the initial findings, program goals, available software, and GIS capability.

Subwatershed maps are also an effective and important communication and education tool to engage stakeholders (e.g., public officials, businesses and community residents), as they can visually depict reach quality and the location of problem outfalls. The key point to remember is that maps are tools for understanding data. Try to map with a purpose in mind. A large number of cluttered maps may only confuse, while a smaller number with select data may stimulate ideas for the follow-up monitoring strategy.

Subwatershed and Survey Reach Screening

Problem outfall metrics are particularly valuable to screen or rank priority subwatersheds or survey reaches. The basic approach is simple: select the outfall metrics that are most important to IDDE program goals, and then see how individual subwatersheds or reaches rank in the process. This screening process can help determine which subwatersheds will be priorities for initial follow-up monitoring efforts. When feasible, the screening process should incorporate non-ORI data, such as existing dry weather water quality data, citizen complaints, permitted facilities, and habitat or biological stream indicators.

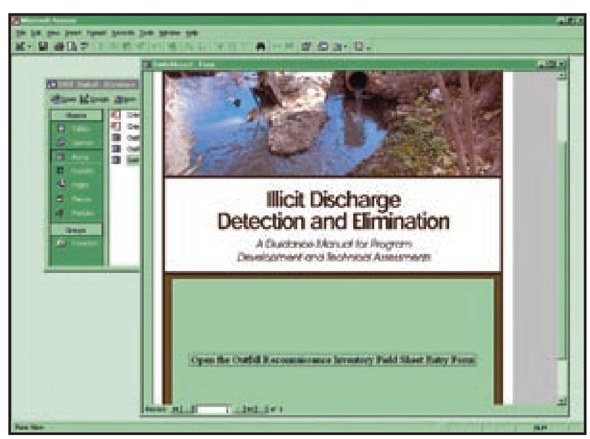


Figure 43: Sample screen from ORI Microsoft Access database

An example of how outfall metrics can screen subwatersheds is provided in Table 35. In this hypothetical example, four metrics were used to screen three subwatersheds within a community: number of suspect discharges, subwatershed population as a percent of the total community, number of industrial discharge permits, and number of outfalls per stream mile. Given these screening criteria, subwatershed C was selected for the next phase of detailed investigation.

Characterizing the IDDE Problem at the Community Level

ORI data should be used to continuously revisit and revise the IDDE program as more is learned about the nature and distribution of illicit discharge problems in the community. For example, ORI discharge designation should be compared against illicit discharge potential (IDP) predictions made during the original desktop analysis (Chapter 5) to refine discharge screening factors, and formulate new monitoring strategies.

In general, community illicit discharge problem can be characterized as minimal, clustered, or severe (Table 36). In the minimal scenario, very few and scattered problems exist; in the clustered scenario, problems are located in isolated subwatersheds; and in the severe scenario, problems are widespread.

Table 35: An Example of ORI Data Being Used to Compare Across Subwatersheds

	# of suspect discharges	Population as % of total community	# of industrial discharge permits	# of outfalls per stream/ conveyance mile
Subwatershed A	2	30	4	6
Subwatershed B	1	10	0	3
Subwatershed C	8	60	2	12

Table 36: Using Stream and ORI Data to Categorize IDDE Problems

Extent	ORI Support Data
Minimal	• Less than 10% of total outfalls are flowing • Less than 20% of total outfalls with obvious, suspect or potential designation
Clustered	• Two thirds of the flowing outfalls are located within one third of the subwatersheds • More than 20% of the communities subwatersheds have greater than 20% of outfalls with obvious, suspect or potential designation
Severe	• More than 10% of total outfalls are flowing • More than 50% of total outfalls with obvious, suspect or potential designation • More than 20% of total outfalls with obvious or suspect designation

11.12 Budgeting and Scoping the ORI

Many different factors come into play when budgeting and scoping an ORI survey: equipment needs, crew size and the stream miles that must be covered. This section presents some simple rules of thumb for ORI budgeting.

Equipment costs for the ORI are relatively minor, with basic equipment to outfit one team of three people totaling about $800 (Table 37). This cost includes one-time expenses to acquire waders, a digital camera and a GPS unit, as well as disposable supplies.

The majority of the budget for an ORI is for staffing the desktop analysis, field crews and data analysis. Field crews can consist of two or three members, and cover about two to three miles of stream (or open channel) per day. Three staff-days should be allocated for pre- and post-field work for each day spent in the field.

Table 38 presents example costs for two hypothetical communities that conduct the ORI. Community A has 10 miles of open channel to investigate, while Community B has 20 miles. In addition, Community A has fewer staff resources available and therefore uses two-person field crews, while Community B uses three-person field crews. Total costs are presented as annual costs, assuming that each community is able to conduct the ORI for all miles in one year.

Table 37: Typical Field Equipment Costs for the ORI

Item	Cost
100 Latex Disposable Gloves	$25
5 Wide Mouth Sample Bottles (1 Liter)	$20
Large Cooler	$25
3 Pairs of Waders	$150
Digital Camera	$200
20 Cans of Spray Paint	$50
Test Kits or Probes	$100-$500
1 GPS Unit	$150
1 Measuring Tape	$10
1 First Aid Kit	$30
Flashlights, Batteries, Labeling tape, Clipboards	$25
Total	**$785-$1185**

Table 38: Example ORI Costs		
Item	**Community A**	**Community B**
Field Equipment[1]	$700	$785
Staff Field Time[2]	$2,000	$6,000
Staff Office Time[3]	$3,000	$6,000
Total	**$5,700**	**$12,785**

[1] From Table 44
[2] Assumes $25/hour salary (2 person teams in Community A and three- person teams in Community B) and two miles of stream per day.
[3] Assumes three staff days for each day in field.

Chapter 12: Indicator Monitoring

Indicator monitoring is used to confirm illicit discharges, and provide clues about their source or origin. In addition, indicator monitoring can measure improvements in water quality during dry weather flow as a result of the local IDDE program. This chapter reviews the suite of chemical indicator parameters that can identify illicit discharges, and provides guidance on how to collect, analyze and interpret each parameter.

Program managers have a wide range of indicator parameters and analytical methods to choose from when determining the presence and source of illicit discharges. The exact combination of indicator parameters and methods selected for a community is often unique. This chapter recommends some general approaches for communities that are just starting an indicator monitoring program or are looking for simple, cost-effective, and safe alternatives to their current program.

Organization of the Chapter

This chapter provides technical support to implement the basic IDDE monitoring framework shown in Figure 44, and is organized into eight sections as follows:

1. Review of indicator parameters
2. Sample collection considerations
3. Methods to analyze samples
4. Methods to distinguish flow types
5. Chemical library
6. Special monitoring methods for intermittent and transitory discharges
7. In-stream dry weather monitoring
8. Costs for indicator monitoring

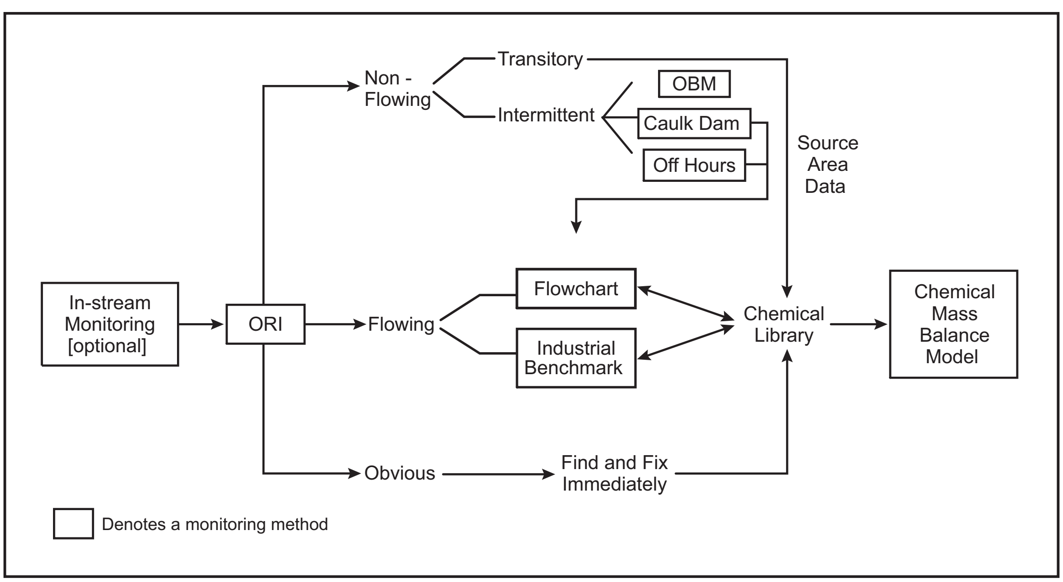


Figure 44: IDDE Monitoring Framework

Program managers developing an indicator monitoring program need a solid background in basic water chemistry, and field and laboratory methods. This chapter describes the major factors to consider when designing an indicator monitoring program for illicit discharges, and assumes some familiarity with water quality sampling and analysis protocols.

Indicator monitoring terminology can be confusing, so some of the basic terms are defined as they specifically relate to illicit discharge control. Some of the common terms introduced in this Chapter are defined below:

Chemical Library: A database and statistical summary of the chemical characteristics, or "fingerprint" of various discharge flow types in a community (e.g., sewage, wash water, shallow groundwater, tap water, irrigation water, and liquid wastes). The library is assembled by collecting and analyzing representative samples from the source of each major flow type in the community.

Chemical Mass Balance Model (CMBM): A computer model that uses flow characteristics from a chemical library file of flow types to estimate the most likely source components that contribute to dry weather flows.

Detergents: Commercial or retail products used to wash clothing. Presence of detergents in flow is usually measured as surfactants or fluorescence.

False Negative: An indicator sample that identifies a discharge as uncontaminated when it actually is contaminated.

False Positive: An indicator sample that identifies a discharge as contaminated when it is not.

Flow Chart Method: The use of four indicators (surfactants, ammonia, potassium, and fluoride) to identify illicit discharges.

Indicator Parameter: A water quality measurement that can be used to identify a specific discharge flow type, or discriminate between different flow types.

Monitoring: A strategy of sample collection and laboratory analysis to detect and characterize illicit discharges.

Optical Brightener Monitoring (OBM) Traps: Traps that use absorbent pads to capture dry weather flows, which can later be observed under a fluorescent light to determine if detergents using optical brighteners were present.

Reagent: A chemical added to a sample to create a reaction that enables the measurement of a target chemical parameter.

Sampling: Water sample collection from an outfall, pipe or stream, along with techniques to store and preserve them for subsequent laboratory analysis.

Surfactants: The main component of commercial detergents that detaches dirt from the clothing. The actual concentration of surfactants is much lower than the concentration of detergent, but analytical methods that measure surfactants are often referred to as "detergents." To avoid confusion, this chapter expresses the concentration of surfactants as "detergents as surfactants."

12.1 Indicator Parameters to Identify Illicit Discharges

At least fifteen different indicator parameters can confirm the presence or origin of an illicit discharge. These parameters are discussed in detail in Appendix F and include:

- Ammonia
- Boron
- Chlorine
- Color
- Conductivity
- Detergents
- *E. coli*, enterococi, and total coliform
- Fluorescence
- Fluoride
- Hardness
- pH
- Potassium
- Surface Tension
- Surfactants
- Turbidity

In most cases, however, only a small subset of indicator parameters (e.g., three to five) is required to adequately characterize an illicit discharge. This section summarizes the different indicator parameters that have been used.

An ideal indicator parameter should reliably distinguish illicit discharges from clean water and provide clues about its sources. In addition, they should have the following characteristics:

- Have a significantly different concentration for major flow or discharge types
- Exhibit relatively small variations in concentrations within the same flow or discharge type
- Be conservative (i.e., concentration will not change over time due to physical, chemical or biological processes)
- Be easily measured with acceptable detection limits, accuracy, safety and repeatability.

No single indicator parameter is perfect, and each community must choose the combination of indicators that works best for their local conditions and discharge types. Table 39 summarizes the parameters that meet most of the indicator criteria, compares their ability to detect different flow types, and reviews some of the challenges that may be encountered when measuring them. More details on indicator parameters are provided in Appendix F.

Data in Table 39 are based on research by Pitt (Appendix E) conducted in Alabama, and therefore, the percentages shown to distinguish "hits" for specific flow types should be viewed as representative and may shift for each community. Also, in some instances, indicator parameters were "downgraded" to account for regional variation or dilution effects. For example, both color and turbidity are excellent indicators of sewage based on discharge fingerprint data, but both can vary regionally depending on the composition of clean groundwater.

Table 39: Indicator Parameters Used to Detect Illicit Discharges					
Parameter	Discharge Types It Can Detect				Laboratory/Analytical Challenges
	Sewage	Washwater	Tap Water	Industrial or Commercial Liquid Wastes	
Ammonia	●	⦿	○	⦿	Can change into other nitrogen forms as the flow travels to the outfall
Boron	⦿	⦿	○	N/A	
Chlorine	○	○	○	⦿	High chlorine demand in natural waters limits utility to flows with very high chlorine concentrations
Color	⦿	⦿	○	⦿	
Conductivity	⦿	⦿	○	⦿	Ineffective in saline waters
Detergents – Surfactants	●	●	○	⦿	Reagent is a hazardous waste
E. coli Enterococci Total Coliform	⦿	○	○	○	24-hour wait for results Need to modify standard monitoring protocols to measure high bacteria concentrations
Fluoride*	○	○	●	⦿	Reagent is a hazardous waste Exception for communities that do not fluoridate their tap water
Hardness	⦿	⦿	⦿	⦿	
pH	○	⦿	○	⦿	
Potassium	⦿	○	○	●	May need to use two separate analytical techniques, depending on the concentration
Turbidity	⦿	⦿	○	⦿	

● Can almost always (>80% of samples) distinguish this discharge from clean flow types (e.g., tap water or natural water). For tap water, can distinguish from natural water.
⦿ Can sometimes (>50% of samples) distinguish this discharge from clean flow types depending on regional characteristics, or can be helpful in combination with another parameter
○ Poor indicator. Cannot reliably detect illicit discharges, or cannot detect tap water
N/A: Data are not available to assess the utility of this parameter for this purpose.
Data sources: Pitt (this study)
*Fluoride is a poor indicator when used as a single parameter, but when combined with additional parameters (such as detergents, ammonia and potassium), it can almost always distinguish between sewage and washwater.

12.2 Sample Collection Considerations

Sample collection is an important aspect of an IDDE program. Program managers need to be well informed about the key facets of sampling such as sample handling, QA/QC, and safety. The guidance in this section is limited to an overview of sample collection considerations including: equipment needed for collecting samples, elements of sampling protocols, and general tips. Several useful documents are available that detail accepted water quality sampling protocols such as the following:

- Burton and Pitt (2002) - Stormwater Effects Handbook: A Toolbox for Watershed Managers, Scientists, and Engineers

- USGS National Field Manual for the Collection of Water-Quality Data http://water.usgs.gov/owq/FieldManual/
- *Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater* http://www.standardmethods.org/
- *EPA NPDES Stormwater Sampling Guidance Document* http://cfpub.epa.gov/npdes (Note: while this document is oriented towards wet weather sampling, there are still many sampling procedures that apply to dry weather sampling)

State environmental agencies are also a good resource to contact for recommended or required sampling protocols.

Equipment Needed for Field Sampling

The basic equipment needed to collect samples is presented in Table 40. Most sampling equipment is easily available for purchase from scientific supply companies and various retail stores.

Developing a Consistent Sample Collection Protocol

Samples should never be collected haphazardly. To get reliable, accurate, and defensible data, it is important to develop a consistent field sampling protocol to collect each indicator sample. A good field sampling protocol incorporates eight basic elements:

1. Where to collect samples
2. When to collect samples
3. Sample bottle preparation
4. Sample collection technique
5. Storage and preservation of samples
6. Sample labeling and chain of custody plan
7. Quality assurance/control samples
8. Safety considerations

Appendix G provides more detail on each monitoring element. Some communities already have established sampling protocols that are used for in-stream or wet weather sampling. In most cases these existing sampling protocols are sufficient to conduct illicit discharge sampling.

Tips for Collecting Illicit Discharge Samples

The following tips can improve the quality of your indicator monitoring program.

1. Remember to fill out an ORI field form at every outfall where samples are collected. The ORI form documents sample conditions, outfall characteristics and greatly aids in interpreting indicator monitoring data.
2. Most state water quality agencies have detailed guidance on sampling protocols. These resources should be consulted and the appropriate guidelines followed. Another useful guidance on developing a quality assurance plan is the "Volunteer Monitor's Guide to Quality Assurance Project Plans" (EPA, 1996).

Table 40: Equipment Needed for Sample Collection
• A cooler (to be kept in the vehicle) • Ice or "blue ice" (to be kept in the vehicle) • Permanent marker (for labeling the samples) • Labeling tape or pre-printed labels • Several dozen one-liter polyethylene plastic sample bottles • A "dipper," a measuring cup at the end of a long pole, to collect samples from outfalls that are hard to reach • Bacteria analysis sample bottles (if applicable), typically pre-cleaned 120mL sample bottles, to ensure against contamination

3. Sample in batches where feasible to cut down on field and mobilization time.

4. Avoid sampling lagged storm water flows by sampling at least 48 to 72 hours after runoff producing events.

5. It may be necessary to collect multiple samples at a single outfall if preservatives are going to be used. Preservatives are typically necessary when long hold times are required for samples before analysis occurs. Appendix G contains guidance on the required preservation and maximum allowable hold times for various parameters.

12.3 Methods to Analyze Indicator Samples

This section reviews methods to analyze indicator samples, and begins with a discussion of whether they should be analyzed in-house or sent to an independent contract lab. Next, recommended methods for analyzing indicator parameters are outlined, along with data on their comparative cost, safety, and accuracy. Lastly, tips are offered to improve an indicator monitoring program.

Analyzing Samples In-house vs. Contract Lab

Program managers need to decide whether to analyze samples in-house, or through an independent monitoring laboratory. The decision on which route to take is often based on the answers to the following questions:

- *What level of precision or accuracy is needed for the indicator parameter(s)?* Precise and accurate data are needed when indicator monitoring is used to legally document a violation or enforcement action. The lab setting is important, since the quality of the data may be challenged. Precise data are also needed for outfalls that have very large drainage areas. These discharges are often diluted by groundwater, so lab methods must be sensitive and have low detection limits to isolate illicit discharges that are masked or blended with other flow types. Accurate data are also needed for large outfalls since the cost and effort triggered by a false positive reading to track and isolate discharges in a large and complex drainage area is much greater.

- *How quickly are sampling results needed?* Fast results are essential if the community wants to respond instantly to problem outfalls. In this case, the capability to collect and analyze indicator samples in-house is desirable to provide quick response.

- *How much staff time and training is needed to support in-house analysis?* Local staff that perform lab analysis must be certified in laboratory safety, quality control and proper analytical procedures. Communities that do not expect to collect many indicator samples may want to utilize a contract lab to reduce staff training costs.

- *Does a safe environment exist to analyze samples and dispose of wastes?* A safe environment is needed for lab analysis including storage in a fireproof environment, eyewash stations, safety showers, fume hoods and ventilation. Lab workers should have standard safety equipment such as gloves, safety glasses and lab coats. Lastly, many of the recommended analytical methods create small quantities of hazardous wastes that need to be properly disposed. Program managers should carefully evaluate in-house work space to determine if a safe lab environment can be created.

- *What is the comparative cost for sample analysis in each option?* The initial up-front costs to use an independent laboratory are normally lower than those required to establish an in-house analysis capability. An in-house analysis capability normally becomes cost-effective when a community expects to analyze more than 100 indicator samples per year. Section 12.8 outlines some of the key budget factors to consider when making this decision, but program managers should always get bids from reputable and certified contract labs to determine analysis costs.

- *Are existing monitoring laboratories available in the community?* Cost savings are often realized if an existing wastewater treatment or drinking water lab can handle the sample analysis. These labs normally possess the equipment, instruments and trained staff to perform the water quality analyses for indicator parameters.

Considerations for In-house Analysis Capability

Three basic settings can be used to analyze indicator parameters in-house: direct field measurements, small office lab, and a more formal municipal lab. The choice of which in-house setting to use depends on the indicator parameters selected, the need for fast and accurate results and safety/disposal considerations.

In-Field Analysis – A few indicator parameters can be analyzed in the field with probes and other test equipment (Figure 45). While most field parameters can identify problem outfalls, they generally cannot distinguish the specific type of discharge. Some of the situations where in-field analysis[10] is best applied are:

- When a community elects to use one or two indicator parameters, such as ammonia and potassium, that can be measured fairly easily in the field

- When field crews measure indicator parameters to trace or isolate a discharge in a large storm drain pipe network, and need quick results to decide where to go next

Office Analysis – Many of the recommended indicator parameters can be analyzed in an informal "office" lab with the possible exception of surfactants and fluoride (Figure 46). The office analysis option makes sense in communities that have available and trained staff, and choose analytical methods that are safe and have few hazardous waste disposal issues. Another option is to use the office lab to conduct most indicator analyses, but send out fluoride and surfactant indicator samples to a contract lab.

> **TIP**
>
> The methodology for any bacteria analysis also has a waste disposal issue (e.g., biohazard). Check state guidance for appropriate disposal procedures.

[10] Some communities have had success with in-field analysis; however, it can be a challenging environment to conduct rapid and controlled chemical analysis. Therefore, it is generally recommended that the majority of analyses be conducted in a more controlled "lab" setting.

Formal Laboratory Setting – The ideal option in many communities is to use an existing municipal or university laboratory. Existing labs normally have systems in place to dispose of hazardous material, have room and facilities for storing samples, and are equipped with worker safety features. Be careful to craft a schedule that does not interfere with other lab activities.

When in-house analysis is used, program managers need to understand the basic analytical options, safety considerations, equipment needs and analysis costs for each analytical method used to measure indicator parameters. This understanding helps program managers choose what indicator parameters to collect and where they should be analyzed. Much of this information is detailed in Appendix F and summarized below.

Supplies and Equipment

The basic supplies needed to perform lab analysis are described in Table 41, and are available from several scientific equipment suppliers. In addition, reagents, disposable supplies and some specialized instruments may be needed, depending on the specific indicator parameters analyzed. For a partial list of suppliers, consult the Volunteer Stream Monitoring Manual (US EPA, 1997), which can be accessed at www.epa.gov/owow/monitoring/volunteer/stream/appendb.html. Table 42 summarizes the equipment needed for each analytical method.

Figure 45: Analyzing samples in the back of a truck

Figure 46: Office/lab set up in Fort Worth, TX

Table 41: Basic Lab Supplies	
Disposable Supplies • Deionized water (start with about 10 gallons, unless a reverse osmosis machine is available) • Nitric acid for acid wash (one or two gallons to start) **Safety** • Lab or surgical gloves • Lab coats • Safety glasses	**Glassware/Tools** • About two dozen each of 100 and 200 mL beakers • Two or three 100 mL graduated cylinders • Two or three tweezers • Pipettes to transfer samples in small quantities

Table 42: Analytical Methods Supplies Needed				
Indicator Parameter	**Specific Glassware**	**Equipment**	**Reagents or Kits**	**Unique Suppliers**
Ammonia	Sample Cells	Spectrophotometer or Colorimeter	Hach reagents for method 8155	www.hach.com
Boron	None	Spectrophotometer or Colorimeter	Hach reagents for method 10061	www.hach.com
Chlorine	None	Spectrophotometer or Colorimeter	Hach reagents for method 8021	www.hach.com
Color	None	None	Color Kit	www.hach.com
Conductivity	None	Horiba probe	Standards	www.horiba.com
Detergents - Surfactants (MBAS)	None	None	Chemets Detergents Test	www.chemetrics.com
E. Coli	None	Sealer Black Light Comparator	Colilert Reagent Quanti-Tray Sheets	IDEXX Corporation www.idexx.com
Fluorescence	Cuvettes	Fluorometer	None	Several
Fluoride	None	Spectrophotometer or Colorimeter	Hach reagents for method 8029	www.hach.com
Hardness	Erlenmeyer Flask	Burette and Stand or Digital Titrator	EDTA Cartridges or Reagent and Buffer Solution	www.hach.com
pH	None	Horiba Probe	Standards	www.horiba.com
Potassium	None	Horiba Probe	Standards	www.horiba.com
Potassium (Colorimetric)	None	Spectrophotometer or Colorimeter	Hach Reagents for method 8012	www.hach.com

Cost

Table 43 compares the per sample cost to analyze indicator parameters. In general, the per sample cost is fairly similar for most parameters, with the exception of bacteria analyses for *E. coli*, total coliform, or Enterococci. Reagents typically cost less than $2.00 per sample, and equipment purchases seldom exceed $1,000. The typical analysis time averages less than 10 minutes per sample. More information on budgeting indicator monitoring programs can be found in Section 12.8.

Table 43: Chemical Analysis Costs					
Parameter	Analysis Cost				
	Per Sample Costs				Approximate Initial Equipment Cost (Item)
	Disposable Supplies	Analysis Time (min/ sample)	Staff Cost (@$25/hr)	Total Cost Per Sample	
Ammonia	$1.81	25[3]	$10.42	$12.23	$950[4] (Colorimeter)
Boron	$0.50	20[3]	$8.33	$8.83	$950[4] (Colorimeter)
Chlorine	$0.60	5	$2.08	$2.68	$950[4] (Colorimeter)
Color	$0.52	1	$0.42	$0.94	$0
Conductivity	$0.65[2]	4[3]	$1.67	$2.32	$275 (Probe)
Detergents – Surfactants[1]	$3.15	7	$2.92	$6.07	$0
Enterococci, *E. Coli* or Total Coliform[1]	$6.75	7 (24 hour waiting time)	$2.92	$9.67	$4,000 (Sealer and Incubator)
Fluoride[1]	$0.68	3	$1.25	$1.93	$950[4] (Colorimeter)
Hardness	$1.72	5	$2.08	$3.80	$125 (Digital Titrator)
pH	$0.65[2]	3.5[3]	$1.46	$2.11	$250 (Probe)
Potassium (High Range)	$0.50[2]	5.5[3]	$2.29	$2.79	$250 (Probe)
Potassium (Low Range)	$1.00	5	$2.08	$3.08	$950[4] (Colorimeter)
Turbidity	$0.50[2]	6[3]	$2.50	$3.00	$850 (Turbiditimeter)

[1] Potentially high waste disposal cost for these parameters.
[2] The disposable supplies estimates are based on the use of standards to calibrate a probe or meter.
[3] Analysts can achieve significant economies of scale by analyzing these parameters in batches.
[4] Represents the cost of a colorimeter. The price of a spectrophotometer, which measures a wider range of parameters, is more than $2,500. This one-time cost can be shared among chlorine, fluoride, boron, potassium and ammonia.

Additional Tips for In-house Laboratory Analysis

The following tips can help program managers with in-house laboratory analysis decisions:

- Program managers may want to use both in-house analysis and contract labs to measure the full range of indicator parameters needed in a safe and cost-effective manner. In this case, a split sample analysis strategy is used, where some samples are sent to the contract lab, while others are analyzed in house.

- Remember to order enough basic lab supplies, because they are relatively cheap and having to constantly re-order supplies and wash glassware can be time-consuming. In addition, some scientific supply companies have minimum order amounts, below which additional shipping and handling is charged.
- Be careful to craft a sample analysis schedule that doesn't interfere with other lab operations, particularly if it is a municipal lab. With appropriate preservation, many samples can be stored for several weeks.

Considerations for Choosing a Contract Lab

When a community elects to send samples to an independent contract lab for analysis, it should investigate seven key factors:

1. Make sure that the lab is EPA-certified for the indicator parameters you choose. A state-by-state list of EPA certified labs for drinking water can be found at: http://www.epa.gov/safewater/privatewells/labs.html. State environmental agencies are also good resources to contact for pre-approved laboratories.
2. Choose a lab with a short turn-around time. Some Phase I communities had problems administering their programs because of long turn-around times from local labs (CWP, 2002). As a rule, a lab should be able to produce results within 48 hours.
3. Clearly specify the indicator parameter and analysis method you want, using the guidance in this manual or advice from a water quality expert.
4. Ensure that the maximum hold time for each indicator parameter exceeds the time it takes to ship samples to the lab for analysis.
5. Carefully review and understand the shipping and preservation instructions provided by the contract lab.
6. Look for labs that offer electronic reporting of sample results, which can greatly increase turn-around time, make data analysis easier, and improve response times.
7. Periodically check the lab's QA/QC procedures, which should include lab spikes, lab blanks, and split samples. The procedures for cleaning equipment and calibrating instruments should also be evaluated. These QA/QC procedures are described below.
    - *Lab spikes* – Samples of known concentration are prepared in the laboratory to determine the accuracy of instrument readings.
    - *Lab blanks* – Deionized water samples that have a known zero concentration are used to test methods, or in some methods to "zero" the instruments.
    - *Split samples* – Samples are divided into two separate samples at the laboratory for a comparative analysis. Any difference between the two sample results suggests the analysis method may not be repeatable.
    - *Equipment cleaning and instrument maintenance protocols* – Each lab should have specific and routine procedures to maintain equipment and clean glassware and tubing. These procedures should be clearly labeled on each piece of equipment.

- *Instrument calibration* – Depending on the method, instruments may come with a standard calibration curve, or may require calibration at each use. Lab analysts should periodically test the default calibration curve.

Table 44 summarizes estimated costs associated with sample analyses at a contract lab.

12.4 Techniques to Interpret Indicator Data

Program managers need to decide on the best combination of indicator parameters that will be used to confirm discharges and identify flow types. This section presents guidance on four techniques to interpret indicator parameter data:

- Flow Chart Method (recommended)
- Single Parameter Screening
- Industrial Flow Benchmarks
- Chemical Mass Balance Model (CMBM)

Table 44: Typical Per Sample Contract Lab Costs	
Parameter	**Costs**
Ammonia	$12 - $25
Boron	$16 - $20
Chlorine	$6 - $10
Color	$7 - $11
Conductivity	$2 - $6
Detergents – Surfactants	$17- $35
Enterococci, *E. Coli* or Total Coliform	$17 - $35
Fluoride	$14 - $25
Hardness	$8 - $16
pH	$2 - $7
Potassium	$12 - $14
Turbidity	$9 - $12

All four techniques rely on benchmark concentrations for indicator parameters in order to distinguish among different flow types. Program managers are encouraged to adapt each technique based on local discharge concentration data, and some simple statistical methods for doing so are provided throughout the section.

The Flow Chart Method

The Flow Chart Method is recommended for most Phase II communities, and was originally developed by Pitt *et al.* (1993) and Lalor (1994) and subsequently updated based on new research by Pitt during this project. The Flow Chart Method can distinguish four major discharge types found in residential watersheds, including sewage and wash water flows that are normally the most common illicit discharges. Much of the data supporting the method were collected in Alabama and other regions, and some local adjustment may be needed in some communities. The Flow Chart Method is recommended because it is a relatively simple technique that analyzes four or five indicator parameters that are safe, reliable and inexpensive to measure. The basic decision points involved in the Flow Chart Method are shown in Figure 47 and described below:

Step 1: Separate clean flows from contaminated flows using detergents

The first step evaluates whether the discharge is derived from sewage or washwater sources, based on the presence of detergents. Boron and/or surfactants are used as the primary detergent indicator, and values of boron or surfactants that exceed 0.35 mg/L and 0.25 mg/L, respectively, signal that the discharge is contaminated by sewage or washwater.

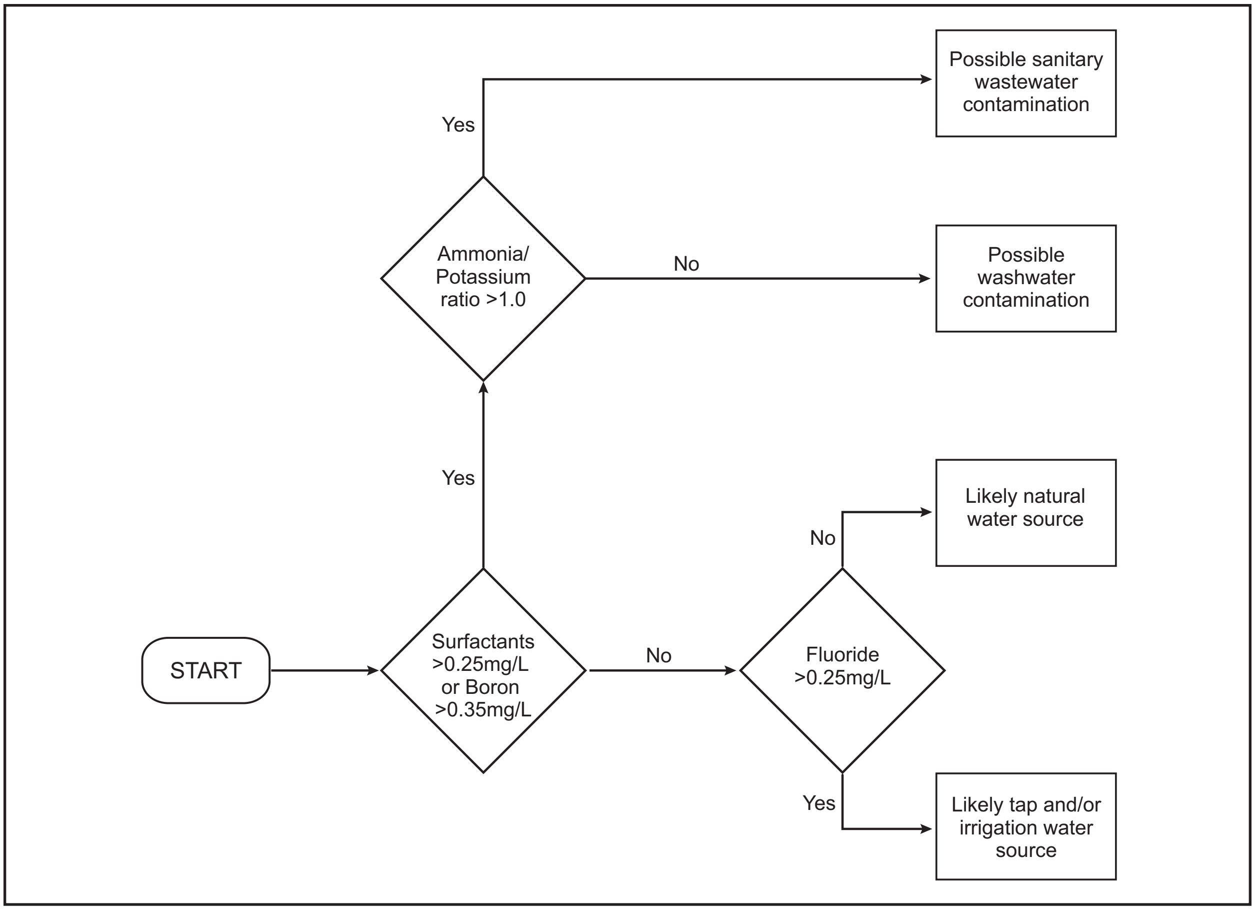


Figure 47: Flow Chart to Identify Illicit Discharges in Residential Watersheds

Step 2: Separate washwater from wastewater using the Ammonia/ Potassium ratio

If the discharge contains detergents, the next step is to determine whether they are derived from sewage or washwater, using the ammonia to potassium ratios. A ratio greater than one suggests sewage contamination, whereas ratios less than one indicate washwater contamination. The benchmark ratio was developed by Pitt *et al.* (1993) and Lalor (1994) based on testing in urban Alabama watersheds.

Step 3: Separate tap water from natural water

If the sample is free of detergents, the next step is to determine if the flow is derived from spring/groundwater or comes from tap water. The benchmark indicator used in this step is fluoride, with concentrations exceeding 0.60 mg/L indicating that potable water is the source. Fluoride levels between 0.13 and 0.6 may indicate non-target irrigation water. The purpose of determining the source of a relatively "clean discharge" is that it can point to water line breaks, outdoor washing, non-target irrigation and other uses of municipal water that generate flows with pollutants.

Adapting the Flow Chart Method

The Flow Chart Method is a robust tool for identifying illicit discharge types, but may need to be locally adapted, since much of the supporting data was collected in one region of the country. Program managers should look at four potential modifications to the flow chart in their community.

1) Is boron or surfactants a superior local indicator of detergents?

Surfactants are almost always a more reliable indicator of detergents, except for rare cases where groundwater has been contaminated by sewage. The disadvantage of surfactants is that the recommended analytical method uses a hazardous chemical as the reagent. Boron uses a safer analytical method. However, if boron is used as a detergent indicator, program managers should sample boron levels in groundwater and tap water, since they can vary regionally. Also, not all detergent formulations incorporate boron at high levels, so it may not always be a strong indicator.

2) Is the ammonia/potassium ratio of one the best benchmark to distinguish sewage from washwater?

The ammonia/potassium ratio is a good way to distinguish sewage from washwater, although the exact ratio appears to vary in different regions of the country. The benchmark value for the ratio was derived from extensive testing in one Alabama city. In fact, data collected in another Alabama city indicated an ammonia/potassium ratio of 0.6 distinguished sewage from wash water. Clearly, program managers should evaluate the ratio in their own community, although the proposed ratio of 1.0 should still capture the majority of sewage discharges. The ratio can be refined over time using indicator monitoring at local outfalls, or through water quality sampling of sewage and washwater flow types for the chemical library.

3) Is fluoride a good indicator of tap water?

Usually. The two exceptions are communities that do not fluoridate their drinking water or have elevated fluoride concentrations in groundwater. In both cases, alternative indicator parameters such as hardness or chlorine may be preferable.

4) Can the flow chart be expanded?

The flow chart presented in Figure 47 is actually a simplified version of a more complex flow chart developed by Pitt for this project, which is presented in Appendix H. An expanded flow chart can provide more consistent and detailed identification of flow types, but obviously requires more analytical work and data analysis. Section 12.5 provides guidance on statistical techniques to customize the flow chart method based on your local discharge data.

Single Parameter Screening

Research by Lalor (1994) suggests that detergents is the best single parameter to detect the presence or absence of the most common illicit discharges (sewage and washwater). The recommended analytical method for detergents uses a hazardous reagent, so the analysis needs to be conducted in a controlled laboratory setting with proper safety equipment. This may limit the flexibility of a community if it is conducting analyses in the field or in a simple office lab.

Ammonia is another single parameter indicator that has been used by some communities with widespread or severe sewage contamination. An ammonia concentration greater than 1 mg/L is generally considered to be a positive indicator of sewage contamination. Ammonia can be analyzed in the field using a portable spectrophotometer, which allows for fairly rapid results and the ability to immediately track down sources and improper connections (see Chapter 13 for details on tracking down illicit discharges)[11]. Since ammonia can be measured in the field, crews can get fast results and immediately proceed to track down the source of the discharge using pipe testing methods (see Chapter 13 for details).

As a single parameter, ammonia has some limitations. First, ammonia by itself may not always be capable of identifying sewage discharges, particularly if they are diluted by "clean" flows. Second, while some washwaters and industrial discharges have relatively high ammonia concentrations, not all do, which increases the prospects of false negatives. Lastly, other dry weather discharges, such as non-target irrigation, can also have high ammonia concentrations that can occasionally exceed 1 mg/L. Supplementing ammonia with potassium and looking at the ammonia/potassium ratio is a simple adjustment to the single parameter approach that helps to further and more accurately characterize the discharge. Ratios greater than one indicate a sewage source, while ratios less than or equal to one indicate a washwater source. Potassium is easily analyzed using a probe (Horiba Cardy™ is the recommended probe).

[11] In-field analysis may be appropriate when tracking down illicit flows, but it is typically associated with challenging and uncontrollable conditions. Therefore, it is generally recommended that analyses be conducted in a controlled lab setting.

Industrial Flow Benchmark

If a subwatershed has a high density of industrial generating sites, additional indicator parameters may be needed to detect and trace these unique discharges. They are often needed because industrial and commercial generating sites produce discharges that are often not composed of either sewage or washwater. Examples include industrial process water, or wash down water conveyed from a floor drain to the storm drain system.

This guidance identifies seven indicator parameters that serve as industrial flow benchmarks to help identify illicit discharges originating from industrial and other generating sites. The seven indicators (ammonia, color, conductivity, hardness, pH, potassium and turbidity) are used to identify liquid wastes and other industrial discharges that are not always picked up by the Flow Chart Method. Table 45 summarizes typical benchmark concentrations that can distinguish between unique industrial or commercial liquid wastes. Note that two of the seven indicator parameters, ammonia and potassium, are already incorporated into the flow chart method.

Table 46 illustrates how industrial benchmark parameters can be used independently or as a supplement to the flow chart method, based on data from Alabama (Appendix E). The best industrial benchmark parameters are identified in pink shading and can distinguish industrial sources from residential washwater in 80% of samples. Supplemental indicator parameters denoted by yellow shading, can distinguish industrial source from residential washwater in 50% of samples, or roughly one in two samples.

Most industrial discharges can consistently be identified by extremely high potassium levels. However, these discharges would be misclassified as washwater when just the Flow Chart Method is used. Other benchmark parameters have value in identifying specific industrial types or operations. For example, metal plating bath waste discharges are often indicated by extremely high conductivity, hardness and potassium concentrations.

Adapting Industrial Flow Benchmark

By their very nature, industrial and other generating sites can produce a bewildering diversity of discharges that are hard to classify. Therefore, program managers will experience some difficulty in differentiating industrial sources. Over time, the composition of industrial discharges can be refined as chemical libraries for specific industrial flow types and sources are developed. This can entail a great deal of sampling, but can reduce the number of false positive or negative readings.

Table 45: Benchmark Concentrations to Identify Industrial Discharges

Indicator Parameter	Benchmark Concentration	Notes
Ammonia	≥50 mg/L	• Existing “Flow Chart” Parameter • Concentrations higher than the benchmark can identify a few industrial discharges.
Color	≥500 Units	• Supplemental parameter that identifies a few specific industrial discharges. Should be refined with local data.
Conductivity	≥2,000 μS/cm	• Identifies a few industrial discharges • May be useful to distinguish between industrial sources.
Hardness	≤10 mg/L as CaCO3 ≥2,000 mg/L as CaCO3	• Identifies a few industrial discharges • May be useful to distinguish between industrial sources.
pH	≤5	• Only captures a few industrial discharges • High pH values may also indicate an industrial discharge but residential wash waters can have a high pH as well.
Potassium	≥20 mg/L	• Existing “Flow Chart” Parameter • Excellent indicator of a broad range of industrial discharges.
Turbidity	≥1,000 NTU	• Supplemental parameter that identifies a few specific industrial discharges. Should be refined with local data.

Table 46: Usefulness of Various Parameters to Identify Industrial Discharges

Industrial Benchmark Concentration	Detergents as Surfactants (mg/L)	Ammonia (mg/L)	Potassium (mg/L)	Initial "Flow Chart" Class	Color (Units)	Conductivity (:S/cm)1	Hardness (mg/L as $CaCO_3$)	pH	Turbidity (NTU)	Best Indicator Parameters to Identify This Flow Type	Additional Indicator Parameters to Identify This Flow Type
	--	≥50	≥20		≥500	≥2000	≤10 ≥2,000	≤5	≥1,000		
Concentrations in Industrial and Commercial Flow Types											
Automotive Manufacturer[1]	5	0.6	66	**Wash water**	15	220	30	6.7	118	Potassium	
Poultry Supplier[1]	5	4.2	41	**Wash water**	23	618	31	6.3	111	Potassium	
Roofing Product Manufacturing[1]	8	10.2	27	**Wash water**	>100[2]	242	32	7.1	229	None	Potassium Color
Uniform Manufacturing[1]	6	6.1	64	**Wash water**	>100[2]	798	35	10.4	2,631	Potassium	Color Turbidity
Radiator Flushing	15	(26.3)	(2,801)	**Wash water**	(3,000)	(3,278)	(5.6)	(7.0)	-	Potassium Conductivity Color	Hardness
Metal Plating Bath	7	(65.7)	(1,009)	**Wash water**	(104)	(10,352)	(1,429)	(4.9)	-	Ammonia Potassium Conductivity Hardness	pH
Commercial Car Wash	140	0.9; (0.2)	4; (43)	**Wash water**	>61; (222)	274; (485)	71; (157)	7.7; (6.7)	156		Potassium Turbidity
Commercial Laundry	(27)	(0.8)	3	**Wash water**	47	(563)	(36)	(9.1)	-		

Best Indicators, shaded in pink, distinguish this source from residential wash water in 80% of samples in both Tuscaloosa and Birmingham, AL.
Supplemental indicators, shaded in yellow, distinguish this source from residential wash water in 50% of samples, or in only one community.
(Data in parentheses are mean values from Birmingham); Data not in parentheses are from Tuscaloosa
[1] Fewer than 3 samples for these discharges.
[2] The color analytical technique used had a maximum value of 100, which was exceeded in all samples. Color may be a good indicator of these industrial discharges and the benchmark concentration may need adjustment downward for this specific community.

Chemical Mass Balance Model (CMBM) for Blended Flows

The Chemical Mass Balance Model (CMBM) is a sophisticated technique to identify flow types at outfalls with blended flows (i.e., dry weather discharges originating from multiple sources). The CMBM, developed by Karri (2004) as part of this project is best applied in complex sewersheds with large drainage areas, and relies heavily on the local chemical library discussed in **the next section.**

The CMBM can quantify the fraction of each flow type present in dry weather flow at an outfall (e.g., 20% spring water; 40% sewage; 20% wash water). The CMBM relies on a computer program that generates and solves algebraic mass balance equations, based on the statistical distribution of specific flow types derived from the chemical library. The CMBM is an excellent analysis tool, but requires significant advance preparation and sampling support. More detailed guidance on how to use and interpret CMBM data can be found in Appendix I.

The chemical library requires additional statistical analysis to support the CMBM. Specifically, indicator parameter data for each flow type need to be statistically analyzed to determine the **mean**, the **coefficient of variation**, and the **distribution type**. In its current version, the CMBM accepts two distribution types: normal or lognormal distributions. Various statistical methodologies can determine the distribution type of a set of data. Much of this analysis can be conducted using standard, readily-available statistical software, such as the Engineering Statistics Handbook which is available from the National Institute of Standards and Technology, and can be accessed at http://www.itl.nist.gov/div898/handbook/.

12.5 The Chemical Library

The chemical library is a summary of the chemical composition of the range of discharge types found in a community. The primary purpose of the library is to characterize distinct flow types that may be observed at outfalls, including both clean and contaminated discharges. A good library includes data on the composition of tap water, groundwater, sewage, septage, non-target irrigation water, industrial process waters, and washwaters (e.g., laundry, car wash, etc.). The chemical library helps program managers customize the flow chart method and industrial benchmarks, and creates the input data needed to drive the CMBM.

To develop the library, samples are collected directly from the discharge source (e.g., tap water, wastewater treatment influent, shallow wells, septic tanks, etc.). Table 47 provides guidance on how and where to sample each flow type in your community. As a general rule, about 10 samples are typically needed to characterize each flow type, although more samples may be needed if the flow type has a high coefficient of variation. The measure of error can be statistically defined by evaluating the coefficient of variation of the sample data (variability relative to the mean value), and the statistical distribution for the data (the probable spread in the data beyond the mean). For more guidance on statistical techniques for assessing sampling data, consult Burton and Pitt (2002) and US EPA (2002), which can be accessed at http://galton.uchicago.edu/~cises/resources/EPA-QA-Sampling-2003.pdf.

Chemical libraries should also be compared to databases that summarize indicator monitoring of dry weather flows at suspect outfalls. Outfall samples may not always be representative of individual flow types because of mixing of flows and dilution, but they can serve as a valuable check if the discharge source is actually confirmed. Program managers can also use both the chemical library and indicator database to refine flow chart or industrial benchmarks (see Appendix J for an example).

Over time, communities may want to add other flow types to the chemical library, such as transitory discharges that generate small volume flows such as "dumpster juice," power washing and residential car washing. Transitory discharges are hard to detect with outfall monitoring, but may cumulatively contribute significant dry weather loads. Understanding the chemical makeup of the transitory discharges can help program managers prioritize education and pollution prevention efforts.

Table 47: Where and How to Sample for Chemical "Fingerprint" Library

Flow Type	Places to Collect the Data	Any Other Potential Sources?
Shallow Groundwater	• From road cuts or stream banks • Samples from shallow wells • USGS regional groundwater quality data • Dry weather in-stream flows at headwaters with no illicit discharges	None. Locally distinct.
Spring Water	• Directly from springs	None. Locally distinct.
Tap water	• Individual taps throughout the community • or analyze local drinking water monitoring reports or annual consumer confidence reports	None. Locally distinct.
Irrigation	• Collect irrigation water from several different sites. May require a hand operated vacuum pump to collect these shallow flows (see Burton and Pitt, 2002)	None. Locally distinct.
Sewage	• Reported sewage treatment plant influent data provides a characterization of raw sewage and is usually available from discharge monitoring reports. Because the characteristics of sewage will vary within the collection system depending upon whether the area is serving residential or commercial uses, climate, residence time in the collection system, etc, it is often more accurate and valuable to collect "fingerprint" samples from within the system, rather than at the treatment plant.	Data in Appendix E can provide a starting point, but local data are preferred.
Septage	• Outflow of several individual septic tanks or leach fields	
Most Industrial Discharges	• Direct effluent from the industrial process (Obtain samples as part of industrial pre-treatment program in local community)	Data in Appendix E characterize some specific industrial flows. Industrial NPDES permit monitoring can also be used.
Commercial Car Wash; Commercial Laundry	• Sumps at these establishments	Data in Appendix E can provide a starting point, but local data are preferred.

Evaluating Interpretive Techniques Using Outfall Indicator Monitoring Data

Outfall sampling data for confirmed sources or flow types can be used to test the accuracy and reliability of all four interpretive techniques. The sampling record is used to determine the number of false positives or false negatives associated with a specific interpretive technique. A simple tabulation of false test readings can identify the types and levels of indicator parameters that are most useful.

Table 48 provides an example of how the Flow Chart Method was tested with outfall monitoring data from Birmingham, AL (Pitt *et al*., 1993). In this case, the Flow Chart Method was applied without adaptation to local conditions, and the number of correctly (and incorrectly) identified discharges was tracked. Tests on 10 Birmingham outfalls were mostly favorable, with the flow chart method correctly identifying contaminated discharges in all cases (i.e., washwater or sewage waste water). At one outfall, the flow chart incorrectly identified sewage as washwater, based on an ammonia (NH_3)/ potassium (K) ratio of 0.9 that was very close to the breakpoint in the Flow Chart Method (ratio of one). Based on such tests, program managers may want to slightly adjust the breakpoints in the Flow Chart Method to minimize the occurrence of errors.

12.6 Special Monitoring Techniques for Intermittent or Transitory Discharges

The hardest discharges to detect and test are intermittent or transitory discharges to the storm drain system that often have an indirect mode of entry. With some ingenuity, luck, and specialized sampling techniques, however, it may be possible to catch these discharges. This section describes some specific monitoring techniques to track down intermittent discharges. Transitory discharges cannot be reliably detected using conventional outfall monitoring techniques, and are normally found as a result of hotline complaints or spill events. Nevertheless, when transitory discharges are encountered, they should be sampled if possible.

Techniques for Monitoring Intermittent Discharges

An outfall may be suspected of having intermittent discharges based on physical indicators (e.g., staining), poor in-stream dry weather water quality, or the density of generating sites in the contributing subwatershed. The only sure way to detect an intermittent discharge is to camp out at the outfall for a long period of time, which is obviously not very cost-effective or feasible. As an alternative, five special monitoring techniques can be used to help track these elusive problems:

- Odd hours monitoring
- Optical brightener monitoring traps
- Caulk dams
- Pool sampling
- Toxicity monitoring

Table 48: Evaluation of the Flow Chart Method Using Data from Birmingham, Alabama
(Adapted from Pitt* et al., *1993)

Outfall ID	Outfall Concentrations (mg/L)					Predicted Flow Type	Confirmed Flow Type	Result
	Detergents-Surfactants (>0.25 is sanitary or wash water)	NH3	K	NH3/K (>1.0 is sanitary)	Fluoride (>0.25 is tap, if no detergents)			
14	0	0	0.69	0.0	0.04	Natural Water	Spring Water	Correct
20	0	0.03	1.98	0.0	0.61	Tap Water	Rinse Water (Tap) and Spring Water	Correct
21	20	0.11	5.08	0.0	2.80	Washwater	Washwater (Automotive)	Correct
26	0	0.01	0.72	0.0	0.07	Natural Water	Spring Water	Correct
28	0.25[1]	2.89	5.96	0.5	0.74	Washwater	Washwater (Restaurant)	Correct
31	0.95	0.21	3.01	0.1	1.00	Washwater	Laundry (Motel)	Correct
40z	0.25[1]	0.87	0.94	0.9	0.12	Washwater	Shallow Groundwater and Septage	Identifies Contaminated but Incorrect Flow Type
42	0	0	0.81	0.0	0.07	Natural Water	Spring Water	Correct
48	3.0	5.62	4.40	1.3	0.53	Sanitary Wastewater	Spring Water and Sewage	Correct
60a	0	0.31	2.99	0.1	0.61	Tap Water	Landscaping Irrigation Water	Correct

[1] These values were increased from reported values of 0.23 mg/L (outfall 28) and 0.2 mg/L (outfall 40z). The analytical technique used in Birmingham was more precise (but more hazardous) than the method used to develop the flow chart in Figure 47. It is assumed that these values would have been interpreted as 0.25 mg/L using the less precise method.

Odd Hours Monitoring

Many intermittent discharges actually occur on a regular schedule, but unfortunately not the same one used by field crews during the week. For example, some generating sites discharge over the weekend or during the evening hours. If an outfall is deemed suspicious, program managers may want to consider scheduling "odd hours" sampling at different times of the day or week. Some key times to visit suspicious outfalls include:

- Both morning and afternoon
- Weekday evenings
- Weekend mornings and evenings

Optical Brightener Monitoring Traps

Optical brightener monitoring (OBM) traps are another tool that crews can use to gain insight into the "history" of an outfall without being physically present. OBM traps can be fabricated and installed using a variety of techniques and materials. All configurations involve an absorbent, unbleached cotton pad or fabric swatch and a holding or anchoring device such as a wire mesh trap (Figure 48) or a section of small diameter (e.g., 2-inch) PVC pipe. Traps are anchored to the inside of outfalls at the invert using wire or monofilament that is secured to the pipe itself or rocks used as temporary weights.

Field crews retrieve the OBM traps after they have been deployed for several days of dry weather, and place them under a fluorescent light that will indicate if they have been exposed to detergents. OBM traps have been used with some success in Massachusetts (Sargent *et al.*, 1998) and northern Virginia (Waye, 2000). Although each community used slightly different methods, the basic sampling concept is the same. For more detailed guidance on how to use OBM traps and interpret the results, consult the guidance manual found at: http://www.naturecompass.org/8tb/sampling/index.html and http://www.novaregion.org/obm.htm.

Although OBM traps appear useful in detecting some intermittent discharges, research during this project has found that OBM traps only pick up the most contaminated discharges, and the detergent level needed to produce a "hit" was roughly similar to pure washwater from a washing machine (see Appendix F for results).

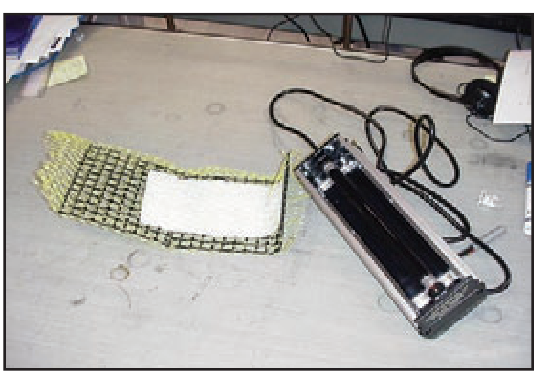


Figure 48: OBM Equipment includes a black light and an OBM Trap that can be placed at an outfall
Source: R. Pitt

Consequently, OBM traps may be best suited as a simple indicator of presence or absence of intermittent flow or to detect the most concentrated flows. OBM traps need to be retrieved before runoff occurs from the outfalls, which will contaminate the trap or wash it away.

Caulk Dams

This technique uses caulk, plumber's putty, or similar substance to make a dam about two inches high within the bottom of the storm drain pipe to capture any dry weather flow that occurs between field observations. Any water that has pooled behind the dam is then sampled using a hand-pump sampler, and analyzed in the lab for appropriate indicator parameters.

Pool Sampling

In this technique, field crews collect indicator samples directly from the "plunge pool" below an outfall, if one is present. An upstream sample is also collected to characterize background stream or ditch water quality that is not influenced by the outfall. The pool water and stream sample are then analyzed for indicator parameters, and compared against each other. Pool sampling results can be constrained by stream dilution, deposition, storm water flows, and chemical reactions that occur within the pool.

Toxicity Monitoring

Another way to detect intermittent discharges is to monitor for toxicity in the pool below the outfall on a daily basis. Burton and Pitt (2002) outline several options to measure toxicity, some of which can be fairly expensive and complex. The Fort Worth Department of Environmental Management has developed a simple low-cost outfall toxicity testing technique known as the Stream Sentinel program. Stream sentinels place a bottle filled with minnows in the pool below suspected outfalls and measure the survival rate of the minnows as an indicator of the toxicity of the outfall [12] (see Figure 49).

One advantage of the sentinel program is that volunteer monitors can easily participate, by raising and caring for the minnows, placing bottles at outfalls, and visiting them everyday to record mortality. The long-term nature of sentinel monitoring can help pick up toxicity trends at a given outfall. For example, Fort Worth observed a trend of mass mortality on the second Tuesday of each month at some outfalls, which helped to pinpoint the industry responsible for the discharges, and improved

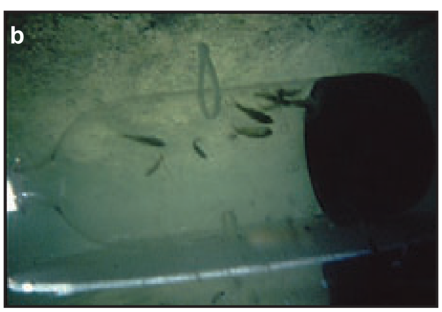


Figure 49: Float and wire system to suspend a bottle in a stream sentinel station deployed in Fort Worth, TX (a); Minnows in the perforated bottle below the water surface (b).

[12] It may be necessary to obtain approval from the appropriate state of federal regulatory agency before conducting toxicity monitoring using vertebrates.

sample scheduling (City of Fort Worth, 2003). More information about the Stream Sentinel program can be found at: www.fortworthgov.org/DEM/stream_sentinel.pdf.

Due to the cost and difficulty of interpreting findings, toxicity testing is generally not recommended for communities unless they have prior experience and expertise with the method.

Techniques for Monitoring Transitory Discharges

Transitory discharges, such as spills and illegal dumping, are primarily sampled to assign legal responsibility for enforcement actions or to reinforce ongoing pollution prevention education efforts. In most cases, crews attempt to trace transitory discharges back up the pipe or drainage area using visual techniques (see Chapter 13). However, field crews should always collect a sample to document the event. Table 49 summarizes some follow-up monitoring strategies to document transitory discharges.

12.7 Monitoring of Stream Quality During Dry Weather

In-stream water quality monitoring can help detect sewage and other discharges in a community or larger watershed. Stream monitoring can identify the subwatersheds with the greatest illicit or sewage discharge potential that is then used to target outfall indicator monitoring. At the smaller reach scale, stream monitoring may sometimes detect major individual discharges to the stream.

Table 49: Follow-Up Monitoring for Transitory Discharges	
Condition	**Response**
Oils or solvents	Special hydrocarbon analysis to characterize the source of the oil
Unknown but toxic material	Full suite of metals, pesticides, other toxic materials
Probable sewage	Monitor for parameters associated with the Flow Chart Technique (detergents, ammonia, potassium, fluoride) for residential drainage areas

Stream Monitoring to Identify Problem Reaches or Subwatersheds

Stream monitoring data can be used to locate areas in subwatersheds where illicit discharges may be present, and where human or aquatic health risks are higher. To provide this information, stream monitoring should be conducted regularly during dry weather conditions to track water quality (at least monthly) and to document changes in water quality over a period of time. Stream monitoring data are particularly effective when combined with ORI data. For example, a subwatershed with many ORI physical indicators of illicit discharges (e.g., a high number of flowing outfalls) that also has poor stream water quality would be an obvious target for intensive outfall monitoring.

Stream monitoring parameters should reflect local water quality goals and objectives, and frequently include bacteria and ammonia. Bacteria are useful since sewage discharges can contribute to violations of water contact standards set for recreation during dry weather conditions. Table 50 summarizes water quality standards for *E. coli* that EPA recommends for water contact recreation. It is important to note that individual states may use different action levels or bacteria indicators (e.g., Enterococci or fecal coliform) to regulate water contact recreation. For a review of the impacts bacteria exert on surface waters, consult CWP (2000).

An important caveat when interpreting stream monitoring data is that a violation of bacteria standards during dry weather flow does not always mean that an illicit discharge or sewage overflow is present. While raw sewage has bacteria concentrations that greatly exceed bacteria standards (approximately 12,000 MPN/100 mL) other bacteria sources, such as urban wildlife, can also cause a stream to violate standards. Consequently, stream monitoring data need to be interpreted in the context of other information, such as upstream land use, past complaints, age of infrastructure, and ORI surveys.

Ideally, stream monitoring stations should be strategically located with a minimum of one station per subwatershed, and additional stations at stream confluences and downstream of reaches with a high outfall density. Stations should also be located at beaches, shellfish harvesting and other areas where discharges represent a specific threat to public health. See Burton and Pitt (2002) for guidance on stream monitoring.

Stream Monitoring to Identify Specific Discharges

Stream monitoring data can help field crews locate individual discharges within a specific stream reach. Immediate results are needed for this kind of monitoring, so indicator parameters should be analyzed using simple field test kits or portable analytical instruments (e.g., spectrophotometer). Bacteria is not a good indicator parameter to use for this purpose because lab results cannot be received for at least one day (analytical method requires a "hold time" of 24 hours). Table 51 summarizes nutrient indicator parameters along with their "potential problem level" benchmarks. It is important to note that other factors, such as animal operations, can elevate stream nutrient concentrations, so data should always be interpreted in the context of surrounding land use. Stream monitoring benchmarks should be continuously refined as communities develop a better understanding of what dry weather baseline concentrations to expect.

If stream monitoring indicates that a potential problem level benchmark has been exceeded, field crews continue stream sampling to locate the discharge through a process of elimination. Crews walk upstream taking regular samples above and below stream confluences until the benchmark concentration declines. The crews then take samples at strategic points to narrow down the location of the discharge, using the in-pipe monitoring strategy described in Chapter 13.

Table 50: Typical "Full Body Contact Recreation" Standards for *E. coli*
(Source: EPA, 1986)[1]

Use	Criterion
Designated beach area	235 MPN /100 mL
Moderately-used full body contact recreation area	298 MPN /100 mL
Lightly-used full body contact recreation	406 MPN /100 mL
Infrequently-used full body contact recreation	576 MPN /100 mL

[1] These concentrations represent standards for a single sampling event. In all waters, a geometric mean concentration of 126 MPN/100 mL cannot be exceeded for five samples taken within one month.

Table 51: Example In-Stream Nutrient Indicators of Discharges
(Zielinski, 2003)

Parameter	Potential Problem Level*	Possible Cause of Water Quality Problem
Total Nitrogen (TN)	3.5 mg/l	High nutrients in ground water from agriculture, lawn practices, or sewage contamination from illicit connection, sanitary line break or failing septic system.
Total Phosphorus (TP)	0.4 mg/l	Contamination from lawn practices, agriculture, sewage or washwater.
Ammonia (NH_3)	0.3 mg/l	Sewage or washwater contamination from illicit connection, sanitary line break or failing septic system.

**Nutrient parameters are based on USGS NAWQA data with 85% of flow weighted samples being less than these values in urban watersheds (Note: data from Nevada were not used, due to climatic differences and for some parameters they were an order of magnitude higher). Communities can modify these benchmarks to reflect local data and experience.*

12.8 The Costs of Indicator Monitoring

This section provides general guidance on scoping and budgeting an indicator monitoring program. The required budget will ultimately be dictated by the monitoring decisions and local conditions within a community. The budgeting data presented in this section are based on the level of indicator sampling effort in two hypothetical communities, using different numbers of samples, indicator parameters, and analysis methods.

Budgets for Indicator Monitoring in a Hypothetical Community

Communities can develop annual budgets for indicator monitoring if the degree of sampling effort can be scoped. This is normally computed based on the expected number of samples to analyze and is a function of stream miles surveyed and outfall density. For example, if a community collects samples from 10 stream miles with eight outfalls per mile, it will have 80 samples to analyze. This number can be used to generate start-up and annual monitoring cost estimates that represent the expected level of sampling effort. Table 52 summarizes how indicator monitoring budgets were developed for two hypothetical communities, each with 80 outfalls to sample. Budgets are shown using both in-house and contract lab set-ups, and are split between initial start-up costs and annual costs.

Community A: Primarily Residential Land Use, Flow Chart Method

In this scenario, six indicator parameters were analyzed, several of which were used to support the Flow Chart Method. The community took no additional samples to create a chemical library, and instead relied on default values to identify illicit discharges. The community analyzed the samples in-house at a rate of one sample (includes analysis of all six parameters) per staff hour.

Community B: Mixed Land Use - Multiple Potential Sources, Complex Analysis

In the second scenario, the community analyzed 11 indicator parameters, including a bacteria indicator, and took samples of eight distinct flow types to create a chemical library, for a total of 88 samples. The community analyzed the samples in-house at a rate of one sample per 1.5 staff hours.

Some general rules of thumb that were used for this budget planning example include the following:

- $500 in initial sampling equipment (e.g., sample bottles, latex gloves, dipper, cooler, etc).
- Outfall samples are collected in batches of 10. Each batch of samples can be collected and transported to the lab in two staff days (two-person crew required to collect samples for safety purposes).
- Staff rate is $25/hr.
- Overall effort to collect samples for the chemical library and statistically analyze the data is approximately one staff day per source type.
- The staff time needed to prepare for field work and interpret lab results is roughly two times that required for conducting the field work (i.e., eight days of collecting samples requires 16 days of pre- and post-preparation).

Costs for Intermittent Discharge Analyses

Equipment costs for most specialized intermittent discharge techniques tend to be low (<$500), and are dwarfed by staff effort. As a rule of thumb, assume about four hours of staff time to deploy, retrieve and analyze samples collected from a single outfall using these techniques.

Table 52: Indicator Monitoring Costs: Two Scenarios				
	Community A: In-House	Community A: Contract Lab	Community B: In-House	Community B: Contract Lab
Initial Costs				
Initial Sampling Supplies and Lab Equipment [1]	$1,700	$500	$7,500	$500
Staff Cost: Library Development [2]	$0	$0	$4,600[3]	$2,000
Analysis Costs: Library Development (Reagents or Contract Lab Cost)	$0	$0	$1,400	$13,000[4]
Total Initial Costs	**$1,700**	**$500**	**$13,500**	**$15,500**
Annual Costs in Subsequent Years				
Staff Field Cost (Sample Collection) [2, 5, 6]	$3,200	$3,200	$3,200	$3,200
Staff Costs: Chemical Analysis [2]	$2,000	$200[7]	$3,000	$200
Staff Time to Enter/ Interpret Data [2, 6]	$3,200	$3,200	$4,800	$4,800
Analysis Costs: Annual Outfall Sampling (Reagents or Contract Lab Cost)	$600	$8,400[4]	$1,400	$13,000[4]
Total Annual Cost	**$9,000**	**$15,000**	**$12,400**	**$21,200**

Notes:
[1] $500 in initial sampling equipment.
[2] Samples can be shipped to a contract lab using one staff hour.
[3] Overall effort to collect samples for the library and statistically analyze the data is approximately one staff day per source type.
[4] For contract lab analysis, assume a cost that is an average between the two extremes of the range in Table 43.
[5] Outfall samples are collected in batches of 10. Each batch of samples can be collected and transported to the lab in two staff days (two-person crew required to collect samples for safety purposes).
[6] Assume that the staff time needed to interpret lab results and prepare for field work is roughly 16 staff days. An additional eight days are required for the flow type pre- and post-preparation for Community 2.
[7] Staff rate is $25/hr.

Chapter 13: Tracking Discharges To A Source

Once an illicit discharge is found, a combination of methods is used to isolate its specific source. This chapter describes the four investigation options that are introduced below.

Storm Drain Network Investigation

Field crews strategically inspect manholes within the storm drain network system to measure chemical or physical indicators that can isolate discharges to a specific segment of the network. Once the pipe segment has been identified, on-site investigations are used to find the specific discharge or improper connection.

Drainage Area Investigation

This method relies on an analysis of land use or other characteristics of the drainage area that is producing the illicit discharge. The investigation can be as simple as a "windshield" survey of the drainage area or a more complex mapping analysis of the storm drain network and potential generating sites. Drainage area investigations work best when prior indicator monitoring reveals strong clues as to the likely generating site producing the discharge.

On-site Investigation

On-site methods are used to trace the source of an illicit discharge in a pipe segment, and may involve dye, video or smoke testing within isolated segments of the storm drain network.

Septic System Investigation

Low-density residential watersheds may require special investigation methods if they are not served by sanitary sewers and/ or storm water is conveyed in ditches or swales. The major illicit discharges found in low-density development are failing septic systems and illegal dumping. Homeowner surveys, surface inspections and infrared photography have all been effectively used to find failing septic systems in low-density watersheds.

13.1 Storm Drain Network Investigations

This method involves progressive sampling at manholes in the storm drain network to narrow the discharge to an isolated pipe segment between two manholes. Field crews need to make two key decisions when conducting a storm drain network investigation—where to start sampling in the network and what indicators will be used to determine whether a manhole is considered clean or dirty.

Where to Sample in the Storm Drain Network

The field crew should decide how to attack the pipe network that contributes to a problem outfall. Three options can be used:

- Crews can work progressively up the trunk from the outfall and test manholes along the way.
- Crews can split the trunk into equal segments and test manholes at strategic junctions in the storm drain system.
- Crews can work progressively down from the upper parts of the storm drain network toward the problem outfall.

The decision to move up, split, or move down the trunk depends on the nature and land use of the contributing drainage area. Some guidance for making this decision is provided in Table 53. Each option requires different levels of advance preparation. Moving up the trunk can begin immediately when an illicit discharge is detected at the outfall, and only requires a map of the storm drain system. Splitting the trunk and moving down the system require a little more preparation to analyze the storm drain map to find the critical branches to strategically sample manholes. Accurate storm drain maps are needed for all three options. If good mapping is not available, dye tracing can help identify manholes, pipes and junctions, and establish a new map of the storm drain network.

Option 1: Move up the Trunk

Moving up the trunk of the storm drain network is effective for illicit discharge problems in relatively small drainage areas. Field crews start with the manhole closest to the outfall, and progressively move up the network, inspecting manholes until indicators reveal that the discharge is no longer present (Figure 50). The goal is to isolate the discharge between two storm drain manholes.

Table 53: Methods to Attack the Storm Drain Network

Method	Nature of Investigation	Drainage System	Advance Prep Required
Follow the discharge up	Narrow source of an individual discharge	Small diameter outfall (< 36”) Simple drainage network	No
Split into segments	Narrow source of a discharge identified at outfall	Large diameter outfall (> 36”), Complex drainage Logistical or traffic issues may make sampling difficult.	Yes
Move down the storm drain	Multiple types of pollution, many suspected problems—possibly due to old plumbing practices or number of NPDES permits	Very large drainage area (> one square mile).	Yes

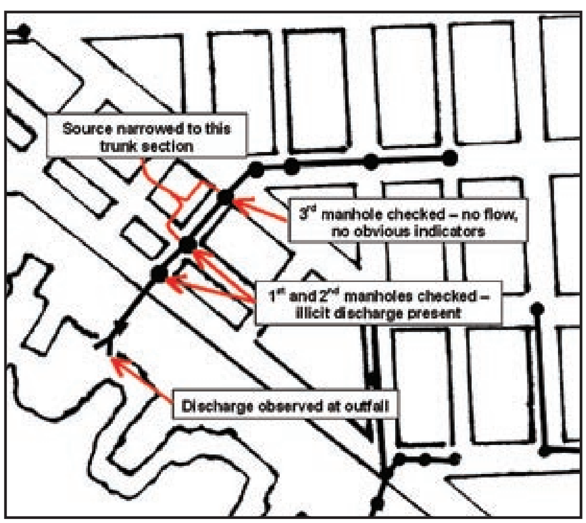


Figure 50: Example investigation following the source up the storm drain system

Option 2: Split the storm drain network

When splitting the storm drain network, field crews select strategic manholes at junctions in the storm drain network to isolate discharges. This option is particularly suited in larger and more complex drainage areas since it can limit the total number of manholes to inspect, and it can avoid locations where access and traffic are problematic.

The method for splitting the trunk is as follows:

1. Review a map of the storm drain network leading to the suspect outfall.
2. Identify major contributing branches to the trunk. The trunk is defined as the largest diameter pipe in the storm drain network that leads directly to the outfall. The "branches" are networks of smaller pipes that contribute to the trunk.
3. Identify manholes to inspect at the farthest downstream node of each contributing branch and one immediately upstream (Figure 51).
4. Working up the network, investigate manholes on each contributing branch and trunk, until the source is narrowed to a specific section of the trunk or contributing branch.
5. Once the discharge is narrowed to a specific section of trunk, select the appropriate on-site investigation method to trace the exact source.
6. If narrowed to a contributing branch, move up or split the branch until a specific pipe segment is isolated, and commence the appropriate on-site investigation to determine the source.

Option 3: Move down the storm drain network

In this option, crews start by inspecting manholes at the "headwaters" of the storm drain network, and progressively move down pipe. This approach works best in very large drainage areas that have many potential continuous and/or intermittent discharges. The Boston Water and Sewer Commission has employed the headwater option to investigate intermittent discharges in complex drainage areas up to three square miles (Jewell, 2001). Field crews certify that each upstream branch of the storm drain network has no contributing discharges before moving down pipe to a "junction manhole" (Figure 52). If discharges are found, the crew performs dye testing to pinpoint the discharge. The crew then confirms that the discharge is removed before moving farther down the pipe network. Figure 53 presents a detailed flow chart that describes this option for analyzing the storm drain network.

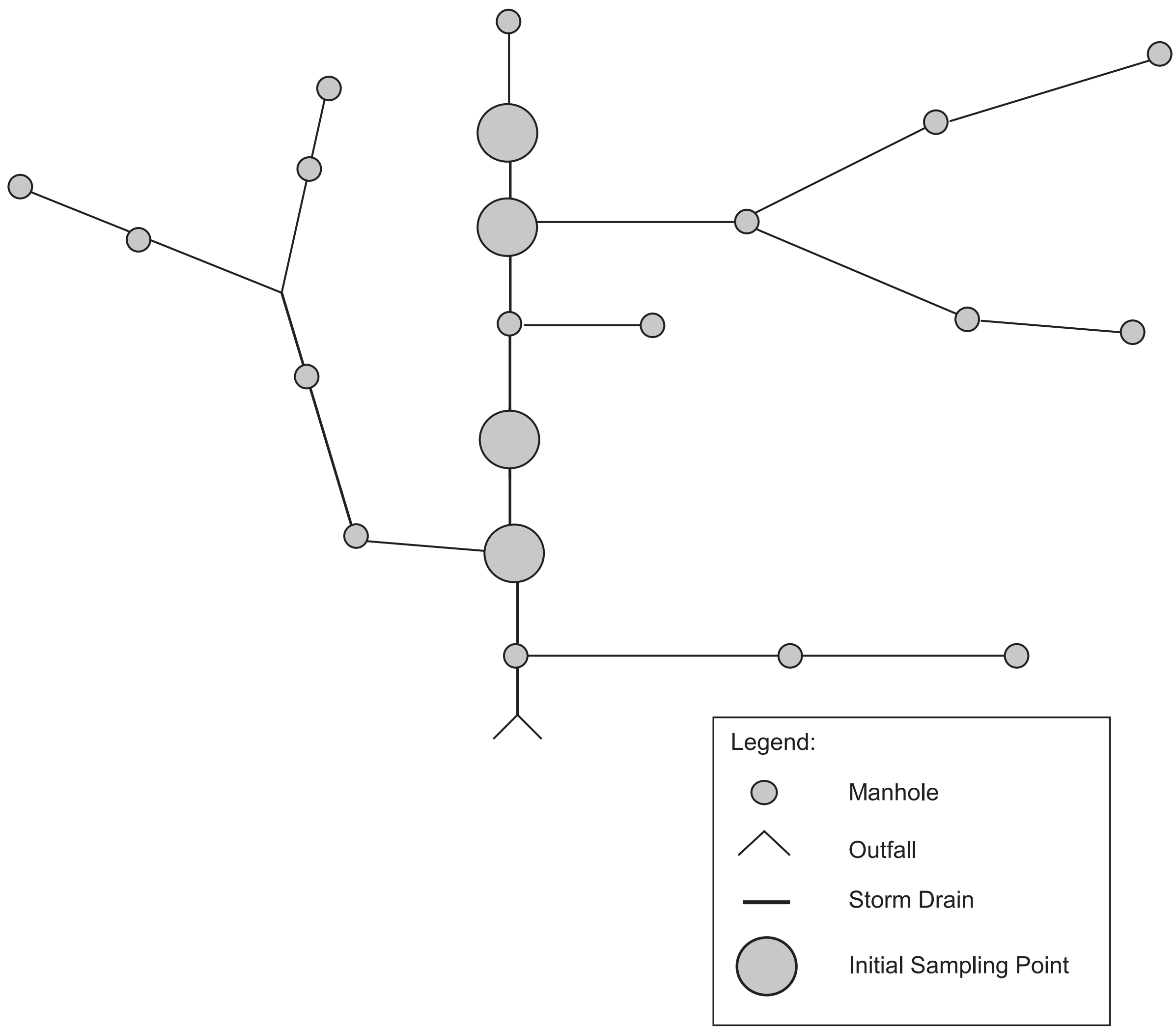


Figure 51: Key initial sampling points along the trunk of the storm drain

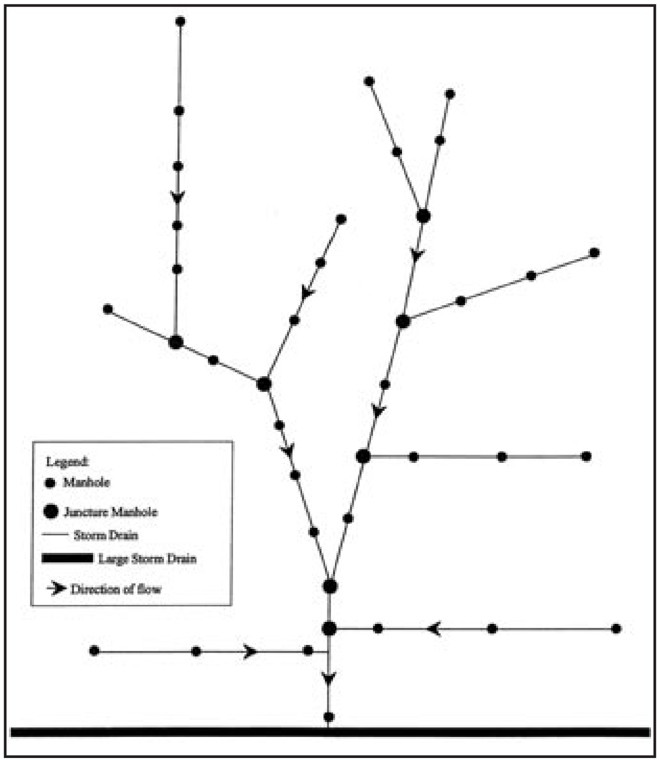


Figure 52: Storm Drain Schematic Identifying "Juncture Manholes" (Source: Jewell, 2001)

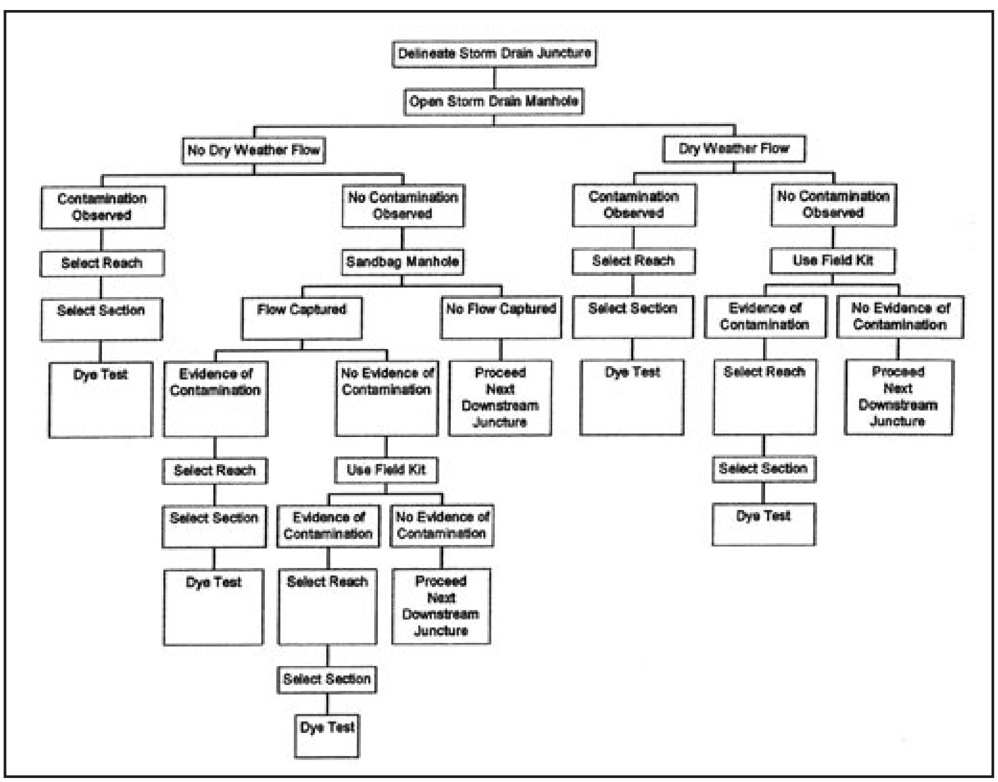


Figure 53: A Process for Following Discharges Down the Pipe (Source: Jewell, 2001)

Dye Testing to Create a Storm Drain Map

As noted earlier, storm drain network investigations are extremely difficult to perform if accurate storm drain maps are not available. In these situations, field crews may need to resort to dye testing to determine the flowpath within the storm drain network. Fluorescent dye is introduced into the storm drain network and suspected manholes are then inspected to trace the path of flow through the network (U.S. EPA, 1990). Two or three member crews are needed for dye testing. One person drops the dye into the trunk while the other(s) looks for evidence of the dye down pipe.

To conduct the investigation, a point of interest or down pipe "stopping point" is identified. Dye is then introduced into manholes upstream of the stopping point to determine if they are connected. The process continues in a systematic manner until an upstream manhole can no longer be determined, whereby a branch or trunk of the system can be defined, updated or corrected. More information on dye testing methods is provided in Section 13.3.

Manhole Inspection: Visual Observations and Indicator Sampling

Two primary methods are used to characterize discharges observed during manhole inspections—visual observations and indicator sampling. In both methods, field crews must first open the manhole to determine whether an illicit discharge is present. Manhole inspections require a crew of two and should be conducted during dry weather conditions.

Basic field equipment and safety procedures required for manhole inspections are outlined in Table 54. In particular, field crews need to be careful about how they will safely divert traffic (Figure 54). Other safety considerations include proper lifting of manhole covers to reduce the potential for back injuries, and testing whether any toxic or flammable fumes exist within the manhole before the cover is removed. Wayne County, MI has developed some useful operational procedures for inspecting manholes, which are summarized in Table 55.

Table 54: Basic Field Equipment Checklist

• Camera and film or digital camera	• Storm drain, stream, and street maps
• Clipboards	• Reflective safety vests
• Field sheets	• Rubber / latex gloves
• Field vehicle	• Sledgehammer
• First aid kit	• Spray paint
• Flashlight or spotlight	• Tape measures
• Gas monitor and probe	• Traffic cones
• Manhole hook/crow bar	• Two-way radios
• Mirror	• Waterproof marker/ pen
• Hand held global positioning satellite (GPS) system receiver (best resolution available within budget, at least 6' accuracy)	

Figure 54: Traffic cones divert traffic from manhole inspection area

Table 55: Field Procedure for Removal of Manhole Covers *(Adapted from: Pomeroy et al., 1996)*
Field Procedures: 1. Locate the manhole cover to be removed. 2. Divert road and foot traffic away from the manhole using traffic cones. 3. Use the tip of a crowbar to lift the manhole cover up high enough to insert the gas monitor probe. Take care to avoid creating a spark that could ignite explosive gases that may have accumulated under the lid. Follow procedures outlined for the gas monitor to test for accumulated gases. 4. If the gas monitor alarm sounds, close the manhole immediately. Do not attempt to open the manhole until some time is allowed for gases to dissipate. 5. If the gas monitor indicates the area is clear of hazards, remove the monitor probe and position the manhole hook under the flange. Remove the crowbar. Pull the lid off with the hook. 6. When testing is completed and the manhole is no longer needed, use the manhole hook to pull the cover back in place. Make sure the lid is settled in the flange securely. 7. Check the area to ensure that all equipment is removed from the area prior to leaving.
Safety Considerations: 1. Do not lift the manhole cover with your back muscles. 2. Wear steel-toed boots or safety shoes to protect feet from possible crushing injuries that could occur while handling manhole covers. 3. Do not move manhole covers with hands or fingers. 4. Wear safety vests or reflective clothing so that the field crew will be visible to traffic. 5. Manholes may only be entered by properly trained and equipped personnel and when all OSHA and local rules a.

Visual Observations During Manhole Inspection

Visual observations are used to observe conditions in the manhole and look for any signs of sewage or dry weather flow. Visual observations work best for obvious illicit discharges that are not masked by groundwater or other "clean" discharges, as shown in Figure 55. Typically, crews progressively inspect manholes in the storm drain network to look for contaminated flows. Key visual observations that are made during manhole inspections include:

- Presence of flow
- Colors
- Odors
- Floatable materials
- Deposits or stains (intermittent flows)

Figure 55: Manhole observation (left) indicates a sewage discharge. Source is identified at an adjacent sewer manhole that overflowed into the storm drain system (right).

Indicator Sampling

If dry weather flow is observed in the manhole, the field crew can collect a sample by attaching a bucket or bottle to a tape measure/rope and lowering it into the manhole (Figure 56). The sample is then immediately analyzed in the field using probes or other tests to get fast results as to whether the flow is clean or dirty. The most common indicator parameter is ammonia, although other potential indicators are described in Chapter 12.

Manhole indicator data is analyzed by looking for "hits," which are individual samples that exceed a benchmark concentration. In addition, trends in indicator concentrations are also examined throughout the storm drain network.

Figure 56: Techniques to sample from the storm drain

Figure 57 profiles a storm drain network investigation that used ammonia as the indicator parameter and a benchmark concentration of 1.0 mg/L. At both the outfall and the first manhole up the trunk, field crews recorded finding "hits" for ammonia of 2.2 mg/L and 2.3 mg/L, respectively. Subsequent manhole inspections further up the network revealed one manhole with no flow, and a second with a hit for ammonia (2.4 mg/L). The crew then tracked the discharge upstream of the second manhole, and found a third manhole with a low ammonia reading (0.05 mg/L) and a fourth with a much higher reading (4.3 mg/L). The crew then redirected its effort to sample above the fourth manhole with the 4.3 mg/L concentration, only to find another low reading. Based on this pattern, the crew concluded the discharge source was located between these two manholes, as nothing else could explain this sudden increase in concentration over this length of pipe.

The results of storm drain network investigations should be systematically documented to guide future discharge investigations, and describe any infrastructure maintenance problems encountered. An example of a sample manhole inspection field log is displayed in Figure 58.

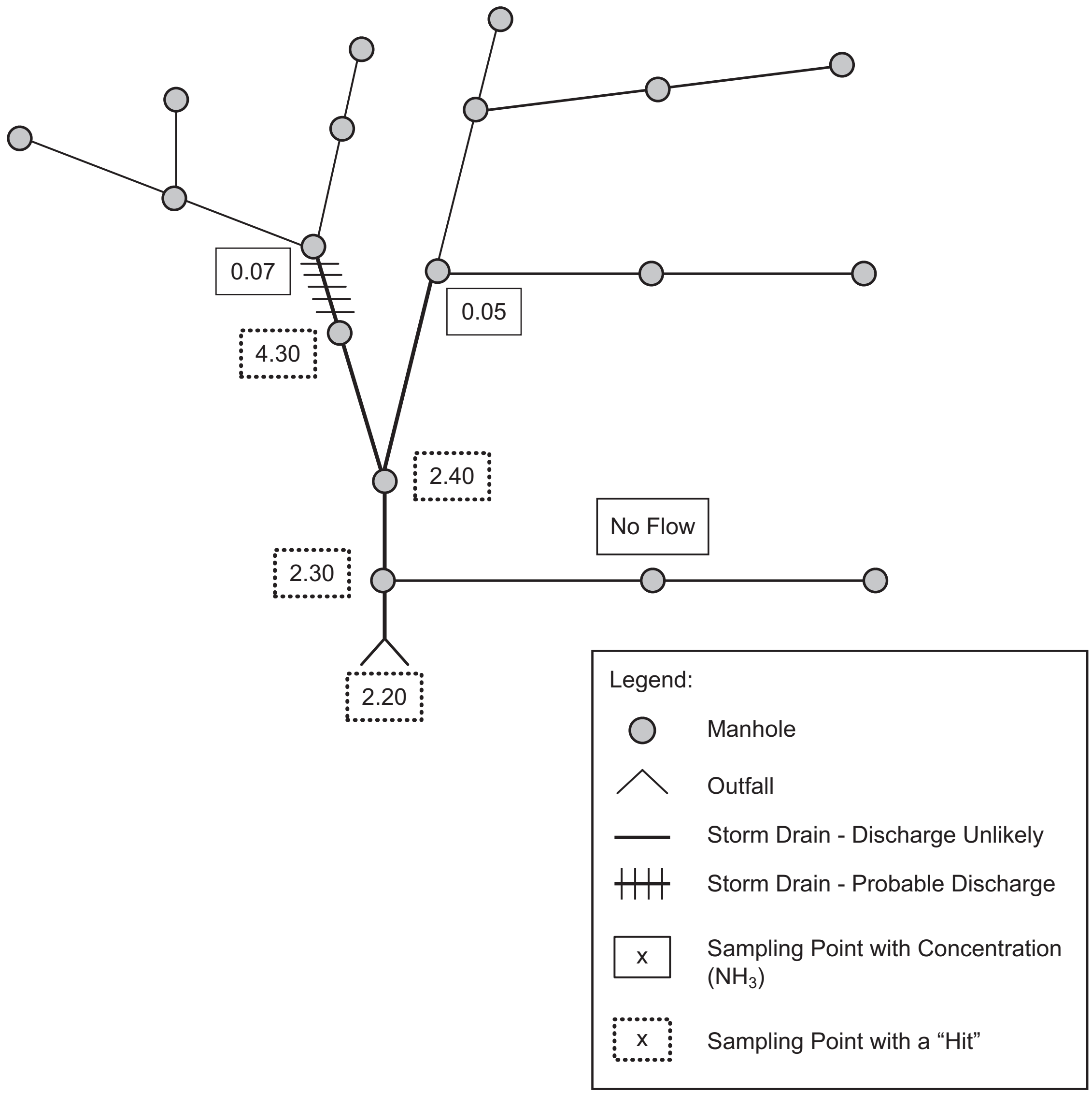


Figure 57: Use of ammonia as a trace parameter to identify illicit discharges

BOSTON WATER AND SEWER COMMISSION
MANHOLE INSPECTION LOG

Manhole ID No. ____________

Inspection Date: ____________ Tributary Area: ____________

Street: ____________ Manhole Type:

Inspection: Not Found ___ Surface ___ Internal ___ Sanitary Sewer _____ Storm Drain _____

Follow Up Inspection _________ High Outlet _______ Lovejoy _______

Time Since Last Rain:

Inspector: ____________ < 48 hours _____ 48 – 72 hours _____ > 72 hours _____

Observations:

Standing Water in Manhole: Yes ____ No ____ Color of Water: Clear ____ Cloudy ____ Other ____________

Flow in Manhole: Yes _____ No _____ Velocity: Slow _____ Medium _____ Fast _____ Depth of Flow: _____ in.

Color of Flow: No Flow: _____ Clear _____ Cloudy _____ Suspended Solids _____ Other ____________

Blockages: Yes _____ No _____ Sediment in Manhole: Yes ____ No____ If Yes: Percent of Pipe Filled: _____ %

Floatables: None _____ Sewage _____ Oily Sheen _____ Foam _____ Other ____________

Odor: None _____ Sewage _____ Oil _____ Soap _____Other ____________

Field Testing:

pH _____ Temp _____ Spec. Cond. _____ Surfactants: Yes _____ No __ Ammonia: Yes _____ No __

Contamination:

Found During Inspection Yes __ Check one: __Observation __Positive Test Kit Result

No __ Sandbagged Placed No __ Yes ____ Give Date ________

Sandbag Checked (Date): ________ Flow was ____ Captured ____ Not Captured

Condition of Manhole:

Grade: At _____ Above_____ Below _____ High Outlet: Blocked

Common Manholes: Yes ___ No ___ NA ___

Lovejoy: Cover Plate in Place Yes ___ No ___ NA ___

	Good	Fair	Poor	Comments
Pavement	____	____	____	____________
Cover	____	____	____	____________
Frame	____	____	____	____________
Corbel	____	____	____	____________
Walls	____	____	____	____________
Floor	____	____	____	____________

Construction Material:

	Brick	Precast	Other
Corbel	____	____	____________
Walls	____	____	____________
Floor	____	____	____________

Comments: Manhole Correct as Mapped Yes _____ No _____

N↑

Plan of Manhole

Figure 58: Boston Water and Sewer Commission Manhole Inspection Log (Source: Jewell, 2001)

Methods to isolate intermittent discharges in the storm drain network

Intermittent discharges are often challenging to trace in the storm drain network, although four techniques have been used with some success.

Sandbags

This technique involves placement of sandbags or similar barriers within strategic manholes in the storm drain network to form a temporary dam that collects any intermittent flows that may occur. Any flow collected behind the sandbag is then assessed using visual observations or by indicator sampling. Sandbags are lowered on a rope through the manhole to form a dam along the bottom of the storm drain, taking care not to fully block the pipe (in case it rains before the sandbag is retrieved). Sandbags are typically installed at junctions in the network to eliminate contributing branches from further consideration (Figure 59). If no flow collects behind the sandbag, the upstream pipe network can be ruled out as a source of the intermittent discharge.

Sandbags are typically left in place for no more than 48 hours, and should only be installed when dry weather is forecast. Sandbags should not be left in place during a heavy rainstorm. They may cause a blockage in the storm drain, or, they may be washed downstream and lost. The biggest downside to sandbagging is that it requires at least two trips to each manhole.

Optical Brightener Monitoring (OBM) Traps

Optical brightener monitoring (OBM) traps, profiled in Chapter 12, can also be used to detect intermittent flows at manhole junctions. When these absorbent pads are anchored in the pipe to capture dry weather flows, they can be used to determine the presence of flow and/or detergents. These OBM traps are frequently installed by lowering them into an open-grate drop inlet or storm drain inlet, as shown in Figure 60. The pads are then retrieved after 48 hours and are observed under a fluorescent light (this method is most reliable for undiluted washwaters).

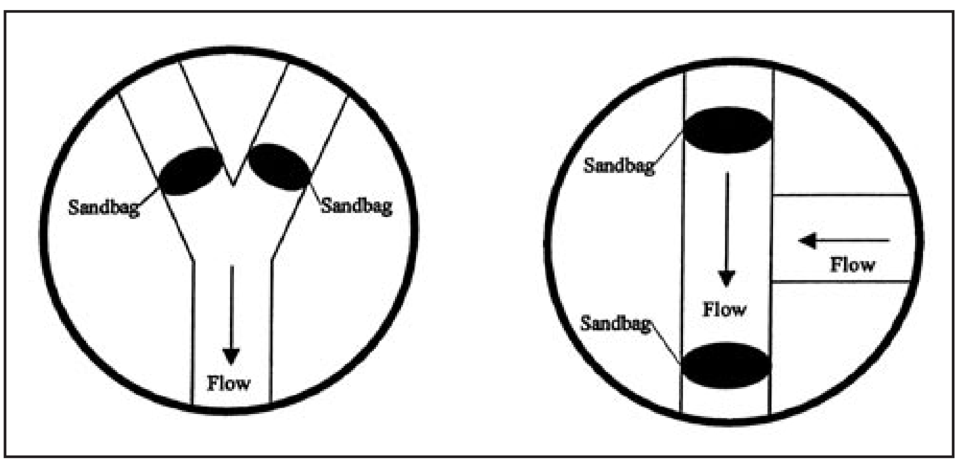


Figure 59: Example sandbag placement (Source: Jewell, 2001)

Figure 60: Optical Brightener Placement in the Storm Drain
(Source: Sargent and Castonguay, 1998)

Automatic Samplers

A few communities have installed automated samplers at strategic points within the storm drain network system that are triggered by small dry weather flows and collect water quality samples of intermittent discharges. Automated sampling can be extremely expensive, and is primarily used in very complex drainage areas that have severe intermittent discharge problems. Automated samplers can pinpoint the specific date and hours when discharges occur, and characterize its chemical composition, which can help crews fingerprint the generating source.

Observation of Deposits or Stains

Intermittent discharges often leave deposits or stains within the storm drain pipe or manhole after they have passed. Thus, crews should note whether any deposits or stains are present in the manhole, even if no dry weather flow is observed. In some cases, the origin of the discharge can be surmised by collecting indicator samples in the water ponded within the manhole sump. Stains and deposits, however, are not always a conclusive way to trace intermittent discharges in the storm drain network.

13.2 Drainage Area Investigations

The source of some illicit discharges can be determined through a survey or analysis of the drainage area of the problem outfall. The simplest approach is a rapid windshield survey of the drainage area to find the potential discharger or generating sites. A more sophisticated approach relies on an analysis of available GIS data and permit databases to identify industrial or other generating sites. In both cases, drainage area investigations are only effective if the discharge observed at an outfall has distinct or unique characteristics that allow crews to quickly ascertain the probable operation or business that is generating it. Often, discharges with a unique color, smell, or off-the-chart indicator sample reading may point to a specific industrial or commercial source. Drainage area investigations are not helpful in tracing sewage discharges, since they are often not always related to specific land uses or generating sites.

Rapid Windshield Survey

A rapid drive-by survey works well in small drainage areas, particularly if field crews are already familiar with its business operations. Field crews try to match the characteristics of the discharge to the most likely type of generating site, and then inspect all of the sites of the same type within the drainage area until the culprit is found. For example, if fuel is observed at an outfall, crews might quickly check every business operation in the catchment that stores or dispenses fuel. Another example is illustrated in Figure 61 where extremely dense algal growth was observed in a small stream during the winter. Field crews were aware of a fertilizer storage site in the drainage area, and a quick inspection identified it as the culprit.

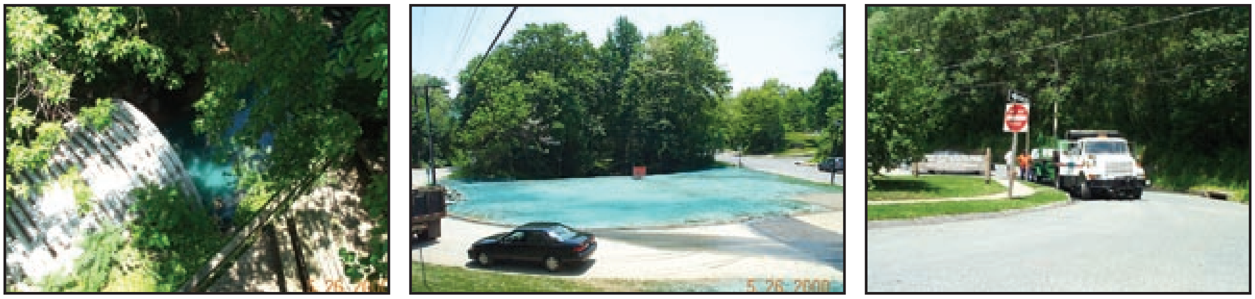


Figure 61: Symptom (left): Discoloration of stream; Diagnosis: Extra hydroseed leftover from an upstream application (middle) was dumped into a storm drain by municipal officials (right).

A third example of the windshield survey approach is shown in Figure 62, where a very thick, sudsy and fragrant discharge was noted at a small outfall. The discharge appeared to consist of wash water, and the only commercial laundromat found upstream was confirmed to be the source. On-site testing may still be needed to identify the specific plumbing or connection generating the discharge.

Detailed Drainage Area Investigations

In larger or more complex drainage areas, GIS data can be analyzed to pinpoint the source of a discharge. If only general land use data exist, maps can at least highlight suspected industrial areas. If more detailed SIC code data are available digitally, the GIS can be used to pull up specific hotspot operations or generating sites that could be potential dischargers. Some of the key discharge indicators that are associated with hotspots and specific industries are reviewed in Appendix K.

13.3 On-site Investigations

On-site investigations are used to pinpoint the exact source or connection producing a discharge within the storm drain network. The three basic approaches are dye, video and smoke testing. While each approach can determine the actual source of a discharge, each needs to be applied under the right conditions and test limitations (see Table 56). It should be noted that on-site investigations are not particularly effective in finding *indirect* discharges to the storm drain network.

Figure 62: The sudsy, fragrant discharge (left) indicates that the laundromat is the more likely culprit than the florist (right).

Table 56: Techniques to Locate the Discharge		
Technique	**Best Applications**	**Limitations**
Dye Testing	• Discharge limited to a very small drainage area (<10 properties is ideal) • Discharge probably caused by a connection from an individual property • Commercial or industrial land use	• May be difficult to gain access to some properties
Video Testing	• Continuous discharges • Discharge limited to a single pipe segment • Communities who own equipment for other investigations	• Relatively expensive equipment • Cannot capture non-flowing discharges • Often cannot capture discharges from pipes submerged in the storm drain
Smoke Testing	• Cross-connection with the sanitary sewer • Identifying other underground sources (e.g., leaking storage techniques) caused by damage to the storm drain	• Poor notification to public can cause alarm • Cannot detect all illicit discharges

TIP
The Wayne County Department of the Environment provides excellent training materials on on-site investigations, as well as other illicit discharge techniques. More information about this training can be accessed from their website: http://www.wcdoe.org/Watershed/Programs___Srvcs_/IDEP/idep.htm.

Figure 63: Dye Testing Plumbing (NEIWPCC, 2003)

Dye Testing

Dye testing is an excellent indicator of illicit connections and is conducted by introducing non-toxic dye into toilets, sinks, shop drains and other plumbing fixtures (see Figure 63). The discovery of dye in the storm drain, rather than the sanitary sewer, conclusively determines that the illicit connection exists.

Before commencing dye tests, crews should review storm drain and sewer maps to identify lateral sewer connections and how they can be accessed. In addition, property owners must be notified to obtain entry permission. For industrial or commercial properties, crews should carry a letter to document their legal authority to gain access to the property. If time permits, the letter can be sent in advance of the dye testing. For residential properties, communication can be more challenging. Unlike commercial properties, crews are not guaranteed access to homes, and should call ahead to ensure that the owner will be home on the day of testing.

Communication with other local agencies is also important since any dye released to the storm drain could be mistaken for a spill or pollution episode. To avoid a costly and embarrassing response to a false alarm, crews should contact key spill response agencies using a "quick fax" that describes when and where dye testing is occurring (Tuomari and Thomson, 2002). In addition, crews should carry a list of phone numbers to call spill response agencies in the event dye is released to a stream.

At least two staff are needed to conduct dye tests – one to flush dye down the plumbing fixtures and one to look for dye in the downstream manhole(s). In some cases, three staff may be preferred, with two staff entering the private residence or building for both safety and liability purposes.

The basic equipment to conduct dye tests is listed in Table 57 and is not highly specialized. Often, the key choice is the type of dye to use for testing. Several options are profiled in Table 58. In most cases, liquid dye is used, although solid dye tablets can also be placed in a mesh bag and lowered into the manhole on a rope (Figure 64). If a

Table 57: Key Field Equipment for Dye Testing *(Source: Wayne County, MI, 2000)*
Maps, Documents • Sewer and storm drain maps (sufficient detail to locate manholes) • Site plan and building diagram • Letter describing the investigation • Identification (e.g., badge or ID card) • Educational materials (to supplement pollution prevention efforts) • List of agencies to contact if the dye discharges to a stream. • Name of contact at the facility
Equipment to Find and Lift the Manhole Safely (small manhole often in a lawn) • Probe • Metal detector • Crow bar • Safety equipment (hard hats, eye protection, gloves, safety vests, steel-toed boots, traffic control equipment, protective clothing, gas monitor)
Equipment for Actual Dye Testing and Communications • 2-way radio • Dye (liquid or "test strips") • High powered lamps or flashlights • Water hoses • Camera

Figure 64: Dye in a mesh bag is placed into an upstream manhole (left); Dye observed at a downstream manhole traces the path of the storm drain (right)

longer pipe network is being tested, and dye is not expected to appear for several hours, charcoal packets can be used to detect the dye (GCHD, 2002). Charcoal packets can be secured and left in place for a week or two, and then analyzed for the presence of dye. Instructions for using charcoal packets in dye testing can be accessed at the following website: http://bayinfo.tamug.tamu.edu/gbeppubs/ms4.pdf.

The basic drill for dye tests consists of three simple steps. First, flush or wash dye down the drain, fixture or manhole. Second, pop open downgradient sanitary sewer manholes and check to see if any dye appears. If none is detected in the sewer manhole after an hour or so, check downgradient storm drain manholes or outfalls for the presence of dye. Although dye testing is fairly straightforward, some tips to make testing go more smoothly are offered in Table 59.

Table 58: Dye Testing Options

Product	Applications
Dye Tablets	• Compressed powder, useful for releasing dye over time • Less messy than powder form • Easy to handle, no mess, quick dissolve • Flow mapping and tracing in storm and sewer drains • Plumbing system tracing • Septic system analysis • Leak detection
Liquid Concentrate	• Very concentrated, disperses quickly • Works well in all volumes of flow • Recommended when metering of input is required • Flow mapping and tracing in storm and sewer drains • Plumbing system tracing • Septic system analysis • Leak detection
Dye Strips	• Similar to liquid but less messy
Powder	• Can be very messy and must dissolve in liquid to reach full potential • Recommended for very small applications or for very large applications where liquid is undesirable • Leak detection
Dye Wax Cakes	• Recommended for moderate-sized bodies of water • Flow mapping and tracing in storm and sewer drains
Dye Wax Donuts	• Recommended for large sized bodies of water (lakes, rivers, ponds) • Flow mapping and tracing in storm and sewer drains • Leak detection

Table 59: Tips for Successful Dye Testing
(Adapted from Tuomari and Thompson, 2002)

Dye Selection
- Green and liquid dyes are the easiest to see.
- Dye test strips can be a good alternative for residential or some commercial applications. (Liquid can leave a permanent stain).
- Check the sanitary sewer before using dyes to get a "base color." In some cases, (e.g., a print shop with a permitted discharge to the sanitary sewer), the sewage may have an existing color that would mask a dye.
- Choose two dye colors, and alternate between them when testing multiple fixtures.

Selecting Fixtures to Test
- Check the plumbing plan for the site to isolate fixtures that are separately connected.
- For industrial facilities, check most floor drains (these are often misdirected).
- For plumbing fixtures, test a representative fixture (e.g., a bathroom sink).
- Test some locations separately (e.g., washing machines and floor drains), which may be misdirected.
- If conducting dye investigations on multiple floors, start from the basement and work your way up.
- At all fixtures, make sure to flush with plenty of water to ensure that the dye moves through the system.

Selecting a Sewer Manhole for Observations
- Pick the closest manhole possible to make observations (typically a sewer lateral).
- If this is not possible, choose the nearest downstream manhole.

Communications Between Crew Members
- The individual conducting the dye testing calls in to the field person to report the color dye used, and when it is dropped into the system.
- The field person then calls back when dye is observed in the manhole.
- If dye is not observed (e.g., after two separate flushes have occurred), dye testing is halted until the dye appears.

Locating Missing Dye
- The investigation is not complete until the dye is found. Some reasons for dye not appearing include:
- The building is actually hooked up to a septic system.
- The sewer line is clogged.
- There is a leak in the sewer line or lateral pipe.

Video Testing

Video testing works by guiding a mobile video camera through the storm drain pipe to locate the actual connection producing an illicit discharge. Video testing shows flows and leaks within the pipe that may indicate an illicit discharge, and can show cracks and other pipe damage that enable sewage or contaminated water to flow into the storm drain pipe.

Video testing is useful when access to properties is constrained, such as residential neighborhoods. Video testing can also be expensive, unless the community already owns and uses the equipment for sewer inspections. This technique will not detect all types of discharges, particularly when the illicit connection is not flowing at the time of the video survey.

Different types of video camera equipment are used, depending on the diameter and condition of the storm sewer being tested.

Field crews should review storm drain maps, and preferably visit the site before selecting the video equipment for the test. A field visit helps determine the camera size needed to fit into the pipe, and if the storm drain has standing water.

In addition to standard safety equipment required for all manhole inspections, video testing requires a Closed-Circuit Television (CCTV) and supporting items. Many commercially available camera systems are specifically adapted to televise storm sewers, ranging from large truck or van-mounted systems to much smaller portable cameras. Cameras can be self-propelled or towed. Some specifications to look for include:

- The camera should be capable of radial view for inspection of the top, bottom, and sides of the pipe and for looking up lateral connections.
- The camera should be color.
- Lighting should be supplied by a lamp on the camera that can light the entire periphery of the pipe.

When inspecting the storm sewer, the CCTV is oriented to keep the lens as close as possible to the center of the pipe. The camera can be self-propelled through the pipe using a tractor or crawler unit or it may be towed through on a skid unit (see Figures 65 and 66). If the storm drain has ponded water, the camera should be attached to a raft, which floats through the storm sewer from one manhole to the next. To see details of the sewer, the camera and lights should be able to swivel both horizontally and vertically. A video record of the inspection should be made for future reference and repairs (see Figure 67).

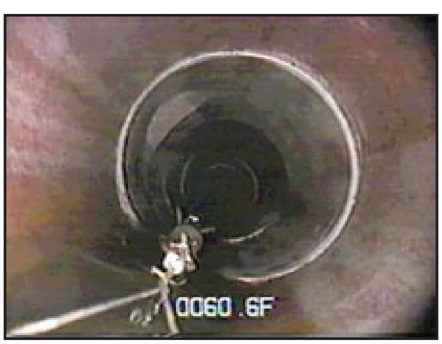


Figure 65: Camera being towed

Smoke Testing

Smoke testing is another “bottom up” approach to isolate illicit discharges. It works by introducing smoke into the storm drain system and observing where the smoke surfaces. The use of smoke testing to detect illicit discharges is a relatively new application, although many communities have used it to check for infiltration and inflow into their sanitary sewer network. Smoke testing can find improper

Figure 66: Tractor-mounted camera

Figure 67: Review of an inspection video

connections, or damage to the storm drain system (Figure 68). This technique works best when the discharge is confined to the upper reaches of the storm drain network, where pipe diameters are to small for video testing and gaining access to multiple properties renders dye testing infeasible.

Notifying the public about the date and purpose of smoke testing before starting is critical. The smoke used is non-toxic, but can cause respiratory irritation, which can be a problem for some residents. Residents should be notified at least two weeks prior to testing, and should be provided the following information (Hurco Technologies, Inc., 2003):

- Date testing will occur
- Reason for smoke testing
- Precautions they can take to prevent smoke from entering their homes or businesses
- What they need to do if smoke enters their home or business, and any health concerns associated with the smoke
- A number residents can call to relay any particular health concerns (e.g., chronic respiratory problems)

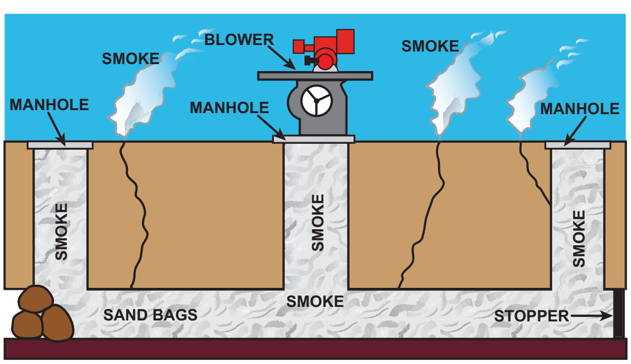


Figure 68: Smoke Testing System Schematic

Program managers should also notify local media to get the word out if extensive smoke testing is planned (e.g., television, newspaper, and radio). On the actual day of testing, local fire, police departments and 911 call centers should be notified to handle any calls from the public (Hurco Technologies, Inc., 2003).

The basic equipment needed for smoke testing includes manhole safety equipment, a smoke source, smoke blower, and sewer plugs. Two smoke sources can be used for smoke testing. The first is a smoke "bomb," or "candle" that burns at a controlled rate and releases very white smoke visible at relatively low concentrations (Figure 69). Smoke bombs are suspended beneath a blower in a manhole. Candles are available in 30 second to three minute sizes. Once opened, smoke bombs should be kept in a dry location and should be used within one year.

The second smoke source is liquid smoke, which is a petroleum-based product that is injected into the hot exhaust of a blower where it is heated and vaporized (Figure 70). The length of smoke production can vary depending on the length of the pipe being

Figure 69: Smoke Candles

Figure 70: Smoke blower

tested. In general, liquid smoke is not as consistently visible and does not travel as far as smoke from bombs (USA Blue Book).

Smoke blowers provide a high volume of air that forces smoke through the storm drain pipe. Two types of blowers are commonly used: “squirrel cage” blowers and direct-drive propeller blowers. Squirrel cage blowers are large and may weigh more than 100 pounds, but allow the operator to generate more controlled smoke output. Direct-drive propeller blowers are considerably lighter and more compact, which allows for easier transport and positioning.

Three basic steps are involved in smoke testing. First, the storm drain is sealed off by plugging storm drain inlets. Next, the smoke is released and forced by the blower through the storm drain system. Lastly, the crew looks for any escape of smoke above-ground to find potential leaks.

One of three methods can be used to seal off the storm drain. Sandbags can be lowered into place with a rope from the street surface. Alternatively, beach balls that have a diameter slightly larger than the drain can be inserted into the pipe. The beach ball is then placed in a mesh bag with a rope attached to it so it can be secured and retrieved. If the beach ball gets stuck in the pipe, it can simply be punctured, deflated and removed. Finally, expandable plugs are available, and may be inserted from the ground surface.

Blowers should be set up next to the open manhole after the smoke is started. Only one manhole is tested at a time. If smoke candles are used, crews simply light the candle, place it in a bucket, and lower it in the manhole. The crew then watches to see where smoke escapes from the pipe. The two most common situations that indicate an illicit discharge are when smoke is seen rising from internal plumbing fixtures (typically reported by residents) or from sewer vents. Sewer vents extend upward from the sewer lateral to release gas buildup, and are not supposed to be connected to the storm drain system.

13.4 Septic System Investigations

The techniques for tracing illicit discharges are different in rural or low-density residential watersheds. Often, these watersheds lack sanitary sewer service and storm water is conveyed through ditches or swales, rather than enclosed pipes. Consequently, many illicit discharges enter the stream as indirect discharges, through surface breakouts of septic fields or through straight pipe discharges from bypassed septic systems.

The two broad techniques used to find individual septic systems—on-site investigations and infrared imagery—are described in this section.

On-Site Septic Investigations

Three kinds of on-site investigations can be performed at individual properties to determine if the septic system is failing, including homeowner survey, surface condition analysis and a detailed system inspection. The first two investigations are rapid and relatively simple assessments typically conducted in targeted watershed areas. Detailed system inspections are a much more thorough investigation of the functioning of the septic system that is conducted by a certified professional. Detailed system inspections may occur at time of sale of a property, or be triggered by poor scores on the rapid homeowner survey or surface condition analysis.

Homeowner Survey

The homeowner survey consists of a brief interview with the property owner to determine the potential for current or future failure of the septic system, and is often done in conjunction with a surface condition analysis.

Table 60 highlights some common questions to ask in the survey, which inquire about resident behaviors, system performance and maintenance activity.

Surface Condition Analysis

The surface condition analysis is a rapid site assessment where field crews look for obvious indicators that point to current or potential production of illicit discharges by the septic system (Figure 71). Some of the key surface conditions to analyze have been described by Andrews *et al*., (1997) and are described below:

- Foul odors in the yard
- Wet, spongy ground; lush plant growth; or burnt grass near the drain field
- Algal blooms or excessive weed growth in adjacent ditches, ponds and streams
- Shrubs or trees with root damage within 10 feet of the system
- Cars, boats, or other heavy objects located over the field that could crush lateral pipes
- Storm water flowing over the drain field
- Cave-ins or exposed system components
- Visible liquid on the surface of the drain field (e.g., surface breakouts)
- Obvious system bypasses (e.g., straight pipe discharges)

Table 60: Septic System Homeowner Survey Questions *(Adapted from Andrews et al., 1997 and Holmes Inspection Services)*
• How many people live in the house?[1] • What is the septic tank capacity?[2] • Do drains in the house empty slowly or not at all? • When was the last time the system was inspected or maintained? • Does sewage back up into the house through drain lines? • Are there any wet, smelly spots in the yard? • Is the septic tank effluent piped so it drains to a road ditch, a storm sewer, a stream, or is it connected to a farm drain tile?
[1] Water usage ranges from 50 to 100 gallons per day per person. This information can be used to estimate the wastewater load from the house (Andrews et. al, 1997). *[2] The septic tank should be large enough to hold two days' worth of wastewater (Andrews et. al, 1997).*

a. b.

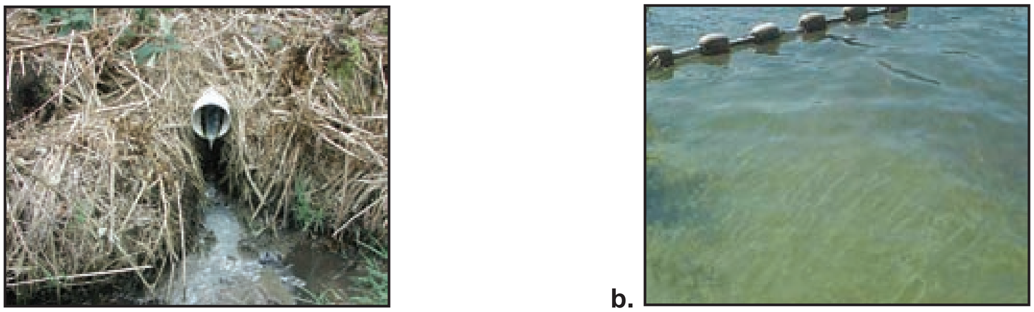


Figure 71: (a) Straight pipe discharge to nearby stream. (b) Algal bloom in a nearby pond.
(Sources: a- Snohomish County, WA, b- King County, WA)

Detailed System Inspection

The detailed system inspection is a much more thorough inspection of the performance and function of the septic system, and must be completed by a certified professional. The inspector certifies the structural integrity of all components of the system, and checks the depth of solids in the septic tank to determine if the system needs to be pumped out. The inspector also sketches the system, and estimates distance to groundwater, surface water, and drinking water sources. An example septic system inspection form from Massachusetts can be found at http://www.state.ma.us/dep/brp/wwm/soilsys.htm.

Although not always incorporated into the inspection, dye testing can sometimes point to leaks from broken pipes, or direct discharges through straight pipes that might be missed during routine inspection. Dye can be introduced into plumbing fixtures in the home, and flushed with sufficient running water. The inspector then watches the septic field, nearby ditches, watercourses and manholes for any signs of the dye. The dye may take several hours to appear, so crews may want to place charcoal packets in adjacent waters to capture dye until they can return later to retrieve them.

Infrared Imagery

Infrared imagery is a special type of photography with gray or color scales that represent differences in temperature and emissivity of objects in the image (www.stocktoninfrared.com), and can be used to locate sewage discharges. Several different infrared imagery techniques can be used to identify illicit discharges. The following discussion highlights two of these: aerial infrared thermography[13] and color infrared aerial photography.

Infrared Thermography

Infrared thermography is increasingly being used to detect illicit discharges and failing septic systems. The technique uses the temperature difference of sewage as a marker to locate these illicit discharges. Figure 72 illustrates the thermal difference

[13] Infrared thermography is also being used by communities such as Mecklenburg County and the City of Charlotte in NC to detect illicit discharges at outfalls.

between an outfall discharge (with a higher temperature) and a stream.

The equipment needed to conduct aerial infrared thermography includes an aircraft (plane or helicopter); a high-resolution, large format, infrared camera with appropriate mount; a GPS unit; and digital recording equipment. If a plane is used, a higher resolution camera is required since it must operate at higher altitudes. Pilots should be experienced since flights take place at night, slowly, and at a low altitude. The camera may be handheld, but a mounted camera will provide significantly clearer results for a larger area. The GPS can be combined with a mobile mapping program and a video encoder-decoder that encodes and displays the coordinates, date, and time (Stockton, 2000). The infrared data are analyzed after the flight by trained analysts to locate suspected discharges, and field crews then inspect the ground-truthed sites to confirm the presence of a failing septic system.

Late fall, winter, and early spring are typically the best times of year to conduct these investigations in most regions of the country. This allows for a bigger difference between receiving water and discharge temperatures, and interference from vegetation is minimized (Stockton, 2004b). In addition, flights should take place at night to minimize reflected and direct daylight solar radiation that may adversely affect the imagery (Stockton, 2004b).

Color Infrared Aerial Photography

Color infrared aerial photography looks for changes in plant growth, differences in soil moisture content, and the presence of standing water on the ground to primarily identify failing septic systems (Figure 73).

The Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) uses color infrared aerial photography to detect failing septic systems in reservoir watersheds. Local health departments conduct follow-up ground-truthing surveys to determine if a system is actually failing (Sagona, 1986). Similar to thermography, it is recommended that flights take place at night, during leaf-off conditions, or when the water table is at a seasonal high (which is when most failures typically occur (U.S. EPA, 1999).

Figure 72: Aerial thermography showing sewage leak

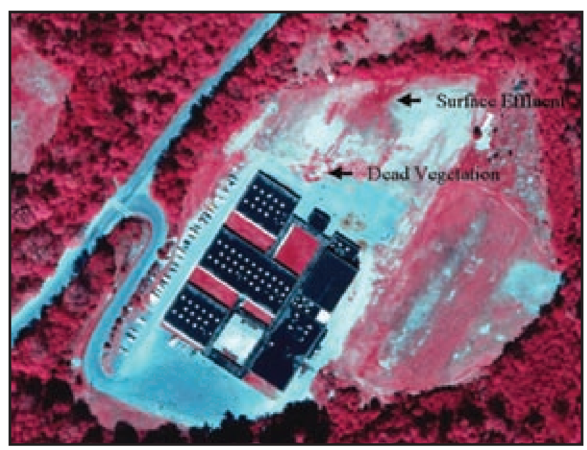


Figure 73: Dead vegetation and surface effluent are evidence of a septic system surface failure.
(Source: U.S. EPA, 1999)

13.5 The Cost to Trace Illicit Discharge Sources

Tracing illicit discharges to their source can be an elusive and complex process, and precise staffing and budget data are difficult to estimate. Experience of Phase I NPDES communities that have done these investigations in the past can shed some light on cost estimates. Some details on unit costs for common illicit discharge investigations are provided below.

Costs for Dye, Video, and Smoke Testing

The cost of smoke, dye, and video testing can be substantial and staff intensive, and often depend on investigation specific factors, such as the complexity of the drainage network, density and age of buildings, and complexity of land use. Wayne County, MI, has estimated the cost of dye testing at $900 per facility. Video testing costs range from $1.50 to $2.00 per foot, although this increases by $1.00 per foot if pipe cleaning is needed prior to testing.

Table 61 summarizes the costs of start-up equipment for basic manhole entry and inspection, which is needed regardless of which type of test is performed. Tables 62 through 64 provide specific equipment costs for dye, video and smoke testing, respectively.

Table 61: Common Field Equipment Needed for Dye, Video, and Smoke Testing

Item	Cost
1 Digital Camera	$200
Clipboards, Pens, Batteries	$25
1 Field vehicle	$15,000 - $35,000
1 First aid kit	$30
1 Spotlight	$40
1 Gas monitor and probe	$900 - $2,100
1 Hand-held GPS Unit	$150
2 Two-way radios	$250 - $750
1 Manhole hook	$80 - $130
1 Mirror	$70 - $130
2 Reflective safety vests	$40
Rubber/latex gloves (box of 100)	$25
1 Can of Spray Paint	$5
4 Traffic Cones	$50

Table 62: Equipment Costs for Dye Testing		
Product	**Water Volume**	**Cost**
Dye Strips	1 strip/500 gallons	$75 – $94 per 100 strips
Dye Tablets	0 – 50,000 gallons	$40 per 200 tablets
Liquid Concentrate (Rhodamine WT)	0 – 50,000 gallons	$80 – $90 per gallon $15 – $20 per pint
Powder	50,000 + gallons	$77 per lb
Dye Wax Cakes	20,000 – 50,000 gallons	$12 per one 1.25 ounce cake
Dye Wax Donuts	50,000 + gallons	$104 – $132 per 42 oz. donut
Price Sources: *Aquatic Eco-Systems http://www.aquaticeco.com/* *Cole Parmer http:/www.coleparmer.com* *USA Blue Book http:/www.usabluebook.com*		

Table 63: Equipment Costs for Video Testing	
Equipment	**Cost**
GEN-EYE 2™ B&W Sewer Camera with VCR & 200' Push Cable	$5,800
100' Push Rod and Reel Camera for 2" – 10" Pipes	$5,300
200' Push Rod and Reel Camera for 8" – 24" Pipes	$5,800
Custom Saturn III Inspection System 500' cable for 6-16" Lines	$32,000 ($33,000 with 1000 foot cable)
OUTPOST • Box with build-out • Generator • Washdown system	$6,000 $2,000 $1,000
Video Inspection Trailer • 7'x10' trailer & build-out • Hardware and software package • Incidentals	$18,500 $15,000 $5,000
Sprinter Chassis Inspection Vehicle • Van (with build-out for inspecting 6" – 24" pipes) • Crawler (needed to inspect pipes >24") • Software upgrade (optional but helpful for extensive pipe systems)	$130,000 $18,000 $8,000
Sources: USA Blue Book and Envirotech	

Table 64: Equipment Costs for Smoke Testing	
Equipment	**Cost**
Smoke Blower	$1,000 to $2,000 each
Liquid Smoke	$38 to $45 per gallon
Smoke Candles, 30 second (4,000 cubic feet)	$27.50 per dozen
Smoke Candles, 60 Second (8,000 cubic feet)	$30.50 per dozen
Smoke Candles, 3 Minute (40,000 cubic feet)	$60.00 per dozen
Sources: Hurco Tech, 2003 and Cherne Industries, 2003	

Costs for Septic System Investigations

Most septic system investigations are relatively low cost, but factors such as private property access, notification, and the total number of sites investigated can increase costs. Unit costs for the three major septic system investigations are described below.

Homeowner Survey and Surface Condition Analysis

Both the homeowner survey and the surface condition analysis are relatively low cost investigation techniques. Assuming that a staff person can investigate one home per hour, the average cost per inspection is approximately $25. A substantial cost savings can be realized by using interns or volunteers to conduct these simple investigations.

Detailed System Inspection

Septic system inspections are more expensive, but a typical unit cost is about $250, and may also include an additional cost of pumping the system, at roughly $150, if pumping is required to complete the inspection (Wayne County, 2003). This cost is typically charged to the homeowner as part of a home inspection.

Aerial Infrared Thermography

The equipment needed to conduct aerial infrared thermography is expensive; cameras alone may range from $250,000 to $500,000 (Stockton, 2004a). However, private contractors provide this service. In general, the cost to contract an aerial infrared thermography investigation depends on the length of the flight (flights typically follow streams or rivers); how difficult it will be to fly the route; the number of heat anomalies expected to be encountered; the expected post-flight processing time (typically, four to five hours of analysis for every hour flown); and the distance of the site from the plane's "home" (Stockton, 2004a). The cost range is typically $150 to $400 per mile of stream or river flown, which includes the flight and post-flight analyses (Stockton, 2004a).

As an alternative, local police departments may already own an infrared imaging system that may be used. For instance, the Arkansas Department of Health used a state police helicopter with a Forward Looking Infrared (FLIR) imaging system, GPS, video equipment, and maps (Eddy, 2000). The disadvantage to this is that the equipment may not be available at optimal times to conduct the investigation. In addition, infrared imaging equipment used by police departments may not be sensitive enough to detect the narrow range of temperature difference (only a few degrees) often expected for sewage flows (Stockton, 2004a).

Chapter 14: Techniques to Fix Discharges

Quick and efficient correction of illicit discharges begins with having well defined legal authority and responsibilities coupled with strong enforcement and follow-up measures. Chapter 4 discussed important considerations with respect to legal authority and responsibility and Appendix B contains a model illicit discharge ordinance that provides language on violations, enforcement and penalties.

Most illicit discharge corrective actions involve some form of infrastructure modification or repair. These structural repairs are used to eliminate a wide variety of **direct discharges** such as sewage cross-connections, straight pipes, industrial cross-connections, and commercial cross-connections. Fixes range from simple plumbing projects to excavation and replacement of sewer lines. In some cases, structural repairs are necessary when **indirect** discharges, such as sewage from a sewer break or pump station failure enter the MS4 through an inlet, or flows directly into receiving waters. Most **transitory** discharges are corrected simply with spill containment and clean-up procedures. Section 8.3 previously discussed an overview of the correction process. The following section discusses more specific correction considerations.

14.1 Implementation Considerations

Once the source of an illicit discharge has been identified, steps should be taken to fix or eliminate the discharge. The following four questions should be answered for each individual illicit discharge to determine how to proceed:

- Who is responsible?
- What methods will be used to fix it?
- How long will it take?
- How will removal be confirmed?

The answer to each of these questions depends on the source of the discharge. Illicit discharges generally originate from one of the following sources:

- *An internal plumbing connection* (e.g., the discharge from a washing machine is directed to the building's storm lateral; the floor drain in a garage is connected to the building's storm lateral)
- *A service lateral cross-connection* (e.g., the sanitary lateral from a building is connected to the MS4)
- *An infrastructure failure within the sanitary sewer or MS4* (e.g., a collapsed sanitary line is discharging into the MS4)
- *An indirect transitory discharge resulting from leaks, spills, or overflows.*

Financial responsibility for source removal will typically fall on property owners, MS4 operators, or some combination of the two.

Who's responsible for fixing the problem?

Ultimate responsibility for removing the source of a discharge is generally that of either the property owner or the municipality/utility (e.g., primary owner/operator of the MS4).

Internal Plumbing Connection

The responsibility for correcting an internal plumbing connection is generally the responsibility of the building owner. Communities may wish to develop a list of certified contractors that property owners can hire for corrections.

Service Lateral

As with internal plumbing connections, the responsibility for correcting a problem within a service lateral is typically that of the property owner being served by the lateral. However, the cost of correcting a service lateral problem can be significantly higher than that of fixing an internal plumbing problem, so communities may want to consider alternative remedial approaches than those for internal plumbing corrections. For example, communities can have on-call contractors fix lateral connections allowing the problem to be fixed as soon as it is discovered. The community can then: 1) pay for correction costs through the capital budget, or state or federal funding options, or 2) share the cost with the owner, or 3) pass on the full cost to the property owner.

Infrastructure Failure Within the Sanitary Sewer or MS4

Illicit discharges related to some sort of infrastructure failure within the sanitary sewer or MS4 should be corrected by the jurisdiction, utility, or agency responsible for maintenance of the sewers and drains.

Transitory Discharge

Repair of transitory discharge sources will usually be the responsibility of the property owner where the discharge originates. Ordinances should clearly stipulate the time frame in which these discharges should be repaired.

What methods will be used to fix the problem?

The methods used to eliminate discharges will vary depending on the type of problem and the location of the problem. Internal plumbing corrections can often be performed using standard plumbing supplies for relatively little cost. For correction locations that occur outside of the building, such as service laterals or infrastructure in the right of way, costs tend to be significantly more due to specialized equipment needs. Certified contractors are recommended for these types of repairs. Table 65 provides a summary of a range of methods for fixing these more significant problems along with estimated costs. The last six techniques described in Table 68 are used for sanitary sewer line repair and rehabilitation. These activities are typically used when there is evidence of significant seepage from the sanitary system to the storm drain system.

How long should it take?

The timeframe for eliminating a connection or discharge should depend on the type of connection or discharge and how difficult elimination will be. A discharge that poses a significant threat to human or environmental health should be discontinued and eliminated immediately. Clear guidance should be provided in the local ordinance on the timeframe for removing discharges and connections. Typically, discharges should be stopped within seven days of notification by the municipality, and illicit connections should be repaired within 30 days of notification.

How is the removal or correction confirmed?

Removal and correction of a discharge or connection should be confirmed both at the source, to ensure that the correction has been made, and downstream, to ensure that it is the only local discharge present.

For discharges resulting from internal plumbing and lateral connections, dye testing can confirm the correction. Also, sandbagging should be done in the first accessible storm drain manhole downstream of the correction to verify that this was the only discharge present.

The correction of discharges resulting from some sort of infrastructure failure in the sanitary sewer or MS4 can be verified by dye testing or televising the line in conjunction with sandbagging and sampling at an accessible downstream manhole.

Table 65: Methods to Eliminate Discharges

Technique	Application	Description	Estimated Cost
1. Service Lateral Disconnection, Reconnection	Lateral is connected to the wrong line	Lateral is disconnected and reconnected to appropriate line	$2,500[1]
2. Cleaning	Line is blocked or capacity diminished	Flushing (sending a high pressure water jet through the line); pigging (dragging a large rubber plug through the lines); or rodding	$1/linear foot[2]
3. Excavation and Replacement	Line is collapsed, severely blocked, significantly misaligned, or undersized	Existing pipe is removed, new pipe placed in same alignment; Existing pipe abandoned in place, replaced by new pipe in parallel alignment	For 14” line, $50-$100/linear foot (higher number is associated with repaving or deeper excavations, if necessary)[2]
4. Manhole Repair	Decrease ponding; prevent flow of surface water into manhole; prevent groundwater infiltration	Raise frame and lid above grade; install lid inserts; grout, mortar or apply shortcrete inside the walls; install new precast manhole.	Vary widely, from $250 to raise a frame and cover to ~ $2,000 to replace manhole[2]
5. Corrosion Control Coating	Improve resistance to corrosion	Spray- or brush-on coating applied to interior of pipe.	< $10/linear foot[2]
6. Grouting	Seal leaking joints and small cracks	Seals leaking joints and small cracks.	For a 12” line, ~ $36-$54/linear foot[2]
7. Pipe Bursting	Line is collapsed, severely blocked, or undersized	Existing pipe used as guide for inserting expansion head; expansion head increases area available for new pipe by pushing existing pipe out radially until it cracks; bursting device pulls new pipeline behind it	For 8” pipe, $40-$80/linear foot[4]
8. Slip Lining	Pipe has numerous cracks, leaking joints, but is continuous and not misaligned	Pulling of a new pipe through the old one.	For 12” pipe, $50-$75 /linear foot[2]
9. Fold and Formed Pipe	Pipe has numerous cracks, leaking joints	Similar to sliplining but is easier to install, uses existing manholes for insertion; a folded thermoplastic pipe is pulled into place and rounded to conform to internal diameter of existing pipe	For 8-12” pipe, $60-$78/linear foot[3]

Table 65: Methods to Eliminate Discharges			
Technique	**Application**	**Description**	**Estimated Cost**
10. Inversion Lining	Pipe has numerous cracks, leaking joints; can be used where there are misalignments	Similar to sliplining but is easier to install, uses existing manholes for insertion; a soft resin impregnated felt tube is inserted into the pipe, inverted by filling it with air or water at one end, and cured in place.	\$75-\$125/linear foot[2]

1 CWP (2002)
2 1991 costs from Brown (1995)
3 U.S. EPA (1991)
4 U.S. EPA (1999b)

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