

CITY OF TEXARKANA

**STORMWATER MANAGEMENT
DESIGN MANUAL**



JULY 2021

Approved by City Council on September 27, 2021 by Ordinance No. 2021-82

This document is based on the regional *i*SWM Manual prepared by the North Central Texas Council of Governments. The original *i*SWM document has been revised to present City of Texarkana Stormwater Management Criteria. Some of the *i*SWM sections and criteria which are not currently adopted are available in the Appendices for technical reference, utilization by developers for enhancement of land development projects, and potential future adoption by the City, as needed.

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City of Texarkana Stormwater Management Design Manual

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INTRODUCTION

Why a new City of Texarkana Stormwater Management Design Manual?

This design manual is needed to update the policies and criteria for Stormwater facilities within the City of Texarkana and its extraterritorial jurisdiction. New policies and criteria are needed to reflect the changes that have occurred in community standards, technology and environmental regulations that impact Stormwater management. The primary motivation for this new manual is to guide the community in drainage policy and criteria so that new development does not increase flooding, erosion, and water quality problems.

This manual is intended to provide a guideline for the most commonly encountered Stormwater or flood control designs in the City of Texarkana. It can also be used as a guide for watershed master plans and for design of remedial measures for existing facilities. This manual was developed for users with knowledge and experience in the applications of standard engineering principles and practices of Stormwater design and management. There will be situations not completely addressed or covered by this manual. Any variations from the practices established in this manual must have the approval of the Director of Public Works. Close coordination with the staff of the City is recommended and encouraged during the planning, design and construction of all Stormwater facilities. This Stormwater Management Design Manual is adopted and becomes effective on January 1, 2022.

Relationship of City of Texarkana Manual to Regional *integrated* Stormwater Management (*i*SWM) Manual

The City of Texarkana design manual is largely based on the regional *i*SWM manual, developed by the North Central Texas Council of Governments (NCTCOG). The *i*SWM manual was prepared for the 16-county north central Texas region (NOT including Texarkana) and includes sections that are not being adopted or are being modified by the City of Texarkana. The digital version of both manuals are included on the respective websites for the City of Texarkana (www.ci.texarkana.tx.us) and NCTCOG (<http://iswm.nctcog.org/>). Copies of these documents can be downloaded from the City's website or ordered from the City for the cost of reproduction.

Notes and Abbreviations

Notes and abbreviations used in the Local Criteria Section:

1. Director of Public Works – Head of the Engineering Division, Public Works Department, City of Texarkana
2. City - City of Texarkana

Contact Information

Contacts for the City of Texarkana Stormwater Management Design Manual can be reached at the Engineering Department at: 903-798-3900 or at the website: www.ci.texarkana.tx.us. For information on the *i*SWM regional manual and program, contact the NCTCOG at 817-695-9191 or at the website: <http://iswm.nctcog.org/>.

References

integrated Stormwater Management Design Manual for Site Development, 2006 Edition. NCTCOG, Arlington, TX.

Note: Additional references are included in individual chapters or appendices.

GOALS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE CITY OF TEXARKANA STORMWATER MANAGEMENT PROGRAM

1. Establish and implement drainage policy and criteria so that new development does not create or increase flooding problems, cause erosion or pollute downstream water bodies.
2. Facilitate the continuation of comprehensive watershed planning that promotes orderly growth and results in an integrated system of public and private Stormwater infrastructure.
3. Minimize flood risks to citizens and properties, and stabilize or decrease streambank and channel erosion on creeks, channels, and streams.
4. Improve Stormwater quality in creeks, rivers, and other water bodies, remove pollutants, enhance the environment and mimic the natural drainage system, to the extent practicable, in conformance with the Texas Pollutant Discharge Elimination System (TPDES) permit requirements.
5. Support multi-use functions of Stormwater facilities for trails, green space, parks, greenways or corridors, Stormwater quality treatment, and other recreational and natural features, provided they are compatible with the primary functions of the Stormwater facility.
6. Encourage a more standardized, integrated land development process by bringing Stormwater planning into the conceptual stages of land development.

CITY OF TEXARKANA STORMWATER POLICY STATEMENTS

1. All development within the City of Texarkana City Limits or Extra-territorial Jurisdiction (ETJ) shall include planning, design, and construction of storm drainage systems in accordance with this Stormwater Management Design Manual, and Planning Commission Rules and Regulations.
2. Drainage Studies and Plans may be required for proposed developments within the Texarkana City Limits or its ETJ, in conformance with this Stormwater Management Design Manual. Specific submittal requirements depend on the complexity of the project and requirements of the Subdivision Ordinance and Zoning Ordinance. The checklists for each submittal are included in the Appendix A.
3. All drainage related plans and studies shall be prepared and sealed by a Licensed Professional Engineer with a valid license from the State of Texas. The Engineer shall attest that the design was conducted in accordance with this Stormwater Management Design Manual.
4. For currently developed areas within the City of Texarkana with planned re-development, Stormwater discharges and velocities from the project should not exceed discharges established by procedures presented in this manual but also shall not exceed discharges and velocities from current (existing) developed conditions, unless the downstream storm drainage system is designed (or adequate) to convey the future (increased) discharges and velocities.
5. All drainage studies and design plans shall be formulated and based upon ultimate, fully developed watershed or drainage area runoff conditions. In certain circumstances where regional detention is in place or a master plan has been adopted, a development may plan to receive less than ultimate developed flow from upstream areas with the approval of the Director of Public Works. The rainfall frequency criteria for Stormwater facilities, as enumerated within this Stormwater Management Design Manual, shall be utilized for all drainage studies and design plans.
6. Proposed Stormwater discharge rates and velocities from a development shall not exceed the runoff from existing, pre-development conditions, unless a detailed study is prepared that demonstrates that no unacceptable adverse impacts will be created. Adverse impacts include: new or increased flooding of existing structures, significant increases in flood elevations over existing roadways, unacceptable rises in base flood elevations or velocities, and new or increased stream bank erosion or increased occurrence of nuisance flows.
7. If a proposed development drains into an improved channel or Stormwater drainage system designed under a previous City of Texarkana drainage policy, then the hydraulic capacities of downstream facilities must be checked to verify that increased flows, caused by the new development, will not exceed the capacity of the existing system or cause increased downstream structure flooding. If there is not sufficient capacity to prevent increased downstream flooding, then detention or other acceptable measures must be adopted to accommodate the increase in runoff due to the proposed development.
8. Stormwater runoff may be stored in detention and retention basins to mitigate potential downstream problems caused by a proposed development. Proposed detention or retention basins shall be analyzed both individually and as a part of the watershed system, to assure compatibility with one another and with the City's Stormwater management master plans for that watershed (if available). Storage of Stormwater runoff, near points of rainfall occurrence, such as the use of parking lots, ball fields, property line swales, parks, road embankments, borrow pits and on-site ponds is desirable and encouraged.
9. Alternatives to detention or retention for mitigation of potential downstream problems caused by proposed development include: acquisition of expanded drainage easements, ROW, or property

owner agreements; downstream channel and/or roadway bridge/culvert improvements or stream bank erosion protection; and financial contributions to the City Stormwater Program for future improvements. These alternatives will be considered by the Director of Public Works on a case-by-case basis.

10. All proposed developments within the Texarkana City Limits or its ETJ shall comply with all local, county, state and federal regulations and all required permits or approvals shall be obtained by the developer.
11. The policy of the City is to avoid substantial or significant transfer of Stormwater runoff from one basin to another and to maintain historical drainage paths whenever possible. However, the transfer of Stormwater from basin to basin may be necessary in certain instances and will be reviewed and a variance can be made by the Director of Public Works in accordance with established variance procedures.

CHAPTER 1 – STORMWATER MANAGEMENT SYSTEM PLANNING AND DESIGN

Chapter 1 of this Manual provides a foundation for stormwater management in terms of basic philosophy, principles, definitions, and land development site planning and design practices, and should therefore be utilized for general guidance throughout the development process.

Section 1.1 – Stormwater Management Planning

Depending on the complexity of the project or submittal requirements as dictated in the Subdivision Ordinance and the Zoning Ordinance, stormwater management plans may benefit from a pre-submittal meeting with the City. The pre-submittal meeting is an important consideration in that it allows the developer and their design engineer to propose a potential site layout and gives city staff the opportunity to comment on a stormwater management plan concept prior to significant planning and design effort on the part of the design engineer. The pre-submittal meeting is recommended for complex projects and submittals, but it is not required.

1.1.1 Pre-submittal Checklist (recommended not required)

Based upon the review of existing conditions and site analysis, the design engineer may use the Pre-submittal checklist provided in Appendix A, to allow the design engineer, the developer and the City of Texarkana to get a “first look” at the stormwater management system for the proposed development. The Pre-submittal Checklist can be submitted to the City before detailed preliminary site plans are developed, or can be filled in during the initial visit with the City.

It is extremely important at this stage that stormwater design is integrated into the overall site design concept in order to best reduce the impacts of the development as well as provide for the most cost-effective and environmentally sensitive approach. Using hydrologic calculations, the goal of mimicking pre-development conditions can serve a useful purpose in planning the stormwater management system.

1.1.2 Stormwater Management Plan

The Stormwater Management Plan adds further detail to the Pre-submittal Checklist and reflects changes that are requested or required by the local review authority. It is recommended but not required that design engineers or developers submit the Stormwater Management Plan and checklist provided in Appendix A with the preliminary plan or preliminary plat submittal. This will provide the City an opportunity to review preliminary concepts and provide comments to the designer. The Stormwater Management Plan and checklist are required for approval of the design plans and final plat, and should include all the revised elements as well as the following items:

A Final Drainage Study and Stormwater Management Plan for development of all or a portion (i.e. phase one or phase two, etc.) of the overall development shall be prepared and submitted to the City of Texarkana. This submittal shall generally include the information listed below.

1. A topographical map of the entire watershed (not just the area of the proposed development) generally not smaller than 1"=200' (or other such scale approved by the Director of Public

Works), delineating the watershed boundary(s) and runoff design point(s), existing and proposed land use and zoning, and the size and description of the outfall drainage facilities and receiving streams.

2. Computation tables showing drainage areas, runoff coefficients, time of concentration, rainfall intensities and peak discharge for the required design storms, for both existing and proposed (ultimate development) conditions, at all design points for each component of the stormwater system (streets, pipes, channels, detention ponds, etc.).
3. Any proposed changes to watershed boundaries (i.e. by re-grading, where permissible by Texas Water Code). If significant changes to watershed boundary are made, more extensive analyses of downstream impact and mitigating detention will be required and a variance obtained from the Director of Public Works.
4. FEMA Flood Hazard Areas, if applicable.
5. In addition any required Corps of Engineer's Section 404 permits, Conditional Letters of Map Revision (CLOMR), Letters of Map Revision (LOMR) or other permits relating to lakes and streams required by any federal, state or local authorities. These must be documented in the Stormwater Management Plan.
6. Detailed off-site outfall information. This shall include the presence of existing or proposed drainage structures, bridges or systems; documentation of existing versus proposed developed site as well as ultimate runoff, identification of downstream properties which might be impacted by increased runoff, and proposed detention or other means of mitigation. Downstream impacts shall generally be delineated to a point where the drainage from the proposed development has no impact on the receiving stream or on any downstream drainage systems within the "zone of influence".
7. Submission of detailed drainage calculations and detailed design plans.
8. The submission of a cover sheet signed by the Director of Public Works indicating the approval of the detailed construction drawings for the proposed development is sufficient to clear a plat drainage study comment.
9. Final drainage studies shall be approved based on the submission of a signed cover sheet and drainage map with calculations from the approved engineering construction drawings. Where City approval of construction plans is not required, the above information required for preliminary drainage studies, as well as construction plans for any drainage improvements, prepared according to criteria in the current City of Texarkana plan review checklists, shall be submitted.
10. Note that unless specifically approved in a No Rise Certificate issued through the Director of Public Works, no work may be performed in the FEMA regulatory floodway without a FEMA-approved Conditional Letter of Map Revision (CLOMR). No development activities may occur in the FEMA regulatory floodplain without an approved No Rise Certificate.
11. Description and copies of any applicable federal, state, and/or local environmental permits such as USACE Regulatory Program permits, 401 water quality certification, or construction TPDES permits. Permits must be obtained prior to or in conjunction with final plan submittal, including:
12. Notice of Intent (NOI) or Construction Site Notice, as appropriate, for TPDES permits
13. Permits obtained for any other stormwater related development requirements (i.e. USACE Regulatory Program permits, erosion control, grading, water rights permits, TCEQ dam safety, etc.)
14. Description of waiver requests

15. The Final Plat shall include notation regarding the inspection and maintenance of drainage easements and stormwater controls, adequately outlining responsible parties and tasks to be completed.
16. For those situations where varying from the criteria defined in this Stormwater Management Design Manual is warranted, a variance request should be made in writing to the Director of Public Works.

The completed Stormwater Management Plan Checklist (included in Appendix A) should be submitted to the City for final approval prior to any construction activities on the development site.

1.1.3 City of Texarkana Responsibilities during Construction and Operation

The City of Texarkana Process includes:

Construction Phase

1. Pre-construction Meeting - Where possible, a pre-construction meeting shall occur before any clearing or grading is initiated on the site. This step ensures that the owner-developer, contractor, engineer, inspector, and plan reviewer can be sure that each party understands how the plan will be implemented on the site.
2. Periodic Inspections - Periodic inspections during construction by City of Texarkana representatives. Inspection frequency may vary with regard to site size and location; however, monthly inspections are a minimum target.
3. Final Inspection - A final inspection is needed to ensure that the construction conforms to the intent of the approved design. Prior to accepting the infrastructure components, issuing an occupancy permit, and releasing any applicable bonds, the City of Texarkana will ensure that: (a) temporary erosion control measures have been removed; (b) stormwater controls are unobstructed and in good working order; (c) permanent vegetative cover has been established in exposed areas; (d) any damage to natural feature protection and conservation areas have been mitigated; (e) conservation areas and buffers have been adequately marked or signed; and (f) any other applicable conditions have been met.
4. Record Drawings - Record drawings of the structural stormwater controls, drainage facilities, and other infrastructure components will be provided to the City of Texarkana by the developer.

Maintenance

1. Maintenance Requirements - If private maintenance is planned for areas or stormwater controls in a drainage easement, the inspection and maintenance requirements shall be clearly stated on the final plat for the project. For reference, the developer shall consider the stormwater controls and associated inspection and maintenance procedures listed in the iSWM Technical Manual on Site Development Controls. The developer and/or owner shall inspect and maintain stormwater controls based on the guidelines in this manual.
2. Ongoing Maintenance - It will be clearly detailed in the Stormwater Management Plan which entity has responsibility for operation and maintenance of all structural stormwater controls and drainage facilities (see requirements of Stormwater Management Plan and Final Plat, Section 1.1.2).
3. Annual Inspections - Annual inspections of private stormwater management facilities will be conducted by the owner and the results will be provided to the City of Texarkana.

Section 1.2 – Planning and Design Approach

The City of Texarkana stormwater management approach is focused on controlling stormwater quantity and ensuring no adverse impacts to property or structures as a result of development and/or land disturbing activities. Post construction water quality protection is not currently a standard requirement in Texarkana. However, the City encourages land developers to consider the use of post construction water quality measures as regulations are being developed to comply with the City's MS4 permit.

1.2.1 Flood Control

The intent of the flood control criteria is to provide for public safety; minimize on-site and downstream flood impacts from the 100-year storm events; maintain the boundaries of the mapped 100-year floodplain; and protect the physical integrity of the on-site stormwater controls as well as the downstream stormwater and flood control facilities.

Flood control analyses are based on the following three (3) storm events. The storm frequency for each event is listed below.

- 2-year, 24-hour storm event
- 10-year, 24-hour storm event
- 100-year, 24-hour storm event

Flood control must be provided for on-site conveyance, as well as downstream outfalls as described in the following sections. Below is a summary of the on-site and downstream flood control requirements:

Onsite

Minimize localized site flooding of streets, sidewalks, and properties by a combination of on-site stormwater controls and conveyance systems. Depending upon their location, function, and the requirements of the local jurisdiction, the full build-out 100-year storm event is to be conveyed on-site such that no resulting habitable structural flooding occurs.

Downstream

Any land disturbing activity will be required to show that downstream stormwater impacts have been considered and will meet the City requirements through one of the following options:

- (1) Document acceptable downstream conditions through a downstream assessment;
- (2) Improve downstream conditions to become acceptable and provide a downstream assessment;
- (3) Maintain existing downstream conditions with no increased discharges or flood elevations;
- (4) Maintain existing on-site conditions. Flood impact reduction may be achieved by a combination of on-site control, downstream protection, floodplain management, and/or other mitigation measures.

1.2.1.1 On-Site Conveyance

The 2-year and 10-year storm events are used to design standard levels of flood protection for streets, sidewalks, structures, and properties within the development. This is typically handled by a combination of conveyance systems including street and roadway gutters, inlets and drains, storm drain pipe systems, culverts, and open channels. Other stormwater controls may affect the design of these systems.

The design storms used to size the various on-site conveyance systems will vary depending upon their location and function. For example, open channels, culverts, and street rights-of way are generally designed for larger events (100-year storm), whereas inlets and storm drain pipes are designed for smaller events (10- year storm).

It is recommended that once the initial set of controls are selected in the Stormwater Management Plan design, the full build-out 100-year, 24-hour storm be routed through the on-site conveyance system and stormwater controls to determine the effects on the systems, adjacent property, and downstream areas. Even though the conveyance systems may be designed for smaller storm events, overall, the site should be designed appropriately to safely pass the resulting flows from the “full build-out” 100-year storm event with no flood waters entering habitable structures.

On-site flood control has many considerations for the safeguarding of people and property. On residential streets, for the 2-year and 10-year storm events, the safe passage of vehicular traffic is an important concern. For the 100-year storm events, traffic may be limited in order to utilize all or portions of the right-of-way for stormwater conveyance in order to protect properties. As such, the effective management of stormwater throughout the development for the full range of storm events is needed.

1.2.1.2 Downstream Flood Control

The downstream assessment is the first step in the process to determine if a specific development will have a flooding impact on downstream properties, structures, bridges, roadways, or other facilities. This assessment should be conducted downstream of a development to the point where the discharge from the proposed development no longer has a significant impact upon the receiving stream or storm drainage system.

Option 1: Acceptable Downstream Conditions (Downstream Assessment Required)

The developer should provide all supporting calculations and/or documentation to show that the existing downstream conveyance system has capacity to safely pass the 100-year discharge from the new development. Systems shown to be adequate are reflective of areas where attempts have been made to keep flood-susceptible development out of the full build out floodplain through a combination of regulatory controls, stormwater master planning, and incentives. This includes communities that have regulated floodplains for fully-developed conditions. This approach recognizes the impacts of new development might not be completely mitigated at the extreme flood level and provides a much greater assurance that local flooding will not be a problem because people and structures are kept out of harm’s way.

Option 2: Downstream Improvements (Downstream Assessment Required)

If the downstream receiving system does not have adequate capacity, then the developer may choose to provide improvements to the off-site, downstream conveyance system. If this option is chosen the proposed improvements must be designed to adequately convey post-developed stormwater peak discharges for the three (3) storm events. The improvements must also extend to the point at which the discharge from the proposed development no longer has a significant impact upon the receiving stream or storm drainage system. The developer must provide supporting calculations and/or documentation that the downstream peak discharges and water surface elevations are safely conveyed by the proposed system, without endangering downstream properties, structures, bridges, roadways, or other facilities.

Option 3: Maintain Existing Downstream Conditions

If the downstream receiving system does not have adequate capacity, then the developer may also choose to provide stormwater controls to reduce downstream flood impacts. These controls include on-site controls such as detention, regional controls, and, as a last resort, local flood protection such as levees, floodwalls, floodproofing, etc. Stormwater master plans are a necessity to attempt to ensure public safety for the extreme storm event. The developer must provide supporting calculations and/or documentation that the controls will be designed and constructed so that there is no increase in downstream peak discharges or water surface elevations due to development.

Option 4: Maintain Existing On-Site Conditions (Downstream Assessment Not Required)

Lastly, on-site controls may be used to maintain existing peak discharges from the development site. The developer must provide supporting calculations and/or documentation that the on-site controls will be designed and constructed to maintain on-site existing conditions. It is important to note that Option 4 does not require a downstream assessment. It is meant as a solely detention-based approach to addressing downstream flood control. For many developments however, the results of a downstream assessment may show that significantly less flood control is required than “detaining to predeveloped conditions”. This method may also exacerbate downstream flooding problems due to timing of flows, as discussed in Section 2.1.8. Therefore it is strongly recommended that a downstream assessment be performed for all developments, and that Option 4 only be used when Options 1, 2, and 3 are not feasible. Note: A downstream assessment will not be required for sites being developed less than 1 acre.

The following items should be considered when providing downstream flood control:

- *Peak-Discharge and Hydrograph Generation:* Hydrograph methods provided in Section 2.1 can be used to compute the peak discharge rate and runoff for the three (3) storm events (“Streambank Protection”, “Conveyance”, and 100-year).
- *Rainfall Depths:* The rainfall depth of the three storm events can be determined from rainfall tables included in Chapter 2.
- *Off-site Drainage Areas:* Off-site drainage areas should be modeled as “full build-out” for the three storm events to ensure safe passage of future flows.
- *Downstream Assessment:* If flow is being detained on-site, downstream areas should be checked to ensure there is no peak flow or water surface increase above pre-development conditions to the point where the undetained discharge from the proposed development no longer has a significant impact upon the receiving stream or storm drainage system. More detail on Downstream Assessments is given in Section 2.1.8.

1.2.1.3 Downstream Assessment

The downstream assessment is the first step in the process to determine if a specific development will have a flooding impact on downstream properties, structures, bridges, roadways, or other facilities. This assessment should be conducted downstream of a development to the point where the discharge from the proposed development no longer has a significant impact upon the receiving stream or storm drainage system. This assessment should extend at a minimum to the next hydraulically significant structure at least 1,000 feet downstream. Hydrologic and hydraulic evaluations must be conducted to determine if there are areas of concerns, i.e. an increase of the Base Flood Elevations. The local jurisdiction should be consulted to obtain records and maps related to the National Flood Insurance Program and the availability of Flood Insurance Studies and Flood Insurance Rate Maps (FIRMS) which will be helpful in this assessment.

The downstream flood control criterion is based on an analysis of the 2-, 10-, and 100-year, 24-hour storm events.

Initially, the assessment will determine if the downstream receiving system has adequate capacity based on the existing watershed conditions and the proposed development improvements. To make this determination, the proposed runoff which the stream or stormwater infrastructure can handle without having an impact on downstream properties, structures, bridges, roadways, or other facilities, must be determined.

The downstream assessment described in Section 2.1.8 of the Manual will include the necessary hydrologic and hydraulic analyses to clearly demonstrate that the limits of the Zone of Influence have been identified, and that along the drainage route to that location, these parameters are met:

- No new or increased flooding of existing structures for 2-, 10- and 100-year floods.
- No significant increases (0.1' or less) in flood elevations over existing roadways for the 2-, 10- and 100-year floods.
- No significant rise (0.1' or less) in 100-year flood elevations, unless contained in existing channel, roadway, drainage easement and/or R.O.W.
- No significant increases (maximum 5%) in channel velocities for the 2-, 10- and 100-year floods. Post-development channel velocities cannot be increased more than 5% above pre-development velocities or exceed the applicable maximum permissible velocities shown in tables 4.4-2 and 4.4-3. Exceptions to these criteria will require certified geotechnical/geomorphologic studies that provide documentation those higher velocities will not create additional erosion.
- No increases in downstream discharges caused by the proposed development that, in combination with existing discharges, exceeds the existing capacity of the downstream storm drainage system.

Section 1.3 – *integrated* Stormwater Controls

The North Central Texas Council of Governments iSWM Technical Manual contains an extensive discussion and detailed examples of stormwater controls that can be implemented in land development to meet the goals of protecting water quality, minimizing streambank erosion, and reducing flood volumes. It is an excellent planning and design resource document and has valuable design examples that the City of Texarkana encourages local developers to consider in their site planning. Although it is primarily oriented toward water quality issues, these stormwater controls bring additional and valuable benefits for flood control and streambank protection. Many of the listed stormwater control features and techniques enhance the aesthetics and value of land developments, as well as providing a drainage function.

The City of Texarkana does not mandate the use of any of these stormwater controls, but recognizes the inherent values of their application in overall stormwater management.

http://iswm.nctcog.org/Documents/technical_manual/Site_Development_Controls_9-2014.pdf

CHAPTER 2 – HYDROLOGIC ANALYSIS

Section 2.1 Estimating Runoff

2.1.1 Introduction to Hydrologic Methods

Hydrology deals with estimating flow peaks, volumes, and time distributions of stormwater runoff. The analysis of these parameters is fundamental to the design of stormwater management facilities, such as storm drainage systems and structural stormwater controls. In the hydrologic analysis of a development/redevelopment site, there are a number of variable factors that affect the nature of stormwater runoff from the site. Some of the factors that need to be considered include:

- Rainfall amount and storm distribution
- Drainage area size, shape, and orientation
- Ground cover and soil type
- Slopes of terrain and stream channel(s)
- Antecedent moisture condition
- Rainfall abstraction rates (Initial and continued)
- Storage potential (floodplains, ponds, wetlands, reservoirs, channels, etc.)
- Watershed development potential
- Characteristics of the local drainage system

There are a number of empirical hydrologic methods available to estimate runoff characteristics for a site or drainage subbasin; however, the following methods have been selected to support hydrologic site analysis for the design methods and procedures included in this Manual:

- Rational Method
- SCS Unit Hydrograph Method
- Snyder's Unit Hydrograph Method
- USGS & TXDOT Regression Equations

These methods were selected based upon a verification of their accuracy in duplicating local hydrologic estimates for a range of design storms throughout the state and the availability of equations, nomographs, and computer programs to support the methods.

Table 2.1.1-1 lists the hydrologic methods and the circumstances for their use in various analysis and design applications. Table 2.1.1-2 provides some limitations on the use of several methods.

In general:

The Rational Method is recommended for small highly impervious drainage areas such as parking lots and roadways draining into inlets and gutters.

The SCS Method is the recommended hydrograph method in Texarkana.

Use of Snyder's Unit Hydrograph Method requires approval of the Director of Public Works.

The USGS (U.S. Geological Survey) and TxDOT (Texas Department of Transportation) regression equations are recommended for drainage areas with characteristics within the ranges given for the equations. These equations should be used with caution when there are significant storage areas within the drainage basin or where other drainage characteristics indicate general regression equations might not be appropriate. USGS and TxDOT equations are only allowed with the approval of Director of Public Works.

Method	Manual Section	Rational Method	SCS Method	Snyder's Unit Hydrograph	USGS / TxDOT Equations
Storage Facilities	4.5		✓	✓	
Outlet Structures	4.6		✓	✓	
Gutter Flow and Inlets	3.2	✓			
Storm Drain Pipes	3.2	✓	✓	✓	
Culverts	4.2	✓	✓	✓	✓
Bridges	4.3		✓	✓	
Roadside Ditches	4.4	✓	✓	✓	
Open Channels	4.4		✓	✓	✓
Energy Dissipation	4.7		✓	✓	

Method	Size Limitations ¹	Comments
Rational ²	0 – 200 acres	Method can be used for estimating peak flows and the design of small site or subdivision storm sewer systems.
Unit Hydrograph (SCS) ³	Any Size	Method can be used for estimating peak flows and hydrographs for all design applications.
Unit Hydrograph (Snyder's) ⁴	> 100 acres	Method can be used for estimating peak flows and hydrographs for all design applications. This method can only be used with approval of the Director of Public Works.
TxDOT Regression Equations	10 to 100 mi ²	Method can be used for estimating peak flows for rural design applications for comparison purposes only. This method can only be used with approval of the Director of Public Works.
USGS Regression Equations	3 – 40 mi ²	Method can be used for estimating peak flows for urban design applications for comparison purposes only. This method can only be used with approval of the Director of Public Works.

¹Size limitations refer to the drainage basin for the stormwater management facility (e.g., culvert, inlet). These do not necessarily apply to master drainage plans.

²The version of the Rational Method described in Section 4.5.4.2 may be used to calculate detention storage volumes for drainage areas of 10 acres or less and preliminary estimates for drainage areas of less than 200 acres. The engineer is cautioned that the method could underestimate the storage volume.

³This refers to SCS routing methodology included in many readily available programs (such as HEC-HMS or HEC-1) that utilize this methodology. The Simplified SCS Method described in Section 2.1.5.7 may be used only with approval of Director of Public Works.

⁴This refers to the Snyder's routing methodology included in many readily available programs (such as HEC-HMS or HEC-1) that utilize this methodology.

2.1.2 - Symbols and Definitions

To provide consistency within this section as well as throughout this Manual, the symbols listed in Table 2.1.2-1 will be used. These symbols were selected because of their wide use in technical publications. In some cases, the same symbol is used in existing publications for more than one definition. Where this occurs in this section, the symbol will be defined where it occurs in the text or equations.

Symbol	Definition	Units
A	Drainage area or area	acres or square feet
B _f	Baseflow	acre-feet
C	Runoff coefficient	-
C _f	Frequency factor	-
CN	SCS-runoff curve number	-
D	Time interval	hours
E	Evaporation	ft
E _t	Evapotranspiration	ft
F	Pond and swamp adjustment factor	-
G _h	Hydraulic gradient	-
I or i	Rainfall intensity	in/hr
I	Percent of impervious cover	%
I	Infiltration	acre-feet
I _a	Initial abstraction from total rainfall	in
k _h	Infiltration rate	ft/day
L	Flow length	ft
n	Manning roughness coefficient	-
NRCS	Natural Resources Conservation Service (formerly SCS)	-
O _f	Overflow	acre-feet
P	Accumulated rainfall	in
P ₂	2-year, 24-hour rainfall	in
P _w	Wetted perimeter	ft
PF	Peaking factor	-
Q	Rate of runoff	cfs (or inches)
Q _i	Peak inflow discharge	cfs
Q _o	Peak outflow discharge	cfs
Q _p	Peak rate of discharge	cfs
Q _{wq}	Water Quality peak rate of discharge	cfs

Table 2.1.2-1 Symbols and Definitions		
Symbol	Definition	Units
q	Storm runoff during a time interval	in
q _u	Unit peak discharge	cfs (or cfs/mi ² /inch)
R	Hydraulic radius	ft
R _o	Runoff	acre-feet
R _v	Runoff Coefficient	-
S	Ground slope	ft/ft or %
S	Potential maximum retention	in
S	Slope of hydraulic grade line	ft/ft
SCS	Soil Conservation Service (Now NRCS)	-
SP _v	Streambank Protection Volume	acre-feet
T	Channel top width	ft
T _L	Lag time	hours
T _p	Time to peak	hours
T _t	Travel time	hours
t	Time	min
t _c	Time of concentration	min
TIA	Total impervious area	%
V	Velocity	ft/s
V	Pond volume	acre-feet
V _d	Developed runoff volume	in
V _f	Flood control volume	acre-feet
V _r	Runoff volume	acre-feet
V _s	Storage volume	acre-feet

2.1.3 - Rainfall Estimation

The first step in any hydrologic analysis is an estimation of the rainfall that will fall on the site for a given time period. The amount of rainfall can be quantified with the following characteristics:

Duration (hours) – Length of time over which rainfall (storm event) occurs

Depth (inches) – Total amount of rainfall occurring during the storm duration

Intensity (inches per hour) – Depth divided by the duration

The Frequency of a rainfall event is the recurrence interval of storms having the same duration and volume (depth). This can be expressed either in terms of *exceedance probability* or *return period*.

Exceedance Probability – Probability that a storm event having the specified duration and volume will be exceeded in one given time period, typically in years.

Return Period – Average length of time between events, which have the same duration and volume.

Thus, if a storm event with a specified duration and volume has a 1% chance of occurring in any given year, then it has an exceedance probability of 0.01 and a return period of 100 years.

The standard 24-hr duration storm event, for watersheds larger than 500 acres (0.78 square miles), was utilized to establish rainfall parameters. Point rainfall depths were obtained from the *Atlas of Depth-Duration Frequency of Precipitation Annual Maxima for Texas, USGS Scientific Investigation Report 2004-5041, Asquith 2004* based on a central location in the City of Texarkana for 2 yr through 500 yr return periods. One-year return period rainfall data was calculated by extrapolation of the 2 yr through 500 yr rainfall data. The rainfall depths are listed in Table 2.1.3-1. The rainfall intensities are listed in Table 2.1.3-2. The rainfall depths and intensities listed in Tables 2.1.3-1 and 2.1.3-2 will be used throughout Texarkana and its ETJ.

Return Period	Point Rainfall Depths (inches)							
	(years)	5-min	15-min	1-hr	2-hr	3-hr	6-hr	12-hr
1 yr	0.45	0.80	1.45	1.86	2.16	2.52	2.88	3.36
2 yr	0.50	0.94	1.68	2.22	2.43	2.82	3.24	3.84
5 yr	0.57	1.20	2.18	2.88	3.15	3.78	4.32	5.52
10 yr	0.63	1.39	2.53	3.36	3.66	4.44	5.16	6.48
25 yr	0.72	1.68	3.00	4.00	4.38	5.34	6.36	8.16
50 yr	0.78	1.92	3.38	4.54	4.95	6.12	7.32	9.36
100 yr	0.85	2.20	3.80	5.16	5.61	6.96	8.40	10.56
250 yr	0.97	2.63	4.43	6.04	6.60	8.22	10.20	12.72
500 yr	1.03	3.01	4.95	6.80	7.44	9.36	11.76	14.16

Ref: *Atlas of Depth-Duration Frequency of Precipitation Annual Maxima for Texas, USGS Scientific Investigation Report 2004-5041, Asquith 2004*

Table 2.1.3-2 Rainfall Intensity-Duration for Texarkana									
	Return Period (Years)								
	1	2	5	10	25	50	100	250	500
Minutes	Rainfall Intensity (inches per hour)								
5	5.40	6.00	6.84	7.56	8.64	9.36	10.20	11.64	12.36
6	5.14	5.74	6.60	7.32	8.41	9.16	10.03	11.51	12.32
7	4.88	5.47	6.36	7.09	8.19	8.96	9.87	11.38	12.28
8	4.62	5.21	6.12	6.85	7.96	8.77	9.70	11.24	12.25
9	4.36	4.94	5.88	6.62	7.73	8.57	9.54	11.11	12.21
10	4.10	4.68	5.64	6.38	7.51	8.37	9.37	10.98	12.17
11	3.92	4.49	5.47	6.22	7.35	8.23	9.26	10.89	12.14
12	3.74	4.31	5.30	6.05	7.19	8.09	9.14	10.80	12.12
13	3.56	4.13	5.13	5.89	7.03	7.96	9.03	10.70	12.09
14	3.38	3.94	4.97	5.72	6.88	7.82	8.91	10.61	12.07
15	3.20	3.76	4.80	5.56	6.72	7.68	8.80	10.52	12.04
16	3.13	3.68	4.70	5.44	6.57	7.50	8.59	10.25	11.72
17	3.07	3.61	4.60	5.32	6.41	7.32	8.37	9.98	11.40
18	3.00	3.53	4.50	5.20	6.26	7.14	8.16	9.71	11.08
19	2.93	3.45	4.39	5.08	6.11	6.96	7.94	9.44	10.76
20	2.87	3.37	4.29	4.96	5.95	6.78	7.73	9.17	10.44
21	2.80	3.30	4.19	4.84	5.80	6.60	7.51	8.90	10.12
22	2.73	3.22	4.09	4.72	5.65	6.42	7.30	8.63	9.80
23	2.67	3.14	3.99	4.60	5.49	6.24	7.08	8.37	9.48
24	2.60	3.06	3.89	4.48	5.34	6.06	6.87	8.10	9.16
25	2.53	2.99	3.79	4.36	5.19	5.88	6.65	7.83	8.84
26	2.47	2.91	3.69	4.24	5.03	5.70	6.44	7.56	8.52
27	2.40	2.83	3.58	4.12	4.88	5.52	6.22	7.29	8.20
28	2.33	2.75	3.48	4.00	4.73	5.34	6.01	7.02	7.88
29	2.27	2.68	3.38	3.88	4.57	5.16	5.79	6.75	7.56
30	2.20	2.60	3.28	3.76	4.42	4.98	5.58	6.48	7.24
31	2.18	2.57	3.24	3.72	4.37	4.93	5.52	6.41	7.16
32	2.15	2.54	3.21	3.68	4.33	4.87	5.46	6.34	7.09
33	2.13	2.51	3.17	3.64	4.28	4.82	5.40	6.28	7.01
34	2.10	2.48	3.13	3.60	4.23	4.77	5.34	6.21	6.93
35	2.08	2.45	3.10	3.56	4.18	4.71	5.28	6.14	6.86
36	2.05	2.42	3.06	3.51	4.14	4.66	5.22	6.07	6.78
37	2.03	2.39	3.02	3.47	4.09	4.61	5.16	6.00	6.71
38	2.00	2.35	2.99	3.43	4.04	4.55	5.11	5.93	6.63
39	1.98	2.32	2.95	3.39	3.99	4.50	5.05	5.87	6.55

Table 2.1.3-2 Rainfall Intensity-Duration for Texarkana									
	Return Period (Years)								
	1	2	5	10	25	50	100	250	500
Minutes	Rainfall Intensity (inches per hour)								
40	1.95	2.29	2.91	3.35	3.95	4.45	4.99	5.80	6.48
41	1.93	2.26	2.88	3.31	3.90	4.39	4.93	5.73	6.40
42	1.90	2.23	2.84	3.27	3.85	4.34	4.87	5.66	6.32
43	1.88	2.20	2.80	3.23	3.80	4.29	4.81	5.59	6.25
44	1.85	2.17	2.77	3.19	3.76	4.23	4.75	5.52	6.17
45	1.83	2.14	2.73	3.15	3.71	4.18	4.69	5.46	6.10
46	1.80	2.11	2.69	3.10	3.66	4.13	4.63	5.39	6.02
47	1.78	2.08	2.66	3.06	3.62	4.07	4.57	5.32	5.94
48	1.75	2.05	2.62	3.02	3.57	4.02	4.51	5.25	5.87
49	1.73	2.02	2.58	2.98	3.52	3.97	4.45	5.18	5.79
50	1.70	1.99	2.55	2.94	3.47	3.91	4.39	5.11	5.71
51	1.68	1.96	2.51	2.90	3.43	3.86	4.33	5.05	5.64
52	1.65	1.93	2.47	2.86	3.38	3.81	4.27	4.98	5.56
53	1.63	1.89	2.44	2.82	3.33	3.75	4.22	4.91	5.48
54	1.60	1.86	2.40	2.78	3.28	3.70	4.16	4.84	5.41
55	1.58	1.83	2.36	2.74	3.24	3.65	4.10	4.77	5.33
56	1.55	1.80	2.33	2.69	3.19	3.59	4.04	4.70	5.26
57	1.53	1.77	2.29	2.65	3.14	3.54	3.98	4.64	5.18
58	1.50	1.74	2.25	2.61	3.09	3.49	3.92	4.57	5.10
59	1.48	1.71	2.22	2.57	3.05	3.43	3.86	4.50	5.03
60	1.45	1.68	2.18	2.53	3.00	3.38	3.80	4.43	4.95
120	0.93	1.11	1.44	1.68	2.00	2.27	2.58	3.02	3.40
180	0.72	0.81	1.05	1.22	1.46	1.65	1.87	2.20	2.48
360	0.42	0.47	0.63	0.74	0.89	1.02	1.16	1.37	1.56
720	0.24	0.27	0.36	0.43	0.53	0.61	0.70	0.85	0.98
1440	0.14	0.16	0.23	0.27	0.34	0.39	0.44	0.53	0.59

2.1.4 Rational Method

2.1.4.1 Introduction

An important formula for determining the peak runoff rate is the Rational Formula. It is characterized by:

- Consideration of the entire drainage area as a single unit
- Estimation of flow at the most downstream point only
- The assumption that rainfall is uniformly distributed over the drainage area and is constant over time

The Rational Formula adheres to the following assumptions:

- The predicted peak discharge has the same probability of occurrence (return period) as the rainfall intensity (I)
- The runoff coefficient (C) is constant during the storm event

When using the Rational Method some precautions should be considered:

- In determining the C value (runoff coefficient based on land use) for the drainage area, hydrologic analysis should take into account any future changes in land use that might occur during the service life of the proposed facility.
- Since the Rational Method uses a composite C and a single t_c value for the entire drainage area, if the distribution of land uses within the drainage basin will affect the results of hydrologic analysis (e.g., if the impervious areas are segregated from the pervious areas), then the basin should be divided into sub-drainage basins.
- **The charts, graphs, and tables included in this section are given to assist the engineer in applying the Rational Method. The engineer should use sound engineering judgment in applying these design aids and should make appropriate adjustments when specific site characteristics dictate adjustments are appropriate.**

2.1.4.2 Application

The Rational Method can be used to estimate stormwater runoff peak flows for the design of gutter flows, drainage inlets, storm drainpipe, culverts, and small ditches. It is most applicable to small, highly impervious areas. The recommended maximum drainage area that should be used with the Rational Method is 200 acres.

The Rational Method should not be used for storage design or any other application where a more detailed routing procedure is required. However, the method described in Section 4.5.4.2 can be used for design of small (10 acres or less) detention facilities, or for preliminary estimates of larger detention facilities.

The Rational Method should not be used for calculating peak flows downstream of bridges, culverts, or storm sewers that may act as restrictions causing storage, which impacts the peak rate of discharge.

2.1.4.3 Equations

The Rational Formula estimates the peak rate of runoff at any location in a watershed as a function of the drainage area, runoff coefficient, and the mean rainfall intensity for a duration equal to the time of concentration, t_c (the time required for water to flow from the most remote point of the basin to the location being analyzed).

The Rational Formula is expressed as follows:

$$Q = C I A \quad (2.1.2)$$

where:

- Q = maximum rate of runoff (cfs)
- C = runoff coefficient representing a ratio of runoff to rainfall
- I = average rainfall intensity for a duration equal to the t_c (in/hr)
- A = drainage area contributing to the design location (acres)

The coefficients given in Table 2.1.4-1 are applicable for storms with return periods less than or equal to 10 years. Less frequent, higher intensity storms may require modification of the coefficient because infiltration and other losses have a proportionally smaller effect on runoff (Wright-McLaughlin Engineers,

1969). The adjustment of the Rational Method for use with major storms can be made by multiplying the right side of the Rational Formula by a frequency factor C_f . The Rational Formula now becomes:

$$Q = C_f C I A \quad (2.1.3)$$

The C_f values that can be used are listed in Table 2.1.4-2. The product of C_f times C shall not exceed 1.0.

Table 2.1.4-1 Recommended Runoff Coefficient Values				
Description of Area		Runoff Coeff. (C)	Description of Area	
			Runoff Coeff. (C)	
Lawns:			Commercial/Industrial:	
	Sandy soil, flat, 2%	0.10	Light areas	0.70
	Sandy soil, average, 2 - 7%	0.15	Heavy areas	0.80
	Sandy soil, steep, > 7%	0.20	Parks, cemeteries	0.25
	Clay soil, flat, 2%	0.17	Playgrounds	0.35
	Clay soil, average, 2 - 7%	0.22	Railroad yard areas	0.40
	Clay soil, steep, > 7%	0.35	Streets:	
Agricultural		0.30	Asphalt and Concrete	0.95
Forest		0.15	Brick	0.85
Streams, Lakes, Water Surfaces		1.00	Drives, walks, and roofs	0.95
Business:			Gravel areas	0.50
	Downtown areas	0.95	Graded or no plant cover:	
	Neighborhood areas	0.70	Sandy soil, flat, 0 - 5%	0.30
Residential:			Sandy soil, flat, 5 - 10%	0.40
	Single Family (1/8 acre lots)	0.65	Clayey soil, flat, 0 - 5%	0.50
	Single Family (1/4 acre lots)	0.60	Clayey soil, avg, 5 - 10%	0.60
	Single Family (1/2 acre lots)	0.55		
	Single Family (1+ acre lots)	0.45		
	Multi-Family Units, (Light)	0.65		
	Multi-Family, (Heavy)	0.85		

Recurrence Interval (years)	C _f
10 or less	1.0
25	1.1
50	1.2
100	1.25

2.1.4.4 Time of Concentration

Use of the Rational Formula requires the time of concentration (t_c) for each design point within the drainage basin. The duration of rainfall is then set equal to the time of concentration and is used to estimate the design average rainfall intensity (I). The time of concentration consists of an overland flow time to the point where the runoff is concentrated or enters a defined drainage feature (e.g., open channel) plus the time of flow in a closed conduit or open channel to the design point.

Figure 2.1.4-1 can be used to estimate overland flow time. For each drainage area, the distance is determined from the inlet to the most remote point in the tributary area. From a topographic map, the average slope is determined for the same distance. The runoff coefficient (C) is determined by the procedure described in a subsequent section of this chapter. In urban areas, the length of overland flow distance should realistically be no more than 50 – 100 feet.

Although there is no formula for the graph shown in Figure 2.1.4-1, the formula often used, which seems to match the nomograph very closely, is as follows:

$$T_c = 1.8(1.1 - C)(D)^{0.5}/(S)^{(1/3)} \quad (2.1.4)$$

where:

- T_c = time of concentration (min)
- C = average or composite runoff coefficient
- D = distance from upper end of watershed to outlet (ft)
- S = average slope along distance “D”, in percent (ft/100 ft)

Example: Given the following values, determine the time of concentration using (1) Equation 2.1.4, and (2) Figure 2.1.4-1: $D = 250$ ft, $C = 0.7$, $S = 0.50\%$ slope.

Figure 2.1.4-1 gives approximately 15 minutes.

$$T_c = 1.8(1.1 - 0.7)(250)^{0.5}/(0.50)^{(1/3)} = 14.34 \text{ min}$$

Other methods and charts may be used to calculate overland flow time if approved by the local review authority.

Generally, the time of concentration for overland flow is only a part of the overall design problem. Often one encounters swale flow, confined channel flow, and closed conduit flow travel times that must be added as part of the overall time of concentration. After first determining the average flow velocity in the pipe or channel, the travel time is obtained by dividing velocity into the pipe or channel length. Velocity can be estimated by using the nomograph shown in Figure 2.1.4-2. More guidance on travel time estimation is given in Section 2.1.5.6.

To obtain the total time of concentration, the pipe or open channel flow time must be calculated and added to the inlet time. For example, if the flow time in a channel is 15 minutes and the overland flow time from the ridge line to the channel is 10 minutes, then the total time of concentration is 25 minutes. Note that the time of concentration cannot be less than 5 minutes.

Table 2.1.4-3 shows recommended minimum and maximum times of concentration based on land use categories. These represent times to the most upstream inlet (minimum inlet time). Computed downstream travel times will be added to determine times of concentration through the system.

Land Use	Minimum (minutes)	Maximum (minutes)
Residential Development	10	30
Commercial and Industrial	10	25
Central Business District	10	15

Two common errors should be avoided when calculating time of concentration. First, in some cases runoff from a portion of the drainage area which is highly impervious may result in a greater peak discharge than would occur if the entire area were considered. Second, when designing a drainage system, the overland flow path is not necessarily the same before and after development and grading operations have been completed. Selecting overland flow paths in excess of 50 feet for impervious areas should be done only after careful consideration.

2.1.4.5 Rainfall Intensity (I)

The rainfall intensity (I) is the average rainfall rate in in/hr for a duration equal to the time of concentration for a selected return period. Once a particular return period has been selected for design and a time of concentration calculated for the drainage area, the rainfall intensity can be determined from Rainfall-Intensity-Duration data given in the rainfall tables in Section 2.1.3.

2.1.4.6 Runoff Coefficient (C)

The runoff coefficient (C) is the variable of the Rational Method least susceptible to precise determination and requires judgment and understanding on the part of the design engineer. While engineering judgment will always be required in the selection of runoff coefficients, typical coefficients represent the integrated effects of many drainage basin parameters. Table 2.1.4-1 gives the recommended runoff coefficients for the Rational Method.

It is often desirable to develop a composite runoff coefficient based on the percentage of different types of surfaces in the drainage areas. Composites can be made with the values from Table 2.1.4-1 by using percentages of different land uses. In addition, more detailed composites can be made with coefficients for different surface types such as rooftops, asphalt, and concrete streets and sidewalks. The composite procedure can be applied to an entire drainage area or to typical "sample" blocks as a guide to the selection of reasonable values of the coefficient for an entire area.

It should be remembered that the Rational Method assumes that all land uses within a drainage area are uniformly distributed throughout the area. If it is important to locate a specific land use within the drainage area, then another hydrologic method should be used where hydrographs can be generated and routed through the drainage system.

It may be that using only the impervious area from a highly impervious site (and the corresponding high C factor and shorter time of concentration) will yield a higher peak runoff value than by using the whole site. This should be checked particularly in areas where the overland portion is grassy (yielding a long t_c) to avoid underestimating peak runoff.

Example Problem

Below is an example problem illustrating application of the Rational Method to estimate peak discharges.

Estimates of the maximum rate of runoff are needed at the inlet to a proposed culvert for a 25-year return period.

Site Data

From a topographic map of the City and a field survey, the area of the drainage basin upstream from the point in question is found to be 23 acres. In addition, the following data were measured:

Average overland slope = 2.0% Length of overland flow = 50 ft
Length of main basin channel = 2,250 ft Slope of channel = .018 ft/ft = 1.8%
Roughness coefficient (n) of channel was estimated to be 0.090

From existing land use maps, land use for the drainage basin was estimated to be:

Residential (single family – ¼ acre lots) - 80%
Graded - sandy soil, 3% slope - 20%

From existing land use maps, the land use for the overland flow area at the head of the basin was estimated to be: Lawn - sandy soil, 2% slope

Overland Flow

A runoff coefficient (C) for the overland flow area is determined from Table 2.1.4-2 to be 0.10.

Time of Concentration

From Figure 2.1.4-1 with an overland flow length of 50 ft, slope of 2% and a C of 0.10, the overland flow time is 10 min. Channel flow velocity is determined from Figure 2.1.4-2 to be 3.1 ft/s (n = 0.090, R = 1.62 (from channel dimensions) and S = .018). Therefore,

$$\text{Flow Time} = \frac{2,250 \text{ feet}}{(3.1 \text{ ft/s}) / (60 \text{ s/min})} = 12.1 \text{ minutes}$$

$$\text{and } t_c = 10 + 12.1 = 22.1 \text{ min (use 22 min)}$$

Rainfall Intensity

From Table 2.1.3-2 using a duration equal to 22 minutes,

$$I_{25} \text{ (25-yr return period)} = 5.65 \text{ in/hr}$$

Runoff Coefficient

A weighted runoff coefficient (C) for the total drainage area is determined below by utilizing the values from Table 2.1.4-2.

Land Use	Percent of Total Land Area	Runoff Coefficient	Weighted Runoff Coefficient
Residential (Single Family – ¼ acre lots)	0.80	0.60	0.48
Graded area	0.20	0.30	0.06

Total Weighted Runoff Coefficient = 0.54

*Column 3 equals column 1 multiplied by column 2.

Peak Runoff

The estimate of peak runoff for a 25-yr design storm for the given basin is:

$$Q_{25} = C_f C I A = (1.10)(.54)(5.65)(23) = 77.2 \text{ cfs}$$

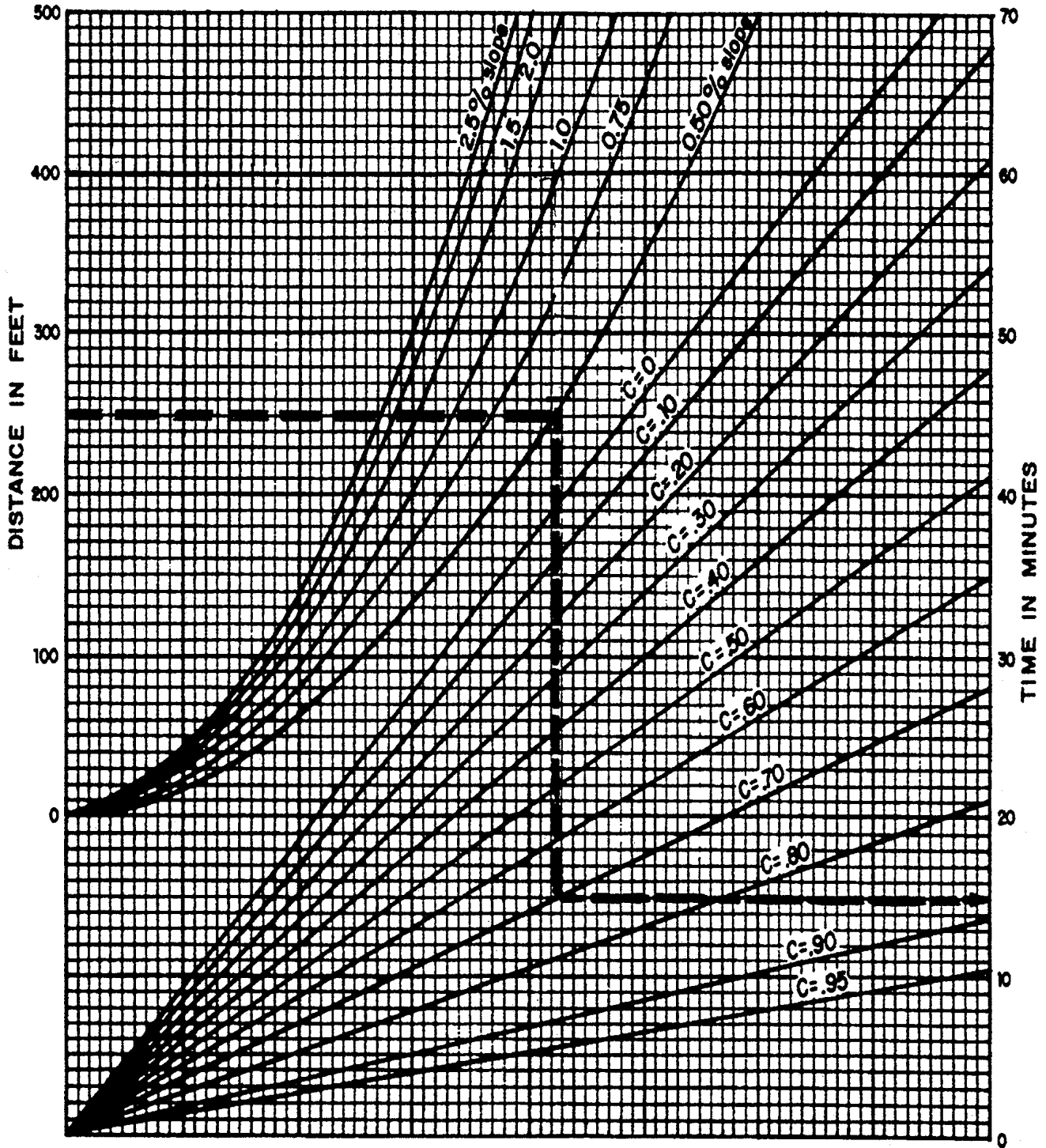
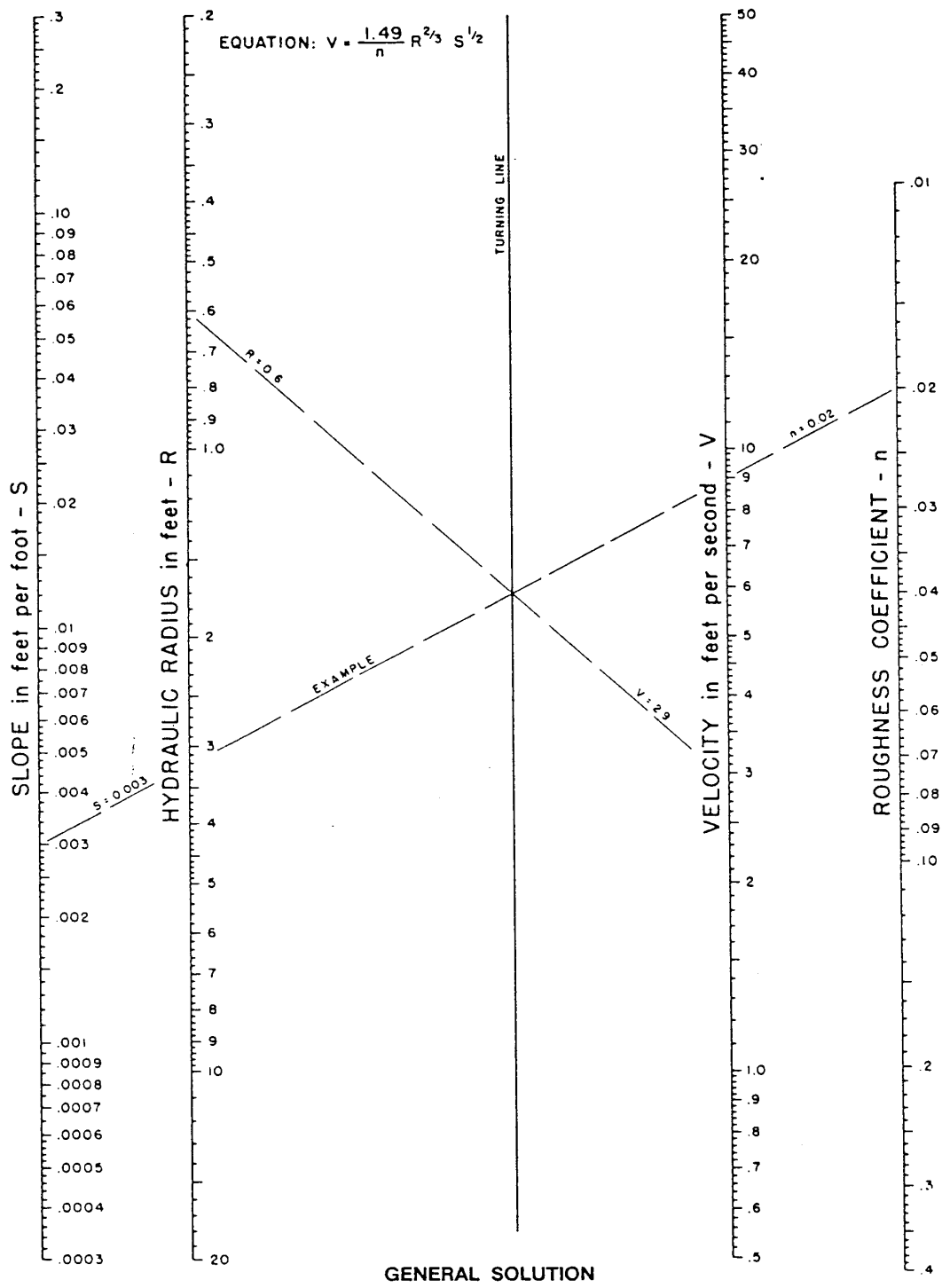


Figure 2.1.4-1 Rational Formula - Overland Time of Flow Nomograph
 (Source: Airport Drainage, Federal Aviation Administration, 1965)



Reference: USDOT, FHWA, HDS-3 (1961).

Figure 2.1.4-2 Manning's Equation Nomograph

(Source: USDOT, FHWA, HDS-3 (1961))

2.1.5 SCS Hydrologic Method

2.1.5.1 Introduction

The Soil Conservation Service¹ (SCS) hydrologic method requires basic data similar to the Rational Method: drainage area, a runoff factor, time of concentration, and rainfall. The SCS approach, however, is more sophisticated in that it also considers the time distribution of the rainfall, the initial rainfall losses to interception and depression storage, and an infiltration rate that decreases during the course of a storm. Details of the methodology can be found in the SCS National Engineering Handbook, Section 4, Hydrology. It can also be found in the iSWM Hydrology Technical Manual, Section 1.3.

A typical application of the SCS method includes the following basic steps:

- **Determination of curve numbers that represent different land uses within the drainage area.**
- **Calculation of time of concentration to the study point.**
- **The recommended rainfall data for the SCS Method is that presented in Section 2.1.3 The Type III SCS rainfall distribution, CAN ONLY BE USED WITH APPROVAL OF THE DIRECTOR OF PUBLIC WORKS (Note: See Figure 2.1.5-1 for the geographic boundaries for the different SCS rainfall distributions).**
- **Using the unit hydrograph approach, the hydrograph of direct runoff from the drainage basin can be developed.**

2.1.5.2 Application

The SCS method can be used for both the estimation of stormwater runoff peak rates and the generation of hydrographs for the routing of stormwater flows. Thus, the SCS method can be used for most design applications, including storage facilities and outlet structures, storm drain systems, culverts, small drainage ditches, open channels, and energy dissipators.

City of Texarkana allows the hydrograph routing method for subdrainage areas of any size but will not allow the Simplified Method, except as approved by Director of Public Works. Figure 2.1.6-1 presents a sample computation sheet for presentation of unit hydrograph method results. This form should be completed even if the computations are performed on acceptable computer programs HEC-1 or HEC-HMS. **Rainfall for application of the SCS Hydrologic (Routing) Method shall be based on rainfall data in Table 2.1.3-1.**

2.1.5.3 Equations and Concepts

The hydrograph of outflow from a drainage basin is the sum of the elemental hydrographs from all the sub-areas of the basin, modified by the effects of transit time through the basin and storage in the stream channels. Since the physical characteristics of the basin including shape, size, and slope are constant, the unit hydrograph approach assumes there is considerable similarity in the shape of hydrographs from storms of similar rainfall characteristics. Thus, the unit hydrograph is a typical hydrograph for the basin with a runoff volume under the hydrograph equal to one (1.0) inch from a storm of specified duration. For a storm of the same duration but with a different amount of runoff, the hydrograph of direct runoff can be expected to have the same time base as the unit hydrograph and ordinates of flow proportional to the runoff volume. Therefore, a storm that produces 2 inches of runoff would have a hydrograph with a flow

¹The Soil Conservation Service is now known as the Natural Resources Conservation Service (NRCS)

equal to twice the flow of the unit hydrograph. With 0.5 inches of runoff, the flow of the hydrograph would be one-half of the flow of the unit hydrograph.

The following discussion outlines the equations and basic concepts used in the SCS method.

Drainage Area - The drainage area of a watershed is determined from topographic maps and field surveys. For large drainage areas it might be necessary to divide the area into sub-drainage areas to account for major land use changes, obtain analysis results at different points within the drainage area, combine hydrographs from different sub-basins as applicable, and/or route flows to points of interest.

Rainfall - The SCS method applicable to northeast Texas is based on a storm event that has a Type III time distribution. This distribution is used to distribute the 24-hour volume of rainfall for the different storm frequencies (Figure 2.1.5-1).

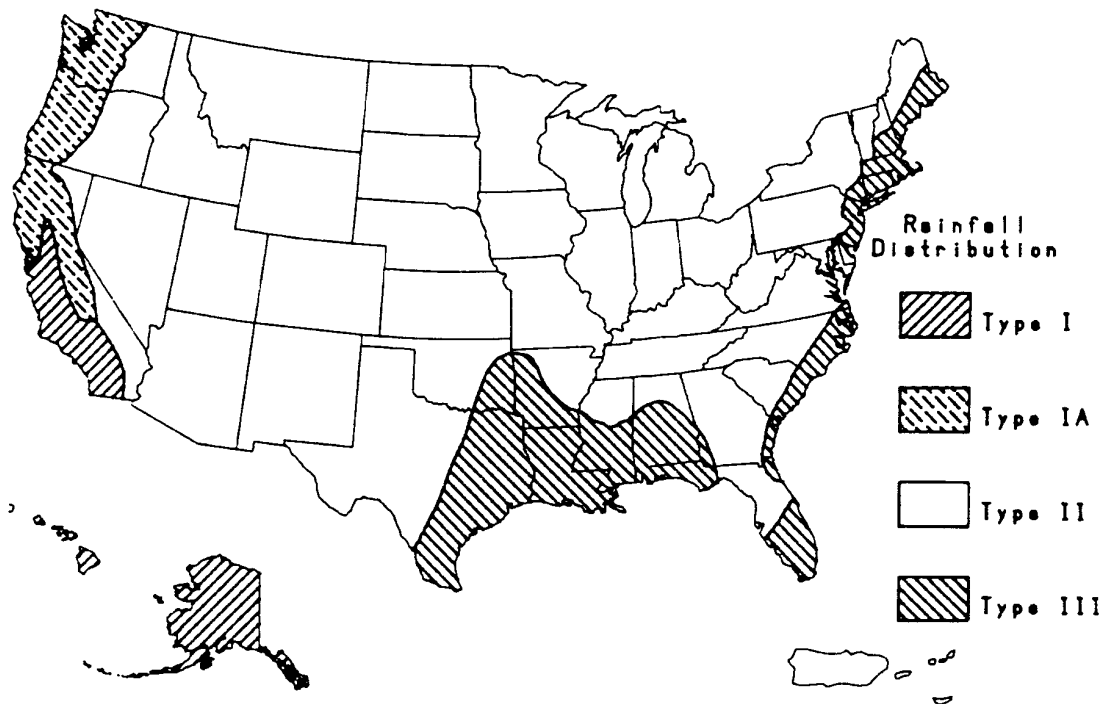


Figure 2.1.5-1 Approximate Geographic Boundaries for SCS Rainfall Distributions

Rainfall-Runoff Equation - A relationship between accumulated rainfall and accumulated runoff was derived by SCS from experimental plots for numerous soils and vegetative cover conditions. The following SCS runoff equation is used to estimate direct runoff from 24-hour or 1-day storm rainfall. The equation is:

$$Q = (P - I_a)^2 / [(P - I_a) + S] \quad (2.1.5)$$

where:

Q = accumulated direct runoff (in)

P = accumulated rainfall (potential maximum runoff) (in)

I_a = initial abstraction including surface storage, interception, evaporation, and infiltration prior to runoff (in)

S = potential maximum soil retention (in) = $1000/CN - 10$ (where CN = SCS curve number)

An empirical relationship used in the SCS method for estimating I_a is:

$$I_a = 0.2S \quad (2.1.6)$$

This is an average value that could be adjusted for flatter areas with more depressions if there are calibration data to substantiate the adjustment. Table 2.1.5-3 provides values of I_a for a wide range of curve numbers (CN).

Substituting $0.2S$ for I_a in equation 2.1.5, the equation becomes:

$$Q = (P - 0.2S)^2 / (P + 0.8S) \quad (2.1.7)$$

Figure 2.1.5-2 shows a graphical solution of this equation. For example, 4.1 inches of direct runoff would result if 5.8 inches of rainfall occurred on a watershed with a curve number of 85.

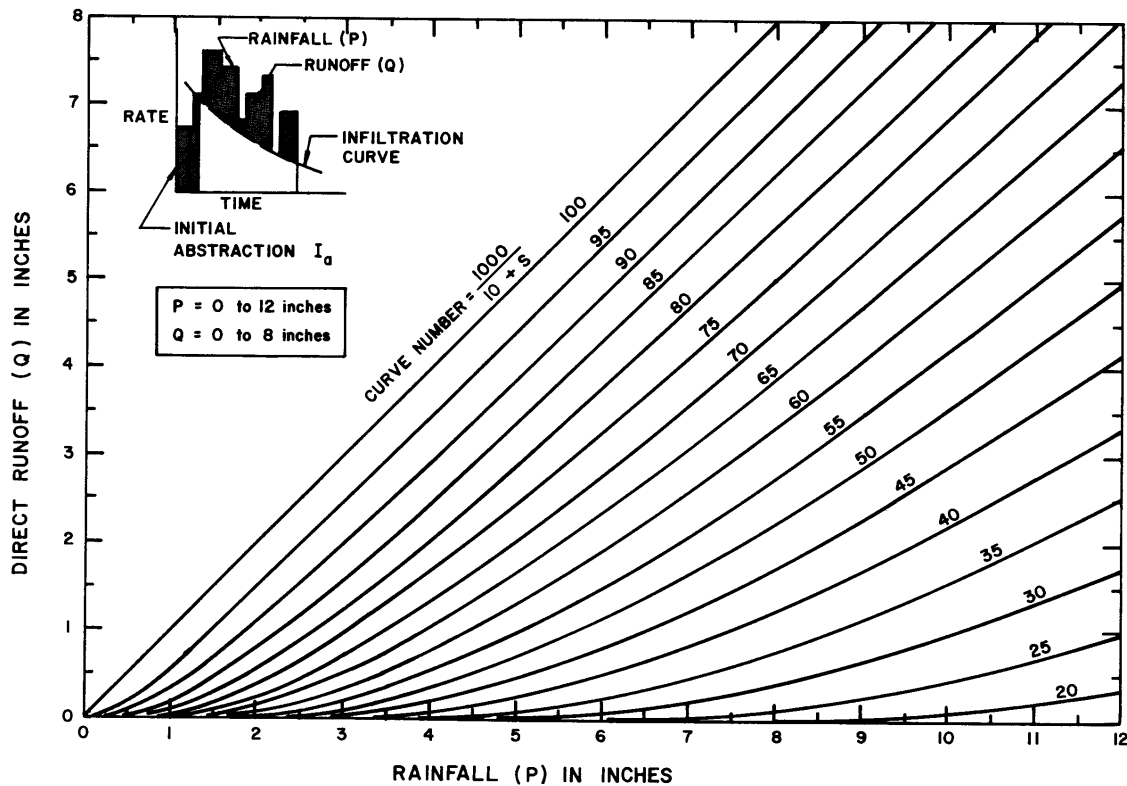


Figure 2.1.5-2 SCS Solution of the Runoff Equation

(Source: SCS, TR-55, Second Edition, June 1986)

Equation 2.1.6 can be rearranged so the curve number can be estimated if rainfall and runoff volume are known. The equation then becomes (Pitt, 1994):

$$CN = 1000/[10 + 5P + 10Q - 10(Q^2 + 1.25QP)^{1/2}] \quad (2.1.8)$$

2.1.5.4 Runoff Factor (CN)

The principal physical watershed characteristics affecting the relationship between rainfall and runoff are land use, land treatment, soil types, and land slope. The SCS method uses a combination of soil conditions and land uses (ground cover) to assign a runoff factor to an area. These runoff factors, called runoff curve numbers (CN), indicate the runoff potential of an area. The higher the CN, the higher the runoff potential. Soil properties influence the relationship between runoff and rainfall since soils have differing rates of infiltration. Based on infiltration rates, the SCS has divided soils into four hydrologic soil groups.

- Group A Soils having a low runoff potential due to high infiltration rates. These soils consist primarily of deep, well-drained sands and gravels.
- Group B Soils having a moderately low runoff potential due to moderate infiltration rates. These soils consist primarily of moderately deep to deep, moderately well to well drained soils with moderately fine to moderately coarse textures.
- Group C Soils having a moderately high runoff potential due to slow infiltration rates. These soils consist primarily of soils in which a layer exists near the surface that impedes the downward movement of water or soils with moderately fine to fine texture.
- Group D Soils having a high runoff potential due to very slow infiltration rates. These soils consist primarily of clays with high swelling potential, soils with permanently high water tables, soils with a clay pan or clay layer at or near the surface, and shallow soils over nearly impervious parent material.

A list of soils throughout the State of Texas and their hydrologic classification can be found in the publication *Urban Hydrology for Small Watersheds, 2nd Edition, Technical Release Number 55, 1986*. Soil Survey maps can be obtained from local USDA Natural Resources Conservation Service offices for use in estimating soil type. Appendix B contains hydrologic soils classification data for northeast Texas. Specific data can be found on-line through NRCS at <http://soils.usda.gov/>.

Consideration should be given to the effects of urbanization on the natural hydrologic soil group. If heavy equipment can be expected to compact the soil during construction or if grading will mix the surface and subsurface soils, appropriate changes should be made in the soil group selected. Also, runoff curve numbers vary with the antecedent soil moisture conditions. Average antecedent soil moisture conditions (AMC II) are recommended for most hydrologic analysis. Areas with high water table conditions may want to consider using AMC III antecedent soil moisture conditions. This should be considered a calibration parameter for modeling against real calibration data. Table 2.1.5-1 gives recommended curve number values for a range of different land uses.

When a drainage area has more than one land use, a composite curve number can be calculated and used in the analysis. It should be noted that when composite curve numbers are used, the analysis does not take into account the location of the specific land uses but sees the drainage area as a uniform land use represented by the composite curve number.

Composite curve numbers for a drainage area can be calculated by using the weighted method as presented below.

Composite Curve Number Calculation Example

Land Use	Percent of Total Land Area	Curve Number	Weighted Curve Number (% area x CN)
Residential 1/8 acre Soil Group B	0.80	0.85	0.68
Meadow Good condition Soil Group C	0.20	0.71	0.14

Total Weighted Curve Number = $0.68 + 0.14 = 0.82$

The different land uses within the basin should reflect a uniform hydrologic group represented by a single curve number. Any number of land uses can be included, but if their spatial distribution is important to the hydrologic analysis, then sub-basins should be developed, and separate hydrographs developed and routed to the study point.

2.1.5.5 Urban Modifications of the SCS Method

Several factors, such as the percentage of impervious area and the means of conveying runoff from impervious areas to the drainage system, should be considered in computing CN for developed areas. For example, do the impervious areas connect directly to the drainage system, or do they outlet onto lawns or other pervious areas where infiltration can occur?

The curve number values given in Table 2.1.5-1 are based on directly connected impervious area. An impervious area is considered directly connected if runoff from it flows directly into the drainage system. It is also considered directly connected if runoff from it occurs as concentrated shallow flow that runs over pervious areas and then into a drainage system. It is possible for curve number values from urban areas to be reduced by not directly connecting impervious surfaces in the drainage system but allowing runoff to flow as sheet flow over significant pervious areas.

The following discussion will give some guidance for adjusting curve numbers for different types of impervious areas.

Connected Impervious Areas

The CNs provided in Table 2.1.5-1 for various land cover types were developed for typical land use relationships based on specific assumed percentages of impervious area. These CN values were developed on the assumptions that:

- Pervious urban areas are equivalent to pasture in good hydrologic condition, and
- Impervious areas have a CN of 98 and are directly connected to the drainage system.

If all of the impervious area is directly connected to the drainage system, but the impervious area percentages or the pervious land use assumptions in Table 2.1.5-1 are not applicable, use Figure 2.1.5-3 to compute a composite CN. For example, Table 2.1.5-1 gives a CN of 70 for a 1/2-acre lot in hydrologic soil group B, with an assumed impervious area of 25%. However, if the lot has 20% impervious area and a pervious area CN of 61, the composite CN obtained from Figure 2.1.5-3 is 68. The CN difference between 70 and 68 reflects the difference in percent impervious area.

Table 2.1.5-1 Runoff Curve Numbers ¹					
Cover Description		Curve numbers for hydrologic soil groups			
Cover type and hydrologic condition	Average percent impervious area ²	A	B	C	D
Cultivated Land:					
Without conservation treatment		72	81	88	91
With conservation treatment		62	71	78	81
Pasture or range land:					
Poor condition		68	79	86	89
Good condition		39	61	74	80
Meadow:					
Good condition		30	58	71	78
Wood or forest land:					
Thin stand, poor cover		45	66	77	83
Good cover		25	55	70	77
Open space (lawns, parks, golf courses, cemeteries, etc.) ³					
Poor condition (grass cover < 50%)		68	79	86	89
Fair condition (grass cover 50% to 75%)		49	69	79	84
Good condition (grass cover > 75%)		39	61	74	80
Impervious areas:					
Paved; curbs and storm drains (excluding right-of-way)		98	98	98	98
Paved; open ditches (including right-of-way)		83	89	92	93
Gravel (including right-of-way)		76	85	89	91
Dirt (including right-of-way)		72	82	87	89
Urban districts:					
Commercial and business	85%	89	92	94	95
Industrial	72%	81	88	91	93

Table 2.1.5-1 Runoff Curve Numbers¹

Cover Description		Curve numbers for hydrologic soil groups			
Cover type and hydrologic condition	Average percent impervious area ²	A	B	C	D
Residential districts by average lot size:					
1/8 acre or less (town house)	65%	77	85	90	92
1/4 acre	38%	61	75	83	87
1/3 acre	30%	57	72	81	86
1/2 acre	25%	54	70	80	85
1 acre	20%	51	68	79	84
2 acres	12%	46	65	77	82
Developing urban areas and newly graded areas (previous areas only, no vegetation)		77	86	91	94
¹ Average runoff condition, and $I_a = 0.2S$ ² The average percent impervious area shown was used to develop the composite CNs. Other assumptions are as follows: impervious areas are directly connected to the drainage system, impervious areas have a CN of 98, and pervious areas are considered equivalent to open space in good hydrologic condition. If the impervious area is not connected, the SCS method has an adjustment to reduce the effect. ³ CNs shown are equivalent to those of pasture. Composite CNs may be computed for other combinations of open space cover type.					

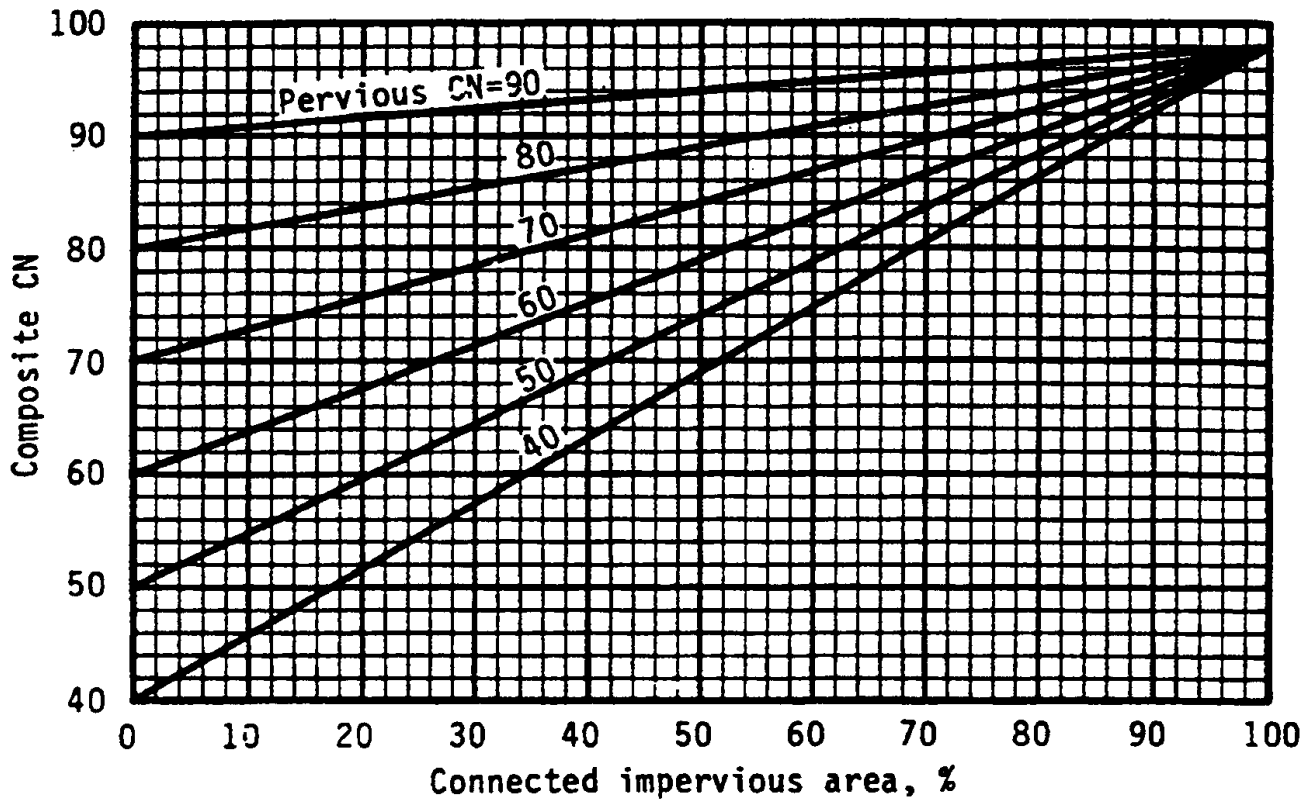


Figure 2.1.5-3 Composite CN with Connected Impervious Areas
 (Source: SCS, TR-55, Second Edition, June 1986)

Unconnected Impervious Areas

Runoff from these areas is spread over a pervious area as sheet flow. To determine CN when all or part of the impervious area is not directly connected to the drainage system, (1) use Figure 2.1.5-4 if total impervious area is less than 30% or (2) use Figure 2.1.5-3 if the total impervious area is equal to or greater than 30%, because the absorptive capacity of the remaining pervious areas will not significantly affect runoff.

When the impervious area is less than 30%, obtain the composite CN by entering the right half of Figure 2.1.5-4 with the percentage of total impervious area and the ratio of total unconnected impervious area to total impervious area. Then move left to the appropriate pervious CN and read down to find the composite CN. For example, for a 1/2-acre lot with 20% total impervious area (75% of which is unconnected) and pervious CN of 61, the composite CN from Figure 2.1.5-4 is 66. If all of the impervious area is connected, the resulting CN (from Figure 2.1.5-3) would be 68.

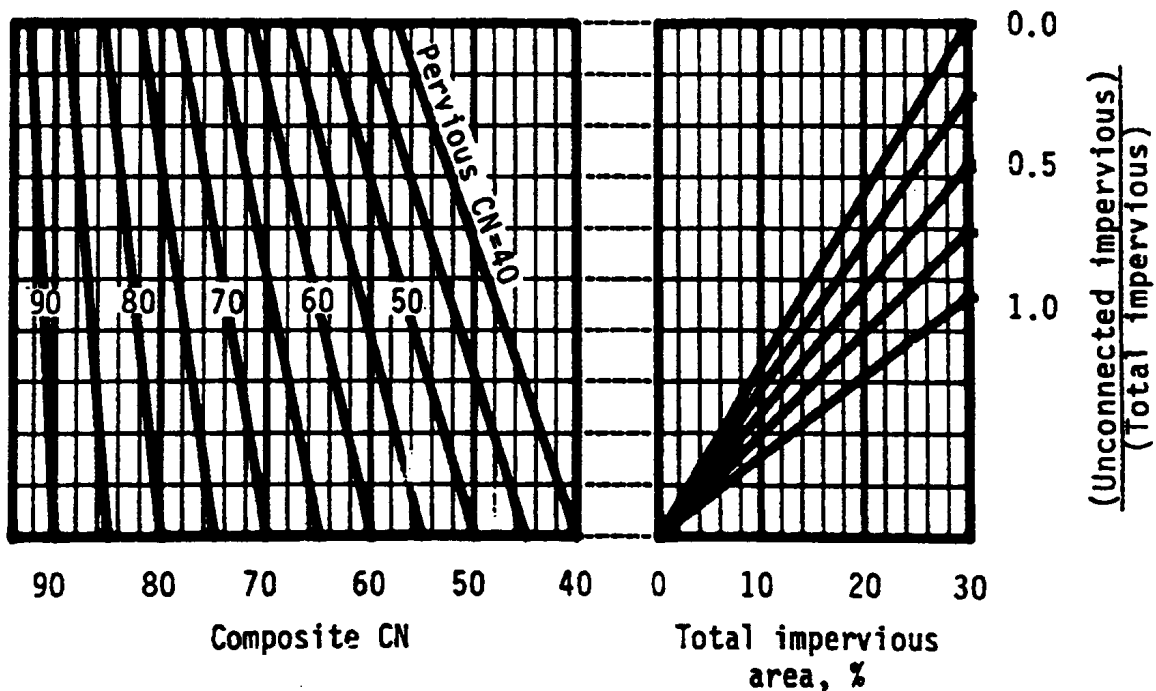


Figure 2.1.5-4 Composite CN with Unconnected Impervious Areas

(Total Impervious Area Less Than 30%)

(Source: SCS, TR-55, Second Edition, June 1986)

2.1.5.6 Travel Time Estimation

Travel time (T_t) is the time it takes water to travel from one location to another within a watershed, through the various components of the drainage system. Time of concentration (t_c) is computed by summing all the travel times for consecutive components of the drainage conveyance system from the hydraulically most distant point of the watershed to the point of interest within the watershed. Following is a discussion of related procedures and equations (USDA, 1986).

Travel Time

Water moves through a watershed as sheet flow, shallow concentrated flow, open channel flow, or some combination of these. The type of flow that occurs is a function of the conveyance system and is best determined by field inspection.

Travel time is the ratio of flow length to flow velocity:

$$T_t = L/3600V \quad (2.1.9)$$

where:

- T_t = travel time (hr)
- L = flow length (ft)
- V = average velocity (ft/s)
- 3600 = conversion factor from seconds to hours

Sheet Flow

Sheet flow can be calculated using the following formula:

$$T_t = \frac{0.42 (nL)^{0.8}}{60 (P_2)^{0.5}(S)^{0.4}} = \frac{0.007(nL)^{0.8}}{(P_2)^{0.5}(S)^{0.4}} \quad (2.1.10)$$

where:

- T_t = travel time (hr)
- n = Manning roughness coefficient (see Table 2.1.5-2)
- L = flow length (ft),
- P_2 = 2-year, 24-hour rainfall
- S = land slope (ft/ft)

Surface Description	N
Smooth surfaces	
(concrete, asphalt, gravel or bare soil)	0.011
Fallow	
(no residue)	0.05
Cultivated soils:	
Residue cover < 20%	0.06
Residue cover > 20%	0.17
Grass:	
Short grass prairie	0.15
Dense grasses ²	0.24
Bermuda grass	0.41
Range	
(natural)	0.13
Woods ³	
Light underbrush	0.40
Dense underbrush	0.80

¹ The n values are a composite of information by Engman (1986).

² Includes species such as bluestem grass, buffalo grass, grama grass, and native grass mixtures.

³ When selecting n, consider cover to a height of about 0.1 ft. This is the only part of the plant cover that will obstruct sheet flow.

Source: SCS, TR-55, Second Edition, June 1986.

Shallow Concentrated Flow

After 50 to 100 feet, sheet flow usually becomes shallow concentrated flow. The average velocity for this flow can be determined from Figure 2.1.5-5, in which average velocity is a function of watercourse slope and type of channel.

Average velocities for estimating travel time for shallow concentrated flow can be computed from using Figure 2.1.5-5, or the following equations. These equations can also be used for slopes less than 0.005 ft/ft.

$$\text{Unpaved} \quad \mathbf{V = 16.13(S)^{0.5}} \quad \mathbf{(2.1.11)}$$

$$\text{Paved} \quad \mathbf{V = 20.33(S)^{0.5}} \quad \mathbf{(2.1.12)}$$

where:

V = average velocity (ft/s)

S = slope of hydraulic grade line (watercourse slope, ft/ft)

After determining average velocity using Figure 2.1.5-5 or equations 2.1.11 or 2.1.12, use equation 2.1.9 to estimate travel time for the shallow concentrated flow segment.

Open Channels

Velocity in channels should be calculated from the Manning equation. Open channels are assumed to begin where surveyed cross section information has been obtained, where channels are visible on aerial photographs, where channels have been identified by the local municipality, or where stream designations appear on United States Geological Survey (USGS) quadrangle sheets. Manning's equation or water surface profile information can be used to estimate average flow velocity. Average flow velocity for travel time calculations is usually determined for bank-full elevation assuming low vegetation winter conditions.

Manning's equation is

$$\mathbf{V = (1.49 / n) (R)^{2/3} (S)^{1/2}} \quad \mathbf{(2.1.13)}$$

where:

V = average velocity (ft/s)

R = hydraulic radius (ft) and is equal to A/P_w

A = cross sectional flow area (ft²)

P_w = wetted perimeter (ft)

S = slope of the hydraulic grade line (ft/ft)

n = Manning's roughness coefficient for open channel flow (per Table 2.1.5-2)

After average velocity is computed using equation 2.1.13, T_t for the channel segment can be estimated using equation 2.1.9.

Limitations

- Equations in this section should not be used for sheet flow longer than 50 feet for impervious surfaces.
- In watersheds with storm sewers, carefully identify the appropriate hydraulic flow path to estimate t_c .
- A culvert or bridge can act as detention structure if there is significant storage behind it. Detailed storage routing procedures should be used to determine the outflow through the culvert or bridge.

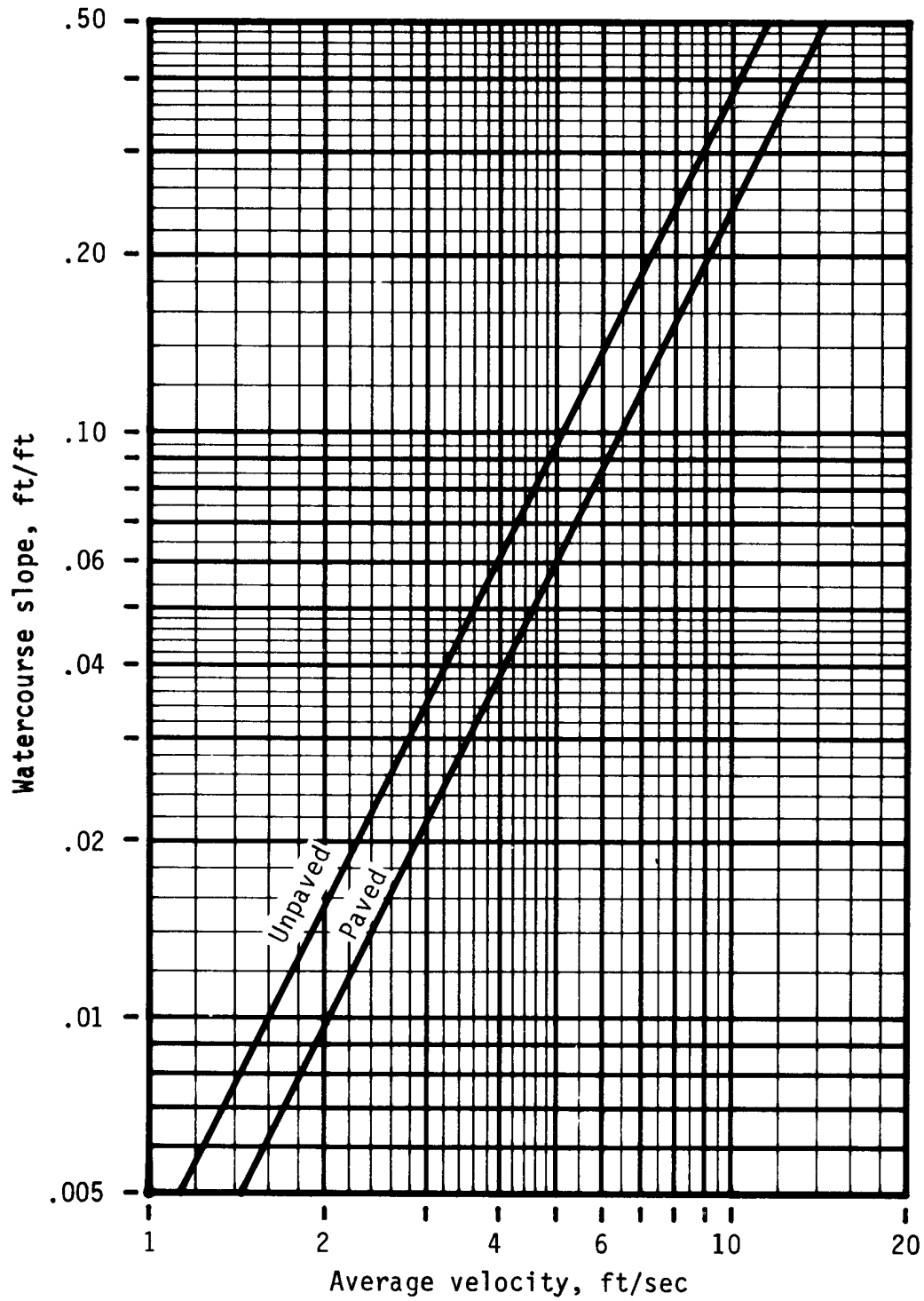


Figure 2.1.5-5 Average Velocities – Shallow Concentrated Flow

(Source: SCS, TR-55, Second Edition, June 1986)

2.1.5.7 Simplified SCS Peak Runoff Rate Estimation

THIS METHOD SHOULD BE ONLY USED WITH SPECIFIC APPROVAL OF THE DIRECTOR OF PUBLIC WORKS.

Refer to the SCS Technical Release 55 (USDA, 1986) which presents simplified procedures to calculate storm runoff volume and peak rate of discharges. The method can also be found in the iSWM Hydrology Technical Manual, Section 1.3. These procedures are applicable to small drainage areas (typically less than 2,000 acres) with homogeneous land uses, which can be described by a single CN value. The peak discharge equation is:

$$Q_p = q_u A Q F_p \quad (2.1.14)$$

where:

- Q_p = peak discharge (cfs)
- q_u = unit peak discharge (cfs/mi²/in)
- A = drainage area (mi²)
- Q = runoff (in)
- F_p = pond and swamp adjustment factor

Computations for the peak discharge method proceed as follows:

- The 24-hour rainfall depth (P) is determined from the rainfall in table 2.1.3-1 for the selected return frequency.
- The runoff curve number, CN, is estimated from Table 2.1.5-1 and direct runoff, Q, is calculated using equation 2.1.7.
- The CN value is used to determine the initial abstraction, I_a , from Table 2.1.5-3, and the ratio I_a/P is then computed (P = accumulated 24-hour rainfall).
- The watershed time of concentration is computed using the procedures in subsection 2.1.5.6 and is used with the ratio I_a/P to obtain the unit peak discharge (q_u) from Figure 2.1.5-6 for the Type II rainfall distribution. If the ratio I_a/P lies outside the range shown in the figures, either the limiting values or another peak discharge method should be used. Note: Figure 2.1.5-6 is based on a peaking factor of 484. If a peaking factor of 300 is needed, these figures are not applicable and the simplified SCS method should not be used. Peaking factors are discussed further in Section 2.1.5.9.
- The pond and swamp adjustment factor, F_p , is estimated from below:

<u>Pond and Swamp Areas (%*)</u>	<u>F_p</u>
0	1.00
0.2	0.97
1.0	0.87
3.0	0.75
5.0	0.72

*Percent of entire drainage basin

- The peak runoff rate is computed using equation 2.1.14.

Table 2.1.5-3 I_a Values for Runoff Curve Numbers			
Curve Number	I _a (in)	Curve Number	I _a (in)
40	3.000	70	0.857
41	2.878	71	0.817
42	2.762	72	0.778
43	2.651	73	0.740
44	2.545	74	0.703
45	2.444	75	0.667
46	2.348	76	0.632
47	2.255	77	0.597
48	2.167	78	0.564
49	2.082	79	0.532
50	2.000	80	0.500
51	1.922	81	0.469
52	1.846	82	0.439
53	1.74	83	0.410
54	1.704	84	0.381
55	1.636	85	0.353
56	1.571	86	0.326
57	1.509	87	0.299
58	1.448	88	0.273
59	1.390	89	0.247
60	1.333	90	0.222
61	1.279	91	0.198
62	1.226	92	0.174
63	1.175	93	0.151
64	1.125	94	0.128
65	1.077	95	0.105
66	1.030	96	0.083
67	0.985	97	0.062
68	0.941	98	0.041
69	0.899		

Source: SCS, TR-55, Second Edition, June 1986

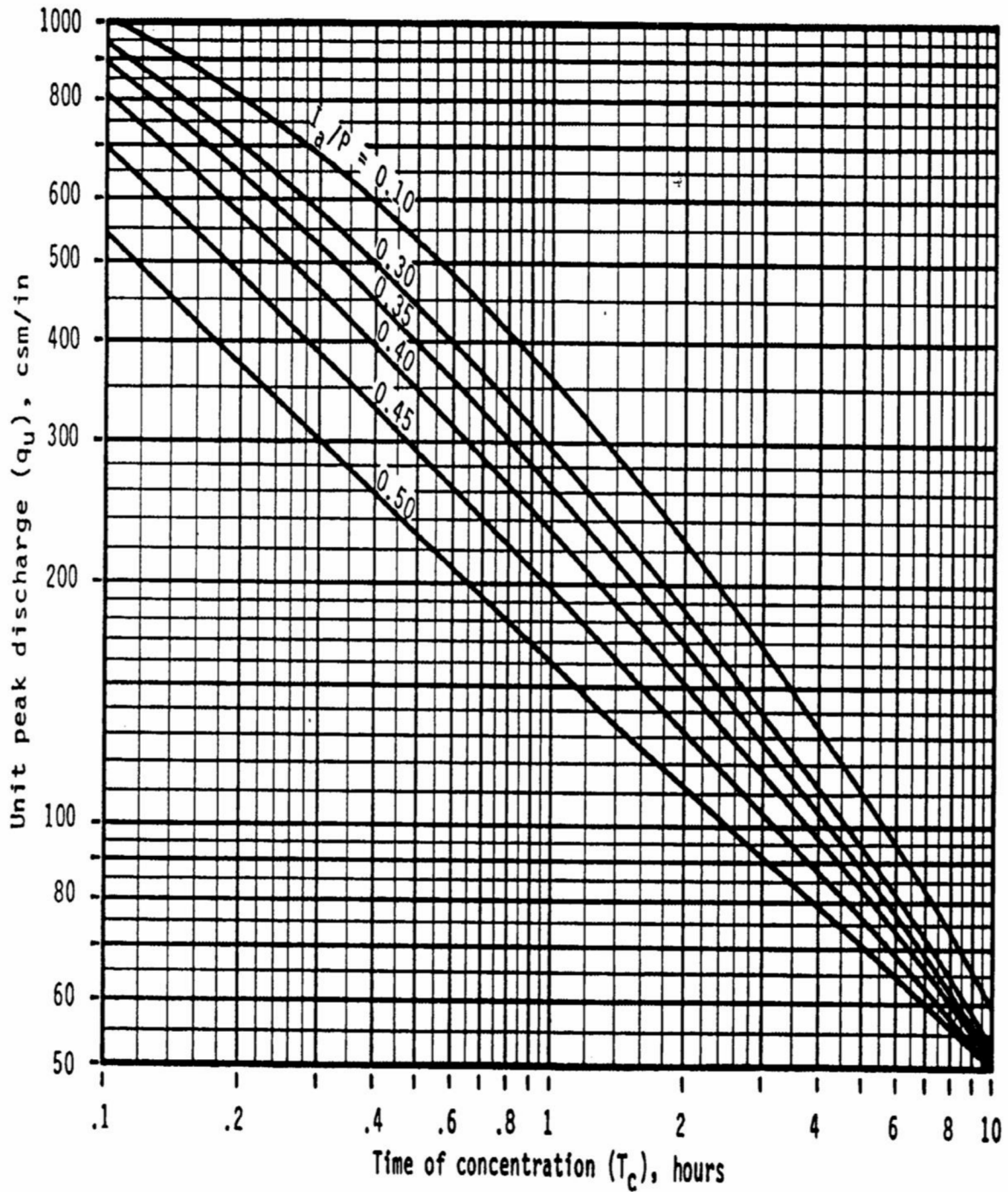


Figure 2.1.5-6 SCS Type II Unit Peak Discharge Graph

(Source: SCS, TR-55, Second Edition, June 1986)

2.1.5.8 Example Problem 1

Compute the 100-year peak discharge for a 50-acre watershed located in Fort Worth, which will be developed as follows:

- Pasture / range land - good condition (hydrologic soil group D) = 10 ac
- Pasture / range land - good condition (hydrologic soil group C) = 10 ac
- 1/3 acre residential (hydrologic soil group D) = 20 ac
- Industrial development (hydrological soil group C) = 10 ac

Other data include the following: Total impervious area = 18 acres, % of pond / swamp area = 0

Computations

Calculate rainfall excess:

- The 100-year, 24-hour rainfall is 9.12 inches (.38 in/hr x 24 hours – From Appendix A, Table A-16).
- Composite weighted runoff coefficient is:

<u>Dev. #</u>	<u>Area</u>	<u>% Total</u>	<u>CN</u>	<u>Composite CN</u>
1	10 ac.	0.20	80	18.2
2	10 ac.	0.20	74	14.8
3	20 ac.	0.40	86	34.4
4	10 ac.	0.20	91	18.2
Total	50 ac.	1.00		83

* from Equation 2.1.7 Q (100-year) = 7.1 inches

Calculate time of concentration

The hydrologic flow path for this watershed = 1,890 ft

<u>Segment</u>	<u>Type of Flow</u>	<u>Length (ft)</u>	<u>Slope (%)</u>
1	Overland $n = 0.24$	40	2.0
2	Shallow channel (unpaved)	750	1.7
3	Main channel*	1100	0.50

* For the main channel, $n = .06$ (estimated), width = 10 feet, depth = 2 feet, rectangular channel

Segment 1 - Travel time from equation 2.1.10 with $P_2 = 3.36$ inches (0.14 x 24 – Table 2.1.3-2)

$$T_t = [0.42(0.24 \times 40)^{0.8}] / [(3.36)^{0.5} (.020)^{0.4}] = 6.69 \text{ minutes}$$

Segment 2 - Travel time from Figure 2.1.5-5 or equation 2.1.11

$$V = 2.1 \text{ ft/sec (from equation 2.1.11)}$$

$$T_t = 750 / 60 (2.1) = 5.95 \text{ minutes}$$

Segment 3 - Using equation 2.1.13

$$V = (1.49/.06) (1.43)^{0.67} (.005)^{0.5} = 2.23 \text{ ft/sec}$$

$$T_t = 1100 / 60 (2.23) = 8.22 \text{ minutes}$$

$$t_c = 6.69 + 5.95 + 8.22 = 20.86 \text{ minutes (.35 hours)}$$

Calculate I_a/P for $CN = 83$ (Table 2.1.5-1), $I_a = .410$ (Table 2.1.5-3)

$$I_a/P = (.410 / 9.12) = .05$$

(Note: Use $I_a/P = .10$ to facilitate use of Figure 2.1.5-6.)

Unit discharge q_u (100-year) from Figure 2.1.5-6 = 650 csm/in

Calculate peak discharge with $F_p = 1$ using equation 2.1.14

$$Q_{100} = 650 (50/640)(7.1)(1) = 360 \text{ cfs}$$

2.1.5.9 Hydrograph Generation

In addition to estimating the peak discharge, the SCS method can be used to estimate the entire hydrograph from a drainage area. The SCS has developed a Tabular Hydrograph procedure that can be used to generate the hydrograph for small drainage areas (less than 2,000 acres). The Tabular Hydrograph procedure uses unit discharge hydrographs that have been generated for a series of time of concentrations. In addition, SCS has developed hydrograph procedures to be used to generate composite flood hydrographs. For the development of a hydrograph from a homogeneous developed drainage area and drainage areas that are not homogeneous, where hydrographs need to be generated from sub-areas and then routed and combined at a point downstream, the engineer is referred to the procedures outlined by the SCS in the 1986 version of TR-55 available from the National Technical Information Service in Springfield, Virginia 22161. The catalog number for TR-55, "Urban Hydrology for Small Watersheds," is PB87-101580.

The unit hydrograph equations used in the SCS method for generating hydrographs includes a constant to account for the general land slope in the drainage area. This constant, called a peaking factor, can be adjusted when using the method. A default value of 484 for the peaking factor represents rolling hills – a medium level of relief. SCS indicates that for mountainous terrain the peaking factor can be as high as 600, and as low as 300 for flat (coastal) areas.

A value of 484 should be used for most areas of North Texas; however, there are flat areas where a lesser value may be appropriate.

The development of a runoff hydrograph from a watershed is a laborious process not normally done by hand calculation. For that reason, only an overview of the process is given here to assist the designer in reviewing and understanding the input and output from a typical computer program. There are choices of computational interval, storm length (if the 24-hour storm is not going to be used), and other "administrative" parameters, which are applicable to each computer program.

The development of a runoff hydrograph for a watershed or one of many sub-basins within a more complex model involves the following steps:

- Development or selection of a design storm hyetograph. Often the SCS 24-hour storm described in subsection 2.1.5.3 is used. This storm is recommended for use in North Texas.
- Development of curve numbers and lag times for the watershed using the methods described in subsections 2.1.5.4, 2.1.5.5, and 2.1.5.6.
- Development of a unit hydrograph using the standard (peaking factor of 484) dimensionless unit hydrograph. See discussion below.
- Step-wise computation of the initial and infiltration rainfall losses and, thus, the excess rainfall hyetograph using a derivative form of the SCS rainfall-runoff equation (Equation 2.1.7).
- Application of each increment of excess rainfall to the unit hydrograph to develop a series of runoff hydrographs, one for each increment of rainfall (this is called "convolution").
- Summation of the flows from each of the small incremental hydrographs (keeping proper track of time steps) to form a runoff hydrograph for that watershed or sub-basin.

To assist the designer in using the SCS unit hydrograph approach with a peaking factor of 484, Figure 2.1.5-7 and Table 2.1.5-4 have been developed. The unit hydrograph with a peaking factor of 300 is shown in the figure for comparison purposes, but, typically, should not be used for areas in North Texas.

The procedure to develop a unit hydrograph from the dimensionless unit hydrograph in the table below is to multiply each time ratio value by the time-to-peak (T_p) and each value of q/q_u by q_u calculated as:

$$q_u = (PF A) / (T_p) \quad (2.1.15)$$

where:

q_u = unit hydrograph peak rate of discharge (cfs)

PF = peaking factor (484)

A = area (mi²)

d = rainfall time increment (hr)

T_p = time to peak = $d/2 + 0.6 t_c$ (hr)

For ease of spreadsheet calculations, the dimensionless unit hydrograph for 484 can be approximated by the equation:

$$\frac{q}{q_u} = \left(\frac{t}{T_p} e^{[1-(t/T_p)]} \right)^X \quad (2.1.16)$$

where X is 3.79 for the PF=484 unit hydrograph.

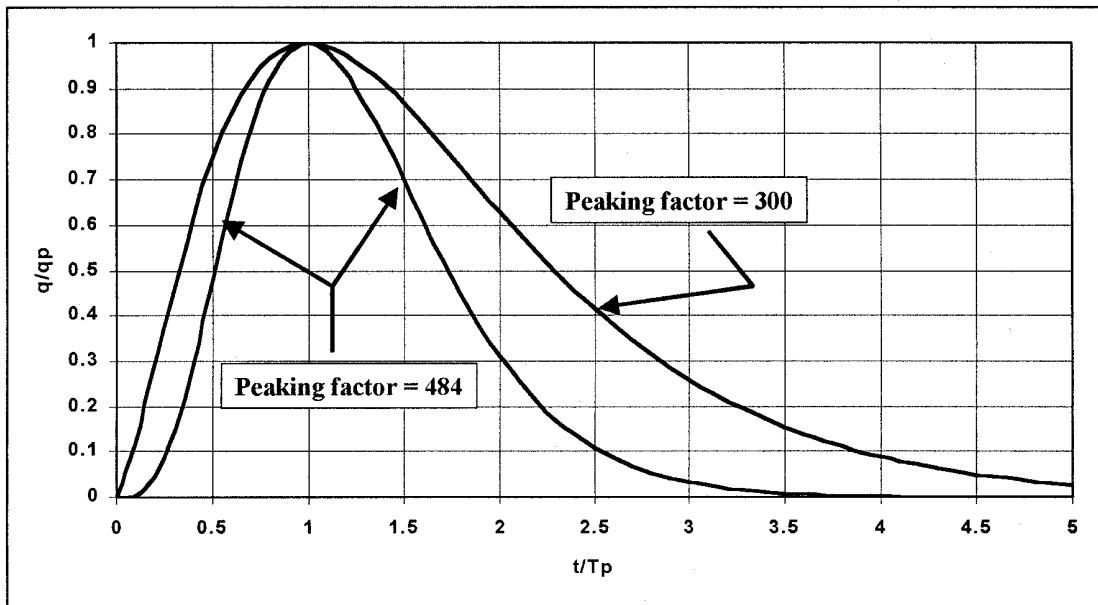


Figure 2.1.5-7 Dimensionless Unit Hydrographs for Peaking Factors of 484 and 300

t/T_t	484	
	q/q_u	Q/Q_p
0.0	0.0	0.0
0.1	0.005	0.000
0.2	0.046	0.004
0.3	0.148	0.015
0.4	0.301	0.038
0.5	0.481	0.075
0.6	0.657	0.125
0.7	0.807	0.186
0.8	0.916	0.255
0.9	0.980	0.330
1.0	1.000	0.406
1.1	0.982	0.481
1.2	0.935	0.552
1.3	0.867	0.618
1.4	0.786	0.677
1.5	0.699	0.730
1.6	0.611	0.777
1.7	0.526	0.817
1.8	0.447	0.851
1.9	0.376	0.879
2.0	0.312	0.903
2.1	0.257	0.923
2.2	0.210	0.939
2.3	0.170	0.951
2.4	0.137	0.962
2.5	0.109	0.970
2.6	0.087	0.977
2.7	0.069	0.982
2.8	0.054	0.986
2.9	0.042	0.989
3.0	0.033	0.992
3.1	0.025	0.994
3.2	0.020	0.995
3.3	0.015	0.996
3.4	0.012	0.997
3.5	0.009	0.998
3.6	0.007	0.998
3.7	0.005	0.999
3.8	0.004	0.999
3.9	0.003	0.999
4.0	0.002	1.000

2.1.5.10 Example Problem 2

Compute the unit hydrograph for the 50-acre watershed in example 2.1.5.8.

Computations

Calculate T_p and time increment

The time of concentration (t_c) is calculated to be 20.86 minutes for this watershed. If we assume a computer calculation time increment (d) of 3 minutes then:

$$T_p = d/2 + 0.6t_c = 3/2 + 0.6 * 20.86 = 14.02 \text{ minutes (0.234 hrs)}$$

Calculate q_{pu}

$$q_u = PF A/T_p = (484 * 50/640) / (0.234) = 162 \text{ cfs}$$

Calculate unit hydrograph.

Based on spreadsheet calculations using equations 2.1.15 and 2.1.16, the table below has been derived.

Time		484	
t/T_p	time (min)	q/q_u	Q
0	0	0	0.00
0.21	3	0.06	9.23
0.43	6.0	0.35	56.77
0.64	9.0	0.72	117.29
0.86	12.0	0.96	155.09
1.00	14.02	1.00	162.00
1.07	15.0	0.99	160.57
1.28	18.0	0.88	142.42
1.50	21.0	0.70	113.52
1.71	24.0	0.52	83.69
1.93	27.0	0.36	58.12
2.14	30.0	0.24	38.51
2.35	33.0	0.15	24.56
2.57	36.0	0.09	15.18
2.78	39.0	0.06	9.14
3.00	42.0	0.03	5.38
3.21	45.0	0.02	3.10
3.42	48.0	0.01	1.76
3.64	51.0	0.01	0.99
3.85	54.0	0.00	0.54
4.07	57.0	0.00	0.30
4.28	60.0	0.00	0.16
4.49	63.0	0.00	0.09
4.71	66.0	0.00	0.05
4.92	69.0	0.00	0.02
5.14	72.0	0.00	0.01
5.35	75.0	0.00	0.01
5.56	78.00	0.00	0.00

2.1.5.11 Hydrologic Stream Routing

Water requires a certain amount of time to travel down a stream or channel reach. A flood wave is attenuated by friction and channel storage as it passes through the reach. The process of computing the travel time and attenuation of water flowing in the reach is often called routing.

Hydrologic routing involves the balancing of inflow, outflow, and volume of storage through the use of the continuity equation. The relation between the outflow rate and storage in the system is also required.

Travel time and attenuation characteristics vary widely between different streams. The travel time is dependent on characteristics such as length, slope, friction, and flow depth. Attenuation is also dependent on friction, in addition to other characteristics such as channel storage. Many routing methods have been developed under different assumptions and for different stream types. Some of the routing methods include: kinematic wave, lag, modified Puls, Muskingum, Muskingum-Cunge 8-point section, and Muskingum-Cunge standard section.

The routing methods selected for use in Texarkana are the Modified Puls and the Muskingum-Cunge methods (USACE, HEC-HMS, 2000 and Bedient and Huber, 1988).

2.1.6 Snyder's Unit Hydrograph Method

2.1.6.1 Introduction

Snyder's unit hydrograph method is a method utilized by the Corps of Engineers Fort Worth District for hydrologic studies in the Dallas –Fort Worth region and is also commonly used by consultants and other entities within the NCTCOG region. It is similar in nature to the SCS method, in that it also considers the time distribution of the rainfall, the initial rainfall losses to interception and depression storage, and an infiltration rate that decreases during the course of a storm. This method is detailed in the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers Engineering Manual (EM 1110-2-1405), *Flood-Hydrograph Analysis and Computations* and The Bureau of Reclamation's "Flood Hydrology Manual, A Water Resources Technical Publication,". It can also be found in the [iSWM Hydrology Technical Manual, Section 1.4](#).

THIS METHOD IS ONLY ALLOWED WITH THE SPECIFIC APPROVAL OF THE DIRECTOR OF PUBLIC WORKS.

2.1.7 USGS and TxDOT Regression Methods

2.1.7.1 Introduction

Regional regression equations are the most commonly accepted method for establishing peak flows at larger ungauged sites (or sites with insufficient data for a statistical derivation of the flood versus frequency relation). Regression equations have been developed to relate peak flow at a specified return period to the physiography, hydrology, and meteorology of the watershed.

The USGS regression equations are used to determine peak flows in urban drainage areas, and the TxDOT regression equations are used to determine peak flows in rural drainage areas. It may be difficult to choose the proper set of regression equations when the design site lies on or near the hydrologic boundaries of relevant studies. Another problem occurs when the watershed is partly or totally within an area subject to mixed population floods.

These methods are detailed in the U. S. Geological Survey Regional Equations for Estimation of Peak-Stream Flow Frequency for Rural Basins in Texas, Water-Resources Investigation Report 96-4307, and in Chapter 5, Section 11 of the TxDOT Hydraulic Design Manual, available online at <http://manuals.dot.state.tx.us/docs/colbridg/forms/hyd.pdf>. These methods can also be found in the iSWM Hydrology Technical Manual, Section 1.6.

THIS METHOD IS ONLY ALLOWED WITH THE SPECIFIC APPROVAL OF THE DIRECTOR OF PUBLIC WORKS.

Section 2.1.8 Downstream Hydrologic Assessment

A major objective of the stormwater management criteria presented in this Manual is to protect downstream properties from flood and erosion impacts due to upstream development. Some entity's criteria require the designer to control peak flow at the outlet of a site such that post-development peak discharge equals pre-development peak discharge. It has been shown that in certain cases this does not always provide effective water quantity control downstream from the site and may actually exacerbate flooding problems downstream. The reasons for this have to do with (1) the timing of the flow peaks, and (2) the total increase in volume of runoff. Further, due to a site's location within a watershed, there may be very little reason for requiring flood control from a particular site. This section outlines a suggested procedure for determining the impacts of post-development stormwater peak flows and volumes that a community may require as part of a developer's stormwater management site plan.

A downstream assessment will not be required for sites being developed less than 1 acre.

2.1.8.1 Reasons for Downstream Problems

Flow Timing

If water quantity control (detention) structures are indiscriminately placed in a watershed and changes to the flow timing are not considered, the structural control may actually increase the peak discharge downstream. The reason for this may be seen in Figure 2.1.8-1. The peak flow from the site is reduced appropriately, but the timing of the flow is such that the combined detained peak flow (the larger dashed triangle) is actually higher than if no detention were required.

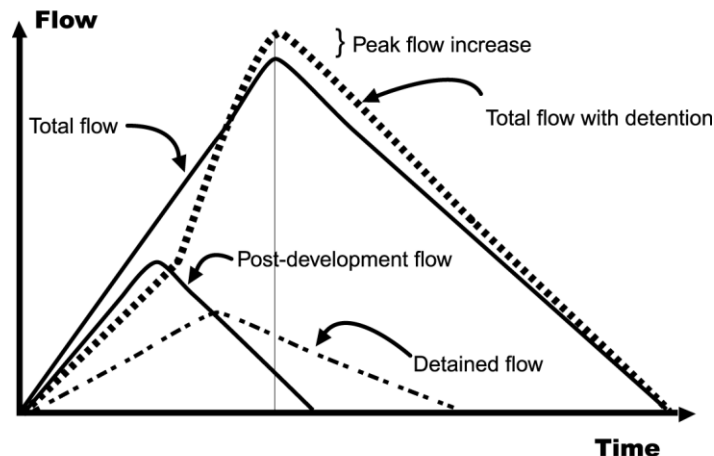


Figure 2.1.8-1 Detention Timing Example

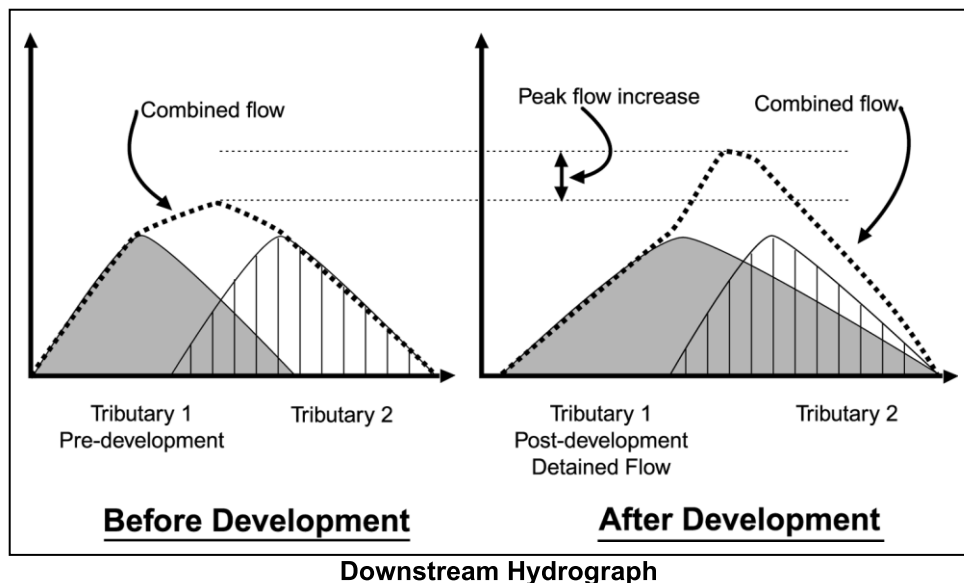
In this case, the shifting of flows to a later time brought about by the detention pond actually makes the downstream flooding worse than if the post-development flows were not detained. This is most likely to

happen if detention is placed on tributaries towards the bottom of the watershed, holding back peak flows and adding them as the peak from the upper reaches of the watershed arrives.

Increased Volume

An important impact of new development is an increase in the total runoff volume of flow. Thus, even if the peak flow is effectively attenuated, the longer duration of higher flows due to the increased volume may combine with downstream tributaries to increase the downstream peak flows. Figure 2.1.9-2 illustrates this concept. The figure shows the pre- and post-development hydrographs from a development site (Tributary 1). The post-development runoff hydrograph meets the flood protection criteria (i.e., the post-development peak flow is equal to the pre-development peak flow at the outlet from the site). However, the post-development combined flow at the first downstream tributary (Tributary 2) is higher than pre-development combined flow. This is because the increased volume and timing of runoff from the developed site increases the combined flow and flooding downstream. In this case, the detention volume would have to have been increased to account for the downstream timing of the combined hydrographs to mitigate the impact of the increased runoff volume.

Figure 2.1.8-2 Effect of Increased Post-Development Runoff Volume with Detention on a



2.1.8.2 Methods for Downstream Evaluation

The downstream assessment is a tool by which the impacts of development on stormwater peak flows and velocities are evaluated downstream. The assessment extends from an outfall of a development to a point downstream, determined by one of two methods:

- *Zone of Influence* – Point downstream where the discharge from a proposed development no longer has a significant impact upon the receiving stream or storm drainage system. This point shall be a minimum of 1,000 feet downstream extended to at least the next hydraulically equivalent structure.
- *Adequate Outfall* – Location of acceptable outfall that does not create adverse flooding or erosion conditions downstream

These methods recognize the fact that a structural control providing detention has a “zone of influence” downstream where its effectiveness can be felt. Beyond this zone of influence the stormwater effects of a structural control become relatively small and insignificant compared to the runoff from the total drainage area at that point. Based on studies and master planning results for a large number of sites, a general

rule of thumb is that zone of influence can be considered to be the point where the drainage area controlled by the detention or storage facility comprises 10% of the total drainage area. This is known as the *10% Rule*. As an example, if a structural control drains 10 acres, the zone of influence ends at the point where the total drainage area is 100 acres or greater.

Typical steps in a downstream assessment include:

1. Determine the outfall location of the site and the pre- and post-development site conditions.
2. Using a topographic map determine a preliminary lower limit of the zone of influence (approximately 10% point).
3. Using a hydrologic model determine the pre-development peak flows and velocities at each junction beginning at the development outfall and ending at the next junction beyond the 10% point. Undeveloped off-site areas are modeled as “full build-out” for both the pre- and post-development analyses. The discharges and velocities are evaluated for three storms:
 - “Streambank Protection” storm, 2-year, 24-hour event
 - “Conveyance” storm, 10-year, 24-hour event
 - 100-year, 24-hour storm event
4. Change the land use on the site to post-development conditions and rerun the model.
5. Compare the pre- and post-development peak discharges and velocities at the downstream end of the model. If the post-developed flows are higher than the pre-developed flows for the same frequency event, or the post-developed velocities are higher than the allowable velocity of the downstream receiving system, extend the model downstream. Repeat steps 3 and 4 until the post-development flows are less than the pre-developed flows, and the post-developed velocities are below the allowable velocity. Allowable velocities are given in Tables 4.4-2 and 4.4-3 in Chapter 4. (See guidelines in Section 1.2.2)
6. If shown that no peak flow increases occur downstream, and post-developed velocities are allowable, then the control of the flood protection volume (Q_f) can be waived by the local authority. The developer saves the cost of sizing a detention basin for flood control. In this case the downstream assessment saved the construction of an unnecessary structural control facility that would have been detrimental to the watershed flooding problems. In some communities this situation may result in a fee being paid to the local government in lieu of detention. That fee would go toward alleviating downstream flooding or making channel or other conveyance improvements.
7. If peak discharges are increased due to development, or if downstream velocities are erosive, one of the following options are required.
 - Document that existing downstream conveyance is adequate to convey post-developed stormwater discharges (Option 1 for Streambank Protection and Flood Control). (See guidelines in Section 1.2.2.)
 - Work with the City to reduce the flow elevation and/or velocity through channel or flow conveyance structure improvements downstream. (Option 2 for Streambank Protection and Flood Control)
 - Design an on-site structural control facility such that the post-development flows do not increase the peak flows, and the velocities are not erosive, at the outlet and the determined junction locations.

2.1.8.3 Example Problem

Figure 2.1.8-3 illustrates the concept of the ten-percent rule for two sites in a watershed.

Discussion

Site A is a development of 10 acres, all draining to a wet Extended Detention (ED) stormwater pond.*The flood portions of the design are going to incorporate the ten-percent rule. Looking downstream at each tributary in turn, it is determined that the analysis should end at the tributary marked “80 acres.” The 100-acre (10%) point is in between the 80-acre and 120-acre tributary junction points.

The assumption is that if there is no peak flow increase or erosive velocities at the 80-acre point then the same will be true through the next stream reach downstream through the 10% point (100 acres) to the 120-acre point. The designer constructs a simple HEC-1 model of the 80-acre areas using single, “full build-out” condition sub-watersheds for each tributary. Key detention structures existing in other tributaries must be modeled. An approximate curve number is used since the *actual* peak flow is not key for initial analysis; only the increase or decrease is important. The accuracy in curve number determination is not as significant as an accurate estimate of the time of concentration. Since flooding is an issue downstream, the pond is designed (through several iterations) until the peak flow does not increase, and velocities are not erosive, at junction points downstream to the 80-acre point.

Site B is located downstream at the point where the total drainage area is 190 acres. The site itself is only 6 acres. The first tributary junction downstream from the 10% point is the junction of the site outlet with the stream. The total 190 acres is modeled as one basin with care taken to estimate the time of concentration for input into the TR-20 model of the watershed. The model shows a detention facility, in this case, will actually increase the peak flow in the stream. Please see section 1.2.2 for additional guidelines to be considered in downstream hydrologic and hydraulic assessments.

*Extended Detention is not currently required by the City of Texarkana

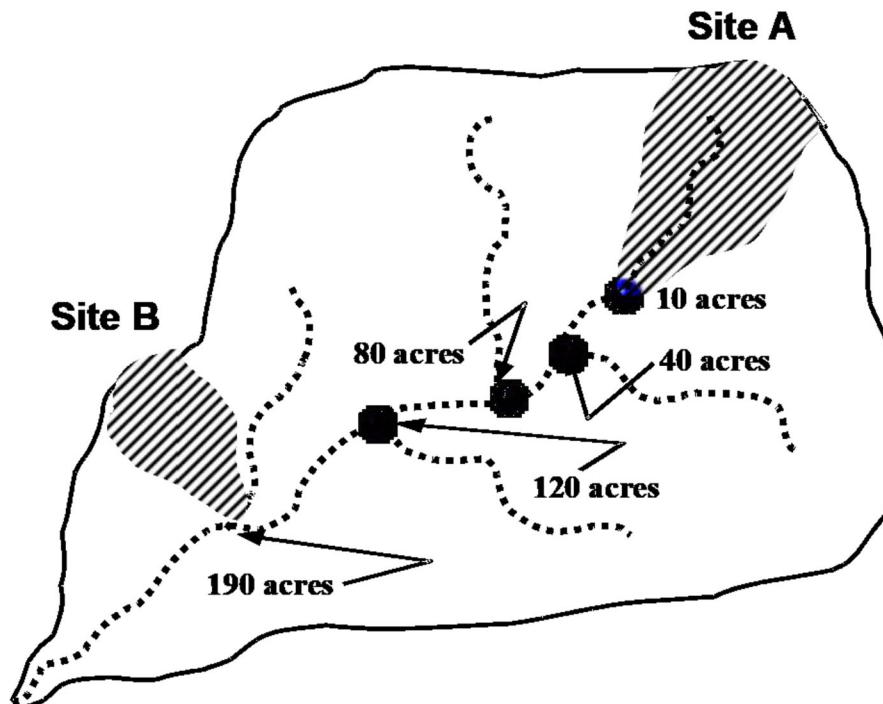


Figure 2.1.8-3 Example of the Ten-Percent Rule

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CHAPTER 3 – HYDRAULIC DESIGN OF STREETS AND CLOSED CONDUITS

Section 3.1 – Stormwater Street and Closed Conduit Design Overview

3.1.1 Stormwater System Design

3.1.1.1 Introduction

Stormwater system design is an integral component of both site and overall stormwater management design. Good drainage design must strive to maintain compatibility and minimize interference with existing drainage patterns; control flooding of property, structures, and roadways for design flood events; and minimize potential environmental impacts on stormwater runoff.

3.1.1.2 System Components

The on-site flood control systems are designed to remove stormwater from areas such as streets and sidewalks for public safety reasons. The drainage system can consist of inlets, street and roadway gutters, roadside ditches, small channels and swales, stormwater ponds and wetlands, and small underground pipe systems which collect stormwater runoff from mid-frequency storms and transport it to structural control facilities, pervious areas, and/or the larger stormwater systems (i.e., natural waterways, large man-made conduits, and large water impoundments).

The stormwater (major) system consists of natural waterways, large man-made conduits, and large water impoundments. In addition, the major system includes some less obvious drainageways such as overload relief swales and infrequent temporary ponding areas. The stormwater system includes not only the trunk line system that receives the water, but also the natural overland relief which functions in case of overflow from or failure of the on-site flood control system. Overland relief must not flood or damage houses, buildings or other property.

This chapter is intended to provide design criteria and guidance on several on-site flood control system components, including street and roadway gutters, inlets, and storm drain pipe systems (Section 3.2). Chapter 4 covers the design of culverts (Section 4.2); vegetated and lined open channels (Section 4.4); storage and design (Section 4.5); outlet structures (Section 4.6); and energy dissipation devices for outlet protection (Section 4.7). The rest of this section covers important considerations to keep in mind in the planning and design of stormwater drainage facilities

3.1.1.3 Checklist for Planning and Design

The following is a general procedure for drainage system design on a development site.

- A. Analyze topography, including:
 1. Check off-site drainage pattern. Where is water coming onto the site? Where is water leaving the site?
 2. Check on-site topography for surface runoff and storage, and infiltration
 - a. Determine runoff pattern: high points, ridges, valleys, streams, and swales. Where is the water going?
 - b. Overlay the grading plan and indicate watershed areas: calculate square footage (acreage), points of concentration, low points, etc.

- B. Analyze other site conditions, including:
 - 1. Land use and physical obstructions such as walks, drives, parking, patios, landscape edging, fencing, grassed area, landscaped area, tree roots, etc.
 - 2. Soil type (infiltration rates).
 - 3. Vegetative cover (slope protection).
- C. Check potential drainage outlets and methods, including:
 - 1. On-site (structural control, receiving water)
 - 2. Off-site (highway, storm drain, receiving water, regional control)
 - 3. Natural drainage system (swales)
 - 4. Existing drainage system (drain pipe)
- D. Analyze areas for probable location of drainage structures and facilities.
- E. Identify the type and size of drainage system components required. Design the drainage system and integrate with the overall stormwater management system and plan.

3.1.2 Key Issues in Stormwater System Design

3.1.2.1 Introduction

The traditional design of stormwater systems has been to collect and convey stormwater runoff as rapidly as possible to a suitable location where it can be discharged. This manual takes a different approach wherein the design methodologies and concepts of drainage design are to be integrated with the objectives for water quantity and quality control. This means:

- Stormwater systems are to remove water efficiently enough to meet flood protection criteria and level of service requirements, and
- These systems are to complement the ability of the site design and structural stormwater controls to mitigate the major stormwater impacts of urban development.

The following are some of the key issues in integrating water quantity and quality control consideration in stormwater system design.

3.1.2.2 General Design Considerations

- Stormwater systems should be planned and designed so as to generally conform to natural drainage patterns and discharge to natural drainage pathways within a drainage basin. These natural drainage pathways should only be modified as a last resort to contain and safely convey the peak flows generated by the development.
- Runoff must be discharged in a manner that will not cause adverse impacts on downstream properties or stormwater systems. In general, runoff from development sites within a drainage basin should be discharged at the existing natural drainage outlet or outlets. If the developer wishes to change discharge points he or she must demonstrate that the change will not have any adverse impacts on downstream properties or stormwater (minor) systems.
- It is important to ensure that the combined on-site flood control system and major stormwater system can handle blockages and flows in excess of the design capacity to minimize the likelihood of nuisance flooding or damage to private properties. If failure of minor stormwater systems and/or major stormwater structures occurs during these periods, the risk to life and property could be significantly increased.
- In establishing the layout of stormwater systems, it is essential to ensure that flows are not diverted onto private property for flows equal or less than the major stormwater system design capacity.

3.1.2.3 Street and Roadway Gutters

- Gutters are efficient flow conveyance structures. This is not always an advantage if removal of pollutants and reduction of runoff is an objective. Therefore, impervious surfaces should be disconnected hydrologically where possible, and runoff should be allowed to flow across pervious surfaces or through vegetated channels. Gutters should be used only after other options have been investigated and only after runoff has had as much chance as possible to infiltrate and filter through vegetated areas.
- It may be possible not to use gutters at all, or to modify them to channel runoff to off-road pervious areas or open channels. For example, curb opening type designs take roadway runoff to smaller feeder grass channels. Care should be taken not to create erosion problems in off-road areas. Protection during construction, establishment of strong stands of vegetation, and active maintenance may be necessary in some areas.
- Use typical road sections that use grass channels or swales instead of gutters to provide for pollution reduction and reduce the impervious area required. Figure 3.1-1 illustrates a roadway cross section that eliminates gutters for residential neighborhoods. Flow can also be directed to center median strips in divided roadway designs. To protect the edge of pavement, ribbons of concrete can be used along the outer edges of asphalt roads.

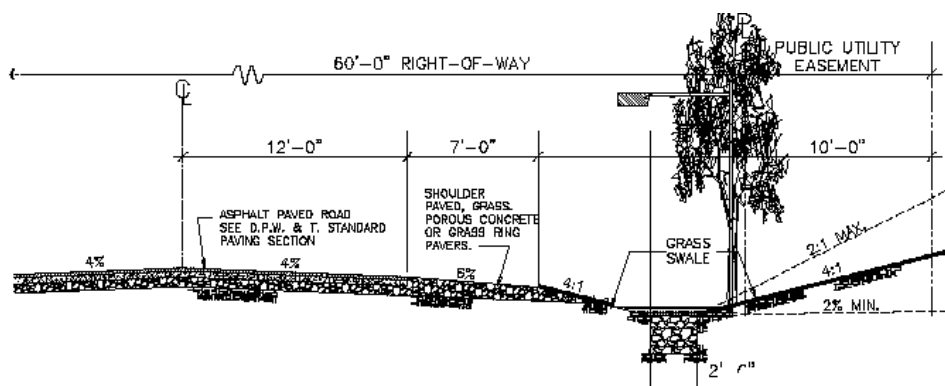


Figure 3.1-1 Alternate Roadway Section without Gutters

3.1.2.4 Inlets and Drains

- Inlets should be located to maximize the overland flow path, take advantage of pervious areas, and seek to maximize vegetative filtering and infiltration. For example, it might be possible to design a parking lot so water flows into vegetated areas prior to entering the nearest inlet.
- Inlet location should not compromise safety or aesthetics. It should not allow for standing water in areas of vehicular or pedestrian traffic, but should take advantage of natural depression storage where possible.
- Inlets should be located to serve as overflows for structural stormwater controls.
- The choice of inlet type should match its intended use. A sumped inlet may be more effective supporting water quality objectives.

Use several smaller inlets instead of one large inlet in order to:

- Prevent erosion on steep landscapes by intercepting water before it accumulates too much volume

and velocity.

- Provide a safety factor. If a drain inlet clogs, the other surface drains may pick up the water.
- Improve aesthetics. Several smaller drains will be less obvious than one large drain.

Spacing smaller drain inlets will give surface runoff a better chance of reaching the drain. Water will have to travel farther to reach one large drain inlet.

3.1.2.5 Closed Conduit Systems (Storm Drains/Sewers)

- The use of stormwater design practices should be considered to reduce the overall length of a closed conduit stormwater system.
- Shorter and smaller conveyances can be designed to carry runoff to nearby holding areas or natural conservation areas.
- Ensure that storms in excess of closed conduit design flows can be safely conveyed through a development without damaging structures or flooding major roadways. This is often done through design of both a major and minor drainage system. The on-site flood control system carries the mid-frequency design flows while larger runoff events may flow across lots and along streets as long as it will not cause property damage or impact public safety.

3.1.3 – Design Storm Recommendations

Storm Sewer System

- The design storm is a minimum 10-year for the closed conduit systems in residential and commercial areas and for thoroughfares. The 100-year storm is the design storm for the combination of the closed conduit and surface drainage system.
- Runoff from the design closed conduit storm must be contained within the permissible spread of water in the gutter. The 100-year storm flow must be contained within the ROW. Adequate inlet capacity shall be provided to intercept surface flows before the street ROW capacity is exceeded. Note: The capacity of the underground system may be required to exceed the 10-year design closed conduit storm in order to satisfy the 100-year storm criteria.
- Enclosed drainage systems for all street types shall be designed to contain the 10-year storm. The 10-year flow must not exceed curb depth. 100-year flows shall be contained within drainage easement and/or ROW. Safe overflow routing with supporting calculations shall be provided and indicated on plans. Grading plans must accommodate the necessary capacities to contain the 100-year flow within the street right-of-way or drainage easements. Finish floor minimums adjacent to 100-year overflow open channel ditches and easements shall be shown on the final plat and on the grading plans as required to protect structures from flooding. If practical, structure finish floors shall be higher than the curb height at the property line. Otherwise, grading plans shall show that front yard swales are adequate for directing the 100-year storm around the structure.
- The closed conduit HGL must be equal to or below the gutter line for pipe systems and one (1) foot or more below top of curb at inlets. For situations where no ROW exists, the 100-year HGL must be below finished ground. The 100-year HGL will be tracked carefully throughout the system and described in the hydraulic calculation tables (Figures 3.2-26 and 3.2-27) in the construction drawings.

Sump Inlets

In sag or sump conditions, the storm drain and sump inlets should be sized to intercept and convey the 25-year storm, provided that a positive overflow is provided for the remainder of the 100-year storm. When the overflow route is between residential lots or otherwise constricted, the positive overflow structure must be concrete or other acceptable non-earthen structure with a minimum bottom width of 6 feet extending from the sump inlet to the storm sewer outfall. If the upstream pipe already conveys more

than 10-year peak discharge, then the downstream pipe must have at least the same capacity from sump to outfall, and an inlet must still be installed at sump to allow for emergency overflow. In the event that a structural overflow is not practical, then the underground system must be sized to convey the 100-year storm.

Section 3.2 – On-Site Flood Control System Design

3.2.1 Overview

On-Site Flood Control Systems, also known as minor drainage systems, quickly remove runoff from areas such as streets and sidewalks for public safety purposes. The on-site flood control system consists of inlets, street and roadway gutters, roadside ditches, small channels and swales, and small underground pipe systems which collect stormwater runoff and transport it to structural control facilities, pervious areas, and/or the larger stormwater system (i.e., natural waterways, large man-made conduits, and large water impoundments).

This section is intended to provide criteria and guidance for the design of on-site flood control system components including:

- Street and roadway gutters
- Stormwater inlets
- Storm drain pipe systems

Ditch, channel and swale design criteria and guidance are covered in Section 4.4, *Open Channel Design*.

Procedures for performing gutter flow calculations are based on a modification of Manning's Equation. Inlet capacity calculations for grate, curb, and combination inlets are based on information contained in HEC-12 (USDOT, FHWA,1984). Storm drain system design is based on the Rational Method Formula.

3.2.1.2 General Criteria

The requirement for the City of Texarkana's typical street sections are presented in Table 3.2-1

Street Type	Min. Back to Back Width (ft)	Section Type	Closed Conduit Design Storm	Inlet Type		Flow Spread Limits (ft)
				Recessed or Non-Recessed	Depressed or Non-Depressed	
Residential Urban Street	31	Rooftop	10 yr	Either	Either	Top of Curb or Roadway Centerline
Urban Collector	37	Rooftop	10 yr	Either	Either	One 12' Lane Clear
Arterial	50	Rooftop	10 yr	Either	Either	One 12' Lane Clear (each side)
Residential Boulevard	20/20*	Rooftop	10 yr	Either	Either	One Lane Clear (each side)
Collector Boulevard	25/25*	Rooftop	10 yr	Either	Either	One Lane Clear (each side)

* Each Side

Must use roadway sections as approved by City of Texarkana. See "Standard Construction Details" (Chapter 130, Section 155 of Municipal Ordinances) for drawings of these sections.

3.2.2 – Symbols and Definitions

To provide consistency within this section as well as throughout this Manual, the symbols listed in Table 3.2-2 will be used. These symbols were selected because of their wide use. In some cases, the same symbol is used in existing publications for more than one definition. Where this occurs in this section, the symbol will be defined where it occurs in the text or equations.

<u>Symbol</u>	<u>Definition</u>	<u>Units</u>
a	Gutter depression	in
A	Area of cross section	ft ²
d or D	Depth of gutter flow at the curb line	ft
D	Diameter of pipe	ft
E _o	Ratio of frontal flow to total gutter flow Q_w/Q	-
g	Acceleration due to gravity (32.2 ft/s ²)	ft/s ²
h	Height of curb opening inlet	ft
H	Head loss	ft
K	Loss coefficient	-
L or L _T	Length of curb opening inlet	ft
L	Pipe length	ft
n	Roughness coefficient in the modified Manning's formula for triangular gutter flow	-
P	Perimeter of grate opening, neglecting bars and side against curb	ft
Q	Rate of discharge in gutter	cfs
Q _i	Intercepted flow	cfs
Q _S	Gutter capacity above the depressed section	cfs
S or S _x	Cross Slope - Traverse slope	ft/ft
S or S _L	Longitudinal slope	ft/ft
S _f	Friction slope	ft/ft
S' _w	Depression section slope	ft/ft
T	Top width of water surface (spread on pavement)	ft
T _s	Spread above depressed section	ft
V	Velocity of flow	ft/s
W	Width of depression for curb opening inlets	ft
Z	T/d, reciprocal of the cross slope	-

3.2.3 Street and Roadway Gutters

Effective drainage of street and roadway pavements is essential to the maintenance of the roadway service level and to traffic safety. Water on the pavement can interrupt traffic flow, reduce skid resistance, increase potential for hydroplaning, limit visibility due to splash and spray, and cause difficulty in steering a vehicle when the front wheels encounter puddles. Surface drainage is a function of transverse and longitudinal pavement slope, pavement roughness, inlet spacing, and inlet capacity. The design of these elements is dependent on storm frequency and the allowable spread of stormwater on the pavement surface.

Gutter flow calculations showing adequate capacity for the 10-year design storm, and right-of-way flow calculations showing adequate capacity for the 100-year design storm event shall be included in the design plans, or a note shall be added stating that a professional engineer has determined that street and right-of-way capacity is adequate for the 10- and 100- year design storm respectively.

This section presents design guidance for gutter flow hydraulics originally published in HEC-12, Drainage of Highway Pavements and AASHTO's Model Drainage Manual.

3.2.3.1 Formula

The following form of Manning's Equation should be used to evaluate gutter flow hydraulics:

$$Q = [0.56/n] S_x^{5/3} S^{1/2} T^{8/3} \quad (3.2.1)$$

where:

- Q = gutter flow rate, cfs
- S_x = pavement cross slope, ft/ft
- n = Manning's roughness coefficient
- S = longitudinal slope, ft/ft
- T = width of flow or spread, ft

Equation 3.2.1 was first presented by C.F. Izzard in 1946.

3.2.3.2 Nomograph

Figure 3.2-1 is a nomograph for solving Equation 3.2.1. Manning's n values for various pavement surfaces are presented in Table 3.2-3 below. Note: the nomograph will not work on slopes steeper than 3% - 4% for 2 and 3 lane thoroughfares. Also, the "Q" in the nomograph is only for n = 0.016.

3.2.3.3 Manning's n Table

<u>Type of Gutter or Pavement</u>	<u>Manning's n</u>
Concrete gutter, troweled finish	0.014
Asphalt pavement:	
Smooth texture	0.015
Rough texture	0.019
Concrete gutter with asphalt pavement:	
Smooth	0.015
Rough	0.018
Concrete pavement:	
Float finish	0.017
Broom finish	0.019
For gutters with small slopes, where sediment may accumulate, increase above values of n by	0.002

Note: Based on the statement of Izzard (1946) and confirmation by model studies (Ickert and Crosby, 2003), the n-values given in Table 4-3 of HEC No. 22, 2001, were increased by 18% to derive the n-values in this table.

3.2.3.4 Uniform Cross Slope

The nomograph in Figure 3.2-1 is used with the following procedures to find gutter capacity for uniform cross slopes:

Condition 1: Find spread, given gutter flow.

- Step 1 Determine input parameters, including longitudinal slope (S), cross slope (S_x), gutter flow (Q), and Manning's n.
- Step 2 Draw a line between the S and S_x scales and note where it intersects the turning line.
- Step 3 Draw a line between the intersection point from Step 2 and the appropriate gutter flow value on the capacity scale. If Manning's n is 0.016, use Q from Step 1; if not; use the product of Q and n (Qn).
- Step 4 Read the value of the spread (T) at the intersection of the line from Step 3 and the spread scale.

Condition 2: Find gutter flow, given spread.

- Step 1 Determine input parameters, including longitudinal slope (S), cross slope (S_x), spread (T), and Manning's n.
- Step 2 Draw a line between the S and S_x scales and note where it intersects the turning line.
- Step 3 Draw a line between the intersection point from Step 2 and the appropriate value on the T scale. Read the value of Q or Qn from the intersection of that line on the capacity scale.
- Step 4 For Manning's n values of 0.016, the gutter capacity (Q) from Step 3 is selected. For other Manning's n values, the gutter capacity times n (Qn) is selected from Step 3 and divided by the appropriate n value to give the gutter capacity.

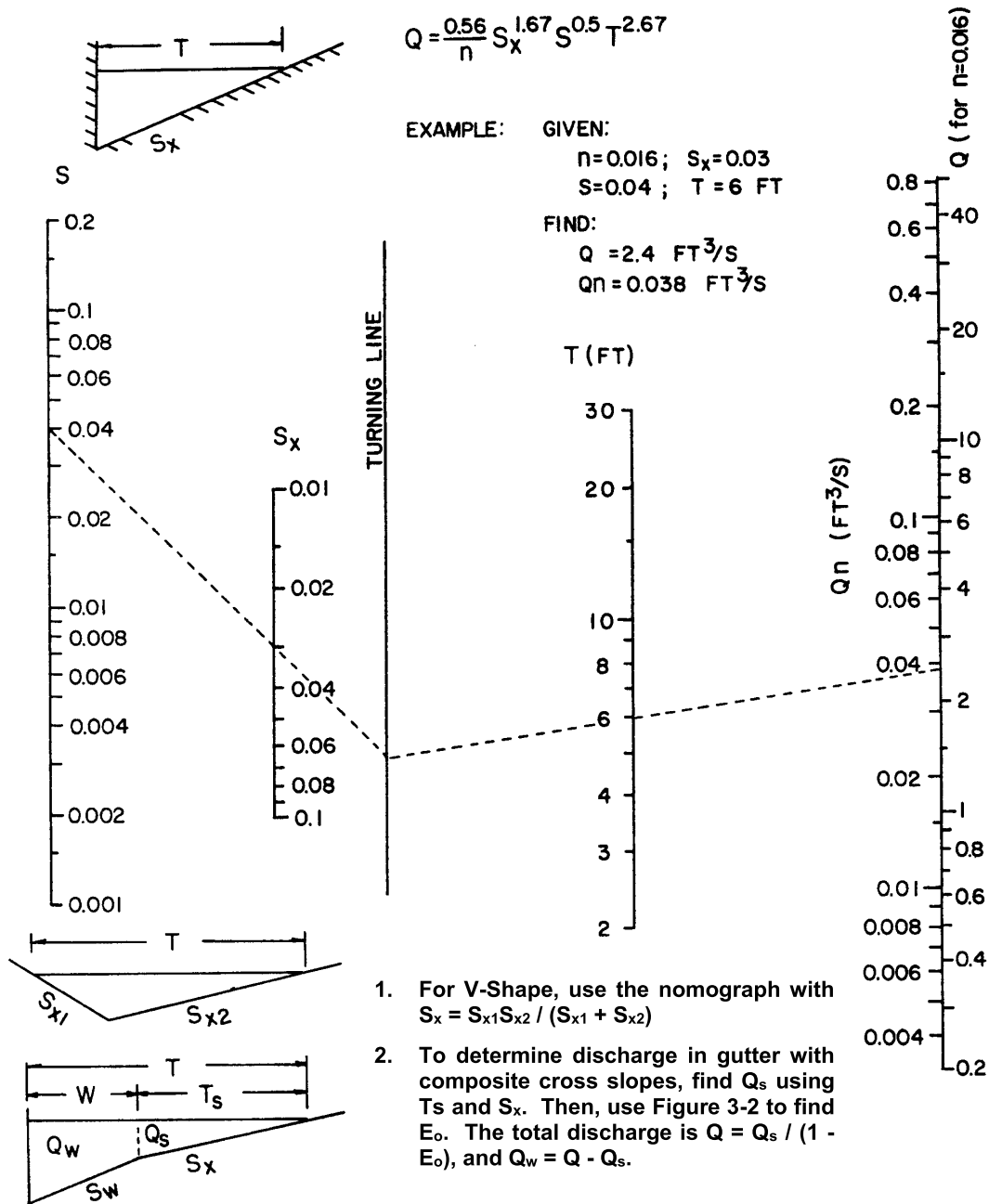


Figure 3.2-1 Flow in Triangular Gutter Sections

(Source: AASHTO Model Drainage Manual, 1991)

***SEE SECTION 3.2.3.2 FOR APPLICABILITY**

3.2.3.5 Composite Gutter Sections

Figure 3.2-2 in combination with Figure 3.2-1 can be used to find the flow in a gutter with width (W) less than the total spread (T). Such calculations are generally used for evaluating composite gutter sections or frontal flow for grate inlets. Please note that the nomograph in Figure 3.2-1 does not completely address cases where the crown elevation is lower than the top of curb elevation. For those cases a combination of Figure 3.2-1 and 3.2-2 can be used or a standard hydraulics program such as HEC-RAS or FlowMaster can be applied.

Figure 3.2-3 provides a direct solution of gutter flow in a composite gutter section. The flow rate at a given spread or the spread at a known flow rate can be found from this figure. Figure 3.2-3 involves a complex graphical solution of the equation for flow in a composite gutter section. Typical of graphical solutions, extreme care in using the figure is necessary to obtain accurate results.

Condition 1: Find spread, given gutter flow.

- Step 1 Determine input parameters, including longitudinal slope (S), cross slope (S_x), depressed section slope (S_w), depressed section width (W), Manning's n , gutter flow (Q), and a trial value of gutter capacity above the depressed section (Q_s).
- Step 2 Calculate the gutter flow in W (Q_w), using the equation:
$$Q_w = Q - Q_s \quad (3.2.2)$$
- Step 3 Calculate the ratios Q_w/Q or E_o and S_w/S_x and use Figure 3.2-2 to find an appropriate value of W/T .
- Step 4 Calculate the spread (T) by dividing the depressed section width (W) by the value of W/T from Step 3.
- Step 5 Find the spread above the depressed section (T_s) by subtracting W from the value of T obtained in Step 4.
- Step 6 Use the value of T_s from Step 5 along with Manning's n , S , and S_x to find the actual value of Q_s from Figure 3.2-1.
- Step 7 Compare the value of Q_s from Step 6 to the trial value from Step 1. If values are not comparable, select a new value of Q_s and return to Step 1.

Condition 2: Find gutter flow, given spread.

- Step 1 Determine input parameters, including spread (T), spread above the depressed section (T_s), cross slope (S_x), longitudinal slope (S), depressed section slope (S_w), depressed section width (W), Manning's n , and depth of gutter flow (d).
- Step 2 Use Figure 3.2-1 to determine the capacity of the gutter section above the depressed section (Q_s). Use the procedure for uniform cross slopes, substituting T_s for T .
- Step 3 Calculate the ratios W/T and S_w/S_x , and, from Figure 3.2-2, find the appropriate value of E_o (the ratio of Q_w/Q).
- Step 4 Calculate the total gutter flow using the equation:
$$Q = Q_s / (1 - E_o) \quad (3.2.3)$$

where:

 - Q = gutter flow rate, cfs
 - Q_s = flow capacity of the gutter section above the depressed section, cfs
 - E_o = ratio of frontal flow to total gutter flow (Q_w/Q)
- Step 5 Calculate the gutter flow in width (W), using Equation 3.2.2.

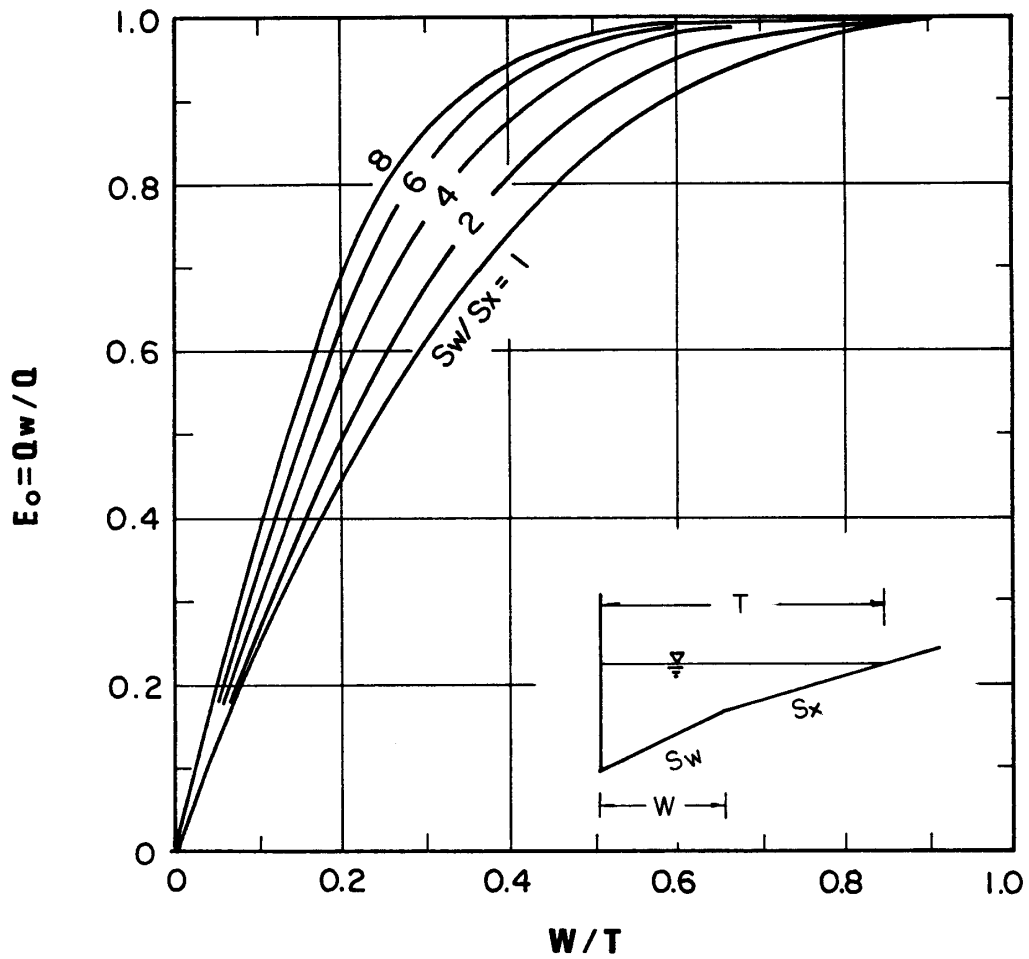


Figure 3.2-2 Ratio of Frontal Flow to Total Gutter Flow
 (Source: AASHTO Model Drainage Manual, 1991)

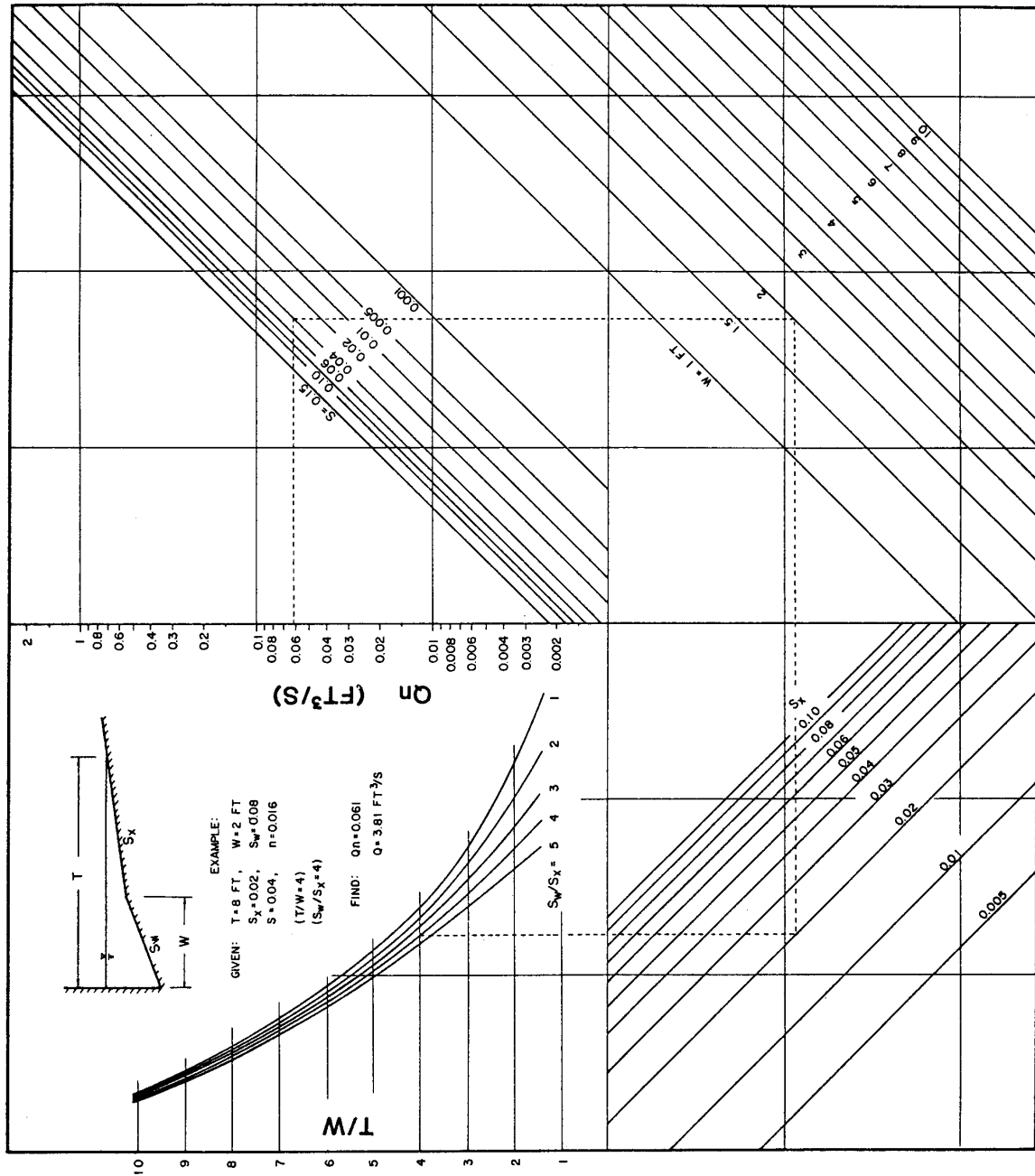


Figure 3.2-3 Flow in Composite Gutter Sections
 (Source: AASHTO Model Drainage Manual, 1991)

3.2.3.6 Examples

Example 1

Given:

$$\begin{aligned}T &= 8 \text{ ft} \\S_x &= 0.025 \text{ ft/ft} \\n &= 0.015 \\S &= 0.01 \text{ ft/ft}\end{aligned}$$

Find:

1. Flow in gutter at design spread
2. Flow in width ($W = 2$ ft) adjacent to the curb

Solution:

- a. From Figure 3.2-1, $Q_n = 0.03$

$$Q = Q_n/n = 0.03/0.015 = 2.0 \text{ cfs}$$

- b. $T = 8 - 2 = 6$ ft

$$(Q_n)_2 = 0.014 \text{ (Figure 3.2-1) (flow in 6-foot width outside of width } (W))$$

$$Q = 0.014/0.015 = 0.9 \text{ cfs}$$

$$Q_w = 2.0 - 0.9 = 1.1 \text{ cfs}$$

Flow in the first 2 ft adjacent to the curb is 1.1 cfs and 0.9 cfs in the remainder of the gutter.

Example 2

Given:

$$\begin{aligned}T &= 6 \text{ ft} \\S_w &= 0.0833 \text{ ft/ft} \\T_s &= 6 - 1.5 = 4.5 \text{ ft} \\W &= 1.5 \text{ ft} \\S_x &= 0.03 \text{ ft/ft} \\n &= 0.014 \\S &= 0.04 \text{ ft/ft}\end{aligned}$$

Find:

Flow in the composite gutter

Solution:

1. Use Figure 3.2-1 to find the gutter section capacity above the depressed section.

$$Q_{sn} = 0.038$$

$$Q_s = 0.038/0.014 = 2.7 \text{ cfs}$$

2. Calculate $W/T = 1.5/6 = 0.25$ and
 $S_w/S_x = 0.0833/0.03 = 2.78$
 Use Figure 3.2-2 to find $E_o = 0.64$
3. Calculate the gutter flow using Equation 3.2.3
 $Q = 2.7/(1 - 0.64) = 7.5$ cfs
4. Calculate the gutter flow in width, W , using Equation 3.2.2
 $Q_w = 7.5 - 2.7 = 4.8$ cfs

3.2.4 – Stormwater Inlets

Inlets are drainage structures used to collect surface water through grate or curb openings and convey it to storm drains or direct outlet to culverts. Grate inlets subject to traffic should be bicycle safe and be load-bearing adequate. Appropriate frames should be provided.

Inlets used for the drainage of highway surfaces can be divided into three major classes:

- Grate Inlets – These inlets include grate inlets consisting of an opening in the gutter covered by one or more grates, and slotted inlets consisting of a pipe cut along the longitudinal axis with a grate or spacer bars to form slot openings.
- Curb-Opening Inlets – These inlets are vertical openings in the curb covered by a top slab.
- Combination Inlets – These inlets usually consist of both a curb-opening inlet and a grate inlet placed in a side-by-side configuration, but the curb opening may be located in part upstream of the grate.

Inlets may be classified as being on a continuous grade or in a sump. The term "continuous grade" refers to an inlet located on the street with a continuous slope past the inlet with water entering from one direction. The "sump" condition exists when the inlet is located at a low point and water enters from both directions. Sump areas should have an overflow route or channel.

Where significant ponding can occur, in locations such as underpasses and in sag vertical curves in depressed sections, it is good engineering practice to place flanking inlets on each side of the inlet at the low point in the sag. The flanking inlets should be placed so they will limit spread on low gradient approaches to the level point and act in relief of the inlet at the low point if it should become clogged or if the design spread is exceeded.

The design of grate inlets will be discussed in subsection 3.2.5, curb inlet design in Section 3.2.6, and combination inlets in Section 3.2.7.

3.2.5 Grate Inlet Design

3.2.5.1 Grate Inlets on Grade

The capacity of an inlet depends upon its geometry and the cross slope, longitudinal slope, total gutter flow, depth of flow, and pavement roughness. The depth of water next to the curb is the major factor in the interception capacity of both gutter inlets and curb opening inlets. At low velocities, all of the water flowing in the section of gutter occupied by the grate, called frontal flow, is intercepted by grate inlets, and a small portion of the flow along the length of the grate, termed side flow, is intercepted. On steep slopes,

only a portion of the frontal flow will be intercepted if the velocity is high or the grate is short and splash-over occurs. For grates less than 2 feet long, intercepted flow is small.

A parallel bar grate is the most efficient type of gutter inlet; however, when crossbars are added for bicycle safety, the efficiency is greatly reduced. Where bicycle traffic is a design consideration, the curved vane grate and the tilt bar grate are recommended for both their hydraulic capacity and bicycle safety features. They also handle debris better than other grate inlets but the vanes of the grate must be turned in the proper direction. Where debris is a problem, consideration should be given to debris handling efficiency rankings of grate inlets from laboratory tests in which an attempt was made to qualitatively simulate field conditions. Table 3.2-6 presents the results of debris handling efficiencies of several grates. Debris handling efficiencies were based on the total number of simulated leaves arriving at the grate and the number passed.

The ratio of frontal flow to total gutter flow, E_o , for straight cross slope is expressed by the following equation:

$$E_o = Q_w/Q = 1 - (1 - W/T)^{2.67} \quad (3.2.6)$$

where:

Q = total gutter flow, cfs

Q_w = flow in width W, cfs

W = width of depressed gutter or grate, ft

T = total spread of water in the gutter, ft

Rank	Grate	Longitudinal Slope	
		(0.005)	(0.04)
1	CV - 3-1/4 - 4-1/4	46	61
2	30 - 3-1/4 - 4	44	55
3	45 - 3-1/4 - 4	43	48
4	P - 1-7/8	32	32
5	P - 1-7/8 - 4	18	28
6	45 - 2-1/4 - 4	16	23
7	Reticuline	12	16
8	P - 1-1/8	9	20

Source: "Drainage of Highway Pavements" (HEC-12), Federal Highway Administration, 1984.

Figure 3.2-2 provides a graphical solution of E_o for either depressed gutter sections or straight cross slopes. The ratio of side flow, Q_s , to total gutter flow is:

$$Q_s/Q = 1 - Q_w/Q = 1 - E_o \quad (3.2.7)$$

The ratio of frontal flow intercepted to total frontal flow, R_f , is expressed by the following equation:

$$R_f = 1 - 0.09 (V - V_0) \quad (3.2.8)$$

where:

V = velocity of flow in the gutter, ft/s (using Q from Figure 3.2-1)

V_o = gutter velocity where splash-over first occurs, ft/s (from Figure 3.2-4)

This ratio is equivalent to frontal flow interception efficiency. Figure 3.2-4 provides a solution of equation 3.2.8, which takes into account grate length, bar configuration and gutter velocity at which splash-over occurs. The gutter velocity needed to use Figure 3.2-4 is total gutter flow divided by the area of flow. The ratio of side flow intercepted to total side flow, R_s , or side flow interception efficiency, is expressed by:

$$R_s = 1 / [1 + (0.15V^{1.8}/S_x L^{2.3})] \quad (3.2.9)$$

where:

L = length of the grate, ft

Figure 3.2-5 provides a solution to equation 3.2.9.

The efficiency, E , of a grate is expressed as:

$$E = R_f E_o + R_s (1 - E_o) \quad (3.2.10)$$

The interception capacity of a grate inlet on grade is equal to the efficiency of the grate multiplied by the total gutter flow:

$$Q_i = EQ = Q[R_f E_o + R_s (1 - E_o)] \quad (3.2.11)$$

The following example illustrates the use of this procedure.

Given:

$W = 2$ ft

$T = 8$ ft

$S_x = 0.025$ ft/ft

$S = 0.01$ ft/ft

$E_o = 0.69$

$Q = 3.0$ cfs

$V = 3.1$ ft/s

Gutter depression = 2 in

Find:

Interception capacity of:

1. a curved vane grate, and
2. a reticuline grate 2-ft long and 2-ft wide

Solution:

From Figure 3.2-4 for Curved Vane Grate, $R_f = 1.0$

From Figure 3.2-4 for Reticuline Grate, $R_f = 1.0$

From Figure 3.2-5 $R_s = 0.1$ for both grates

From Equation 3.2.11:

$$Q_i = 3.0[1.0 \times 0.69 + 0.1(1 - 0.69)] = 2.2 \text{ cfs}$$

For this example, the interception capacity of a curved vane grate is the same as that for a reticuline grate for the sited conditions.

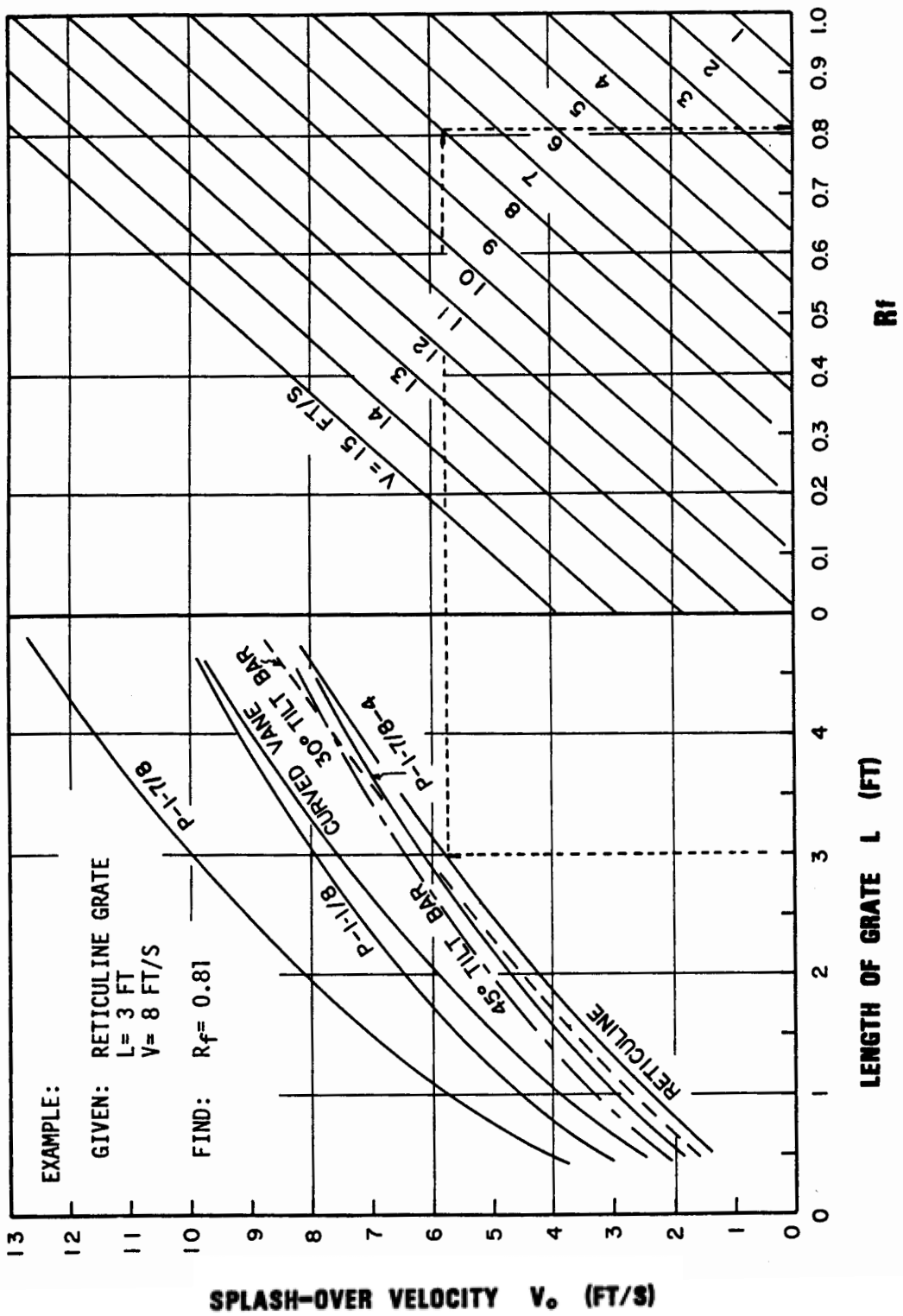


Figure 3.2-4 Grate Inlet Frontal Flow Interception Efficiency
 (Source: HEC-12, 1984)

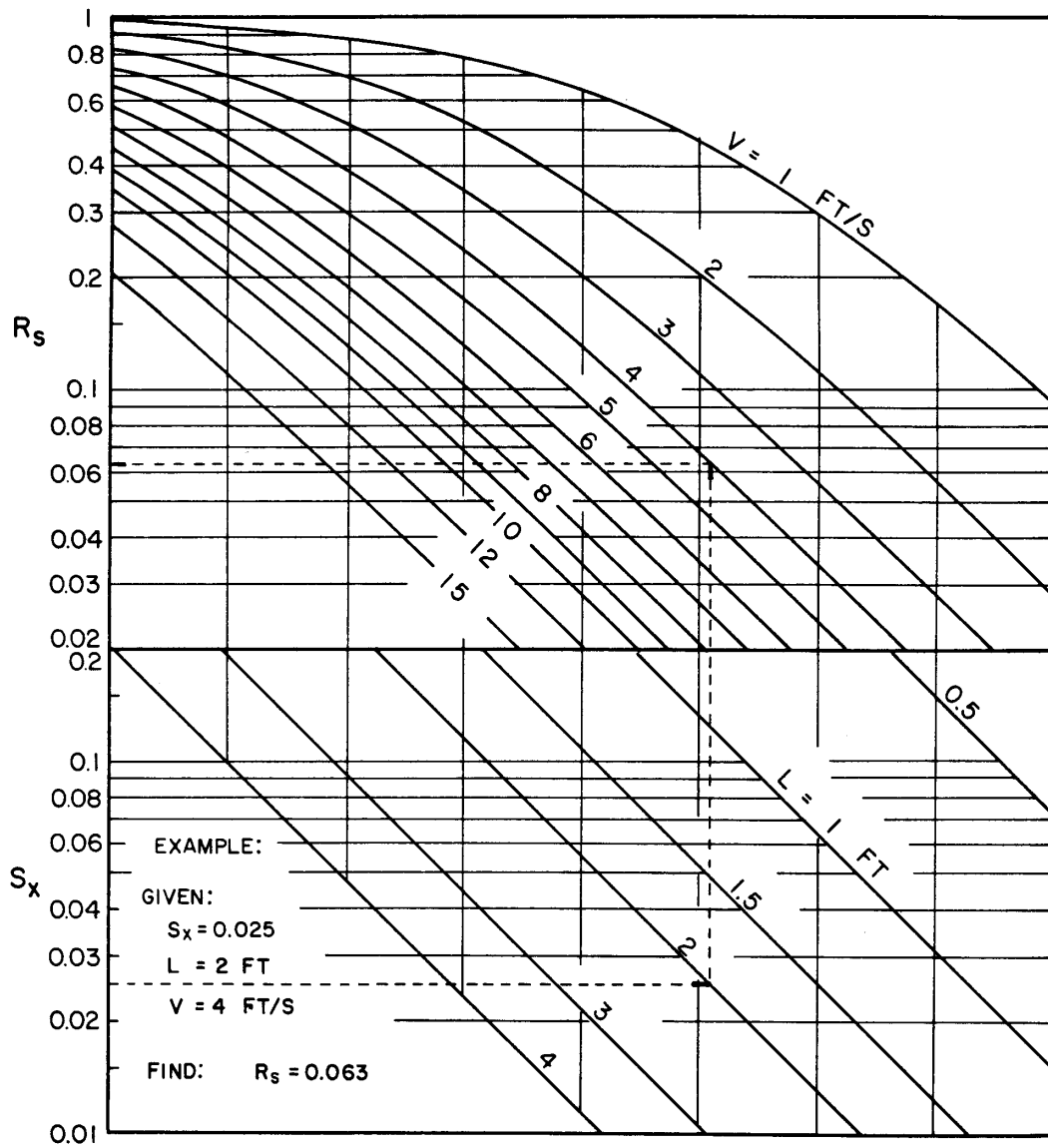


Figure 3.2-5 Grate Inlet Side Flow Interception Efficiency
 (Source: HEC-12, 1984)

3.2.5.2 Grate Inlets in Sag

A grate inlet in a sag operates as a weir up to a certain depth, depending on the bar configuration and size of the grate, and as an orifice at greater depths. For a standard gutter inlet grate, weir operation continues to a depth of about 0.4 feet above the top of grate and when depth of water exceeds about 1.4 feet, the grate begins to operate as an orifice. Between depths of about 0.4 feet and about 1.4 feet, a transition from weir to orifice flow occurs.

The capacity of grate inlets operating as a weir is:

$$Q_i = CPd^{1.5} \quad (3.2.12)$$

where:

P = perimeter of grate excluding bar widths and the side against the curb, ft

C = 3.0

d = depth of water above grate, ft

and as an orifice is:

$$Q_i = CA(2gd)^{0.5} \quad (3.2.13)$$

where:

C = 0.67 orifice coefficient

A = clear opening area of the grate, ft²

g = 32.2 ft/s²

Figure 3.2-6 is a plot of equations 3.2.12 and 3.2.13 for various grate sizes. The effect of grate size on the depth at which a grate operates as an orifice is apparent from the chart. Transition from weir to orifice flow results in interception capacity less than that computed by either weir or the orifice equation. This capacity can be approximated by drawing in a curve between the lines representing the perimeter and net area of the grate to be used. The following example illustrates the use of this figure.

Given:

A symmetrical sag vertical curve with equal bypass from inlets upgrade of the low point; allow for 50% clogging of the grate.

$Q_b = 3.6$ cfs

$Q = 8$ cfs, 25-year storm

T = 10 ft, design

$S_x = 0.05$ ft/ft

d = $TS_x = 0.5$ ft

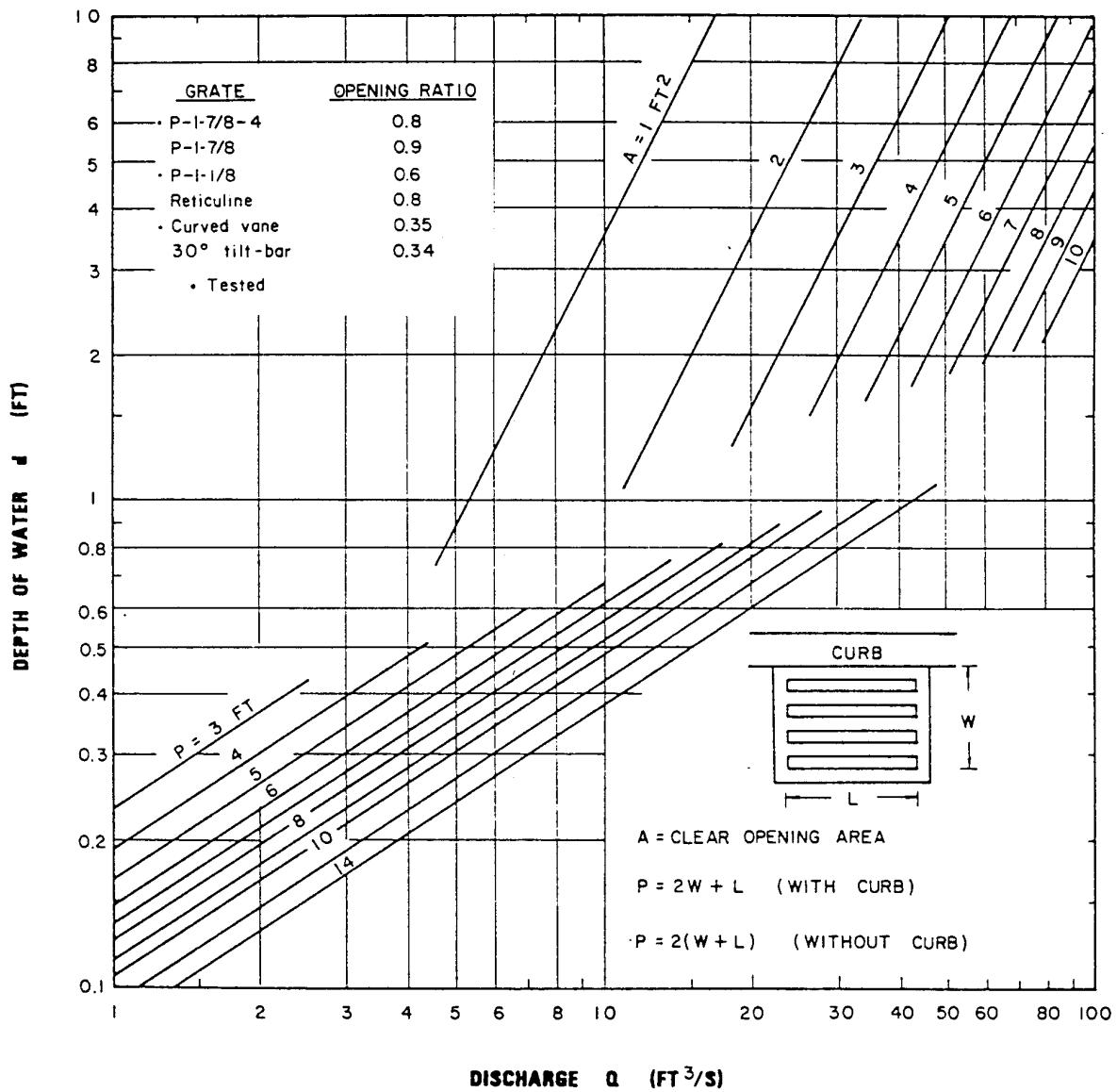
Find:

Grate size for design Q. Check spread at $S = 0.003$ on approaches to the low point.

Solution:

From Figure 3.2-6, a grate must have a perimeter of 8 ft to intercept 8 cfs at a depth of 0.5 ft.

Some assumptions must be made regarding the nature of the clogging in order to compute the capacity of a partially clogged grate. If the area of a grate is 50% covered by debris so that the debris-covered portion does not contribute to interception, the effective perimeter will be reduced by a lesser amount than 50%. For example if a 2-ft x 4-ft grate is clogged so that the effective width is 1 ft, then the perimeter, $P = 1 + 4 + 1 = 6$ ft, rather than 8 ft, the total perimeter, or 4 ft, half of the total perimeter. The area of the opening would be reduced by 50% and the perimeter by 25%.



Reference: USDOT, FHWA, HEC-12 (1984).

Figure 3.2-6 Grate Inlet Capacity in Sag Conditions
 (Source: HEC-12, 1984)

Therefore, assuming 50% clogging along the length of the grate, a 4 x 4, a 2 x 6, or a 3 x 5 grate would meet requirements of an 8-ft perimeter 50% clogged.

Assuming that the installation chosen to meet design conditions is a double 2 x 3 ft grate, for 50% clogged conditions: $P = 1 + 6 + 1 = 8$ ft

For 25-year flow: $d = 0.5$ ft (from Figure 3.2-6)

The American Society of State Highway and Transportation Officials (AASHTO) geometric policy recommends a gradient of 0.3% within 50 ft of the level point in a sag vertical curve.

Check T at $S = 0.003$ for the design and check flow:

$$Q = 3.6 \text{ cfs}, T = 8.2 \text{ ft (25-year storm) (from Figure 3.2-1)}$$

Thus a double 2 x 3-ft grate 50% clogged is adequate to intercept the design flow at a spread that does not exceed design spread, and spread on the approaches to the low point will not exceed design spread. However, the tendency of grate inlets to clog completely warrants consideration of a combination inlet, or curb-opening inlet in a sag where ponding can occur, and flanking inlets on the low gradient approaches.

3.2.6 Curb Inlet Design

3.2.6.1 Curb Inlets on Grade

Following is a discussion of the procedures for the design of curb inlets on grade. Curb-opening inlets are effective in the drainage of pavements where flow depth at the curb is sufficient for the inlet to perform efficiently. Curb openings are relatively free of clogging tendencies and offer little interference to traffic operation. They are a viable alternative to grates in many locations where grates would be in traffic lanes or would be hazardous for pedestrians or bicyclists.

The length of curb-opening inlet required for total interception of gutter flow on a pavement section with a straight cross slope is determined using Figure 3.2-7. The efficiency of curb-opening inlets shorter than the length required for total interception is determined using Figure 3.2-8.

The length of inlet required for total interception by depressed curb-opening inlets or curb-openings in depressed gutter sections can be found by the use of an equivalent cross slope, S_e , in the following equation:

$$S_e = S_x + S'_w E_o \quad (3.2.14)$$

where:

E_o = ratio of flow in the depressed section to total gutter flow

S'_w = cross slope of gutter measured from the cross slope of the pavement, S_x

$S'_w = (a/12W)$

where:

a = gutter depression, in

W = width of depressed gutter, ft

It is apparent from examination of Figure 3.2-7 that the length of curb opening required for total interception can be significantly reduced by increasing the cross slope or the equivalent cross slope. The equivalent cross slope can be increased by use of a continuously depressed gutter section or a locally depressed gutter section.

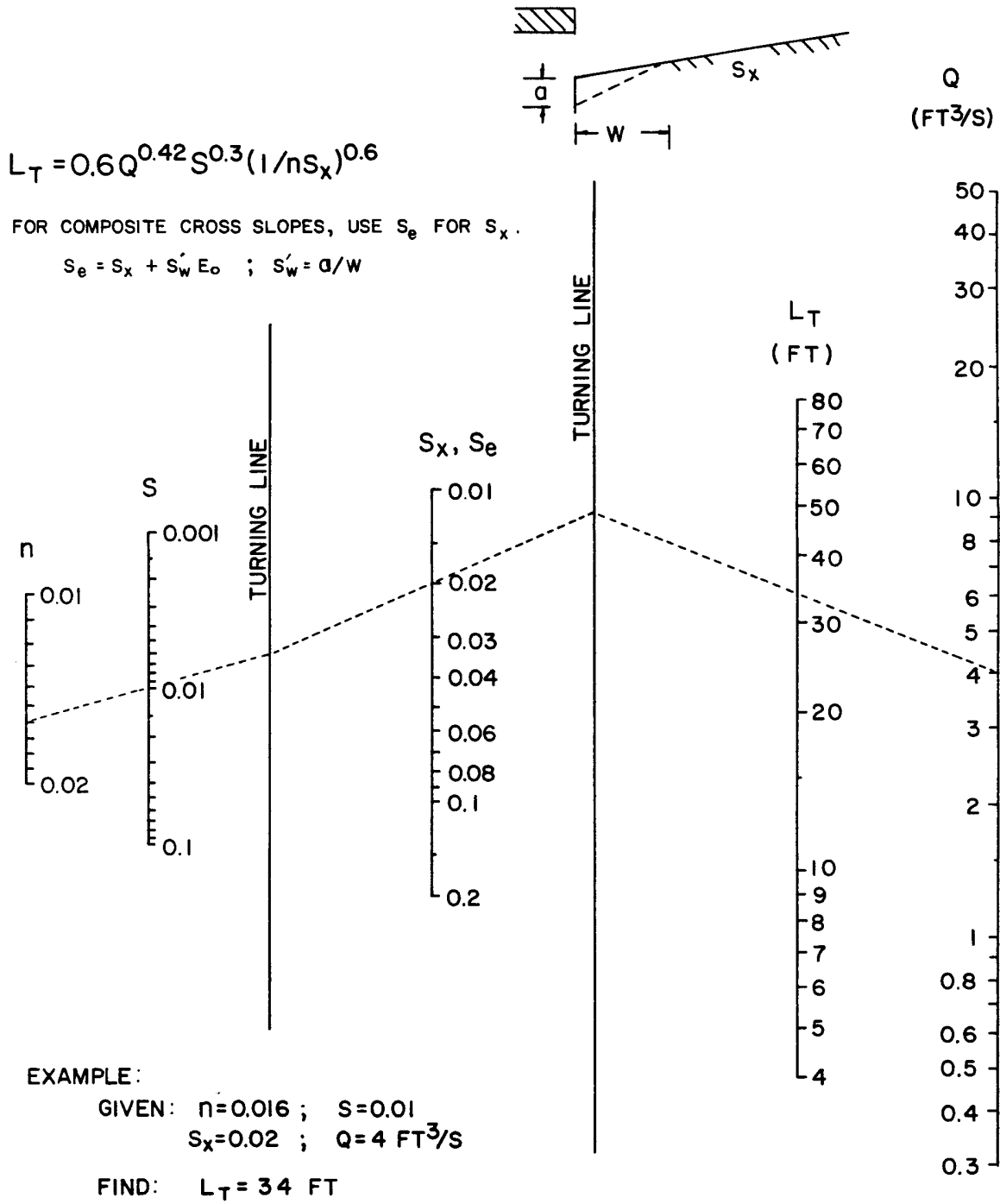


Figure 3.2-7 Curb-Opening and Slotted Drain Inlet Length for Total Interception
 (Source: HEC-12, 1984)

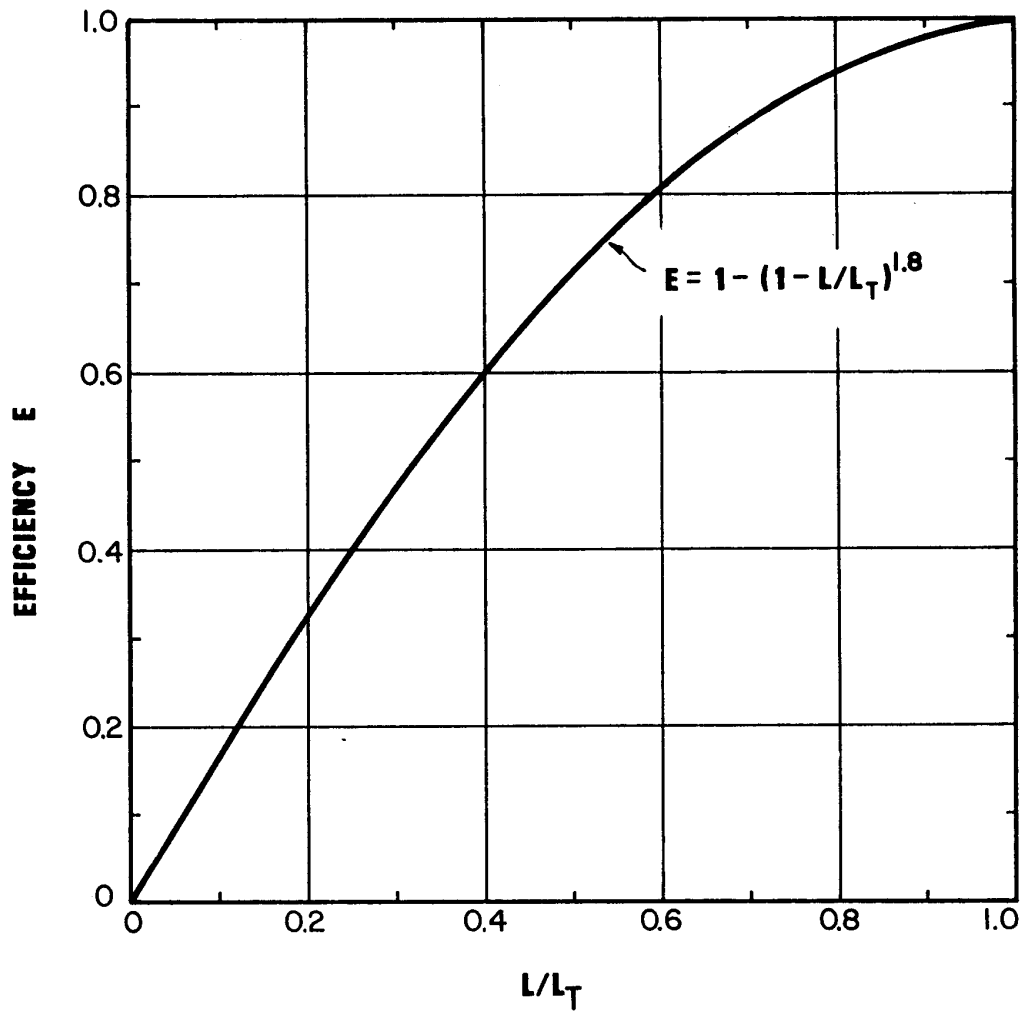


Figure 3.2-8 Curb-Opening and Slotted Drain Inlet Interception Efficiency
 (Source: HEC-12, 1984)

Design Steps

Steps for using Figures 3.2-7 and 3.2-8 in the design of curb inlets on grade are given below.

- Step 1 Determine the following input parameters:
Cross slope = S_x (ft/ft)
Longitudinal slope = S (ft/ft)
Gutter flow rate = Q (cfs)
Manning's $n = n$
Spread of water on pavement = T (ft) from Figure 3.2-1
- Step 2 Enter Figure 3.2-7 using the two vertical lines on the left side labeled n and S . Locate the value for Manning's n and longitudinal slope and draw a line connecting these points and extend this line to the first turning line.
- Step 3 Locate the value for the cross slope (or equivalent cross slope) and draw a line from the point on the first turning line through the cross slope value and extend this line to the second turning line.
- Step 4 Using the far right vertical line labeled Q locate the gutter flow rate. Draw a line from this value to the point on the second turning line. Read the length required from the vertical line labeled L_T .
- Step 5 If the curb-opening inlet is shorter than the value obtained in Step 4, Figure 3.2-8 can be used to calculate the efficiency. Enter the x-axis with the L/L_T ratio and draw a vertical line upward to the E curve. From the point of intersection, draw a line horizontally to the intersection with the y-axis and read the efficiency value.

Example

Given:

$$\begin{aligned}S_x &= 0.03 \text{ ft/ft} \\n &= 0.016 \\S &= 0.035 \text{ ft/ft} \\Q &= 5 \text{ cfs} \\S'_w &= 0.083 \text{ (} a = 2 \text{ in, } W = 2 \text{ ft)}\end{aligned}$$

Find:

1. Q_i for a 10-ft curb-opening inlet
2. Q_i for a depressed 10-ft curb-opening inlet with $a = 2$ in, $W = 2$ ft, $T = 8$ ft (Figure 3.2-1)

Solution:

1. From Figure 3.2-7, $L_T = 41$ ft, $L/L_T = 10/41 = 0.24$
From Figure 3.2-8, $E = 0.39$, $Q_i = EQ = 0.39 \times 5 = 2$ cfs
2. $Q_n = 5.0 \times 0.016 = 0.08$ cfs
 $S_w/S_x = (0.03 + 0.083)/0.03 = 3.77$
 $T/W = 3.5$ (from Figure 3.2-3)
 $T = 3.5 \times 2 = 7$ ft
 $W/T = 2/7 = 0.29$ ft

$E_o = 0.72$ (from Figure 3.2-2)

Therefore, $S_e = S_x + S'_w E_o = 0.03 + 0.083(0.72) = 0.09$

From Figure 3.2-7, $L_T = 23$ ft, $L/L_T = 10/23 = 0.43$

From Figure 3.2-8, $E = 0.64$, $Q_i = 0.64 \times 5 = 3.2$ cfs

The depressed curb-opening inlet will intercept 1.6 times the flow intercepted by the undeepressed curb opening and over 60% of the total flow.

3.2.6.2 Curb Inlets in Sumps

For the design of a curb-opening inlet in a sump location, the inlet operates as a weir to depths equal to the curb opening height and as an orifice at depths greater than 1.4 times the opening height. At depths between 1.0 and 1.4 times the opening height, flow is in a transition stage.

The capacity of curb-opening inlets in a sump location can be determined from Figure 3.2-9, which accounts for the operation of the inlet as a weir and as an orifice at depths greater than 1.4h. This figure is applicable to depressed curb-opening inlets and the depth at the inlet includes any gutter depression. The height (h) in the figure assumes a vertical orifice opening (see sketch on Figure 3.2-9). The weir portion of Figure 3.2-9 is valid for a depressed curb-opening inlet when $d \leq (h + a/12)$.

The capacity of curb-opening inlets in a sump location with a vertical orifice opening but without any depression can be determined from Figure 3.2-10. The capacity of curb-opening inlets in a sump location with other than vertical orifice openings can be determined by using Figure 3.2-11.

Design Steps

Steps for using Figures 3.2-9, 3.2-10, and 3.2-11 in the design of curb-opening inlets in sump locations are given below.

- Step 1 Determine the following input parameters:
 - Cross slope = S_x (ft/ft)
 - Spread of water on pavement = T (ft) from Figure 3.2-1
 - Gutter flow rate = Q (cfs) or dimensions of curb-opening inlet [L (ft) and H (in)]
 - Dimensions of depression if any [a (in) and W (ft)]
- Step 2 To determine discharge given the other input parameters, select the appropriate figure (3.2-9, 3.2-10, or 3.2-11 depending on whether the inlet is in a depression and if the orifice opening is vertical).
- Step 3 To determine the discharge (Q), given the water depth (d), locate the water depth value on the y-axis and draw a horizontal line to the appropriate perimeter (p), height (h), length (L), or width \times length (hL) line. At this intersection draw a vertical line down to the x-axis and read the discharge value.
- Step 4 To determine the water depth given the discharge, use the procedure described in Step 3 except enter the figure at the value for the discharge on the x-axis.

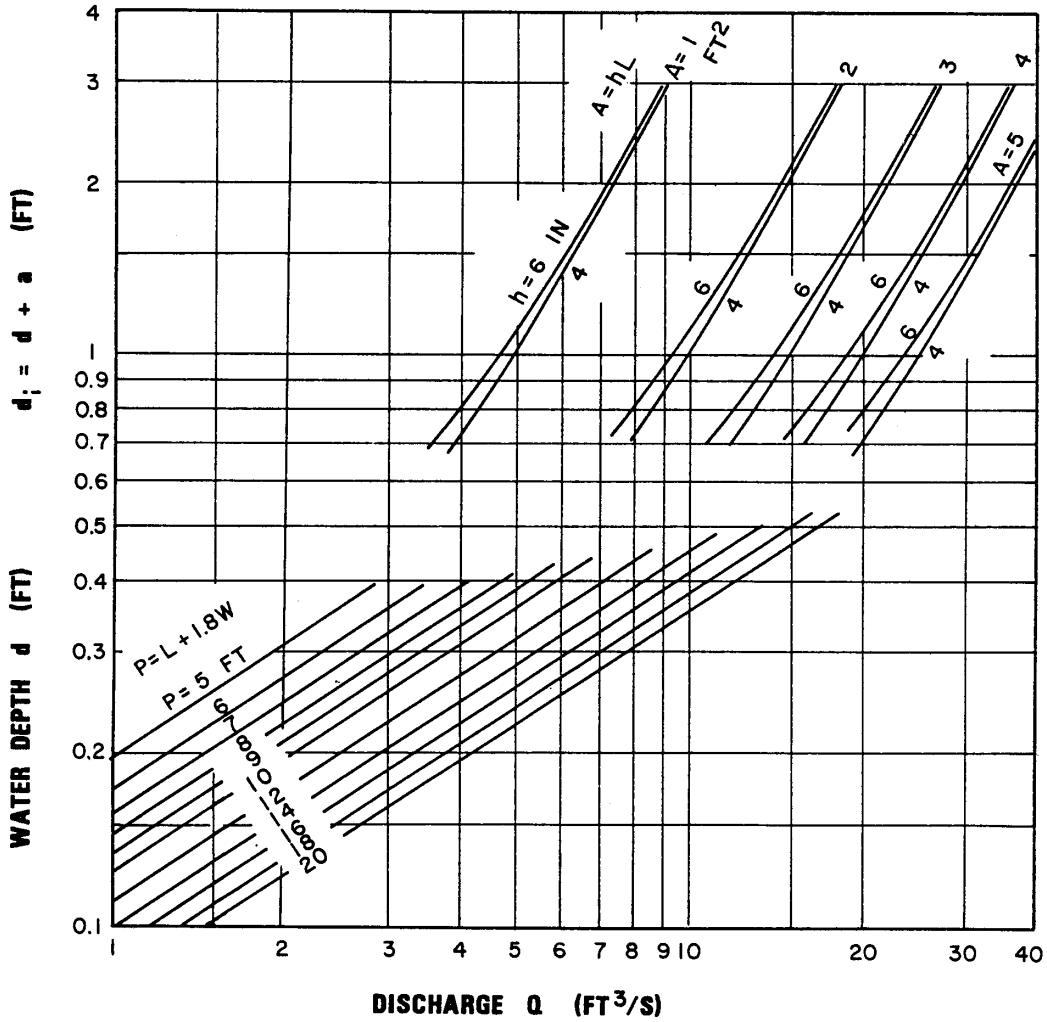
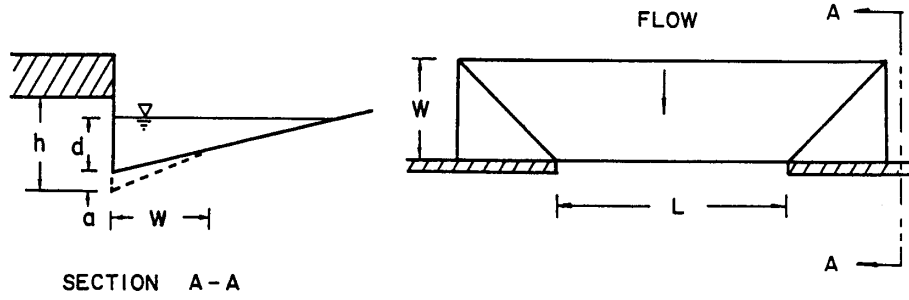


Figure 3.2-9 Depressed Curb-Opening Inlet Capacity in Sump Locations
 (Source: AASHTO Model Drainage Manual, 1991)

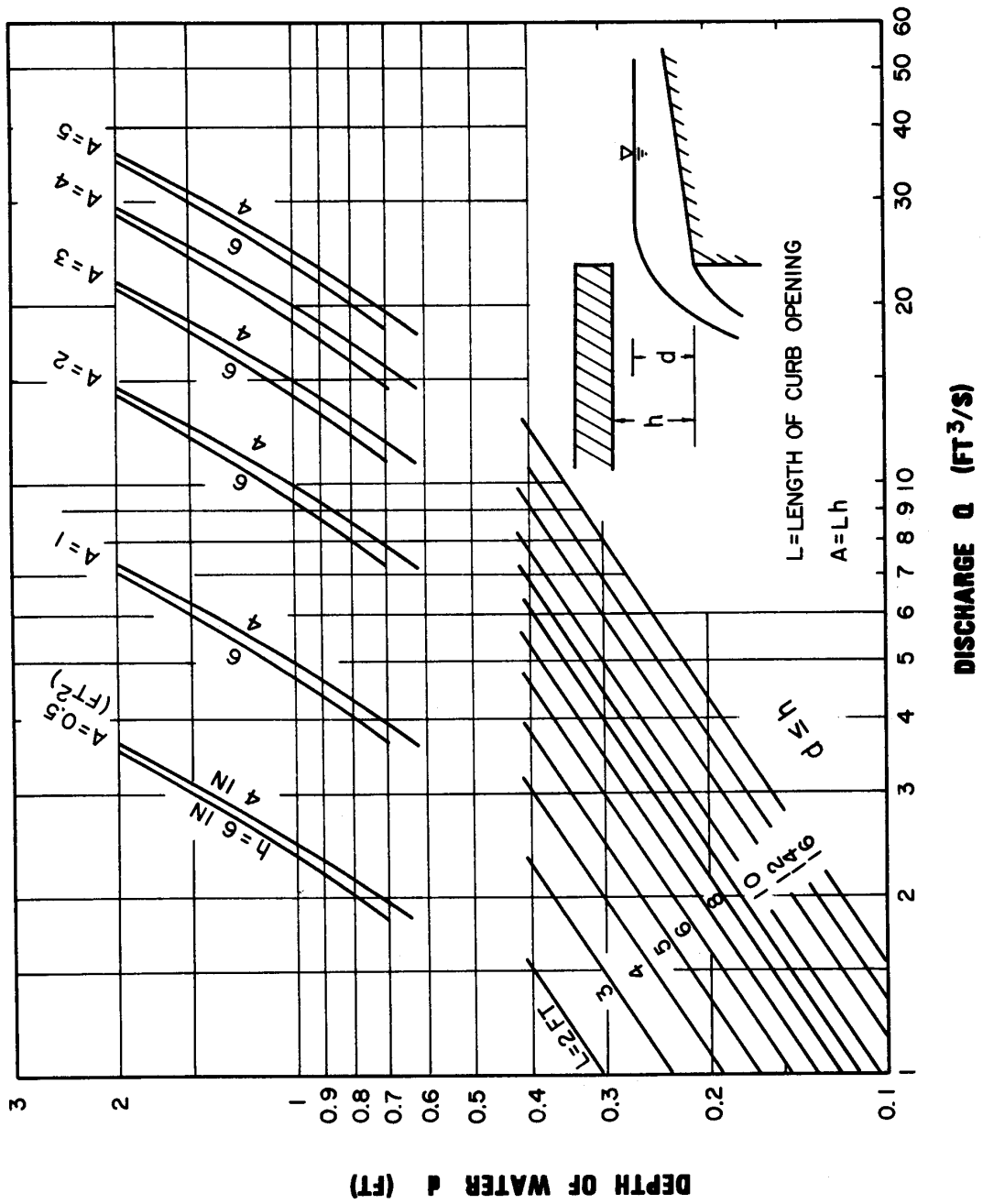


Figure 3.2-10 Curb-Opening Inlet Capacity in Sump Locations
 (Source: AASHTO Model Drainage Manual, 1991)

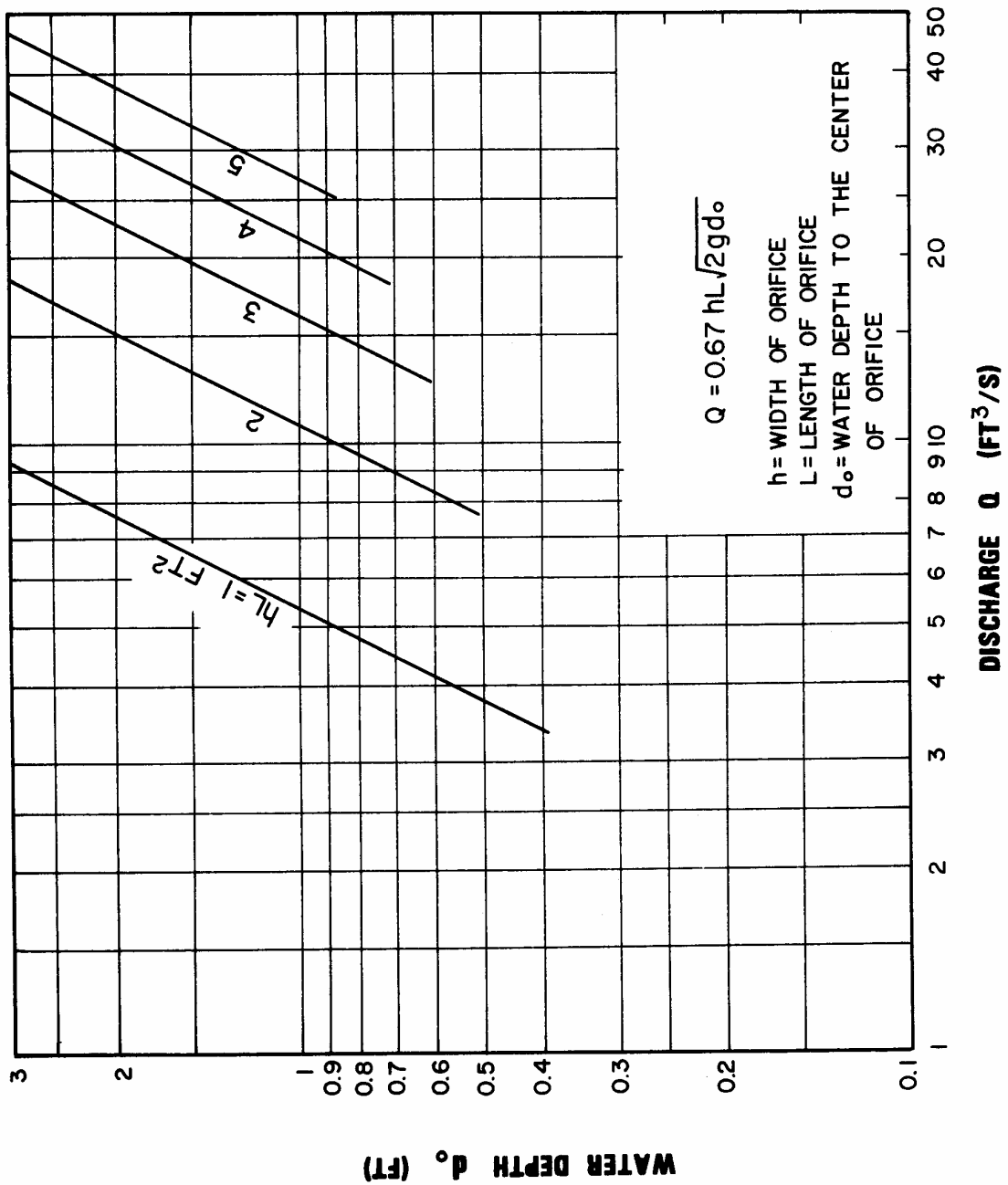


Figure 3.2-11 Curb-Opening Inlet Orifice Capacity for Inclined and Vertical Orifice Throats
 (Source: AASHTO Model Drainage Manual, 1991)

Example:"

Given:

Curb-opening inlet in a sump location

$$L = 5 \text{ ft}$$

$$h = 5 \text{ in}$$

1. Undepressed curb opening

$$S_x = 0.05 \text{ ft/ft}$$

$$T = 8 \text{ ft}$$

2. Depressed curb opening

$$S_x = 0.05 \text{ ft/ft}$$

$$a = 2 \text{ in}$$

$$W = 2 \text{ ft}$$

$$T = 8 \text{ ft}$$

Find:

Discharge Q_i

Solution:

1. $d = TS_x = 8 \times 0.05 = 0.4 \text{ ft}$

$$d < h$$

From Figure 3.2-10, $Q_i = 3.8 \text{ cfs}$

2. $d = 0.4 \text{ ft}$

$$h + a/12 = (5 + 2/12)/12 = 0.43 \text{ ft}$$

since $d < 0.43$ the weir portion of Figure 3.2-9 is applicable (lower portion of the figure).

$$P = L + 1.8W = 5 + 3.6 = 8.6 \text{ ft}$$

From Figure 3.2-9, $Q_i = 5 \text{ cfs}$

At $d = 0.4 \text{ ft}$, the depressed curb-opening inlet has about 30% more capacity than an inlet without depression.

3.2.7 Combination Inlets

3.2.7.1 Combination Inlets on Grade

On a continuous grade, the capacity of an unclogged combination inlet with the curb opening located adjacent to the grate is approximately equal to the capacity of the grate inlet alone. Thus capacity is computed by neglecting the curb opening inlet and the design procedures should be followed based on the use of Figures 3.2-4, 3.2-5, and 3.2-6.

3.2.7.2 Combination Inlets in Sump

All debris carried by stormwater runoff that is not intercepted by upstream inlets will be concentrated at the inlet located at the low point, or sump. Because this will increase the probability of clogging for grated inlets, it is generally appropriate to estimate the capacity of a combination inlet at a sump by neglecting the grate inlet capacity. Assuming complete clogging of the grate, Figures 3.2-9, 3.2-10, and 3.2-11 for curb-opening inlets should be used for design.

3.2.8 Closed Conduit Systems (Storm Drains/Sewers)

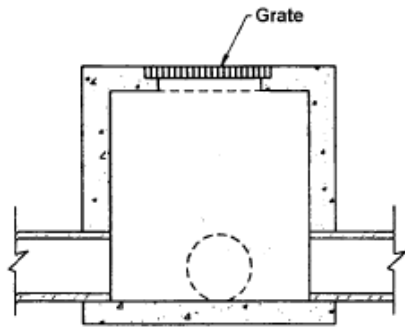
Storm drain pipe systems, also known as *storm sewers*, are pipe conveyances used for transporting runoff from roadway and other inlets to outfalls at other structural stormwater controls and receiving waters. Pipe drain systems are suitable mainly for medium to high-density residential and commercial/industrial development where the use of natural drainageways and/or vegetated open channels is not feasible.

Closed conduit systems are composed of different lengths and sizes of conduits (system segments) connected by appointment structures (system nodes). Segments are most often circular pipe, but can be a box or other enclosed conduit. Materials used are usually plastic and concrete but may be of other materials if approved by the Director of Public Works.

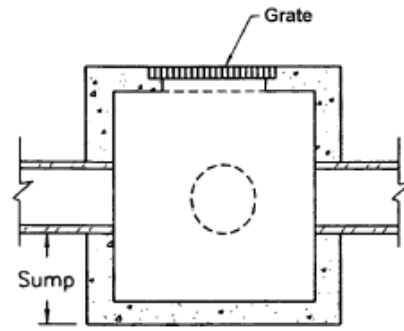
Appurtenant structures serve many functions. Inlets, access holes, and junction chambers are presented in sections 3.2.8.1 through 3.2.8.3.

3.2.8.1 Inlets

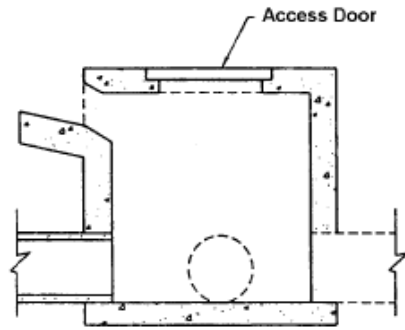
The primary function is to allow surface water to enter the closed conduit system. Inlet structures may also serve as access points for cleaning and inspection. Typical inlet structures are a standard drop inlet, catch basin, curb inlet, combination inlet, and Y inlet. (See Figures 3.2-12 and 3.2-13).



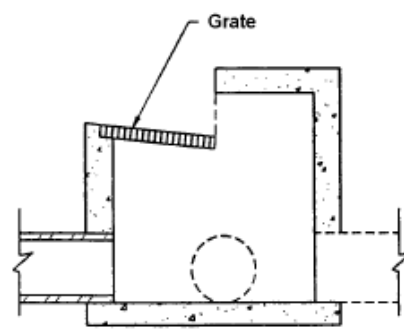
a. Standard Drop Inlet



b. Catch Basin



c. Curb Inlet



d. Combination Inlet

Figure 3.2-12 Inlet Structures
(HEC 22, 2001)

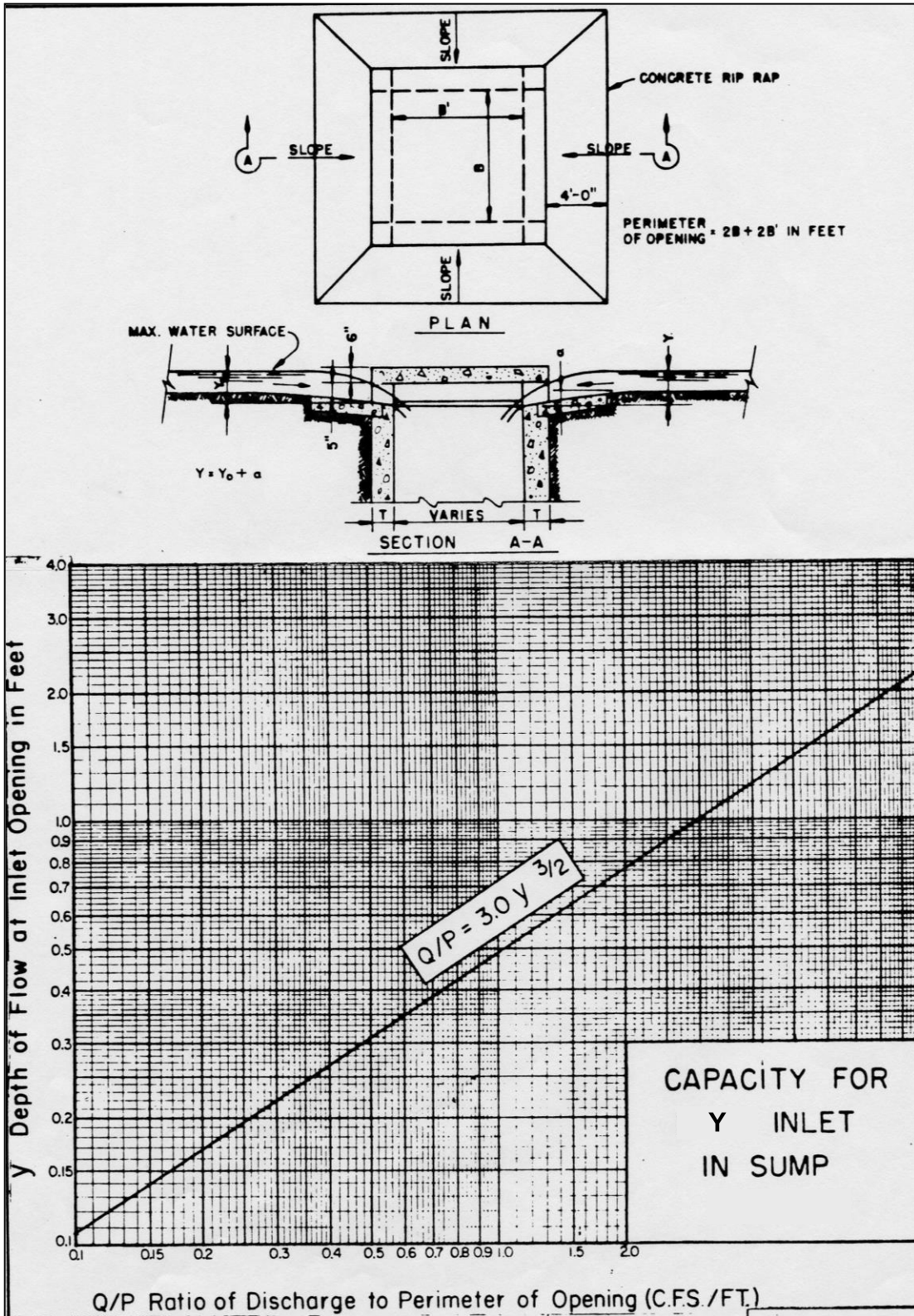


Figure 3.2-13 Capacity for Y Inlet in Sump

(Fort Worth, 1967)

Inlet structures are located at the upstream end and at intermediate points within the closed conduit system. Inlet placement is generally a trial and error procedure that attempts to produce the most economical and hydraulically effective system (HEC 22, 2001).

3.2.8.2 Access Holes (Manholes)

The primary function of an access hole is to provide access to the closed conduit system. An access hole can also serve as a flow junction and can provide ventilation and pressure relief. Typical access holes are shown in Figures 3.2-14 and 3.2-15 (HEC 22, 2001). The materials commonly used for access hole construction are precast concrete and cast-in-place concrete.

Spacing criteria have been established by the City. At a minimum, access holes should be located at the following points:

- Where two or more storm drains converge
- Where pipe sizes change
- Where a change in alignment occurs
- Where a change in grade occurs

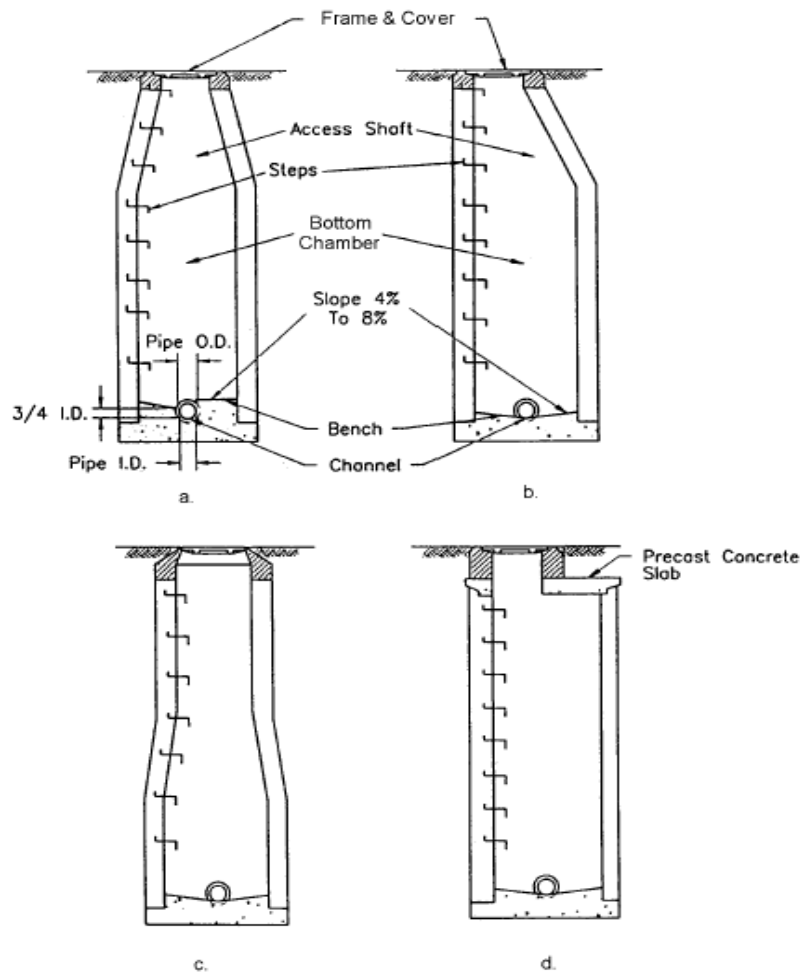


Figure 3.2-14 Typical Access Hole Configurations.
(HEC22, 2001)

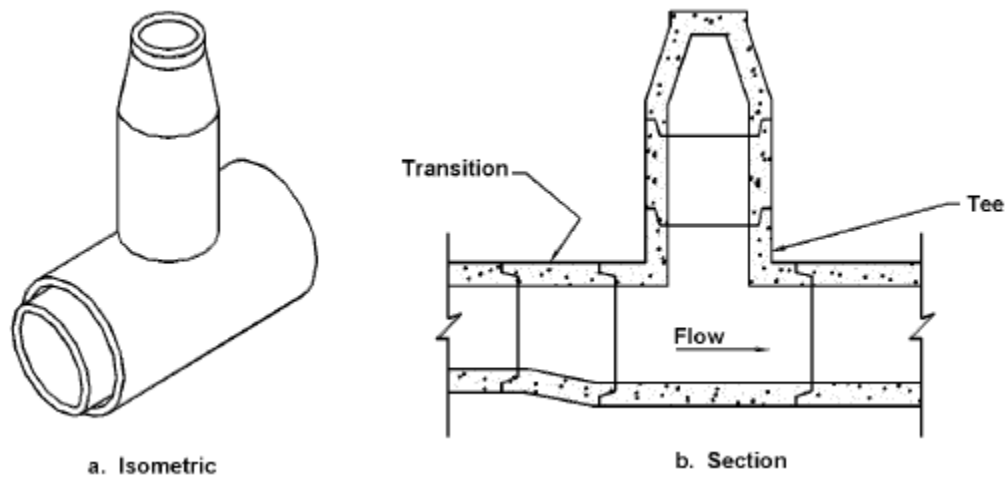


Figure 3.2-15 “Tee” Access Hole for Large Storm Drains
(HEC 22, 2001)

Access holes may be needed at intermediate points along straight runs of closed conduits. Table 3.2-7 gives recommended maximum spacing criteria.

Pipe Size (inches)	Suggested Maximum Spacing (feet)
12-24	300
27-36	400
42-54	500
60 and up	1000

3.2.8.3 Junction Chambers

A junction chamber, or junction box, is a special design underground chamber used to join two or more large storm drain conduits. This type of structure is usually required where storm drains are larger than the size that can be accommodated by standard access holes. For smaller diameter storm drains, access holes are typically used instead of junction chambers. Junction chambers by definition do not need to extend to the ground surface and can be completely buried. However, it is recommended that riser structures be used to provide surface access and/or to intercept surface runoff.

Materials commonly used for junction chamber construction include pre-cast concrete and cast-in-place concrete. On storm drains constructed of corrugated steel, the junction chambers are sometimes made of the same material.

To minimize flow turbulence in junction boxes, flow channels and benches are typically built into the bottom of the chambers. Where junction chambers are used as access points for the storm drain system, their location should adhere to the spacing criteria outlined in Table 3.2-7.

3.2.8.4 Design Criteria

Specific design criteria will likely vary from community to community. In the design of closed conduit systems, the following are offered for consideration in setting local criteria:

- For ordinary conditions, storm drain pipes should be sized on the assumption that they will flow full or practically full under the design discharge but will not be placed under pressure head. The Manning Formula is recommended for capacity calculations.
- The maximum hydraulic gradient should not produce a velocity that exceeds 15 ft/s.
- The minimum desirable physical slope is the slope that will produce a velocity of 2.5 feet per second when the storm sewer is flowing full.
- If the potential water surface elevation exceeds 1 foot below ground elevation for the design flow, the top of the pipe, or the gutter flow line, whichever is lowest, adjustments are needed in the system to reduce the elevation of the hydraulic grade line.

3.2.8.5 General Design Procedure

The design of storm drain systems generally follows these steps:

- Step 1 Determine inlet location and spacing as outlined earlier in this section.
- Step 2 Prepare a tentative plan layout of the storm sewer drainage system including:
 - a. Location of storm drains
 - b. Direction of flow
 - c. Location of manholes
 - d. Location of existing facilities such as water, gas, or underground cables
- Step 3 Determine drainage areas and compute runoff using the Rational Method
- Step 4 After the tentative locations of inlets, drain pipes, and outfalls (including tailwaters) have been determined and the inlets sized, compute the rate of discharge to be carried by each storm drain pipe and determine the size and gradient of pipe required to care for this discharge. This is done by proceeding in steps from the upstream end of a line downstream to the point at which the line connects with other lines or the outfall, whichever is applicable. The discharge for a run is calculated, the pipe serving that discharge is sized, and the process is repeated for the next run downstream. The storm drain system design computation form (Figure 3.2-25) can be used to summarize hydrologic, hydraulic and design computations.
- Step 5 Examine assumptions to determine if any adjustments are needed to the final design.

The rate of discharge at any point in the storm drainage system is not the sum of the inlet flow rates of all inlets above the section of interest. It is generally less than this total. The Rational Method is the most common means of determining design discharges for storm drain design. The time of concentration is very influential in the determination of the design discharge using the Rational Method. The time of

concentration is defined as the period required for water to travel from the most hydraulically distant point of the watershed to the point of interest. The designer is usually concerned with two different times of concentration: one for inlet spacing and the other for pipe sizing. The time of concentration for inlet spacing is the time required for water to flow from the hydraulically most distant point of the unique drainage area contributing only to that inlet. Typically, this is the sum of the times required for water to travel overland to the pavement gutter and along the length of the gutter between inlets. If the total time of concentration to the upstream inlet is less than five minutes, a minimum time of concentration of five minutes is used as the duration of rainfall. The time of concentration for each successive inlet should be determined independently in the same manner as was used for the first inlet.

The time of concentration for pipe sizing is defined as the time required for water to travel for the most hydraulically distant point in the total contributing watershed to the design point. Typically, this time consists of two components: (1) the time for overland and gutter flow to reach the first inlet, and (2) the time to flow through the storm drainage system to the point of interest.

The flow path having the longest time of concentration to the point of interest in the storm drainage system will usually define the duration used in selecting the intensity value in the Rational Method. Exceptions to the general application of the Rational Equation exist. For example, a small relatively impervious area within a larger drainage area may have an independent discharge higher than that of the total area. This anomaly may occur because of the higher runoff coefficient (C value) and higher intensity resulting from a short time of concentration. If an exception does exist, it can generally be classified as one of two exception scenarios.

The first exception occurs when a highly impervious section exists at the most downstream area of a watershed and the total upstream area flows through the lower impervious area. When this situation occurs, two separate calculations should be made.

- First, calculate the runoff from the total drainage area with its weighed C value and the intensity associated with the longest time of concentration.
- Second, calculate the runoff using only the smaller less pervious area. The typical procedure would be followed using the C value for the small less pervious area and the intensity associated with the shorter time of concentration.

The results of these two calculations should be compared and the largest value of discharge should be used for design.

The second exception exists when a smaller less pervious area is tributary to the larger primary watershed. When this scenario occurs, two sets of calculations should also be made.

- First, calculate the runoff form the total drainage area with its weighted C value and the intensity associated with the longest time of concentration.
- Second, calculate the runoff to consider how much discharge from the larger primary area is contributing at the same time the peak from the smaller less pervious tributary area is occurring. When the small area is discharging, some discharge from the larger primary area is also contributing to the total discharge. In this calculation, the intensity associated with the time of concentration from the small less pervious area is used. The portion of the larger primary area to be considered is determined by the following: $A_c = A (t_{c1}/t_{c2})$.

A_c is the most downstream part of the larger primary area that will contribute to the discharge during the time of concentration associated with the smaller, less pervious area. A is the area of the larger primary area, t_{c1} is the time of concentration of the smaller, less pervious, tributary area, and t_{c2} is the time of concentration associated with the larger primary area as is used in the first calculation. The C value to be used in this computation should be the weighted C value of the smaller less pervious tributary area and the area A_c . The area to be used in the Rational Method would be the area of the less pervious area plus A_c . The second calculation should only be considered when the less pervious area is tributary to the area with the longer time of concentration and is at or near the downstream end of the total drainage area.

Finally, compare the results of these calculations with the largest value of discharge used for design.

3.2.8.6 Capacity Calculations

The design procedures presented here assume flow within each storm drain segment is steady and uniform. This means the discharge and flow depth in each segment are assumed to be constant with respect to time and distance. Also, since storm drain conduits are typically prismatic, the average velocity throughout a segment is considered to be constant.

In actual storm drainage systems, the flow at each inlet is variable, and flow conditions are not truly steady or uniform. However, since the usual hydrologic methods employed in storm drain design are based on computed peak discharges at the beginning of each run, it is a conservative practice to design using the steady uniform flow assumption.

Although at times flow in a closed conduit may be under pressure or at other times the conduit may flow partially full, the usual design assumption is that the conduit is flowing full but not under pressure. Under this assumption the rate of head loss is the same as the slope of the pipe ($S_f=S$, ft/ft). Designing for full flow is a conservative assumption since the peak flow actually occurs at 93 percent of full flow.

The most widely used formula for determining the hydraulic capacity of storm drain pipes for gravity and pressure flows is the Manning's Formula, expressed by the following equation:

$$V = (1.486/n) R^{2/3} S^{1/2} \quad (3.2.15)$$

where:

V = mean velocity of flow, ft/s

R = the hydraulic radius, ft - defined as the area of flow divided by the wetted flow surface or wetted perimeter (A/WP)

S = the slope of hydraulic grade line, ft/ft

n = Manning's roughness coefficient

In terms of discharge, the above formula becomes:

$$Q = (1.486/n) A R^{2/3} S^{1/2} \quad (3.2.16)$$

where:

Q = rate of flow, cfs

A = cross sectional area of flow, ft²

For pipes flowing full, the area is $(\pi/4)D^2$ and the hydraulic radius is $D/4$, so, the above equations become:

$$V = [0.590 D^{2/3} S^{1/2}] / n \quad (3.2.17)$$

$$Q = [0.463 D^{8/3} S^{1/2}] / n \quad (3.2.18)$$

where:

D = diameter of pipe, ft

S = slope of the pipe = S_f hydraulic grade line, ft/ft

The Manning's equation can be written to determine friction losses for storm drain pipes as:

$$H_f = [0.453 n^2 V^2 L] / [R^{4/3}] \quad (3.2.19)$$

$$H_f = [(2.87 n^2 V^2 L] / [D^{4/3}] \quad (3.2.20)$$

$$H_f = [(185 n^2 (V^2 / 2g) L] / [D^{4/3}] \quad (3.2.21)$$

where:

H_f = total head loss due to friction, ft ($S_f \times L$)

n = Manning's roughness coefficient

D = diameter of pipe, ft

L = length of pipe, ft

V = mean velocity, ft/s

R = hydraulic radius, ft

g = acceleration of gravity = 32.2 ft/sec²

A nomograph solution of Manning's Equation for full flow in circular conduits is presented in Figure 3.2-16. Representative values of the Manning's coefficient for various storm drain materials are provided in Table 3.2-9. It should be remembered that the values in the table are for new pipe tested in a laboratory. Actual field values for conduits may vary depending on the effect of abrasion, corrosion, deflection, and joint conditions.

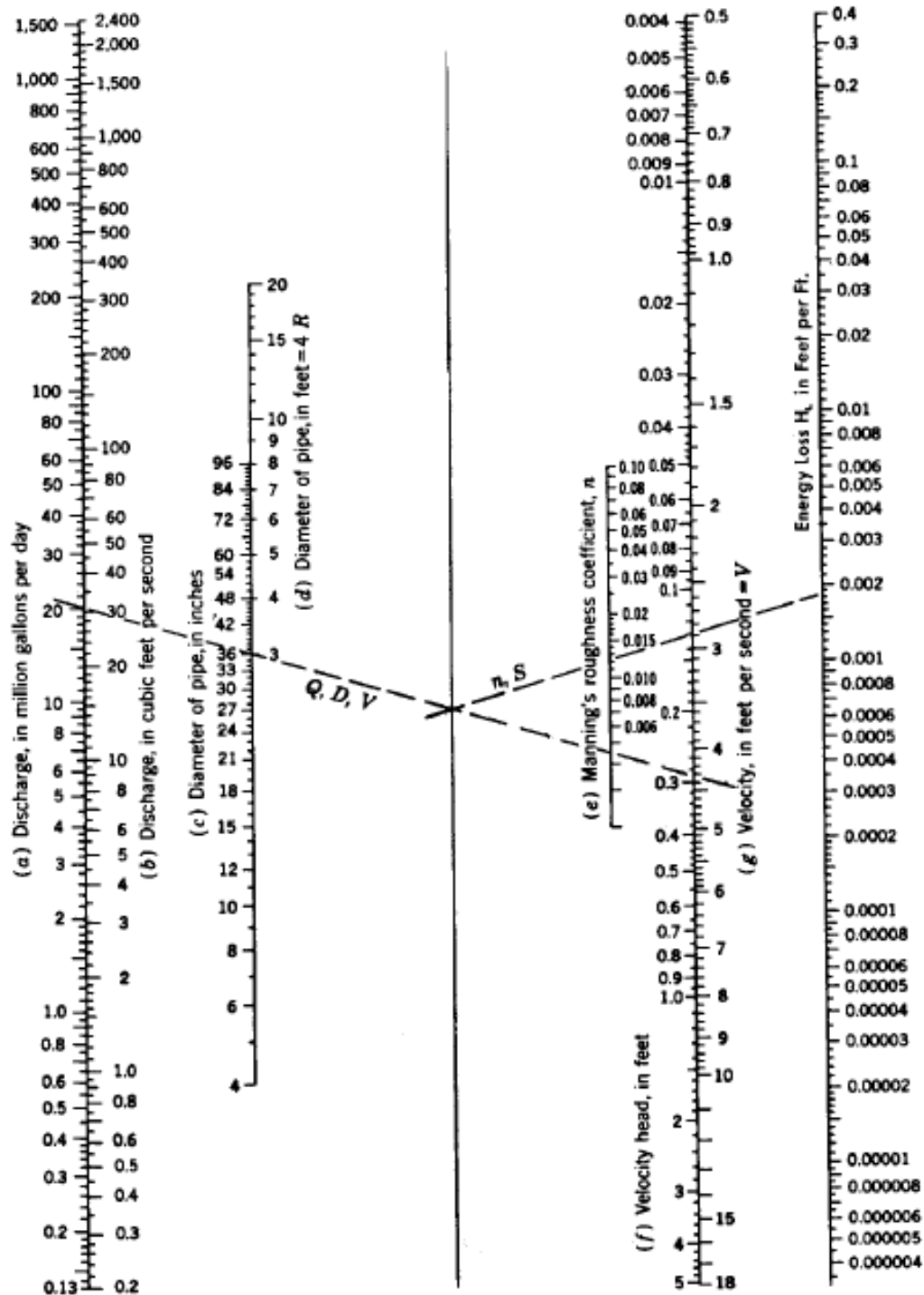
Figure 3.2-17 illustrates storm drain capacity sensitivity to the parameters in the Manning's equation. This figure can be used to study the effect changes in individual parameters will have on storm drain capacity. For example, if the diameter of a storm drain is doubled, its capacity will be increased by a factor of 6.0; if the slope is doubled, the capacity is increased by a factor of 1.4; however, if the roughness is doubled, the pipe capacity will be reduced by 50 percent.

The hydraulic elements graph in Figures 3.2-18a and 3.2-18b is provided to assist in the solution of the Manning's equation for part full flow in storm drains. The hydraulic elements chart shows the relative flow conditions at different depths in a circular pipe and makes the following important points:

1. Peak flow occurs at 93 percent of the height of the pipe. This means that if the pipe is designed for full flow, the design will be slightly conservative.
2. The velocity in a pipe flowing half-full is the same as the velocity for full flow.
3. Flow velocities for flow depths greater than half-full are greater than velocities at full flow.
4. As the depth of flow drops below half-full, the flow velocity drops off rapidly. The shape of a storm drain conduit also influences its capacity. Although most storm drain conduits are circular, a significant increase in capacity can be realized by using an alternate shape. Table 3.2-8 provides a tabular listing of the increase in capacity which can be achieved using alternate conduit shapes that

have the same height as the original circular shape, but have a different cross-sectional area. Although these alternate shapes are generally more expensive than circular shapes, their use can be justified in some instances based on their increased capacity.

	Area (Percent Increase)	Conveyance (Percent Increase)
Circular	--	--
Oval	63	87
Arch	57	78
Box (B = D)	27	27



Alignment chart for energy loss in pipes, for Manning's formula.
 Note: Use chart for flow computations, $H_e = S$

Figure 3.2-16 Solution of Manning's Equation for Flow in Storm Drains-English Units
 (Taken from "Modern Sewer Design" by American Iron and Steel Institute)

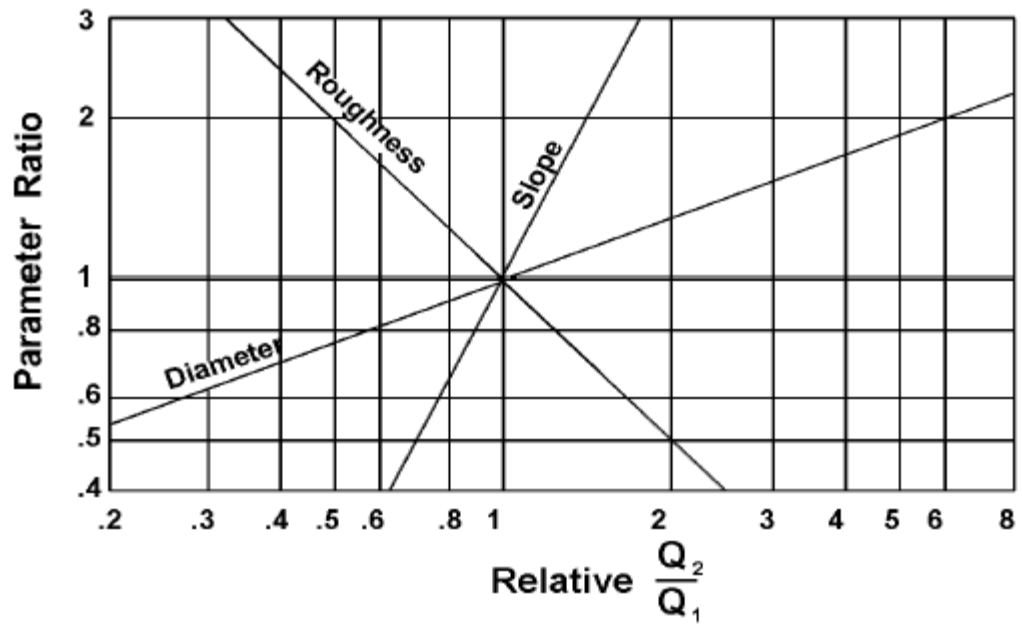


Figure 3.2-17 Storm Drain Capacity Sensitivity
(HEC 22, 2001)

Table 3.2-9 Manning's Coefficients for Storm Drain Conduits (HEC 22, 2001)

Type of Culvert	Roughness or Corrugation	Manning's n
Concrete Pipe	Smooth	0.010-0.011
Concrete Boxes	Smooth	0.012-0.015
Spiral Rib Metal Pipe	Smooth	0.012-0.013
Corrugated Metal Pipe, Pipe-Arch and Box (Annular or Helical Corrugations -- see Figure B-3 in Reference 2, Manning's n varies with barrel size)	68 by 13 mm	0.022-0.027
	2-2/3 by 1/2 in Annular	
	68 by 13 mm	0.011-0.023
	2-2/3 by 1/2 in Helical	
	150 by 25 mm	0.022-0.025
	6 by 1 in Helical	
	125 by 25 mm	0.025-0.026
	5 by 1 in	
	75 by 25 mm	0.027-0.028
	3 by 1 in	
	150 by 50 mm	
	6 by 2 in Structural Plate	0.033-0.035
	230 by 64 mm	
	9 by 2-1/2 in Structural Plate	0.033-0.037
Corrugated Polyethylene	Smooth	0.009-0.015
Corrugated Polyethylene	Corrugated	0.018-0.025
Polyvinyl chloride (PVC)	Smooth	0.009-0.011

*NOTE: The Manning's n values indicated in this table were obtained in the laboratory and are supported by the provided reference. Actual field values for culverts may vary depending on the effect of abrasion, corrosion, deflection, and joint conditions.

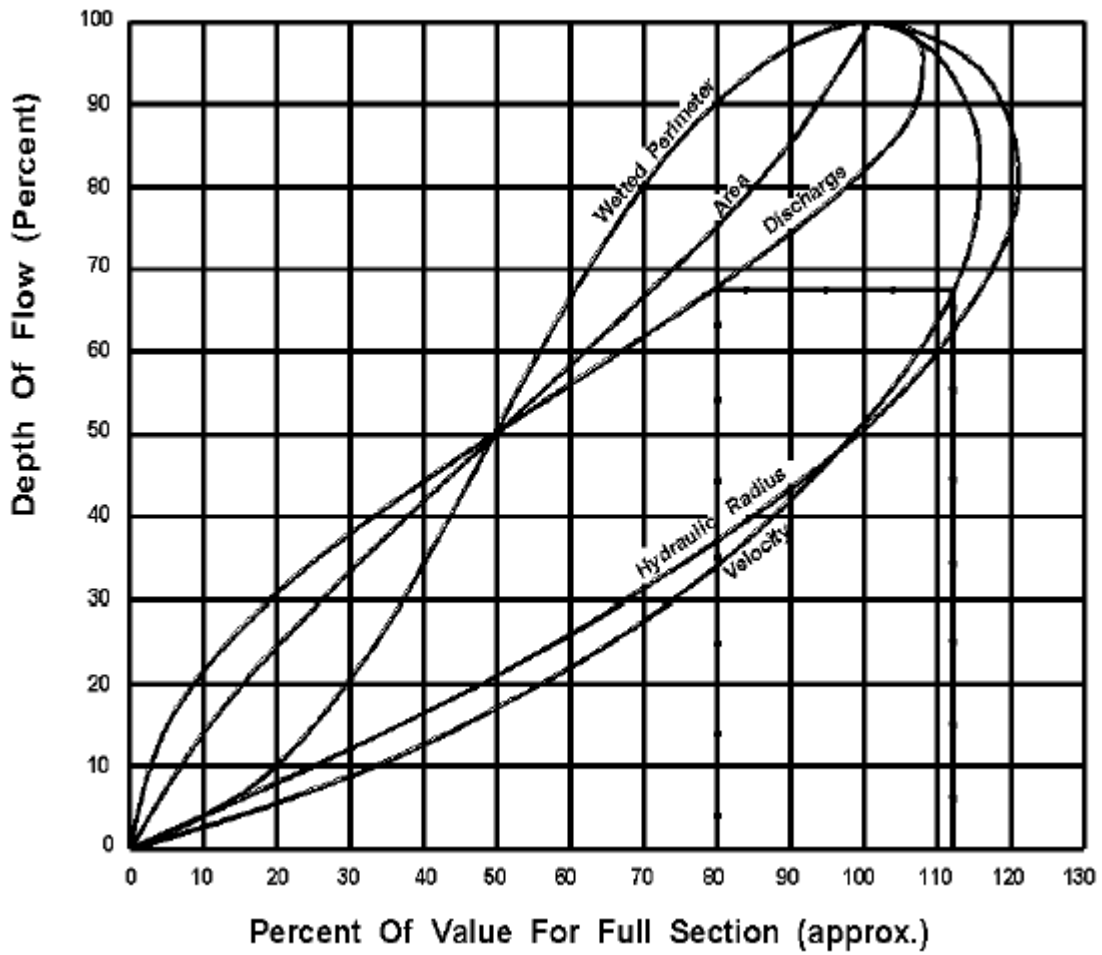


Figure 3.2-18a Hydraulic Elements of Circular Section
(HEC 22, 2001)

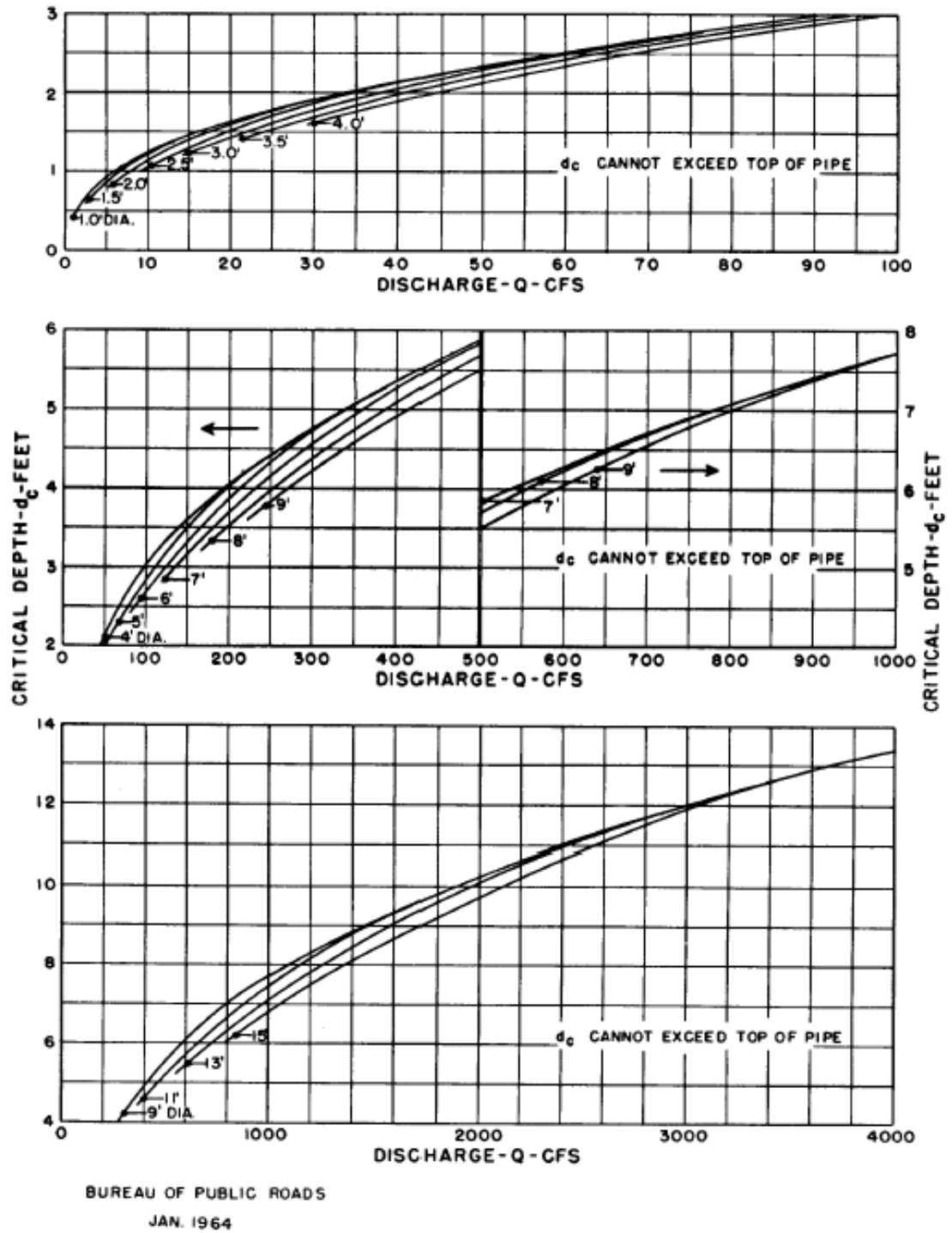


Figure 3.2-18b

Critical Depth in Circular Pipe-English Units
(HEC 22, 2001)

3.2.8.7 Minimum Grades and Desirable Velocities

The minimum slopes are calculated by the modified Manning's formula:

$$S = [(nV)^2]/[2.208R^{4/3}] \quad (3.2.22)$$

where:

- S = the slope of the hydraulic grade line, ft/ft
- n = Manning's roughness coefficient
- V = mean velocity of flow, ft/s
- R = hydraulic radius, ft (area divided by wetted perimeter)

For circular conduits flowing full but not under pressure, $R=D/4$, and the hydraulic grade line is equal to the slope of the pipe. For these conditions equation 3.2.22 may be expressed as:

$$S = 2.87(nV)^2/D^{4/3} \quad (3.2.23)$$

For a minimum velocity of 2.5 fps, the minimum slope equation becomes:

$$S = 17.938(n^2/D^{4/3}) \quad (3.2.24)$$

where:

- D = diameter, ft

Table 3.2-10 gives minimum slopes for concrete pipe with an n-value of 0.013.

Minimum Grades

Storm drains should operate with velocities of flow sufficient to prevent excessive deposits of solid materials; otherwise objectionable clogging may result. The controlling velocity is near the bottom of the conduit and considerably less than the mean velocity of the sewer. Storm drains shall be designed to have a minimum mean velocity flowing full of 2.5 fps. Table 3.2-10 gives minimum slopes for concrete pipe ($n = 0.013$) flowing at 2.5 fps.

Desirable Velocities

Velocities in sewers are important mainly because of the possibilities of excessive erosion on the storm drain inverts. Table 3.2-11 shows the desirable velocities for most storm drainage design.

Table 3.2-10 Minimum Grades for Storm Drains for 2.5 fps	
Pipe Size (inches)	Concrete Pipe (n = 0.013) Slope ft/ft
15	0.0023
18	0.0018
21	0.0014
24	0.0012
27	0.0010
30	0.0009
33	0.0008
36	0.0007
39	0.0006
42	0.0006
45	0.0005
48	0.0005
54	0.0004
60	0.0004
66	0.0003
72	0.0003
78	0.0003
84	0.0002
96	0.0002

Table 3.2-11 Desirable Velocity In Storm Drains	
Description	Maximum Desirable Velocity
Culverts (All types)	15 fps.
Storm Drains (Inlet laterals)	No Limit
Storm Drains (Collectors)	15 fps.
Storm Drains (Mains)	12 fps.

3.2.8.8 Storm Drain Storage

If downstream drainage facilities are undersized for the design flow, a structural stormwater control may be needed to reduce the possibility of flooding. The required storage volume can also be provided by using larger than needed storm drain pipe sizes and restrictors to control the release rates at manholes and/or junction boxes in the storm drain system. The same design criteria for sizing structural control storage facilities are used to determine the storage volume required in the system (see Section 4.5 for more information).

3.2.8.9 Energy Grade Line/Hydraulic Grade Line

The energy grade line (EGL) is an imaginary line that represents the total energy along a channel or conduit carrying water. Total energy includes elevation head, velocity head and pressure head.

$$E = V^2/2g + p/v + z \quad (3.2.25)$$

where:

- E = Total energy, ft
- $V^2/2g$ = Velocity head, ft (kinetic energy)
- p = Pressure, lbs/ft²
- v = Unit weight of water, 62.4 lbs/ft³
- p/v = Pressure head, ft (potential energy)
- z = Elevation head, ft (potential energy)

Bernoulli's Law expressed between points one (1) and two (2) in a closed conduit accounts for all energy forms and energy losses. The general form of the law may be written as:

$$V_1^2/2g + p_1/v + z_1 = V_2^2/2g + p_2/v + z_2 - H_f - \Sigma H_m \quad (3.2.26)$$

where:

- H_f = Pipe friction loss, ft
- ΣH_m = Sum of minor or form losses, ft

The calculation of the EGL for the full length of the system is critical to the evaluation of a storm drain. In order to develop the EGL it is necessary to calculate all of the losses through the system. The energy equation states that the energy head at any cross section must equal that in any other downstream section plus the intervening losses. The intervening losses are typically classified as either friction losses or form losses. The friction losses can be calculated using the Manning's Equation. Form losses are typically calculated by multiplying the velocity head by a loss coefficient, K. Various tables and calculations exist for developing the value of K depending on the structure being evaluated for loss. Knowledge of the location of the EGL is critical to the understanding and estimating the location of the hydraulic grade line (HGL).

The hydraulic grade line (HGL) is a line coinciding with the level of flowing water at any point along an open channel. In closed conduits flowing under pressure, the hydraulic grade line is the level to which water would rise in a vertical tube at any point along the pipe. The hydraulic grade line is used to aid the designer in determining the acceptability of a proposed storm drainage system by establishing the elevation to which water will rise when the system is operating under design conditions.

HGL, a measure of flow energy, is determined by subtracting the velocity head ($V^2/2g$) from the EGL. Energy concepts can be applied to pipe flow as well as open channel flow. Figure 3.2-19 illustrates the energy and hydraulic grade lines for open channel and pressure flow in pipes.

When water is flowing through the pipe and there is a space of air between the top of the water and the inside of the pipe, the flow is considered as open channel flow and the HGL is at the water surface. When the pipe is flowing full under pressure flow, the HGL will be above the crown of the pipe. When the flow in the pipe just reaches the point where the pipe is flowing full, this condition lies in between open channel flow and pressure flow. At this condition the pipe is under gravity full flow and the flow is influenced by the resistance of the total circumference of the pipe. Under gravity full flow, the HGL coincides with the crown of the pipe.

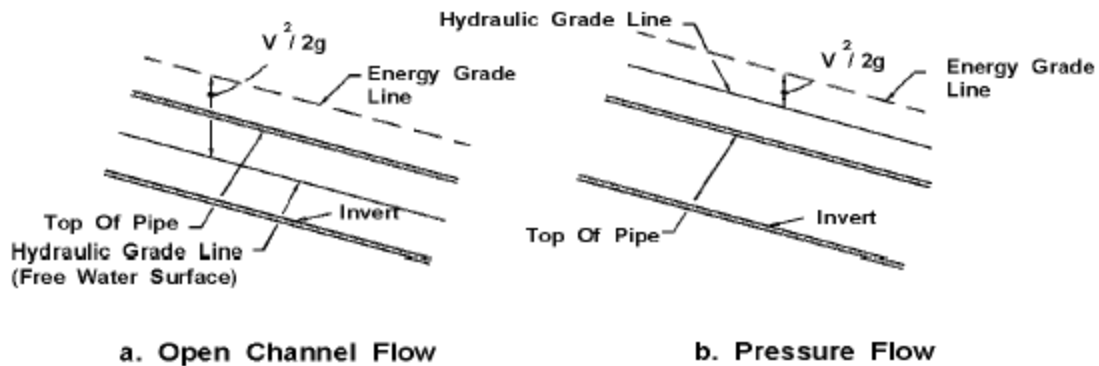


Figure 3.2-19 Hydraulic and Energy Grade Lines in Pipe Flow
(HEC 22, 2001)

Inlet surcharging and possible access hole lid displacement can occur if the hydraulic grade line rises above the ground surface. A design based on open channel conditions must be carefully planned as well, including evaluation of the potential for excessive and inadvertent flooding created when a storm event larger than the design storm pressurizes the system. As hydraulic calculations are performed, frequent verification of the existence of the desired flow condition should be made. Storm drainage systems can often alternate between pressure and open channel flow conditions from one section to another.

A detailed procedure for evaluating the energy grade line and the hydraulic grade line for storm drainage systems is presented in section 3.2.8.12.

3.2.8.10 Storm Drain Outfalls

All storm drains have an outlet where flow from the storm drainage system is discharged. The discharge point can be a natural river or stream, an existing storm drainage system, or a channel which is either existing or proposed for the purpose of conveying the stormwater. The procedure for calculating the energy grade line through a storm drainage system begins at the outfall. Therefore, consideration of outfall conditions is an important part of storm drain design.

Several aspects of outfall design must be given serious consideration. These include the flowline or invert (inside bottom) elevation of the proposed storm drain outlet, tailwater elevations, the need for energy dissipation, and the orientation of the outlet structure.

The flowline or invert elevation of the proposed outlet should be equal to or higher than the flowline of the outfall. If this is not the case, there may be a need to pump or otherwise lift the water to the elevation of the outfall.

The tailwater depth or elevation in the storm drain outfall must be considered carefully. Evaluation of the hydraulic grade line for a storm drainage system begins at the system outfall with the tailwater elevation. For most design applications, the tailwater will either be above the crown of the outlet or can be considered to be between the crown and critical depth of the outlet. The tailwater may also occur between the critical depth and the invert of the outlet. However, the starting point for the hydraulic grade line determination should be either the design tailwater

elevation or the average of critical depth and the height of the storm drain conduit, $(d_c + D)/2$, whichever is greater.

An exception to the above rule would be for a very large outfall with low tailwater where a water surface profile calculation would be appropriate to determine the location where the water surface will intersect the top of the barrel and full flow calculations can begin. In this case, the downstream water surface elevation would be based on critical depth or the design tailwater elevation, whichever was highest.

If the outfall channel is a river or stream, it may be necessary to consider the joint or coincidental probability of two hydrologic events occurring at the same time to adequately determine the elevation of the tailwater in the receiving stream. The relative independence of the discharge from the storm drainage system can be qualitatively evaluated by a comparison of the drainage area of the receiving stream to the area of the storm drainage system. For example, if the storm drainage system has a drainage area much smaller than that of the receiving stream, the peak discharge from the storm drainage system may be out of phase with the peak discharge from the receiving watershed. Table 3.2-12 provides a comparison of discharge frequencies for coincidental occurrence for the 2-, 5-, 10-, 25-, 50-, and 100-year design storms. This table can be used to establish an appropriate design tailwater elevation for a storm drainage system based on the expected coincident storm frequency on the outfall channel. For example, if the receiving stream has a drainage area of 200 acres and the storm drainage system has a drainage area of 2 acres, the ratio of receiving area to storm drainage area is 200 to 2 which equals 100 to 1. From Table 3.2-8 and considering a 10-year design storm occurring over both areas, the flow rate in the main stream will be equal to that of a five year storm when the drainage system flow rate reaches its 10-year peak flow at the outfall. Conversely, when the flow rate in the main channel reaches its 10-year peak flow rate, the flow rate from the storm drainage system will have fallen to the 5- year peak flow rate discharge. This is because the drainage areas are different sizes, and the time to peak for each drainage area is different.

Table 3.2-12 Frequencies for Coincidental Occurrences (TxDOT, 2002)				
Area ratio	2-year design		5-year design	
	Main Stream	Tributary	Main Stream	Tributary
10,000:1	1	2	1	5
	2	1	5	1
1,000:1	1	2	2	5
	2	1	5	2
100:1	2	2	2	5
	2	2	5	5
10:1	2	2	5	5
	2	2	5	5
1:1	2	2	5	5
	2	2	5	5
Area ratio	10-year design		25-year design	
	main stream	tributary	main stream	tributary
10,000:1	1	10	2	25
	10	1	25	2
1,000:1	2	10	5	25
	10	2	25	5
100:1	5	10	10	25
	10	5	25	10
10:1	10	10	10	25
	10	10	25	10
1:1	10	10	25	25
	10	10	25	25
Area ratio	50-year design		100-year design	
	main stream	tributary	main stream	tributary
10,000:1	2	50	2	100
	50	2	100	2
1,000:1	5	50	10	100
	50	5	100	10
100:1	10	50	25	100
	50	10	100	25
10:1	25	50	50	100
	50	25	100	50
1:1	50	50	100	100
	50	50	100	100

There may be instances in which an excessive tailwater causes flow to back up the storm drainage system and out of inlets and access holes, creating unexpected and perhaps hazardous flooding conditions. The potential for this should be considered. Flap gates placed at the outlet can sometimes alleviate this condition; otherwise, it may be necessary to isolate the storm drain from the outfall by use of a pump station.

Energy dissipation may be required to protect the storm drain outlet. Protection is usually required at the outlet to prevent erosion of the outfall bed and banks. Riprap aprons or energy dissipators should be provided if high velocities are expected. See Section 4.7 for guidance on design of Energy Dissipation Structures.

The **orientation of the outfall** is another important design consideration. Where practical, the outlet of the storm drain should be positioned in the outfall channel so that it is pointed in a downstream direction. This will reduce turbulence and the potential for excessive erosion. If the outfall structure can not be oriented in a downstream direction, the potential for outlet scour must be considered. For example, where a storm drain outfall discharges perpendicular to the direction of flow of the receiving channel, care must be taken to avoid erosion on the opposite channel bank. If erosion potential exists, a channel bank lining of riprap or other suitable material should be installed on the bank. Alternatively, an energy dissipator structure could be used at the storm drain outlet.

3.2.8.11 Energy Losses

Prior to computing the hydraulic grade line, all energy losses in pipe runs and junctions must be estimated. In addition to the principal energy involved in overcoming the friction in each conduit run, energy (or head) is required to overcome changes in momentum or turbulence at outlets, inlets, bends, transitions, junctions, and access holes. The following sections present relationships for estimating typical energy losses in storm drainage systems. The application of some of these relationships is included in the design example in section 8.2.8.13.

Pipe Friction Losses

The major loss in a storm drainage system is the friction or boundary shear loss. The head loss due to friction in a pipe is computed as follows:

$$H_f = S_f L \quad (3.2.27)$$

where:

- H_f = friction loss, ft
- S_f = friction slope, ft/ft
- L = length of pipe, ft

Section 3.2.8.6 gives the equation for computing the friction loss in pipes flowing full.

The friction slope in equation 3.2.27 is also the slope of the hydraulic gradient for a particular pipe run. As indicated by equation 3.2.27, the friction loss is simply the hydraulic gradient multiplied by the length of the run. Since this design procedure assumes steady uniform flow in open channel flow, the friction slope will match the pipe slope for part full flow. Pipe friction losses for full flow can be determined by the use of Equation 3.2.20.

3.2.8.11.1 Exit Losses

The exit loss from a storm drain outlet is a function of the change in velocity at the outlet of the pipe. For a sudden expansion such as at an endwall, the exit loss is:

$$H_o = 1.0 [(V_o^2/2g) - (V_d^2/2g)] \quad (3.2.28)$$

where:

V_o = average outlet velocity

V_d = channel velocity downstream of outlet

Note that when $V_d = 0$, as in a reservoir, the exit loss is one velocity head. For part full flow where the pipe outlets in a channel with water moving in the same direction as the outlet water, the exit loss may be reduced to virtually zero.

3.2.8.11.2 Bend Losses

The bend loss coefficient for storm drain design is minor but can be estimated using the following formula (AASHTO, 1991):

$$h_b = 0.0033 (\Delta) (V^2/2g) \quad (3.2.29)$$

where:

Δ = angle of curvature in degrees

3.2.8.11.3 Transition Losses

A transition is a location where a conduit or channel changes size. Typically, transitions should be avoided and access holes should be used when pipe size increases. However, sometimes transitions are unavoidable. Transitions include expansions, contractions, or both. In small storm drains, transitions may be confined within access holes. However, in larger storm drains or when a specific need arises, transitions may occur within pipe runs as illustrated in Figures 3.2-20 and 3.2-21.

Energy losses in expansions or contractions in non-pressure flow can be expressed in terms of the kinetic energy at the two ends. Contraction and expansion losses can be evaluated with equations 3.2-30 and 3.2-31 respectively.

$$H_c = K_c [V_1^2/(2g) - V_2^2/(2g)] \quad (3.2.30)$$

$$H_e = K_e [V_1^2/(2g) - V_2^2/(2g)] \quad (3.2.31)$$

where:

K_e = expansion coefficient

K_c = contraction coefficient (0.5 K_e)

V_1 = velocity upstream of transition

V_2 = velocity downstream of transition

g = acceleration due to gravity (32.2 ft/s²)

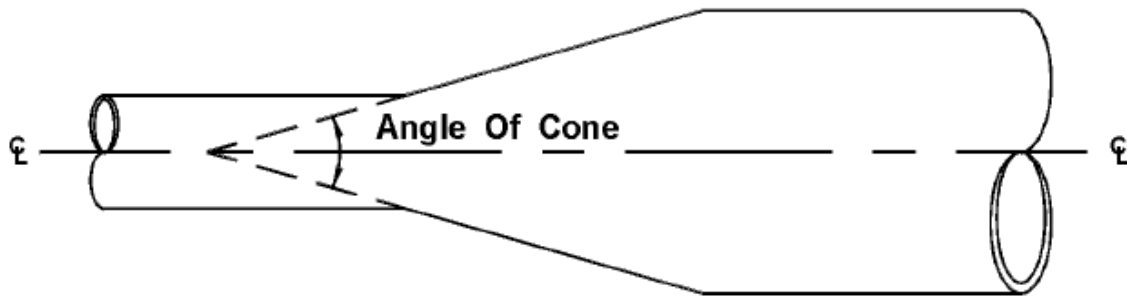


Figure 3.2-20 Angle of Cone for Pipe Diameter Changes

For gradual contractions, it has been observed that $K_c = 0.5 K_e$. Typical values of K_e for gradual enlargements are tabulated in Table 3.2-13a. Typical values of K_c for sudden contractions are tabulated in Table 3.2-13b. The angle of the cone that forms the transition is defined in Figure 3.2-20.

Table 3.2-13a Typical Values for K_e for Gradual Enlargement of Pipes in Non-Pressure Flow

D_2/D_1	Angle of Cone						
	10°	20°	45°	60°	90°	120°	180°
1.5	0.17	0.40	1.06	1.21	1.14	1.07	1.00
3	0.17	0.40	0.86	1.02	1.06	1.04	1.00

D_2/D_1 = Ratio of Diameter of larger pipe to smaller pipe (ASCE, 1992)

Table 3.2-13b Typical Values of K_c for Sudden Pipe Contractions

D_2/D_1	K_c
0.2	0.5
0.4	0.4
0.6	0.3
0.8	0.1
1	0

D_2/D_1 = Ratio of Diameter of smaller pipe to larger pipe (ASCE, 1992)

For storm drain pipes functioning under pressure flow, the loss coefficients listed in Tables 3.2-14 and 3.2-15 can be used with Equation 3.2.32 for sudden and gradual expansions respectively. For sudden contractions in pipes with pressure flow, the loss coefficients listed in Table 3.2-16 can be used in conjunction with Equation 3.2.33 (ASCE, 1992).

$$H_e = K_e (V_1^2 / 2g) \quad (3.2.32)$$

$$H_c = K_c (V_2^2 / 2g) \quad (3.2.33)$$

where:

K_e = expansion coefficient (Tables 3.2-14 and 3.2-15)

K_c = contraction coefficient (Table 3.2.16)

V_1 = velocity upstream of transition

V_2 = velocity downstream of transition

g = acceleration due to gravity 32.2 ft/s²

D_2/D_1	Velocity, V_1 , in feet Per Second												
	2.0	3.0	4.0	5.0	6.0	7.0	8.0	10.0	12.0	15.0	20.0	30.0	40.0
1.2	0.11	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.08
1.4	0.26	0.26	0.25	0.24	0.24	0.24	0.24	0.23	0.23	0.22	0.22	0.21	0.20
1.6	0.40	0.39	0.38	0.37	0.37	0.36	0.36	0.35	0.35	0.34	0.33	0.32	0.32
1.8	0.51	0.49	0.48	0.47	0.47	0.46	0.46	0.45	0.44	0.43	0.42	0.41	0.40
2.0	0.60	0.58	0.56	0.55	0.55	0.54	0.53	0.52	0.52	0.51	0.50	0.48	0.47
2.5	0.74	0.72	0.70	0.69	0.68	0.67	0.66	0.65	0.64	0.63	0.62	0.60	0.58
3.0	0.83	0.80	0.78	0.77	0.76	0.75	0.74	0.73	0.72	0.70	0.69	0.67	0.65
4.0	0.92	0.89	0.87	0.85	0.84	0.83	0.82	0.80	0.79	0.78	0.76	0.74	0.72
5.0	0.96	0.93	0.91	0.89	0.88	0.87	0.86	0.84	0.83	0.82	0.80	0.77	0.75
10.0	1.00	0.99	0.96	0.95	0.93	0.92	0.91	0.89	0.88	0.86	0.84	0.82	0.80
∞	1.00	1.00	0.98	0.96	0.95	0.94	0.93	0.91	0.90	0.88	0.86	0.83	0.81

D_2/D_1 = ratio of diameter of larger pipe to smaller pipe
 V_1 = velocity in smaller pipe (upstream of transition)
 (ASCE, 1992)

Table 3.2-15 Values of K_e for Determining Loss of Head due to Gradual Enlargement in Pipes

D_2/D_1	Angle of Cone										
	2°	6°	10°	15°	20°	25°	30°	35°	40°	50°	60°
1.1	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.05	0.10	0.13	0.16	0.18	0.19	0.21	0.23
1.2	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.09	0.16	0.21	0.25	0.29	0.31	0.35	0.37
1.4	0.02	0.03	0.06	0.12	0.23	0.30	0.36	0.41	0.44	0.50	0.53
1.6	0.03	0.04	0.07	0.14	0.26	0.35	0.42	0.47	0.51	0.57	0.61
1.8	0.03	0.04	0.07	0.15	0.28	0.37	0.44	0.50	0.54	0.61	0.65
2.0	0.03	0.04	0.07	0.16	0.29	0.38	0.46	0.52	0.56	0.63	0.68
2.5	0.03	0.04	0.08	0.16	0.30	0.39	0.48	0.54	0.58	0.65	0.70
3.0	0.03	0.04	0.08	0.16	0.31	0.40	0.48	0.55	0.59	0.66	0.71
∞	0.03	0.05	0.08	0.16	0.31	0.40	0.49	0.56	0.60	0.67	0.72

D_2/D_1 = ratio of diameter of larger pipe to smaller pipe

Angle of cone is the angle in degrees between the sides of the tapering section
(ASCE, 1992)

Table 3.2-16 Values of K_e for Determining Loss of Head due to Sudden Contraction

D_2/D_1	Velocity, V_1 , in feet Per Second												
	2.0	3.0	4.0	5.0	6.0	7.0	8.0	10.0	12.0	15.0	20.0	30.0	40.0
1.1	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.05	0.06
1.2	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.11	0.11
1.4	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.18	0.18	0.18	0.18	0.19	0.20
1.6	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.25	0.25	0.24
1.8	0.34	0.34	0.34	0.34	0.34	0.34	0.33	0.33	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.29	0.27
2.0	0.38	0.38	0.37	0.37	0.37	0.37	0.36	0.36	0.35	0.34	0.33	0.31	0.29
2.2	0.40	0.40	0.40	0.39	0.39	0.39	0.39	0.38	0.37	0.37	0.35	0.33	0.30
2.5	0.42	0.42	0.42	0.41	0.41	0.41	0.40	0.40	0.39	0.38	0.37	0.34	0.31
3.0	0.44	0.44	0.44	0.43	0.43	0.43	0.42	0.42	0.41	0.40	0.39	0.36	0.33
4.0	0.47	0.46	0.46	0.46	0.45	0.45	0.45	0.44	0.43	0.42	0.41	0.37	0.34
5.0	0.48	0.48	0.47	0.47	0.47	0.46	0.46	0.45	0.45	0.44	0.42	0.38	0.35
10.0	0.49	0.48	0.48	0.48	0.48	0.47	0.47	0.46	0.46	0.45	0.43	0.40	0.36
∞	0.49	0.49	0.48	0.48	0.48	0.47	0.47	0.47	0.46	0.45	0.44	0.41	0.38

D_2/D_1 = ratio of diameter of larger pipe to smaller pipe

V_1 = velocity in smaller pipe (upstream of transition)

(ASCE, 1992)

3.2.8.11.5 Junction Losses

A pipe junction is the connection of a lateral pipe to a larger trunk pipe without the use of an access hole structure. The minor loss equation for a pipe junction is a form of the momentum equation as follows:

$$H_j = \left[\frac{(Q_o V_o) - (Q_i V_i) - (Q_l V_l \cos \theta)}{0.5g(A_o - A_i)} \right] + h_i - h_o \quad (3.2.34)$$

where:

H_j = junction loss (ft)

Q_o, Q_i, Q_l = outlet, inlet, and lateral flows respectively (ft³/s)

V_o, V_i, V_l = outlet, inlet, and lateral velocities, respectively (ft/s)

h_o, h_i = outlet and inlet velocity heads (ft)

A_o, A_i = outlet and inlet cross-sectional areas (ft²)

θ = angle between the inflow and outflow pipes (Figure 3.2-21)

3.2.8.11.6 Inlet and Access Hole Losses - Preliminary Estimate

The initial layout of a storm drain system begins at the upstream end of the system. The designer must estimate sizes and establish preliminary elevations as the design progresses downstream. An approximate method for estimating losses across an access hole is provided in this section. This is a preliminary estimate only and will not be used when the energy grade line calculations are made. Methods defined in Section 3.2.8.11.7 will be used to calculate the losses across an access hole when the energy grade line is being established.

The approximate method for computing losses at access holes or inlet structures involves multiplying the velocity head of the outflow pipe by a coefficient as represented in Equation 3.2.35. Applicable coefficients (K_{ah}) are tabulated in Table 3.2-17. This method can be used to estimate the initial pipe crown drop across an access hole or inlet structure to offset energy losses at the structure. The crown drop is then used to establish the appropriate pipe invert elevations. However, this method is used only in the preliminary design process and should not be used in the EGL calculations.

$$H_{ah} = K_{ah} (V_o^2 / 2g) \quad (3.2.35)$$

Structure Configuration	K_{ah}
Inlet-straight run	0.5
Inlet-angled through	
90°	1.5
60°	1.25
45°	1.1
22.5°	0.7
Manhole-straight run	0.15
Manhole-angled through	
90°	1
60°	0.85
45°	0.75
22.5°	0.45

3.2.8.11.7 Inlet and Access Hole Losses for EGL Calculations - Energy-Loss Methodology

Various methodologies have been advanced for evaluating losses at access holes and other flow junctions. The energy loss method presented in this section is based on laboratory research and does not apply when the inflow pipe invert is above the water level in the access hole.

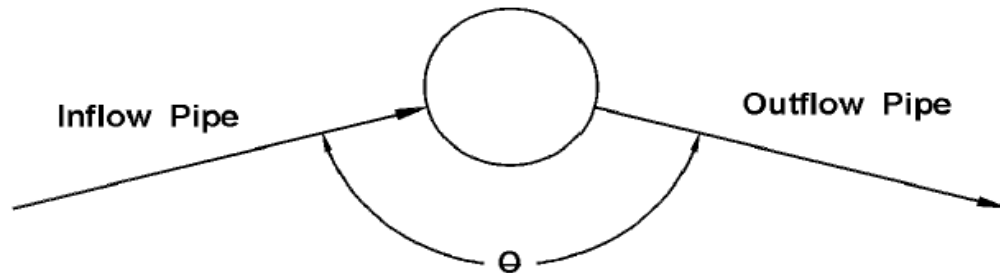


Figure 3.2-21. Head Loss Coefficients

The energy loss encountered going from one pipe to another through an access hole is commonly represented as being proportional to the velocity head of the outlet pipe. Using K to represent the constant of proportionality, the energy loss, H_{ah} , is approximated by Equation 3.2.36. Experimental studies have determined that the K value can be approximated by the relationship in Equation 3.2.37 when the inflow pipe invert is below the water level in the access hole.

$$H_{ah} = K (V_o^2/2g) \quad (3.2.36)$$

$$K = K_o C_D C_d C_Q C_p C_B \quad (3.2.37)$$

where:

- K = adjusted loss coefficient
- K_o = initial head loss coefficient based on relative access hole size
- C_D = correction factor for pipe diameter (pressure flow only)
- C_d = correction factor for flow depth
- C_Q = correction factor for relative flow
- C_p = correction factor for plunging flow
- C_B = correction factor for benching
- V_o = velocity of outlet pipe

For cases where the inflow pipe invert is above the access hole water level, the outflow pipe will function as a culvert, and the access hole loss and the access hole HGL can be computed using procedures found in *Hydraulic Design of Highway Culverts* (HDS-5, 1985). If the outflow pipe is flowing full or partially full under outlet control, the access hole loss (due to flow contraction into the outflow pipe) can be computed by setting K in Equation 3.2.36 to K_e as reported in Table 3.2-18. If the outflow pipe is flowing under inlet control, the water depth in the access hole should be

computed using the inlet control nomographs in HDS- 5 (for example see Figure 4.3-2a in Section 4.2).

The initial head loss coefficient, K_o in Equation 3.2.37, is estimated as a function of the **relative access hole** size and the angle of deflection between the inflow and outflow pipes as represented in Equation 3.2.38. This deflection angle is represented in Figure 3.2-21.

$$K_o = 0.1 (b/D_o)(1-\sin \theta) + 1.4(b/D_o)^{0.15} \sin \theta \quad (3.2.38)$$

where:

- θ = angle between the inflow and outflow pipes (Figure 3.2-21)
- b = access hole or junction diameter
- D_o = outlet pipe diameter

A change in head loss due to differences in **pipe diameter** is only significant in pressure flow situations when the depth in the access hole to outlet pipe diameter ratio, d_{aho}/D_o , is greater than 3.2. In these cases a correction factor for pipe diameter, C_D , is computed using Equation 3.2.39. Otherwise C_D is set equal to 1.

$$C_D = (D_o/D_i)^3 \quad (3.2.39)$$

where:

- D_o = outgoing pipe diameter
- D_i = inflowing pipe diameter

Table 3.2-18 Coefficients for Culverts; Outlet Control, Full, or Partly Full

<u>Type of Structure and Design of Entrance</u>	<u>Coefficient K_e</u>
Pipe, Concrete	
Projecting from fill, socket end (groove-end)	0.2
Projecting from fill, sq. cut end	0.5
Headwall or headwall and wingwalls	
Socket end of pipe (groove-end)	0.2
Square-edge	0.5
Rounded (radius = 1/12 D)	0.2
Mitered to conform to fill slope	0.7
*End-section conforming to fill slope	0.5
Beveled edges, 33.7° or 45° levels	0.2
Side-or slope-tapered inlet	0.2
Pipe, or Pipe-Arch, Corrugated Metal	
Project from fill (no headwall)	0.9
Headwall or headwall and wingwalls square-edge	0.5
Mitered to conform to fill slope, paved or unpaved slope	0.7
*End-section conforming to fill slope	0.5
Beveled edges, 33.7° or 45° bevels	0.2
Side-or slope-tapered inlet	0.2
Box, Reinforced Concrete	
Headwall parallel to embankment (no wingwalls)	
Square-edged on 3 edges	0.5
Rounded on 3 edges to radius of 1/12 barrel dimension, or beveled edges on 3 sides	0.2
Wingwalls at 30° to 75° to barrel	
Square-edged at crown	0.4
Crown edge rounded to radius of 1/2 barrel dimension, or beveled top edge	0.2
Wingwall at 10° to 25° to barrel	
Square-edged at crown	0.05
Wingwalls parallel (extension of sides)	
Square-edged at crown	0.7
Side-or slope-tapered inlet	0.2
*Note: "End-section conforming to fill slope," made of either metal or concrete, are the sections commonly available from manufacturers. From limited hydraulic tests they are equivalent in operation to a headwall in both inlet and outlet control. Some end sections, incorporating a closed taper in their design have a superior hydraulic performance.	
(Source: Reference HDS No.5, 1985)	

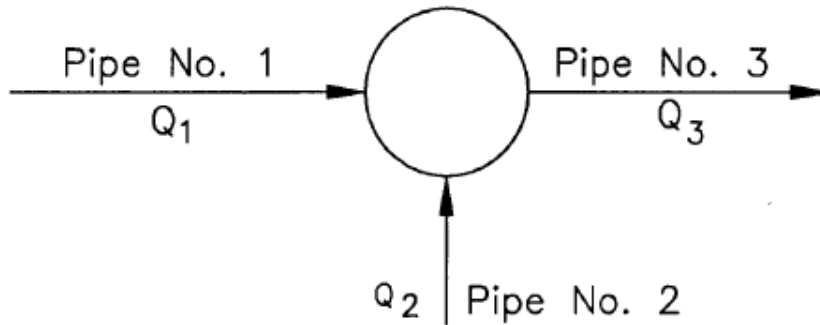


Figure 3.2-22 Relative flow effect

The correction factor for **flow depth**, C_d , is significant only in cases of free surface flow or low pressures, when the d_{aho}/D_o ratio is less than 3.2. In cases where this ratio is greater than 3.2, C_d is set equal to 1. To determine the applicability of this factor, the water depth in the access hole is approximated as the level of the hydraulic grade line at the upstream end of the outlet pipe. The correction factor is calculated using Equation 3.2.38.

$$C_D = 0.5(d_{\text{aho}}/D_o)^{0.6} \quad (3.2.40)$$

where:

d_{aho} = water depth in access hole above the outlet pipe invert

D_o = outlet pipe diameter

The correction factor for **relative flow**, C_Q , is a function of the angle of the incoming flow as well as the percentage of flow coming in through the pipe of interest versus other incoming pipes. It is computed using Equation 3.2.39. The correction factor is only applied to situations where there are 3 or more pipes entering the structure at approximately the same elevation. Otherwise, the value of C_Q is equal to 1.0.

$$C_Q = (1 - 2\sin \theta) [1 - (Q_i / Q_o)]^{0.75} + 1 \quad (3.2.41)$$

where:

C_Q = correction factor for relative flow

θ = the angle between the inflow and outflow pipes (Figure 3.2-22)

Q_i = flow in the inflow pipe

Q_o = flow in the outflow pipe

As can be seen from Equation 3.2.41, C_Q is a function of the angle of the incoming flow as well as the ratio of inflow coming through the pipe of interest and the total flow out of the structure. To illustrate this effect, consider the access hole shown in Figure 3.2-23 and assume the following two cases to determine the correction factor of pipe number 2 entering the access hole. For each of the two cases, the angle between the inflow pipe number 1 and the outflow pipe, θ , is 180° .

Case 1:

$$Q_1 = 3 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s}$$

$$Q_2 = 1 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s}$$

$$Q_3 = 4 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s}$$

Using Equation 3.2.39,

$$C_Q = (1 - 2 \sin \theta)(1 - Q_i/Q_o)^{0.75} + 1$$

$$C_Q = (1 - 2 \sin 180^\circ)(1 - 3/4)^{0.75} + 1$$

$$C_Q = 1.35$$

Case 2:

$$Q_1 = 1.0 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s}$$

$$Q_2 = 3.0 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s}$$

$$Q_3 = 4.0 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s}$$

Using Equation 3.2.39,

$$C_Q = (1 - 2 \sin \theta)(1 - Q_i/Q_o)^{0.75} + 1$$

$$C_Q = (1 - 2 \sin 180^\circ)(1 - 1/4)^{0.75} + 1$$

$$C_Q = 1.81$$

The correction factor for **plunging flow**, C_p , is calculated using Equation 3.2.42. This correction factor corresponds to the effect another inflow pipe, plunging into the access hole, has on the inflow pipe for which the head loss is being calculated. Using the notations in Figure 3.2-23, C_p is calculated for pipe #1 when pipe #2 discharges plunging flow. The correction factor is only applied when $h > d_{\text{aho}}$. Additionally, the correction factor is only applied when a higher elevation flow plunges into an access hole that has both an inflow line and an outflow in the bottom of the access hole. Otherwise, the value of C_p is equal to 1.0. Flows from a grate inlet or a curb opening inlet are considered to be plunging flow and the losses would be computed using Equation 3.2.40.

$$C_p = 1 + 0.2(h/D_o) [(h - d_{\text{aho}})/D_o] \quad (3.2.42)$$

where:

- C_p = correction for plunging flow
- h = vertical distance of plunging flow from the flow line of the higher elevation inlet pipe to the center of the outflow pipe
- D_o = outlet pipe diameter
- d_{aho} = water depth in access hole relative to the outlet pipe invert

The correction for **benching** in the access hole, C_B , is obtained from Table 3.2-19. Figure 3.2-23 illustrates benching methods listed in Table 3.2-19. Benching tends to direct flow through the access hole, resulting in a reduction in head loss. For flow depths between the submerged and unsubmerged conditions, a linear interpolation is performed.

Table 3.2-19 Correction for Benching (HEC 22, 2001)		
Bench Type	Correction Factors, C_B	
	Submerged*	Unsubmerged**
Flat or Depressed Floor	1.00	1.00
Half Bench	0.95	0.15
Full Bench	0.75	0.07
*pressure flow, $d_{\text{aho}}/D_o \geq 3.2$		
**free surface flow, $d_{\text{aho}}/D_o \leq 3.2$		

In summary, to estimate the head loss through an access hole from the outflow pipe to a particular inflow pipe using the energy-loss method, multiply the above correction factors together to get the head loss coefficient, K . This coefficient is then multiplied by the velocity head in the outflow pipe to estimate the minor loss for the connection.

3.2.8.11.8 Composite Energy Loss Method

The Energy Loss Method described in Section 3.2.8.11.7 resulted from preliminary experimental and analytical techniques that focused on relatively simple access hole layout and a small number of inflow pipes. A more suitable method is available to analyze complex access holes that have, for example, many inflow pipes. This complex method, referred to as the Composite Energy Loss Method, is implemented in the FHWA storm drain analysis and design package HYDRA (GKY, 1994). Details on the method are described in the HYDRA program technical documentation and the associated research report (Chang, et. al., 1994).

This complex minor loss computation approach focuses on the calculation of the energy loss from the inflow pipes to the outflow pipe (Chang, et. al., 1994). The methodology can be applied by determining the estimated energy loss through an access hole given a set of physical and hydraulic parameters. Computation of the energy loss allows determination and analysis of the energy gradeline and hydraulic gradeline in pipes upstream of the access hole. This methodology only applies to subcritical flow in pipes.

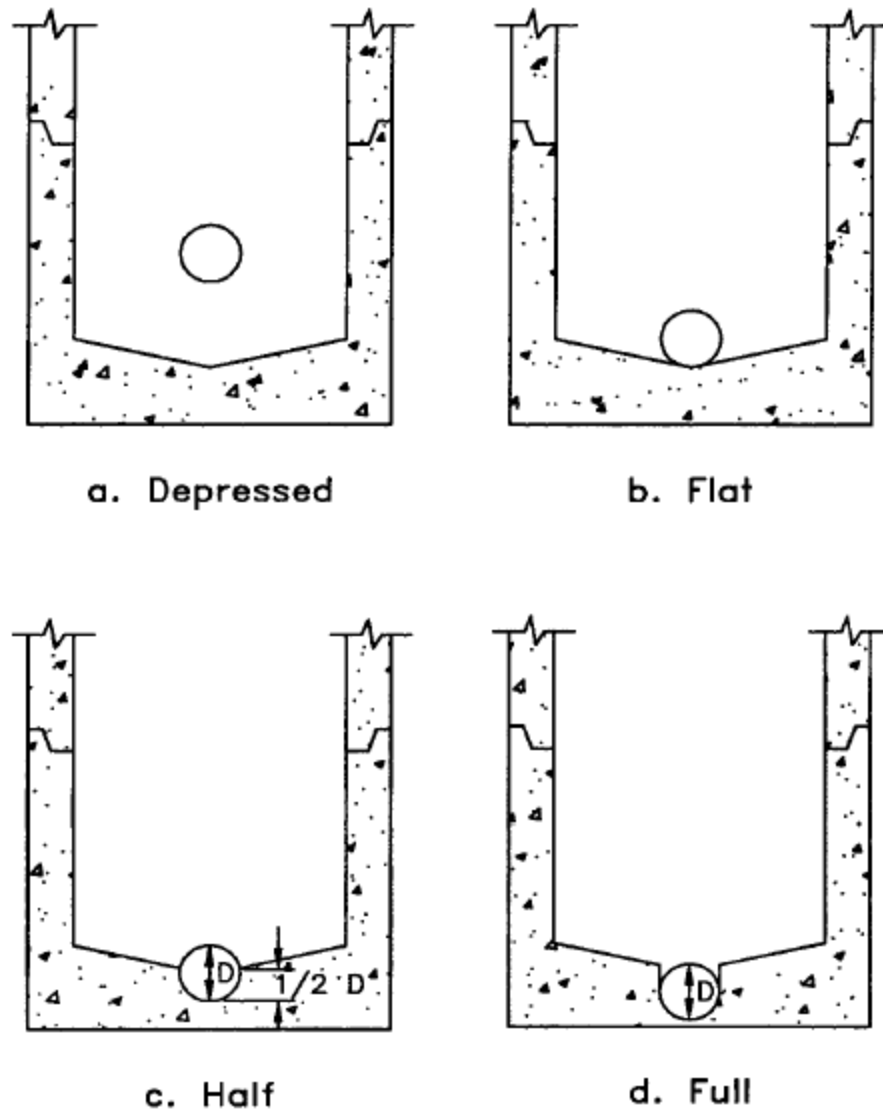


Figure 3.2-23 Access to Benching Methods

3.2.8.12 Preliminary Design Procedure

The preliminary design of storm drains can be accomplished by using the following steps and the storm drain computation sheet provided in Figure 3.2-25. This procedure assumes that each storm drain will be initially designed to flow full under gravity conditions. The designer must recognize that when the steps in this section are complete, the design is only preliminary. Final design is accomplished after the energy grade line and hydraulic grade line computations have been completed (See Section 3.2.8.9).

Step 1 Prepare a working plan layout and profile of the storm drainage system establishing the following design information:

- a. Location of storm drains.
- b. Direction of flow.
- c. Location of access holes and other structures.
- d. Number or label assigned to each structure.
- e. Location of all existing utilities (water, sewer, gas, underground cables, etc.).

Step 2 Determine the following hydrologic parameters for the drainage areas tributary to each inlet to the storm drainage system:

- a. Drainage areas.
- b. Runoff coefficients.
- c. Travel time

Step 3 Using the information generated in Steps 1 and 2, complete the following information on the design form for each run of pipe starting with the upstream most storm drain run:

- a. "From" and "To" stations, Columns 1 and 2b, "Length" of run, Column 3
- b. "Length" of run, Column 3
- c. "Inc." drainage area, Column 4
The incremental drainage area tributary to the inlet at the upstream end of the storm drain run under consideration.
- d. "C," Column 6
The runoff coefficient for the drainage area tributary to the inlet at the upstream end of the storm drain run under consideration. In some cases a composite runoff coefficient will need to be computed.
- e. "Inlet" time of concentration, Column 9
The time required for water to travel from the hydraulically most distant point of the drainage area to the inlet at the upstream end of the storm drain run under consideration.
- f. "System" time of concentration, Column 10
The time for water to travel from the most remote point in the storm drainage system to the upstream end of the storm drain run under consideration. For the upstream most storm drain run this value will be the same as the value in Column 9. For all other pipe runs this value is computed by adding the "System" time of concentration (Column 10) and the "Section" time of concentration (Column 17) from the previous run together to get the system time of concentration at the upstream end of the section under consideration (See Section 3.2.8.3 for a general discussion of times of concentration).

Step 4 Using the information from Step 3, compute the following:

- a. "TOTAL" area, Column 5
Add the incremental area in Column 4 to the previous sections total area and place this value in Column 5.
- b. "INC." area x "C," Column 7
Multiply the drainage area in Column 4 by the runoff coefficient in Column 6. Put the product, CA, in Column 7.

- c. "TOTAL" area x "C," Column 8
Add the value in Column 7 to the value in Column 8 for the previous storm drain run and put this value in Column 8.
- d. "I," Column 11
Using the larger of the two times of concentration in Columns 9 and 10, and an Intensity-Duration-Frequency (IDF) curve, determine the rainfall intensity, I, and place this value in Column 11.
- e. "TOTAL Q," Column 12
Calculate the discharge as the product of Columns 8 and 11. Place this value in Column 12.
- f. "SLOPE," Column 21
Place the pipe slope value in Column 21. The pipe slope will be approximately the slope of the finished roadway. The slope can be modified as needed.
- g. "PIPE DIA.," Column 13
Size the pipe using relationships and charts presented in Section 3.2.8.6 to convey the discharge by varying the slope and pipe size as necessary. The storm drain should be sized as close as possible to a full gravity flow. Since most calculated sizes will not be available, a nominal size will be used. The designer will decide whether to go to the next larger size and have part full flow or whether to go to the next smaller size and have pressure flow.
- h. "CAPACITY FULL," Column 14
Compute the full flow capacity of the selected pipe using Equation 3.2.18 and put this information in Column 14.
- i. "VELOCITIES," Columns 15 and 16
Compute the full flow and design flow velocities (if different) in the conduit and place these values in Columns 15 and 16. If the pipe is flowing full, the velocities can be determined from $V = Q/A$, Equations 3.2.17 and 3.2.18. If the pipe is not flowing full, the velocity can be determined from Figure 3.2-18a.
- j. "SECTION TIME," Column 17
Calculate the travel time in the pipe section by dividing the pipe length (Column 3) by the design flow velocity (Column 16). Place this value in Column 17.
- k. "CROWN DROP," Column 20
Calculate an approximate crown drop at the structure to off-set potential structure energy losses using Equation 3.2.33 introduced in Section 3.2.8.11.6. Place this value in Column 20.
- l. "INVERT ELEV.," Columns 18 and 19
Compute the pipe inverts at the upper (U/S) and lower (D/S) ends of this section of pipe, including any pipe size changes that occurred along the section.

Step 5 Repeat steps 3 and 4 for all pipe runs to the storm drain outlet. Use equations and nomographs to accomplish the design effort.

Step 6 Check the design by calculating the energy grade line and hydraulic grade line as described in Section 3.2.8.9.

3.2.8.13 Energy Grade Line Evaluation Procedure

This section presents a step-by-step procedure for manual calculation of the energy grade line (EGL) and the hydraulic grade line (HGL) using the energy loss method. For many storm drainage systems, computer methods such as HYDRAIN (FHWA, 1994) are an efficient means of evaluating the EGL and the HGL. However, it is important that the designer understand the analysis process so that he can better interpret the output from computer generated storm drain designs.

Figure 3.2-25 provides a sketch illustrating use of the two grade lines in developing a storm drainage system. The following step-by-step procedure can be used to manually compute the EGL and HGL. The computation tables in Figure 3.2-26 and Figure 3.2-27 can be used to document the procedure outlined below.

Before outlining the computational steps in the procedure, a comment relative to the organization of data on the form is appropriate. In general, a line will contain the information on a specific structure and the line downstream from the structure. As the table is started, the first two lines may be unique. The first line will contain information about the outlet conditions. This may be a pool elevation or information on a known downstream system. The second line will be used to define the conditions right at the end of the last conduit. Following these first two lines the procedure becomes more general. A single line on the computation sheet is used for each junction or structure and its associated outlet pipe. For example, data for the first structure immediately upstream of the outflow pipe and the outflow pipe would be tabulated in the third full line of the computation sheet (lines may be skipped on the form for clarity). Table A (Figure 3.2-26) is used to calculate the HGL and EGL elevations while table B (Figure 3.2-27) is used to calculate the pipe losses and structure losses. Values obtained in table B are transferred to table A for use during the design procedure. In the description of the computation procedures, a column number will be followed by a letter A or B to indicate the appropriate table to be used.

EGL computations begin at the outfall and are worked upstream taking each junction into consideration. Many storm drain systems are designed to function in a subcritical flow regime. In subcritical flow, pipe and access hole losses are summed to determine the upstream EGL levels. If supercritical flow occurs, pipe and access losses are not carried upstream. When a storm drain section is identified as being supercritical, the designer should advance to the next upstream pipe section to determine its flow regime. This process continues until the storm drain system returns to a subcritical flow regime.

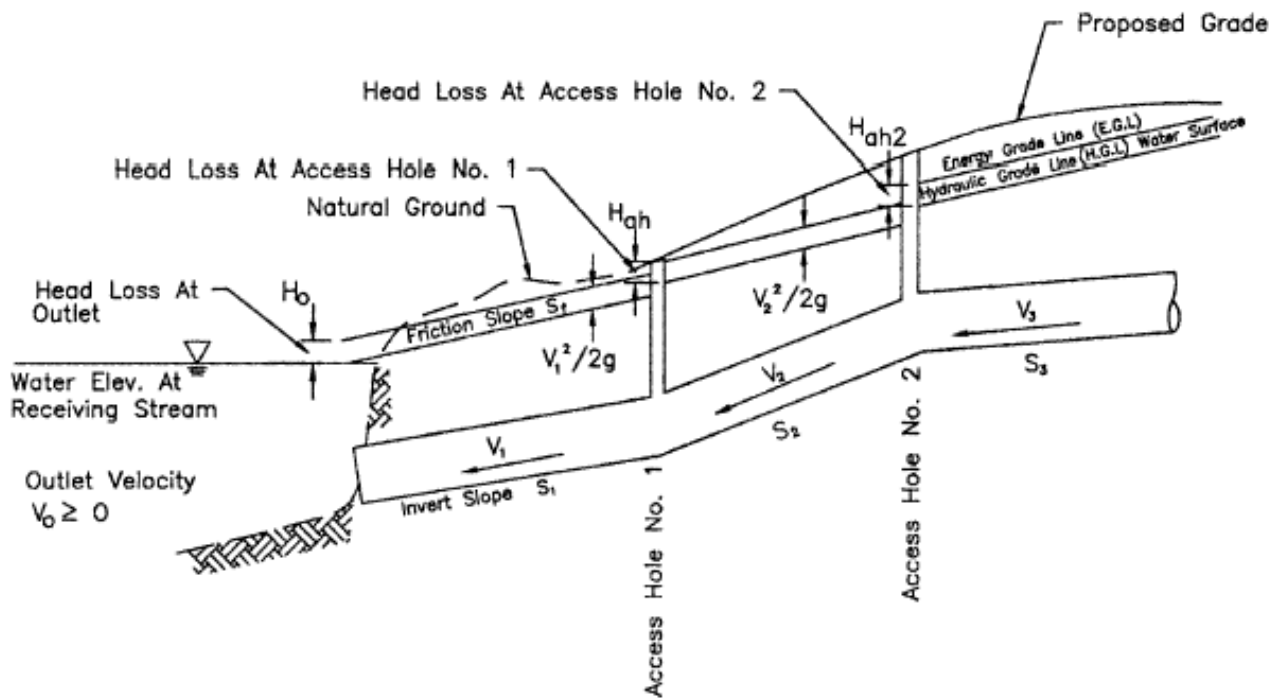


Figure 3.2-25 Energy and Hydraulic Grade Line Illustration

The EGL computational procedure follows:

Step 1 The first line of Table A includes information on the system beyond the end of the conduit system. Define this as the stream, pool, existing system, etc. in column 1A. Determine the EGL and HGL for the downstream receiving system. If this is a natural body of water, the HGL will be at the water surface. The EGL will also be at the water surface if no velocity is assumed or will be a velocity head above the HGL if there is a velocity in the water body. If the new system is being connected to an existing storm drain system, the EGL and the HGL will be that of the receiving system. Enter the HGL in Column 14A and the EGL in Column 10A of the first line on the computation sheet.

Step 2 Identify the structure number at the outfall (this may be just the end of the conduit, but it needs a structure number), the top of conduit (TOC) elevation at the outfall end, and the surface elevation at the outfall end of the conduit. Place these values in Columns 1A, 15A, and 16A respectively. Also add the structure number in Col.1B.

Step 3 Determine the EGL just upstream of the structure identified in Step 2. Several different cases exist as defined below when the conduit is flowing full:

Case 1: If the TW at the conduit outlet is greater than $(d_c + D)/2$, the EGL will be the TW elevation plus the velocity head for the conduit flow conditions.

Case 2: If the TW at the conduit outlet is less than $(d_c + D)/2$, the EGL will be the HGL plus the velocity head for the conduit flow conditions. The equivalent hydraulic grade line, EHGL, will be the invert plus $(d_c + D)/2$.

The velocity head needed in either Case 1 or 2 will be calculated in the next steps, so it may be helpful to complete Step 4 and work Step 5 to the point where velocity head (Col. 7A) is determined and then come back and finish this step. Put the EGL in Column 13A.

Note: The values for d_c for circular pipes can be determined from Figure 3.2-18b. Charts for other conduits or other geometric shapes can be found in *Hydraulic Design of Highway Culverts*, HDS-5, and cannot be greater than the height of the conduit.

Step 4 Identify the structure ID for the junction immediately upstream of the outflow conduit (for the first conduit) or immediately upstream of the last structure (if working with subsequent lines) and enter this value in Columns 1A and 1B of the next line on the computation sheets. Enter the conduit diameter (D) in column 2A, the design discharge (Q) in Column 3A, and the conduit length (L) in Column 4A.

Step 5 If the barrel flows full, enter the full flow velocity from continuity in Column 5A and the velocity head ($V^2/2g$) in column 7A. Put "full" in Column 6a and not applicable (n/a) in Column 6b of Table A. Continue with Step 6. If the barrel flows only partially full, continue with Step 5A.

Note: If the pipe is flowing full because of high tailwater or because the pipe has reached its capacity for the existing conditions, the velocity will be computed based on continuity using the design flow and the full cross sectional area. Do not use the full flow velocity determined in Column 15 of the Preliminary Storm Drain Computation Form for part-full flow conditions. For part-full conditions discussed in Step 5, the calculations in the preliminary form may be helpful. Actual flow velocities need to be used in the EGL/HGL calculations.

Step 5A Part full flow: Using the hydraulic elements graph in Figure 3.2-18a with the ratio of part full to full flow (values from the preliminary storm drain computation form), compute the depth and velocity of flow in the conduit. Enter these values in Column 6a and 5 respectively of Table A. Compute the velocity head ($V^2/2g$) and place in Column 7A.

Step 5B Compute critical depth for the conduit using Figure 3.2-18b. If the conduit is not circular, see HDS-5 for additional charts. Enter this value in Column 6b of Table A.

Step 5C Compare the flow depth in Column 6a (Table A) with the critical depth in Column 6b (Table A) to determine the flow state in the conduit. If the flow depth in Column 6a is greater than the critical depth in Column 6b, the flow is subcritical, continue with Step 6. If the flow depth in Column 6a is less than or equal to the critical depth in Column 6b, the flow is supercritical, continue with Step 5D. In either case, remember that the EGL must be higher upstream for flow to occur. If after checking for super critical flow in the upstream section of pipe, assure that the EGL is higher in the pipe than in the structure.

Step 5D Pipe losses in a supercritical pipe section are not carried upstream. Therefore, enter a zero (0) in Column 7B for this structure.

Step 5E Enter the structure ID for the next upstream structure on the next line in Columns 1A and 1B. Enter the pipe diameter (D), discharge (Q), and conduit length (L) in Columns 2A, 3A, and 4A respectively of the same line.

Note: After a downstream pipe has been determined to flow in supercritical flow, it is necessary to check each succeeding upstream pipe for the type of flow that exists. This is done by calculating normal depth and critical depth for each pipe. If normal depth is less than the diameter of the pipe, the flow will be open channel flow and the critical depth calculation can be used to determine whether the flow is sub or supercritical. If the flow line elevation through an access hole drops enough that the invert of the upstream pipe is not inundated by the flow in the downstream pipe, the designer goes back to Step 1A and begins a new design as if the downstream section did not exist.

Step 5F Compute normal depth for the conduit using Figure 3.2-18a and critical depth using Figure 3.2-18b. If the conduit is not circular see HDS-5 for additional charts. Enter these values in Columns 6A and 6b of Table A.

Step 5G If the pipe barrel flows full, enter the full flow velocity from continuity in Column 5A and the velocity head ($V^2/2g$) in Column 7A. Go to Step 3, Case 2 to determine the EGL at the outlet end of the pipe. Put this value in Column 10A and go to Step 6. For part full flow, continue with Step 5H.

Step 5H Part full flow: Compute the velocity of flow in the conduit and enter this value in Column 5A. Compute the velocity head ($V^2/2g$) and place in Column 7A.

Step 5I Compare the flow depth in Column 6a with the critical depth in Column 6b to determine the flow state in the conduit. If the flow depth in Column 6a is greater than the critical depth in Column 6b, the flow is subcritical, continue with Step 5J. If the flow depth in Column 6a is less than or equal to the critical depth in Column 6b, the flow is supercritical, continue with Step 5K.

Step 5J Subcritical flow upstream: Compute EGL_o at the outlet of the previous structure as the outlet invert plus the sum of the outlet pipe flow depth and the velocity head. Place this value in Column 10A of the appropriate structure and go to Step 9.

Step 5K Supercritical flow upstream: Access hole losses do not apply when the flow in two (2) successive pipes is supercritical. Place zeros (0) in Columns 11A, 12A, and 15B of the intermediate structure (previous line). The HGL at the structure is equal to the pipe invert elevation plus the flow depth. Check the invert elevations and the flow depths both upstream and downstream of the structure to determine where the highest HGL exists. The highest value should be placed in Column 14A of the previous structure line. Perform Steps 20 and 21 and then repeat Steps 5E through 5K until the flow regime returns to subcritical. If the next upstream structure is end-of-line, skip to step 10b then perform Steps 20, 21, and 24.

- Step 6* Compute the friction slope (S_f) for the pipe using Equation 3.2.19 divided by L [$S_f = H_f/L = [185 n^2 (V^2/2g)]/D^{4/3}$] for a pipe flowing full. Enter this value in Column 8A of the current line. If full flow does not exist, set the friction slope equal to the pipe slope.
- Step 7* Compute the friction loss (H_f) by multiplying the length (L) in Column 4A by the friction slope (S_f) in Column 8A and enter this value in Column 2B. Compute other losses along the pipe run such as bend losses (h_b), transition contraction (H_c) and expansion (H_e) losses, and junction losses (H_j) using Equations 3.2.27 through 3.2.32 and place the values in Columns 3B, 4B, 5B, and 6B, respectively. Add the values in 2B, 3B, 4B, 5B, and 6B and place the total in Column 7B and 9A.
- Step 8* Compute the energy grade line value at the outlet of the structure (EGL_o) as the EGL_i elevation from the previous structure (Column 13A) plus the total pipe losses (Column 9A). Enter the EGL_o in Column 10A.
- Step 9* Estimate the depth of water in the access hole (estimated as the depth from the outlet pipe invert to the hydraulic grade line in the pipe at the outlet). Computed as EGL_o (Column 10A) minus the pipe velocity head in Column 7A minus the pipe invert elevation (from the preliminary storm drain computation form). Enter this value in Column 8B. If supercritical flow exists in this structure, leave this value blank and skip to Step 5E.
- Step 10* If the inflow storm drain invert is submerged by the water level in the access hole, compute access hole losses using Equations 3.2.36 and 3.2.37. Start by computing the initial structure head loss coefficient, K_o , based on relative access hole size. Enter this value in Column 9B. Continue with Step 11. If the inflow storm drain invert is not submerged by the water level in the access hole, compute the head in the access hole using culvert techniques from HDS-5 as follows:
- a. If the structure outflow pipe is flowing full or partially full under outlet control, compute the access hole loss by setting K in Equation 3.2.35 to K_e as reported in Table 3.2-16. Enter this value in Column 15B and 11A, continue with Step 17. Add a note on Table A indicating that this is a drop structure.
 - b. If the outflow pipe functions under inlet control, compute the depth in the access hole (HGL) using Figure 4.2-2(a). If the storm conduit shape and material is other than circular concrete, select the appropriate inlet control nomograph from HDS-5. Add these values to the access hole invert to determine the HGL. Since the velocity in the access hole is negligible, the EGL and HGL are the same. Enter HGL in Col.14A and EGL in Col.13A. Add a note on Table A indicating that this is a drop structure. Go to Step 20.
- Step 11* Using Equation 3.2.39 compute the correction factor for pipe diameter, C_D , and enter this value in Column 10B. Note, this factor is only significant in cases where the d_{aho}/D_o ratio is greater than 3.2.

- Step 12* Using Equation 3.2.40 compute the correction factor for flow depth, C_D , and enter this value in Column 11B. Note, this factor is only significant in cases where the d_{aho}/D_o ratio is less than 3.2.
- Step 13* Using Equation 3.2.41, compute the correction factor for relative flow, C_Q , and enter this value in Column 12B. This factor = 1.0 if there are less than 3 pipes at the structure.
- Step 14* Using Equation 3.2.42, compute the correction factor for plunging flow, C_p , and enter this value in Column 13B. This factor = 1.0 if there is no plunging flow. This correction factor is only applied when $h > d_{aho}$.
- Step 15* Enter in Column 14B the correction factor for benching, C_B , as determined from Table 3.2-18. Linear interpolation between the two columns of values will most likely be necessary.
- Step 16* Using Equation 3.2.37, compute the value of K and enter this value in Column 15B and 11A.
- Step 17* Compute the total access hole loss, H_{ah} , by multiplying the K value in Column 11A by the velocity head in Column 7A. Enter this value in Column 12A.
- Step 18* Compute EGL_i at the structure by adding the structure losses in Column 12A to the EGL_o value in Column 10A. Enter this value in Column 13A.
- Step 19* Compute the hydraulic grade line (HGL) at the structure by subtracting the velocity head in Column 7A from the EGL_i value in Column 13A. Enter this value in Column 14A.
- Step 20* Determine the top of conduit (TOC) value for the inflow pipe (using information from the storm drain computation sheet) and enter this value in Column 15A.
- Step 21* Enter the ground surface, top of grate elevation or other high water limits at the structure in Column 16A. If the HGL value in Column 14A exceeds the limiting elevation, design modifications will be required.
- Step 22* Enter the structure ID for the next upstream structure in Column 1A and 1B of the next line. When starting a new branch line, skip to Step 24.
- Step 23* Continue to determine the EGL through the system by repeating Steps 4 through 23. (Begin with Step 2 if working with a drop structure. This begins the design process again as if there were no system down stream from the drop structure).

Step 24 When starting a new branch line, enter the structure ID for the branch structure in Column 1A and 1B of a new line. Transfer the values from Columns 2A through 10A and 2B to 7B associated with this structure on the main branch run to the corresponding columns for the branch line. If flow in the main storm drain at the branch point is subcritical, continue with Step 9; if supercritical, continue with Step 5E.

3.2.8.14 Storm Drain Design Example

The following storm drain design example illustrates the application of the design procedures outlined in Sections 3.2.8.11, 3.2.8.12 and 3.2.8.13.

Example of Preliminary Storm Drain Design

Given: The roadway plan and section illustrated in Figure 3.2-28, inlet drainage area information in Table 3.2-20, and duration intensity information in Table 3.2-21. All grates are type P 50 x 100, all piping is reinforced concrete pipe (RCP) with a Manning's n value of 0.013, and the minimum design pipe diameter = 18 in for maintenance purposes.

Find:

- (1) Using the procedures outlined in Section 3.2.8.11 determine appropriate pipe sizes and inverts for the system illustrated in Figure 3.2-29.

- (2) Evaluate the HGL for the system configuration determined in part (1) using the procedure outlined in Section 3.2.8.12.

Solution:

- (1) Preliminary Storm Drain Design

Step 1. Figure 3.2-29 illustrates the proposed system layout including location of storm drains, access holes, and other structures. All structures have been numbered for reference. Figure 3.2-30 (a) and (b) illustrate the corresponding storm drain profiles.

Step 2. Drainage areas, runoff coefficients, and times of concentration are tabulated in Figure 3.2-31. Example problems documenting the computation of these values are included in this chapter.

Starting at the upstream end of a conduit run, Steps 3 and 4 from Section 3.2.8.11 are completed for each storm drain pipe. A summary tabulation of the computational process is provided in Figure 3.2-31. The column by column computations for each section of conduit follow:

Table 3.2-20 Drainage Area Information for Design Example

<u>Inlet No.</u>	<u>Drainage Area (ac)</u>	<u>"C"</u>	<u>Time of Concentration (min)</u>
40	0.64	0.73	3
41	0.35	0.73	2
42	0.32	0.73	2
43	--	--	--
44			

Table 3.2-21 Intensity/Duration Data Design Example

<u>Time (min)</u>	5	10	15	20	30	40	50	60	120
<u>Intensity (in/hr)</u>	7.1	5.9	5.1	4.5	3.5	3	2.6	2.4	1.4

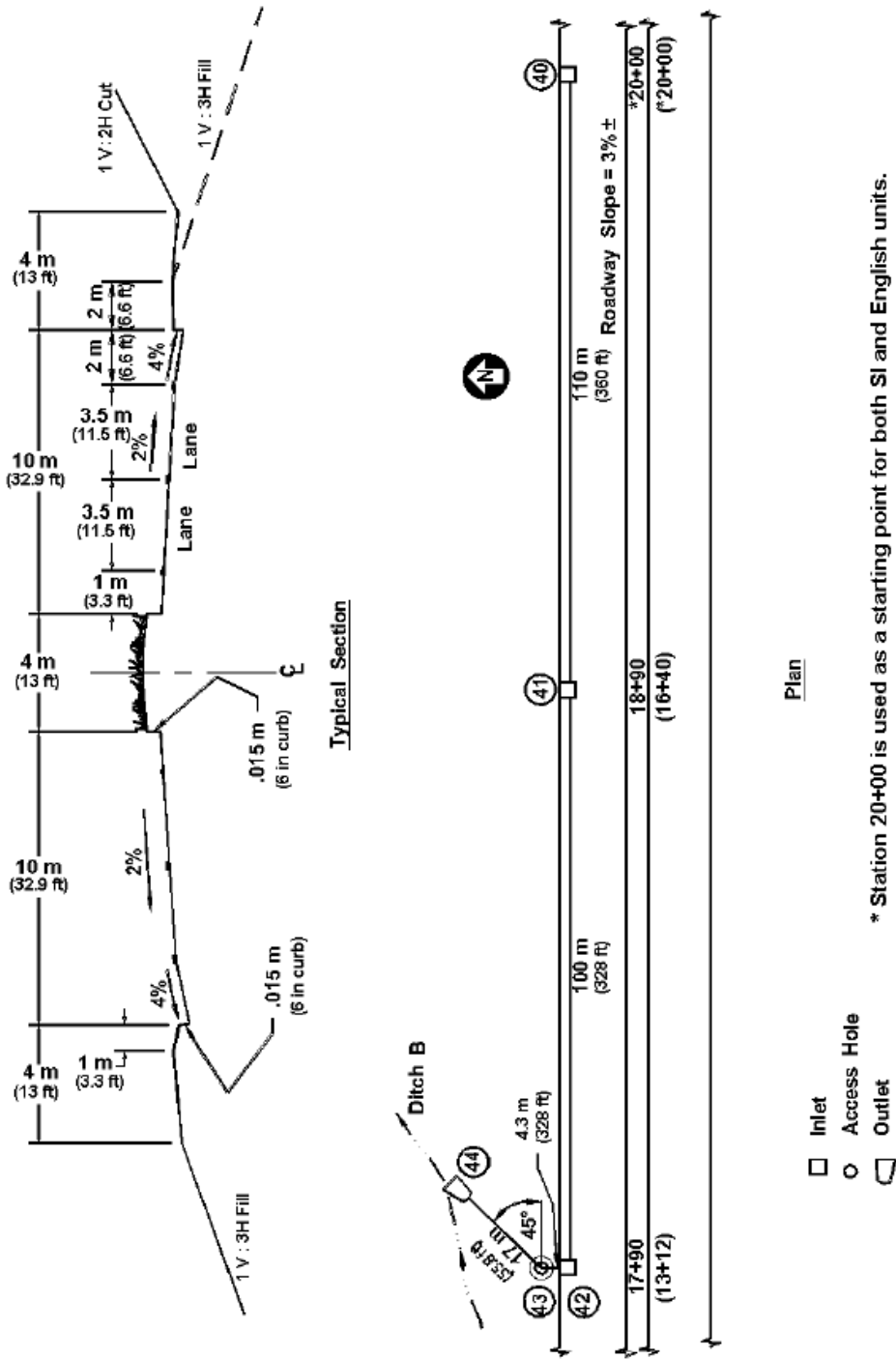


Figure 3.2-28 Roadway Plan and Sections for Example

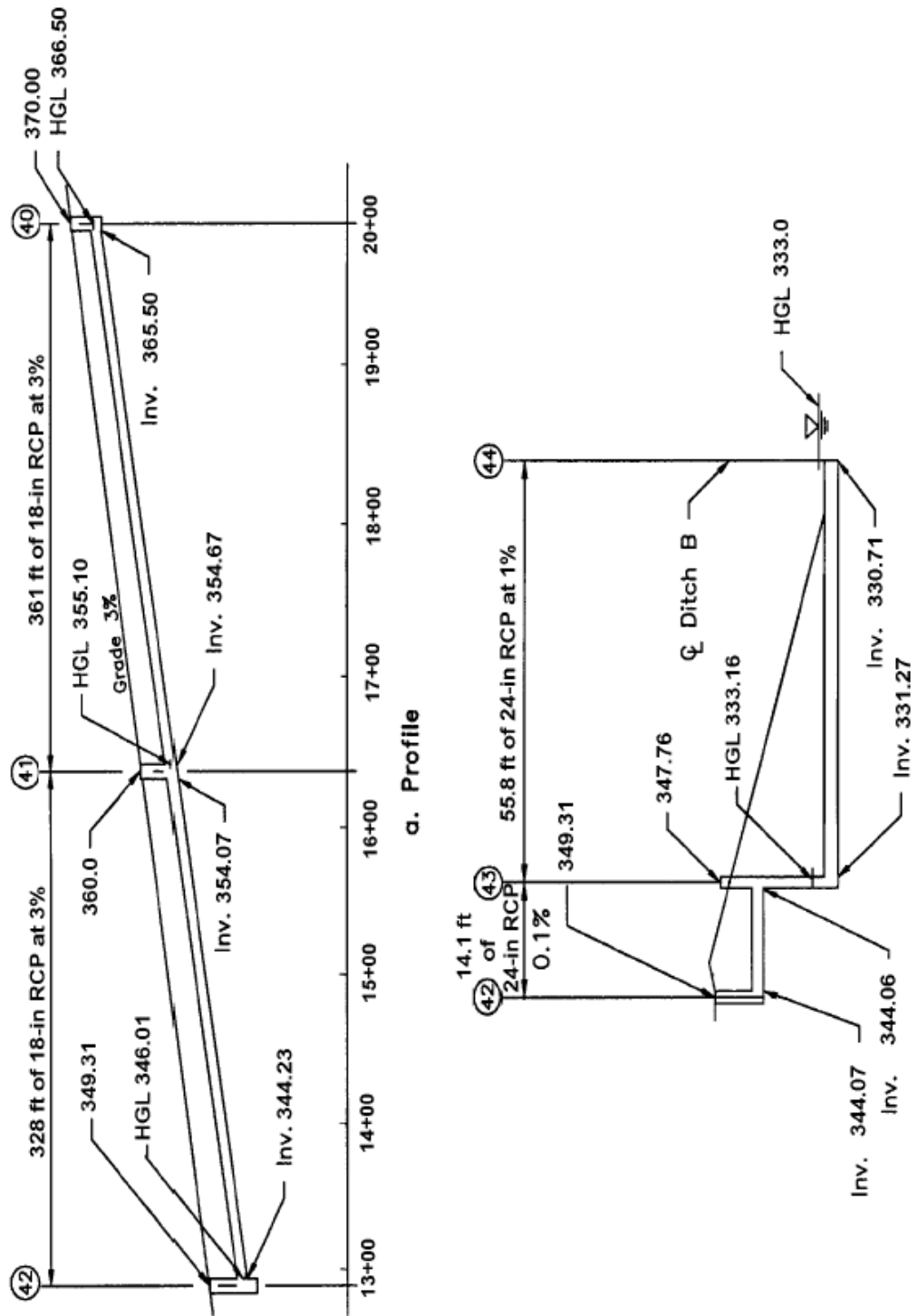


Figure 3.2-29 Storm Drain Profiles for Example

Structure 40 to 41

Col. 1 From structure 40

Col. 2 To structure 41

Col. 3 Run Length	L = 2000 ft - 1639 ft L = 361 ft	Figure 3.2-30
Col. 4 Inlet Area	$A_i = 0.64$ ac	Figure 3.2-31
Col. 5 Total Area	$A_t = 0.64$ ac	Total area up to inlet 40
Col. 6 "C"	$C = 0.73$	Figure 3.2-31
Col. 7 Inlet CA	$CA = (0.64)(0.73)$ $CA = 0.47$ ac	Col. 4 times Col. 6
Col. 8 Sum CA	$\Sigma CA = 0.47 + 0$ $\Sigma CA = 0.47$ ac	Col. 7 plus previous Col. 8
Col. 9 Inlet Time	$t_i = 3$ min	Figure 3.2-31
Col. 10 Sys. Time	$t_c = 3$ min (use 5 min)	same as Col. 9 for upstream most section
Col. 11 Intensity	$I = 7.1$ in/hr	Table 3.2-21; System time less than 5 minutes therefore, use 5 minutes
Col. 12 Runoff	$Q = C_f (CA) (I)$ $Q = (0.47) (7.1) / 1.0$ $Q = 3.3$ ft ³ /sec	Equation 2.1.3; $C_f = 1.0$ Col. 8 times Col. 11 multiplied by 1.0
Col. 21 Slope	$S = 0.03$	select desired pipe slope

Col. 13 Pipe Dia.	$D = [(Qn)/(K_Q S_o^{0.5})]^{0.375}$ $D = [(3.3)(0.013)/(0.46)(0.03)^{0.5}]^{0.375}$ $D = 0.8 \text{ ft}$ $D_{\min} = 1.5 \text{ ft}$	Equation 3.2.18 or Figure 3.2-16 use D_{\min}
Col. 14 Full Cap	$Q_f = (K_Q/n) D^{2.67} S_o^{0.5}$ $Q_f = (0.46/0.013) (1.5)^{2.67} (0.03)^{0.5}$ $Q_f = 18.1 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s}$	Equation 3.2.18 or Figure 3.2-16
Col. 15 Vel. Full	$V_f = (K_v/n) D^{0.67} S_o^{0.5}$ $V_f = (0.59/0.013) (1.5)^{0.67} (0.03)^{0.5}$ $V_f = 10.3 \text{ ft/s}$	Equation 3.2.17 or Figure 3.2-16
Col. 16 Vel. Design	$Q/Q_f = 3.3/18.1 = 0.18$ $V/V_f = 0.73$ $V = (0.73) (10.3)$ $V = 7.52 \text{ ft/s}$	Figure 3.2-18a
Col. 17 Sect. Time	$t_s = L/V = 361 / 7.52 / 60$ $t_s = 0.8 \text{ min; use } 1 \text{ min}$	Col. 3 divided by Col. 16
Col. 20 Crown Drop	= 0	Upstream most invert
Col. 18 U/S Invert	= Grnd - 3.0 ft - dia = 370.0 - 3.0 - 1.5 = 365.5 ft	3 ft = min cover Ground elevation from Figure 3.2-30
Col. 19 D/S Invert	= (365.5) - (361.0)(0.03) = 354.67 ft	Col. 18 - (Col. 3)(Col. 21)

At this point, the pipe should be checked to determine if it still has adequate cover.

$$354.67 + 1.5 + 3.0 = 359.17 \quad \text{Invert elev. + Diam + min cover}$$

Ground elevation of 360.0 ft is greater than 359.17 ft so OK

Structure 41 to 42

Col. 1 From	= 41	
Col. 2 To	= 42	
Col. 3 Run Length	L = 1639 - 1311 \\ L = 328 ft	Figure 3.2-30
Col. 4 Inlet Area	A _i = 0.35 ac	Figure 3.2-31
Col. 5 Total Area	A _t = 0.35 + 0.64 A _t = 0.99 ac	
Col. 6 "C"	C = 0.73	Figure 3.2-31
Col. 7 Inlet CA	CA = (0.35)(0.73) CA = 0.25 ac	Col. 4 times Col. 6
Col. 8 Sum CA	ΣCA = 0.25 + 0.47 ΣCA = 0.72 ac	Col. 7 plus previous Col. 8
Col. 9 Inlet Time	t _i = 2 min	Table 3.2-20
Col. 10 Sys. Time	t _c = 4 min (use 5 min)	Col. 9 + Col. 17 for line 40-41
Col. 11 Intensity	I = 7.1 in/hr	Table 3.2-21; system time equals 5 min
Col. 12 Runoff	Q = (CA)(I)/(K _u) Q = (0.72) (7.1) / 1.0 Q = 5.1 ft ³ /sec by 1.0	Equation 2.1.3 Col. 8 times Col. 11 divided
Col. 21 Slope	S = 0.03	select desired pipe slope

Col. 13 Pipe Dia.	$D = [(Qn)/(K_Q S_o^{0.5})]^{0.375}$ $D = [(5.1) (0.013)/(0.46)(0.03)^{0.5}]^{0.375}$ $D = 0.93 \text{ ft}$ $D_{\min} = 1.5 \text{ ft use } D_{\min}$	Equation 3.2.18 or Figure 3.2-16 use D_{\min}
Col. 14 Full Cap.	$Q_f = (K_Q/n) D^{2.67} S_o^{0.5}$ $Q_f = (0.46/0.013)(1.5)^{2.67}(0.03)^{0.5}$ $Q_f = 18.1 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s}$	Equation 3.2.18 or Figure 3.2-16
Col. 15 Vel. Full	$V_f = (K_V/n) D^{0.67} S_o^{0.5}$ $V_f = (0.59/0.013)(1.5)^{0.67} (0.03)^{0.5}$ $V_f = 10.3 \text{ ft/s}$	Equation 3.2.18 or Figure 3.2-16
Col. 16 Vel. Design	$Q/Q_f = 5.1/18.1 = 0.28$ $V/V_f = 0.84$ $V = (0.84) (10.3)$ $V = 8.7 \text{ ft/s}$	Figure 3.2-18a
Col. 17 Sect. Time	$T_s = L/V = 328 / 8.75 / 60$ $T_s = 0.6 \text{ min; use } 1 \text{ min}$	Col. 3 divided by Col. 16
Col. 20 Crown Drop	$= H_{ah} = K_{ah} (V^2 / 2g)$ $= (0.5)(8.7)^2 / [(2)(32.2)]$ $= 0.6 \text{ ft}$	Equation 3.2.36 with Table 3.2-16 $K_{ah} = 0.5$ for inlet - straight run
Col. 18 U/S Invert	$= 354.67 - 0.6$ $= 354.07 \text{ ft}$	Downstream invert of upstream conduit minus estimated structure loss (drop)
Col. 19 D/S Invert	$= (354.07) - (328)(0.03)$ $= 344.23 \text{ ft}$	Col. 18 - (Col. 3)(Col. 21)

Structure 42 to 43

Col. 1 From structure	= 42	
Col. 2 To structure	= 43	
Col. 3 Run Length	$L = 14.1 \text{ ft}$	Figure 3.2-30
Col. 4 Inlet Area	$A_i = 0.32 \text{ ac}$	Figure 3.2-31
Col. 5 Total Area	$A_t = 0.32 + 0.99$ $A_t = 1.31 \text{ ac}$	Col. 4 plus structure 41 total area
Col. 6 "C"	$C = 0.73$	Figure 3.2-31
Col. 7 Inlet CA	$CA = (0.32)(0.73)$ $CA = 0.23 \text{ ac}$	Col. 4 times Col. 6
Col. 8 Sum CA	$\Sigma CA = 0.23 + 0.72$ $\Sigma CA = 0.95 \text{ ac}$	Col. 7 plus structure 41 total CA values
Col. 9 Inlet Time	$t_i = 2 \text{ min}$	Table 3.2-20
Col. 10 Sys. Time	$t_c = 5 \text{ min}$	Col. 9 + Col. 17 for line 40-41 plus Col.17 for line 41-42
Col. 11 Intensity	$I = 7.1 \text{ in/hr}$	Table 3.2-21
Col. 12 Runoff	$Q = (CA) (I)$ $Q = (0.95) (7.1)$ $Q = 6.75 \text{ ft}^3/\text{sec}$	Col. 8 times Col. 11
Col. 21 Slope	$S = 0.001$	Select desired pipe slope

Col. 13 Pipe Dia.	$D = [(Qn)/(K_Q S_o^{0.5})]^{0.375}$ $D = [(6.75)(0.013)/(0.46)(0.001)^{0.5}]^{0.375}$ $D = 1.96 \text{ ft}$ $D = 2.0 \text{ ft}$	Equation 3.2.18 or Figure 3.2-16 Use nominal size
Col. 14 Full Cap .	$Q_f = (K_Q/n)(D^{2.67})(S_o^{0.5})$ $Q_f = (0.46/(0.013))(2.0)^{2.67} (0.001)^{0.5}$ $Q_f = 7.12 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s}$	Equation 3.2.18 or Figure 3.2-16
Col. 15 Vel. Full	$V_f = (K_v/n) D^{0.67} S_o^{0.5}$ $V_f = (0.59)/(0.013)(2.0)^{0.67} (0.001)^{0.5}$ $V_f = 2.28 \text{ ft/s}$	Equation 3.2.18 or Figure 3.2-16
Col. 16 Vel. Design	$Q/Q_f = 6.75/7.12 = 0.95$ $V/V_f = 1.15$ $V = (1.15) (2.28)$ $V = 2.6 \text{ ft/s}$	Figure 3.2-18a
Col. 17 Sect. Time	$t_s = L/V = 14.1 / 2.6 / 60$ $t_s = 0.09 \text{ min, use } 0.0 \text{ min}$	Col. 3 divided by Col. 16
Col. 20 Crown Drop	$= H_{ah} = K_{ah} (V^2 / 2g)$ $= (1.5)(2.6)^2 / [(2)(32.2)]$ $= 0.16 \text{ ft}$	Equation 3.2.36 and Table 3.2-13; $K_{ah} = 1.5$ for inlet - angled through 90 degrees
Col. 18 U/S Invert	$= 344.23 - 0.16$ $= 344.07 \text{ ft}$	Downstream invert of upstream conduit minus estimated structure loss (drop)
Col. 19 D/S Invert	$= 344.07 - (14.1)(0.001)$ $= 344.06 \text{ ft}$	Col. 18 - (Col. 3)(Col. 21)

Structure 43 to 44

Col. 1 From	= 43	
Col. 2 To	= 44	
Col. 3 Run Length	L = 55.8 ft	Figure 3.2-30
Col. 4 Inlet Area	A _i = 0.0 ac	Figure 3.2-31
Col. 5 Total Area	A _t = 1.31 ac	Col. 4 plus structure 42 total area
Col. 6 "C"	C = n/a	Figure 3.2-31
Col. 7 Inlet CA	CA = 0.0	Col. 4 times Col. 6
Col. 8 Sum CA	ΣCA = 0.00 + 0.95 ΣCA = 0.95 ac	Col. 7 plus structure 42 total CA value
Col. 9 Inlet Time	n/a	No inlet
Col. 10 Sys. Time	t _c = 5 min	Col. 10 + Col. 17 for line 42-43
Col. 11 Intensity	I = 7.1 in/hr	Table 3.2-21
Col. 12 Runoff	Q = (CA) I Q = (0.95) (7.1) Q = 6.75 ft ³ /sec	Col. 8 times Col. 11
Col. 21 Slope	S = 0.01	Select desired pipe slope
Col. 13 Pipe Dia.	D = [(Qn)/(K _a S _o ^{0.5})] ^{0.375} D = [(6.75)(0.013)/(0.46)(0.01) ^{0.5}] ^{0.375} D = 1.27 ft D = 2.0 ft	Equation 3.2.18 or Figure 3.2-16 U/S conduit was 2.0 ft. - Do not reduce size inside the system

Col. 14 Full Cap.	$Q_f = (KQ/n)(D^{2.67})(S_o^{0.5})$ $Q_f = (0.46)/(0.013)(2.0)^{2.67} (0.01)^{0.5}$ $Q_f = 22.52 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s}$	Equation 3.2.18 or Figure 3.2-16
Col. 15 Vel. Full	$V_f = (K_v/n) D^{0.67} S_o^{0.5}$ $V_f = (0.59)/(0.013)(2.0)^{0.67} (0.01)^{0.5}$ $V_f = 7.22 \text{ ft/s}$	Equation 3.2.17 or Figure 3.2-16
Col. 16 Vel. Design	$Q/Q_f = 6.75/22.52 = 0.30$ $V/V_f = 0.84$ $V = (0.84) (7.22)$ $V = 6.1 \text{ ft/s}$	Figure 3.2-18a
Col. 17 Sect. Time	$t_s = 55.8 / 6.1 / 60$ $t_s = 0.15 \text{ min, use } 0.0 \text{ min}$	Col. 3 divided by Col. 16
Col. 19 D/S Invert	= 330.71 ft	Invert at discharge point in ditch
Col. 18 U/S Invert	$= 330.71 + (55.8)(0.01)$ $= 331.27 \text{ ft}$	Col. 19 + (Col. 3)(Col. 21)
Col. 20 Crown Drop	$= 344.06 - 331.27$ $= 12.79 \text{ ft straight run}$	Col. 19 previous run - Col. 18

(2) Energy Grade Line Evaluation Computations - English Units

The following computational procedure follows the steps outlined in Section 3.2.8.12 above. Starting at structure 44, computations proceed in the upstream direction. A summary tabulation of the computational process is provided in Figure 3.2-32 English and Figure 3.2-33 English. The column by column computations for each section of storm drain follow:

RUN FROM STRUCTURE 44 TO 43

Outlet

Step 1	Col. 1A	Outlet	
	Col. 14A	HGL = 333.0	Downstream pool elevation
	Col. 10A	EGL = 333.0	Assume no velocity in pool

Structure 44

Step 2	Col. 1A, 1B	Str. ID = 44	Outlet
	Col. 15A	Invert = 330.71 ft	Outfall invert
		TOC = 330.71 + 2.0	Top of storm drain at outfall
		TOC = 332.71	
		Surface Elev = 332.71	Match TOC
Step 3		HGL = TW = 333.0	From Step 1
		EGL _i = HGL + V ² /2g	Use Case 1 since TW is above the top of conduit
		EGL _i = 333.0 + 0.07	
	Col. 13A	EGL _i = 333.07	EGL _i for str. 44

Structure 43

Step 4	Col. 1A, 1B	Str. ID = 43	Next Structure
	Col. 2A	D = 2.0 ft	Pipe Diameter
	Col. 3A	Q = 6.75 cfs	Conduit discharge (design value)
	Col. 4A	L = 55.8 ft	Conduit length
Step 5	Col. 5A	V = Q/A	Velocity; use full barrel velocity since outlet is submerged.
		V = 6.75/[(π/4) (2.0) ²]	
		V = 2.15 ft/s	
	Col. 7A	V ² /2g = (2.15) ² /(2)(32.2)	Velocity head in conduit
		= 0.07 ft	
Step 6	Col. 8A	S _r = [(Qn)/(K _o D ^{2.67})] ²	Equation 3.2.18

$$S_f = [(6.75)(0.013)/(0.46)(2.0)^{2.67}]^2$$
$$S_f = 0.00090 \text{ ft/ft}$$

Step 7 Col. 2B

$$H_f = S_f L$$

Equation 3.2.27

$$H_f = (0.0009) (55.8)$$

Col. 8A x Col. 4A

$$H_f = 0.05$$

Col. 7B &

$$h_b, H_c, H_e, H_j = 0$$

Col. 9A

$$\text{Total} = 0.05 \text{ ft}$$

ENERGY GRADE LINE COMPUTATION SHEET - TABLE A
(English Solution)

COMPUTED BY _____ DATE _____
 CHECKED BY _____ DATE _____
 PAGE _____ OF _____
 INITIAL TAILWATER ELEV. _____

ROUTE _____
 SECTION _____
 COUNTY _____

Str. ID	D (ft) (2)	Q (ft ³ /s) (3)	L (ft) (4)	V (fps) (5)	d (ft) (6a)	d _c (ft) (6b)	V ² /2g (ft) (7)	S _f (ft/ft) (8)	Total Pipe Loss (table B) (ft) (9)	EGL _o (ft) (10)	K table B (11)	K(V ² /2g) (ft) (12)	EGL _i (ft) (13)	HGL (ft) (14)	U/S TOC (ft) (15)	Surf. Elev. (ft) (16)
OUTLET										333.00				333.00		
44													333.07		332.71	332.71
43	2.0	6.75	55.8	2.15	FULL	n/a	0.07	0.0009	0.05	333.12	0.5	0.04	333.16	*333.16	346.06	347.76
43	(New Outlet)			2.6		0.8	0.10						345.56	345.46	346.06	347.76
(Above calculations are for inlet end of STR 43 for conduit 42-43)																
42	2.0	6.75	14.1	2.6	1.56	0.80	0.10	0.001	0.014	345.57	0.62	0.06	346.11	346.01	345.73	349.31
41	1.5	5.10	328.0	8.65	0.56	0.85	1.16	-	0	355.79	-	-	355.98	355.10	356.17	360.0
40	1.5	3.35	361.0	7.52	0.43	0.70	0.88		0	-	0	0	366.50	366.50	367.0	370.0

Figure 3.2-31 Energy Grade Line Computation Sheet, Table A, for English Example

ENERGY GRADE LINE COMPUTATION SHEET - TABLE B
(English Solution)

COMPUTED BY _____	DATE _____	ROUTE _____
CHECKED BY _____	DATE _____	SECTION _____
PAGE _____	OF _____	COUNTY _____

Str. ID (1)	Pipe Losses (ft)					Structure Losses (ft)									
	H _i (2)	h _b (3)	H _c (4)	H _e (5)	H _j (6)	Total (7)	d _h (8)	K _s (9)	C _D (10)	C _d (11)	C _a (12)	C _p (13)	C _B (14)	K (15)	
44															
	0.05					0.05									
43							1.89								0.5
	0.014					0.014									
42							1.40	1.55	1.0	0.40	1.0	1.0	1.0		0.62
						0.0									
41															
															0.0
40							1.0								

Figure 3.2-32 Energy Grade Line Computation Sheet, Table B, for English Example

Step 8	Col. 10A	$EGL_o = EGL_i + \text{pipe loss}$ $EGL_o = 333.07 + 0.05$ $EGL_o = 333.12 \text{ ft}$ $HGL = 333.12 - 0.07$ $= 333.05$ $TOC = 331.27 + 2.0$ $= 333.27$	<p>Check for full flow - close</p> <p>Assumption OK</p>
Step 9	Col. 8B	Not applicable due to drop structure	
Step 10	Col. 9B and 11A	$K_e = 0.5$	Inflow pipe invert much higher than d_{aho} . Assume square edge entrance
Step 17	Col. 12A	$K(V^2/2g) = (0.50)(0.07)$ $K(V^2/2g) = 0.04 \text{ ft}$	Col. 11A times Col. 7A
Step 18	Col. 13A	$EGL_i = EGL_o$ $EGL_i = 333.12 + 0.04$ $EGL_i = 333.16 \text{ ft}$	Col 10A plus 12A
Step 19	Col. 14A	$HGL = EGL_i = 333.16 \text{ ft}$ $d_{aho} = HGL - \text{invert}$ $= 333.16 - 331.27$ $= 1.89 \text{ ft}$	<p>For drop structures, the HGL is the same as the EGL</p> <p>Col. 8B</p>
Step 20	Col. 15A	$U/S \text{ TOC} = \text{Inv.} + \text{Dia.}$ $U/S \text{ TOC} = 344.06 + 2.0$ $U/S \text{ TOC} = 346.06 \text{ ft}$	From storm drain comp. sheet (Figure 3.2-31)
Step 21	Col. 16A	$\text{Surf. Elev.} = 347.76 \text{ ft}$ $347.76 > 333.09$	<p>From Figure 3.2-30.</p> <p>Surface elev. exceeds HGL, OK</p>

Step 2	Col. 1A, 1B	Str. ID = 43	Drop Structure - new start
	Col. 15A	U/S TOC = 344.06 + 2.0 = 346.06	
	Col. 16A	Surface Elev = 347.76	
Step 3		HGL' = inv. + (d _c +D)/2	Calculate new HGL - Use Case 2
		HGL' = 344.06 + (0.80 + 2.0)/2	dc from Figure 3.2-18b
	Col. 14A	HGL = 345.46 ft	
		EGL = HGL + V ² /2g	V = 2.6 fps from Prelim. Comp. Sht.
		EGL = 345.46 + 0.10	
	Col. 13A	EGL = 345.56 ft	

Structure 42

Step 4	Col. 1A	Str. ID = 42	
	Col. 2A	D = 2.0 ft	Pipe Diameter
	Col. 3A	Q = 6.75 cfs	Conduit discharge (design value)
	Col. 4A	L = 14.1 ft	Conduit length
Step 5A	Col. 5A	V = 2.6 ft/s	For flow: Actual velocity from storm drain computation sheet.
	Col. 6A	Q/Q _f = 6.75 / 7.12 = 0.95	Figure 3.2-31
		d _n = 1.56 ft Chart 26	
	Col. 7A	V ² /2g = (2.6) ² /(2)(32.2)	Velocity head in conduit
		V ² /2g = 0.10 ft	
Step 5B	Col. 6bA	d _c = 0.80 ft	From HDS-5
Step 5C		d _n < d _c	Flow is subcritical
Step 6	Col. 8A	S _f = 0.001	Conduit not full so S _f = pipe slope
			d _n = 1.56 (Figure 3.2.18a)
			d _c = 0.80 (HDS-5)
			Flow is subcritical
Step 7		H _f = S _f L	Equation 3.2.27
		H _f = (0.001) (14.1)	Col. 8A x Col. 5A
	Col. 2B	H _f = 0.014 ft	
		h _b , H _c , H _e , H _j = 0	
	Col. 7B and 9A	Total = 0.014 ft	
Step 8		EGL _o = EGL _i + total pipe loss	Col. 14A plus Col. 9A
	Col. 10A	EGL _o = 345.56 + 0.014	
		EGL _o = 345.57 ft	

Step 9	Col. 8B	$d_{aho} = EGL_o - \text{velocity head} - \text{pipe invert}$ $d_{aho} = 345.57 - 0.10 - 344.07$ $d_{aho} = 1.40 \text{ ft}$	Col. 10A - Column 7A - pipe invert
Step 10	Col. 9B	$K_o = 0.1(b/D_o)(1 - \sin \theta) + 1.4(b/D_o)^{0.15} \sin \theta$ $b = 4.0 \text{ ft}$ $D_o = 2.0 \text{ ft}$ $\theta = 90^\circ$ $K_o = 0.1(4.0/2.0)(1 - \sin 90) +$ $1.4(4.0/2.0)^{0.15} \sin 90$ $K_o = 1.55$	Equation 3.2.38 Access hole diameter. Col. 2A - outlet pipe diam Flow deflection angle
Step 11	Col. 10B	$C_D = (D_o/D_i)^3$ $d_{aho} = 1.40$ $d_{aho}/D_o = (1.40/2.0)$ $d_{aho}/D_o = 0.70 < 3.2$ $C_D = 1.0$	Equation 3.2.39; pipe diameter Column 8B therefore
Step 12	Col. 11B	$C_d = 0.5 (d_{aho}/D_o)^{0.6}$ $d_{aho}/D_o = 0.70 < 3.2$ $C_d = 0.5 (1.4/2.0)^{0.6}$ $C_d = 0.40$	Equation 3.2.40; Flow depth correction.
Step 13	Col. 12B	$C_Q = (1 - 2 \sin \theta)(1 - Q_i/Q_o)^{0.75+1}$ $C_Q = 1.0$	Equation 3.2.41; relative flow No additional pipes entering
Step 14	Col. 13B	$C_p = 1 + 0.2(h/D_o)[(h-d)/D_o]$ $C_p = 1.0$	Equation 3.2.42; plunging flow No plunging flow
Step 15	Col. 14B	$C_B = 1.0$	Benching Correction, flat floor (Table 3.2-15)

Step 16	Col. 15B and 11A	$K = K_o C_D C_d C_Q C_p C_B$ $K = (1.55)(1.0)(0.40)(1.0)(1.0)(1.0)$ $K = 0.62$	Equation 3.2.37
Step 17	Col. 12A	$K(V^2/2g) = (0.62)(0.10)$ $K(V^2/2g) = 0.06 \text{ ft}$	Col. 11A times Col. 7A
Step 18	Col. 13A	$EGL_i = EGL_o + K(V^2/2g)$ $EGL_i = 346.05 + 0.06$ $EGL_i = 346.11$	Col. 10A plus 12A
Step 19	Col. 14A	$HGL = EGL_i - V^2/2g$ $HGL = 346.11 - 0.10$ $HGL = 346.01 \text{ ft}$	Col. 13A minus Col. 7A
Step 20	Col 15A	$U/S \text{ TOC} = \text{Inv.} + \text{Dia.}$ $U/S \text{ TOC} = 344.23 + 1.5$ $U/S \text{ TOC} = 345.73 \text{ ft}$	Information from storm drain comp. sheet (Figure 3.2-31)
Step 21	Col 16A	$\text{Surf. Elev.} = 349.31 \text{ ft}$ $349.31 > 345.96$	From Figure 3.2-30 Surface elev. exceeds HGL, OK

Structure 41

Step 4	Col. 1A, 1B, 2A, 3A, 4A	$\text{Str. ID} = 41$ $D = 1.50 \text{ ft}$ $Q = 5.10 \text{ cfs}$ $L = 328 \text{ ft}$	Next Structure Pipe Diameter Conduit discharge (design value) Conduit length
Step 5	Part full flow from column's 12 and 15 of storm drain computation sheet.		Continue with Step 5A

Step 5A		$Q/Q_f = 5.1/18.1 = 0.28$ $d/d_f = 0.37$ $d = (0.37)(1.5)$	Figure 3.2-18a
	Col. 6aA	$d = 0.56 \text{ ft}$	
		$V/V_f = 0.84$ $V = (0.84)(10.3)$	Figure 3.2-18a
	Col. 5A	$V = 8.65 \text{ fps}$	
		$V^2/2g = (8.65)^2/(2)(32.2)$ $V^2/2g = 1.16 \text{ ft}$	Velocity head
	Col. 7A		
Step 5B	Col. 6bA	$d_c = 0.85 \text{ ft}$	Figure 3.2-18b
Step 5C		$0.56 < 0.85$	Supercritical flow since $d_n < d_c$
Step 5D	Col. 7B	Total pipe loss = 0	

Structure 40

Step 5E	Col. 1A,1B Col. 2A Col. 3A Col. 4A	Str. Id. = 40 $D = 1.5 \text{ ft}$ $Q = 3.35 \text{ cfs}$ $L = 361.0 \text{ ft}$	Next structure Pipe diameter Conduit discharge (design) Conduit length
Step 5F		$Q/Q_f = 3.3/18.1 = 0.18$ $d/d_c = 0.29$ $d = (0.29)(1.5)$	Figure 3.2-18a
	Col. 6aA	$d = 0.43 \text{ ft}$	
	Col. 6bA	$d_c = 0.7 \text{ ft}$	Figure 3.2-18b

Step 5H		$V/V_f = 0.73$ $V = (0.73)(10.3)$ $V = 7.52 \text{ fps}$	Figure 3.2-18a
	Col. 5A		
	Col. 7A	$V^2/2g = (7.52)^2/(2)(32.2)$ $V^2/2g = 0.88 \text{ ft}$	Velocity head
Step 5I		$d_n = 0.43 \text{ ft} < 0.70 \text{ ft} = d_c$	Supercritical flow since $d_n < d_c$
Step 5K	Col. 11A, and 15B	$K = 0.0$	Str. 41 line; supercritical flow; no structure losses
	Col. 12A	$K(V^2/2g) = 0$	

Since both conduits 42-41 and 41-40 are supercritical - establish HGL and EGL at each side of access hole 41.

		HGL = Inv. + d HGL = 354.07 + 0.56 HGL = 354.63 ft EGL = 354.63 + 1.16 HGL + velocity head	D/S Invert + Flow depth
	Col. 10A	EGL = 355.79 ft	EGL _o of Str.41
		HGL = 354.67 + 0.43	U/S invert + Flow depth
	Col. 14A	HGL = 355.10 ft	Highest HGL
		EGL = 355.10 + 0.88	HGL + velocity head
	Col. 13A	EGL = 355.98 ft	EGL _i of Str. 41
Step 20	Col. 15A	U/S TOC = Inv. + Dia. U/S TOC = 354.67 + 1.5 U/S TOC = 356.17 ft	Information from storm drain comp Sheet (Figure 3.2-31) for Str. 41
Step 21	Col. 16A	Surf. Elev. = 360.0 ft 360.0 > 355.10	From Figure 3.2-30. Surface elev. > HGL, OK

Step 10b	Col. 8B	$d_{aho} = 0.67 (1.5) = 1.0 \text{ ft}$ HGL = Str. 40 Inv. + d_{aho} HGL = 365.50 + 1.0.	Figure 3.3-2a, HW/D = 0.67 Structure Inv. from storm drain comp. sheet
	Col. 14A Col. 13A	HGL = 366.50 ft EGL = 366.50 ft	Assume no velocity in str.
Step 20	Col. 15A	U/S TOC = Inv. + Dia. U/S TOC = 365.5 + 1.5 U/S TOC = 367.0 ft	Information from storm drain comp. sheet (Figure 3.2-31) for Str. 40
Step 21	Col. 16A	Surf. Elev. = 370.0 ft 370.0 ft > 366.50 ft	From Figure 3.2-30 Surface Elev. > HGL, OK

See Figures 3.2-31 and 3.2-32 for the tabulation of results. The final HGL values are indicated in Figure 3.2-30.

Section 3.3 – General Design & Construction Standards

Materials

Only reinforced concrete, high-performance polypropylene, steel reinforced polyethylene, and high-density polyethylene pipe are allowed under pavement for public storm drains in the City of Texarkana.

Thermoplastic storm drain shall be installed in accordance with all manufacturer's specifications and shall meet or exceed ASTM D-2321, Standard Practice for Underground Installation of Thermoplastic Pipe for Sewers and Other Gravity-Flow Applications. Furthermore, Class I aggregate shall be required for pipe embedment (to a minimum of 6" above the top of pipe).

In selecting roughness coefficients for concrete pipe, consideration will be given to the average conditions at the site during the useful life of the structure. The 'n' value of 0.015 for concrete pipe shall be used primarily in analyzing old sewers where alignment is poor and joints have become rough. If, for example, concrete pipe is being designed at a location where it is considered suitable, and there is reason to believe that the roughness would increase through erosion or corrosion of the interior surface, slight displacement of joints or entrance of foreign materials. A roughness coefficient will be selected which in the judgment of the designer, will represent the average condition. Any selection of 'n' values below the minimum or above the maximum, either for monolithic concrete structures, concrete pipe or HDPE, will have to have written approval of the Director of Public Works.

The hydraulic grade line shall in no case be above the surface of the ground or street gutter for the design storm. Allowance of head must also be provided for future extensions of the storm drainage system. In all cases the maximum HGL must be 12" below top of curb at any inlet.

Utilities

In the design of a storm drainage system, the engineer is frequently confronted with the problem of crossings between the proposed storm drain and existing or proposed utilities such as water, gas and sanitary sewer lines. The City of Texarkana prefers a minimum of 2 feet of clearance with all conflicting utilities. All utilities in the vicinity of a proposed storm drain shall be clearly indicated on both plan and profile sheets.

Headwalls, Culverts, and Other Structures

For headwalls, culverts and other structures, Standard Construction Details adopted by the City of Texarkana shall be used. The appropriate detail sheets for non-standard structures should be included in any construction plans. All headwalls and culverts should be extended to or beyond the street right-of-way.

Minimum Pipe Sizes and Depths

Minimum pipe sizes are 24" diameter for mains and 15" diameter for inlet leads. Minimum sizes of conduits of other shapes should have equivalent cross-sectional areas. Minimum depth of storm sewer from outside top of conduit to top of curb is 30 inches.

Pipe Connections and Curved Alignment

Prefabricated wye and tee connections supplied by the pipe manufacturer are required. Radial pipe can also be fabricated by the pipe manufacturer and shall be used through all curved alignments. However, designers should use bends or large radius curves where practical. When field connections or field radii must be used, all joints and gaps must be fully grouted with a collar to prevent voids and cave-ins caused by material washout into the storm drain.

Inlets

Curb inlets shall be 5, 10, 15 or 20 feet in length. Proposed inlet lengths greater than 20 feet must be approved by the Director of Public Works. Care should be taken in laying out inlets to allow for adequate driveway access between the inlet and the far property line.

Streets

To minimize standing water, the minimum street grade shall be 0.50%. Along a curve, this grade shall be measured along the outer gutter line. The minimum grade along a cul-de-sac or elbow gutter shall be 0.50%. Alternatively, elbows may be designed with a valley gutter along the normal outer gutter line, with two percent cross slope from curb to the valley gutter. The minimum grade for any valley gutter shall be 0.50%. Where a crest or sag is designed on a residential street, a PVI shall be used instead of a vertical curve where the total gradient change is no more than two percent ($\Delta \leq 2.0\%$).

Flow in Driveways and Intersections

At any intersection, only one street shall be crossed with surface drainage and this street shall be the lower classified street. Where an alley or street intersects a street, inlets shall be placed in the intersecting alley or street whenever the combination of flow down the alley or intersecting street would cause the capacity of the downstream street to be exceeded. Inlets shall be placed upstream from an intersection whenever possible.

All driveways shall be sloped up from the gutter line to the right of way and further into the property if necessary, in order to maintain 6" of gutter flow in the street section. It is important that the designer consider the breakover angle of the driveway and consider including a vertical curve if required to protect against vehicles dragging or scraping against the pavement. A mountable or rollover curb shall be allowed to increase gutter depth across a driveway.

The cumulative flows from existing driveways shall be considered and inlets provided as necessary where the flow exceeds the specified design capacity of the street.

Section 3.4 – Easements for Closed Conduit Systems

Minimum easement requirements for storm sewer pipe shall be as follows:

Pipe Size	Minimum Easement Width Required
39" and under	15 Feet
42" through 54"	20 Feet
60" through 66"	25 Feet
72" through 102"	30 Feet

The outside face of the proposed storm drain line shall be placed at least five (5) feet off either edge of the storm drain easement. The proposed centerline of overflow swales shall normally coincide with the centerline of the easement.

Box culverts shall have an easement width equal to the width of the box plus twenty (20) additional feet. The edge of the box should be located at least five (5) feet from either edge of the easement.

Drainage easements will generally extend beyond an outfall headwall to provide for velocity dissipation devices and an area for maintenance operations. Drainage easements along a required outfall channel or ditch shall be provided until the flowline reaches an acceptable outfall.

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CHAPTER 4 – HYDRAULIC DESIGN OF CULVERTS, BRIDGES, OPEN CHANNELS, AND DETENTION STRUCTURES

Section 4.1 – Stormwater Open Channels, Culverts, Bridges, and Detention Structure Design Overview

4.1.1 – Stormwater System Design

4.1.1.1 Introduction

Stormwater system design is an integral component of both site and overall stormwater management design. Good drainage design must strive to maintain compatibility and minimize interference with existing drainage patterns; control flooding of property, structures, and roadways for design flood events; and minimize potential environmental impacts on stormwater runoff.

4.1.1.2 System Components

The stormwater system components consist of all the *integrated* site design practices and stormwater controls utilized on the site. Three considerations largely shape the design of the stormwater systems: water quality, streambank protection, and flood control.

The on-site flood control systems are designed to remove stormwater from areas such as streets and sidewalks for public safety reasons. The drainage system can consist of inlets, street and roadway gutters, roadside ditches, small channels and swales, stormwater ponds and wetlands, and small underground pipe systems which collect stormwater runoff from mid-frequency storms and transport it to structural control facilities, pervious areas, and/or the larger stormwater systems (i.e., natural waterways, large man-made conduits, and large water impoundments).

The stormwater (major) system consists of natural waterways, open channels, large man-made conduits, and large water impoundments. In addition, the major system includes some less obvious drainage ways such as overload relief swales and infrequent temporary ponding areas. The stormwater system includes not only the trunk line system that receives the water, but also the natural overland relief which functions in case of overflow from or failure of the on-site flood control system. Overland relief must not flood or damage houses, buildings or other property.

This chapter is intended to provide design criteria and guidance on several on-site flood control system components, including culverts (Section 4.2), bridges (Section 4.3), vegetated and lined open channels (Section 4.4), storage design (Section 4.5), outlet structures (Section 4.6), and energy dissipation devices for outlet protection (Section 4.7). The rest of this section covers important considerations to keep in mind in the planning and design of stormwater drainage facilities.

4.1.1.3 Checklist for Planning and Design

The following is a general procedure for drainage system design on a development site.

- A. Analyze topography, including:
 1. Check off-site drainage pattern. Where is water coming onto the site? Where is water leaving the site?
 2. Check on-site topography for surface runoff and storage, and infiltration
 - a. Determine runoff pattern: high points, ridges, valleys, streams, and swales. Where is the water going?
 - b. Overlay the grading plan and indicate watershed areas: calculate square footage (acreage), points of concentration, low points, etc.
- B. Analyze other site conditions, including:
 1. Land use and physical obstructions such as walks, drives, parking, patios, landscape edging, fencing, grassed area, landscaped area, tree roots, etc.
 2. Soil type (infiltration rates).
 3. Vegetative cover (slope protection).
- C. Check potential drainage outlets and methods, including:
 1. On-site (structural control, receiving water)
 2. Off-site (highway, storm drain, receiving water, regional control)
 3. Natural drainage system (swales)
 4. Existing drainage system (drain pipe)
 4. Analyze areas for probable location of drainage structures and facilities.
 5. Identify the type and size of drainage system components required. Design the drainage system and integrate with the overall stormwater management system and plan.

4.1.2 – Key Issues in Stormwater System Design

4.1.2.1 Introduction

The traditional design of stormwater systems has been to collect and convey stormwater runoff as rapidly as possible to a suitable location where it can be discharged. This manual takes a different approach wherein the design methodologies and concepts of drainage design are to be integrated with the objectives for water quantity and quality control. This means:

- Stormwater systems are to remove water efficiently enough to meet flood protection criteria and level of service requirements, and
- These systems are to complement the ability of the site design and structural stormwater controls to mitigate the major stormwater impacts of urban development.

The following are some of the key issues in integrating water quantity and quality control consideration in stormwater system design.

4.1.2.2 General Design Considerations

- Stormwater systems should be planned and designed so as to generally conform to natural drainage patterns and discharge to natural drainage pathways within a drainage basin. These natural drainage pathways should only be modified as a last resort to contain and safely convey the peak flows generated by the development.
- Runoff must be discharged in a manner that will not cause adverse impacts on downstream properties or stormwater systems. In general, runoff from development sites within a drainage basin should be discharged at the existing natural drainage outlet or outlets. If the developer wishes to change discharge points he or she must demonstrate that the change will not have any adverse impacts on downstream properties or stormwater (minor) systems.
- It is important to ensure that the combined on-site flood control system and major stormwater system can handle blockages and flows in excess of the design capacity to minimize the likelihood of nuisance flooding or damage to private properties. If failure of minor stormwater systems and/or major stormwater structures occurs during these periods, the risk to life and property could be significantly increased.
- In establishing the layout of stormwater systems, it is essential to ensure that flows are not diverted onto private property during flows up to the major stormwater system design capacity.

4.1.2.3 Culverts

- Culverts can serve double duty as flow retarding structures in grass channel design. Care should be taken to design them as storage control structures if depths exceed several feet, and to ensure safety during flows.
- Improved entrance designs can absorb considerable slope and energy for steeper sloped designs, thus helping to protect channels.

4.1.2.4 Bridges

- Bridges enable streams to maintain flow conveyance.
- Bridges are usually designed so that they are not submerged.
- Bridges may be vulnerable to failure from flood-related causes.
- Flow velocities through bridge openings should not cause scour within the bridge opening or in the stream reaches adjacent to the bridge.

4.1.2.5 Open Channels

- Open channels provide opportunities for reduction of flow peaks and pollution loads. They may be designed as wet or dry enhanced swales or grass channels.
- Channels can be designed with natural meanders improving both aesthetics and pollution removal through increased contact time.
- Grass channels generally provide better habitat than hardened channel sections, though studies have shown that riprap interstices provide significant habitat as well. Velocities

should be carefully checked at design flows and the outer banks at bends should be specifically designed for increased shear stress and super elevation.

- Compound sections can be developed to carry the annual flow in the lower section and higher flows above them. Figure 4.1-1 illustrates a compound section that carries 2% of the 100-year storm and 100-year flood flows within banks. This reduces channel erosion at lower flows, and meandering, self-forming low flow channels that attack banks. The shelf in the compound section should have a minimum 1:12 slope to ensure drainage.

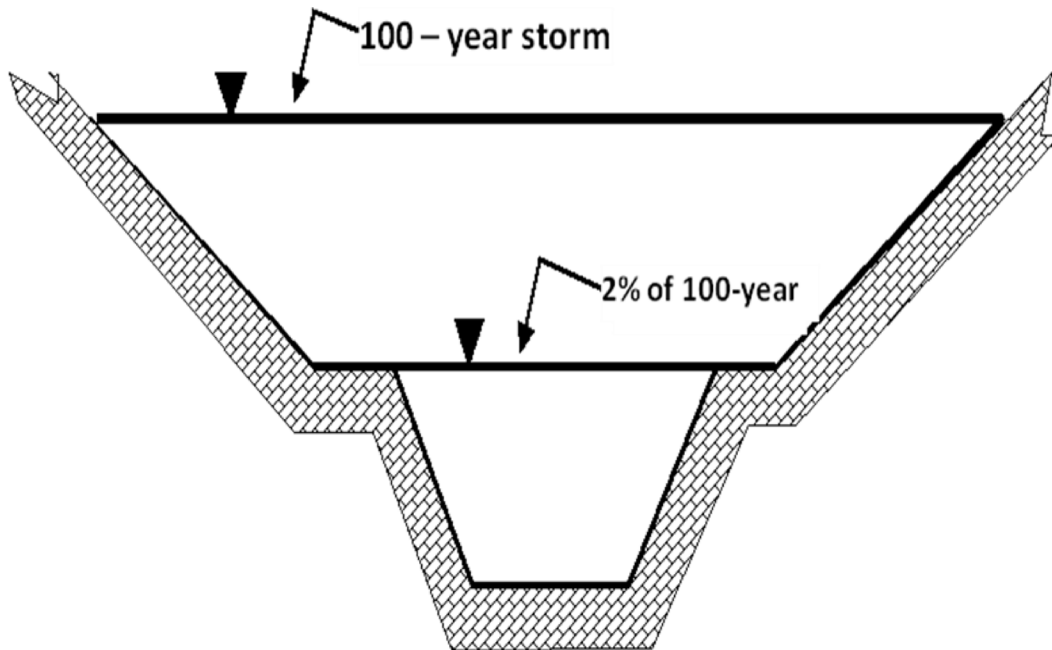


Figure 4.1-1 Compound Channel

- Flow control structures can be placed in the channels to increase residence time. Higher flows should be calculated using a channel slope from the top of the cross piece to the next one if it is significantly different from the channel bottom for normal depth calculations. Channel slope stability can also be ensured through the use of grade control structures that can serve as pollution reduction enhancements if they are set above the channel bottom. Regular maintenance is necessary to remove sediment and keep the channels from aggrading and losing capacity for larger flows.

4.1.2.6 Storage Design

- Stormwater storage within a stormwater system is essential to providing the extended detention of flows for water quality treatment and downstream streambank protection, as well as for peak flow attenuation of larger flows for flood protection.
- Runoff storage can be provided within an on-site flood control system through the use of structural stormwater controls and/or nonstructural features.
- Stormwater storage can be provided by detention, extended detention, or retention.
- Storage facilities may be provided on-site, or as regional facilities designed to manage stormwater runoff from multiple projects.

4.1.2.7 Outlet Structures

- Outlet structures provide the critical function of the regulation of flow for structural stormwater controls.
- Outlet structures may consist of a single stage outlet structure, or several outlet structures combined to provide multi-stage outlet control.
- Smaller, more protected outlet structures should be used for water quality and streambank protection flows.
- Large flows, such as flood flows, are typically handled through a broad crested weir, a riser with different sized openings, a drop inlet structure, or a spillway through an embankment.

4.1.2.8 Energy Dissipators

- Energy dissipators should be designed to return flows to non-eroding velocities to protect downstream channels.
- Care must be taken during construction that design criteria are followed exactly. The designs presented in this Manual have been carefully developed through model and full-scale tests. Each part of the criteria is important to their proper function.

4.1.3 Design Storm Recommendations

Listed below are the design storm recommendations for various stormwater drainage system components to be designed and constructed in accordance with the minimum stormwater management standards.

Roadway Culvert Design

100-year storm for fully developed watershed conditions **unless Open Channel Design (Section 4.4), FEMA or TxDOT criteria control.**

Bridge Design

100-year storm for fully developed watershed conditions.

Open Channel Design

100-year storm for fully developed watershed conditions. For roadside ditches 10-year storm in ditch and 100-year storm in roadway right-of-way.

Energy Dissipation Design

100-year design for fully developed watershed conditions.

Storage (Detention Basin Design)

2-year, 10-year and 100-year storm for the critical storm duration (i.e. 3 hour, 6 hour or 24 hour duration) that results in the maximum (or near maximum) peak flow. Analysis should consider both existing watershed plus developed site conditions and fully developed watershed conditions.

Section 4.2 – Culvert Design

4.2.1 Overview

A *culvert* is a short, closed (covered) conduit conveying stormwater runoff under an embankment or away from the street right-of-way. The primary purpose of a culvert is to convey surface water, but properly designed it may also be used to restrict flow and reduce downstream peak flows.

The hydraulic and structural designs of a culvert must be such that minimal risks to traffic, property damage, and failure from floods prove the results of good engineering practice and economics. For economy and hydraulic efficiency, engineers should design culverts to operate with the inlet submerged during flood flows, if conditions permit. Design considerations include site and roadway data, design parameters (including shape, material, and orientation), hydrology (flood magnitude versus frequency relation), & channel analysis (stage versus discharge relation).

4.2.2 – Symbols and Definitions

To provide consistency within this section as well as throughout this Manual the symbols listed in Table 4.2-1 will be used. These symbols were selected because of their wide use.

Symbol	Definition	Units
A	Area of cross section of flow	ft ²
B	Barrel width	ft
C _d	Overtopping discharge coefficient	-
D	Culvert diameter or barrel depth	in or ft
d	Depth of flow	ft
d _c	Critical depth of flow	ft
d _u	Uniform depth of flow	ft
g	Acceleration of gravity	ft/s
H _f	Depth of pool or head, above the face section of invert	ft
h _o	Height of hydraulic grade line above outlet invert	ft
HW	Headwater depth above invert of culvert (depth from inlet invert to upstream total energy grade line)	ft
K _e	Inlet loss coefficient	-
L	Length of culvert	ft
N	Number of barrels	-
Q	Rate of discharge	cfs
S	Slope of culvert	ft/f
TW	Tailwater depth above invert of culvert	ft
V	Mean velocity of flow	ft/s
V _c	Critical velocity	ft/s

4.2.3 – Design Criteria

The design of a culvert should take into account many different engineering and technical aspects at the culvert site and adjacent areas. The following design criteria should be considered for all culvert designs as applicable.

4.2.3.1 Frequency Flood

City of Texarkana requires a 100-year design storm for fully developed watershed with headwater (HW – upstream WSEL) 1' below the adjacent curb. Only reinforced concrete culvert structures are acceptable.

The 100-year frequency storm shall be routed through all culverts to be sure building structures (e.g., houses, commercial buildings) are not flooded or increased damage does not occur to the highway or adjacent property for this design event.

4.2.3.2 Velocity Limitations

Both minimum and maximum velocities should be considered when designing a culvert. The maximum velocity should be consistent with channel stability requirements at the culvert outlet. Corrugated metal pipe is NOT to be used within City right-of-way or easements. There is no specified maximum allowable velocity for reinforced concrete pipe, but outlet protection shall be provided where discharge velocities will cause erosion problems. To ensure self-cleaning during partial depth flow, a minimum velocity of 2.5 feet per second, for the 1-year flow, when the culvert is flowing partially full is required.

4.2.3.3 Buoyancy Protection

Headwalls, endwalls, slope paving, or other means of anchoring to provide buoyancy protection should be considered for all flexible culverts.

4.2.3.4 Length and Slope

The culvert length and slope should be chosen to approximate existing topography and, to the degree practicable, the culvert invert should be aligned with the channel bottom and the skew angle of the stream, and the culvert entrance should match the geometry of the roadway embankment. The maximum slope using concrete pipe is 10% and for CMP is 14% before pipe-restraining methods must be taken. Maximum vertical distance from throat of intake to flowline in a drainage structure is 10 feet. Drops greater than 4 feet will require additional structural design.

4.2.3.5 Debris Control

In designing debris control structures, it is recommended that the Hydraulic Engineering Circular No. 9 entitled *Debris Control Structures* be consulted.

4.2.3.6 Headwater Limitations

Headwater is water above the culvert invert at the entrance end of the culvert. The allowable headwater elevation is that elevation above which damage may be caused to adjacent property and/or the roadway and is determined from an evaluation of land use upstream of the culvert and the proposed or existing roadway elevation. It is this allowable headwater depth that is the primary basis for sizing a culvert.

The following criteria related to headwater should be considered:

- The *allowable headwater* is the depth of water that can be ponded at the upstream end of the culvert during the design flood, which will be limited by one or more of the following constraints or conditions:
 1. Headwater be non-damaging to upstream property.
 2. Ponding depth be no greater than the low point in the road grade unless overflow has been allowed by the roadway design or at the applicable design criteria, such as the 5-year or 10-year flood level.
 3. Ponding depth be no greater than the elevation where flow diverts around the culvert.
 4. Elevations established to delineate floodplain zoning.
 5. 18-inch (or applicable) freeboard requirements.
- The headwater should be checked for the 100-year flood to ensure compliance with flood plain management criteria and for most facilities the culvert should be sized to maintain flood-free conditions on major thoroughfares with 18-inch freeboard at the low-point of the road.
- The maximum acceptable outlet velocity should be identified (see subsection 4.4.3).
- Either the headwater should be set to produce acceptable velocities, or stabilization or energy dissipation should be provided where these velocities are exceeded.
- In general, the constraint that gives the lowest allowable headwater elevation establishes the criteria for the hydraulic calculations.
- Other site-specific design considerations should be addressed as required.

4.2.3.7 Tailwater Considerations

The hydraulic conditions downstream of the culvert site must be evaluated to determine a tailwater depth for a range of discharge. At times there may be a need for calculating backwater curves to establish the tailwater conditions. The following conditions must be considered:

- If the culvert outlet is operating with a free outfall, the critical depth and equivalent hydraulic grade line should be determined.

- For culverts that discharge to an open channel, the stage-discharge curve for the channel must be determined. See Section 4.4, *Open Channel Design*.
- If an upstream culvert outlet is located near a downstream culvert inlet, the headwater elevation of the downstream culvert may establish the design tailwater depth for the upstream culvert.
- If the culvert discharges to a lake, pond, or other major water body, the expected high water elevation of the particular water body may establish the culvert tailwater.

4.2.3.8 Storage

If storage is being assumed or will occur upstream of the culvert, refer to subsection 4.2.4.6 regarding storage routing as part of the culvert design.

4.2.3.9 Culvert Inlets

Hydraulic efficiency and cost can be significantly affected by inlet conditions. The inlet coefficient K_e , is a measure of the hydraulic efficiency of the inlet, with lower values indicating greater efficiency. Recommended inlet coefficients are given in Table 4.2-2.

4.2.3.10 Inlets with Headwalls

Headwalls may be used for a variety of reasons, including increasing the efficiency of the inlet, providing embankment stability, providing embankment protection against erosion, providing protection from buoyancy, and shortening the length of the required structure. Headwalls are required for all metal culverts and where buoyancy protection is necessary. If high headwater depths are to be encountered, or the approach velocity in the channel will cause scour, a short channel apron should be provided at the toe of the headwall.

This apron should extend at least one pipe diameter upstream from the entrance, and the top of the apron should not protrude above the normal streambed elevation.

4.2.3.11 Wingwalls and Aprons

Wingwalls are used where the side slopes of the channel adjacent to the entrance are unstable or where the culvert is skewed to the normal channel flow.

4.2.3.12 Improved Inlets

Where inlet conditions control the amount of flow that can pass through the culvert, improved inlets can greatly increase the hydraulic performance of the culvert.

4.2.3.13 Material Selection

Reinforced concrete pipe (RCP), pre-cast and cast in place concrete boxes are recommended for use (1) under a roadway, (2) when pipe slopes are less than 1%, or (3) for all flowing streams.

RCP and fully coated corrugated metal pipe can be used in all other cases. High-density polyethylene (HDPE) pipe may also be used as specified in the municipal regulations. Table 4.2-3 gives recommended Manning's n values for different materials.

4.2.3.14 Culvert Skews

Culvert skews shall not exceed 45 degrees as measured from a line perpendicular to the roadway centerline without approval.

4.2.3.15 Culvert Sizes

The minimum allowable pipe diameter shall be 18 inches.

4.2.3.16 Weep Holes

Weep holes are sometimes used to relieve uplift pressure on headwalls and concrete rip-rap. Filter materials should be used in conjunction with the weep holes in order to intercept the flow and prevent the formation of piping channels through the fill embankment. The filter materials should be designed as an underdrain filter so as not to become clogged and so that piping cannot occur through the pervious material and the weep hole.

Table 4.2-2 Inlet Coefficients	
Type of Structure and Design of Entrance	Coefficient K_e
Pipe, Concrete	
Projecting from fill, socket end (groove-end)	0.2
Projecting from fill, square cut end	0.5
Headwall or headwall and wingwalls	
Socket end of pipe (groove-end)	0.2
Square-edge	0.5
Rounded [radius = 1/12(D)]	0.2
Mitered to conform to fill slope	0.7
*End-Section conforming to fill slope	0.5
Beveled edges, 33.7° or 45° bevels	0.2
Side- or slope-tapered inlet	0.2
Pipe, or Pipe-Arch, Corrugated Metal ¹	0.9
Projecting from fill (no headwall)	0.5
Headwall or headwall and wingwalls square-edge	0.7
Mitered to fill slope, paved or unpaved slope	0.5
*End Section conforming to fill slope	0.2
Beveled edges, 33.7° or 45° bevels	0.2
Slide- or slope-tapered inlet	
Box, Reinforced Concrete	
Headwall parallel to embankment (no wingwalls)	
Square-edged on 3 edges	0.5
Rounded on 3 edges to radius of [1/12(D)] or [1/12(B)] or beveled edges on 3 sides	0.2
Wingwalls at 30° to 75° to barrel	
Square-edged at crown	0.4
Crown edge rounded to radius of [1/12(D)] or beveled top edge	0.2
Wingwalls at 10° or 25° to barrel	
Square-edged at crown	0.5
Wingwalls parallel (extension of sides)	
Square-edged at crown	0.7
Side- or slope-tapered inlet	0.2

¹ Although laboratory tests have not been completed on K_e values for High-Density Polyethylene (HDPE) pipes, the K_e values for corrugated metal pipes are recommended for HDPE pipes.

* Note: "End Section conforming to fill slope", made of either metal or concrete, are the sections commonly available from manufacturers. From limited hydraulic tests they are equivalent in operation to a headwall in both inlet and outlet control. Some end sections incorporating a closed taper in their design have a superior hydraulic performance. These latter sections can be designed using the information given for the beveled inlet.

Source: HDS No. 5, 2001

Table 4.2-3 Manning's n Values		
Type of Conduit	Wall & Joint Description	Manning's n
Concrete Pipe	Good joints, smooth walls	0.012
	Good joints, rough walls	0.016
	Poor joints, rough walls	0.017
Concrete Box	Good joints, smooth finished walls	0.012
	Poor joints, rough, unfinished walls	0.018
High Density Polyethylene (HDPE)	Corrugated Smooth Liner	0.015
	Corrugated	0.020
Polyvinyl Chloride (PVC)		0.011

Source: HDS No. 5, 2001

Note: For further information concerning Manning n values for selected conduits consult Hydraulic Design of Highway Culverts, Federal Highway Administration, 2001, HDS No. 5, pages 201 - 208.

4.2.3.17 Outlet Protection

See Section 4.5 for information on the design of outlet protection.

4.2.3.18 Erosion and Sediment Control

Erosion and sediment control shall be in accordance with the latest approved Stormwater Management Ordinance for City of Texarkana.

4.2.3.19 Environmental Considerations

Where compatible with good hydraulic engineering, a site should be selected that will permit the culvert to be constructed to cause the least impact on the stream or wetlands. This selection must consider the entire site, including any necessary lead channels.

4.2.3.20 Safety Considerations

Roadside safety should be considered for culverts crossing under roadways. Guardrails or safety end treatments may be needed to enhance safety at culvert crossings. The AASHTO roadside design guide should be consulted for culvert designs under and adjacent to roadways

4.2.4 Design Procedures

4.2.4.1 Types of Flow Control

There are two types of flow conditions for culverts that are based upon the location of the control section and the critical flow depth (See Figure 4.2-1):

Inlet Control – Inlet control occurs when the culvert barrel is capable of conveying more flow than the inlet will accept. This typically happens when a culvert is operating on a steep slope. The control section of a culvert is located just inside the entrance. Critical depth occurs at or near this location, and the flow regime immediately downstream is supercritical.

Outlet Control – Outlet control flow occurs when the culvert barrel is not capable of conveying as much flow as the inlet opening will accept. The control section for outlet control flow in a culvert is located at the barrel exit or further downstream. Either subcritical or pressure flow exists in the culvert barrel under these conditions.

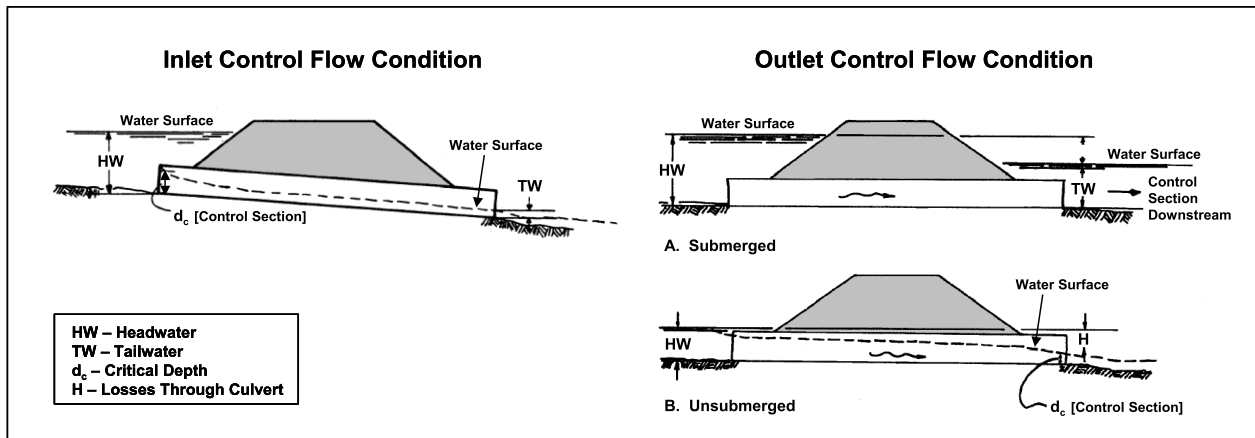


Figure 4.2-1 Culvert Flow Conditions

(Adapted from: HDS-5, 2001)

Proper culvert design and analysis requires checking for both inlet and outlet control to determine which will govern particular culvert designs. For more information on inlet and outlet control, see the FHWA Hydraulic Design of Highway Culverts, HDS-5, 2001.

4.2.4.2 Procedures

The culvert design process includes the following basic stages:

1. Define the location, orientation, shape, and material for the culvert to be designed. In many instances, consider more than single shape and material.
2. With consideration of the site data, establish allowable outlet velocity and maximum allowable depth of barrel.
3. Based upon subject discharges, associated tailwater levels, and allowable headwater level, define an overall culvert configuration to be analyzed (culvert hydraulic length, entrance conditions, and conduit shape and material).
4. Determine the flow type (supercritical or subcritical) to establish the proper path for determination of headwater and outlet velocity.
5. Optimize the culvert configuration.
6. Treat any excessive outlet velocity separately from headwater.

There are three procedures for designing culverts: inlet control design equations, manual use of inlet and outlet control nomographs, and the use computer programs such as HY8. It is recommended that the HY8 computer model or equivalent be used for culvert design. The computer software package HYDRAIN, which includes HY8, uses the theoretical basis from the nomographs to size culverts. In addition, this software can evaluate improved inlets, route hydrographs, consider road overtopping, and evaluate outlet streambed scour. By using water surface profiles, this procedure is more accurate in predicting backwater effects and outlet scour.

4.2.4.3 Inlet Control Design Equations

This section contains explanations of the equations and methods used to develop the design charts in HDS No. 5, where those equations and methods are not fully described in the main text. The following topics are discussed: the design equations for the unsubmerged and submerged inlet control nomographs, the dimensionless design curves for culvert shapes and sizes without nomographs, and the dimensionless critical depth charts for long span culverts and corrugated metal box culverts.

Inlet Control Nomograph Equations: The design equations used to develop the inlet control nomographs are based on the research conducted by the National Bureau of Standards (NBS) under the sponsorship of the Bureau of Public Roads (now the Federal Highway Administration). Seven progress reports were produced as a result of this research. Of these, the first and fourth through seventh reports dealt with the hydraulics of pipe and box culvert entrances, with and without tapered inlets (4, 7, to 10). These reports were one source of the equation coefficients and exponents, along with other references and unpublished FHWA notes on the development of the nomographs (56 and 57).

The two basic conditions on inlet control depend upon whether the inlet end of the culvert is or is not submerged by the upstream headwater. If the inlet is not submerged, the inlet performs as a weir. If the inlet is submerged, the inlet performs as an orifice. Equations are available for each of the above conditions.

Between the unsubmerged and the submerged conditions, there is a transition zone for which the NBS research provided only limited information. The transition zone is defined empirically by drawing a curve between and tangent to the curves defined by the unsubmerged and submerged equations. In most cases, the transition zone is short and the curve is easily constructed.

Table 4.2-4 contains the unsubmerged and submerged inlet control design equations. Note that there are two forms of the unsubmerged equation. Form (1) is based on the specific head at critical depth, adjusted with two correction factors. Form (2) is an exponential equation similar to a weir equation. Form (1) is preferable from a theoretical standpoint, but Form (2) is easier to apply and is the only documented form of equation for some of the inlet control nomographs.

The constants and the corresponding equation form are given in Table 4.2-5. Table 4.2-5 is arranged in the same order as the design nomographs in section 4.2.4.4, and provides the unsubmerged and submerged equation coefficients for each shape, material, and edge configuration. For the unsubmerged equations, the form of the equation is also noted.

The equations may be used to develop design curves for any conduit shape or size. Careful examination of the equation constants for a given form of equation reveals that there is very little difference between the constants for a given inlet configuration. Therefore, given the necessary conduit geometry for a new shape from the manufacturer, a similar shape is chosen from Table 4.2-5, and the constants are used to develop new design curves. The curves may be quasi-dimensionless, in terms of $Q/AD^{0.5}$ and HW_i/D , or dimensional, in terms of Q and HW_i for a particular conduit size. To make the curves truly dimensionless, $Q/AD^{0.5}$ must be divided by $g^{0.5}$, but this results in small decimal numbers. Note that coefficients for rectangular (Box) shapes should not be used for nonrectangular (circular, arch, pipe-arch, etc.) shapes and vice-versa. A constant slope value of 2 percent (0.02) is usually selected for the development of design curves. This is because the slope effect is small and the resultant headwater is conservatively high for sites with slopes exceeding 2 percent (except for mitered inlets).

Table 4.2-4 Inlet Control Design Equations	
UNSUBMERGED*	
Form (1)	$\frac{HW_i}{D} = \frac{H_c}{D} + K \left(\frac{K_u Q}{AD^{0.5}} \right)^M - 0.5S^{***} \quad (4.2.1)$
Form (2)	$\frac{HW_i}{D} = K \left(\frac{K_u Q}{AD^{0.5}} \right)^M \quad (4.2.2)$
SUBMERGED**	
	$\frac{HW_i}{D} = c \left(\frac{K_u Q}{AD^{0.5}} \right)^2 + Y - 0.5S^{***} \quad (4.2.3)$
Definitions	
HW _i	Headwater depth above inlet control section invert, m (ft)
D	Interior height of culvert barrel, m (ft)
H _c	Specific head at critical depth (d _c + V _c ² /2g), m ² (ft ²)
Q	Discharge, m ³ /s (ft ³ /s)
A	Full cross sectional area of culvert barrel, m ² (ft ²)
S	Culvert barrel slope, m/m (ft/ft)
K, M, c, Y	Constants from Table 4.2-5
K _u	1.811 SI (1.0 English)
* Equations 4.2.1 and 4.2.2 (unsubmerged) apply to about Q/AD ^{0.5} = 1.93 (3.5 English)	
** Equation 4.2.3 (submerged) above applies to about Q/AD ^{0.5} = 2.21 (4.0 English)	
*** For mitered inlets use +0.7 S instead of -0.5 S as the slope correction factor.	

Chart No.	Shape and Material	Nomograph Scale	Inlet Edge Description	Equation Form	Unsubmerged		Submerged		References*
					K	M	c	Y	
1	Circular Concrete	1	Square edge w/ headwall	1	.0098	2.0	.0398	.67	56/57
		2	Groove end w/ headwall		.0018	2.0	.0292	.74	
		3	Groove end projecting		.0045	2.0	.0317	.69	
2	Circular CMP	1	Headwall	1	.0078	2.0	.0379	.69	56/57
		2	Mitered to slope		.0210	1.33	.0463	.75	
		3	Projecting		.0340	1.50	.0553	.54	
3	Circular	A	Beveled ring, 45° bevels	1	.0018	2.50	.0300	.74	57
		B	Beveled ring, 33.7° bevels		.0018	2.50	.0243	.83	
8	Rectangular Box	1	30° to 75° wingwall flares	1	.026	1.0	.0347	.81	56
		2	90° and 15° wingwall flares		.061	.75	.0400	.80	56
		3	0° wingwall flares		.061	.75	.0423	.82	8
9	Rectangular Box	1	45° wingwall flare d = .043D	2	.510	.667	.0309	.80	8
		2	18° to 33.7° wingwall flared = .083D		.486	.667	.0249	.83	
10	Rectangular Box	1	90° headwall w/ 3/4" chamfers	2	.515	.667	.0375	.79	8
		2	90° headwall w/ 45° bevels		.495	.667	.0314	.82	
		3	90° headwall w/ 33.7° bevels		.486	.667	.0252	.865	
11	Rectangular Box	1	3/4" chamfers; 45° skewed headwall	2	.545	.667	.0450	.73	8
		2	3/4" chamfers; 30° skewed headwall		.533	.667	.05	.705	
		3	3/4" chamfers; 15° skewed headwall		.522	.667	.0425	.68	
		4	45° bevels; 10°-45° skewed headwall		.498	.667	.0402	.75	

Table 4.2-5 Constants for Inlet Control Design Equations

Chart No.	Shape and Material	Nomograph Scale	Inlet Edge Description	Equation Form	Unsubmerged		Submerged		References*
					K	M	c	Y	
12	Rectangular Box 3/4" chamfers	1	45° non-offset wingwall flares	2	.497	.667	.0339	.803	8
		2	18.4° non-offset wingwall flares		.493	.667	.0361	.806	
		3	18.4° non-offset wingwall flares		.495	.667	.0386	.71	
			18.4° non-offset wingwall flares 30° skewed barrel						
13	Rectangular Box Top Bevels	1	45° wingwall flares - offset	2	.497	.667	.0302	.835	8
		2	33.7° wingwall flares - offset		.495	.667	.0252	.881	
		3	18.4° wingwall flares - offset		.493	.667	.0227	.887	
16-19	CM Boxes	2	90° headwall	1	.0083	2.0	.0379	.69	57
		3	Thick wall projecting		.0145	1.75	.0419	.64	
		5	Thin wall projecting		.0340	1.5	.0496	.57	
29	Horizontal Ellipse Concrete	1	Square edge w/ headwall	1	.0100	2.0	.0398	.67	57
		2	Groove end w/ headwall		.0018	2.5	.0292	.74	
		3	Groove end projecting		.0045	2.0	.0317	.69	
30	Vertical Ellipse Concrete	1	Square edge w/ headwall	1	.0100	2.0	.0398	.67	57
		2	Groove end w/ headwall		.0018	2.5	.0292	.74	
		3	Groove end projecting		.0095	2.0	.0317	.69	
34	Pipe Arch 18" Corner Radius CM	1	90° headwall	1	.0083	2.0	.0379	.69	57
		2	Mitered to slope		.0300	1.0	.0463	.75	
		3	Projecting		.0340	1.5	.0496	.57	
35	Pipe Arch 18" Corner Radius CM	1	Projecting	1	.0300	1.5	.0496	.57	56
		2	No Bevels		.0088	2.0	.0368	.68	
		3	33.7° Bevels		.0030	2.0	.0269	.77	

Table 4.2-5 Constants for Inlet Control Design Equations

Chart No.	Shape and Material	Nomograph Scale	Inlet Edge Description	Equation Form	Unsubmerged		Submerged		References*
					K	M	c	Y	
36	Pipe Arch 31" Corner Radius CM	1	Projecting	1	.0300	1.5	.0496	.57	56
			No Bevels		.0088	2.0	.0368	.68	
			33.7° Bevels		.0030	2.0	.0269	.77	
41-43	Arch CM	1	90° headwall	1	.0083	2.0	.0379	.69	57
			Mitered to slope	2	.0300	1.0	.0463	.75	
			Thin wall projecting	3	.0340	1.5	.0496	.57	
55	Circular	1	Smooth tapered inlet throat	2	.534	.555	.0196	.90	3
			Rough tapered inlet throat	2	.519	.64	.0210	.90	
56	Elliptical Inlet Face	1	Tapered inlet-beveled edges	2	.536	.622	.0368	.83	3
			Tapered inlet-square edges	3	.5035	.719	.0478	.80	
			Tapered inlet-thin edge projecting		.547	.80	.0598	.75	
57	Rectangular	1	Tapered inlet throat	2	.475	.667	.0179	.97	3
58	Rectangular Concrete	1	Side tapered-less favorable edges	2	.56	.667	.0446	.85	3
			Side tapered-more favorable edges	2	.56	.667	.0378	.87	
59	Rectangular Concrete	1	Slope tapered-less favorable edges	2	.50	.667	.0446	.65	3
			Slope tapered-more favorable edges		.50	.667	.0378	.71	

* These references are cited in FHWA, 2001, HYD-5. They can be accessed at the Federal Highway Administration web site: www.fhwa.dot.gov/bridge/hydpub.htm.

4.2.4.4 Nomographs

(Nomographs are not allowed by City of Texarkana for final sizing of culverts with drainage areas greater than 10 acres. The use of nomographs for final design of culverts with drainage areas greater than 10 acres requires approval of the Director of Public Works. A backwater analysis using HEC-RAS is required for culverts with areas greater than 10 acres.)

The use of culvert design nomographs requires a trial and error solution. Nomograph solutions provide reliable designs for many applications. It should be remembered that velocity, hydrograph routing, roadway overtopping, and outlet scour require additional, separate computations beyond what can be obtained from the nomographs. Figures 4.2-2(a) and (b) show examples of an inlet control and outlet control nomographs for the design of concrete pipe culverts. For other culvert designs, refer to the complete set of nomographs in FHWA Hydraulic Design of Highway Culverts, HDS-5, 2001, Second Edition.

This section presents design guidance for culverts originally published in HEC-12, Drainage of Highway Pavements and AASHTO's Model Drainage Manual.

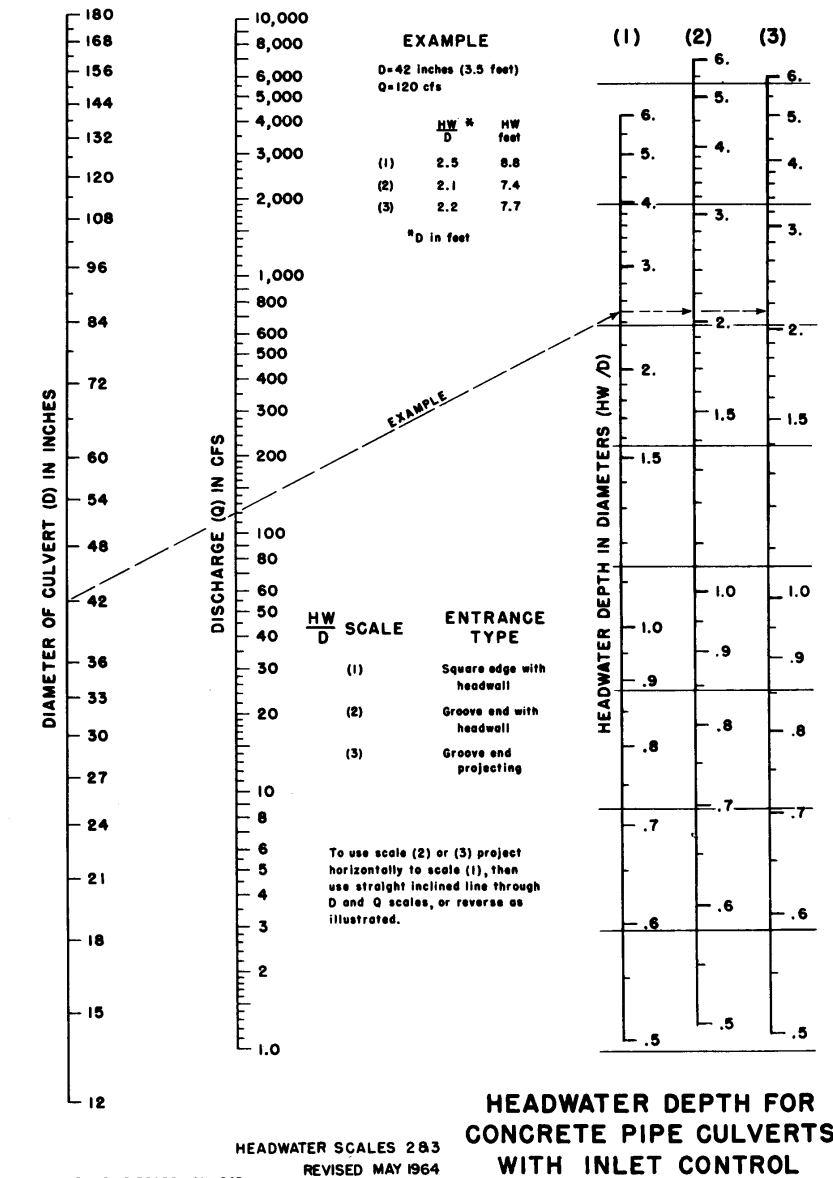
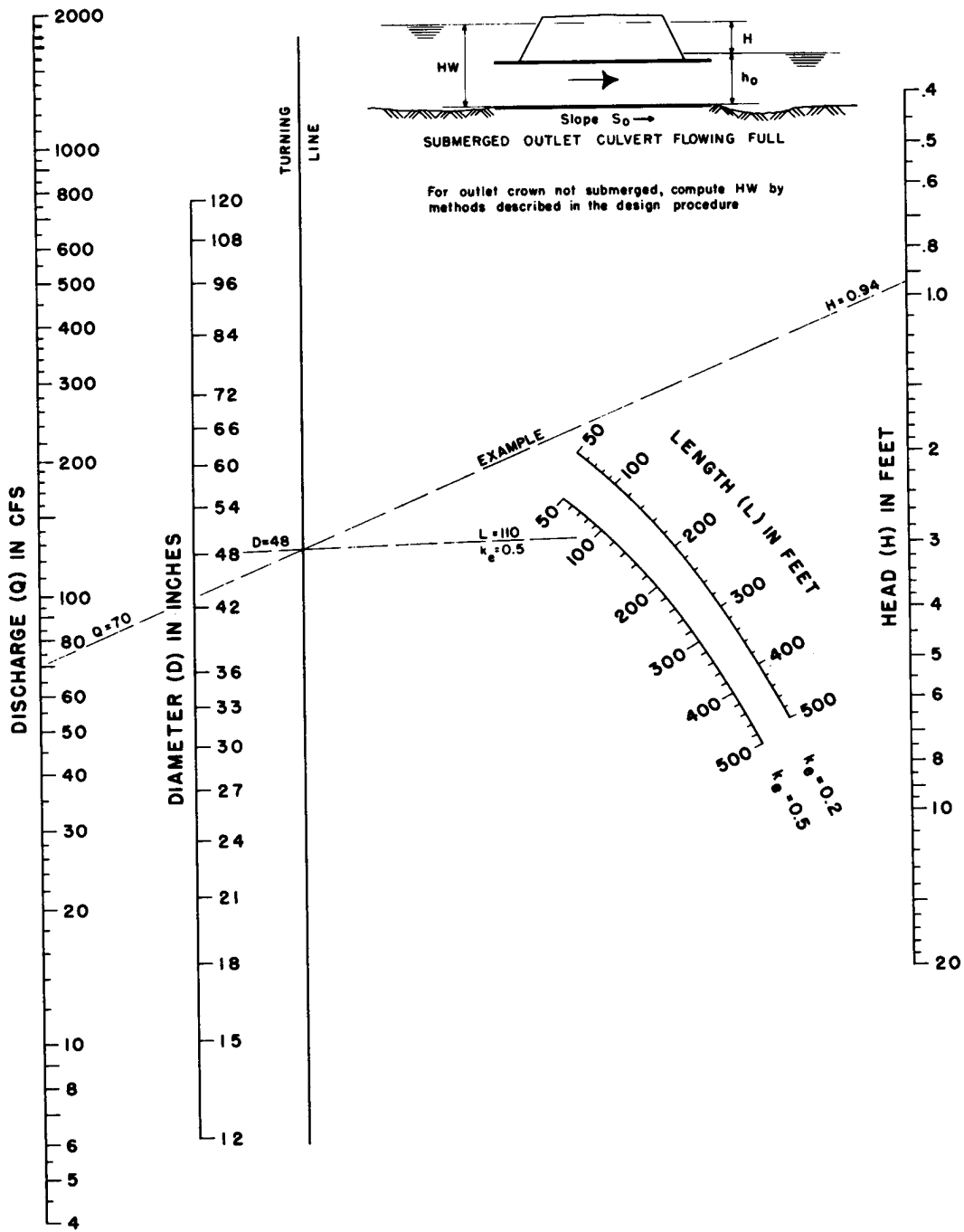


Figure 4.2-2(a) Headwater Depth for Concrete Pipe Culvert with Inlet Control



**HEAD FOR
 CONCRETE PIPE CULVERTS
 FLOWING FULL**
 $n = 0.012$

BUREAU OF PUBLIC ROADS JAN. 1963

Figure 4.2-2(b) Head for Concrete Pipe Culverts Flowing Full

4.2.4.5 Design Procedure

The following design procedure requires the use of inlet and outlet nomographs.

Step 1 List design data:

Q	=	discharge (cfs)
L	=	culvert length (ft)
S	=	culvert slope (ft/ft)
TW	=	tailwater depth (ft)
V	=	velocity for trial diameter (ft/s)
K _e	=	inlet loss coefficient
HW	=	allowable headwater depth for the design storm (ft)

Step 2 Determine trial culvert size by assuming a trial velocity of 3 to 5 ft/s and computing the culvert area, $A = Q/V$. Determine the culvert diameter (inches).

Step 3 Find the actual HW for the trial size culvert for both inlet and outlet control.

- For inlet control, enter inlet control nomograph with D and Q and find HW/D for the proper entrance type.
- Compute HW and, if too large or too small, try another culvert size before computing HW for outlet control.
- For outlet control enter the outlet control nomograph with the culvert length, entrance loss coefficient, and trial culvert diameter.
- To compute HW, connect the length scale for the type of entrance condition and culvert diameter scale with a straight line, pivot on the turning line, and draw a straight line from the design discharge through the turning point to the head loss scale H. Compute the headwater elevation HW from the equation:

$$\mathbf{HW = H + h_o - LS} \qquad \mathbf{(4.2.4)}$$

where:

h _o	=	½ (critical depth + D), or tailwater depth, whichever is greater
L	=	culvert length
S	=	culvert slope

Step 4 Compare the computed headwaters and use the higher HW nomograph to determine if the culvert is under inlet or outlet control.

- If inlet control governs, then the design is complete and no further analysis is required.
- If outlet control governs and the HW is unacceptable, select a larger trial size and find another HW with the outlet control nomographs. Since the smaller size of culvert had been selected for allowable HW by the inlet control nomographs, the inlet control for the larger pipe need not be checked.

Step 5 Calculate exit velocity and if erosion problems might be expected, refer to Section 4.7 for appropriate energy dissipation designs. Energy dissipation designs may affect the outlet hydraulics of the culvert.

4.2.4.6 Performance Curves - Roadway Overtopping

A performance curve for any culvert can be obtained from the nomographs by repeating the steps outlined above for a range of discharges that are of interest for that particular culvert design. A graph is then plotted of headwater versus discharge with sufficient points so that a curve can be drawn through the range of interest. These curves are applicable through a range of headwater, velocities, and scour depths versus discharges for a length and type of culvert. Usually charts with length intervals of 25 to 50 feet are satisfactory for design purposes. Such computations are made much easier by the use of computer programs.

To complete the culvert design, roadway overtopping should be analyzed. A performance curve showing the culvert flow as well as the flow across the roadway is a useful analysis tool. Rather than using a trial and error procedure to determine the flow division between the overtopping flow and the culvert flow, an overall performance curve can be developed.

The overall performance curve can be determined as follows:

- Step 1 Select a range of flow rates and determine the corresponding headwater elevations for the culvert flow alone. The flow rates should fall above and below the design discharge and cover the entire flow range of interest. Both inlet and outlet control headwaters should be calculated.
- Step 2 Combine the inlet and outlet control performance curves to define a single performance curve for the culvert.
- Step 3 When the culvert headwater elevations exceed the roadway crest elevation, overtopping will begin. Calculate the equivalent upstream water surface depth above the roadway (crest of weir) for each selected flow rate. Use these water surface depths and Equation 4.2.5 to calculate flow rates across the roadway.

$$Q = C_d L (HW)^{1.5} \quad (4.2.5)$$

where:

- Q = overtopping flow rate (ft³/s)
- C_d = overtopping discharge coefficient
- L = length of roadway (ft)
- HW = upstream depth, measured from the roadway crest to the water surface upstream of the weir drawdown (ft)

Note: See Figure 4.2-3 for guidance in determining a value for C_d. For more information on calculating overtopping flow rates see pages 38 - 44 in HDS No. 5, 2001.

- Step 4 Add the culvert flow and the roadway overtopping flow at the corresponding headwater elevations to obtain the overall culvert performance curve.

4.2.4.7 Storage Routing

A significant storage capacity behind a highway embankment attenuates a flood hydrograph. Because of the reduction of the peak discharge associated with this attenuation, the required capacity of the culvert, and its size, may be reduced considerably. If significant storage is anticipated behind a culvert, the design should be checked by routing the design hydrographs through the culvert to determine the discharge and stage behind the culvert. See subsection 4.2.7 and Section 2.2 for more information on routing. Additional routing procedures are outlined in Hydraulic Design of Highway Culverts, Section V - Storage Routing, HDS No. 5, 2001, Federal Highway Administration, pages 123 - 142.

Note: Storage should be taken into consideration only if the storage area will remain available for the life of the culvert as a result of purchase of ownership or right-of-way or an easement has been acquired.

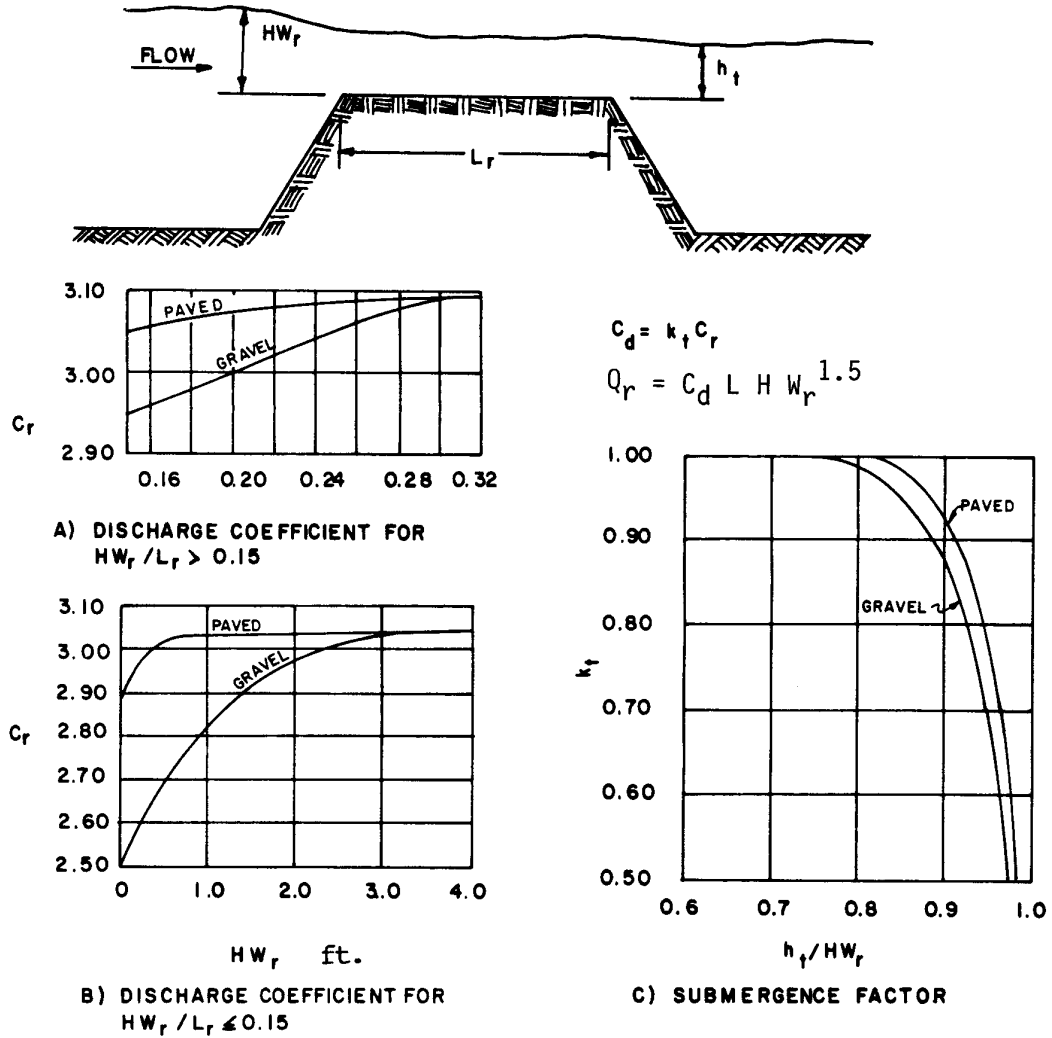


Figure 4.2-3 Discharge Coefficients for Roadway Overtopping
(Source: HDS No. 5, 2001)

4.2.5 – Culvert Design Example

(This procedure is acceptable for preliminary sizing of all culverts and final sizing of culverts with drainage areas of 10 acres or less unless approved by the Director of Public Works.)

4.2.5.1 Introduction

The following example problem illustrates the procedures to be used in designing culverts using the nomographs.

4.2.5.2 Example

Size a culvert given the following example data, which were determined by physical limitations at the culvert site and hydraulic procedures described elsewhere in this handbook.

4.2.5.3 Example Data

Input Data

Discharge for 2-yr flood = 35 cfs

Discharge for 25-yr flood = 70 cfs

Allowable H_w for 25-yr discharge = 5.25 ft

Length of culvert = 100 ft

Natural channel invert elevations - inlet = 15.50 ft, outlet = 14.30 ft

Culvert slope = 0.012 ft/ft

Tailwater depth for 25-yr discharge = 3.5 ft

Tailwater depth is the normal depth in downstream channel

Entrance type = Groove end with headwall

4.2.5.4 Computations

1. Assume a culvert velocity of 5 ft/s. Required flow area = $70 \text{ cfs} / 5 \text{ ft/s} = 14 \text{ ft}^2$ (for the 25-yr recurrence flood).
2. The corresponding culvert diameter is about 48 in. This can be calculated by using the formula for area of a circle: $\text{Area} = (3.14D^2)/4$ or $D = (\text{Area times } 4/3.14)^{0.5}$. Therefore: $D = ((14 \text{ sq ft} \times 4)/3.14)^{0.5} \times 12 \text{ in/ft} = 50.7 \text{ in}$
3. A grooved end concrete culvert with a headwall is selected for the design. Using the inlet control nomograph (Figure 4.2-2(a)), with a pipe diameter of 48 inches and a discharge of 70 cfs; read a H_w/D value of 0.93.
4. The depth of headwater (HW) is $(0.93) \times (4) = 3.72 \text{ ft}$, which is less than the allowable headwater of 5.25 ft. Since 3.72 ft is considerably less than 5.25 ft a small culvert.
5. Using the same procedures outlined in steps 4 and 5 the following results were obtained.
42-inch culvert – $H_w = 4.13 \text{ ft}$

36-inch culvert – HW = 5.04 ft

Select a 36-inch culvert to check for outlet control.

6. The culvert is checked for outlet control by using Figure 4.2-2(b).

With an entrance loss coefficient K_e of 0.20, a culvert length of 100 ft, and a pipe diameter of 36 in., an H value of 2.8 ft is determined. The headwater for outlet control is computed by the equation: $HW = H + h_o - LS$

Compute h_o

$h_o = T_w$ or $\frac{1}{2}$ (critical depth in culvert + D), whichever is greater.

$h_o = 3.5$ ft or $h_o = \frac{1}{2} (2.7 + 3.0) = 2.85$ ft

Note: critical depth is obtained from Figure 3.2-18(b).

Therefore: $h_o = 3.5$ ft

The headwater depth for outlet control is:

$HW = H + h_o - LS = 2.8 + 3.5 - (100) \times (0.012) = 5.10$ ft

7. Since HW for outlet control (5.10 ft) is greater than the HW for inlet control (5.04 ft), outlet control governs the culvert design. Thus, the maximum headwater expected for a 25-year recurrence flood is 5.10 ft, which is less than the allowable headwater of 5.25 ft.
8. Estimate outlet exit velocity. Since this culvert is an outlet control and discharges into an open channel downstream with tailwater above culvert, the culvert will be flowing full at the flow depth in the channel. Using the design peak discharge of 70 cfs and the area of a 36-inch or 3.0-foot diameter culvert the exit velocity will be:

$Q = VA$

Therefore: $V = 70 / (3.14(3.0)^2)/4 = 9.9$ ft/s

With this high velocity, consideration should be given to provide an energy dissipator at the culvert outlet. See Section 4.7 (*Energy Dissipation Design*).

9. Check for minimum velocity using the 2-year flow of 35 cfs.

Therefore: $V = 35 / (3.14(3.0)^2)/4 = 5.0$ ft/s > minimum of 2.5 - OK

10. The 100-year flow should be routed through the culvert to determine if any flooding problems will be associated with this flood.

Figure 4.2-4 provides a convenient form to organize culvert design calculations.

4.2.6 – Design Procedures for Beveled-Edged Inlets

(This procedure is acceptable for culverts with drainage areas less than 10 acres and preliminary sizing of culverts with larger drainage areas.)

4.2.6.1 Introduction

Improved inlets include inlet geometry refinements beyond those normally used in conventional culvert design practice. Several degrees of improvements are possible, including bevel-edged, side-tapered, and slope-tapered inlets. Those designers interested in using side- and slope-tapered inlets should consult the detailed design criteria and example designs outlined in the U. S. Department of Transportation publication Hydraulic Design Series No. 5 entitled, Hydraulic Design of Highway Culverts.

4.2.6.2 Design Figures

Four inlet control figures for culverts with beveled edges are found in Appendix D of HDS No. 5.

Chart	Page	Use for
3	D-3A & B	circular pipe culverts with beveled rings
10	D-10A & B	90° headwalls (same for 90 ° wingwalls)
11	D-11A & B	skewed headwalls
112	D-12A & B	wingwalls with flare angles of 18 to 45 degrees

The following symbols are used in these figures:

B – Width of culvert barrel or diameter of pipe culvert

D – Height of box culvert or diameter of pipe culvert

H_r – Depth of pool or head, above the face section of invert

N – Number of barrels

Q – Design discharge

4.2.6.3 Design Procedure

The figures for bevel-edged inlets are used for design in the same manner as the conventional inlet design nomographs discussed earlier. Note that Charts 10, 11, and 12 in subsection 4.2.8 apply only to bevels having either a 33° angle (1.5:1) or a 45° angle (1:1).

For box culverts the dimensions of the bevels to be used are based on the culvert dimensions. The top bevel dimension is determined by multiplying the height of the culvert by a factor. The side bevel dimensions are determined by multiplying the width of the culvert by a factor. For a

1:1 bevel, the factor is 0.5 inch/ft. For a 1.5:1 bevel the factor is 1 inch/ft. For example, the minimum bevel dimensions for an 8 ft x 6 ft box culvert with 1:1 bevels would be:

Top Bevel = $d = 6 \text{ ft} \times 0.5 \text{ inch/ft} = 3 \text{ inches}$

Side Bevel = $b = 8 \text{ ft} \times 0.5 \text{ inch/ft} = 4 \text{ inches}$

For a 1.5:1 bevel computations would result in $d = 6$ and $b = 8$ inches.

4.2.6.4 Design Figure Limits

The improved inlet design figures are based on research results from culvert models with barrel width, B, to depth, D, ratios of from 0.5:1 to 2:1. For box culverts with more than one barrel, the figures are used in the same manner as for a single barrel, except that the bevels must be sized on the basis of the total clear opening rather than on individual barrel size.

For example, in a double 8 ft by 8 ft box culvert:

Top Bevel is proportioned based on the height of 8 feet, which results in a bevel of 4 in. for the 1:1 bevel and 8 in. for the 1.5:1 bevel.

Side Bevel is proportioned based on the clear width of 16 feet, which results in a bevel of 8 in. for the 1:1 bevel and 16 in. for the 1.5:1 bevel.

4.2.6.5 Multibarrel Installations

For multibarrel installations exceeding a 3:1 width to depth ratio, the side bevels become excessively large when proportioned on the basis of the total clear width. For these structures, it is recommended that the side bevel be sized in proportion to the total clear width, B, or three times the height, whichever is smaller.

The top bevel dimension should always be based on the culvert height.

The shape of the upstream edge of the intermediate walls of multibarrel installations is not as important to the hydraulic performance of a culvert as the edge condition of the top and sides. Therefore, the edges of these walls may be square, rounded with a radius of one-half their thickness, chamfered, or beveled. The intermediate walls may also project from the face and slope downward to the channel bottom to help direct debris through the culvert.

Multibarrel pipe culverts should be designed as a series of single barrel installations since each pipe requires a separate bevel.

4.2.6.6 Skewed Inlets

It is recommended that Chart 11 for skewed inlets not be used for multiple barrel installations, as the intermediate wall could cause an extreme contraction in the downstream barrels. This would result in underdesign due to a greatly reduced capacity. Skewed inlets (at an angle with the centerline of the stream) should be avoided whenever possible and should not be used with side- or slope-tapered inlets. It is important to align culverts with streams in order to avoid erosion problems associated with changing the direction of the natural stream flow.

4.2.7 – Flood Routing and Culvert Design

4.2.7.1 Introduction

Flood routing through a culvert is a practice that evaluates the effect of temporary upstream ponding caused by the culvert's backwater. By not considering flood routing it is possible that the findings from culvert analyses will be conservative. If the selected allowable headwater is accepted without flood routing, then costly over-design of both the culvert and outlet protection may result, depending on the amount of temporary storage involved. However, if storage is used in the design of culverts, consideration should be given to:

- The total area of flooding,
- The average time that bankfull stage is exceeded for the design flood up to 48 hours in rural areas or 6 hours in urban areas, and
- Ensuring that the storage area will remain available for the life of the culvert through the purchase of right-of-way or easement.

4.2.7.2 Design Procedure

The design procedure for flood routing through a culvert is the same as for reservoir routing. The site data and roadway geometry are obtained and the hydrology analysis completed to include estimating a hydrograph. Once this essential information is available, the culvert can be designed. Flood routing through a culvert can be time consuming. It is recommended that a computer program be used to perform routing calculations; however, an engineer should be familiar with the culvert flood routing design process.

A multiple trial and error procedure is required for culvert flood routing. In general:

- Step 1 A trial culvert(s) is selected
- Step 2 A trial discharge for a particular hydrograph time increment (selected time increment to estimate discharge from the design hydrograph) is selected
- Step 3 Flood routing computations are made with successive trial discharges until the flood routing equation is satisfied
- Step 4 The hydraulic findings are compared to the selected site criteria
- Step 5 If the selected site criteria are satisfied, then a trial discharge for the next time increment is selected and this procedure is repeated; if not, a new trial culvert is selected and the entire procedure is repeated.

4.2.7.3 Comprehensive Design Guidance

Comprehensive design discussions and guidance may be found in the Federal Highway Administration, National Design Series No. 5, document entitled Hydraulic Design of Highway Culverts, Second Edition, published in 2001. This document is available from the FHWA as Publication Number NHI-01-020.

(http://www.fhwa.dot.gov/engineering/hydraulics/library_arc.cfm?pub_number=7&id=13).

Section 4.3 – Bridge Design

4.3.1 Overview

Bridges enable streams to maintain flow conveyance and to sustain aquatic life. They are important and expensive highway hydraulic structures vulnerable to failure from flood related causes. In order to minimize the risk of failure, the hydraulic requirements of a stream crossing must be recognized and considered during the development, construction, and maintenance highway phases.

This section addresses structures designed hydraulically as bridges, regardless of length. For economy and hydraulic efficiency, engineers should design culverts to operate with the inlet submerged during flood flows, if conditions permit. Bridges, on the other hand, are not covered with embankment or designed to take advantage of submergence to increase hydraulic capacity, even though some are designed to be inundated under flood conditions. This discussion of bridge hydraulics considers the total crossing, including approach embankments and structures on the floodplains.

The following subsections present considerations related to the hydraulics of bridges. It is generally excerpted from Chapter 9 of the Texas Department of Transportation (TxDOT) Hydraulics Design Manual dated March 2004.

4.3.1.1 Bridge Hydraulics Considerations

When beginning analysis for a cross-drainage facility, the flood frequency and stage-discharge curves should first be established, as well as the type of cross-drain facility. The choice is usually between a bridge and a culvert. Bridges are usually chosen if the discharge is significant or if the stream to be crossed is large in extent. Both types of facilities should be evaluated and a choice made based on performance and economics. If the stream crossing is wide with multiple concentrations of flow, a multiple opening facility may be in order.

4.3.1.2 Highway-Stream Crossing Analysis

The hydraulic analysis of a highway-stream crossing for a particular flood frequency involves:

- Determining the backwater associated with each alternative profile and waterway opening(s)
- Determining the effects on flow distribution and velocities
- Estimating scour potential

The hydraulic design of a bridge over a waterway involves the following such that the risks associated with backwater and increased velocities are not excessive:

- Establishing a location

- Bridge length
- Orientation
- Roadway and bridge profiles

A hydrologic and hydraulic analysis is recommended for designing all new bridges over waterways, bridge widening, bridge replacement, and roadway profile modifications that may adversely affect the floodplain, even if no structural modifications are necessary. Typically, this should include the following:

- An estimate of peak discharge (sometimes complete runoff hydrographs)
- Existing and proposed condition water surface profiles for design and check flood conditions
- Consideration of the potential for stream stability problems and scour potential.

4.3.1.3 Freeboard

Navigational clearance and other reasons notwithstanding, the low chord elevation is defined as the sum of the design normal water surface elevation (high water) and a *freeboard*. For on system TxDOT bridges, TxDOT recommends a minimum freeboard of 2 ft (0.6 m) to allow for passage of floating debris and to provide a safety factor for design flood flow. Higher freeboards may be appropriate over streams that are prone to heavy debris loads, such as large tree limbs, and to accommodate other clearance needs. Other constraints may make lower freeboards desirable, but the low chord should not impinge on the design high water. Generally, for off-system bridge replacement structures, the low chord should approximate that of the structure to be replaced, unless the results of a risk assessment indicate a different structure is the most beneficial option.

4.3.1.4 Roadway/Bridge Profile

A bridge is integrated into both the stream and the roadway and must be fully compatible with both. Therefore, the alignment of the roadway and the bridge are the same between the ends of the bridge. Hydraulically, the complete bridge profile can be any part of the structure that stream flow can strike or impact in its movement downstream. If the stream gets high enough to inundate the structure, then all parts of the roadway and the bridge become part of the complete bridge profile.

For TxDOT design, the roadway must not be inundated by the design flood, but inundation by the 100-year flood is allowed. Unless the route is an emergency escape route, it is often desirable to allow floods in excess of the design flood to overtop the road. This helps minimize both the backwater and the required length of structure.

Several vertical alignment alternatives are available for consideration, depending on site topography, traffic requirements, and flood damage potential. The alternatives range from crossings that are designed to overtop frequently to crossings that are designed to rarely or never overtop.

4.3.1.5 Crossing Profile

The horizontal alignment of a highway at a stream crossing should be taken into consideration when selecting the design and location of the waterway opening as well as the crossing profile. Every effort should be made to align the highway so that the crossing will be normal to the stream flow direction (highway centerline perpendicular to the streamline).

Often, this is not possible because of the highway or stream configuration. When a skewed structure is necessary, it should be ensured that substructure fixtures such as foundations, columns, piers, and bent caps offer minimum resistance to the stream flow.

Bent caps should be oriented as near to the skew of the streamlines at flood stage as possible. Headers should be skewed to minimize eddy-causing obstructions. A relief opening may be provided at the approximate location of point A to reduce the likelihood of trapped flow and minimize the amount of low that would have to travel up against the general direction of flow along the embankment.

4.3.1.6 Single Versus Multiple Openings

For a single structure, the flow will find its way to an opening until the roadway is overtopped. If two or more structures have flow area available, after accumulating a head, the flow will divide and proceed to the structures offering the least resistance. The point of division is called a stagnation point.

In usual practice, the TxDOT recommends that the flood discharge be forced to flow parallel to the highway embankment for no more than about 800 ft (240 m). If flow distances along the embankment are greater than recommended, an additional relief structure or opening should be considered. A possible alternative to the provision of an additional structure is a guide bank (spur dike) to control the turbulence at the header. Also, natural vegetation between the toe of slope and the right-of-way line is useful in controlling flow along the embankment. Therefore, special efforts should be made to preserve any natural vegetation in such a situation.

4.3.1.7 Factors Affecting Bridge Length

The discussions of bridge design assume normal cross sections and lengths (perpendicular to flow at flood stage). Usually one-dimensional flow is assumed, and cross sections and lengths are considered 90° to the direction of stream flow at flood stage.

If the crossing is skewed to the stream flow at flood stage, all cross sections and lengths should be normalized before proceeding with the bridge length design. If the skew is severe and the floodplain is wide, the analysis may need to be adjusted to offset the effects of elevation changes within the same cross section.

The following examples illustrate various factors that can cause a bridge opening to be larger than that required by hydraulic design.

- Bank protection may be placed in a certain location due to local soil instability or a high bank.
- Bridge costs may be cheaper than embankment costs.
- A highway profile grade line might dictate an excessive freeboard allowance. For sloping abutments, a higher freeboard will result in a longer bridge.
- High potential for meander to migrate, or other channel instabilities may warrant a longer opening.

4.3.2 Symbols and Definitions

The hydraulics of bridge openings are basically the same as those of open channel flow. Therefore, the symbols and definitions are essentially the same as those of Section 4.4.2 presented in Table 4.4-1. There are other definitions unique to bridges which are presented here. They are defined in the TxDOT Hydraulic Design Manual.

4.3.1 Flow Zones and Energy Losses

Figure 4.3-1 shows a plan of typical cross section locations that establish three flow zones that should be considered when estimating the effects of bridge openings.

Zone 1 represents the area between the downstream face of the bridge and a cross section downstream of the bridge within which expansion of flow from the bridge is expected to occur. The distance over which this expansion occurs can vary depending on the flow rate and the floodplain characteristics. No detailed guidance is available, but a distance equal to about four times the length of the average embankment constriction is reasonable for most situations. Section 1 represents the effective channel flow geometry at the end of the expansion zone, which is also called the “exit” section. Cross sections 2 and 3 are at the toe of roadway embankment and represent the portion of unconstricted channel geometry that approximates the effective flow areas near the bridge opening as shown in Figure 4.3-2.

Zone 2 represents the area under the bridge opening through which friction, turbulence, and drag losses are considered. Generally, the bridge opening is obtained by superimposing the bridge geometry on cross sections 2 and 3.

Zone 3 represents an area from the upstream face of the bridge to a distance upstream where the contraction of flow must occur. A distance upstream of the bridge equal to the length of the average embankment constriction is a reasonable approximation of the location at which contraction begins. Cross section 4 represents the effective channel flow geometry where contraction begins. This is sometimes referred to as the “approach” cross section.

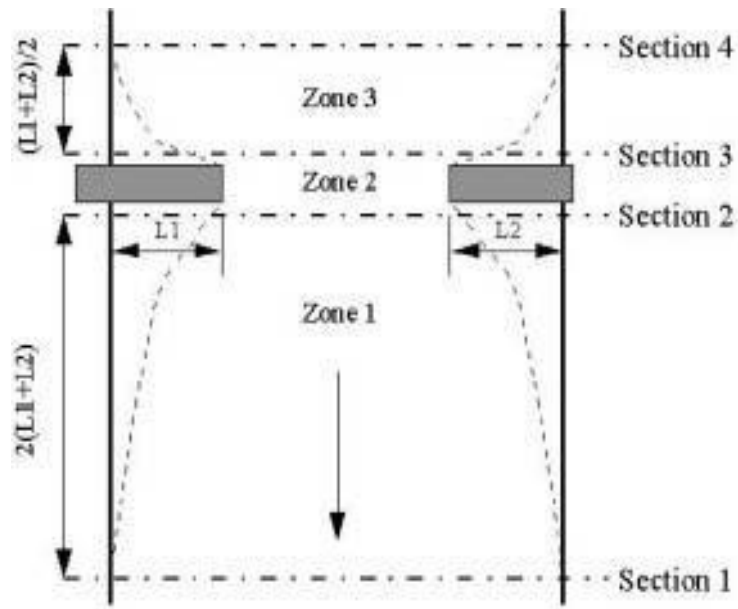


Figure 4.3-1 Flow Zones at Bridges
(TxDOT Hydraulic Design Manual)

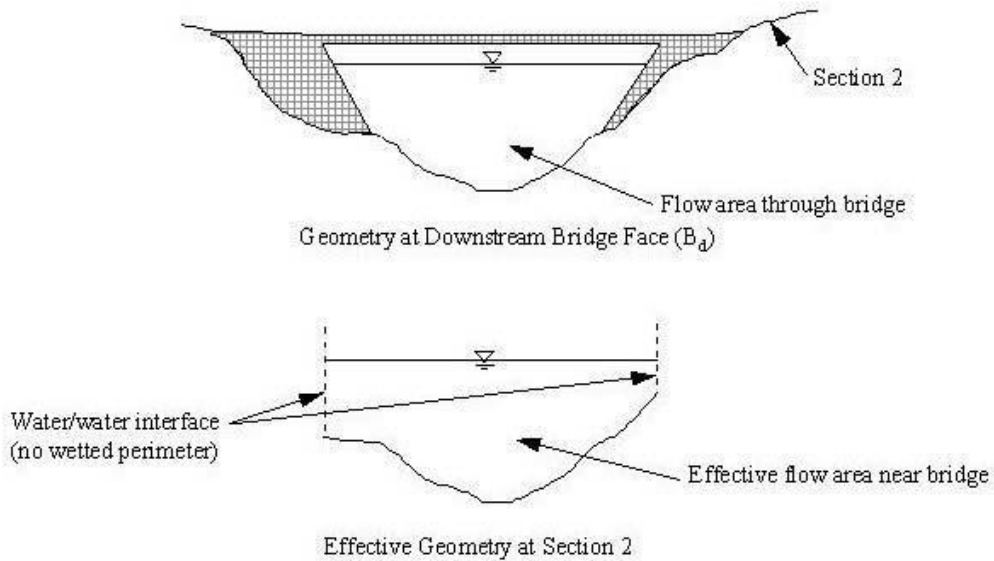


Figure 4.3-2 Effective Geometry for Bridge (Section 2 shown, Section 3 similar)
(TxDOT Hydraulic Design Manual)

4.3.2.2 Bridge Flow Class

The losses associated with flow through bridges depend on the hydraulic conditions of low or high flow.

Low flow describes hydraulic conditions in which the water surface between Zones 1, 2, and 3 is open to atmospheric pressure. That means the water surface does not impinge upon the superstructure. (This condition should exist for the design frequency of all new on-system bridges.) Low flow is divided into categories as described in the “Low Flow Classes” table below. Type I is the most common in Texas, although severe constrictions compared to the flow conditions could result in Types IIA and IIB. Type III is likely to be limited to steep hills and mountainous regions.

Low Flow Class	Description
I	Subcritical flow through all Zones
IIA	Subcritical flow through Zones 1 and 3; flow through critical depth in Zone 2
IIB	Subcritical flow through Zone 3; flow through critical depth in Zone 2, hydraulic jump in Zone 1
III	Supercritical flow through all Zones

High flow refers to conditions in which the water surface impinges on the bridge superstructure:

- When the tailwater does not submerge the low chord of the bridge, the flow condition is comparable to a pressure flow sluice gate.
- At the tailwater, which submerges the low chord but does not exceed the elevation of critical depth over the road, the flow condition is comparable to orifice flow.
- If the tailwater overtops the roadway, neither sluice gate flow nor orifice flow is reasonable, and the flow is either weir flow or open flow.

4.3.3 Design Criteria

The design of a bridge should take into account many different engineering and technical aspects at the bridge site and adjacent areas. The following design criteria should be considered for all bridge designs as applicable.

4.3.3.1 Frequency Flood

Design discharges chosen by TxDOT for bridges vary with the functional classification and structure type. For major river crossings, a return period of 50 years is recommended. For small bridges, the recommended return period is 25 years. In all cases the check flood is for the 100-year return period.

4.3.3.2 Freeboard

Typical freeboard, the length between the computed design water surface and the low chord, is two feet. In urban settings, it may be prudent to use the 100-year fully-developed discharge to check the bridge design.

4.3.3.3 Loss Coefficients

The contraction and expansion of water through the bridge opening creates hydraulic losses. These losses are accounted for through the use of loss coefficients. Table 4.3-1 gives recommended values for the Contraction (K_c) and Expansion (K_e) Coefficients.

Transition Type	Contraction (K_c)	Expansion (K_e)
No Losses Computed	0.0	0.0
Gradual Transition	0.1	0.3
Typical Bridge	0.3	0.5
Severe Transition	0.6	0.8

4.3.4 Design Procedures

The following is a general bridge hydraulic design procedure.

1. Determine the most efficient alignment of proposed roadway, attempting to minimize skew at the proposed stream crossing.
2. Determine design discharge from hydrologic studies or available data (City, Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA), US Army Corp of Engineers (USACE), TxDOT, or similar sources).
3. If available, obtain effective FEMA hydraulic backwater model. It is assumed that if a bridge is required instead of a culvert, the drainage area would exceed one square mile and could already be included in a FEMA study. If an effective FEMA model or other model is not available, a basic hydrologic model and backwater analysis for the stream must be prepared. The HEC-RAS computer model is routinely used to compute backwater water surface profiles.
4. Using USACE or FEMA guidelines, compute or duplicate an existing conditions water surface profile for the design storm(s). Compute a profile for the fully-developed watershed, for use as a baseline for design of a new bridge/roadway crossing.
5. Use the design discharge to compute an approximate opening that will be needed to pass the design storm (for preliminary sizing, use a normal-depth design procedure, or simply estimate a required trapezoidal opening).
6. Prepare a bridge crossing data set in the hydraulic model to reflect the preliminary design opening, which includes the required freeboard and any channelization upstream or downstream to transition the floodwaters through the proposed structure.

7. Compute the proposed bridge flood profile and design parameters (velocities, flow distribution, energy grade, etc.). Review for criteria on velocities and freeboard, and revise model as needed to accommodate design flows.
8. Review the velocities and determine erosion control requirements downstream, through the structure, and upstream.
9. Finalize the design size and erosion control features, based on comparing the proposed model with the existing conditions profiles, impacts on other properties, FEMA guidelines, and Local Criteria.
10. Exceptions/Other Issues
 - A. Conditional Letter of Map Amendment (CLOMR) may be needed for new crossings of streams studied by FEMA.
 - B. If applicable, coordinate with USACE Regulatory Permit requirements.
 - C. Evaluate the project with respect to the City of Texarkana policy regarding downstream impacts.
 - D. Design should be for fully developed watershed conditions. If the available discharges are from FEMA existing conditions hydrology, the following options are available: (1) Obtain new hydrology, (2) Extrapolate fully-developed from existing data, or (3) Variance from the local jurisdiction on design discharges
 - E. Freeboard criteria may require an unusually expensive bridge or impracticable roadway elevation. A reasonable variance in criteria may be available with City approval.

Section 4.4 – Open Channel Design

4.4.1 – Overview

4.4.1.1 Introduction

Open channel systems and their design are an integral part of stormwater drainage design, particularly for development sites utilizing better site design practices and open channel structural controls. Open channels include drainage ditches, grass channels, dry and wet enhanced swales, stone riprap channels and concrete-lined channels. Maintenance is a critical component to manmade channels and an access path shall be included with the design of all open channels.

The purpose of this section is to provide an overview of open channel design criteria and methods, including the use of channel design nomographs.

4.4.1.2 Open Channel Types

The three main classifications of open channel types according to channel linings are vegetated, flexible, and rigid. Vegetated linings include grass with mulch, sod and lapped sod, and wetland channels. Stone riprap and some forms of flexible man-made linings or gabions are examples of flexible linings, while rigid linings are generally concrete or rigid block.

Vegetative Linings – Vegetation, where practical, is the most desirable lining for an artificial channel. It stabilizes the channel body, consolidates the soil mass of the bed, checks erosion on the channel surface, provides habitat, and provides water quality benefits.

Conditions under which vegetation may not be acceptable include but are not limited to:

- High velocities
- Standing or continuously flowing water
- Lack of regular maintenance necessary to prevent growth of taller or woody vegetation
- Lack of nutrients and inadequate topsoil
- Excessive shade

Proper seeding, mulching, and soil preparation are required during construction to assure establishment of healthy vegetation.

Flexible Linings – Rock riprap, including rubble, is the most common type of flexible lining for channels. It presents a rough surface that can dissipate energy and mitigate increases in erosive velocity. These linings are usually less expensive than rigid linings and have self-healing qualities that reduce maintenance. However, they may require the use of a filter fabric depending on the underlying soils, and the growth of grass, weeds, and trees may present maintenance problems.

Rigid Linings – Rigid linings are generally constructed of concrete and used where high flow capacity is required. Higher velocities, however, create the potential for scour at channel lining transitions and channel headcutting.

Normal Depth (Uniform Flow) vs. Backwater Profile Depths:

For uniform flow calculations, the theoretical channel dimensions, computed by the slope-area methods are generally to be used only for an initial dimension in the design of an improved channel. Exceptions will be for small outfall channels (with the approval of Director of Public Works) meeting the following criteria:

1. Drainage area 10 acres or less.
2. Completely contained on the development site;
3. No nearby downstream restrictions (no significant backwater effects).
4. Flow conditions consistent with uniform flow assumption.

City of Texarkana requires a HEC-RAS backwater/frontwater analysis on any proposed open channel with a drainage area greater than 10 acres to determine the actual tailwater elevations, channel capacity and freeboard, and impacts on adjacent floodplains. If the current effective FEMA model for the stream is a HEC-2 model, the engineer has the option to either use that model, or convert to HEC-RAS for analysis of proposed conditions.

Supercritical Flow Regime

Supercritical flow will not be allowed except under unusual circumstances, with special approval of the Director of Public Works. However, for lined channels the analysis should include a mixed-flow regime analysis, to make sure no supercritical flow occurs. City of Texarkana requires that the computed flow depths in designed channels be outside of the range of instability, i.e. depth of flow should be at least 1.1 times critical depth.

Channel Transitions or Energy Dissipation Structures or Small Dams

A HEC-RAS model is a standard requirement for design of channel transitions (upstream and downstream), energy dissipation structures, and small dams. A backwater analysis will be required by the City, to determine accurate tailwater elevation, headlosses, headwater elevations and floodplains affected by the proposed transition into and out of an improved channel, any on-stream energy dissipating structures, and small dams (less than 6 feet). If the current effective FEMA model for the stream is a HEC-2 model, the engineer has the option to either use that model, or convert to HEC-RAS for analysis of proposed conditions. For larger dams, a hydrologic routing will be required, as well as hydraulic analysis, to determine impacts of the proposed structure on existing floodplains and adjacent properties.

4.4.2 Symbols and Definitions

To provide consistency within this section as well as throughout this Manual, the symbols listed in Table 4.4-1 will be used. These symbols were selected because of their wide use. In some cases, the same symbol is used in existing publications for more than one definition. Where this occurs in this section, the symbol will be defined where it occurs in the text or equations.

Table 4.4-1 Symbols and Definitions		
Symbol	Definition	Units
α	Energy coefficient	-
A	Cross-sectional area	ft ²
b	Bottom width	ft
C _g	Specific weight correction factor	-
D or d	Depth of flow	ft
d	Stone diameter	ft
delta d	Super-elevation of the water surface profile	ft
d _x	Diameter of stone for which x percent, by weight, of the gradation is finer	ft
E	Specific energy	ft
Fr	Froude Number	-
g	Acceleration of gravity	32.2 ft/s ²
h _{loss}	Head loss	ft
K	Channel conveyance	-
k _e	Eddy head loss coefficient	ft

K_T	Trapezoidal open channel conveyance factor	-
L	Length of channel	ft
L_p	Length of downstream protection	ft
n	Manning's roughness coefficient	-
P	Wetted perimeter	ft
Q	Discharge rate	cfs
R	Hydraulic radius of flow	ft
R_c	Mean radius of the bend	ft
S	Slope	ft/ft
SW_s	Specific weight of stone	lbs/ft ³
T	Top width of water surface	ft
V or v	Velocity of flow	ft/s
w	Stone weight	lbs
y_c	Critical depth	ft
y_n	Normal depth	ft
z	Critical flow section factor	-

4.4.3 Design Criteria

4.4.3.1 General Criteria

A. Earthen Channels

The City of Texarkana encourages the preservation of natural drainageways or use of constructed vegetated or permeable channels designed to create a more natural environment. Design criteria for earthen channels are:

1. An earthen channel shall have a trapezoidal shape with side slopes not steeper than a 4:1 ratio and a channel bottom at least six (6) feet in width.
2. One (1) foot of freeboard must be provided, within drainage easements, above the 100-year fully developed water surface elevation at all locations along channels.
3. The side slopes and bottom of an earthen channel shall be smooth, free of rocks, and contain a minimum of six (6) inches of topsoil. The side slopes and channel bottom shall be re-vegetated with grass or other acceptable vegetative material. No channel shall be accepted by the City until a uniform (e.g., evenly distributed, without large bare areas) vegetative cover at least 2" in height with a density of 70% has been established.
4. Each reach of a channel requiring vehicular access for maintenance must have a ramp. Variances for ramp requirements shall be considered on a case by case basis by the Director of Public Works. In general, reaches with maintenance access ramps should be located between bridges or culverts but individual situations may vary. Ramps shall be at least ten (10) feet wide and have 15% maximum grade. Twelve-foot (12') width is required if the ramp is bound by vertical walls.

5. Minimum channel slope is 0.0020 ft/ft unless approved by the Director of Public Works.
6. Erosion protection to be provided at upper limits of improvements and outfall to the receiving stream.
7. All improved earthen channels shall include either a "Composite Low Flow" channel or "Trickle" channel. Criteria for each of these channels is as follows:
 - a. Low Flow Composite Channels-
 - 1) Drainage area greater than 300 acres.
 - 2) Minimum design discharge - 2% of fully developed 100 year peak discharge.
 - 3) Maximum depth - 5 feet. Maximum side slope 4:1 (H: V).
 - 4) Minimum bottom width- 6 feet unless approved by the Director of Public Works.
 - 5) Lined with riprap or gabions if design velocity exceeds 5 feet/second (also see iSWM sections 4.4.3 and 4.4.4).
 - 6) Some meanders in alignment acceptable as long as width of shelf between top of bank of low flow channel and toe of slope of main channel is not less than 10 feet. Minimum lateral slope of shelf is 1%.
 - b. Trickle Channels-
 - 1) Drainage area less than or equal to 300 acres.
 - 2) Design discharge - 2% of fully developed 100 year peak discharge.
 - 3) Concrete or permeable armor such as gabions, mat or interlocking block-lined.
 - 4) Minimum bottom width – 6 feet unless approved by the Director of Public Works.
 - 5) Maximum depth -5 feet. Maximum side slope dependent on type of lining.
8. The following guidelines shall be considered for buffer areas or zones along natural or constructed earthen channels:
 - a. A minimum drainage easement shall be required, based on a 4:1 (H:V) slope from the bottom of the bank to the natural ground adjacent to the bank plus an additional 8' on at least one side of the 4:1 slope. See Figure 4.4.-1A.
 - b. Easements shall be dedicated to the public for drainage areas of 50 acres or more, and once the drainage channel or pipe enters a public easement or right-of-way. All drainage easements shall be clearly defined on the final plat.
 - c. Include adjacent delineated wetlands or critical habitats, if known.
 - d. Other buffer widths will be considered if supported by specific engineering and environmental studies.
9. Fencing shall be allowed across earthen channels. Fencing across earthen channels shall not impede the design flow of the channel, and fence materials and spacing shall be used that will provide sufficient open area. The developer / owner shall provide for debris removal at these locations.

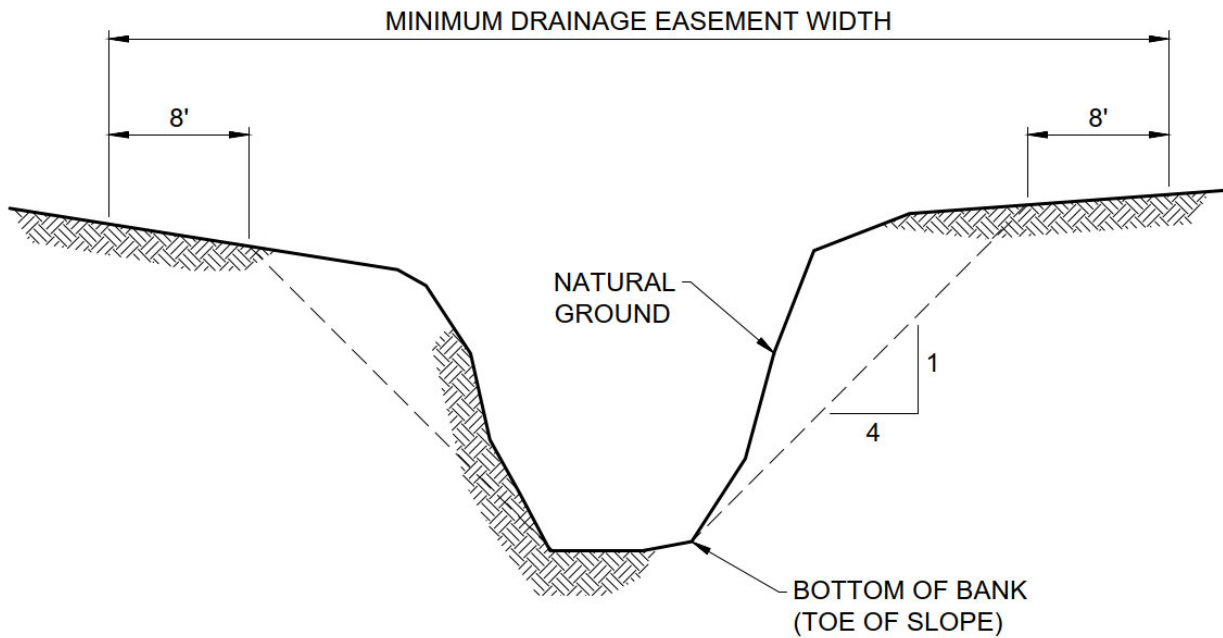


Figure 4.4.-1A Minimum Drainage Easement

B. Lined Channels

In general, lined channels are discouraged and must have approval of the Director of Public Works.

Design Considerations

1. Channels shall be trapezoidal in shape and lined with reinforced concrete (or flexible lining material as approved by the Director of Public Works). Side slopes shall generally be no steeper than 1.5:1 unless approved by the Director of Public Works as appropriate for the lining material. The lining shall extend to and include the water surface elevation of the 100 year fully developed storm plus one foot freeboard.
2. The channel bottom must be a minimum of 6' in width. (A minimum bottom width of 6 feet for overflow structures of storm sewer system sumps or where access is not a concern).
3. The maximum water flow velocity in a lined channel shall be fifteen (15) feet per second except that the water flow shall not be supercritical in an area from 100' upstream from a bridge to 25' downstream from a bridge. Hydraulic jumps shall not be allowed from the face of a culvert to 50' upstream from that culvert. In general channels having supercritical flow conditions are discouraged (See Section 4.4).
4. Whenever flow changes from supercritical to subcritical channel protection shall be provided to protect from the hydraulic jump that is anticipated (see comment in Item 3).
5. The design of the channel lining shall take into account the super elevation of the water surface around curves and other changes in direction.
6. A chain link fence six (6) feet in height or other fence as approved by the Director of Public Works may be required on each side of a lined channel.

7. A minimum drainage easement shall be required to the top bank plus an additional 8' on at least one side of the channel.
8. Easements shall be dedicated to the public for drainage areas of 50 acres or more, and once the drainage channel or pipe enters a public easement or right-of-way. All drainage easements shall be clearly defined on the final plat.
9. Fencing shall not be allowed across lined channels.
10. The Director of Public Works may require a geotechnical study and /or an underground drainage system design option prior to approval of concrete lined channels.

C. Flumes

Flumes differ from open channel ditches in that they direct flow from roadway gutters to a swale or channel. Design considerations are as follows:

1. The design storm shall match the design storm used for the roadway section, for online and sump locations.
2. Minimum flume width shall be 6' from edge to edge, or face of curb to face of curb if a curbed flume is used.
3. Maximum flume width shall be 10' from edge to edge, or face of curb to face of curb if a curbed flume is used.
4. A private easement shall be required totaling the width of the flume plus an additional 5' either side.
5. Flume outfall velocities of 6 fps or higher require outfall stabilization. Maximum velocity shall be 15 fps. Design Engineer to determine if outfall stabilization is required for velocities lower than 6 fps.

D. Roadside Ditches

Design Considerations

1. The design storm for the roadside ditches shall be the 10-year storm. The 100-year flow shall not exceed the right-of-way capacity defined as the natural ground at the right-of-way line or top of roadside ditch.
2. For grass lined sections, the maximum design velocity shall be 6.0 feet per second during the 100-year design storm (Higher velocities justified by a sealed geotechnical study).
3. Minimum grades for roadside ditches shall be 0.0040 foot/foot (0.40%).
4. Manning's roughness coefficient for analysis and design of roadside ditches are presented in Section 4.4.4.
5. Erosion protection will be provided at the upstream and downstream ends of all culverts.
6. Maximum depth will not exceed 4 feet from center-line of pavement except as specifically approved by the Director of Public Works.
7. If the ditch extends beyond the right-of-way line, an additional drainage easement shall be dedicated extending at least 2 feet beyond the top of bank. Utility easements must be separate and beyond any drainage easements.

E. Culverts in Roadside Ditches

1. Culverts will be placed at all driveway and roadway crossings and other locations where appropriate.
2. Roadside culverts are to be sized based on drainage area, assuming inlet control. Calculations are to be provided for each block based on drainage calculations. Culverts shall be sized for the 10-year storm event.

3. Roadside ditch culverts will be no smaller than 24 inches inside diameter or equivalent for roadway crossings and 15 inches for driveway culverts.
4. A driveway culvert schedule shall be included on the face of the plat. It shall include for each lot approximate culvert flowline depth below top of pavement, number and size of pipe required, and horizontal distance from edge of pavement to center of culvert (based on horizontal control requirements above).

4.4.3.2 Velocity Limitation

The final design of artificial open channels should be consistent with the velocity limitations for the selected channel lining. Recommended maximum velocity values for selected lining categories are presented in Table 4.4-2. Seeding and mulch should only be used when the design value does not exceed the allowable value for bare soil. Velocity limitations for vegetative linings are reported in Table 4.4-3. Vegetative lining calculations are presented in Section 4.4.7 and stone riprap procedures are presented in Section 4.4.8.

Typically, local design limits the velocity to 15 fps in concrete lined channels. For gabions typical design velocities range from 10 fps for 6-inch mattresses up to 15 fps for 1-foot mattresses. Some manufacturers indicate that velocities of 20 fps are allowable for basket installations. No specific velocity limit is appropriate for rock riprap. The design of stable riprap lining depends upon the intersection of the velocity (local boundary shear) and the size and gradation of the riprap material. In general, velocity limitations should be set by the local jurisdiction.

4.4.4 – Manning’s n Values

The Manning's n value is an important variable in open channel flow computations. Variation in this variable can significantly affect discharge, depth, and velocity estimates. Since Manning's n values depend on many different physical characteristics of natural and man-made channels, care and good engineering judgment must be exercised in the selection process.

Recommended Manning's n values for artificial channels with rigid, unlined, temporary, and stone riprap linings are given in Table 4.4-4. Recommended values for vegetative linings should be determined using Figure 4.4-1B, which provides a graphical relationship between Manning's n values and the product of velocity and hydraulic radius for several vegetative retardance classifications (see Table 4.4-6). Figure 4.4-1B is used iteratively as described in Section 4.4.7. Recommended Manning's values for natural channels that are either excavated or dredged, and natural are given in Table 4.4-5. For natural channels, Manning's n values should be estimated using experienced judgment and information presented in publications such as the *Guide for Selecting Manning's Roughness Coefficients for Natural Channels and Flood Plains*, FHWA-TS-84-204, 1984, FHWA HEC-15, 1988, or Chow, 1959. Some of these values are given in Table 4.4-2 below.

Table 4.4-2	Roughness Coefficients (Manning’s n) and Allowable Velocities for Natural Channels
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Channel Description	Manning's n	Maximum Permissible Channel Velocity (ft/s)
MINOR NATURAL STREAMS		
Fairly regular section		
1. Some grass and weeds; little or no brush	0.030	3 to 6
2. Dense growth of weeds, depth of flow materially greater than weed height	0.035	3 to 6
3. Some weeds, light brush on banks	0.035	3 to 6
4. Some weeds, heavy brush on banks	0.050	3 to 6
5. Some weeds, dense willows on banks	0.060	3 to 6
For trees within channels with branches submerged at high stage, increase above values by	0.010	
Irregular section with pools, slight channel meander, increase above values by	0.010	
Floodplain – Pasture		
1. Short grass	0.030	3 to 6
2. Tall grass	0.035	3 to 6
Floodplain – Cultivated Areas		
1. No crop	0.030	3 to 6
2. Mature row crops	0.035	3 to 6
3. Mature field crops	0.040	3 to 6
Floodplain – Uncleared		
1. Heavy weeds scattered brush	0.050	3 to 6
2. Wooded	0.120	3 to 6
UNLINED VEGETATED CHANNELS		
Clays (Bermuda Grass)	0.035	5 to 6
Sandy and Silty Soils (Bermuda Grass)	0.035	3 to 5
UNLINED NON-VEGETATED CHANNELS		
Sandy Soils	0.030	1.5 to 2.5
Silts	0.030	0.7 to 1.5
Sandy Silts	0.030	2.5 to 3.0
Clays	0.030	3.0 to 5.0
Coarse Gravels	0.030	5.0 to 6.0
Shale	0.030	6.0 to 10.0
Rock	0.025	15

Table 4.4-3 Maximum Velocities for Vegetative Channel Linings

Vegetation Type	Slope Range (%) ¹	Maximum Velocity ² (ft/s)
Bermuda grass	0-5	6
Bahia		4
Tall fescue grass mixtures ³	0-10	4
Kentucky bluegrass	0-5	6
Buffalo grass	5-10	5
	>10	4
Grass mixture	0-5 ¹	4
	5-10	3
Sericea lespedeza, Weeping lovegrass, Alfalfa	0-5 ⁴	3
Annuals ⁵	0-5	3
Sod		4
Lapped sod		5
¹ Do not use on slopes steeper than 10% except for side-slope in combination channel. ² Use velocities exceeding 5 ft/s only where good stands can be maintained. ³ Mixtures of Tall Fescue, Bahia, and/or Bermuda ⁴ Do not use on slopes steeper than 5% except for side-slope in combination channel. ⁵ Annuals - used on mild slopes or as temporary protection until permanent covers are established.		

Source: Manual for Erosion and Sediment Control in Georgia, 1996

Category	Lining Type	Depth Ranges		
		0-0.5 ft	0.5-2.0 ft	>2.0 ft
Rigid	Concrete	0.015	0.013	0.013
	Grouted Riprap	0.040	0.030	0.028
	Stone Masonry	0.042	0.032	0.030
	Soil Cement	0.025	0.022	0.020
	Asphalt	0.018	0.016	0.016
Unlined	Bare Soil	0.023	0.020	0.020
	Rock Cut	0.045	0.035	0.025
Temporary*	Woven Paper Net	0.016	0.015	0.015
	Jute Net	0.028	0.022	0.019
	Fiberglass Roving	0.028	0.022	0.019
	Straw with Net	0.065	0.033	0.025
	Curled Wood Mat	0.066	0.035	0.028
	Synthetic Mat	0.036	0.025	0.021
Gravel Riprap	1-inch D ₅₀	0.044	0.033	0.030
	2-inch D ₅₀	0.066	0.041	0.034
Rock Riprap	6-inch D ₅₀	0.104	0.069	0.035
	12-inch D ₅₀	—	0.078	0.040

Note: Values listed are representative values for the respective depth ranges. Manning's roughness coefficients, n, vary with the flow depth.

*Some "temporary" linings become permanent when buried.

Source: HEC-15, 1988.

When designing open channels, the usual choice of Manning's roughness coefficients may be found in Table 4.4-5. The Director of Public Works may choose to vary from these values.

Lining Type	Manning's n	Comments
Grass Lined	0.035	Use for velocity check.
	0.050	Use for channel capacity check (freeboard check)
Concrete Lined	0.015	
Gabions	0.030	
Rock Riprap	0.040	$n = 0.0395d_{50}^{1/6}$ where d_{50} is the stone size of which 50% of the sample is smaller
Grouted Riprap	0.028	FWHA

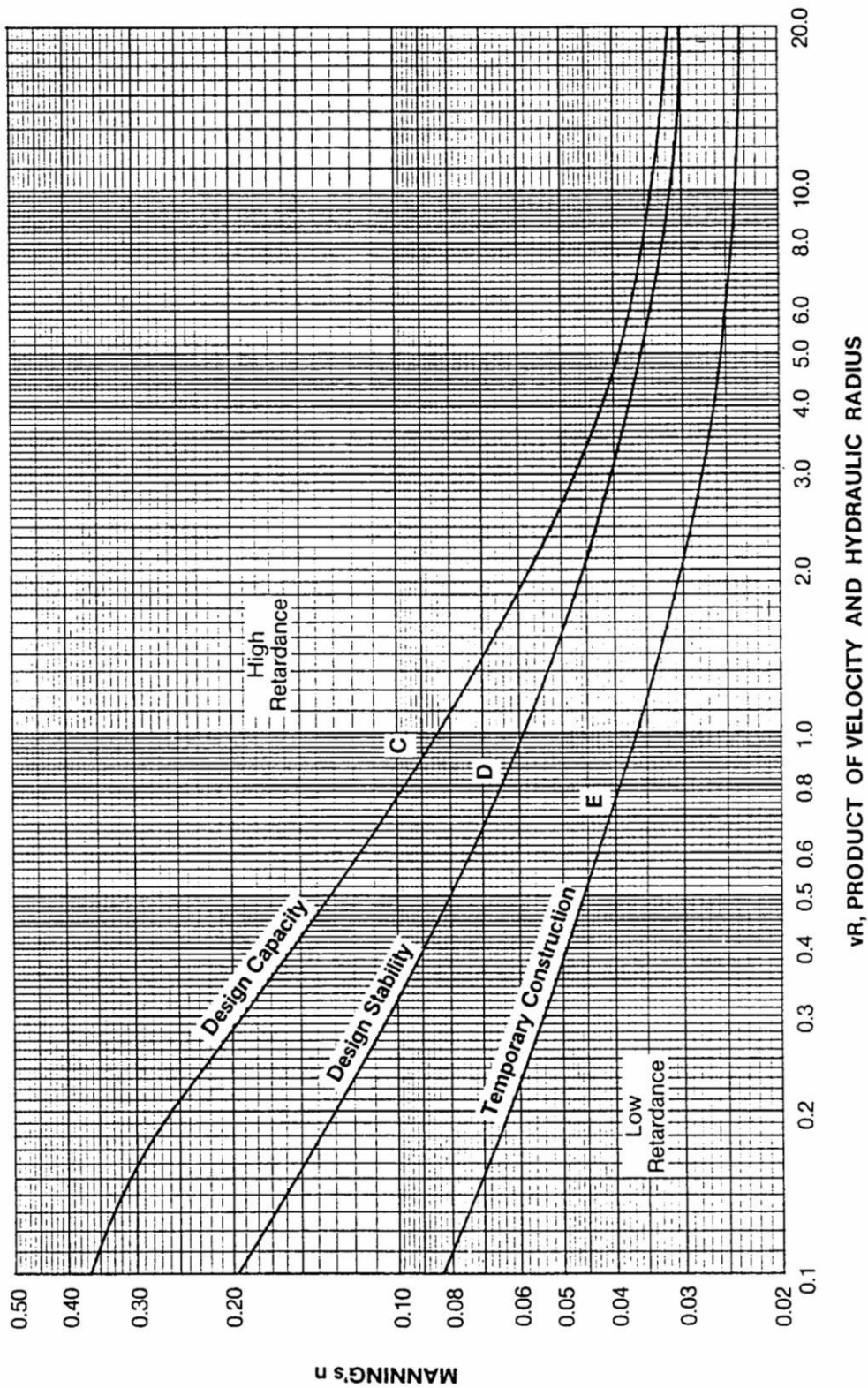


Figure 4.4-1B Manning's n Values for Vegetated Channels
 (Source: USDA, TP-61, 1947)

Table 4.4-6 Classification of Vegetal Covers as to Degrees of Retardance		
Retardance	Cover	Condition
A	Weeping Lovegrass	Excellent stand, tall (average 30")
	Yellow Bluestem Ischaemum	Excellent stand, tall (average 36")
B	Kudzu	Very dense growth, uncut
	Bermuda grass	Good stand, tall (average 12")
	Native grass mixture Little bluestem, bluestem, blue gamma other short and long stem Midwest grasses	Good stand, unmowed
	Weeping lovegrass	Good stand, tall (average 24")
	Laspedeza sericea	Good stand, not woody, tall (average 19")
	Alfalfa	Good stand, uncut (average 11")
	Weeping lovegrass	Good stand, unmowed (average 13")
C	Kudzu	Dense growth, uncut
	Blue gamma	Good stand, uncut (average 13")
	Crabgrass	Fair stand, uncut (10 – 48")
	Bermuda grass	Good stand, mowed (average 6")
	Common lespedeza	Good stand, uncut (average 11")
	Grass-legume mixture: summer (orchard grass redtop, Italian ryegrass, and common lespedeza)	Good stand, uncut (6 – 8 ")
	Centipede grass	Very dense cover (average 6")
D	Kentucky bluegrass	Good stand, headed (6 – 12")
	Bermuda grass	Good stand, cut to 2.5"
	Common lespedeza	Excellent stand, uncut (average 4.5")
	Buffalo grass	Good stand, uncut (3 – 6")
	Grass-legume mixture: fall, spring (orchard grass, redtop, Italian ryegrass, and common lespedeza)	Good stand, uncut (4 – 5")
E	Lespedeza sericea	After cutting to 2" (very good before cutting)
	Bermuda grass	Good stand, cut to 1.5"
	Bermuda grass	Burned stubble

Note: Covers classified have been tested in experimental channels. Covers were green and generally uniform.

Source: HEC-15, 1988

4.4.5 Uniform Flow Calculations

4.4.5.1 Design Charts

Following is a discussion of the equations that can be used for the design and analysis of open channel flow. The Federal Highway Administration has prepared numerous design charts to aid in the design of rectangular, trapezoidal, and triangular open channel cross sections. In addition, design charts for grass-lined channels have been developed. Examples of these charts and instructions for their use are given in subsection 4.4.12.

4.4.5.2 Manning's Equation

Manning's Equation, presented in three forms below, is recommended for evaluating uniform flow conditions in open channels:

$$v = (1.49/n) R^{2/3} S^{1/2} \quad (4.4.1)$$

$$Q = (1.49/n) A R^{2/3} S^{1/2} \quad (4.4.2)$$

$$S = [Q_n / (1.49 A R^{2/3})]^2 \quad (4.4.3)$$

where:

v	=	average channel velocity (ft/s)
Q	=	discharge rate for design conditions (cfs)
n	=	Manning's roughness coefficient
A	=	cross-sectional area (ft ²)
R	=	hydraulic radius A/P (ft)
P	=	wetted perimeter (ft)
S	=	slope of the energy grade line (ft/ft)

For prismatic channels, in the absence of backwater conditions, the slope of the energy grade line, water surface and channel bottom are assumed to be equal.

For a more comprehensive discussion of open channel theory and design, see the reference USACE, 1991/1994.

4.4.5.3 Geometric Relationships

Area, wetted perimeter, hydraulic radius, and channel top width for standard channel cross sections can be calculated from geometric dimensions. Irregular channel cross sections (i.e., those with a narrow deep main channel and a wide shallow overbank channel) must be subdivided into segments so that the flow can be computed separately for the main channel and overbank portions. This same process of subdivision may be used when different parts of the channel cross section have different roughness coefficients. When computing the hydraulic radius of the subsections, the water depth common to the two adjacent subsections is not counted as wetted perimeter.

4.4.5.4 Direct Solutions

When the hydraulic radius, cross-sectional area, and roughness coefficient and slope are known, discharge can be calculated directly from equation 4.4.2. The slope can be calculated using equation 4.4.3 when the discharge, roughness coefficient, area, and hydraulic radius are known.

Nomographs for obtaining direct solutions to Manning's Equation are presented in Figures 4.4-2 and 4.4-3. Figure 4.4-2 provides a general solution for the velocity form of Manning's Equation, while Figure 4.4-3 provides a solution of Manning's Equation for trapezoidal channels.

General Solution Nomograph

The following steps are used for the general solution nomograph in Figure 4.4-2:

- Step 1 Determine open channel data, including slope in ft/ft, hydraulic radius in ft, and Manning's n value.
- Step 2 Connect a line between the Manning's n scale and slope scale and note the point of intersection on the turning line.
- Step 3 Connect a line from the hydraulic radius to the point of intersection obtained in Step 2.
- Step 4 Extend the line from Step 3 to the velocity scale to obtain the velocity in ft/s.

Trapezoidal Solution Nomograph

The trapezoidal channel nomograph solution to Manning's Equation in Figure 4.4-3 can be used to find the depth of flow if the design discharge is known or the design discharge if the depth of flow is known.

Determine input data, including slope in ft/ft, Manning's n value, bottom width in ft, and side slope in ft/ft.

Given Q , find d .

- a. Given the design discharge, find the product of Q times n , connect a line from the slope scale to the Qn scale, and find the point of intersection on the turning line.
- b. Connect a line from the turning point from Step 2a to the b scale and find the intersection with the $z = 0$ scale.
- c. Project horizontally from the point located in Step 2b to the appropriate z value and find the value of d/b .
- d. Multiply the value of d/b obtained in Step 2c by the bottom width b to find the depth of uniform flow, d .

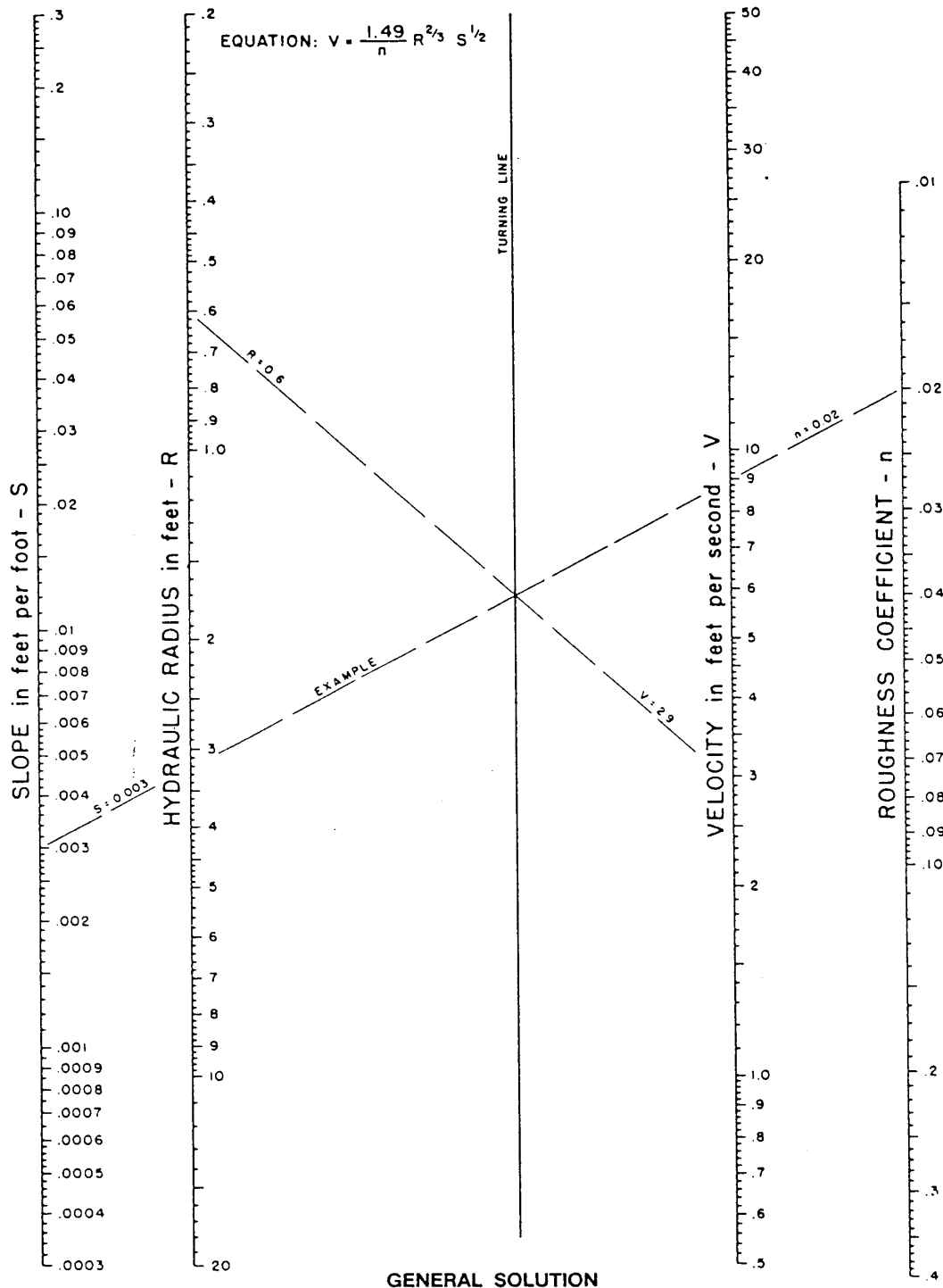
Given d , find Q

Given the depth of flow, find the ratio d divided by b and project a horizontal line from the d/b ratio at the appropriate side slope, z , to the $z = 0$ scale.

Connect a line from the point located in Step 3a to the b scale and find the intersection with the turning line.

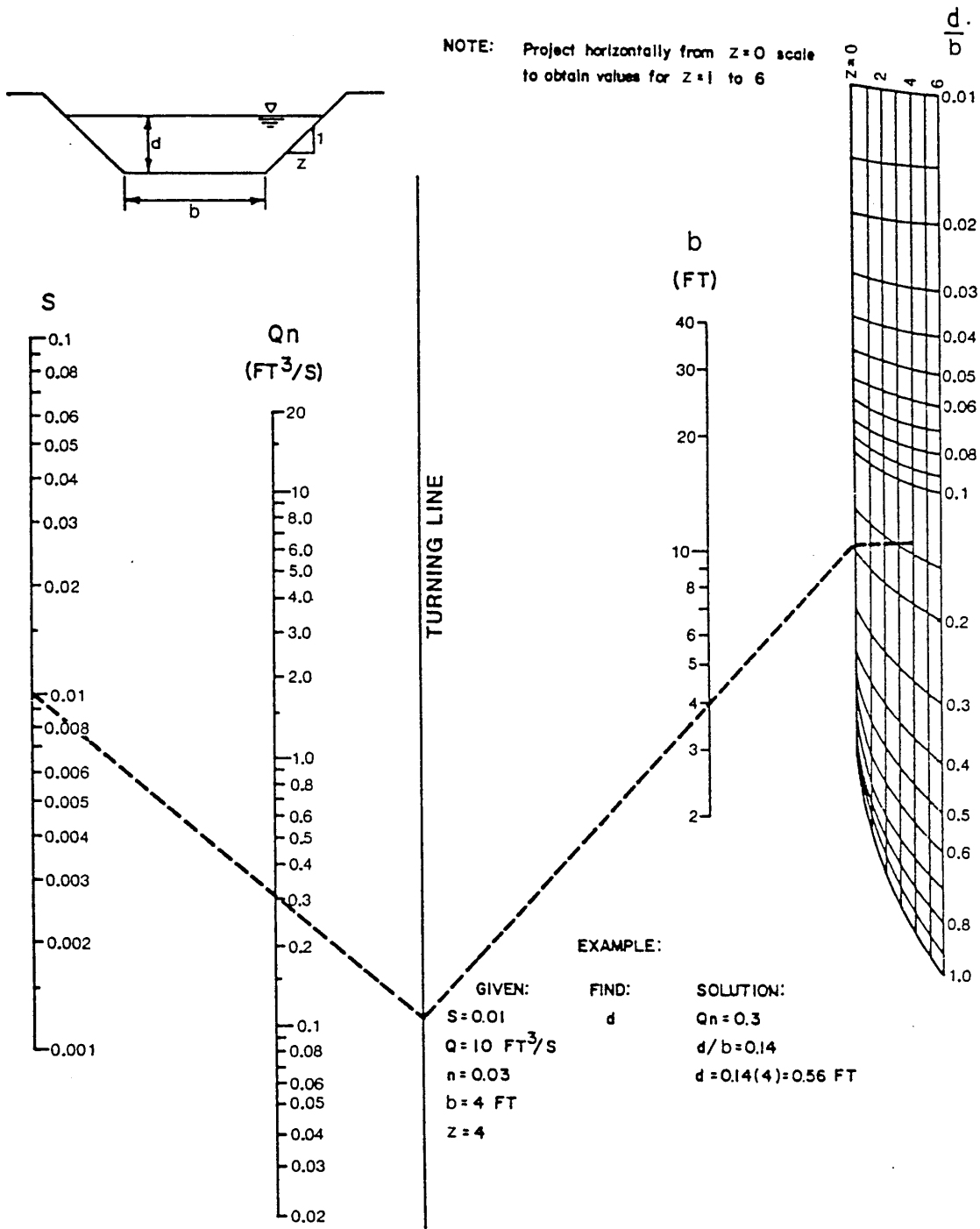
Connect a line from the point located in Step 3b to the slope scale and find the intersection with the Q_n scale.

Divide the value of Q_n obtained in Step 3c by the n value to find the design discharge, Q .



Reference: USDOT, FHWA, HDS-3 (1961).

Figure 4.4-2 Nomograph for the Solution of Manning's Equation



Reference: USDOT, FHWA, HEC-15 (1986).

Figure 4.4-3 Solution of Manning's Equation for Trapezoidal Channels

4.4.5.5 Trial and Error Solutions

A trial and error procedure for solving Manning's Equation is used to compute the normal depth of flow in a uniform channel when the channel shape, slope, roughness, and design discharge are known. For purposes of the trial and error process, Manning's Equation can be arranged as:

$$AR^{2/3} = (Qn)/(1.49 S^{1/2}) \quad (4.4.4)$$

where:

A	=	cross-sectional area (ft)
R	=	hydraulic radius (ft)
Q	=	discharge rate for design conditions (cfs)
n	=	Manning's roughness coefficient
S	=	slope of the energy grade line (ft/ft)

To determine the normal depth of flow in a channel by the trial and error process, trial values of depth are used to determine A, P, and R for the given channel cross section. Trial values of $AR^{2/3}$ are computed until the equality of equation 4.4.4 is satisfied such that the design flow is conveyed for the slope and selected channel cross section.

Graphical procedures for simplifying trial and error solutions are presented in Figure 4.4-4 for trapezoidal channels. Computer programs are also available for these calculations.

Step 1 Determine input data, including design discharge, Q, Manning's n value, channel bottom width, b, channel slope, S, and channel side slope, z.

Step 2 Calculate the trapezoidal conveyance factor using the equation:

$$K_T = (Qn)/(b^{8/3}S^{1/2}) \quad (4.4.5)$$

where:

K_T	=	trapezoidal open channel conveyance factor
Q	=	discharge rate for design conditions (cfs)
n	=	Manning's roughness coefficient
b	=	bottom width (ft)
S	=	slope of the energy grade line (ft/ft)

Step 3 Enter the x-axis of Figure 4.4-4 with the value of K_T calculated in Step 2 and draw a line vertically to the curve corresponding to the appropriate z value from Step 1.

Step 4 From the point of intersection obtained in Step 3, draw a horizontal line to the y-axis and read the value of the normal depth of flow over the bottom width, d/b.

Step 5 Multiply the d/b value from Step 4 by b to obtain the normal depth of flow.

Note: If bends are considered, refer to equation 4.4.11

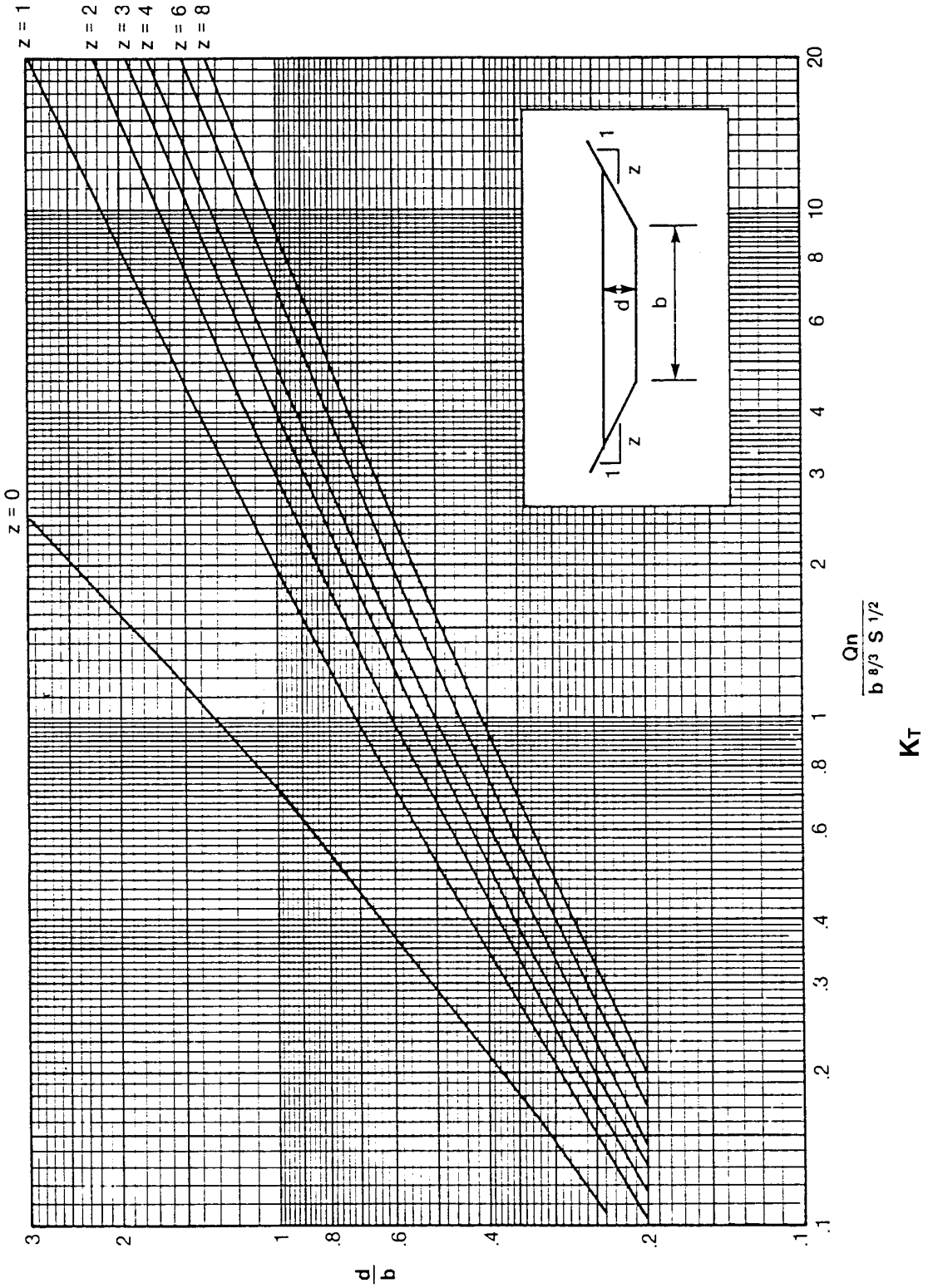


Figure 4.4-4 Trapezoidal Channel Capacity Chart
 (Source: Nashville Stormwater Management Manual, 1988)

4.4.6 Critical Flow Calculations

4.4.6.1 Background

In the design of open channels, it is important to calculate the critical depth in order to determine if the flow in the channel will be subcritical or supercritical. If the flow is subcritical it is relatively easy to handle the flow through channel transitions because the flows are tranquil and wave action is minimal. In subcritical flow, the depth at any point is influenced by a downstream control, which may be either the critical depth or the water surface elevation in a pond or larger downstream channel. In supercritical flow, the depth of flow at any point is influenced by a control upstream, usually critical depth. In addition, the flows have relatively shallow depths and high velocities. Hydraulic jumps are possible under these conditions and consideration should be given to stabilizing the channel.

Critical depth depends only on the discharge rate and channel geometry. The general equation for determining critical depth is expressed as:

$$Q^2/g = A^3/T \quad (4.4.6)$$

where:

Q	=	discharge rate for design conditions (cfs)
g	=	acceleration due to gravity (32.2 ft/sec ²)
A	=	cross-sectional area (ft ²)
T	=	top width of water surface (ft)

Note: A trial and error procedure is needed to solve equation 4.4-6.

4.4.6.2 Semi-Empirical Equations

Semi-empirical equations (as presented in Table 4.4-7) or section factors (as presented in Figure 4.4-5) can be used to simplify trial and error critical depth calculations. The following equation is used to determine critical depth with the critical flow section factor, Z:

$$Z = Q/(g^{0.5}) \quad (4.4.7)$$

where:

Z	=	critical flow section factor
Q	=	discharge rate for design conditions (cfs)
g	=	acceleration due to gravity (32.3 ft/sec ²)

The following guidelines are given for evaluating critical flow conditions of open channel flow:

1. A normal depth of uniform flow within about 10% of critical depth is unstable and should be avoided in design, if possible.
2. If the velocity head is less than one-half the mean depth of flow, the flow is subcritical.
3. If the velocity head is equal to one-half the mean depth of flow, the flow is critical.

4. If the velocity head is greater than one-half the mean depth of flow, the flow is supercritical.

Note: The head is the height of water above any point, plane, or datum of reference. The velocity head in flowing water is calculated as the velocity squared divided by 2 times the gravitational constant ($V^2/2g$).

The Froude number, Fr, calculated by the following equation, is useful for evaluating the type of flow conditions in an open channel:

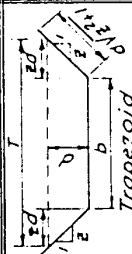
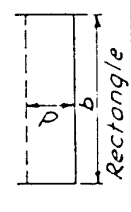
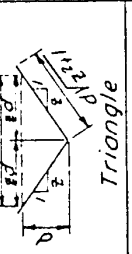

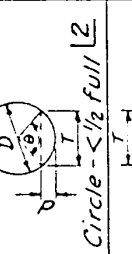
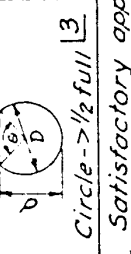
$$\mathbf{Fr = v/(gA/T)^{0.5}} \qquad \mathbf{(4.4.8)}$$

where:

Fr	=	Froude number (dimensionless)
v	=	velocity of flow (ft/s)
g	=	acceleration of gravity (32.2 ft/sec ²)
A	=	cross-sectional area of flow (ft ²)
T	=	top width of flow (ft)

If Fr is greater than 1.0, flow is supercritical; if it is under 1.0, flow is subcritical. Fr is 1.0 for critical flow conditions.

Table 4.4-7 Critical Depth Equations for Uniform Flow in Selected Channel Cross Sections		
Channel Type ¹	Semi-Empirical Equations ² for Estimating Critical Depth	Range of Applicability
1. Rectangular ³	$d_c = [Q^2/(gb^2)]^{1/3}$	N/A
2. Trapezoidal ³	$d_c = 0.81[Q^2/(gz^{0.75b^{1.25}})]^{0.27} - b/30z$	$0.1 < 0.5522 Q/b^{2.5} < 0.4$ For $0.5522 Q/b^{2.5} < 0.1$, use rectangular channel equation
3. Triangular ³	$d_c = [(2Q^2)/(gz^2)]^{1/5}$	N/A
4. Circular ⁴	$d_c = 0.325(Q/D)^{2/3} + 0.083D$	$0.3 < d_c/D < 0.9$
5. General ⁵	$(A^3/T) = (Q^2/g)$	N/A
<p>where:</p> <p>d_c = critical depth (ft)</p> <p>Q = design discharge (cfs)</p> <p>g = acceleration due to gravity (32.3 ft/s²)</p> <p>b = bottom width of channel (ft)</p> <p>z = side slopes of a channel (horizontal to vertical)</p> <p>D = diameter of circular conduit (ft)</p> <p>A = cross-sectional area of flow (ft²)</p> <p>T = top width of water surface (ft)</p>		
<p>¹ See Figure 4.4-5 for channel sketches</p> <p>² Assumes uniform flow with the kinetic energy coefficient equal to 1.0</p> <p>³ Reference: French (1985)</p> <p>⁴ Reference: USDOT, FHWA, HDS-4 (1965)</p> <p>⁵ Reference: Brater and King (1976)</p>		

Section	Area A	Wetted Perimeter P	Hydraulic Radius R	Top Width T	Critical Depth Factor, Z
 Trapezoid	$bd + zd^2$	$b + 2d\sqrt{z^2 + 1}$	$\frac{bd + zd^2}{b + 2d\sqrt{z^2 + 1}}$	$b + 2zd$	$\left[\frac{(b + zd)d}{\sqrt{b + 2zd}} \right]^{1.5}$
 Rectangle	bd	$b + 2d$	$\frac{bd}{b + 2d}$	b	$bd^{1.5}$
 Triangle	zd^2	$2d\sqrt{z^2 + 1}$	$\frac{zd}{2\sqrt{z^2 + 1}}$	$2zd$	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} zd^{2.5}$
 Parabola	$\frac{2}{3} dT$	$T + \frac{8d^2}{3T}$	$\frac{2dT^2}{3T^2 + 8d^2}$ \perp	$\frac{3a}{2d}$	$\frac{2}{9} \sqrt{6} Td^{1.5}$
 Circle - $\frac{1}{2}$ full \perp 2	$\frac{D^2}{8} (\frac{\pi\theta}{180} - \sin\theta)$	$\frac{\pi D\theta}{360}$	$\frac{45D}{\pi\theta} (\frac{\pi\theta}{180} - \sin\theta)$	$D \sin \frac{\theta}{2}$ or $2\sqrt{d(D-d)}$	$a \sqrt{\frac{a}{D \sin \frac{\theta}{2}}}$
 Circle - > $\frac{1}{2}$ full \perp 3	$\frac{D^2}{8} (2\pi - \frac{\pi\theta}{180} + \sin\theta)$	$\frac{\pi D(360 - \theta)}{360}$	$\frac{45D}{\pi(360 - \theta)} (2\pi - \frac{\pi\theta}{180} + \sin\theta)$	$D \sin \frac{\theta}{2}$ or $2\sqrt{d(D-d)}$	$a \sqrt{\frac{a}{D \sin \frac{\theta}{2}}}$

Note: Small z = Side Slope Horizontal Distance
Large Z = Critical Depth Section Factor

\perp Satisfactory approximation for the interval $0 < \frac{\theta}{T} \leq 0.25$
When $d/T > 0.25$, use $p = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{6d^2 + T^2} + \frac{T^2}{8d} \sinh^{-1} \frac{4d}{T}$
 \perp 2 $\theta = 4 \sin^{-1} \sqrt{d/D}$
 \perp 3 $\theta = 4 \cos^{-1} \sqrt{d/D}$ Insert θ in degrees in above equations

Reference: USDA, SCS, NEH-5 (1956).

Figure 4.4-5 Open Channel Geometric Relationships for Various Cross Sections

4.4.7 Vegetative Design

4.4.7.1 Introduction

A two-part procedure is an alternative for design of temporary and vegetative channel linings. **This procedure is only allowed with the approval of the Director of Public Works.** Part 1, the design stability component, involves determining channel dimensions for low vegetative retardance conditions, using Class D as defined in Table 4.4-6. Part 2, the design capacity component, involves determining the depth increase necessary to maintain capacity for higher vegetative retardance conditions, using Class C as defined in Table 4.4-6. If temporary lining is to be used during construction, vegetative retardance Class E should be used for the design stability calculations.

If the channel slope exceeds 10%, or a combination of channel linings will be used, additional procedures not presented below are required. References include HEC-15 (USDOT, FHWA, 1986) and HEC-14 (USDOT, FHWA, 1983).

4.4.7.2 Design Stability

The following are the steps for design stability calculations:

- Step 1 Determine appropriate design variables, including discharge, Q, bottom slope, S, cross section parameters, and vegetation type.
- Step 2 Use Table 4.4-3 to assign a maximum velocity, v_m based on vegetation type and slope range.
- Step 3 Assume a value of n and determine the corresponding value of vR from the n versus vR curves in Figure 4.4-1B. Use retardance Class D for permanent vegetation and E for temporary construction.
- Step 4 Calculate the hydraulic radius using the equation:

$$R = (vR)/v_m \quad (4.4.9)$$

where:

- R = hydraulic radius of flow (ft)
- vR = value obtained from Figure 4.4-1B in Step 3
- v_m = maximum velocity from Step 2 (ft/s)

- Step 5 Use the following form of Manning's Equation to calculate the value of vR:

$$vR = (1.49 R^{5/3} S^{1/2})/n \quad (4.4.10)$$

where:

- vR = calculated value of vR product
- R = hydraulic radius value from Step 4 (ft)
- S = channel bottom slope (ft/ft)
- n = Manning's n value assumed in Step 3

- Step 6 Compare the vR product value obtained in Step 5 to the value obtained from Figure 4.4-1B for the assumed n value in Step 3. If the values are not reasonably close, return to Step 3 and repeat the calculations using a new assumed n value.

- Step 7 For trapezoidal channels, find the flow depth using Figures 4.4-3 or 4.4-4, as described in Section 4.4.4.4. The depth of flow for other channel shapes can be evaluated using the trial and error procedure described in Section 4.4.4.5.
- Step 8 If bends are considered, calculate the length of downstream protection, L_p , for the bend, using Figure 4.4-6. Provide additional protection, such as gravel or riprap in the bend and extending downstream for length, L_p .

Design Capacity

The following are the steps for design capacity calculations:

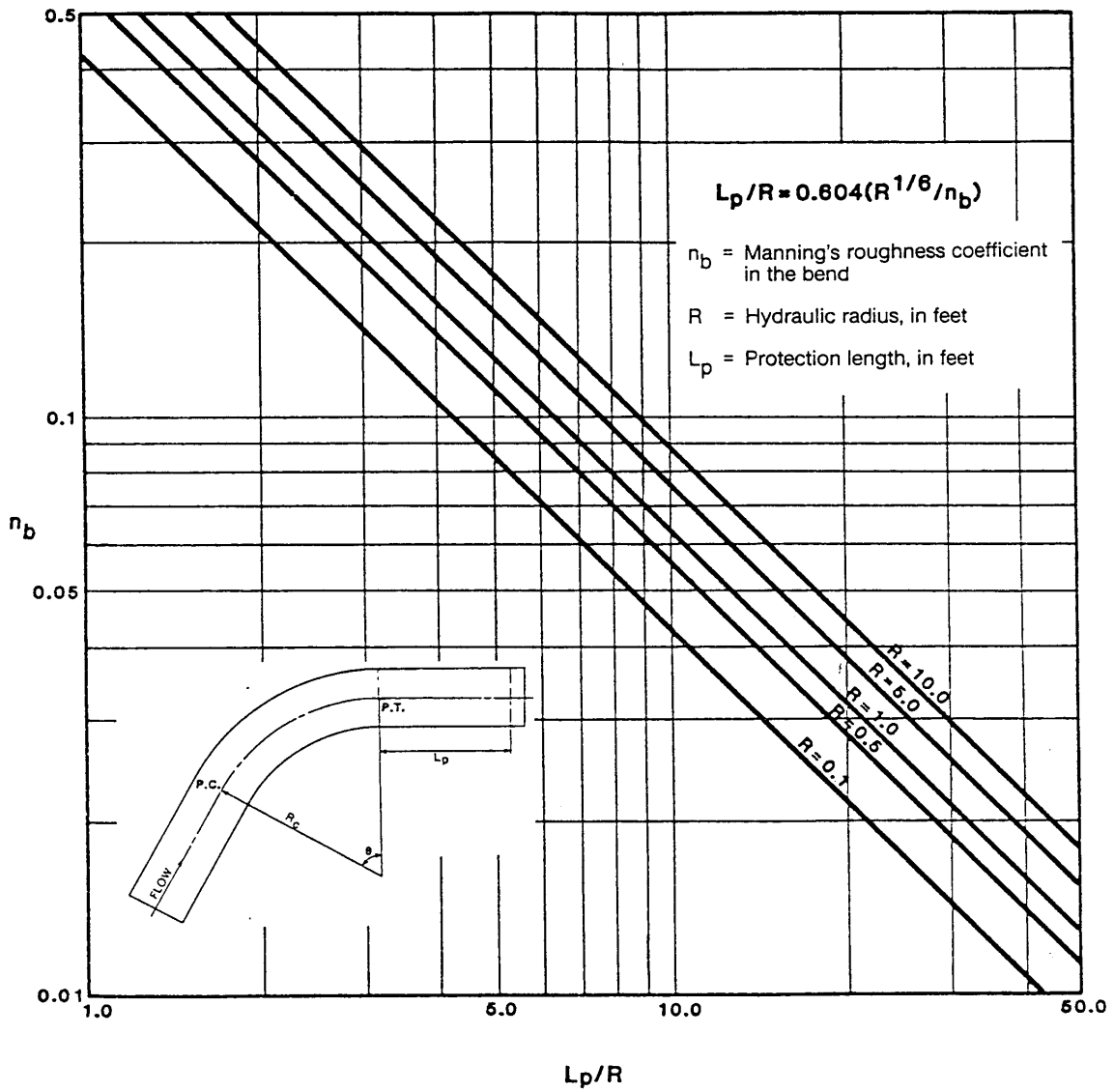
- Step 1 Assume a depth of flow greater than the value from Step 7 above and compute the waterway area and hydraulic radius (see Figure 4.4-5 for equations).
- Step 2 Divide the design flow rate, obtained using appropriate procedures from Chapter 2, by the waterway area from Step 1 to find the velocity.
- Step 3 Multiply the velocity from Step 2 by the hydraulic radius from Step 1 to find the value of vR .
- Step 4 Use Figure 4.4-1B to find a Manning's n value for retardance Class C based on the vR value from Step 3.
- Step 5 Use Manning's Equation (equation 4.4.1) or Figure 4.4-2 to find the velocity using the hydraulic radius from Step 1, Manning's n value from Step 4, and appropriate bottom slope.
- Step 6 Compare the velocity values from Steps 2 and 5. If the values are not reasonably close, return to Step 1 and repeat the calculations.
- Step 7 Add an appropriate freeboard to the final depth from Step 6. Generally, 20% is adequate.
- Step 8 If bends are considered, calculate super-elevation of the water surface profile at the bend using the equation:

$$d = (v^2 T) / (g R_c) \quad (4.4.11)$$

where:

d	=	super-elevation of the water surface profile due to the bend (ft)
v	=	average velocity from Step 6 (ft/s)
T	=	top width of flow (ft)
g	=	acceleration of gravity (32.2 ft/sec ²)
R_c	=	mean radius of the bend (ft)

Note: Add freeboard consistent with the calculated d .



Reference: USDOT, FHWA, HEC-15 (1986).

Figure 4.4-6 Protection Length, L_p , Downstream of Channel Bend

4.4.8 – Stone Riprap Design

A number of agencies and researchers have studied and developed empirical equations to estimate the required size of rock riprap to resist various hydraulic conditions, including the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Soil Conservation Service and Federal Highway Administration. As with all empirical equations based on the results of laboratory experiments, they must be used with an understanding of the range of data on which they are based.

A paper prepared by Garry Gregory in June of 1987 has been widely used in Texas for riprap design. He recommends estimating $D_{50} = \tau/[0.04(\gamma_s - \gamma)]$, including similar adjustments for bends and channel side slopes. Excerpts from this paper are presented below. Also see Figure 4.4-7 through 4.4-12 and stone riprap sections Figures 4.4-15 and 4.4-16. Regardless of computed thickness the minimum allowable riprap thickness is 12 inches. A properly designed geotextile is required under the bedding layer.

Design Criteria

Natural or Construction Channel Protection:

1. Calculate boundary shear (tractive stress or tractive force) by:

$$T_o = \gamma' R S \quad (4.4.12)$$

Where: T_o = average tractive stress on channel bottom, PSF

γ' = unit weight of water (62.4 pcf)

R = hydraulic radius of channel

S = slope of energy gradient

$$T_o^1 = T_o * (1 - (\sin^2 \phi / \sin^2 \theta))^{0.5} \quad (4.4.13)$$

Where: T_o^1 = average tractive stress on channel side slopes, PSF

T_o = same as in equation (Eq. 4.4.12)

ϕ = angle of side slope with the horizontal

θ = angle of repose of riprap (approx. 40°)

The greater value of T_o or T_o^1 governs.

2. Determine the tractive stress in a bend in the channel by:

$$T_b = T \times 3.15 (r/w)^{-0.5} \quad (4.4.14)$$

Where:

T_b = local tractive stress in the bend, PSF

T = the greater of T_o or T_o^1 from equations (4.4.12) & (4.4.13)

r = center-line radius of the bend, feet

w = water surface width at upstream end of bend, feet

3. Determine D_{50} size of riprap stone required from:

$$D_{50} = T / 0.04 (\gamma'_s - \gamma') \quad (4.4.15)$$

Where:

D_{50} = required average size of riprap stone, feet

(size at which 50% of the gradation is finer weight)

T = the greater of T_o or T_o^1 from equations (4.4.12) & (4.4.13)

or for a bend in the channel

a = a constant = 0.04

γ'_s = saturated surface dry (SSD) specific weight of stone

γ =unit weight of water (62.4pcf)

4. Select minimum riprap thickness required from GRAIN SIZE CURVES, Figures 4.4-7 through 4.4-12. Select from smaller side of band at 50% finer gradation.
5. Select RIPRAP GRADATIONS table (Figure 4.4-13 and 4.4-14) based upon riprap thickness selected in step 4.
6. Select bedding thickness from the GRAIN SIZE CURVES, Figures 4.4-7 through 4.4-12 which was used to select the riprap thickness in step 4. NOTE: the bedding thicknesses included on Figures 4.4-7 through 4.4-12 are based upon using a properly designed geotextile underneath the bedding. If a geotextile is not used the bedding thickness must be increased to a minimum of 9 inches for 24 inch and 30 inch thickness of riprap and a minimum of 12 inches for the 36 inch thickness of riprap.
7. To provide stability in the riprap layer the riprap gradations should meet the following criteria for GRADATION INDEX:

$$\text{GRADATION INDEX: } [D_{85}/D_{50} + D_{50}/D_{15}] \leq 5.5 \quad (4.4-16)$$

Where: D85, D50 and D15 are the riprap grain sizes in MM of which 85%, 50% and 15% respectively are finer by weight.
The mid-band gradations of Plates 1 through 6 meet this criteria.

8. To provide stability of the bedding layer the bedding should meet the following filter criteria with respect to the riprap

$$D_{15}/d_{85} < 5 < D_{15}/d_{15} < 40 \quad (4.4-17)$$

$$D_{50}/d_{50} < 40 \quad (4.4-18)$$

Where: D refers to riprap sizes in MM
d refers to bedding sizes in MM
The mid-band gradations of Plates 1 through 6 meet this criteria.

9. The geotextile underneath the bedding should be designed as a filter to the soil.
10. Figures 4.4-17 and 4.4-18 present typical riprap design sections. These figures are from EM1110-2-160 by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers.

4.4.8.4 Culvert Outfall Protection

The following procedure can be used to design stone riprap protection for culvert outfalls.

1. Determine the D₅₀ size of riprap required from:

$$D_{50} = \sqrt{V} [C [2g (\gamma_s - \gamma_w / \gamma_w)]]^{1/2} \quad (4.4-19)$$

Where: D₅₀=Required average size of riprap stone, feet
V=water velocity at culvert outlet, FPS
g=acceleration of gravity, 32.2 feet per sec/sec
 γ_s =saturated surface dry (SSD) specific weight of stone
 γ_w =unit weight of water, 62.4 pcf
C=a stability coefficient determined by the author to be 1.8
For culvert outlets based upon experience and observation

NOTE: For a SSD specific weight of stone of 160 pcf and C=1.8 equation (8) reduces to:

$$D_{50} = (V/18)^{1/2} \quad (4.4.20)$$

2. Select riprap and bedding from Figures 4.4-7 through 4.4-12 D_{50} determined from equation (Eq. 4.4.19) or (Eq. 4.4.20).
3. Select gradations from gradation tables (Figures 4.4-17 and 4.4-18).

Grouted Riprap – The City of Texarkana will allow grouted stone riprap as an erosion control feature. However, the design thickness of the stone lining will not be reduced by the use of grout. See the Corps' design manual ETL 1110-2-334 on design and construction of grouted riprap which should be an available option for certain applications.

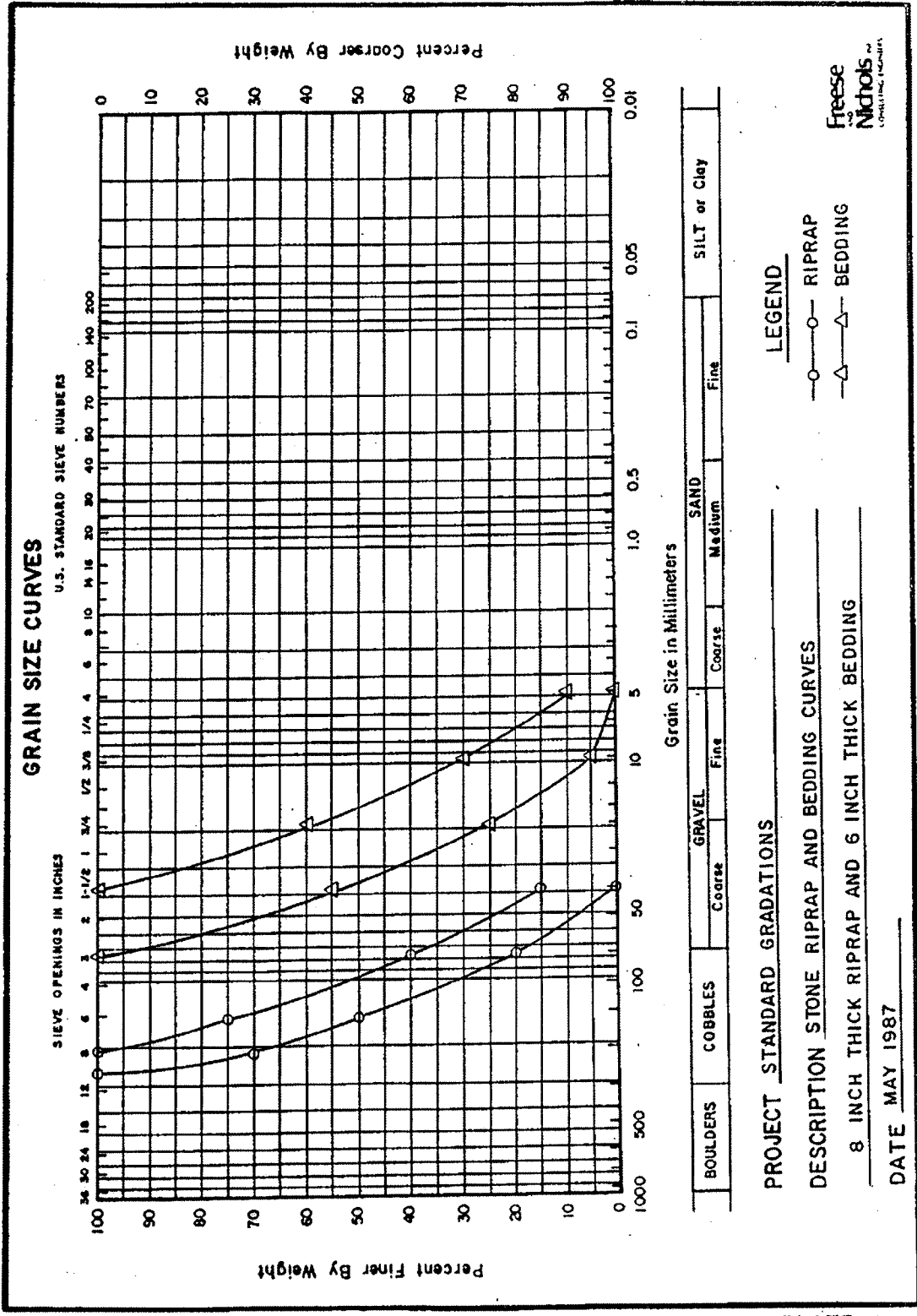


Figure 4.4-7 Grain Size Curve for 8" Riprap and 6" Bedding

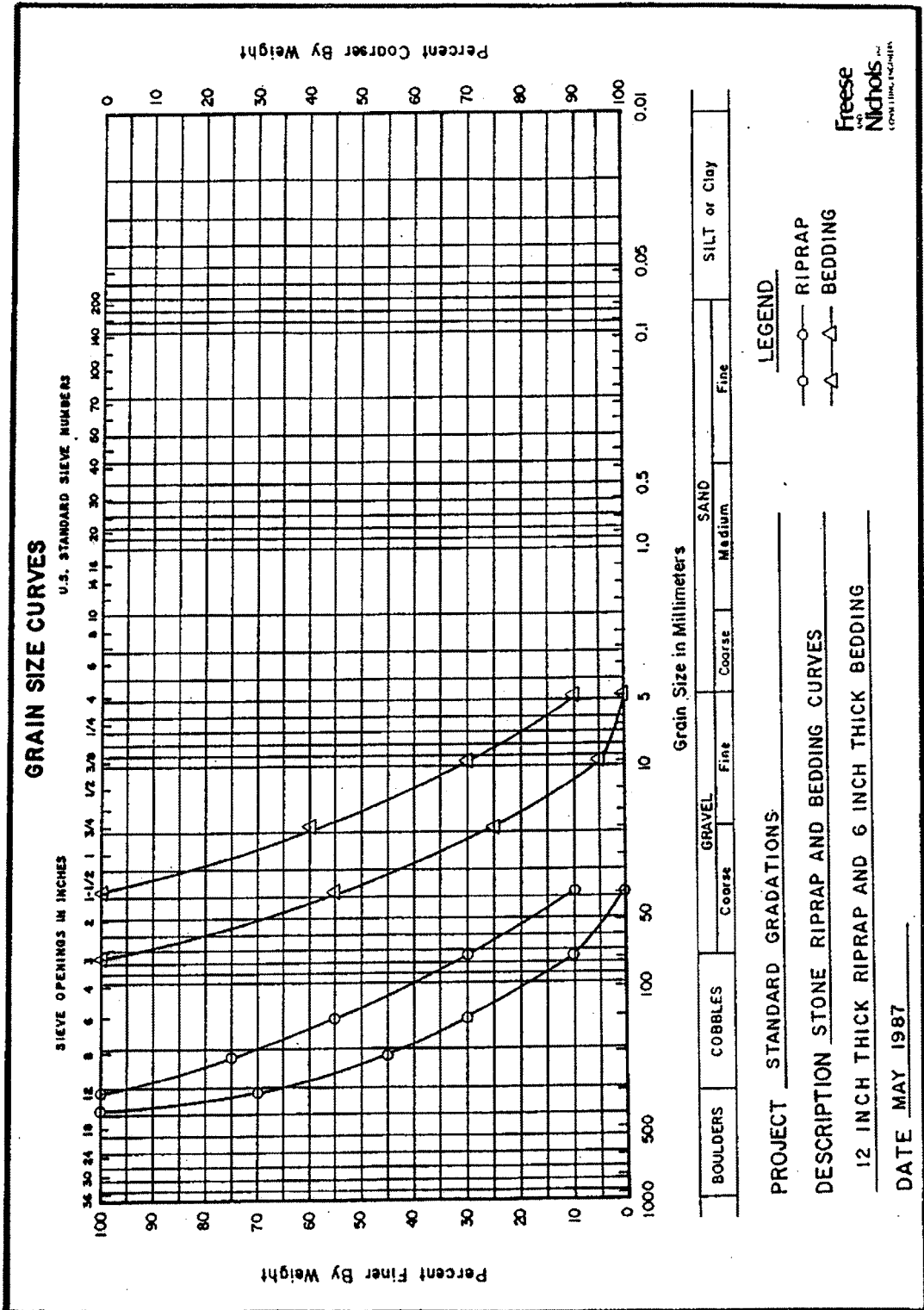


Figure 4.4-8 Grain Size Curve for 12" Riprap and 6" Bedding

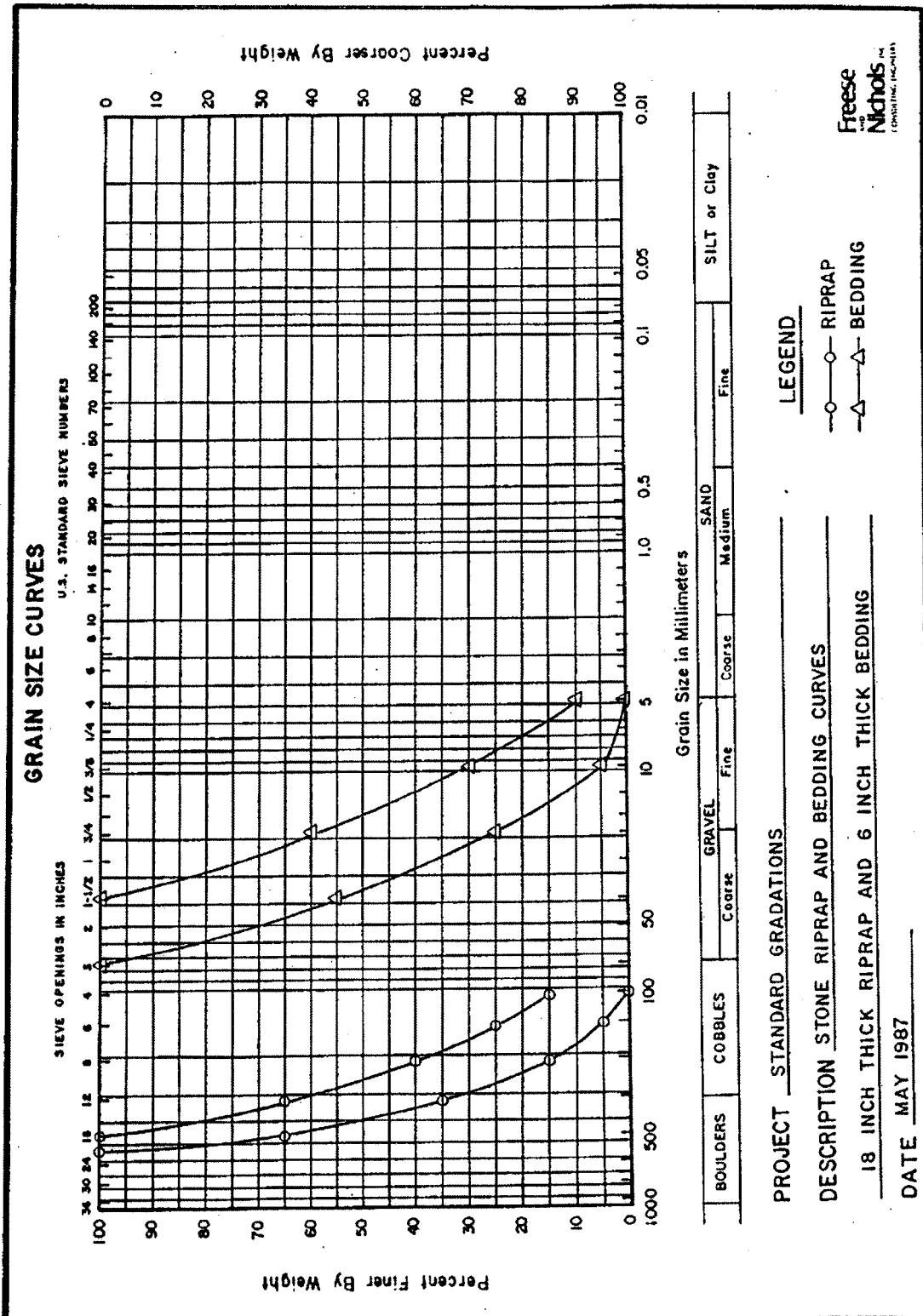


Figure 4.4-9 Grain Size Curve for 18" Riprap and 6" Bedding

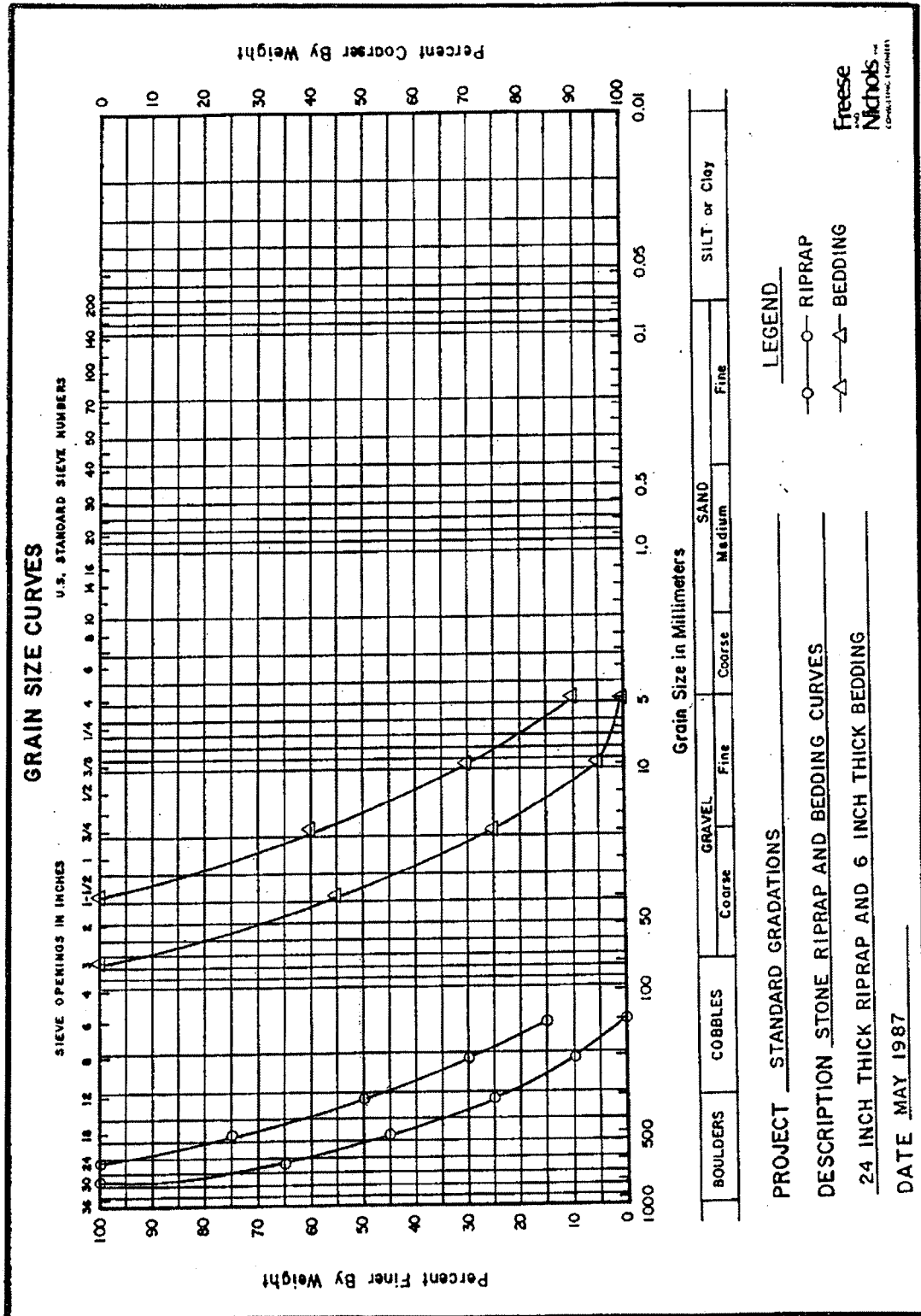


Figure 4.4-10 Grain Size Curve for 24" Riprap and 6" Bedding

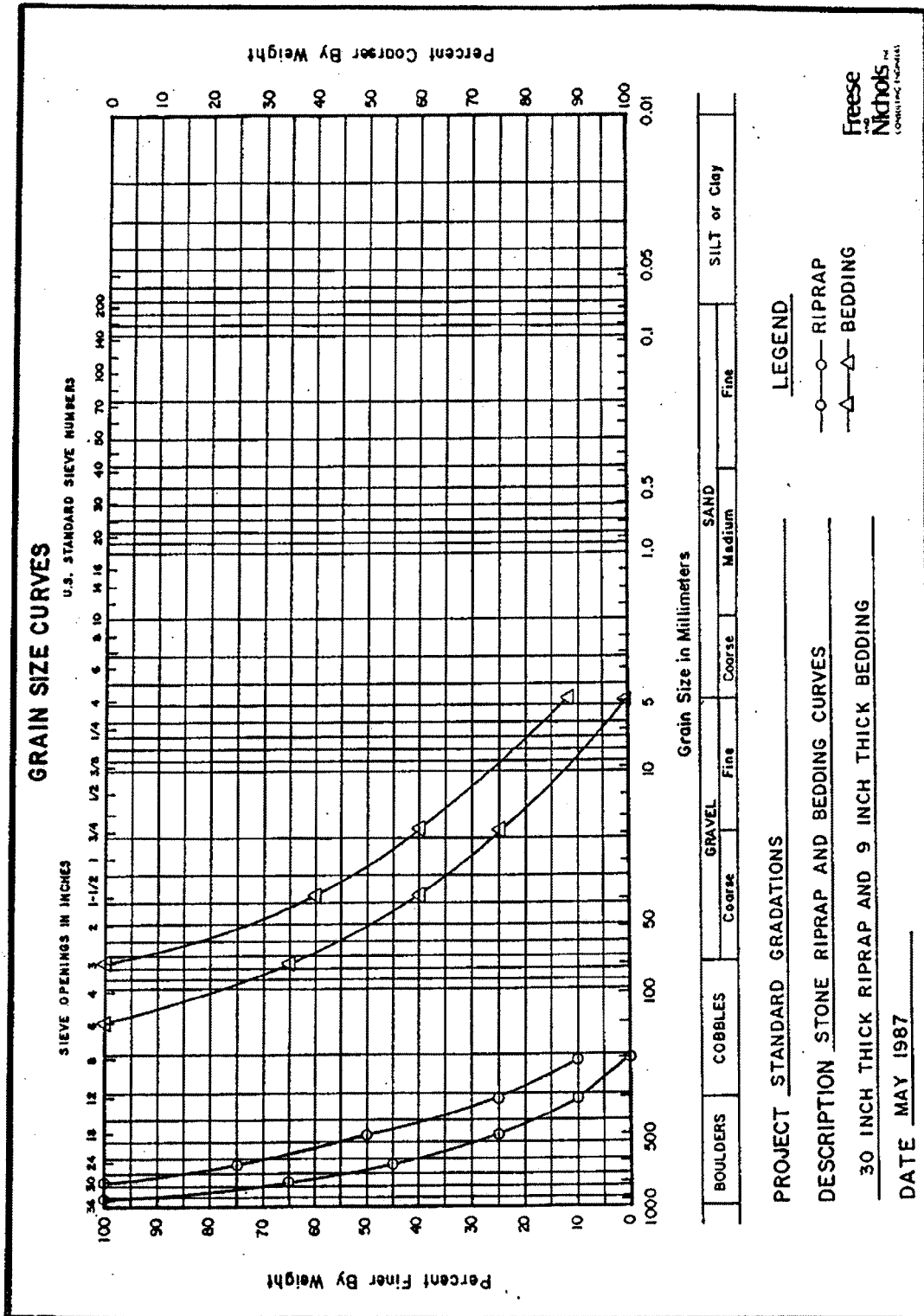


Figure 4.4-11 Grain Size Curve for 30" Riprap and 9" Bedding

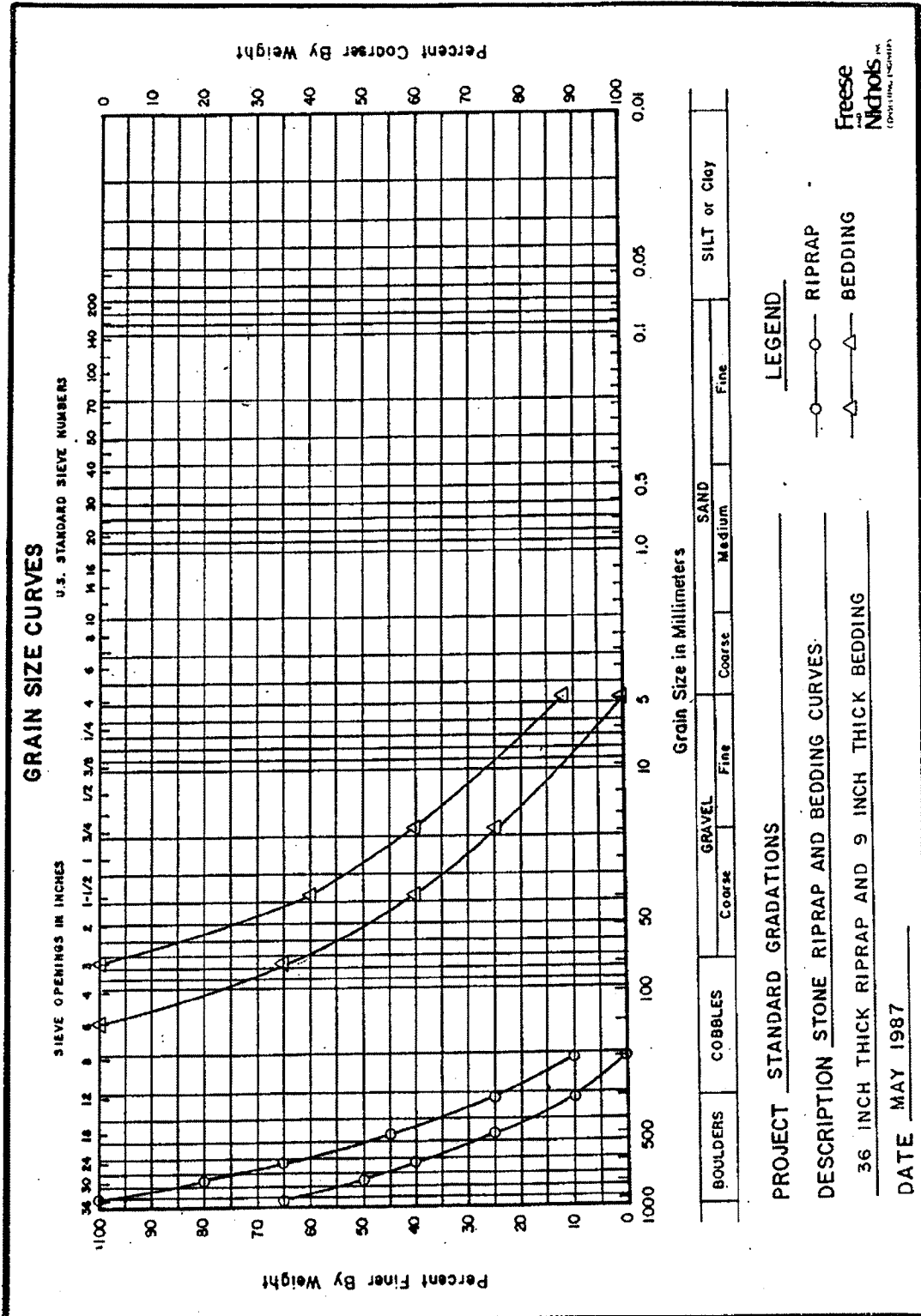


Figure 4.4-12 Grain Size Curve for 36" Riprap and 9" Bedding

RIPRAP GRADATIONS		
8" THICKNESS OF RIPRAP		
SIEVE SIZE SQUARE MESH	PERCENT PASSING	
10 INCH	100	
8 INCH	70 - 100	
6 INCH	50 - 75	
3 INCH	20 - 40	
1-1/2 INCH	0 - 15	

BEDDING GRADATIONS		
9" THICKNESS OF BEDDING		
SIEVE SIZE SQUARE MESH	PERCENT PASSING	
6 INCH	100	
3 INCH	65 - 100	
1-1/2 INCH	40 - 60	
3/4 INCH	25 - 40	
No.4	0 - 12	

RIPRAP GRADATIONS		
12" THICKNESS OF RIPRAP		
SIEVE SIZE SQUARE MESH	PERCENT PASSING	
15 INCH	100	
12 INCH	70 - 100	
8 INCH	45 - 75	
6 INCH	30 - 55	
3 INCH	10 - 30	
1-1/2 INCH	0 - 10	

BEDDING GRADATIONS		
6" THICKNESS OF BEDDING		
SIEVE SIZE SQUARE MESH	PERCENT PASSING	
3 INCH	100	
1-1/2 INCH	55 - 100	
3/4 INCH	25 - 60	
3/8 INCH	5 - 30	
No.4	0 - 10	

Figure 4.4-13 Riprap Gradation Tables for 6", 8", 9" and 12" Thickness of Riprap

RIPRAP GRADATIONS		
36" THICKNESS OF RIPRAP		
SIEVE SIZE SQUARE MESH	PERCENT PASSING	
44 INCH	100	
36 INCH	65 - 100	
30 INCH	50 - 80	
18 INCH	25 - 45	
12 INCH	10 - 25	
8 INCH	0 - 10	

RIPRAP GRADATIONS		
24" THICKNESS OF RIPRAP		
SIEVE SIZE SQUARE MESH	PERCENT PASSING	
30 INCH	100	
24 INCH	65 - 100	
18 INCH	45 - 75	
12 INCH	25 - 50	
8 INCH	10 - 30	
6 INCH	0 - 15	

RIPRAP GRADATIONS		
30" THICKNESS OF RIPRAP		
SIEVE SIZE SQUARE MESH	PERCENT PASSING	
36 INCH	100	
30 INCH	65 - 100	
24 INCH	45 - 75	
18 INCH	25 - 50	
12 INCH	10 - 25	
8 INCH	0 - 10	

RIPRAP GRADATIONS		
18" THICKNESS OF RIPRAP		
SIEVE SIZE SQUARE MESH	PERCENT PASSING	
21 INCH	100	
18 INCH	65 - 100	
12 INCH	35 - 65	
8 INCH	15 - 40	
6 INCH	5 - 25	
4 INCH	0 - 15	

Figure 4.4-14 Riprap Gradation Tables for 18", 24", 30" and 36" Thickness of Riprap

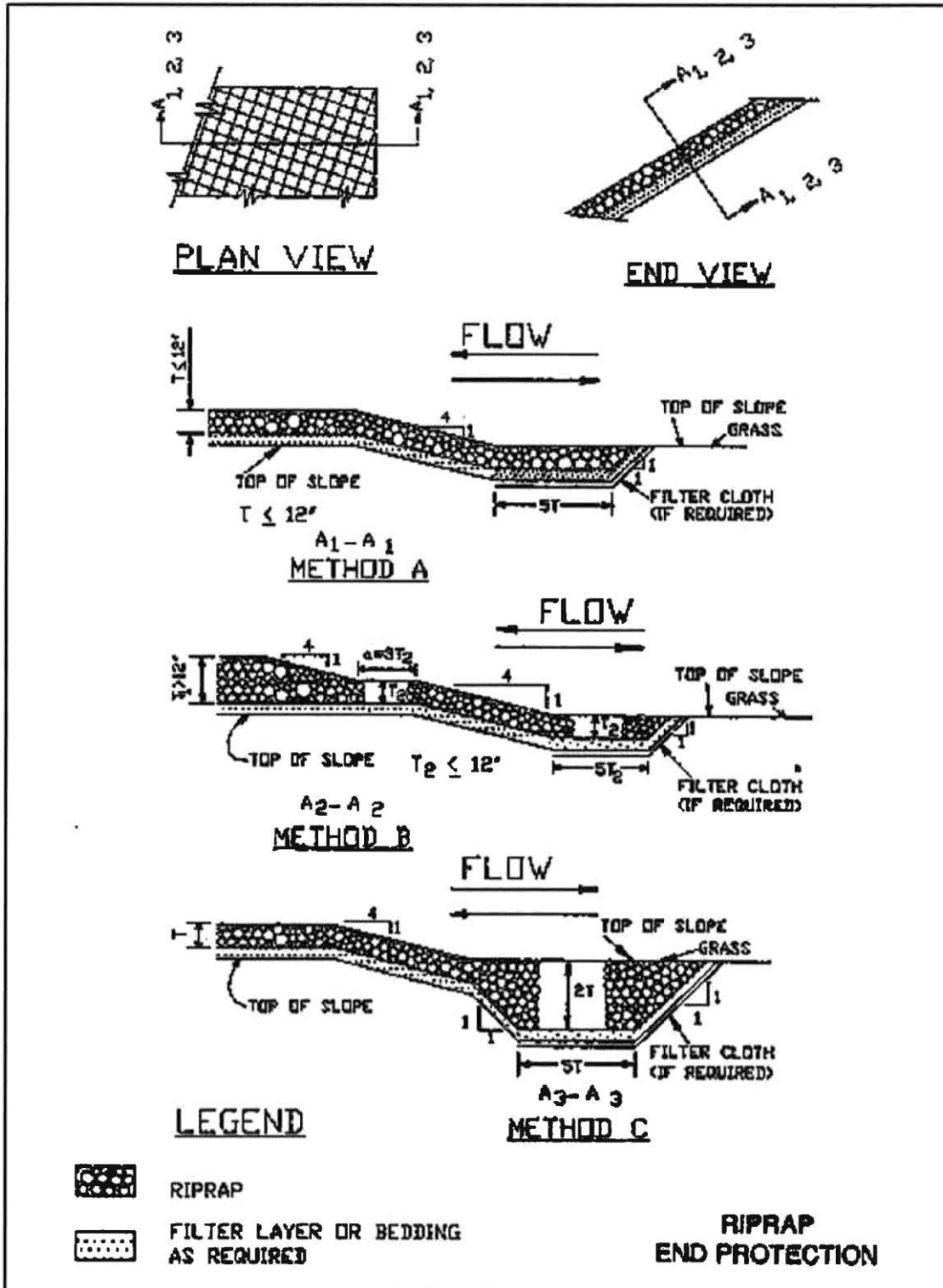


Figure 4.4-15 Typical Riprap Design Cross Sections

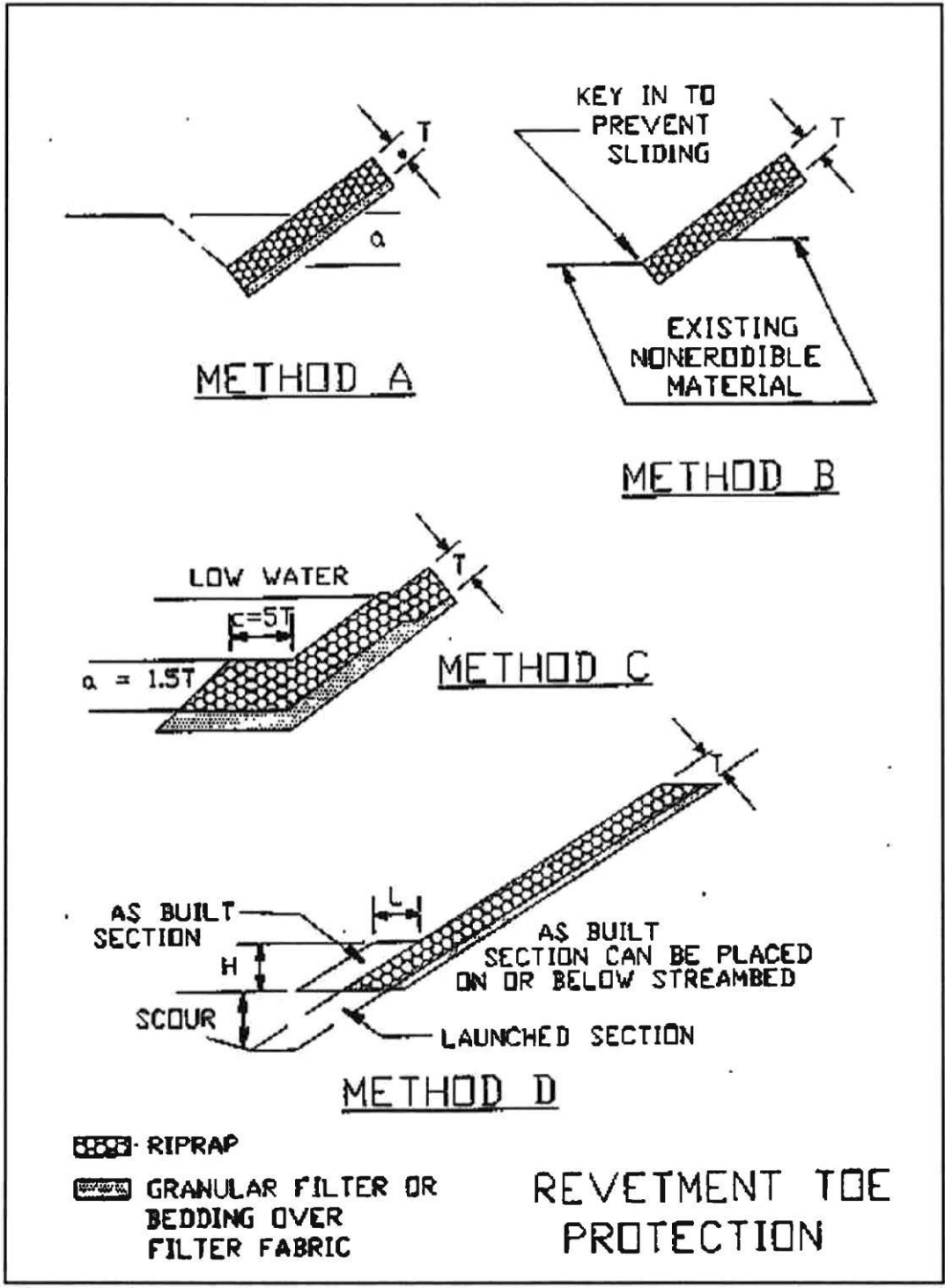
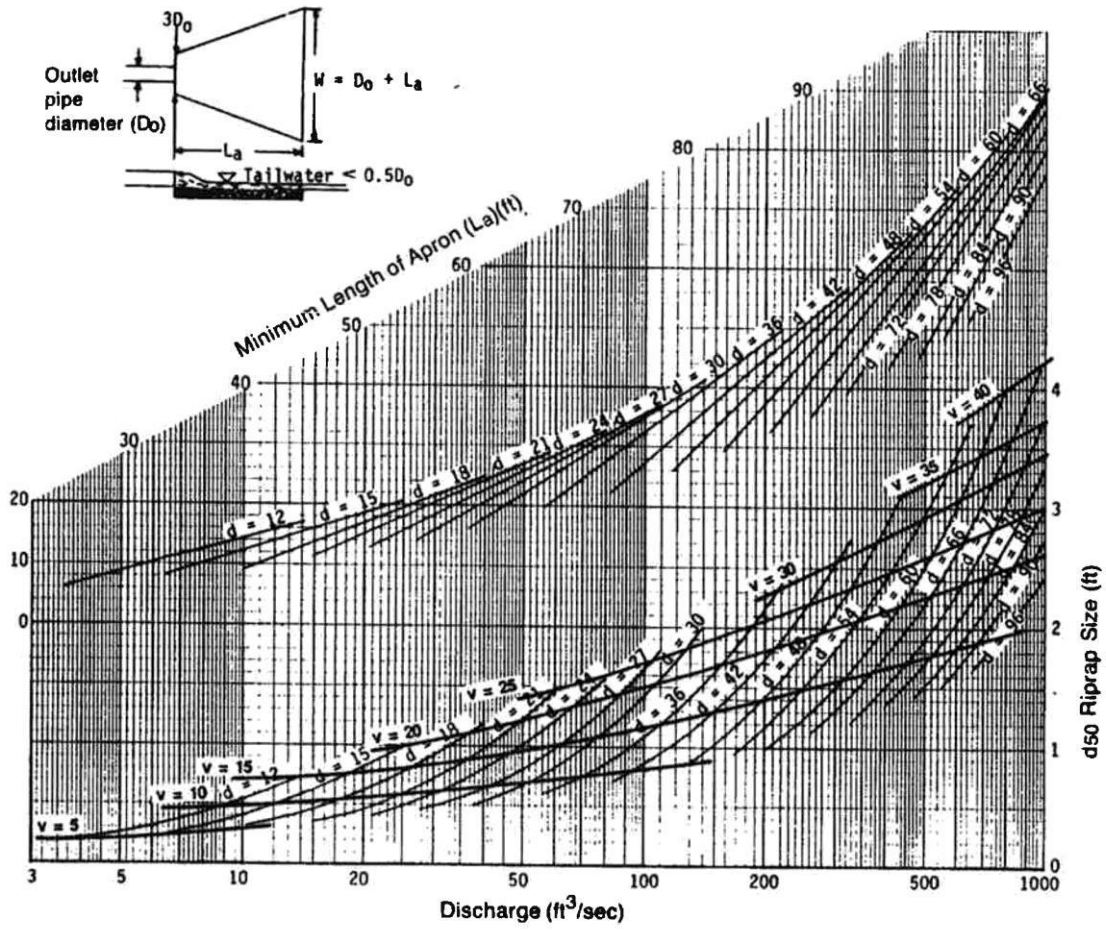
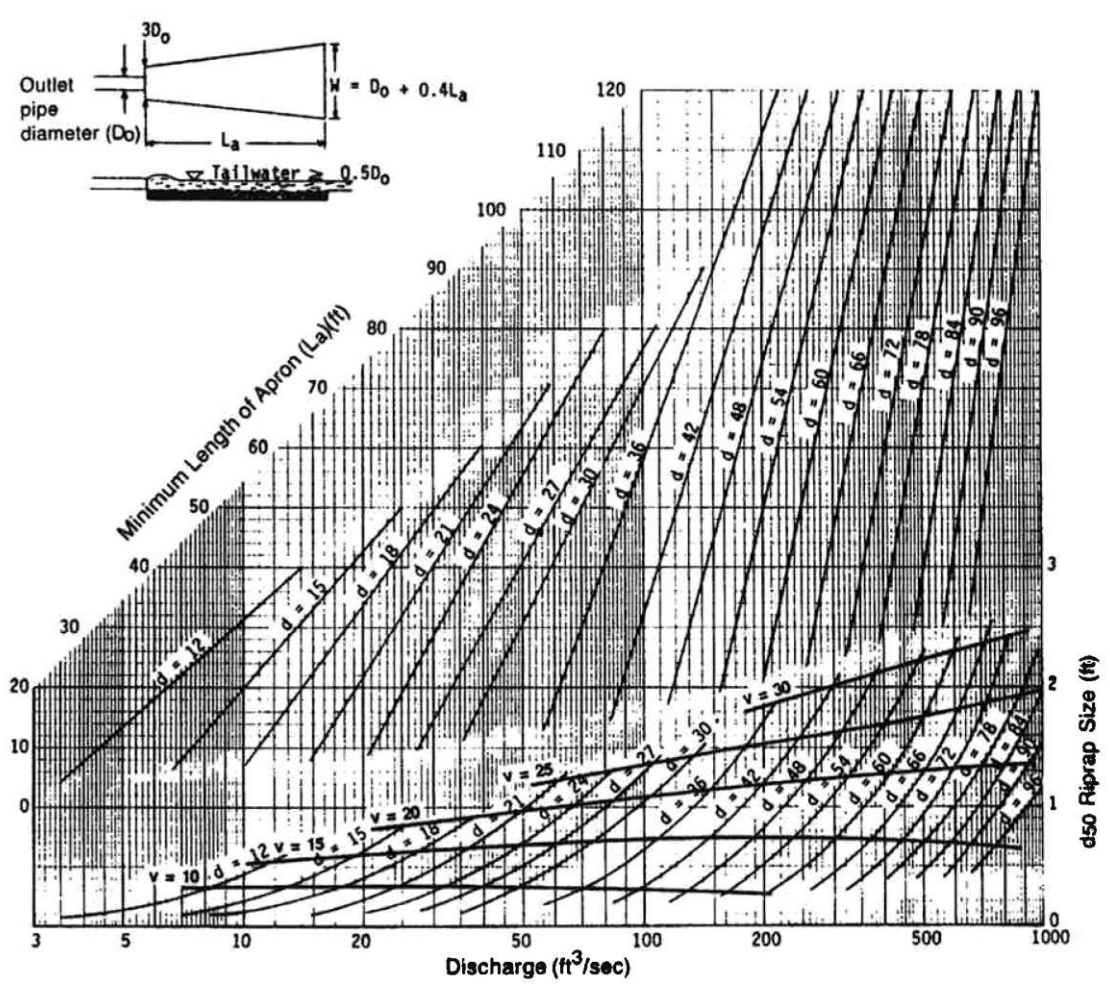


Figure 4.4-16 Typical Riprap Design for Revetment Toe Protection



Curves may not be extrapolated.

Figure 4.4-17 Design of Riprap Apron Under Minimum Tailwater Conditions
(Source: USDA, SCS, 1975)



Curves may not be extrapolated.

Figure 4.4-18 Design of Riprap Apron Under Maximum Tailwater Conditions
(Source: USDA, SCS, 1975)

4.4.9 – Gabion Design

This section is excerpted from “Gabions for Streambank Erosion Control” EMRR Technical Notes Collection (ERDC TN-EMRRP-SR-22), U.S. Army Engineer Research and Development Center, Vicksburg, MS, 2000.

4.4.9.1 OVERVIEW

Gabions come in three basic forms, the gabion basket, gabion mattress, and sack gabion. All three types consist of wire mesh baskets filled with cobble or small boulder material. The baskets are used to maintain stability and to protect streambanks and beds.

The difference between a gabion basket and a gabion mattress is the thickness and the aerial extent of the basket. A sack gabion is, as the name implies, a mesh sack that is filled with rock material. The benefit of gabions is that they can be filled with rocks that would individually be too small to withstand the erosive forces of the stream. The gabion mattress is shallower (0.5 to 1.5 ft) than the basket and is designed to protect the bed or banks of a stream against erosion.

Gabion baskets are normally much thicker (about 1.5 to 3 ft) and cover a much smaller area. They are used to protect banks where mattresses are not adequate or are used to stabilize slopes, construct drop structures, pipe outlet structures, or nearly any other application where soil must be protected from the erosive forces of water. References to gabions in this article refer generally to both mattresses and baskets.

Gabion baskets can be made from either welded or woven wire mesh. The wire is normally galvanized to reduce corrosion but may be coated with plastic or other material to prevent corrosion and/or damage to the wire mesh containing the rock fill. New materials such as Tensar, a heavy-duty polymer plastic material, have been used in some applications in place of the wire mesh. If the wire baskets break, either through corrosion, vandalism, or damage from debris or bed load, the rock fill in the basket can be lost and the protective value of the method endangered.

Gabions are often used where available rock size is too small to withstand the erosive and tractive forces present at a project site. The available stone size may be too small due to the cost of transporting larger stone from remote sites, or the desire to have a project with a smoother appearance than obtained from riprap or other methods. Gabions also require about one third the thickness of material when compared to riprap designs. Riprap is often preferred, however, due to the low labor requirements for its placement.

The science behind gabions is fairly well established, with numerous manufacturers providing design methodology and guidance for their gabion products. Dr. Stephen T. Maynard of the U.S. Army Engineer Research and Development Center in Vicksburg, Mississippi, has also conducted research to develop design guidance for the installation of gabions. Two general methods are typically used to determine the stability of gabion baskets in stream channels, the critical shear stress calculation and the critical velocity calculation. A software package known as CHANLPRO has been developed by Dr. Maynard (Maynard et al. 1998).

Manufacturers have generated extensive debate regarding the use and durability of welded wire baskets versus woven wire baskets in project design and construction. Project results seem to indicate that performance is satisfactory for both types of mesh.

The rocks contained within the gabions provide substrates for a wide variety of aquatic organisms. Organisms that have adapted to living on and within the rocks have an excellent home, but vegetation may be difficult to establish unless the voids in the rocks contained within the baskets are filled with soil.

If large woody vegetation is allowed to grow in the gabions, there is a risk that the baskets will break when the large woody vegetation is uprooted or as the root and trunk systems grow. Thus, it is normally not acceptable to allow large woody vegetation to grow in the baskets. The possibility of damage must be weighed against the desirability of vegetation on the area protected by gabions and the stability of the large woody vegetation.

If large woody vegetation is kept out of the baskets, grasses and other desirable vegetation types may be established and provide a more aesthetic and ecologically desirable project than gabions alone.

4.4.9.2 DESIGN

Primary design considerations for gabions and mattresses are: 1) foundation stability; 2) sustained velocity and shear-stress thresholds that the gabions must withstand; and 3) toe and flank protection. The base layer of gabions should be placed below the expected maximum scour depth. Alternatively, the toe can be protected with mattresses that will fall into any scoured areas without compromising the stability of the bank or bed protection portion of the project. If bank protection does not extend above the expected water surface elevation for the design flood, measures such as tiebacks to protect against flanking should be installed.

The use of a filter fabric behind or under the gabion baskets to prevent the movement of soil material through the gabion baskets is an extremely important part of the design process. This migration of soil through the baskets can cause undermining of the supporting soil structure and failure of the gabion baskets and mattresses.

4.4.9.3 PRIMARY DESIGN CONSIDERATIONS

The major consideration in the design of gabion structures is the expected velocity at the gabion face. The gabion must be designed to withstand the force of the water in the stream.

Since gabion mattresses are much shallower and more subject to movement than gabion baskets, care should be taken to design the mattresses such that they can withstand the forces applied to them by the water. However, mattresses have been used in application where very high velocities are present and have performed well. But projects using gabion mattresses should be carefully designed.

The median stone size for a gabion mattress can be determined from the following equation:

$$d_m = S_f C_s C_v d \left[\left(\frac{\gamma_w}{\gamma_s - \gamma_w} \right)^{0.5} \frac{V}{\sqrt{gdK_t}} \right]^{2.5} \quad (1) \quad (4.4.21)$$

The variables in the above equation are defined as:

- C_s = stability coefficient (use 0.1)
- C_v = velocity distribution coefficient
 $= 1.283 - 0.2 \log (R/W)$ (minimum of 1.0) and equals 1.25 at end of dikes and concrete channels
- d_m = average rock diameter in gabions
- d = local flow depth at V
- g = acceleration due to gravity K_s = side slope correction factor (Table 4.4-8)
- R = centerline bend radius of main channel flow
- S_f = safety factor (1.1 minimum) V = depth-averaged velocity
- W = water surface width of main channel
- γ_s = unit weight of stone, γ_w = unit weight of water

Table 4.4-8 K1 Versus Side Slope Angle

Side Slope	K1
1V : 1H	0.46
1V : 1.5H	0.71
1V : 2H	0.88
1V : 3H	0.98
<1V : 4H	1.0

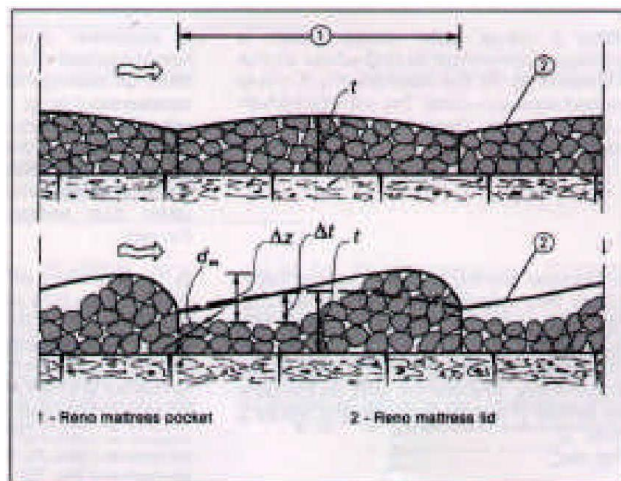


Figure 4.4-22 Gabion mattress showing deformation of mattress pockets under high velocities (courtesy Maccaferri Gabions)

Equation 4.4.21 was developed to design stone size such that the movement of filler stone in the mattresses is prevented. This eliminates deformation that can occur when stone sizes are not large enough to withstand the forces of the water. The result of mattress deformation (Figure 4.4-22) is stress on the basket wire and increases in resistance to flow and the likelihood of basket failure. The upper portion of Figure 4.4-22 shows an undeformed gabion, while the lower portion

shows how gabions deform under high-velocity conditions. Maccaferri Gabions offers a table in their materials giving guidance on sizing stone and allowable velocities for gabion baskets and mattresses. This is shown in Table 4.4-9.

Table 4.4-9 Stone Sizes and Allowable Velocities for Gabions (courtesy of and adapted from Maccaferri Gabions)					
Type	Thickness (ft)	Filling Stone Range	D50	Critical Velocity	Limit Velocity
Mattress	0.5	3" – 4"	3.4"	11.5 fps	13.8 fps
	0.5	3" – 6"	4.3"	13.8 fps	14.8 fps
	0.75	3" – 4"	3.4"	14.8 fps	16 fps
	0.75	3" – 6"	4.7"	14.8 fps	20 fps
	1	3" – 5"	4"	13.6 fps	18 fps
	1	4" – 6"	5"	16.4 fps	21 fps
Basket	1.5	4" – 8"	6"	19 fps	24.9 fps
	1.5	5" – 10"	7.5"	21 fps	26.2 fps

When the data in Table 4.4-9 are compared to Equation 4.4.21, if $V = 11.5$, $C_s = 0.1$, $C_v = 1.0$, $K = 0.71$, $\gamma_w = 150$ and $S_f = 1.1$, the local flow depth must be on the order of 25 ft in order to arrive at the stone diameter of 3.4 in. shown in Table 4.4-9. Designers should use Equation 4.4.21 to take the depth of flow into account. Table 4.4-9 does, however, give some general guidelines for fill sizes and is a quick reference for maximum allowable velocities.

Maccaferri also gives guidance on the stability of gabions in terms of shear stress limits. The following equation gives the shear for the bed of the channel:

$$\tau_c = 0.10(\gamma_s - \gamma_w)d_m \quad (4.4.22)$$

with the bank shear τ_m taken as 75 percent of the bed shear, i.e. $\tau_m = 0.75\tau_b$. (S is the bed or water surface slope through the reach.) These values are then compared to the critical stress for the bed calculated by the following equation:

$$\tau_b = \gamma_w S d \quad (4.4.23)$$

with critical shear stress for the banks given as:

$$\tau_s = \tau_c \sqrt{1 - \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{0.4304}} \quad (4.4.24)$$

where θ = the angle of the bank rotated up from horizontal.

A design is acceptable if $t_b < t_c$ and $t_m < t_s$. If either $t_b > t_c$ or $t_m > t_s$, then a check must be made to see if they are less than 120 percent of t_b and t_s . If the values are less than 120 percent of t_b and t_s , the gabions will not be subject to more than what Maccaferri defines as "acceptable" deformation. However, it is recommended that stone size be increased to limit deformation if possible.

Research has indicated that stone in the gabion mattress should be sized such that the largest stone diameter is not more than about two times the diameter of the smallest stone diameter and the mattress should be at least twice the depth of the largest stone size. The size range should, however, vary by about a factor of two to ensure proper packing of the stone material into the gabions. Since the mattresses normally come in discrete sizes, i.e. 0.5, 1.0, and 1.5 ft in depth, normal practice is to size the stone and then select the basket depth that is deep enough to be at least two times the largest stone diameter. The smallest stone should also be sized such that it cannot pass through the wire mesh.

4.4.9.4 Stability of Underlying Bed and Bank Materials

Another critical consideration is the stability of the gabion foundation. This includes both geotechnical stability and the resistance of the soil under the gabions to the erosive forces of the water moving through the gabions. If there is any question regarding the stability of the foundation, i.e. possibility of rotational failures, slip failures, etc., a qualified geotechnical engineer should be consulted prior to and during the design of the bank/channel protection. Several manufacturers give guidance on how to check for geotechnical failure (see Maccaferri Gabions brochure as an example).

Stacked gabion baskets used for bank stability should be tilted towards the soil they are protecting by a minimum of about 6 deg from vertical. Gabions are stacked using two methods. These are shown in Figure 4.4-23. While the gabions can be stacked with no tilt, it is recommended that some tilt into the soil being protected be provided.

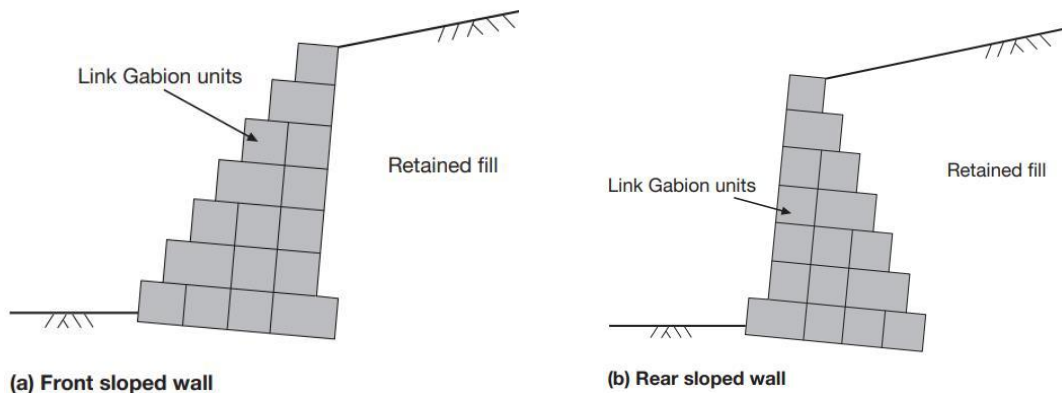


Figure 4.4-23 Typical front sloped and rear sloped gabion layout

One of the critical factors in determining stability is the velocity of the water that passes through the gabions and reaches the soil behind the gabion. The water velocity under the filter fabric, i.e. water that moves through the gabions and filter fabric, is estimated to be one-fourth to one-half of the velocity at the mattress/filter interface. (Simons, Chen, and Swenson 1984) The velocity at the mattress/filter interface (V_b) is estimated to be

$$V_b = \frac{1.486}{n_f} \left(\frac{d_m}{2} \right)^{2/3} S^{1/2} \quad (4.4.25)$$

where $n_f = 0.02$ for filter fabric, 0.022 for gravel filter material and S is the water surface slope (or bed slope) through the reach. If the underlying soil material is not stable, additional filter material must be installed under the gabions to ensure soil stability. Maccaferri also provides guidance on the stability of soil under the gabions in terms of velocity criteria.

The limit for velocity on the soil is different for each type of soil. The limit for cohesive soils is obtained from a chart, while maximum allowable velocities for other soil types are obtained by calculating V_e , the maximum velocity allowable at the soil interface, and comparing it to V_f the residual velocity on the bed, i.e. under the gabion mattress and under the filter fabric. V_e for loose soils is equal to $16.1 d^{1/2}$ while V_f is calculated by:

$$V_f = \frac{1.486}{n_f} \left(\frac{d_m}{2} \right)^{2/3} S V_a^{1/2} \quad (4.4.26)$$

where V_a is the average channel velocity and d_m is the average rock diameter.

If V_f is larger than two to four times V_e , a gravel filter is required to further reduce the water velocity at the soil interface under the gabions until V_f is in an acceptable range. To check for the acceptability of the filter use the average gravel size for d_m in Equation 4.4.22. If the velocity V_f is still too high, the gravel size should be reduced to obtain an acceptable value for V_f .

Other Design Considerations

It may be possible to combine gabions with less harsh methods of bank protection on the upper bank and still achieve the desired result of a stable channel. Provisions for large woody vegetation and a more aesthetically pleasing project may also be used on the upper banks or within the gabions. However, the stability of vegetation or other upper bank protection should be carefully analyzed to ensure stability of the upper bank area. A failure in the upper bank region can adversely affect gabion stability and lead to project failure.

4.4.10 – Uniform Flow - Example Problems

Example 1 -- Direct Solution of Manning's Equation

Use Manning's Equation to find the velocity, v , for an open channel with a hydraulic radius value of 0.6 ft, an n value of 0.020, and slope of 0.003 ft/ft. Solve using Figure 4.4-2:

1. **Connect a line between the slope scale at 0.003 and the roughness scale at 0.020 and note the intersection point on the turning line.**
2. **Connect a line between that intersection point and the hydraulic radius scale at 0.6 ft and read the velocity of 2.9 ft/s from the velocity scale.**

Example 2 -- Grassed Channel Design Stability

A trapezoidal channel is required to carry 50 cfs at a bottom slope of 0.015 ft/ft. Find the channel dimensions required for design stability criteria (retardance Class D) for a grass mixture.

1. From Table 4.4-3, the maximum velocity, v_m , for a grass mixture with a bottom slope less than 5% is 4 ft/s.
2. Assume an n value of 0.035 and find the value of vR from Figure 4.4-1, $vR = 5.4$

3. Use equation 4.4.9 to calculate the value of R: $R = 5.4/4 = 1.35$ ft

4. Use equation 4.4.10 to calculate the value of vR :

$$vR = [1.49 (1.35)^{5/3} (0.015)^{1/2}] / 0.035 = 8.60$$

5. Since the vR value calculated in Step 4 is higher than the value obtained from Step 2, a higher n value is required and calculations are repeated. The results from each trial of calculations are presented below:

Assumed	vR	R	vR
a. n Value (Figure 4.4-1)	(4.4.9)	(4.4.10)	
b. 0.035	5.40	1.35	8.60
c. 0.038	3.8	0.95	4.41
d. 0.039	3.4	0.85	3.57
e. 0.040	3.2	0.80	3.15

Select $n = 0.040$ for stability criteria.

6. Use Figure 4.4-3 to select channel dimensions for a trapezoidal shape with 3:1 side slopes.

$$Qn = (50) (0.040) = 2.0, \quad S = 0.015$$

$$\text{For } b = 10 \text{ ft, } d = (10) (0.098) = 0.98 \text{ ft, } b = 8 \text{ ft, } d = (8) (0.14) = 1.12 \text{ ft}$$

Select:

$$b = 10 \text{ ft, such that } R \text{ is approximately } 0.80 \text{ ft}$$

$$z = 3$$

$$d = 1 \text{ ft}$$

$$v = 3.9 \text{ ft/s (equation 4.4.1)}$$

$$Fr = 0.76 \text{ (equation 4.4.8)}$$

Flow is subcritical

Design capacity calculations for this channel are presented in Example 3 below.

Example 3 -- Grassed Channel Design Capacity

Use a 10-ft bottom width and 3:1 side-slopes for the trapezoidal channel sized in Example 2 and find the depth of flow for retardance Class C.

Assume a depth of 1.0 ft and calculate the following (see Figure 4.4-5):

$$A = (b + zd) d = [10 + (3) (1)] (1) = 13.0 \text{ square ft}$$

$$R = [(b + zd) d] / \{b + [2d(1 + z^2)^{0.5}]\} = \{[10 + (3)(1)]1\} / \{10 + [(2)(1)(1 + 3^2)^{0.5}]\}$$

$$R = 0.796 \text{ ft}$$

$$\text{Find the velocity: } v = Q/A = 50/13.0 = 3.85 \text{ ft/s}$$

$$\text{Find the value of } vR: vR = (3.85) (0.796) = 3.06$$

Using the vR product from Step 3, find Manning's n from Figure 4.4-1 for retardance Class C ($n = 0.047$)

Use Figure 4.4-2 or equation 4.4.1 to find the velocity for $S = 0.015$, $R = 0.796$, and $n = 0.047$: $v = 3.34 \text{ ft/s}$

Since 3.34 ft/s is less than 3.85 ft/s, a higher depth is required and calculations are repeated.

Results from each trial of calculations are presented below:

Assumed			Velocity Manning's			
Depth	Area	R	Q/A	vR	n	Velocity
(ft)	(ft ²)	(ft)	(ft/sec)		(Fig. 4.4-1)	(4.4.1)
1.0	13.00	0.796	3.85	3.06	0.047	3.34
1.05	13.81	0.830	3.62	3.00	0.047	3.39
1.1	14.63	0.863	3.42	2.95	0.048	3.45
1.2	16.32	0.928	3.06	2.84	0.049	3.54

Select a depth of 1.1 with an n value of 0.048 for design capacity requirements. Add at least 0.2 ft for freeboard to give a design depth of 1.3 ft. Design data for the trapezoidal channel are summarized as follows:

Vegetation lining = grass mixture, $v_m = 4$ ft/s

Q = 50 cfs

b = 10 ft, d = 1.3 ft, z = 3, S = 0.015

Top width = (10) + (2) (3) (1.3) = 17.8 ft

n (stability) = 0.040, d = 1.0 ft, v = 3.9 ft/s, Froude number = 0.76 (equation 4.4.8)

n (capacity) = 0.048, d = 1.1 ft, v = 3.45 ft/s, Froude number = 0.64 (equation 4.4.8)

4.4.11 Gradually Varied Flow

The most common occurrence of gradually varied flow in storm drainage is the backwater created by culverts, storm sewer inlets, or channel constrictions. For these conditions, the flow depth will be greater than normal depth in the channel and the water surface profile should be computed using backwater techniques.

Many computer programs are available for computation of backwater curves. The most general and widely used programs are, HEC-RAS, developed by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers and Bridge Waterways Analysis Model (WSPRO) developed for the Federal Highway Administration. These programs can be used to compute water surface profiles for both natural and artificial channels.

For prismatic channels, the backwater calculation can be computed manually using the direct step method (TxDOT, 2002). For an irregular nonuniform channel, the standard step method is recommended, although it is a more tedious and iterative process. The use of HEC-RAS is recommended for standard step calculations.

Cross sections for water surface profile calculations should be normal to the direction of flood flow. The number of sections required will depend on the irregularity of the stream and flood plain. In general, a cross section should be obtained at each location where there are significant changes in stream width, shape, or vegetal patterns. Sections should usually be no more than 4

to 5 channel widths apart or 100 feet apart for ditches or streams and 500 feet apart for floodplains, unless the channel is very regular.

4.4.12 Rectangular, Triangular and Trapezoidal Open Channel Design

4.4.12.1 Introduction

The Federal Highway Administration has prepared numerous design figures to aid in the design of open channels. Copies of these figures, a brief description of their use, and several example design problems are presented. For design conditions not covered by the figures, a trial and error solution of Manning's Equation must be used. However, it is anticipated that available software programs will be the first choice for solving these design computations.

4.4.12.2 Description of Figures

Figures given in FHWA, HDS No. 3, 1973 and Atlanta Regional Commission, 2001 are for the direct solution of the Manning's Equation for various sized open channels with rectangular, triangular, and trapezoidal cross sections. Each figure (except for the triangular cross section) is prepared for a channel of given bottom width and a particular value of Manning's n .

The figures for rectangular and trapezoidal cross section channels are used the same way. The abscissa scale of discharge in cubic feet per second (cfs), and the ordinate scale is velocity in feet per second (ft/s). Both scales are logarithmic. Superimposed on the logarithmic grid are steeply inclined lines representing depth (ft), and slightly inclined lines representing channel slope (ft/ft). A heavy dashed line on each figure shows critical flow conditions. Auxiliary abscissa and ordinate scales are provided for use with other values of n and are explained in the example problems. In the figures, interpolations may be made not only on the ordinate and abscissa scales but also between the inclined lines representing depth and slope.

The chart for a triangular cross section (see Figure 3.2-1) is in nomograph form. It may be used for street sections with a vertical (or nearly vertical) curb face. The nomograph also may be used for shallow V-shaped sections by following the instructions on the chart.

4.4.12.3 Instructions for Rectangular and Trapezoidal Figures

Figures in such as Figure 4.4-24 provide a solution of the Manning equation for flow in open channels of uniform slope, cross section, and roughness, provided the flow is not affected by backwater and the channel has a length sufficient to establish uniform flow.

For a given slope and channel cross section, when n is 0.015 for rectangular channels or 0.03 for trapezoidal channels, the depth and velocity of uniform flow may be read directly from the figure for that size channel. The initial step is to locate the intersection of a vertical line through the discharge (abscissa) and the appropriate slope line. At this intersection, the depth of flow is read from the depth lines, and the mean velocity is read on the ordinate scale.

The procedure is reversed to determine the discharge at a given depth of flow. Critical depth, slope, and velocity for a given discharge can be read on the appropriate scale at the intersection of the critical curve and a vertical line through the discharge.

Auxiliary scales, labeled Q_n (abscissa) and V_n (ordinate), are provided so the figures can be used for values of n other than those for which the charts were basically prepared. To use these scales, multiply the discharge by the value of n and use the Q_n and V_n scales instead of the Q and V scales, except for computation of critical depth or critical velocity. To obtain normal velocity V from a value on the V_n scale, divide the value by n . The following examples will illustrate these points.

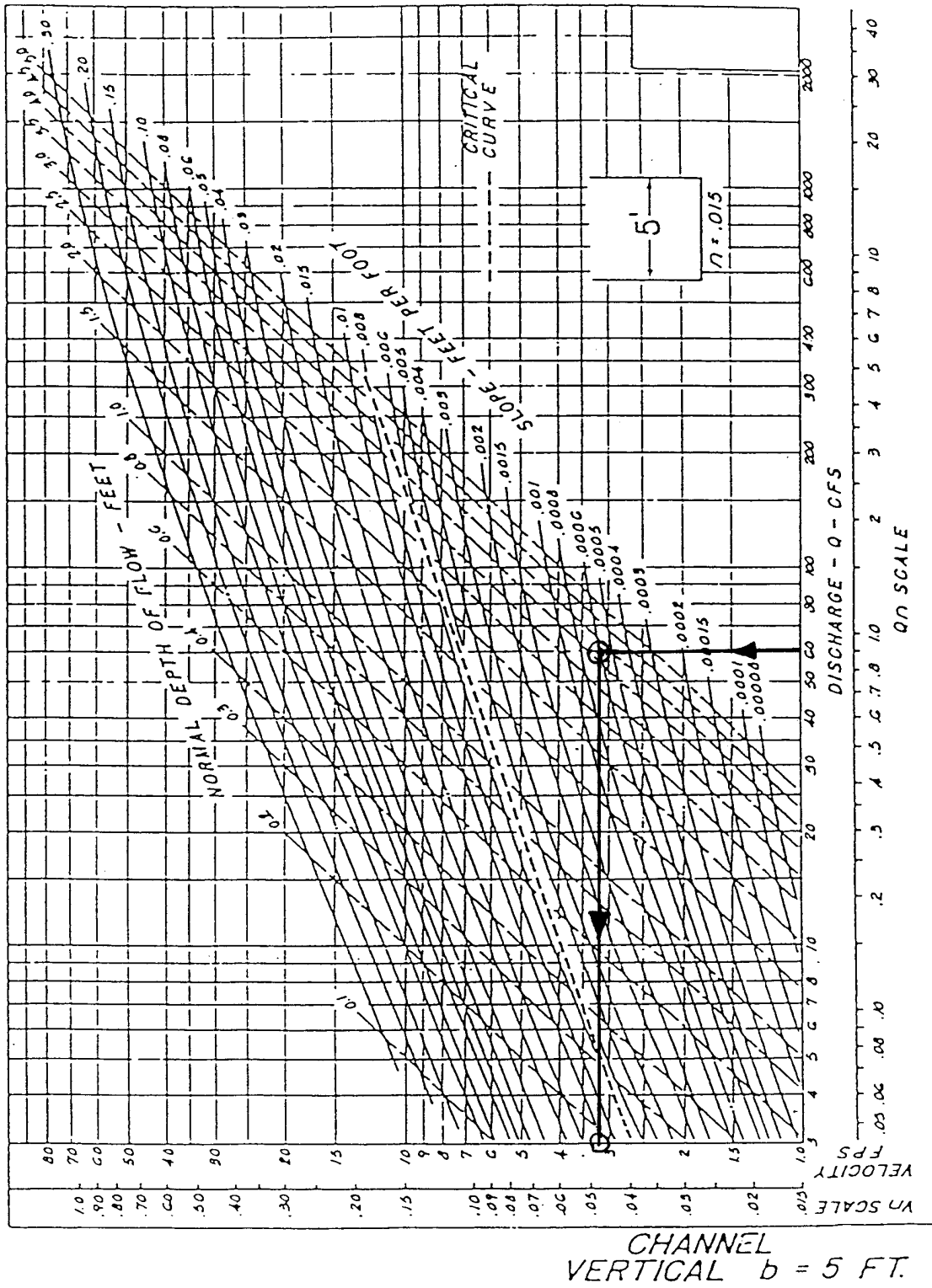
Example Design Problem 1

Given: A rectangular concrete channel 5 ft wide with $n = 0.015$, .06 percent slope ($S = .0006$), discharging 60 cfs.

Find: Depth, velocity, and type of flow

Procedure:

1. From subsection 4.4.12, select the rectangular figure for a 5-ft width (Figure 4.4-11).
2. From 60 cfs on the Q scale, move vertically to intersect the slope line $S = .0006$, and from the depth lines read $d_n = 3.7$ ft.
3. Move horizontally from the same intersection and read the normal velocity, $V = 3.2$ ft/s, on the ordinate scale.
4. The intersection lies below the critical curve, and the flow is therefore in the subcritical range.



Source: Federal Highway Administration

Figure 4.4-24 Example Nomograph #1

Example Design Problem 2

Given: A trapezoidal channel with 2:1 side slopes and a 4 ft bottom width, with $n = 0.030$, 0.2% slope ($S = 0.002$), discharging 50 cfs.

Find: Depth, velocity, type flow.

Procedure:

1. Select the trapezoidal figure for $b = 4$ ft (see Figure 4.4-25).
2. From 50 cfs on the Q scale, move vertically to intersect the slope line $S = 0.002$ and from the depth lines read $d_n = 2.2$ ft.
3. Move horizontally from the same intersection and read the normal velocity, $V = 2.75$ ft/s, on the ordinate scale. The intersection lies below the critical curve, and the flow is therefore subcritical.

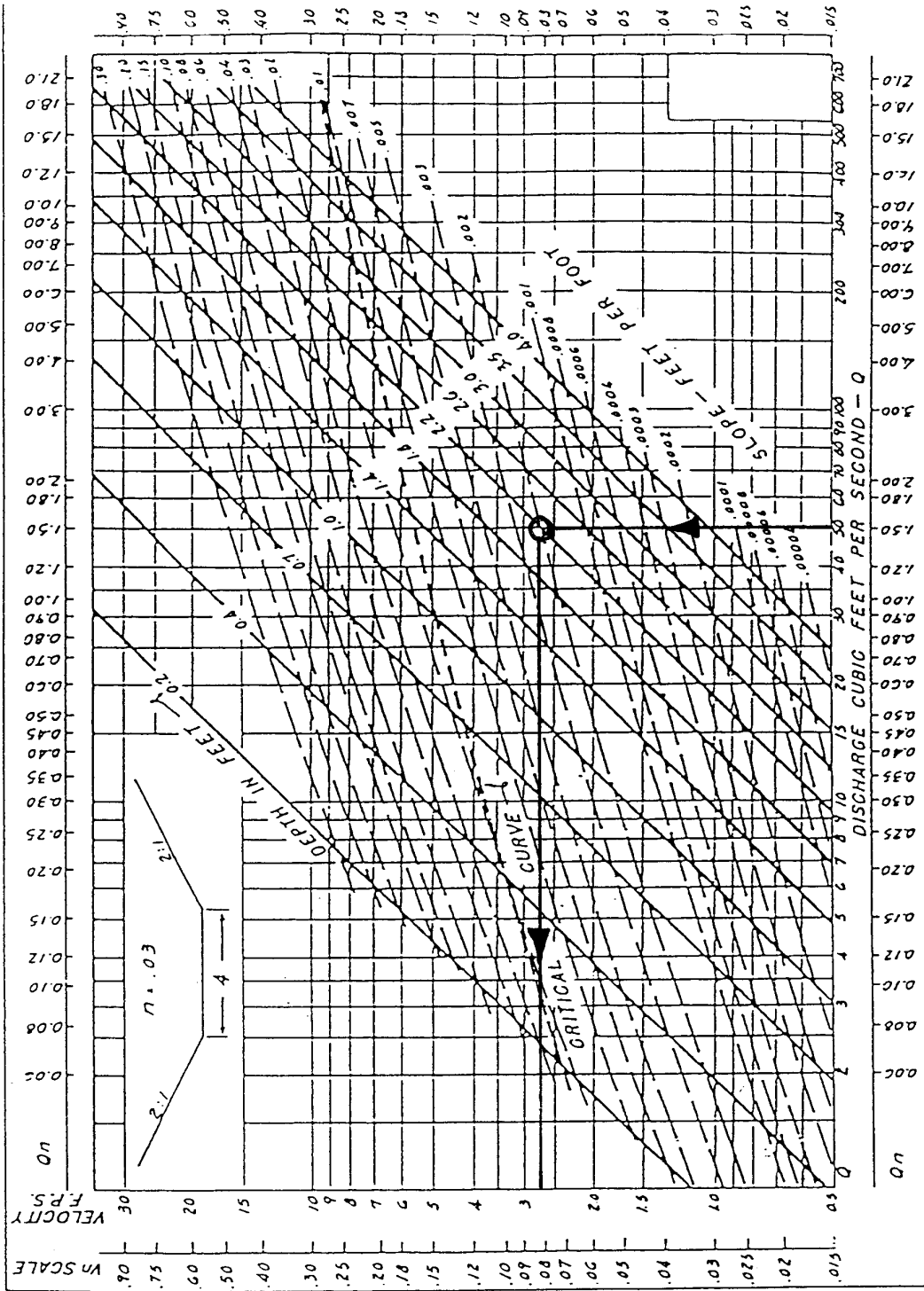
Example Design Problem 3

Given: A rectangular cement rubble masonry channel 5 ft wide, with $n = 0.025$, 0.5% slope ($S = 0.005$), discharging 80 cfs.

Find: Depth velocity and type of flow

Procedure:

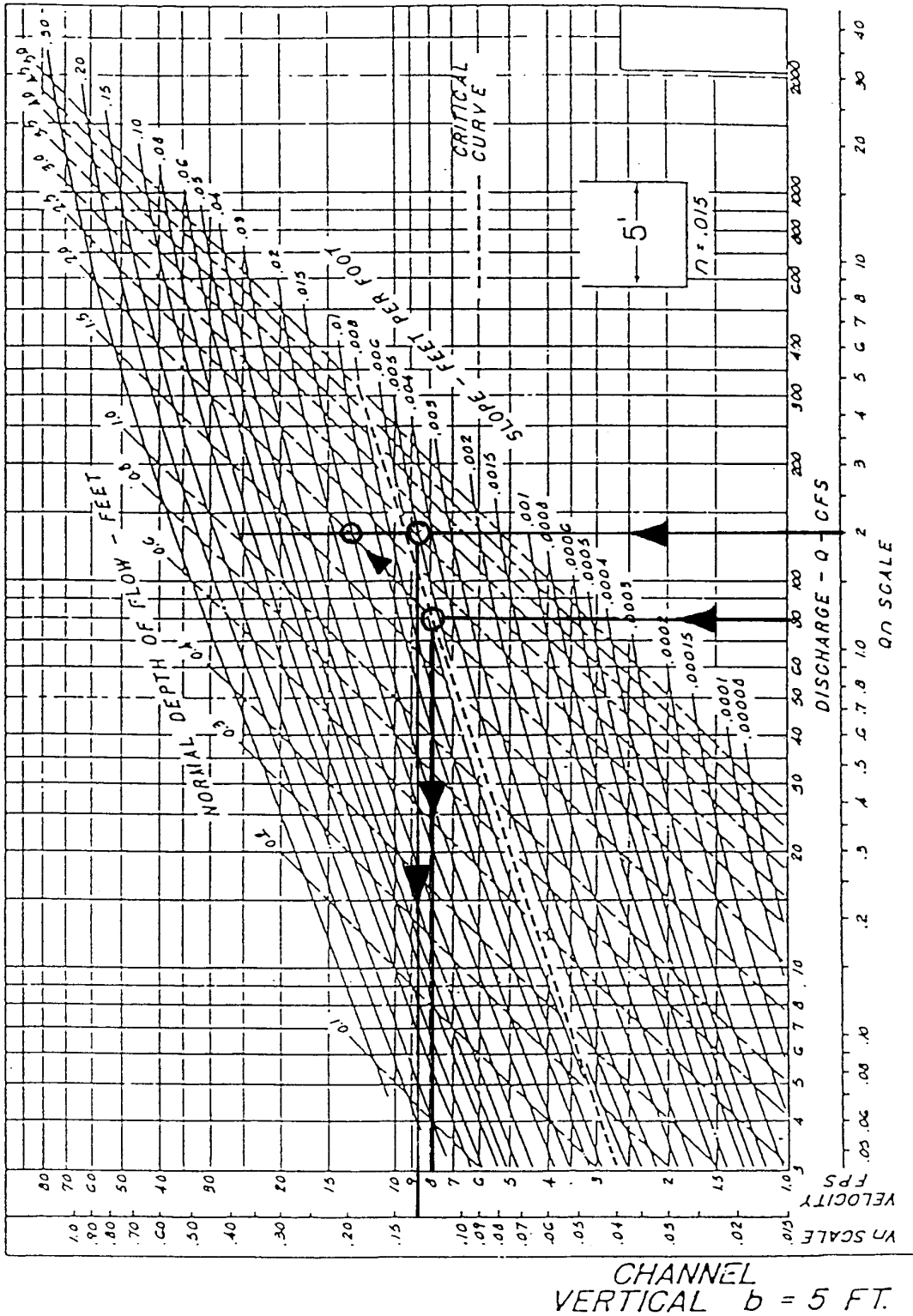
1. Select the rectangular figure for a 5 ft width (Figure 4.4-26).
2. Multiply Q by n to obtain Qn: $80 \times 0.025 = 2.0$.
3. From 2.0 on the Qn scale, move vertically to intersect the slope line, $S = 0.005$, and at the intersection read $d_n = 3.1$ ft.
4. Move horizontally from the intersection and read $V_n = .13$, then $V_n/n = 0.13/0.025 = 5.2$ ft/s.
5. Critical depth and critical velocity are independent of the value of n so their values can be read at the intersection of the critical curve with a vertical line through the discharge. For 80 cfs, on Figure 4.4-13, $d_c = 2.0$ ft and $V_c = 7.9$ ft/s. The normal velocity, 5.2 ft/s (from step 4), is less than the critical velocity, and the flow is therefore subcritical. It will also be noted that the normal depth, 3.0 ft, is greater than the critical depth, 2.0 ft, which also indicates subcritical flow.
6. To determine the critical slope for $Q = 80$ cfs and $n = 0.025$, start at the intersection of the critical curve and a vertical line through the discharge, $Q = 80$ cfs, finding d_c (2.0 ft) at this point. Follow along this d_c line to its intersection with a vertical line through $Qn = 2.0$ (step 2), at this intersection read the slope value $S_c = 0.015$.



CHANNEL
2:1 $b = 4$ FT.

Source: Federal Highway Administration

Figure 4.4-25 Example Nomograph #2



Source: Federal Highway Administration

Figure 4.4-26 Example Nomograph #3

4.4.12.4 Grassed Channel Figures

The Manning equation can be used to determine the capacity of a grass-lined channel, but the value of n varies with the type of grass, development of the grass cover, depth, and velocity of flow. The variable value of n complicates the solution of the Manning equation. The depth and velocity of flow must be estimated and the Manning equation solved using the n value that corresponds to the estimated depth and velocity. The trial solution provides better estimates of the depth and velocity for a new value of n and the equation is again solved. The procedure is repeated until a depth is found that carries the design discharge.

To prevent excessive erosion, the velocity of flow in a grass-lined channel must be kept below some maximum value (referred to as permissible velocity). The permissible velocity in a grass-lined channel depends upon the type of grass, condition of the grass cover, texture of the soil comprising the channel bed, channel slope, and to some extent the size and shape of the drainage channel. To guard against overtopping, the channel capacity should be computed for taller grass than is expected to be maintained, while the velocity used to check the adequacy of the protection should be computed assuming a lower grass height than will likely be maintained.

To aid in the design of grassed channels, the Federal Highway Administration has prepared numerous design figures. Copies of these figures are in subsection 4.4.14. Following is a brief description of general design criteria, instructions on how to use the figures, and several example design problems. For design conditions not covered by the figures, a trial-and-error solution of the Manning equation must be used.

4.4.12.5 Description of Figures

A set of figures in FHWA, NDS No. 3, 1973 and Atlanta Regional Commission, 2001 are designed for use in the direct solution of the Manning equation for various channel sections lined with grass. The figures are similar in appearance and use to those for trapezoidal cross sections described earlier. However, their construction is much more difficult because the roughness coefficient (n) changes as higher velocities and/or greater depths change the condition of the grass. The effect of velocity and depth of flow on n is evaluated by the product of velocity and hydraulic radius V times R . The variation of Manning's n with the retardance (Table 4.4-6) and the product V times R is shown in Figure 4.4-1. As indicated in Table 4.4-6, retardance varies with the height of the grass and the condition of the stand. Both of these factors depend upon the type of grass, planting conditions, and maintenance practices. Table 4.4-6 is used to determine retardance classification.

The grassed channel figures each have two graphs, the upper graph for retardance Class D and the lower graph for retardance Class C. The figures are plotted with discharge in cubic feet per second on the abscissa and slope in feet per foot on the ordinate. Both scales are logarithmic.

Superimposed on the logarithmic grid are lines for velocity in feet per second and lines for depth in feet. A dashed line shows the position of critical flow.

4.4.12.6 Instructions for Grassed Channel Figures

The grassed channel figures like those in Figure 4.4-11 provide a solution of the Manning equation for flow in open grassed channels of uniform slope and cross section. The flow should not be affected by backwater and the channel should have length sufficient to establish uniform flow. The figures are sufficiently accurate for design of drainage channels of fairly uniform cross section and slope, but are not appropriate for irregular natural channels.

The design of grassed channels requires two operations: (1) selecting a section that has the capacity to carry the design discharge on the available slope and (2) checking the velocity in the channel to ensure that the grass lining will not be eroded. Because the retardance of the channel is largely beyond the control of the designer, it is good practice to compute the channel capacity using retardance Class C and the velocity using retardance Class D. The calculated velocity should then be checked against the permissible velocities listed in Tables 4.4-2 and 4.4-3. The use of the figures is explained in the following steps:

- Step 1 Select the channel cross section to be used and find the appropriate figure.
- Step 2 Enter the lower graph (for retardance Class C) on the figure with the design discharge value on the abscissa and move vertically to the value of the slope on the ordinate scale. At this intersection, read the normal velocity and normal depth and note the position of the critical curve. If the intersection point is below the critical curve, the flow is subcritical; if it is above, the flow is supercritical.
- Step 3 To check the velocity developed against the permissible velocities (Tables 4.4-2 and 4.4-3), enter the upper graph on the same figure and repeat Step 2. Then compare the computed velocity with the velocity permissible for the type of grass, channel slope, and erosion resistance of the soil. If the computed velocity is less, the design is acceptable. If not, a different channel section must be selected and the process repeated.

Example Design Problem 1

Given: A trapezoidal channel in easily eroded soil, lined with a grass mixture with 4:1 side slopes, and a 4 ft bottom width on slope of 0.02 ft per foot ($S=0.02$), discharging 20 cfs.

Find: Depth, velocity, type of flow, and adequacy of grass to prevent erosion

Procedure:

1. From subsection 4.4.13 select figure for 4:1 side slopes (see Figure 4.4-27).
2. Enter the lower graph with $Q = 20$ cfs, and move vertically to the line for $S=0.02$. At this intersection read $d_n = 1.0$ ft, and normal velocity $V_n = 2.6$ ft/s.
3. The velocity for checking the adequacy of the grass cover should be obtained from the upper graph, for retardance Class D. Using the same procedure as in step 2, the velocity is found to be 3.0 ft/s. This is about three-quarters of that listed as permissible, 4.0 ft/s in Table 4.4-3.

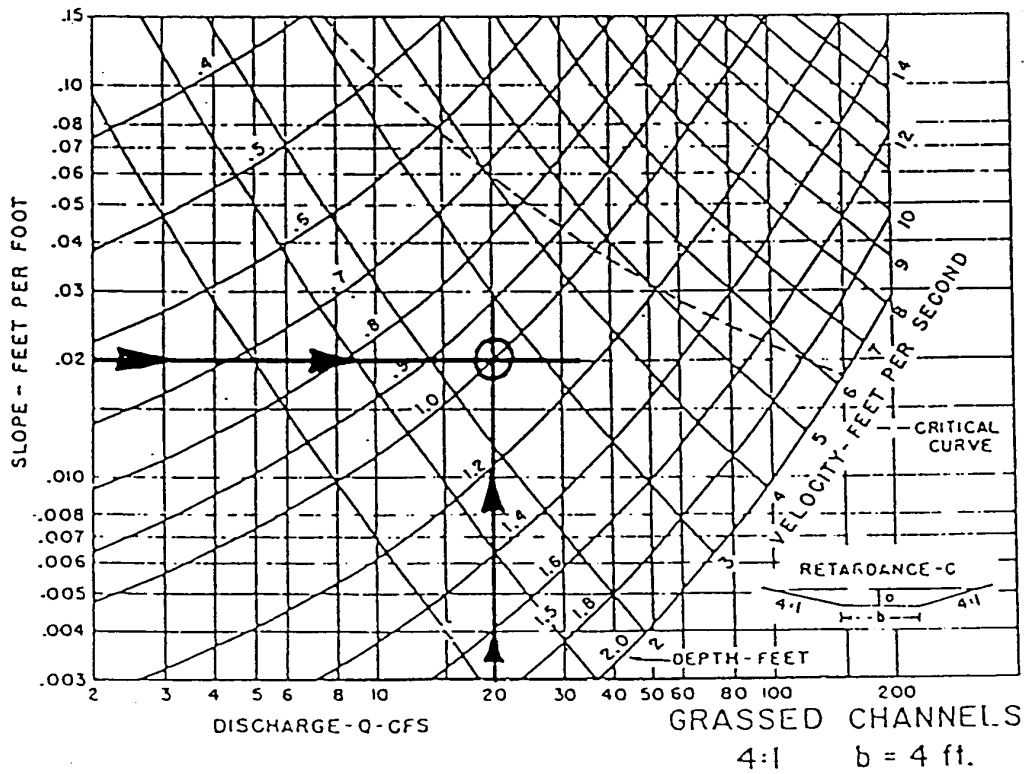
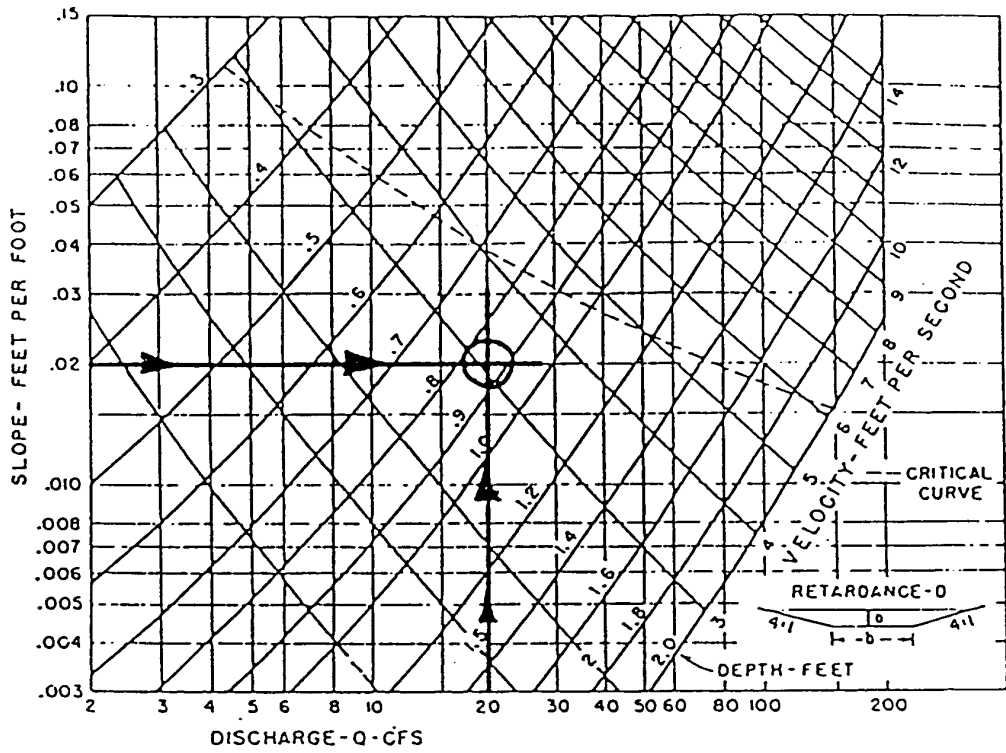
Example Design Problem 2

Given: The channel and discharge of Example 1.

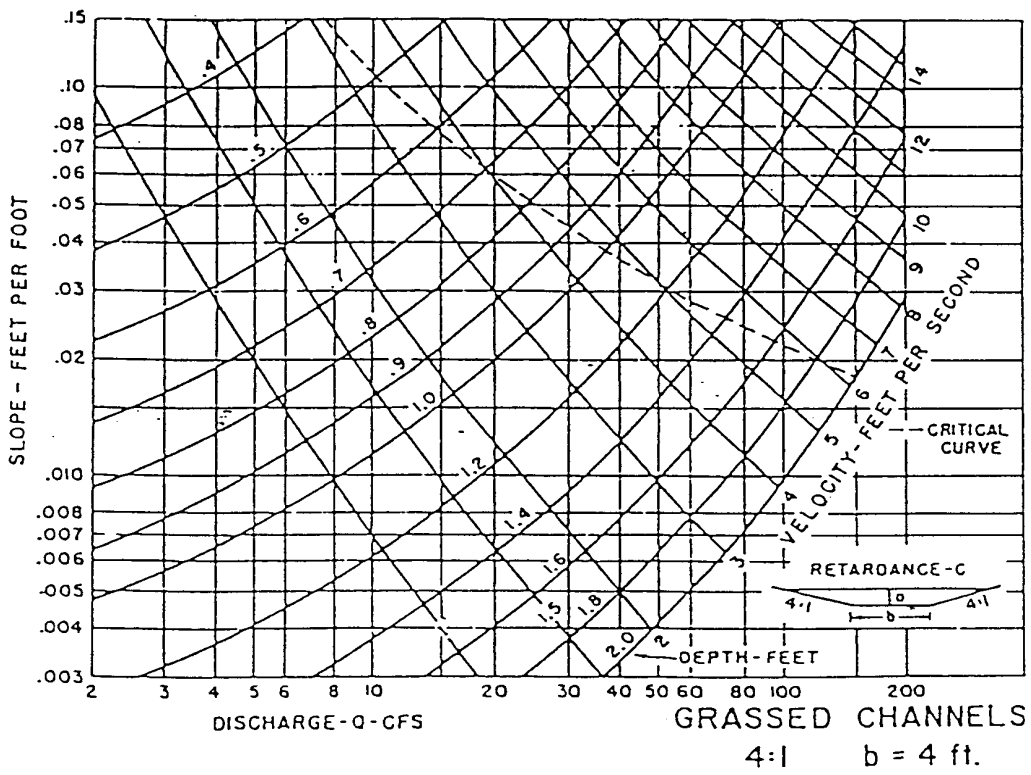
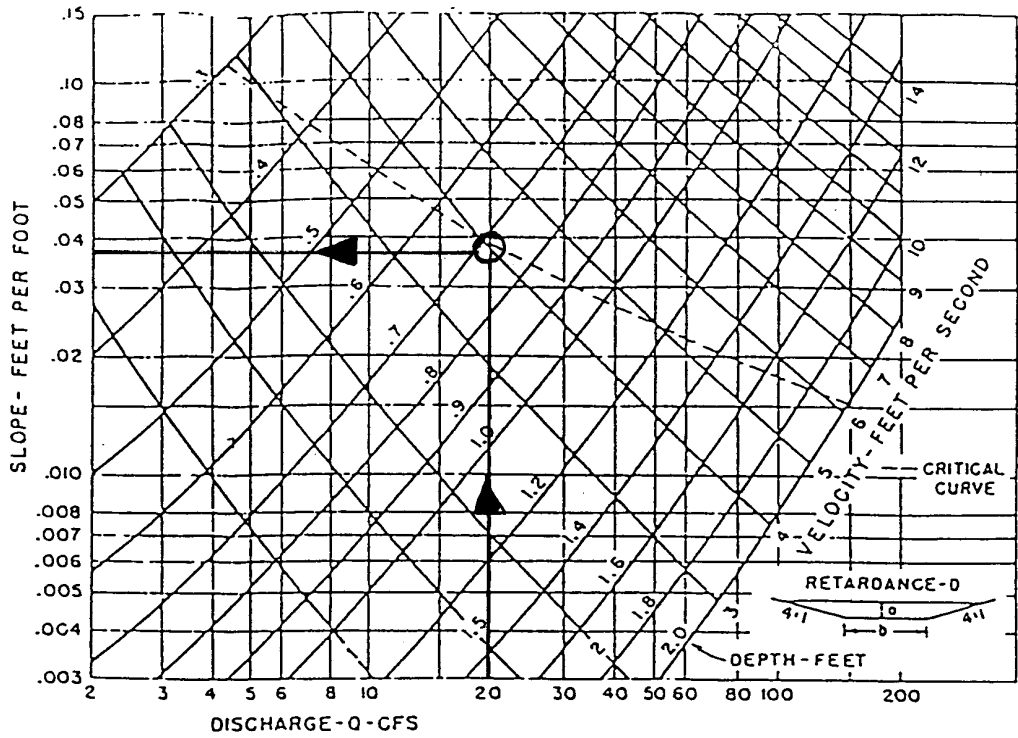
Find: The maximum grade on which the 20 cfs could safely be carried

Procedure:

With an increase in slope (but still less than 5%), the allowable velocity is estimated to be 4 ft/s (see Table 4.4-3). On the upper graph of Figure 4.4-28 for short grass, the intersection of the 20 cfs line and the 4 ft/s line indicates a slope of 3.7% and a depth of 0.73 ft.



Source: Federal Highway Administration
 Figure 4.4-27 Example Nomograph #4



Source: Federal Highway Administration

Figure 4.4-28 Example Nomograph #5

Section 4.5 – Storage Design

4.5.1 – General Storage Concepts

4.5.1.1 Introduction

This section provides general guidance on stormwater runoff storage for meeting stormwater management control objectives.

Storage of stormwater runoff within a stormwater management system is essential to providing detention of flows for water quality enhancement and downstream streambank protection, as well as for peak flow attenuation of larger flows for flood protection. Runoff storage can be provided within an on-site system through the use of structural stormwater controls and/or nonstructural features and landscaped areas. Figure 4.5-1 illustrates various storage facilities that can be considered for a development site.

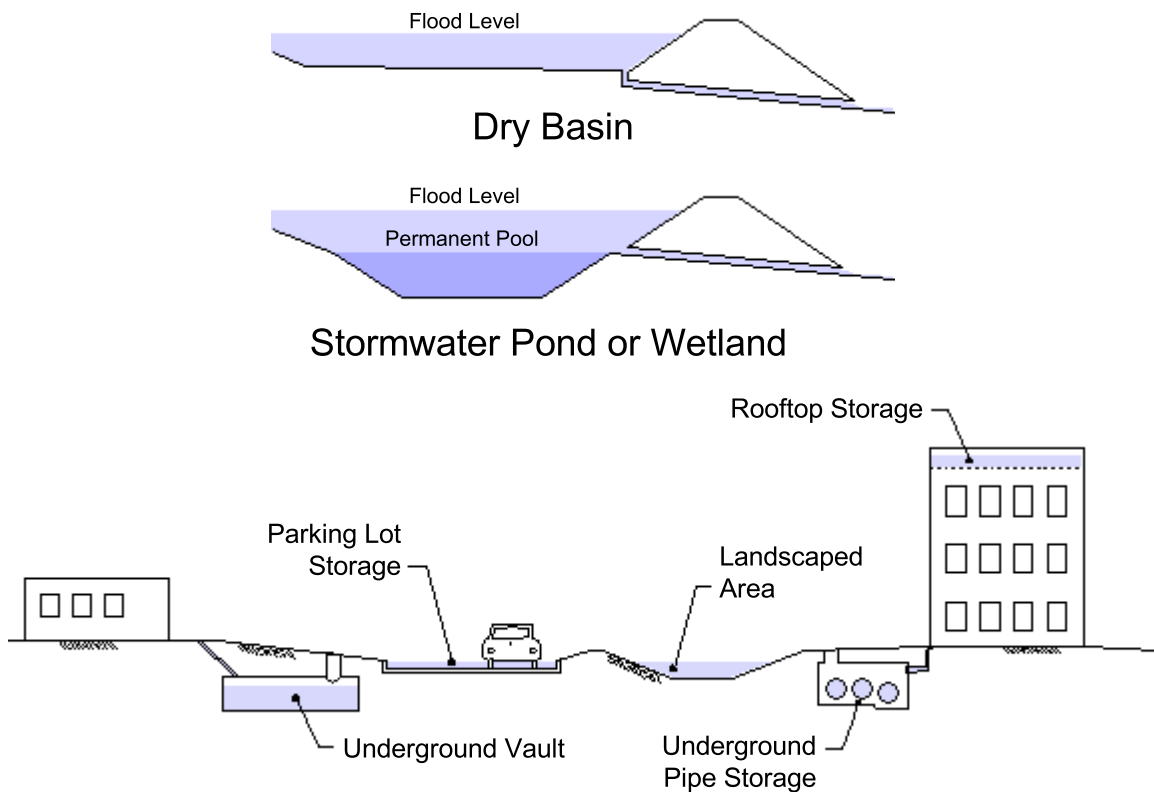


Figure 4.5-1 Examples of Typical Stormwater Storage Facilities

4.5.1.2 Storage Classification

Stormwater storage(s) can be classified as either detention, extended detention or retention. Some facilities include one or more types of storage.

Stormwater *detention* is used to reduce the peak discharge and detain runoff for a specified short period of time. Detention volumes are designed to completely drain after the design storm has passed. Detention is used to meet streambank protection criteria, and flood criteria where required.

Extended detention (ED) is used to drain a runoff volume over a specified period of time, typically 24 hours, and is used to meet streambank protection criteria. Some structural control designs (wet ED pond, micropool ED pond, and shallow ED marsh) also include extended detention storage. **(NOT currently required by Texarkana).**

Retention facilities are designed to contain a permanent pool of water, such as stormwater ponds and wetlands, which is used for water quality protection.

Storage facilities are often classified on the basis of their location and size. *On-site* storage is constructed on individual development sites. *Regional* storage facilities are constructed at the lower end of a subwatershed and are designed to manage stormwater runoff from multiple projects and/or properties.

Storage can also be categorized as *on-line* or *off-line*. On-line storage uses a structural control facility that intercepts flows directly within a conveyance system or stream. Off-line storage is a separate storage facility to which flow is diverted from the conveyance system. Figure 4.5-2 illustrates on-line versus off-line storage.

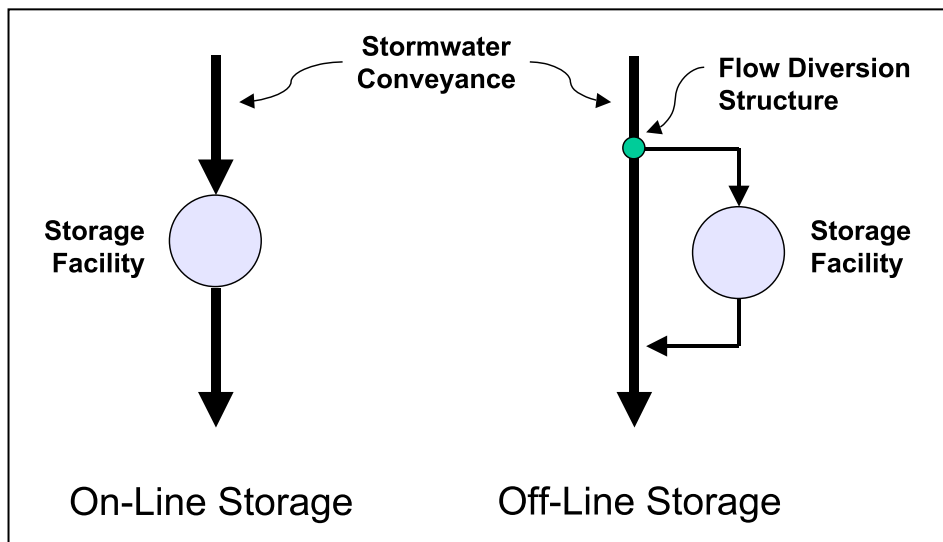


Figure 4.5-2 On-Line versus Off-Line Storage

4.5.1.3 Stage-Storage Relationship

A stage-storage curve defines the relationship between the depth of water and storage volume in a storage facility (see Figure 4.5-3). The volume of storage can be calculated by using simple geometric formulas expressed as a function of depth.

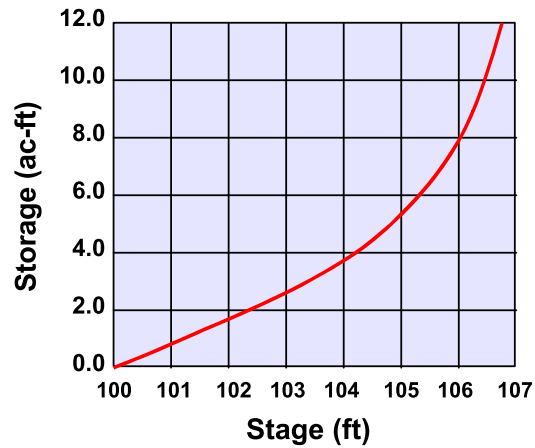


Figure 4.5-3 Stage-Storage Curve

The storage volume for natural basins may be developed using a topographic map and the double-end area, frustum of a pyramid, prismoidal or circular conic section formulas.

The double-end area formula (see Figure 4.5.1-4) is expressed as:

$$V_{1,2} = [(A_1 + A_2)/2]d \quad (4.5.1)$$

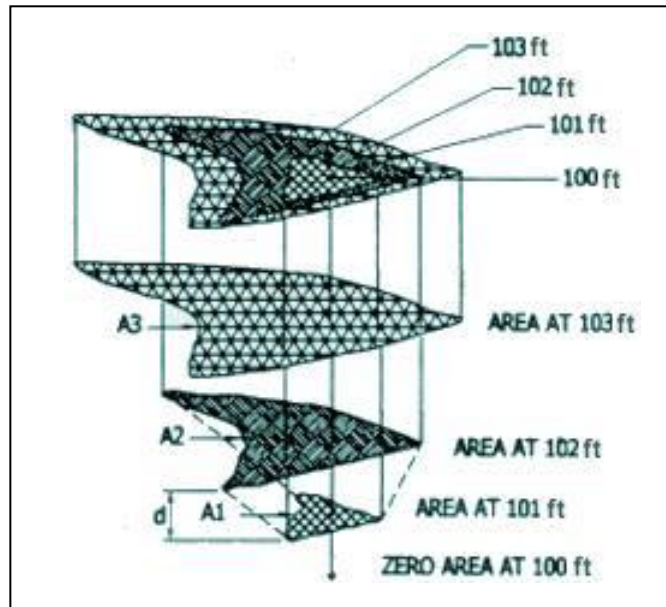


Figure 4.5-4 Double-End Area Method

where:

$V_{1,2}$	=	storage volume (ft ³) between elevations 1 and 2
A_1	=	surface area at elevation 1 (ft ²)
A_2	=	surface area at elevation 2 (ft ²)
d	=	change in elevation between points 1 and 2 (ft)

The frustum of a pyramid formula is expressed as:

$$V = d/3 [A_1 + (A_1 \times A_2)^{0.5} + A_2]/3 \quad (4.5.2)$$

where:

V	=	volume of frustum of a pyramid (ft ³)
d	=	change in elevation between points 1 and 2 (ft)
A_1	=	surface area at elevation 1 (ft ²)
A_2	=	surface area at elevation 2 (ft ²)

The prismatic formula for trapezoidal basins is expressed as:

$$V = LWD + (L + W) ZD^2 + 4/3 Z^2 D^3 \quad (4.5.3)$$

where:

V	=	volume of trapezoidal basin (ft ³)
L	=	length of basin at base (ft)
W	=	width of basin at base (ft)
D	=	depth of basin (ft)
Z	=	side slope factor, ratio of horizontal to vertical

The circular conic section formula is:

$$V = 1.047 D (R_1^2 + R_2^2 + R_1R_2) \quad (4.5.4)$$

$$V = 1.047 D (3 R_1^2 + 3ZDR_1 + Z_2D^2) \quad (4.5.5)$$

where:

R_1, R_2	=	bottom and surface radii of the conic section (ft)
D	=	depth of basin (ft)
Z	=	side slope factor, ratio of horizontal to vertical

4.5.1.4 Stage-Discharge Relationship

A stage-discharge curve defines the relationship between the depth of water and the discharge or outflow from a storage facility (see Figure 4.5-5). A typical storage facility has two outlets or spillways: a principal outlet and a secondary (or emergency) outlet. The principal outlet is usually designed with a capacity sufficient to convey the design flows without allowing flow to enter the

emergency spillway. A pipe culvert, weir, or other appropriate outlet can be used for the principal spillway or outlet.

The emergency spillway is sized to provide a bypass for floodwater during a flood that exceeds the design capacity of the principal outlet. This spillway should be designed taking into account the potential threat to downstream areas if the storage facility were to fail. The stage-discharge curve should take into account the discharge characteristics of both the principal spillway and the emergency spillway. For more details, see Section 4.6, *Outlet Structures*.

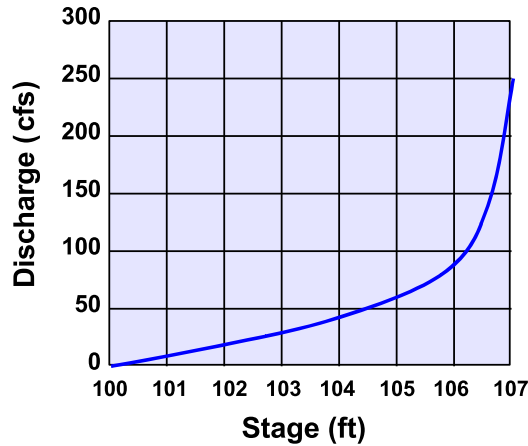


Figure 4.5-5 Stage-Discharge Curve

Stormwater detention is not a standard requirement in Texarkana, but shall be provided to mitigate increased peak flows in Texarkana waterways in specific circumstances. The purpose of the mitigation is to minimize downstream flooding impacts or streambank erosion from upstream development. In some instances, detention may be shown to exacerbate potential flooding conditions downstream. Therefore, the “Zone of Influence” criteria (Reference Section 2.1.8.2 shall be applied in addition to these criteria.)

4.5.2 – Symbols and Definitions

To provide consistency within this section as well as throughout this Manual, the symbols listed in Table 4.5.2-1 will be used. These symbols were selected because of their wide use in technical publications. In some cases, the same symbol is used in existing publications for more than one definition. Where this occurs in this section, the symbol will be defined where it occurs in the text or equations.

Symbol	Definition	Units
A	Cross sectional or surface area	ft ²
A _m	Drainage area	mi ²
C	Weir coefficient	-
d	Change in elevation	ft
D	Depth of basin or diameter of pipe	ft
t	Routing time period	sec
g	Acceleration due to gravity	ft/s ²
H	Head on structure	ft
H _c	Height of weir crest above channel bottom	ft
K	Coefficient	-
I	Inflow rate	cfs
L	Length	ft
Q, q	Peak inflow or outflow rate	cfs, in
R	Surface Radii	ft
S, V _s	Storage volume	ft ³
t _b	Time base on hydrograph	hrs
T _I	Duration of basin inflow	hrs
t _p	Time to peak	hrs
V _s , S	Storage volume	ft ³ , in, acre-ft
V _r	Volume of runoff	ft ³ , in, acre-ft
W	Width of basin	ft
Z	Side slope factor	-

4.5.3 – General Storage Design Procedures

4.5.3.1 Introduction

This section discusses the general design procedures for designing storage to provide standard detention of stormwater runoff for flood control (Q_f).

The design procedures for all structural control storage facilities are the same whether or not they include a permanent pool of water. In the latter case, the permanent pool elevation is taken as the “bottom” of storage and is treated as if it were a solid basin bottom for routing purposes.

It should be noted that the location of structural stormwater controls is very important as it relates to the effectiveness of these facilities to control downstream impacts. In addition, multiple storage facilities located in the same drainage basin will affect the timing of the runoff through the conveyance system, which could decrease or increase flood peaks in different downstream locations. Therefore, a downstream peak flow analysis should be performed as part of the storage facility design process (see subsection 2.1.8).

In multi-purpose multi-stage facilities such as stormwater ponds, the design of storage must be integrated with the overall design for water quality protection objectives.

“Dry” Detention Basins

1. Detention Basins shall be required when downstream facilities within the “Zone of Influence” are not adequately sized to convey a design storm based on current City criteria for hydraulic capacity. Detention basins may not be required if downstream improvements that will result in sufficient hydraulic capacity are proposed by the City within a relatively short period of time.
2. Calculated proposed stormwater discharge from a site shall not exceed the calculated discharges from existing conditions, unless sufficient downstream capacity above existing discharge conditions is available.
3. The Preliminary Detention Calculation Method (Section 4.5.4) is allowed for planning and conceptual design for watersheds of 200 acres and less. For final design purposes this Method is allowed only for watersheds of 10 acres and less (see Table 2.1.1-2).
4. Detention Basins draining watersheds over 25 acres shall be designed using a detailed unit hydrograph method acceptable to the City of Texarkana. The preferred unit hydrograph method is the SCS Dimensionless Unit Hydrograph Method. The Snyder’s Unit Hydrograph Method may be accepted with approval of the Director of Public Works. Please note that the Snyder’s methodology presented in Section 2.1.6 was developed specifically for the DFW area so will require modification to apply it to the Texarkana area.
5. Detention Basins shall be designed for the 2-year, 10-year and 100-year storm for the critical storm duration (i.e. 3-hour, 6-hour, or 24-hour storm duration) that results in the maximum (or near maximum) peak flow.
6. Detention Basins shall be designed with access for tracked earthwork equipment with a 10-foot crown width on any embankment.
7. Earthen (grassed) embankment slopes shall NOT exceed 4:1. Concrete lined or structural embankment can be steeper with the approval of the Director of Public Works.
8. A calculation summary shall be provided on construction plans. For detailed calculations of unit hydrograph studies, a separate report shall be provided to the City for review and referenced on the construction plans. Stage-storage-discharge values shall be tabulated and flow calculations for discharge structures shall be shown on the construction plans.
9. An emergency spillway shall be provided at the 100-year maximum storage elevation with sufficient capacity to convey the fully urbanized 100-year storm assuming blockage of the closed conduit portion outlet works with six inches of freeboard. Spillway requirements must also meet all appropriate state and Federal criteria.
10. Design calculations will be provided for all spillways.
11. All detention basins shall be stabilized against significant erosion and include a maintenance plan.
12. State rules and regulations regarding impoundments shall be observed including 30 TAC Chapter 299, Dams and Reservoirs (TCEQ).

13. In accordance with Texas Water Code §11, all surface impoundments not used for domestic or livestock purposes must obtain a water rights permit from the TCEQ. A completed permit for the proposed use, or written documentation stating that a permit is not required, must be obtained. All detention facility designs shall include a landscaping plan

“Wet” Detention Basins and Amenity Ponds

Wet detention basins maintain a permanent pool with additional storage capacity to detain stormwater. Amenity ponds may or may not include this additional storage. The depth of a wet or amenity pond is generally seven (7) to ten (10) feet to prevent algal growth, although greater depths are possible with artificial mixing. The objective is to avoid thermal stratification that could result in odor problems or recycling of nutrients. Gentle artificial mixing may be needed in small ponds because they are effectively sheltered from the wind. If properly designed, constructed, and maintained, wet ponds will not only reduce peak stormwater flows, but also improve water quality and can be an attractive feature of a development.

Below are guidelines for wet detention basins in addition to those presented under “Dry” Detention Basins.

1. Must be appropriately aerated according to normal pool size unless specifically approved by Director of Public Works.
2. Provisions shall be made to ensure that normal water surface elevation is maintained through the use of ground wells or the City water supply unless surface water supply can be justified based on drainage area to pond. (general requirement is 5 acres of drainage area for every acre-foot of normal pool storage).
3. Ten-foot (10') wide maintenance access shall be provided with a slope of 6:1 or flatter.
4. A debris filter must be provided for all outlet structures.
5. Design shall provide adequate capacity for trapped sediment for five (5) years.
6. To minimize short-circuiting, the inlet and outlet should be placed at opposite ends of the pond or baffling shall be installed to direct the water to the opposite end before returning to the outlet. Dead space should be avoided.
7. To limit water loss by infiltration through the bottom of the pond either an artificial liner or a clay liner may be used. Natural material may be used if a geotechnical report is provided to assure it will not leach out the bottom or sides of the pond.

4.5.3.2 Data Needs

The following data are needed for storage design and routing calculations:

- Inflow hydrograph for all selected design storms
 - **Stage-storage curve for proposed storage facility**
 - Stage-discharge curve for all outlet control structures

4.5.3.3 Design Procedure

A general procedure for using the above data in the design of storage facilities is presented below.

Step 1 Compute inflow hydrograph for runoff from the 2 year design storms using the hydrologic methods outlined in Section 2.1. Both existing- and post-development hydrographs are required for the design storm.

Step 2 Perform preliminary calculations to evaluate detention storage requirements for the hydrographs from Step 1 (see subsection 4.5.4).

Step 3 Determine the physical dimensions necessary to hold the estimated volume from Step 2, including freeboard. The maximum storage requirement calculated from Step 2 should be used. From the selected shape determine the maximum depth in the pond.

Step 4 Select the type of outlet and size the outlet structure. The estimated peak stage will occur for the estimated volume from Step 2. The outlet structure should be sized to convey the allowable discharge at this stage.

Step 5 Perform routing calculations using inflow hydrographs from Step 1 to check the preliminary design using a storage routing computer model. If the routed post-development peak discharges from the 10-year design storm exceed the existing-development peak discharges, then revise the available storage volume, outlet device, etc., and return to Step 3.

Step 6 Perform routing calculations using the 100-year hydrograph to determine if any increases in downstream flows from this hydrograph will cause damages and/or drainage and flooding problems. If problems will be created (e.g., flooding of habitable dwellings, property damage, or public access and/or utility interruption) then the storage facility must be designed to control the increased flows from the 100-year storm. If not then consider emergency overflow from runoff due to the 100-year (or larger) design storm and established freeboard requirements.

Step 7 Evaluate the downstream effects of detention outflows for the 10- and 100-year storms to ensure that the routed hydrograph does not cause downstream flooding problems. The exit hydrograph from the storage facility should be routed through the downstream channel system until a confluence point is reached where the drainage area being analyzed represents 10% of the total drainage area (see subsection 2.1.11).

Step 8 Evaluate the control structure outlet velocity and provide channel and bank stabilization if the velocity will cause erosion problems downstream.

Routing of hydrographs through storage facilities is critical to the proper design of these facilities. Although storage design procedures using inflow/outflow analysis without routing have been developed, their use in designing detention facilities has not produced acceptable results in many areas of the country, including North Central Texas.

Although hand calculation procedures are available for routing hydrographs through storage facilities, they are very time consuming, especially when several different designs are evaluated. Many standard hydrology and hydraulics textbooks give examples of hand-routing techniques. For this Manual, it is assumed that designers will be using one of the many computer programs

available for storage routing and thus other procedures and example applications will not be given here.

4.5.4 – Preliminary Detention Calculations

4.5.4.1 Introduction

Procedures for preliminary detention calculations are included here to provide a simple method that can be used to estimate storage needs and also provide a quick check on the results of using different computer programs. Standard routing should be used for actual (final) storage facility calculations and design.

4.5.4.2 Storage Volume

For small drainage areas, a preliminary estimate of the storage volume required for peak flow attenuation may be obtained from a simplified design procedure that replaces the actual inflow and outflow hydrographs with the standard triangular shapes shown in Figure 4.5.4-1.

The required storage volume may be estimated from the area above the outflow hydrograph and inside the inflow hydrograph, expressed as:

$$V_s = 0.5T_i(Q_i - Q_o) \quad (4.5.6)$$

where:

- V_s = storage volume estimate (ft^3)
- Q_i = peak inflow rate (cfs)
- Q_o = peak outflow rate (cfs)
- T_i = duration of basin inflow (s)

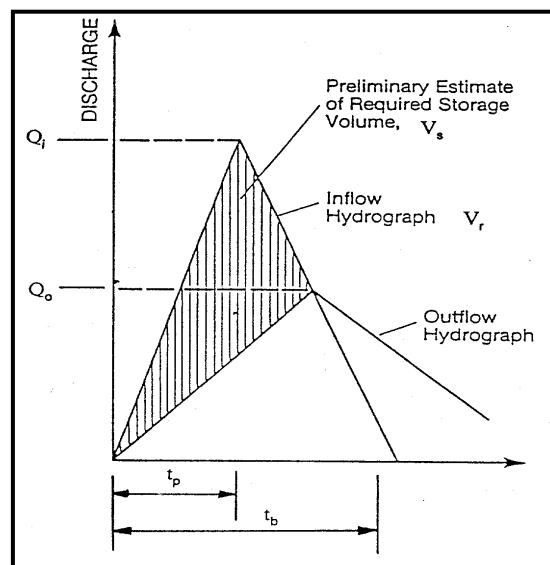


Figure 4.5-6 Triangular-Shaped Hydrographs

(For Preliminary Estimate of Required Storage Volume)

4.5.4.3 Alternative Method

An alternative preliminary estimate of the storage volume required for a specified peak flow reduction can be obtained by the following regression equation procedure (Wycoff and Singh, 1976).

Determine input data, including the allowable peak outflow rate, Q_o , the peak flow rate of the inflow hydrograph, Q_i , the time base of the inflow hydrograph, t_b , and the time to peak of the inflow hydrograph, t_p .

Calculate a preliminary estimate of the ratio V_s/V_r using the input data from Step 1 and the following equation:

$$\frac{V_s}{V_r} = \frac{\left(\frac{Q_o}{Q_i} \right)^{0.753}}{\left(\frac{t_p}{T} \right)^{0.753}} \quad (4.5.7)$$

where:

- V_s = volume of storage (in)
- V_r = volume of runoff (in)
- Q_o = outflow peak flow (cfs)
- Q_i = inflow peak flow (cfs)
- t_b = time base of the inflow hydrograph (hr) [Determined as the time from the beginning of rise to a point on the recession limb where the flow is 5% of the peak]
- t_p = time to peak of the inflow hydrograph (hr)

Multiply the volume of runoff, V_r , times the ratio V_s/V_r , calculated in Step 2 to obtain the estimated storage volume V_s .

4.5.4.4 Peak Flow Reduction

A preliminary estimate of the potential peak flow reduction for a selected storage volume can be obtained by the following procedure.

Determine volume of runoff, V_r , peak flow rate of the inflow hydrograph, Q_i , time base of the inflow hydrograph, t_b , time to peak of the inflow hydrograph, t_p , and storage volume V_s .

Calculate a preliminary estimate of the potential peak flow reduction for the selected storage volume using the following equation (Wycoff and Singh, 1976):

$$Q_o/Q_i = 1 - 0.712(V_s/V_r)^{1.328}(t_b/t_p)^{0.546} \quad (4.5.8)$$

where:

- Q_o = outflow peak flow (cfs)
- Q_i = inflow peak flow (cfs)
- V_s = volume of storage (in)
- V_r = volume of runoff (in)
- t_b = time base of the inflow hydrograph (hr) [Determined as the time from the beginning of rise to a point on the recession limb where the flow is 5 percent of the peak]
- t_p = time to peak of the inflow hydrograph (hr)

Multiply the peak flow rate of the inflow hydrograph, Q_i , times the potential peak flow reduction calculated from Step 2 to obtain the estimated peak outflow rate, Q_o , for the selected storage volume.

Section 4.6 – Pond Outlet Structures

4.6.1 Symbols and Definitions

To provide consistency within this section as well as throughout this Manual, the symbols listed in Table 4.6.1-1 will be used. These symbols were selected because of their wide use in technical publications. In some cases, the same symbol is used in existing publications for more than one definition. Where this occurs in this section, the symbol will be defined where it occurs in the text or equations.

Symbol	Definition	Units
A, a	Cross sectional or surface area	ft ²
A_m	Drainage area	mi ²
B	Breadth of weir	ft
C	Weir coefficient	-
d	Change in elevation	ft
D	Depth of basin or diameter of pipe	ft
g	Acceleration due to gravity	ft/s ²
H	Head on structure	ft
H_c	Height of weir crest above channel bottom	ft
K, k	Coefficient	-
L	Length	ft
n	Manning's n	-
Q, q	Peak inflow or outflow rate	cfs, in
V_u	Approach velocity	ft/s
WQ_v	Water quality protection volume	ac ft
w	Maximum cross sectional bar width facing the flow	in
x	Minimum clear spacing between bars	in
θ	Angle of v-notch	degrees
θ_g	Angle of the grate with respect to the horizontal	degrees

4.6.2 Primary Outlets

4.6.2.1 Introduction

Primary outlets provide the critical function of the regulation of flow for structural stormwater controls. There are several different types of outlets that may consist of a single stage outlet structure, or several outlet structures combined to provide multi-stage outlet control.

For a single stage system, the stormwater facility can be designed as a simple pipe or culvert. For multistage control structures, the inlet is designed considering a range of design flows.

A stage-discharge curve is developed for the full range of flows that the structure would experience. The outlets are housed in a riser structure connected to a single outlet conduit. An alternative approach would be to provide several pipe or culvert outlets at different levels in the basin that are either discharged separately or are combined to discharge at a single location.

This section provides an overview of outlet structure hydraulics and design for stormwater storage facilities. The design engineer is referred to an appropriate hydraulics text for additional information on outlet structures not contained in this section.

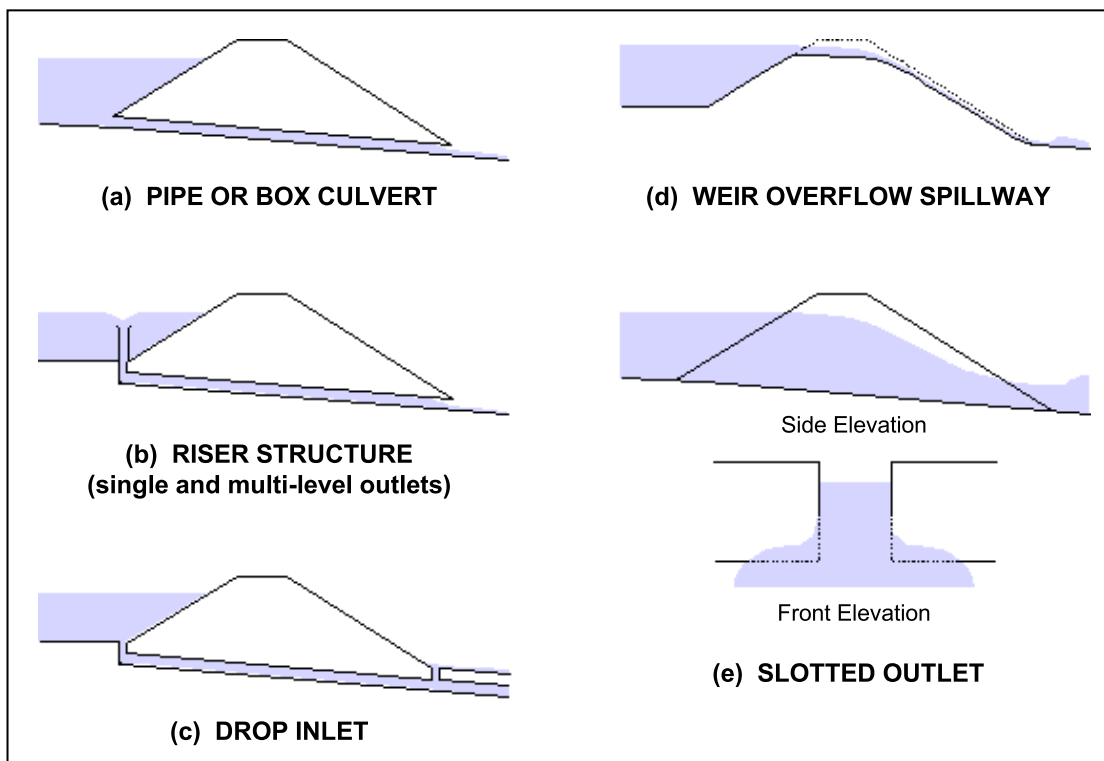


Figure 4.6-1 Typical Primary Outlets

4.6.2.2 Outlet Structure Types

There are a wide variety of outlet structure types, the most common of which are covered in this section. Descriptions and equations are provided for the following outlet types for use in stormwater facility design:

- Orifices
- Perforated risers
- Pipes / Culverts
- Sharp-crested weirs
- Broad-crested weirs
- V-notch weirs
- Proportional weirs
- Combination outlets

The design professional must pay attention to material types and construction details when designing an outlet structure or device. Non-corrosive material and mounting hardware are key to device longevity, ease of operation, and low cost maintenance. Special attention must also be paid to not placing dissimilar metal materials together where a cathodic reaction will cause deterioration and destruction of metal parts.

Protective coatings, paints, and sealants must also be chosen carefully to prevent contamination of the stormwater flowing through the structure/device. This is not only important while they are being applied, but also as these coating deteriorate and age over the functional life of the facility.

Each of these outlet types has a different design purpose and application:

- 2-Year and 10-Year flows are normally handled with smaller, more protected outlet structures such as reverse slope pipes, hooded orifices, orifices located within screened pipes or risers, perforated plates or risers, and V-notch weirs.
- Larger flows, such as flood flows, are typically handled through a riser with different sized openings, through an overflow at the top of a riser (drop inlet structure), or a flow over a broad crested weir or spillway through the embankment. Overflow weirs can also be of different heights and configurations to handle control of multiple design flows.

4.6.2.3 Orifices

An orifice is a circular or rectangular opening of a prescribed shape and size. The flow rate depends on the height of the water above the opening and the size and edge treatment of the orifice.

For a single orifice, as illustrated in Figure 4.6-2(a), the orifice discharge can be determined using the standard orifice equation below.

$$Q = CA (2gH)^{0.5} \quad (4.6.1)$$

where:

Q	=	the orifice flow discharge (cfs)
C	=	discharge coefficient
A	=	cross-sectional area of orifice or pipe (ft ²)
g	=	acceleration due to gravity (32.2 ft/s ²)
D	=	diameter of orifice or pipe (ft)
H	=	effective head on the orifice, from the center of orifice to the water surface

If the orifice discharges as a free outfall, then the effective head is measured from the center of the orifice to the upstream (headwater) surface elevation. If the orifice discharge is submerged, then the effective head is the difference in elevation of the headwater and tailwater surfaces as shown in Figure 4.6-2(b).

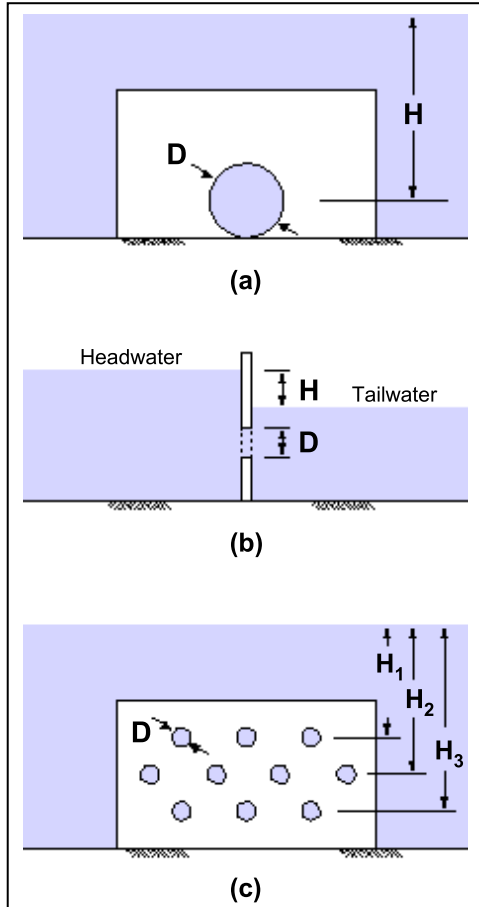


Figure 4.6-2 Orifice

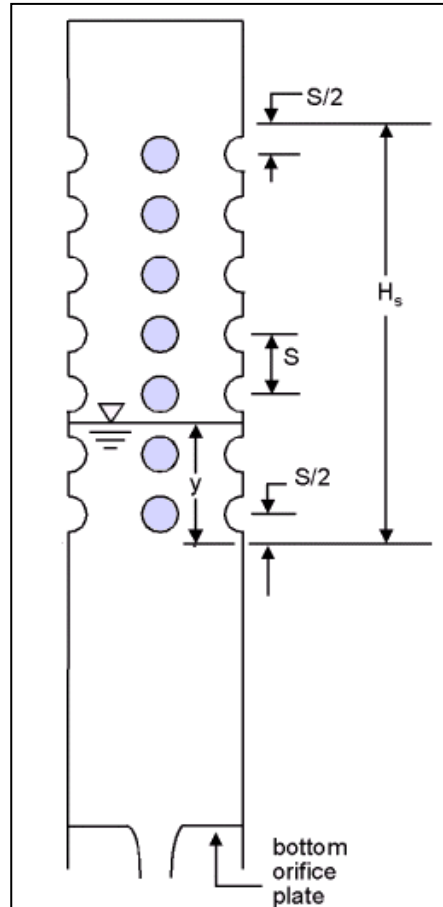


Figure 4.6-3 Perforated

When the material is thinner than the orifice diameter, with sharp edges, a coefficient of 0.6 should be used. For square-edged entrance conditions the generic orifice equation can be simplified:

$$Q = 0.6A (2gH)^{0.5} = 3.78D^2H^{0.5} \quad (4.6.2)$$

where:

D = diameter of orifice or pipe (ft)

When the material is thicker than the orifice diameter a coefficient of 0.80 should be used. If the edges are rounded, a coefficient of 0.92 can be used.

Flow through multiple orifices, such as the perforated plate shown in Figure 4.6-2(c), can be computed by summing the flow through individual orifices. For multiple orifices of the same size and under the influence of the same effective head, the total flow can be determined by multiplying the discharge for a single orifice by the number of openings.

Perforated orifice plates for the control of discharge can be of any size and configuration. However, the Denver Urban Drainage and Flood Control District has developed standardized

dimensions that have worked well. Table 4.6.2-1 gives appropriate dimensions. The vertical spacing between hole centerlines is always 4 inches.

Table 4.6.2-1 Circular Perforation Sizing					
Hole Diameter (in)	Minimum Column Hole Centerline Spacing (in)	Flow Area per Row (in²)			
		1 column	2 columns	3 columns	
1/4	1	0.05	0.1	0.15	
5/16	2	0.08	0.15	0.23	
3/8	2	0.11	0.22	0.33	
7/16	2	0.15	0.3	0.45	
1/2	2	0.2	0.4	0.6	
9/16	3	0.25	0.5	0.75	
5/8	3	0.31	0.62	0.93	
11/16	3	0.37	0.74	1.11	
3/4	3	0.44	0.88	1.32	
13/16	3	0.52	1.04	1.56	
7/8	3	0.6	1.2	1.8	
15/16	3	0.69	1.38	2.07	
1	4	0.79	1.58	2.37	
1 1/16	4	0.89	1.78	2.67	
1 1/8	4	0.99	1.98	2.97	
1 3/16	4	1.11	2.22	3.33	
1 1/4	4	1.23	2.46	3.69	
1 5/16	4	1.35	2.7	4.05	
1 3/8	4	1.48	2.96	4.44	
1 7/16	4	1.62	3.24	4.86	
1 1/2	4	1.77	3.54	5.31	
1 9/16	4	1.92	3.84	5.76	
1 5/8	4	2.07	4.14	6.21	
1 11/16	4	2.24	4.48	6.72	
1 3/4	4	2.41	4.82	7.23	
1 13/16	4	2.58	5.16	7.74	
1 7/8	4	2.76	5.52	8.28	
1 15/16	4	2.95	5.9	8.85	
2	4	3.14	6.28	9.42	
Number of columns refers to parallel columns of holes					
Minimum plate thickness		1/4"	5/16"	3/8"	

Source: Urban Drainage and Flood Control District, Denver, CO

For rectangular slots the height is normally 2 inches with variable width. Only one column of rectangular slots is allowed.

Figure 4.6-4 provides a schematic of an orifice plate outlet structure for a wet extended detention pond (Not currently required in Texarkana) showing the design pool elevations and the flow control mechanisms.

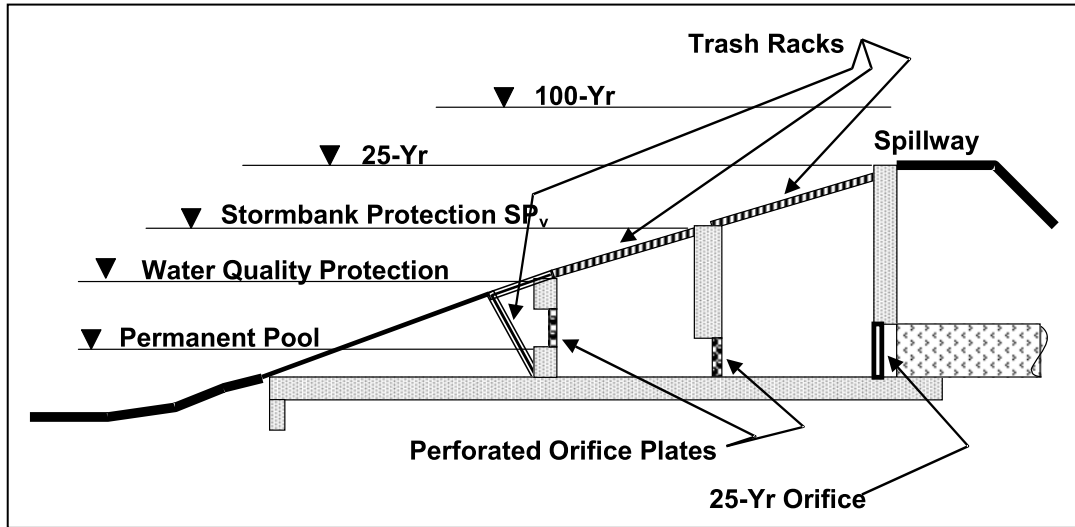


Figure 4.6-4 Schematic of Orifice Plate Outlet Structure

4.6.2.4 Perforated Risers

A special kind of orifice flow is a perforated riser as illustrated in Figure 4.6-3. In the perforated riser, an orifice plate at the bottom of the riser, or in the outlet pipe just downstream from the elbow at the bottom of the riser, controls the flow. It is important that the perforations in the riser convey more flow than the orifice plate so as not to become the control.

Referring to Figure 4.6-3, a shortcut formula has been developed to estimate the total flow capacity of the perforated section (McEnroe, 1988):

$$Q = C_p \frac{2A_p}{3H_s} \sqrt{2gH}^{3/2}$$

where:

- Q = discharge (cfs)
- C_p = discharge coefficient for perforations (normally 0.61)
- A_p = cross-sectional area of all the holes (ft²)
- H_s = distance from S/2 below the lowest row of holes to S/2 above the top row (ft)

4.6.2.5 Pipes and Culverts

Discharge pipes are often used as outlet structures for stormwater control facilities. The design of these pipes can be for either single or multi-stage discharges. A reverse-slope underwater pipe is often used for to detain 2-year and 10-year storm events.

Pipes smaller than 12 inches in diameter may be analyzed as a submerged orifice as long as H/D is greater than 1.5. Note: For low flow conditions when the flow reaches and begins to overflow the pipe, weir flow controls (see subsection 4.6.2.6). As the stage increases the flow will transition to orifice flow.

Pipes greater than 12 inches in diameter should be analyzed as a discharge pipe with headwater and tailwater effects taken into account. The outlet hydraulics for pipe flow can be determined from the outlet control culvert nomographs and procedures given in Section 4.3, *Culvert Design*, or by using equation 4.6.4 (NRCS, 1984).

The following equation is a general pipe flow equation derived through the use of the Bernoulli and continuity principles.

$$Q = a[(2gH) / (1 + k_m + k_p L)]^{0.5} \quad (4.6.4)$$

where:

Q	=	discharge (cfs)
a	=	pipe cross sectional area (ft ²)
g	=	acceleration of gravity (ft/s ²)
H	=	elevation head differential (ft)
k _m	=	coefficient of minor losses (use 1.0)
k _p	=	pipe friction coefficient = 5087n ² /D ^{4/3}
L	=	pipe length (ft)

4.6.2.6 Sharp-Crested Weirs

If the overflow portion of a weir has a sharp, thin leading edge such that the water springs clear as it overflows, the overflow is termed a *sharp-crested* weir. If the sides of the weir also cause the through flow to contract, it is termed an *end-contracted* sharp-crested weir. Sharp-crested weirs have stable stage-discharge relations and are often used as a measurement device. A sharp-crested weir with compensation for end contractions is illustrated in Figure 4.6-5(a). The discharge equation for this configuration is (Chow, 1959) which can also be used for circular pipe risers:

$$Q = [(3.27 + 0.4(H/H_c)] LH^{1.5} \quad (4.6.5)$$

where:

Q	=	discharge (cfs)
H	=	head above weir crest excluding velocity head (ft)
H _c	=	height of weir crest above channel bottom (ft)

L = horizontal weir length (ft)

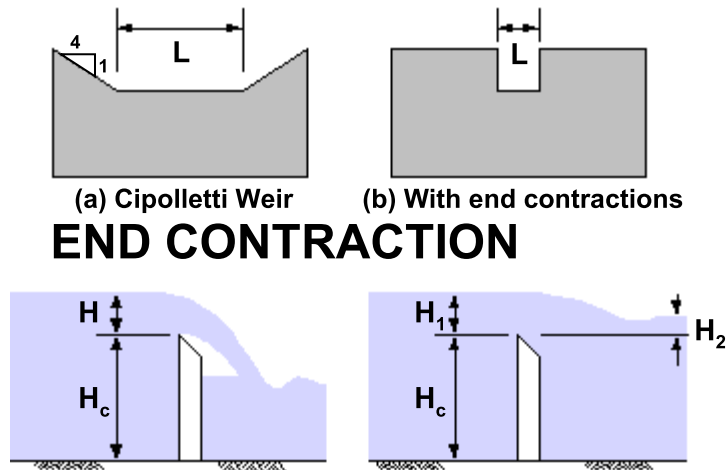


Figure 4.6-5 Sharp-Crested Weir

The discharge equation for the Cipolletti Weir is $Q = 3.367 LH^{1/2}$

A sharp-crested weir with two end contractions is illustrated in Figure 4.6-5(b). The discharge equation for this configuration is (Chow, 1959) which can also be used for circular pipe risers:

$$Q = [(3.27 + 0.4(H/H_c)] (L - 0.2H) H^{1.5} \quad (4.6.6)$$

where:

- Q = discharge (cfs)
- H = head above weir crest excluding velocity head (ft)
- H_c = height of weir crest above channel bottom (ft)
- L = horizontal weir length (ft)

A sharp-crested weir will be affected by submergence when the tailwater rises above the weir crest elevation. The result will be that the discharge over the weir will be reduced. The discharge equation for a sharp-crested submerged weir is (Brater and King, 1976):

$$Q_s = Q_f (1 - (H_2/H_1)^{1.5})^{0.385} \quad (4.6.7)$$

where:

- Q_s = submergence flow (cfs)
- Q_f = free flow (cfs)
- H₁ = upstream head above crest (ft)
- H₂ = downstream head above crest (ft)

4.6.2.7 Broad-Crested Weirs

A weir in the form of a relatively long raised channel control crest section is a *broad-crested* weir. The flow control section can have different shapes, such as triangular or circular. True broad-crested weir flow occurs when upstream head above the crest is between the limits of about 1/20 and 1/2 the crest length in the direction of flow. For example, a thick wall or a flat stop log can act like a sharp-crested weir when the approach head is large enough that the flow springs from the

upstream corner. If upstream head is small enough relative to the top profile length, the stop log can act like a broad-crested weir (USBR, 1997).

The equation for the broad-crested weir is (Brater and King, 1976):

$$Q = CLH^{1.5} \text{ (4.6.8)}$$

where:

- Q = discharge (cfs)
- C = broad-crested weir coefficient
- L = broad-crested weir length perpendicular to flow (ft)
- H = head above weir crest (ft)

If the upstream edge of a broad-crested weir is so rounded as to prevent contraction and if the slope of the crest is as great as the loss of head due to friction, flow will pass through critical depth at the weir crest; this gives the maximum C value of 3.087. For sharp corners on the broad-crested weir, a minimum C value of 2.6 should be used. Information on C values as a function of weir crest breadth and head is given in Table 4.6.2-2.

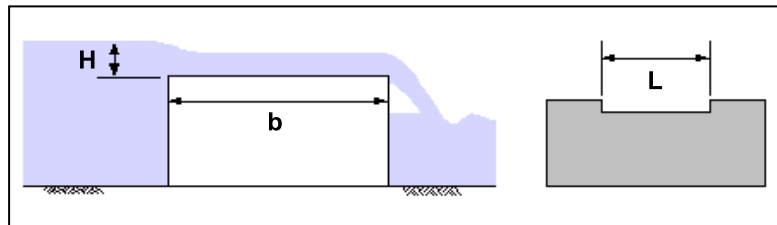


Figure 4.6-6 Broad-Crested Weir

Measur ed Head (H)*	Weir Crest Breadth (b) in feet										
	In feet	0.50	0.75	1.00	1.50	2.00	2.50	3.00	4.00	5.00	10.00
0.2	2.80	2.75	2.69	2.62	2.54	2.48	2.44	2.38	2.34	2.49	2.68
0.4	2.92	2.80	2.72	2.64	2.61	2.60	2.58	2.54	2.50	2.56	2.70
0.6	3.08	2.89	2.75	2.64	2.61	2.60	2.68	2.69	2.70	2.70	2.70
0.8	3.30	3.04	2.85	2.68	2.60	2.60	2.67	2.68	2.68	2.69	2.64
1.0	3.32	3.14	2.98	2.75	2.66	2.64	2.65	2.67	2.68	2.68	2.63
1.2	3.32	3.20	3.08	2.86	2.70	2.65	2.64	2.67	2.66	2.69	2.64
1.4	3.32	3.26	3.20	2.92	2.77	2.68	2.64	2.65	2.65	2.67	2.64
1.6	3.32	3.29	3.28	3.07	2.89	2.75	2.68	2.66	2.65	2.64	2.63
1.8	3.32	3.32	3.31	3.07	2.88	2.74	2.68	2.66	2.65	2.64	2.63
2.0	3.32	3.31	3.30	3.03	2.85	2.76	2.72	2.68	2.65	2.64	2.63
2.5	3.32	3.32	3.31	3.28	3.07	2.89	2.81	2.72	2.67	2.64	2.63
3.0	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.20	3.05	2.92	2.73	2.66	2.64	2.63
3.5	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.19	2.97	2.76	2.68	2.64	2.63
4.0	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.07	2.79	2.70	2.64	2.63
4.5	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.32	2.88	2.74	2.64	2.63
5.0	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.07	2.79	2.64	2.63
5.5	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.32	3.32	2.88	2.64	2.63

* Measured at least 2.5H upstream of the weir.
Source: Brater and King (1976)

4.6.2.8 V-Notch Weirs

The discharge through a V-notch weir (Figure 4.6-7) can be calculated from the following equation (Brater and King, 1976).

$$Q = 2.5 \tan (\theta/2) H^{2.5} \quad (4.6.9)$$

where:

- Q = discharge (cfs)
 θ = angle of V-notch (degrees)
H = head on apex of notch

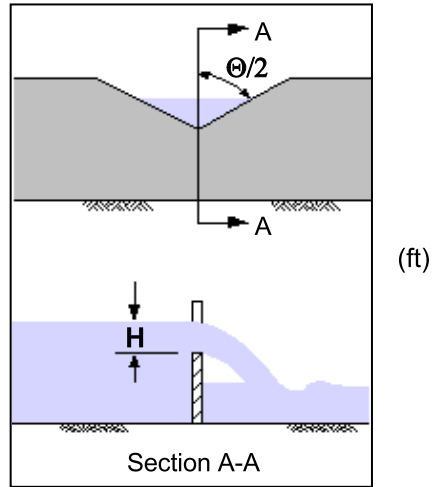


Figure 4.6-7 V-Notch Weir

4.6.2.9 Proportional Weirs

Although it may be more complex to design and construct, a proportional weir may significantly reduce the required storage volume for a given site. The proportional weir is distinguished from other control devices by having a linear head-discharge relationship achieved by allowing the discharge area to vary nonlinearly with head. A typical proportional weir is shown in Figure 4.6-8. Design equations for proportional weirs are (Sandvik, 1985):

$$Q = 4.97 a^{0.5} b (H - a/3) \quad (4.6.10)$$

$$x/b = 1 - (1/3.17) (\arctan (y/a)^{0.5}) \quad (4.6.11)$$

where:

- Q = discharge (cfs)

Dimensions a, b, H, x, and y are shown in Figure 4.6-8

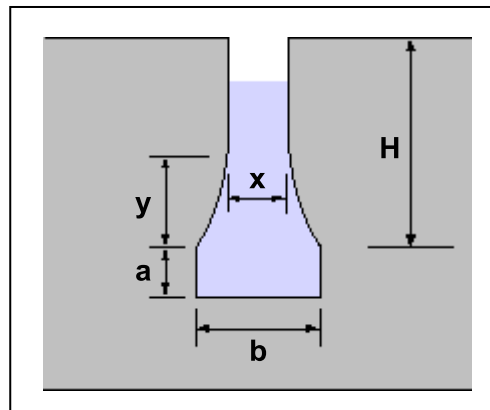


Figure 4.6-8 Proportional Weir Dimensions

4.6.2.10 Combination Outlets

Combinations of orifices, weirs, and pipes can be used to provide multi-stage outlet control for different storm events within a storage facility

They are generally two types of combination outlets: shared outlet control structures and separate outlet controls. Shared outlet control is typically a number of individual outlet openings (orifices), weirs, or drops at different elevations on a riser pipe or box which all flow to a common larger conduit or pipe. Figure 4.6-9 shows an example of a riser designed for a wet extended detention pond. The orifice plate outlet structure in Figure 4.6-4 is another example of a combination outlet.

Separate outlet controls are less common and may consist of several pipe or culvert outlets at different levels in the storage facility that are either discharged separately or are combined to discharge at a single location.

The use of a combination outlet requires the construction of a composite stage-discharge curve (as shown in Figure 4.6-10) suitable for control of multiple storm flows. The design of multi-stage combination outlets is discussed later in this section.

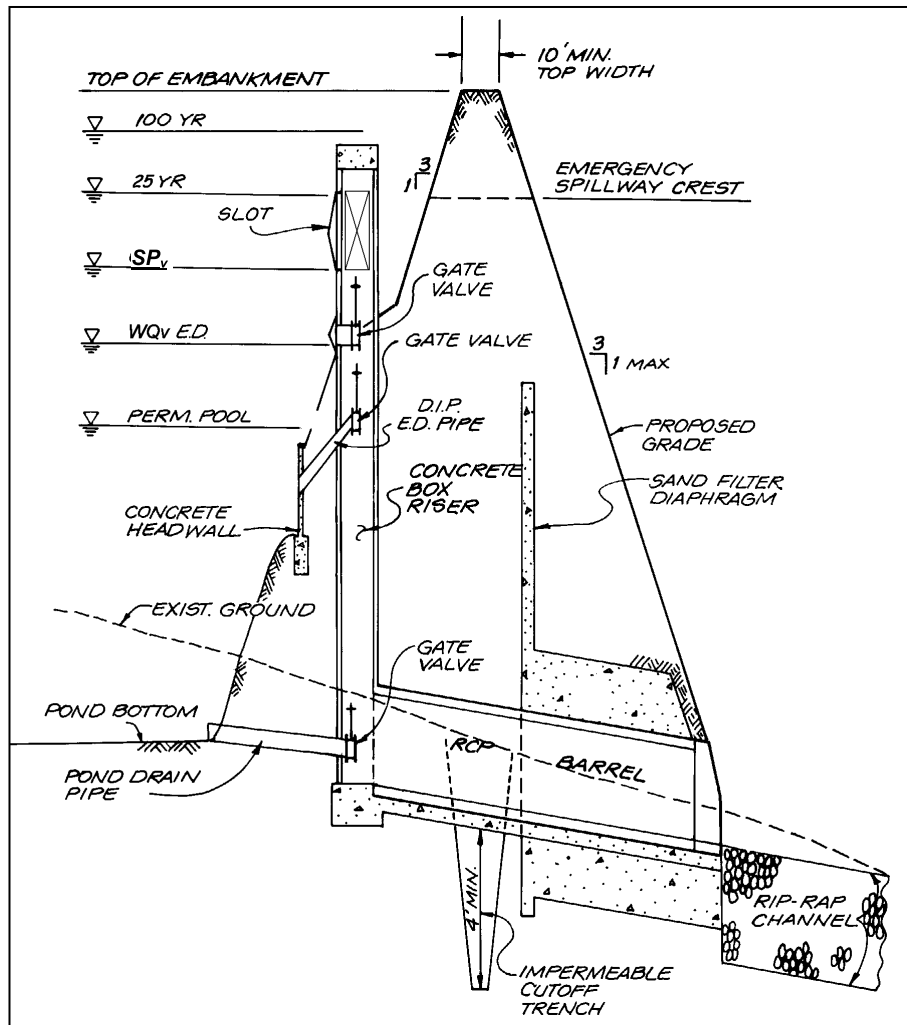


Figure 4.6-9 Schematic of Combination Outlet Structure

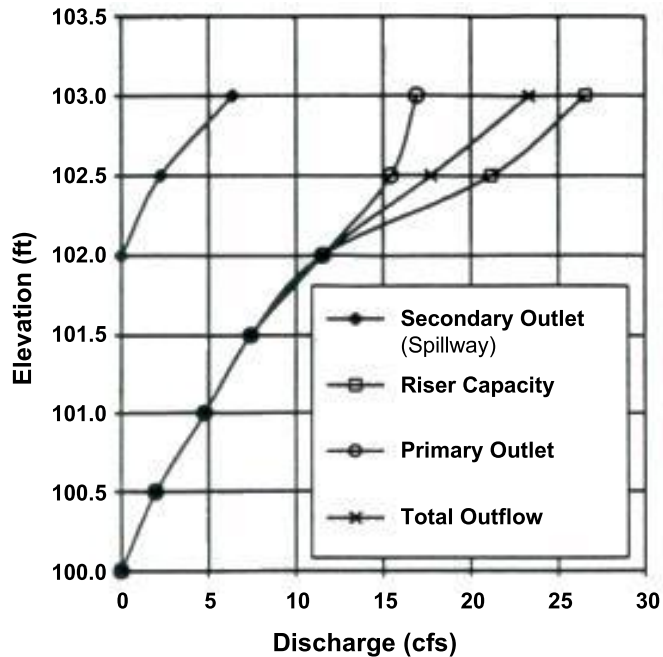


Figure 4.6-10 Composite Stage-Discharge Curve

4.6.3 Multi-Stage Outlet Design

4.6.3.1 Introduction

A combination outlet such as a multiple orifice plate system or multi-stage riser is often used to provide adequate hydraulic outlet controls for the different design requirements for stormwater ponds, stormwater wetlands and detention-only facilities. Separate openings or devices at different elevations are used to control the rate of discharge from a facility during multiple design storms. Figures 4.6-4 and 4.6-9 are examples of multi-stage combination outlet systems.

A design engineer may be creative to provide the most economical and hydraulically efficient outlet design possible in designing a multi-stage outlet. Many iterative routings are usually required to arrive at a minimum structure size and storage volume that provides proper control. The stage-discharge table or rating curve is a composite of the different outlets that are used for different elevations within the multi-stage riser (see Figure 4.6-10)

4.6.3.2 Multi-Stage Outlet Design Procedure

(Please note that detention of Water Quality Volume and Streambank Protection Volume is not currently required but control of 2-year, 10-year and 100-year peak discharges is required.)

Below are the steps for designing a multi-stage outlet. Note that if a structural control facility will not control one or more of the required storm events (2-, 10-, and 100-year) then that step in the procedure is skipped.

Step 1 Determine Stormwater Control Volumes. Using the procedures from Sections 2.1 and 2.2, estimate the required storage volumes for water quality protection (WQ_v), streambank protection (SP_v), and flood control (Q_f).

Step 2 Develop Stage-Storage Curve. Using the structure geometry and topography, develop the stage-storage curve for the facility in order to provide sufficient storage for the control volumes involved in the design.

Step 3 Design Water Quality Protection Outlet. Design the water quality protection extended detention (WQ_v -ED) orifice using either Method 1 or Method 2 outlined in subsection 4.6.3. If a permanent pool is incorporated into the design of the facility, a portion of the storage volume for water quality protection will be above the elevation of the permanent pool. The outlet can be protected using either a reverse slope pipe, a hooded protection device, or another acceptable method (see subsection 4.6.5).

Step 4 Design Streambank Protection Outlet. Design the streambank protection extended detention outlet (SP_v -ED) using either method from subsection 4.6.3. For this design, the storage needed for streambank protection will be greater than the water quality protection volume storage elevation determined in Step 3. The total stage-discharge rating curve at this point will include the water quality protection orifice and the outlet used for streambank protection. The outlet should be protected in a manner similar to that for the water quality protection orifice.

Step 5 Design Flood Control Outlet. The storage needed for flood control will be greater than the water quality protection and streambank protection storage. Establish the Q_f maximum water surface elevation using the stage-storage curve and subtract the SP_v elevation to find the maximum head. Select an outlet type and calculate the initial size and geometry based upon maintaining the predevelopment peak discharge rate. Develop a stage-discharge curve for the combined set of outlets (WQ_v , SP_v and Q_f).

Step 6 Check Performance of the Outlet Structure. Perform a hydraulic analysis of the multi-stage outlet structure using reservoir routing to ensure that all outlets will function as designed. Several iterations may be required to calibrate and optimize the hydraulics and outlets that are used. Also, the structure should operate without excessive surging, noise, vibration, or vortex action at any stage. This usually requires that the outlet structure have a larger cross-sectional area than the outlet conduit.

The hydraulic analysis of the design must take into account the hydraulic changes that will occur as depth of storage changes for the different design storms. As shown in Figure 4.6-11, as the water passes over the rim of a riser, the riser acts as a weir. However, when the water surface reaches a certain height over the rim of a riser, the riser will begin to act as a submerged orifice. The designer must compute the elevation at which this transition from riser weir flow control to riser orifice flow control takes place for an outlet where this transition will occur. Also note in Figure 4.6-11 that as the elevation of the water increases further, the control can change from barrel inlet flow control to barrel pipe flow control. Figure 4.6-12 shows another condition where weir flow can change to orifice flow, which must be taken into account in the hydraulics of the rating curve as different design conditions results in changing water surface elevations.

Step 7 Size the Emergency Spillway. It is recommended that all stormwater impoundment structures have a vegetated emergency spillway (see subsection 4.6.7). An emergency spillway provides a degree of safety to prevent overtopping of an embankment if the primary outlet or principal spillway should become clogged, or otherwise inoperative. The 100-year storm should be routed through the outlet devices and emergency spillway to ensure the hydraulics of the system will operate as designed. Also check the dam safety requirements to be sure of an adequate design.

Step 8 Design Outlet Protection. Design necessary outlet protection and energy dissipation facilities to avoid erosion problems downstream from outlet devices and emergency spillway(s). See Subsection 4.7, *Energy Dissipation Design*, for more information.

Step 9 Perform Buoyancy Calculations. Perform buoyancy calculations for the outlet structure and footing. Flotation will occur when the weight of the structure is less than or equal to the buoyant force exerted by the water.

Step 10 Provide Seepage Control. Seepage control should be provided for the outflow pipe or culvert through an embankment. The two most common devices for controlling seepage are (1) filter and drainage diaphragms and (2) anti-seep collars.

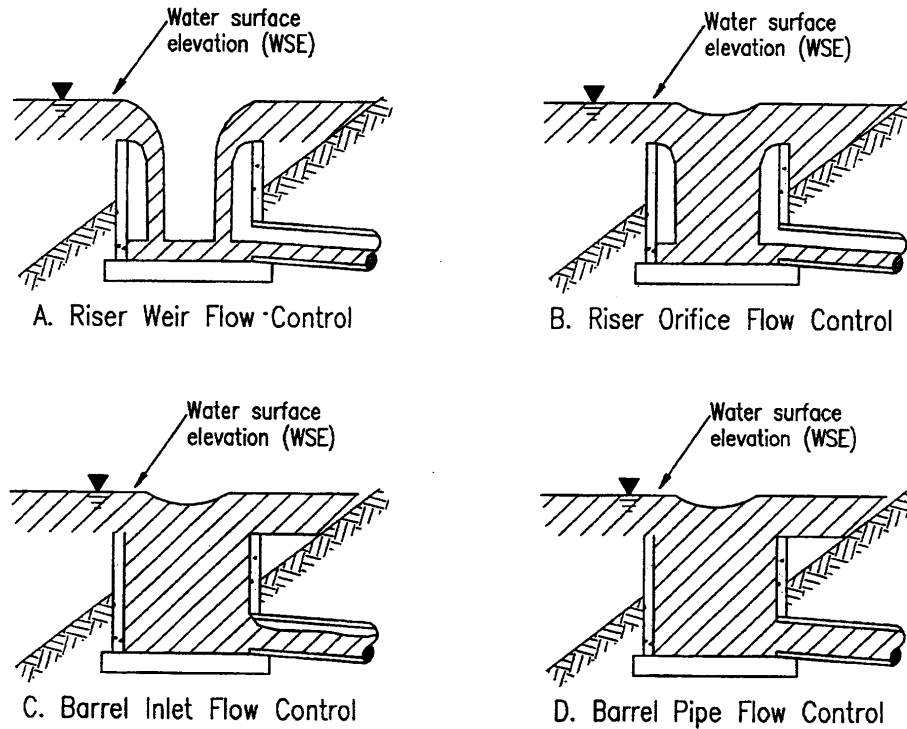


Figure 4.6-11 Riser Flow Diagrams
(Source: VDCR, 1999)

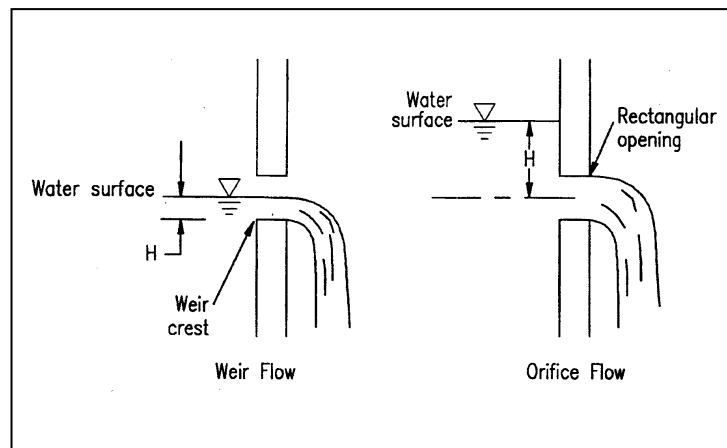


Figure 4.6-12 Weir and Orifice Flow
(Source: VDCR, 1999)

4.6.4 Trash Racks and Safety Grates

4.6.4.1 Introduction

The susceptibility of larger inlets to clogging by debris and trash needs to be considered when estimating their hydraulic capacities. In most instances trash racks will be needed. Trash racks and safety grates are a critical element of outlet structure design and serve several important functions:

- **Keeping debris away from the entrance to the outlet works where they will not clog the critical portions of the structure**
- Capturing debris in such a way that relatively easy removal is possible
- Ensuring that people and large animals are kept out of confined conveyance and outlet areas
- Providing a safety system that prevents anyone from being drawn into the outlet and allows them to climb to safety

When designed properly, trash racks serve these purposes without interfering significantly with the hydraulic capacity of the outlet (or inlet in the case of conveyance structures) (ASCE, 1985; Allred-Coonrod, 1991). The location and size of the trash rack depends on a number of factors, including head losses through the rack, structural convenience, safety and size of outlet. Well-designed trash racks can also have an aesthetically pleasing appearance.

An example of trash racks used on a riser outlet structure is shown in Figure 4.6-17. Additional trash rack design can be found in Appendix C. The inclined vertical bar rack is most effective for lower stage outlets. Debris will ride up the trash rack as water levels rise. This design also allows for removal of accumulated debris with a rake while standing on top of the structure.

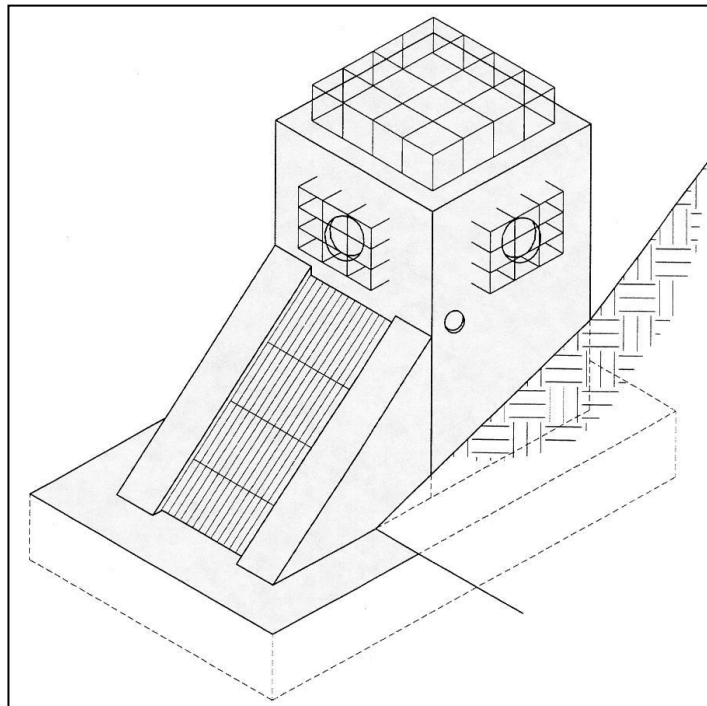


Figure 4.6-13 Example of Various Trash Racks Used on a Riser Outlet Structure

(Source: VDCR, 1999)

4.6.4.2 Trash Rack Design

Trash racks must be large enough so that partial plugging will not adversely restrict flows reaching the control outlet. There are no universal guidelines for the design of trash racks to protect detention basin outlets, although a commonly used "rule-of-thumb" is to have the trash rack area at least ten times larger than the control outlet orifice.

The surface area of all trash racks should be maximized and the trash racks should be located a suitable distance from the protected outlet to avoid interference with the hydraulic capacity of the outlet. The spacing of trash rack bars must be proportioned to the size of the smallest outlet protected. However, where a small orifice is provided, a separate trash rack for that outlet should be used, so that a simpler, sturdier trash rack with more widely spaced members can be used for the other outlets. Spacing of the rack bars should be wide enough to avoid interference, but close enough to provide the level of clogging protection required.

To facilitate removal of accumulated debris and sediment from around the outlet structure, the racks should have hinged connections. If the rack is bolted or set in concrete it will preclude removal of accumulated material and will eventually adversely affect the outlet hydraulics.

Since sediment will tend to accumulate around the lowest stage outlet, the inside of the outlet structure for a dry basin should be depressed below the ground level to minimize clogging due to sedimentation. Depressing the outlet bottom to a depth below the ground surface at least equal to the diameter of the outlet is recommended.

Trash racks at entrances to pipes and conduits should be sloped at about 3H:1V to 5H:1V to allow trash to slide up the rack with flow pressure and rising water level — the slower the approach flow, the flatter the angle. Rack opening rules-of-thumb are found in literature. Figure 4.6.6-2 gives opening estimates based on outlet diameter (UDFCD, 1992). Judgment should be used in that an area with higher debris (e.g., a wooded area) may require more opening space.

The bar opening space for small pipes should be less than the pipe diameter. For larger diameter pipes, openings should be 6 inches or less. Collapsible racks have been used in some places if clogging becomes excessive or a person becomes pinned to the rack.

Alternately, debris for culvert openings can be caught upstream from the opening by using pipes placed in the ground or a chain safety net (USBR, 1978; UDFCD, 1999). Racks can be hinged on top to allow for easy opening and cleaning.

The control for the outlet should not shift to the grate, nor should the grate cause the headwater to rise above planned levels. Therefore head losses through the grate should be calculated. A number of empirical loss equations exist though many have difficult to estimate variables. Two will be given to allow for comparison.

Metcalf & Eddy (1972) give the following equation (based on German experiments) for losses. Grate openings should be calculated assuming a certain percentage blockage as a worst case to determine losses and upstream head. Often 40 to 50% is chosen as a working assumption.

$$H_g = K_{g1} (w/x)^{4/3} (V_u^2/2g) \sin \theta_g \quad (4.6.12)$$

Where:

H_g	=	head loss through grate (ft)
K_{g1}	=	bar shape factor:
		2.42 - sharp edged rectangular
		1.83 - rectangular bars with semicircular upstream faces
		1.79 - circular bars
		1.67 - rectangular bars with semicircular up- and downstream faces
w	=	maximum cross-sectional bar width facing the flow (in)
x	=	minimum clear spacing between bars (in)
V_u	=	approach velocity (ft/s)
g	=	acceleration due to gravity (32.2 ft/s ²)
θ_g	=	angle of the grate with respect to the horizontal (degrees)

The Corps of Engineers (HDC, 1988) has developed curves for trash racks based on similar and additional tests. These curves are for vertical racks but presumably they can be adjusted, in a manner similar to the previous equation, through multiplication by the sine of the angle of the grate with respect to the horizontal.

$$H_g = \frac{K_{g2} V_u^2}{2g} \quad (4.6.13)$$

Where:

K_{g2} is defined from a series of fit curves as:

- sharp edged rectangular (length/thickness = 10)

$$K_{g2} = 0.00158 - 0.03217 A_r + 7.1786 A_r^2$$
- sharp edged rectangular (length/thickness = 5)

$$K_{g2} = -0.00731 + 0.69453 A_r + 7.0856 A_r^2$$
- round edged rectangular (length/thickness = 10.9)

$$K_{g2} = -0.00101 + 0.02520 A_r + 6.0000 A_r^2$$
- circular cross section

$$K_{g2} = 0.00866 + 0.13589 A_r + 6.0357 A_r^2$$

and A_r is the ratio of the area of the bars to the area of the grate section.

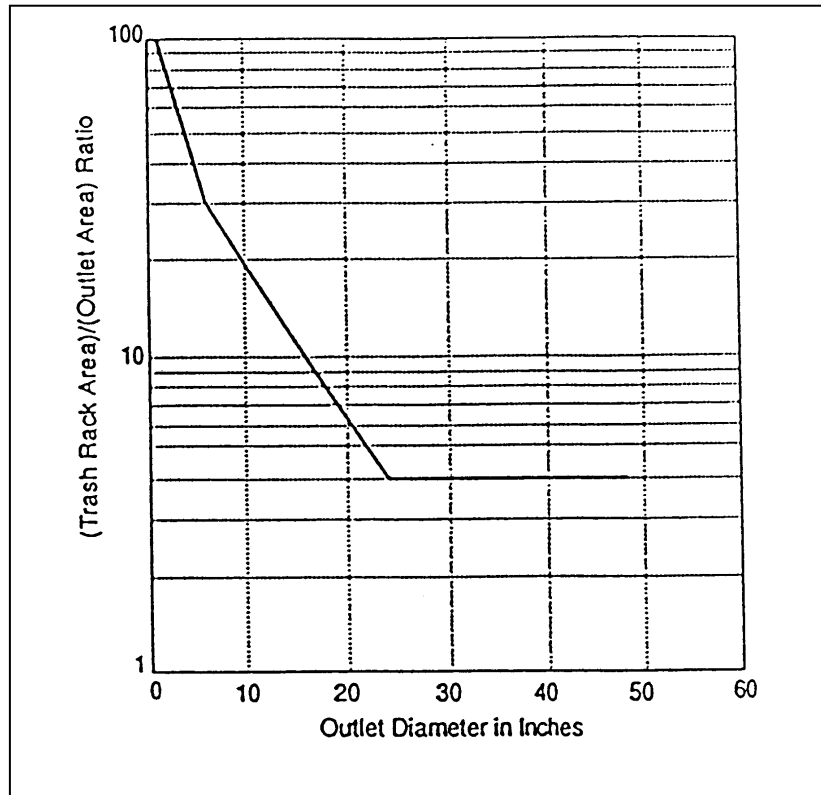


Figure 4.6-14 Minimum Rack Size vs. Outlet Diameter
(Source: UDCFD, 1992)

4.6.5 – Secondary Outlets

4.6.5.1 Introduction

The purpose of a secondary outlet (emergency spillway) is to provide a controlled overflow for flows in excess of the maximum design storm for a storage facility. Figure 4.6-19 shows an example of an emergency spillway.

In many cases, on-site stormwater storage facilities do not warrant elaborate studies to determine spillway capacity. While the risk of damage due to failure is a real one, it normally does not approach the catastrophic risk involved in the overtopping or breaching of a major reservoir. By contrast, regional facilities with homes immediately downstream could pose a significant hazard if failure were to occur, in which case emergency spillway considerations are a major design factor.

4.6.5.2 Emergency Spillway Design

Emergency spillway designs are open channels, usually trapezoidal in cross section, and consist of an inlet channel, a control section, and an exit channel (see Figure 4.6-19). The emergency spillway is proportioned to pass flows in excess of the design flood (typically the 100-year flood or greater) without allowing excessive velocities and without overtopping of the embankment. Flow in the emergency spillway is open channel flow (see Section 4.4, *Open Channel Design*, for more information). Normally, it is assumed that critical depth occurs at the control section.

NRCS (SCS) manuals provide guidance for the selection of emergency spillway characteristics for different soil conditions and different types of vegetation. The selection of degree of retardance for a given spillway depends on the vegetation. Knowing the retardance factor and the estimated discharge rate, the emergency spillway bottom width can be determined. For erosion protection during the first year, assume minimum retardance. Both the inlet and exit channels should have a straight alignment and grade. Spillway side slopes should be no steeper than 3:1 horizontal to vertical.

The most common type of emergency spillway used is a broad-crested overflow weir cut through original ground next to the embankment. The transverse cross section of the weir cut is typically trapezoidal in shape for ease of construction. Such an excavated emergency spillway is illustrated below.

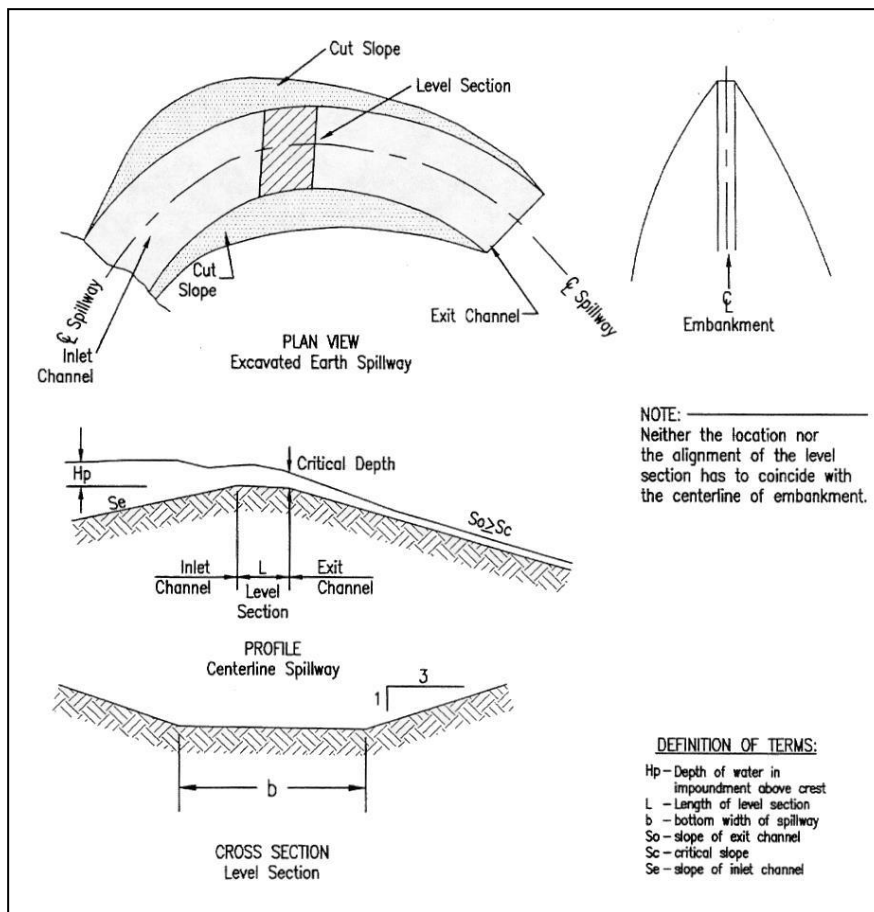


Figure 4.6-15 Emergency Spillway

Section 4.7 – Energy Dissipation

4.7.1 – Overview

4.7.1.1 Introduction

The outlets of pipes and lined channels are points of critical erosion potential. Stormwater transported through man-made conveyance systems at design capacity generally reaches a velocity that exceeds the capacity of the receiving channel or area to resist erosion. To prevent scour at stormwater outlets, protect the outlet structure and minimize the potential for downstream erosion, a flow transition structure is needed to absorb the initial impact of flow and reduce the speed of the flow to a non-erosive velocity.

Energy dissipators are engineered devices such as rip-rap aprons or concrete baffles placed at the outlet of stormwater conveyances for the purpose of reducing the velocity, energy and turbulence of the discharged flow.

4.7.1.2 General Criteria

Erosion problems at culvert, pipe and engineered channel outlets are common. Determination of the flow conditions, scour potential, and channel erosion resistance shall be standard procedure for all designs.

Energy dissipators shall be employed whenever the velocity of flows leaving a stormwater management facility exceeds the erosion velocity of the downstream area channel system.

Energy dissipator designs will vary based on discharge specifics and tailwater conditions.

Outlet structures should provide uniform redistribution or spreading of the flow without excessive separation and turbulence.

4.7.1.3 Recommended Energy Dissipators

For many designs, the following outlet protection devices and energy dissipators provide sufficient protection at a reasonable cost:

- Riprap apron
- Riprap outlet basins
- Baffled outlets
- Grade Control Structures

This section focuses on the design on these measures. The reader is referred to the Federal Highway Administration Hydraulic Engineering Circular No. 14 entitled, Hydraulic Design of

Energy Dissipators for Culverts and Channels, for the design procedures of other energy dissipators.

Channel Transitions, Energy Dissipation Structures, or Small Dams

A backwater analysis is required by the City of Texarkana, using HEC-RAS, to determine accurate tailwater elevation and velocities, headlosses, headwater elevations, velocities and floodplains affected by the proposed transition into and out of 1) An improved channel, 2) Any on-stream energy dissipating structures, and 3) Small dams (less than 6 feet). If the current effective FEMA model for the stream is a HEC-2 model, the engineer has the option to either use that model, or convert to HEC-RAS for analysis of proposed conditions. For larger dams, a hydrologic routing will be required, as well as hydraulic analysis, to determine impacts of the proposed structure on existing floodplains and adjacent properties.

Exceptions may be granted for small outfall channels (with the approval of Director of Public Works) with drainage areas of 10 acres or less and no nearby downstream restrictions.

Examples of Open Channel Transition Structures

Details and Specifications and application guidance for Harris County Flood Control District Straight Drop Structure and Bureau of Reclamation Baffled Chute (Basin IX) can be found in Harris County Flood Control District Policy Criteria & Procedure Manual (See references section for description). A computer program associated with FHWA Hydraulic Engineering Circular No. 14 is "HY8Energy" dated May 2000. This program provides guidance in the selection and sizing of a broad range of energy dissipaters including some of those listed in Section 4.7.

4.7.2 Symbols and Definitions

To provide consistency within this section as well as throughout this Manual, the symbols listed in Table 4.7-1 will be used. These symbols were selected because of their wide use. In some cases, the same symbol is used in existing publications for more than one definition. Where this occurs in this section, the symbol will be defined where it occurs in the text or equations.

Table 4.7-1 Symbols and Definitions		
Symbol	Definition	Units
A	Cross-sectional area	ft ²
D	Height of box culvert	ft
d ₅₀	Size of riprap	ft
d _w	Culvert width	ft
Fr	Froude Number	-
g	Acceleration of gravity	ft/s ²
h _s	Depth of dissipator pool	ft
L	Length	ft
L _a	Riprap apron length	ft
L _B	Overall length of basin	ft
L _s	Length of dissipator pool	ft
PI	Plasticity index	-
Q	Rate of discharge	cfs
S _v	Saturated shear strength	lbs/in ²
t	Time of scour	min.
t _c	Critical tractive shear stress	lbs/in ²
TW	Tailwater depth	ft
V _L	Velocity L feet from brink	ft/s
V _o	Normal velocity at brink	ft/s
V _o	Outlet mean velocity	ft/s
V _s	Volume of dissipator pool	ft ²
W _o	Diameter or width of culvert	ft
W _s	Width of dissipator pool	ft
y _e	Hydraulic depth at brink	ft
y _o	Normal flow depth at brink	ft

4.7.3 Design Guidelines

If outlet protection is required, choose an appropriate type. Suggested outlet protection facilities and applicable flow conditions (based on Froude number and dissipation velocity) are described below:

- a. Riprap aprons may be used when the outlet Froude number (Fr) is less than or equal to 2.5. In general, riprap aprons prove economical for transitions from culverts to overland sheet flow at terminal outlets, but may also be used for transitions from culvert sections to stable channel sections. Stability of the surface at the termination of the apron should be considered.

- b. Riprap outlet basins may also be used when the outlet Fr is less than or equal to 2.5. They are generally used for transitions from culverts to stable channels. Since riprap outlet basins function by creating a hydraulic jump to dissipate energy, performance is impacted by tailwater conditions.

- c. Baffled outlets have been used with outlet velocities up to 50 feet per second. Practical application typically requires an outlet Fr between 1 and 9. Baffled outlets may be used at both terminal outlet and channel outlet transitions. They function by dissipating energy through impact and turbulence and are not significantly affected by tailwater conditions.

When outlet protection facilities are selected, appropriate design flow conditions and site-specific factors affecting erosion and scour potential, construction cost, and long-term durability should be considered.

If outlet protection is not provided, energy dissipation will occur through formation of a local scourhole. A cutoff wall will be needed at the discharge outlet to prevent structural undermining. The wall depth should be slightly greater than the computed scourhole depth, h_s . The scourhole should then be stabilized. If the scourhole is of such size that it will present maintenance, safety, or aesthetic problems, other outlet protection will be needed.

Evaluate the downstream channel stability and provide appropriate erosion protection if channel degradation is expected to occur. Figure 4.7-1 provides the riprap size recommended for use downstream of energy dissipators.

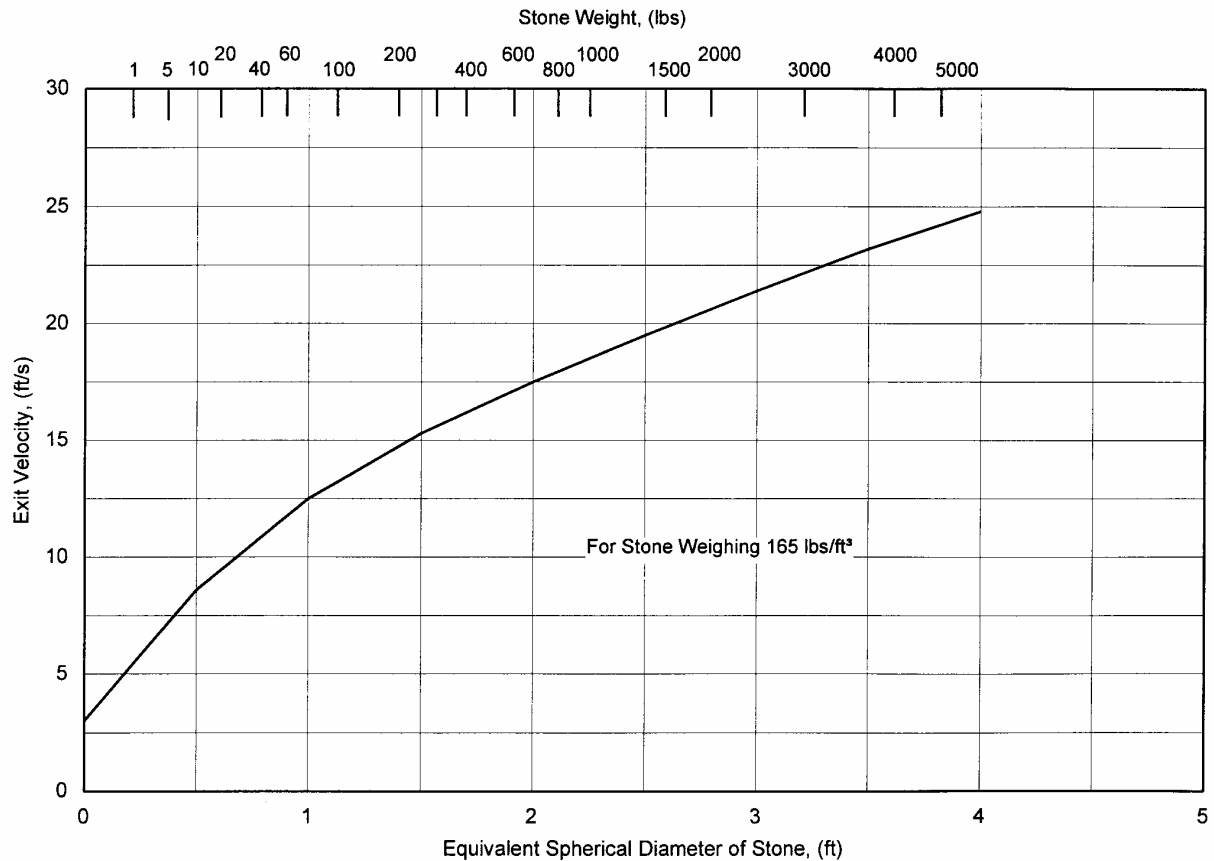


Figure 4.7-1 Riprap Size for Use Downstream of Energy Dissipator
(Source: Searcy, 1967)

4.7.4 – Riprap Aprons

4.7.4.1 Description

A riprap-lined apron is a commonly used practice for energy dissipation because of its relatively low cost and ease of installation. A flat riprap apron can be used to prevent erosion at the transition from a pipe or box culvert outlet to a natural channel. Protection is provided primarily by having sufficient length and flare to dissipate energy by expanding the flow. Riprap aprons are appropriate when the culvert outlet Fr is less than or equal to 2.5. See Section 4.4.8.4 for design procedures for this type of structure.

4.7.5 – Riprap Basins

4.7.5.1 Description

Another method to reduce the exit velocities from stormwater outlets is through the use of a riprap basin. A riprap outlet basin is a preshaped scourhole lined with riprap that functions as an energy dissipator by forming a hydraulic jump.

4.7.5.2 Basin Features

General details of the basin recommended in this section are shown in Figure 4.7-5. Principal features of the basin are:

The basin is preshaped and lined with riprap of median size (d_{50}).

The floor of the riprap basin is constructed at an elevation of h_s below the culvert invert. The dimension h_s is the approximate depth of scour that would occur in a thick pad of riprap of size d_{50} if subjected to design discharge. The ratio of h_s to d_{50} of the material should be between 2 and 4.

The length of the energy dissipating pool is $10 \times h_s$ or $3 \times W_o$, whichever is larger. The overall length of the basin is $15 \times h_s$ or $4 \times W_o$, whichever is larger.

4.7.5.3 Design Procedure

The following procedure should be used for the design of riprap basins.

Estimate the flow properties at the brink (outlet) of the culvert. Establish the outlet invert elevation such that $TW/y_o \leq 0.75$ for the design discharge.

For subcritical flow conditions (culvert set on mild or horizontal slope) use Figure 4.7-6 or Figure 4.7-7 to obtain y_o/D , then obtain V_o by dividing Q by the wetted area associated with y_o . D is the height of a box culvert. If the culvert is on a steep slope, V_o will be the normal velocity obtained by using the Manning equation for appropriate slope, section, and discharge.

For streambank protection, compute the Froude number for brink conditions with $y_e = (A/2)^{1.5}$. Select d_{50}/y_e appropriate for locally available riprap (usually the most satisfactory results will be obtained if $0.25 < d_{50}/y_e < 0.45$). Obtain h_s/y_e from Figure 4.7-8, and check to see that $2 < h_s/d_{50} < 4$. Recycle computations if h_s/d_{50} falls out of this range.

Size basin as shown in Figure 4.7-5.

Where allowable dissipator exit velocity is specified:

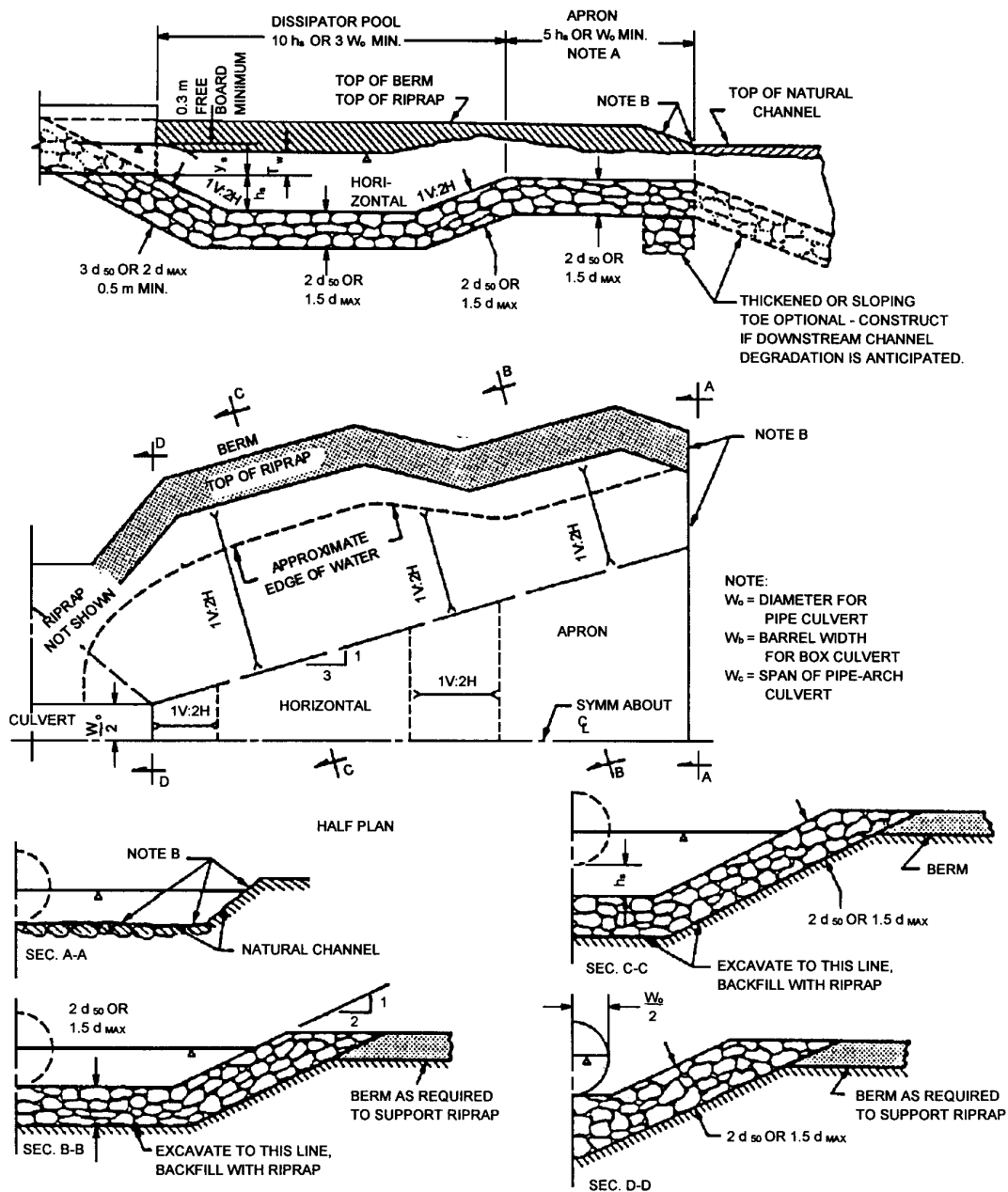
- a. Determine the average normal flow depth in the natural channel for the design discharge.
- b. Extend the length of the energy basin (if necessary) so the width of the energy basin at section A-A, Figure 4.7-5, times the average normal flow depth in the natural channel is approximately equal to the design discharge divided by the specified exit velocity.

In the exit region of the basin, the walls and apron of the basin should be warped (or transitioned) so the cross section of the basin at the exit conforms to the cross section of the natural channel. Abrupt transition of surfaces should be avoided to minimize separation zones and resultant eddies.

If high tailwater is a possibility and erosion protection is necessary for the downstream channel, the following design procedure is suggested:

- Design a conventional basin for low tailwater conditions in accordance with the instructions above.
- Estimate centerline velocity at a series of downstream cross sections using the information shown in Figure 4.7-9.
- Shape downstream channel and size riprap using Figure 4.7-1 and the stream velocities obtained above.

Material, construction techniques, and design details for riprap should be in accordance with specifications in the Federal Highway publication HEC No. 11 entitled Use of Riprap For Bank Protection.



NOTE A - IF EXIT VELOCITY OF BASIN IS SPECIFIED, EXTEND BASIN AS REQUIRED TO OBTAIN SUFFICIENT CROSS-SECTIONAL AREA AT SECTION A-A SUCH THAT $Q/(\text{CROSS SECTION AREA AT SEC. A-A}) = \text{SPECIFIED EXIT VELOCITY}$.

NOTE B - WARP BASIN TO CONFORM TO NATURAL STREAM CHANNEL. TOP OF RIPRAP IN FLOOR OF BASIN SHOULD BE AT THE SAME ELEVATION OR LOWER THAN NATURAL CHANNEL BOTTOM AT SEC. A-A.

Figure 4.7-2 Details of Riprap Outlet Basin
(Source: HEC-14, 1983)

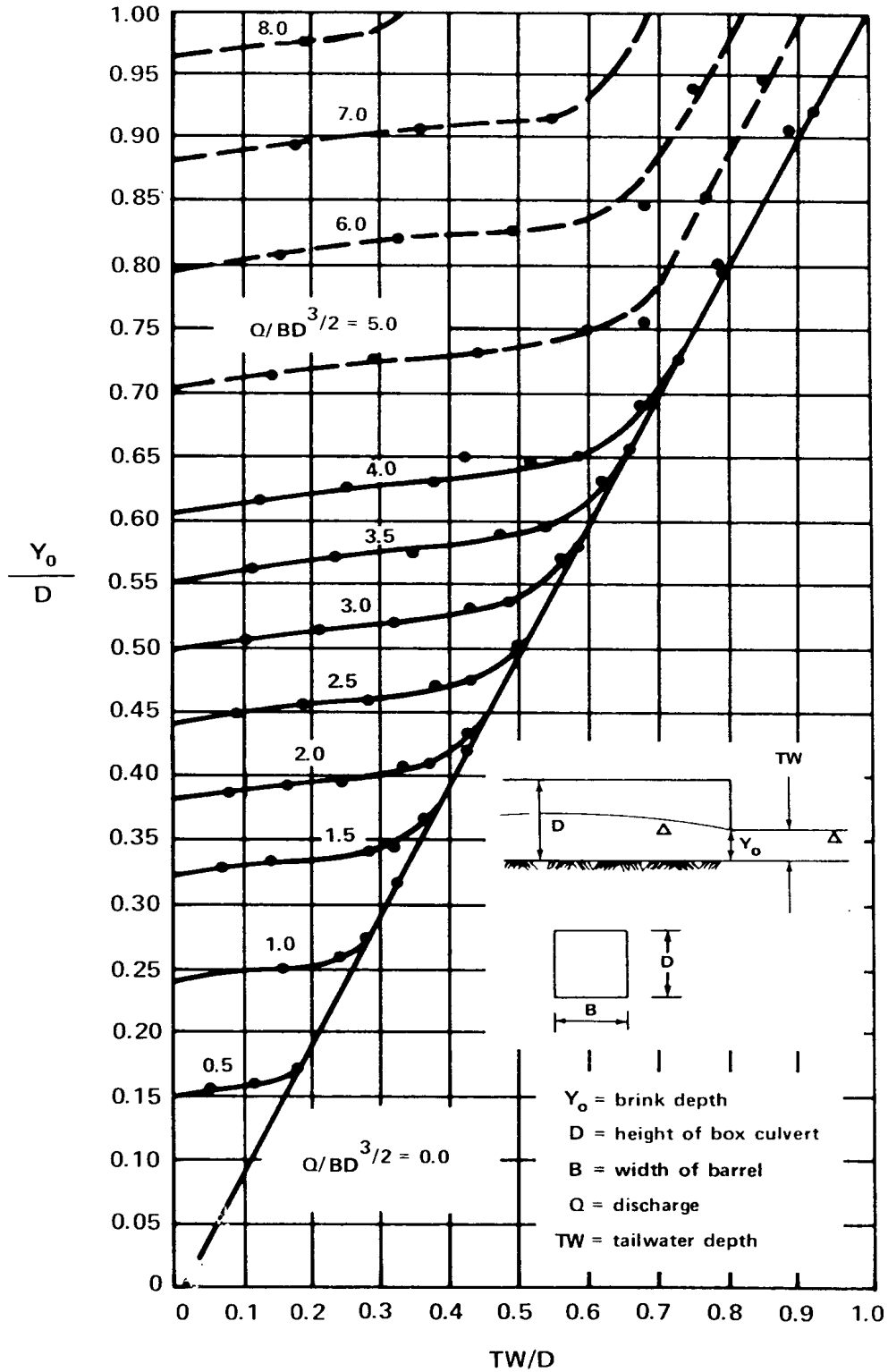


Figure 4.7-3 Dimensionless Rating Curves for the Outlets of Rectangular Culverts on Horizontal and Mild Slopes
(Source: USDOT, FHWA, HEC-14, 1983)

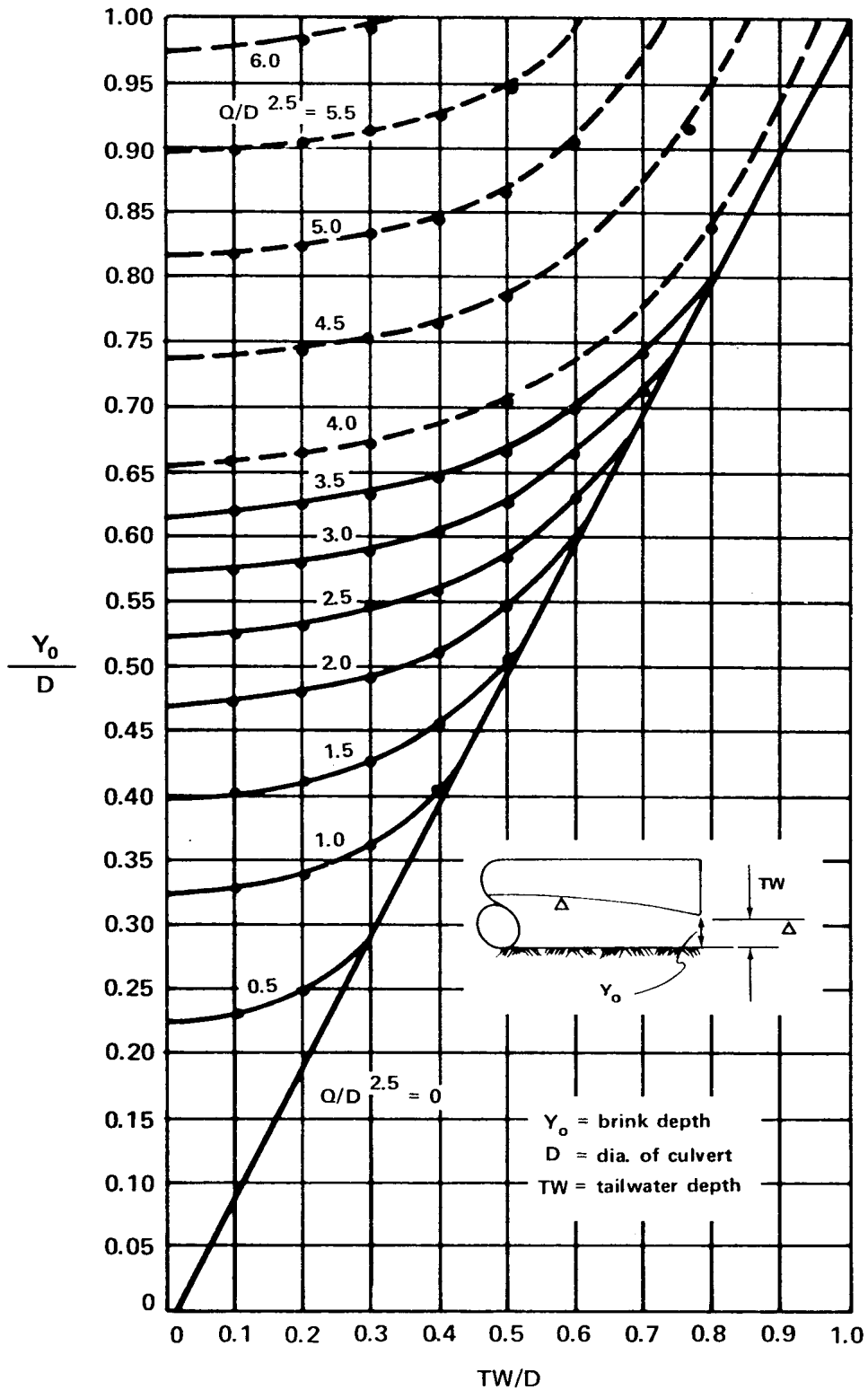


Figure 4.7-4 Dimensionless Rating Curves for the Outlets of Circular Culverts on Horizontal and Mild Slopes
 (Source: USDOT, FHWA, HEC-14, 1983)

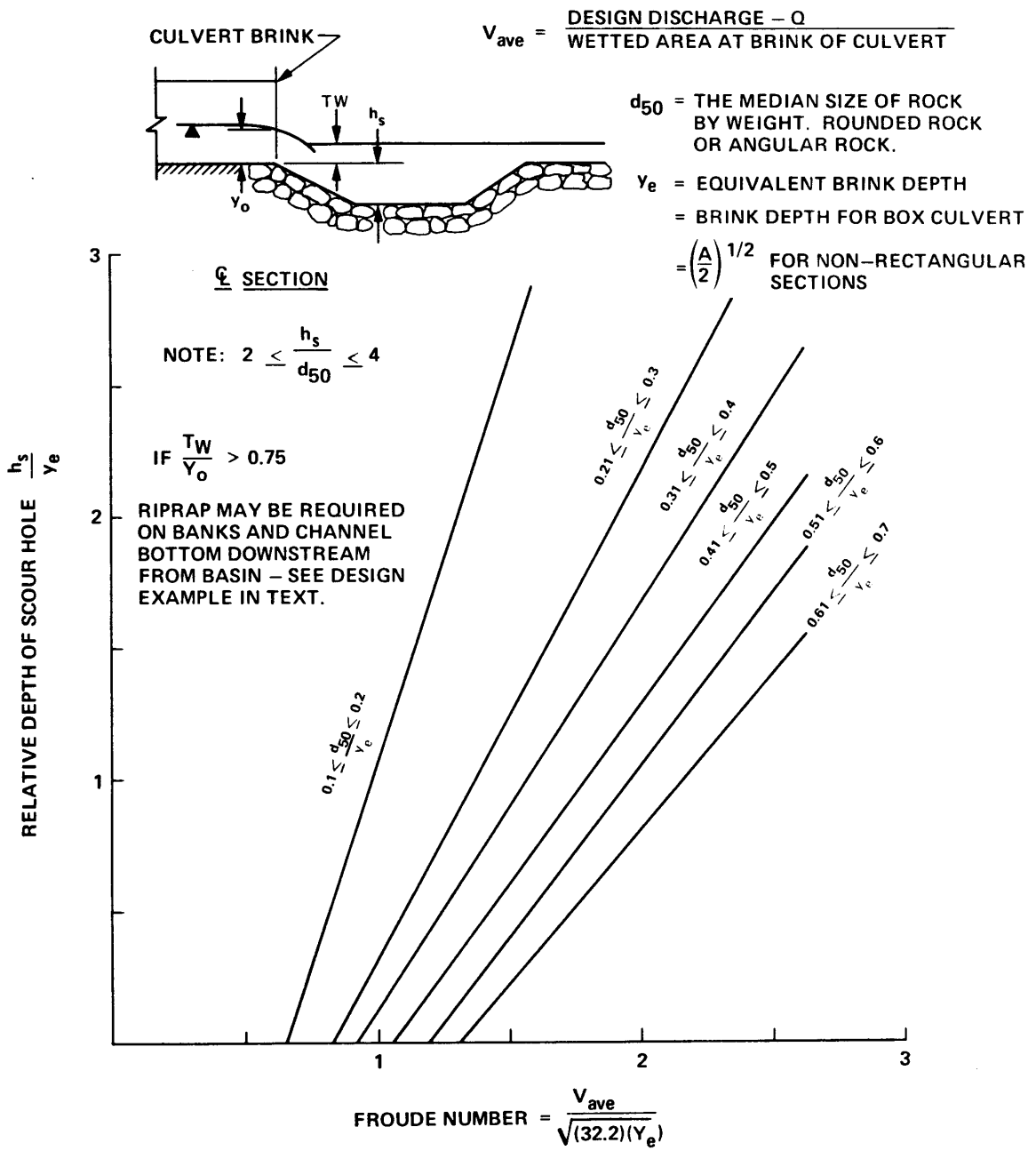


Figure 4.7-5 Relative Depth of Scour Hole Versus Froude Number at Brink of Culvert with Relative Size of Riprap as a Third Variable
(Source: USDOT, FHWA, HEC-14, 1983)

4.7.5.4 Design Considerations

Riprap basin design should include consideration of the following:

The dimensions of a scourhole in a basin constructed with angular rock can be approximately the same as the dimensions of a scourhole in a basin constructed of rounded material when rock size and other variables are similar.

When the ratio of tailwater depth to brink depth, TW/y_o , is less than 0.75 and the ratio of scour depth to size of riprap, h_s/d_{50} , is greater than 2.0, the scourhole should function very efficiently as an energy dissipator. The concentrated flow at the culvert brink plunges into the hole, a jump forms against the downstream extremity of the scourhole, and flow is generally well dispersed leaving the basin.

The mound of material formed on the bed downstream of the scourhole contributes to the dissipation of energy and reduces the size of the scourhole; that is, if the mound from a stable scoured basin is removed and the basin is again subjected to design flow, the scourhole will enlarge.

For high tailwater basins (TW/y_o greater than 0.75), the high velocity core of water emerging from the culvert retains its jet-like character as it passes through the basin and diffuses similarly to a concentrated jet diffusing in a large body of water. As a result, the scourhole is much shallower and generally longer. Consequently, riprap may be required for the channel downstream of the rock-lined basin.

It should be recognized that there is a potential for limited degradation to the floor of the dissipator pool for rare event discharges. With the protection afforded by the $2(d_{50})$ thickness of riprap, the heavy layer of riprap adjacent to the roadway prism, and the apron riprap in the downstream portion of the basin, such damage should be superficial.

See Section 4.4.8 or FHWA HEC No. 11 for details on riprap materials and use of filter fabric.

Stability of the surface at the outlet of a basin should be considered using the methods for open channel flow as outlined in Section 4.4, *Open Channel Design*.

4.7.5.5 Example Designs

Following are some example problems to illustrate the design procedures outlined.

Example 1

Given: Box culvert - 8 ft by 6 ft Design Discharge $Q = 800$ cfs

Supercritical flow in culvert Normal flow depth = brink depth

$Y_o = 4$ ft Tailwater depth $TW = 2.8$ ft

Find: Riprap basin dimensions for these conditions

Solution: Definition of terms in Steps 1 through 5 can be found in Figures 4.7-5 and 4.7-8.

$y_o = y_e$ for rectangular section; therefore, with y_o given as 4 ft, $y_e = 4$ ft.

$$V_o = Q/A = 800/(4 \times 8) = 25 \text{ ft/s}$$

$$\text{Froude Number} = Fr = V/(g \times y_e)^{0.5} \quad (g = 32.2 \text{ ft/s}^2)$$

$$Fr = 25/(32.2 \times 4)^{0.5} = 2.20 < 2.5 \text{ O.K.}$$

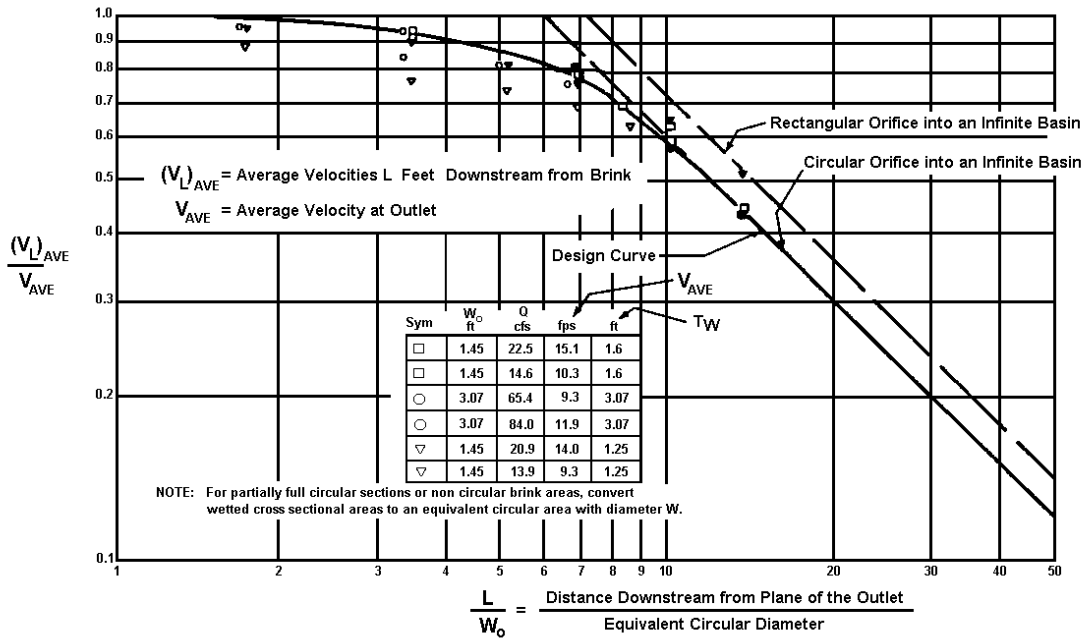


Figure 4.7-6 Distribution of Centerline Velocity for Flow from Submerged Outlets to Be Used for Predicting Channel Velocities Downstream from Culvert Outlet Where High Tailwater Prevails
(Source: USDOT, FHWA, HEC-14, 1983)

$$TW/y_e = 2.8/4.0 = 0.7 \quad \text{Therefore, } TW/y_e < 0.75 \text{ OK}$$

$$\text{Try } d_{50}/y_e = 0.45, \quad d_{50} = 0.45 \times 4 = 1.80 \text{ ft}$$

$$\text{From Figure 4.7-8, } h_s/y_e = 1.6, \quad h_s = 4 \times 1.6 = 6.4 \text{ ft}$$

$$h_s/d_{50} = 6.4/1.8 = 3.6 \text{ ft}, \quad 2 < h_s/d_{50} < 4 \text{ OK}$$

$$L_s = 10 \times h_s = 10 \times 6.4 = 64 \text{ ft} \quad (L_s = \text{length of energy dissipator pool})$$

$L_s \text{ min} = 3 \times W_o = 3 \times 8 = 24 \text{ ft}$; therefore, use $L_s = 64 \text{ ft}$

$L_B = 15 \times h_s = 15 \times 6.4 = 96 \text{ ft}$ (L_B = overall length of riprap basin)

$L_B \text{ min} = 4 \times W_o = 4 \times 8 = 32 \text{ ft}$; therefore, use $L_B = 96 \text{ ft}$

Thickness of riprap: On the approach = $3 \times d_{50} = 3 \times 1.8 = 5.4 \text{ ft}$

Remainder = $2 \times d_{50} = 2 \times 1.8 = 3.6 \text{ ft}$

Other basin dimensions designed according to details shown in Figure 4.7-5.

Example 2

Given: Same design data as Example 1 except:

Tailwater depth $TW = 4.2 \text{ ft}$

Downstream channel can tolerate only 7 ft/s discharge

Find: Riprap basin dimensions for these conditions

Solutions: Note -- High tailwater depth, $TW/y_o = 4.2/4 = 1.05 > 0.75$

From Example 1: $d_{50} = 1.8 \text{ ft}$, $h_s = 6.4 \text{ ft}$, $L_s = 64 \text{ ft}$, $L_B = 96 \text{ ft}$.

Design riprap for downstream channel. Use Figure 4.7-9 for estimating average velocity along the channel. Compute equivalent circular diameter D_e for brink area from:

$$A = 3.14D_e^2/4 = y_o \times W_o = 4 \times 8 = 32 \text{ ft}^2$$

$$D_e = ((32 \times 4)/3.14)^{0.5} = 6.4 \text{ ft}$$

$$V_o = 25 \text{ ft/s (From Example 1)}$$

Set up the following table:

L/D_e	$L \text{ (ft)}$	V_L/V_o	$v_1 \text{ (ft/s)}$	Rock Size $d_{50} \text{ (ft)}$
(Assume)	(Compute)	(Fig. 4.7-9)	(Fig. 4.7-1)	$D_e = W_o$
10	64	0.59	14.7	1.4
15*	96	0.37	9.0	0.6
20	128	0.30	7.5	0.4
21	135	0.28	7.0	0.4

* L/W_o is on a logarithmic scale so interpolations must be done logarithmically.

Riprap should be at least the size shown but can be larger. As a practical consideration, the channel can be lined with the same size rock used for the basin. Protection must extend at least 135 ft downstream from the culvert brink. Channel should be shaped and riprap should be installed in accordance with details shown in the HEC No. 11 publication.

Example 3

Given: 6-ft diameter CMC

Design discharge $Q = 135$ cfs

Slope channel $S_o = 0.004$

Manning's $n = 0.024$

Normal depth in pipe for $Q = 135$ cfs is 4.5 ft

Normal velocity is 5.9 ft/s

Flow is subcritical

Tailwater depth $TW = 2.0$ ft

Find: Riprap basin dimensions for these conditions.

Solution:

Determine y_o and V_o

$$Q/D^{2.5} = 135/6^{2.5} = 1.53$$

$$TW/D = 2.0/6 = 0.33$$

From Figure 4.7-7, $y_o/D = 0.45$

$$y_o = .45 \times 6 = 2.7 \text{ ft}$$

$$TW/y_o = 2.0/2.7 = 0.74 \quad TW/y_o < 0.75 \text{ O.K.}$$

Determine Brink Area (A) for $y_o/D = 0.45$

From Uniform Flow in Circular Sections Table (from Section 4.3)

For $y_o/D = d/D = 0.45$

$$A/D^2 = 0.3428; \text{ therefore, } A = 0.3428 \times 6^2 = 12.3 \text{ ft}^2$$

$$V_o = Q/A = 135/12.3 = 11.0 \text{ ft/s}$$

For Froude number calculations at brink conditions,

$$y_e = (A/2)^{1/2} = (12.3/2)^{1/2} = 2.48 \text{ ft}$$

$$\text{Froude number} = Fr = V_o/(32.2 \times y_e)^{1/2} = 11/(32.2 \times 2.48)^{1/2} = 1.23 < 2.5 \quad \text{OK}$$

For most satisfactory results, $0.25 < d_{50}/y_e < 0.45$

Try $d_{50}/y_e = 0.25$

$$d_{50} = 0.25 \times 2.48 = 0.62 \text{ ft}$$

From Figure 4.7-8, $h_s/y_e = 0.7$; therefore, $h_s = 0.7 \times 2.48 = 1.74 \text{ ft}$

Uniform Flow in Circular Sections Flowing Partly Full (From Section 4.3)

Check: $h_s/d_{50} = 1.74/0.62 = 2.8$, $2 < h_s/d_{50} < 4$ OK

$$L_s = 10 \times h_s = 10 \times 1.74 = 17.4 \text{ ft or } L_s = 3 \times W_o = 3 \times 6 = 18 \text{ ft;}$$

therefore, use $L_s = 17.4 \text{ ft}$

$$L_B = 15 \times h_s = 15 \times 1.74 = 26.1 \text{ ft or } L_B = 4 \times W_o = 4 \times 6 = 24 \text{ ft;}$$

therefore, use $L_B = 26.1 \text{ ft}$

$$d_{50} = 0.62 \text{ ft or use } d_{50} = 8 \text{ in}$$

Other basin dimensions should be designed in accordance with details shown on Figure 4.7-5. Figure 4.7-10 is provided as a convenient form to organize and present the results of riprap basin designs.

Note: When using the design procedure outlined in this section, it is recognized that there is some chance of limited degradation of the floor of the dissipator pool for rare event discharges. With the protection afforded by the $3 \times d_{50}$ thickness of riprap on the approach and the $2 \times d_{50}$ thickness of riprap on the basin floor and the apron in the downstream portion of the basin, the damage should be superficial.

RIPRAP BASIN			
Project No. _____		Date _____	
Designer _____		Date _____	
Reviewer _____		Date _____	

CULVERT BRINK

DESIGN VALUES	TRIAL 1	FINAL TRIAL																			
Equi. Depth, d_E			<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <thead> <tr> <th style="width: 50%;">BASIN DIMENSIONS</th> <th style="width: 50%;">FEET</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Pool length is the larger of:</td> <td> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;">10h_s</td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td>3W_o</td> <td></td> </tr> </table> </td> </tr> <tr> <td>Basin length is the larger of:</td> <td> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;">15h_s</td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td>4W_o</td> <td></td> </tr> </table> </td> </tr> <tr> <td>Approach Thickness</td> <td>3D_{50}</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Basin Thickness</td> <td>2D_{50}</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	BASIN DIMENSIONS	FEET	Pool length is the larger of:	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;">10h_s</td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td>3W_o</td> <td></td> </tr> </table>	10 h_s		3 W_o		Basin length is the larger of:	<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;">15h_s</td> <td style="width: 50%;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td>4W_o</td> <td></td> </tr> </table>	15 h_s		4 W_o		Approach Thickness	3 D_{50}	Basin Thickness	2 D_{50}
BASIN DIMENSIONS	FEET																				
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D_{50}																					
Froude No., Fr																					
h_s/d_E																					
h_s																					
h_s/D_{50}																					
$2 < h_s/D_{50} < 4$																					

TAILWATER CHECK	
Tailwater, TW	
Equivalent depth, d_E	
TW/d_E	
IF $TW/d_E > 0.75$, calculate riprap downstream	
$D_R = (4A_s/\pi)^{0.5}$	

DOWNSTREAM RIPRAP				
L/D _E	L	V _L /V _o	V _L	D ₅₀

Figure 4.7-7 Riprap Basin Design Form
(Source: USDOT, FHWA, HEC-14, 1983)

4.7.6 Baffled Outlets

4.7.6.1 Description

The baffled outlet (also known as the Impact Basin - USBR Type VI) is a boxlike structure with a vertical hanging baffle and an end sill, as shown in Figure 4.7-11. Energy is dissipated primarily through the impact of the water striking the baffle and, to a lesser extent, through the resulting turbulence. This type of outlet protection has been used with outlet velocities up to 50 feet per second and with Froude numbers from 1 to 9. Tailwater depth is not required for adequate energy dissipation, but a tailwater will help smooth the outlet flow.

4.7.6.2 Design Procedure

The following design procedure is based on physical modeling studies summarized from the U.S. Department of Interior (1978). The dimensions of a baffled outlet as shown in Figure 4.7-11 should be calculated as follows:

Determine input parameters, including:

h = Energy head to be dissipated, in ft (can be approximated as the difference between channel invert elevations at the inlet and outlet)

Q = Design discharge (cfs)

v = Theoretical velocity (ft/s = $2gh$)

A = Q/v = Flow area (ft²)

d = $A^{0.5}$ = Representative flow depth entering the basin (ft) *assumes square jet*

Fr = $v/(gd)^{0.5}$ = Froude number, dimensionless

Calculate the minimum basin width, W , in ft, using the following equation.

$$W/d = 2.88Fr^{0.566} \text{ or } W = 2.88dFr^{0.566} \quad (4.7.2)$$

Where:

W = minimum basin width (ft)

d = depth of incoming flow (ft)

Fr = $v/(gd)^{0.5}$ = Froude number, dimensionless

The limits of the W/d ratio are from 3 to 10, which corresponds to Froude numbers 1 and 9. If the basin is much wider than W , flow will pass under the baffle and energy dissipation will not be effective.

Calculate the other basin dimensions as shown in Figure 4.7-11, as a function of W . Construction drawings for selected widths are available from the U.S. Department of the Interior (1978).

Calculate required protection for the transition from the baffled outlet to the natural channel based on the outlet width. A riprap apron should be added of width W , length W (or a 5-foot minimum), and depth f ($W/6$). The side slopes should be 1.5:1, and median rock diameter should be at least $W/20$.

Calculate the baffled outlet invert elevation based on expected tailwater. The maximum distance between expected tailwater elevation and the invert should be $b + f$ or some flow will go over the baffle with no energy dissipation. If the tailwater is known and fairly controlled, the baffled outlet invert should be a distance, $b/2 + f$, below the calculated tailwater elevation. If tailwater is uncontrolled, the baffled outlet invert should be a distance, f , below the downstream channel invert.

Calculate the outlet pipe diameter entering the basin assuming a velocity of 12 ft/s flowing full.

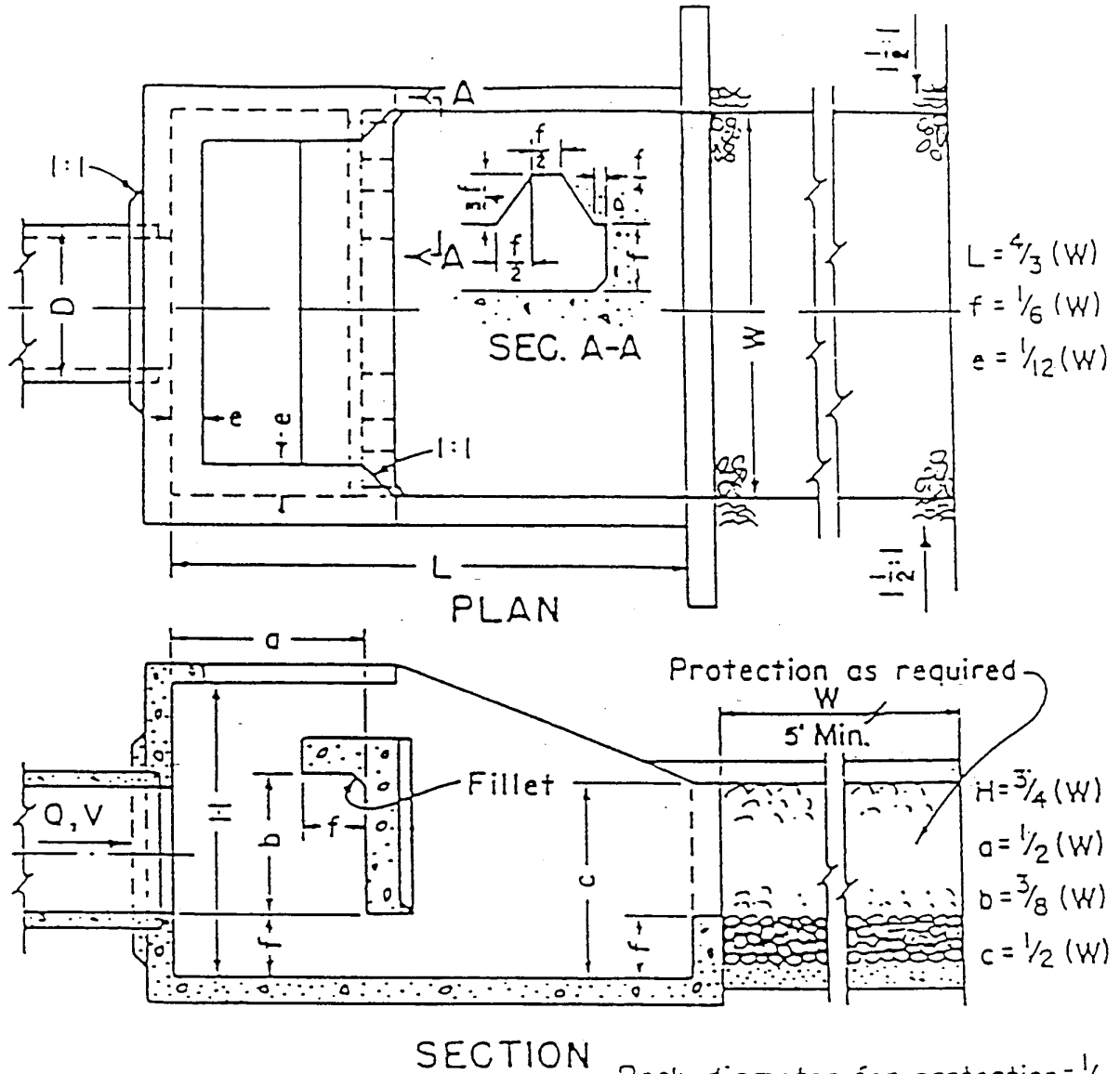


Figure 4.7-8 Schematic of Baffled Outlet
(Source: U.S. Dept. of the Interior, 1978)

If the entrance pipe slopes steeply downward, the outlet pipe should be turned horizontal for at least 3 ft before entering the baffled outlet.

If it is possible that both the upstream and downstream ends of the pipe will be submerged, provide an air vent approximately 1/6 the pipe diameter near the upstream end to prevent pressure fluctuations and possible surging flow conditions.

4.7.6.3 Example Design

A cross-drainage pipe structure has a design flow rate of 150 cfs, a head, h , of 15 ft from invert of pipe, and a tailwater depth, TW, of 3 ft above ground surface. Find the baffled outlet basin dimensions and inlet pipe requirements.

1. Compute the theoretical velocity from

$$v = (2gh)^{0.5} = [2(32.2 \text{ ft/sec}^2)(15 \text{ ft})]^{0.5} = 31.1 \text{ ft/s}$$

This is less than 50 ft/s, so a baffled outlet is suitable.

2. Determine the flow area using the theoretical velocity as follows:

$$A = Q/v = 150 \text{ cfs}/31.1 \text{ ft/sec} = 4.8 \text{ ft}^2$$

3. Compute the flow depth using the area from Step 2.

$$d = (A)^{0.5} = (4.8 \text{ ft}^2)^{0.5} = 2.12 \text{ ft}$$

4. Compute the Froude number using the results from Steps 1 and 3.

$$Fr = v/(gd)^{0.5} = 31.1 \text{ ft/sec}/[(32.2 \text{ ft/sec}^2)(2.12 \text{ ft})]^{0.5} = 3.8$$

5. Determine the basin width using equation 4.7.2 with the Froude number from Step 4.

$$W = 2.88 d Fr^{0.566} = 2.88 (2.12) (3.8)^{0.566} = 13.0 \text{ ft (minimum)}$$

Use 13 ft as the design width.

6. Compute the remaining basin dimensions (as shown in Figure 4.7-11):

$$L = 4/3 (W) = 17.3 \text{ ft, use } L = 17 \text{ ft, } 4 \text{ in}$$

$$f = 1/6 (W) = 2.17 \text{ ft, use } f = 2 \text{ ft, } 2 \text{ in}$$

$$e = 1/12 (W) = 1.08 \text{ ft, use } e = 1 \text{ ft, } 1 \text{ in}$$

$$H = 3/4 (W) = 9.75 \text{ ft, use } H = 9 \text{ ft, } 9 \text{ in}$$

$$a = 1/2 (W) = 6.5 \text{ ft, use } a = 6 \text{ ft, } 6 \text{ in}$$

$$b = 3/8 (W) = 4.88 \text{ ft, use } b = 4 \text{ ft, } 11 \text{ in}$$

$$c = 1/2 (W) = 6.5 \text{ ft, use } c = 6 \text{ ft, } 6 \text{ in}$$

Baffle opening dimensions would be calculated as shown in Figure 4.7-11.

7. Basin invert should be at $b/2 + f$ below tailwater, or

$$(4 \text{ ft}, 11 \text{ in})/2 + 2 \text{ ft}, 2 \text{ in} = 4.73 \text{ ft}$$

Use 4 ft 8 in; therefore, invert should be 2 ft, 8 in below ground surface.

8. The riprap transition from the baffled outlet to the natural channel should be 13 ft long by 13 ft wide by 2 ft, 2 in deep ($W \times W \times f$). Median rock diameter should be of diameter $W/20$, or about 8 in.

9. Inlet pipe diameter should be sized for an inlet velocity of about 12 ft/s.

$$(3.14d)^2/4 = Q/v; d = [(4Q)/3.14v]^{0.5} = [(4(150 \text{ cfs})/3.14(12 \text{ ft/sec}))^{0.5} = 3.99 \text{ ft}$$

Use 48-in pipe. If a vent is required, it should be about 1/6 of the pipe diameter or 8 in.

4.7.7 – Grade Control Structures

When channels are relocated through non-stable soils and stream gradients are increased, the stream bottom may degrade or dig itself deeper. This can cause bank instability, increased upstream scouring, and sloughing of natural slopes. The U.S. Soil Conservation Services (SCS) requires that streambed stability be maintained in any of its stream projects. This can be accomplished by grade stabilization structures; in essence a series of low-head weirs.

If designed and constructed with ecological values in mind, these structures can double as habitat enhancement devices. If improperly planned however, they can actually degrade habitat values. The most productive method of installing these structures is to use low weirs that pool water just a short distance (approximately 100 feet) upstream. A plunge pool will form just below the structures, and a riffle area should develop below this pool. The next structure should be located downstream a sufficient distance to avoid impounding the riffle area below the pool at the base of the upstream weir.

Specific construction requirements and techniques can be obtained from the SCS or other agencies upon request. The intent of this general discussion of grade stabilization structures is to promote consideration of such measures early in the planning process.

Source: US Army Corp of Engineers, Nashville District, *“Mitigating the Impacts of Stream Alterations”*.

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Appendix A

Worksheets and Checklists

Worksheets and Checklists

Stormwater Management Submittal Schedule

Submittal	Criteria for Submittal	Required?
Pre-Submittal Checklist	Optional checklist for Pre-Submittal Drainage Meeting or Infrastructure Meeting.	Optional
Flood Study	Submit with Preliminary or Final Plat, or with Preliminary or Final Plans. Will a creek, channel, flood prone area, or regulatory floodplain be impacted by the project?	Conditional
Stormwater Management Plan Checklist	Submit with Final Plat or Final Plans	Yes
Stormwater Storage Facility Checklist	Submit with Preliminary or Final Plat, or with Preliminary or Final Plans. Required if a retention or detention pond is proposed.	Conditional
Floodplain Development Permit	Is the regulatory floodplain impacted?	Conditional
Conditional Letter of Map Change	Will the base flood elevation increase, or will the land disturbance be within a regulatory floodway?	Conditional
U.S. Army Corps of Engineers Permit	Is there a regulated disturbance to the Waters of the U.S.?	Conditional
Letter of Map Revision	Submit Post Construction. Did the boundaries of the regulatory floodplain change or was a CLOMR prepared?	Conditional

Pre-Submittal Checklist

1. Existing Conditions Considerations	Response
A. History of flooding or excessive erosion downstream?	
B. Known downstream drainage concerns?	
C. FEMA 100-Year floodplains needing flood studies, CLOMRs, LOMRS, etc., for this project?	
D. Known or suspected wetlands areas, mitigation areas, 404 permit areas, or other natural habitat features?	
E. Existing dams over 6' in height which are or will be subject to TCEQ regulations?	
F. Existing impoundments subject to TCEQ water rights permitting?	
G. Existing environmental concerns requiring special treatment or design considerations (i.e. fuel stations, vehicle maintenance, auto recycling, illegal dump sites, landfills, etc.)?	
H. Known soil types from USDA soil survey or soil borings?	
I. Boundaries of predominant vegetation or tree cover?	
J. Location of steep slopes (> 15%)?	
K. Location of existing paved roads, buildings, and other impervious areas?	
L. Location of existing major utilities, pipelines, or easements?	
2. Planning Considerations (Low Impact Opportunities)	Response
A. Preserve floodplains and natural valley storage?	
B. Preserve natural streams and drainage patterns?	
C. Preserve steep slopes?	
D. Preserve trees and undisturbed natural vegetation?	
E. Preserve wetlands and other natural features?	
F. Drain runoff to pervious areas?	
G. Reduce pavement and other impervious covers?	

Stormwater Management Plan Checklist

Requirement	Submitted? (Y, N, N/A)	Reviewer Comments
Report		
1. Report clearly explains project location, topographic data sources, limits of study, and overall drainage area boundary		
2. Report identifies data sources and assumptions for drainage calculations.		
3. Verify acceptable model file is submitted; run model to verify report conclusions		
Site Map		
4. Disturbed area boundary and area listed on plan sheet in acres		
5. Property lines, streets and lanes		
6. Easements shown and labeled (drainage, private, etc.)		
7. Current effective FEMA floodplains		
8. Existing and proposed stormwater infrastructure and outfall locations		
9. Existing and proposed structures		
10. Existing and proposed grading		
Drainage Area Maps		
11. Drainage area maps for existing and proposed site conditions		
12. Existing and proposed contours clearly shown on drainage area map and extend beyond boundaries to show impacts to proposed site.		
13. Stream reaches are clearly identified		
14. Soils map		
15. Existing & proposed conditions land use maps with impervious areas hatched; impervious & pervious areas summarized in a table		
16. Drainage areas clearly identified time of concentration and curve numbers displayed, appropriate acreage shown		
17. Longest flow paths are defined		

Stormwater Management Plan Checklist (cont.)

Requirement	Submitted? (Y, N, N/A)	Reviewer Comments
<i>Runoff Calculations</i>		
18. Existing and Proposed conditions runoff rates using a City approved hydrograph method		
19. Run event simulations for the 2-, 10-, and 100-year, 24-hour storm events based on fully urbanized conditions		
20. Show calculations for weighted curve number and impervious area calculations. Make consistent with soils & land use layers shown on Drainage Area Maps		
<i>Inlet and Pipe Size Calculations</i>		
21. Storm drain pipes and inlets designed for the 10-year storm with 100-year overflow		
<i>Downstream Assessment</i>		
22. Detain to existing conditions for sites less than 20-acres, or prepare downstream assessment		
23. Show no adverse impacts for downstream conditions; no increase in water surface elevations greater than 0.1' unless contained within a drainage easement, channel, roadway, or right-of-way		
24. Post development channel velocities not increased by more than 5%		
25. Downstream assessment extends downstream to the effective limits as defined by the drainage manual		
26. No concentration of flows or change in drainage patterns that could result in flooding or erosion		

Stormwater Storage Facility Checklist

Requirement	Submitted? (Y, N, N/A)	Reviewer Comments
1. Detention pond geometry and control structure design data match proposed plans that are signed by a licensed professional engineer		
2. Analysis for the 2-, 10-, and 100-year storm events provided.		
3. Calculations for all rating curves are provided		
4. Control Structure(s) location clearly identified in plans with structural details provided. Includes elevations of orifices, risers, top of embankments, etc.		
5. Orifice/weir sizes and elevations match hydrologic model input and output		
6. Emergency spillway provided and designed to pass 100-year flow		
7. Discharge from spillway/overflow directly to downstream conveyance system or other acceptable outfall		
8. Design and maximum water surface shown in pond cross sections in plans. One foot of freeboard is provided in pond(s)		
9. Retain stormwater for at least 24 hours but not more than 48 hours		
10. Release velocities do not cause erosive conditions or outfall erosion protection and energy dissipation are provided		
11. Maintenance and inspection requirements for drainage easements and structures are listed on the final plat.		

Flood Study Checklist

Requirement	Submitted? (Y, N, N/A)	Reviewer Comments
Report		
1. Report clearly explains project location, topographic data sources, and changes from effective hydraulic model		
2. If effective hydrology is not used/available, report identifies data sources and assumptions for rainfall data, loss method, time of concentration calculations, channel routing, modeling software		
3. Report clearly explains any unusual cross section or structure geometry		
4. Tables are provided that demonstrate the water surface changes from duplicate effective, corrected effective, and proposed conditions		
5. Tables are provided that document changes in flow between existing site conditions and proposed site conditions		
6. Verify acceptable model file is submitted; run model to verify report conclusions		
Hydrology work maps and output		
7. Drainage area maps for existing and proposed site conditions		
8. Existing and Proposed contours are clearly shown on drainage area map and extend beyond boundaries to show impacts to proposed site		
9. Stream reaches are clearly identified		
10. Existing and Proposed conditions land use maps with impervious areas clearly hatched. Impervious and Pervious areas summarized in a table. Land use matches Design Criteria Manual land use designations.		
11. Drainage areas are clearly identified, time of concentration and curve numbers are displayed, and appropriate acreage is shown		
12. Longest Flow paths are defined		
13. Drainage area details match hydrology model input		
Hydraulic work maps and output		
14. Existing hydraulic work map included & contains all cross sections shown in model and fully urbanized conditions 100-year floodplains currently on site		
15. Proposed hydraulic work map is included and contains all cross sections shown in model and fully urbanized conditions 100-year floodplains proposed on site		

Flood Study Checklist (cont.)

Requirement	Submitted? (Y, N, N/A)	Reviewer Comments
16. Existing and Proposed Flood Profiles -Stationing consistent with effective models -Roadways shown with low chord, top of road, etc. 2-, 10-, 25-, 50-, 100-, 500-year existing and 100-year fully urbanized flood profiles shown		
17. Existing and Proposed Cross sections -Stationing consistent with effective models -Roadways shown with low chord, top of road, etc. -2-, 10-, 25-, 50-, 100-, 500-year existing and 100-year fully urbanized flood profiles shown		
18. Map showing erosion hazard setbacks, riparian areas, wetlands, jurisdictional waters of the U.S., existing and proposed floodway		
19. Label minimum finished floor elevations of affected structures		
20. Tables comparing duplicate effective, corrected effective, and proposed conditions water surface elevations		
<i>Model parameter check</i>		
21. Model Input/Output for hydraulic and hydrology models are included in report		
22. Downstream boundary condition set to normal depth		
23. Channel reach lengths match cross-section stationing		
24. Reach lengths through junctions are from downstream to upstream cross-section (not to actual junction itself)		
25. Contraction/Expansion coefficients are increased through modeled structures		
26. Water surface elevations are contained within the cross sections		
27. Water surface profiles for different storm events do not intersect or cross one another (i.e., 100-yr WSEL is not lower than 10-yr WSEL at any point in the model)		
28. If structures are overtopped, flow distribution does not suddenly change between the upstream and downstream cross sections		
29. Water surface profiles do not default to critical depth in consecutive cross sections		
30. Floodway encroachment stations are located outside channel banks		
31. CheckRAS results are provided (if applicable-FEMA effective floodplain only)		

Appendix B

Hydrologic Soils Data

HYDROLOGIC SOILS DATA

ELECTRONIC SOIL MAPS

Electronic soil data in the Soil Survey Geographic (SSURGO) Database can be obtained free of charge from the National Resource Conservation Service (NRCS) at <http://soildatamart.nrcs.usda.gov>. The data is downloadable by county and includes extensive soil information, including hydrologic soil groups. The data is intended to be imported into a geographic information system (GIS) to allow for site-specific soil analysis of soil characteristics for storm design. All soil survey results can also be accessed online at <http://websoilsurvey.nrcs.usda.gov/app/>. Maps can be created and printed from this site without the use of a GIS.

A.1 Online Web Soil Survey

Following is a procedure for using the NRCS online Web Soil Survey.

1. Go to <http://websoilsurvey.nrcs.usda.gov/app/>
2. Click **Start WSS**
3. Define your Area of Interest by drawing a box around your site location.
4. Click the **Soil Map** tab.
5. Click **Save or Print** in the upper right hand corner. A pdf will open in a new window that you can either print or save. It will show the area of interest along with a legend and the appropriate map units.

A.2 Downloading Soil Surveys

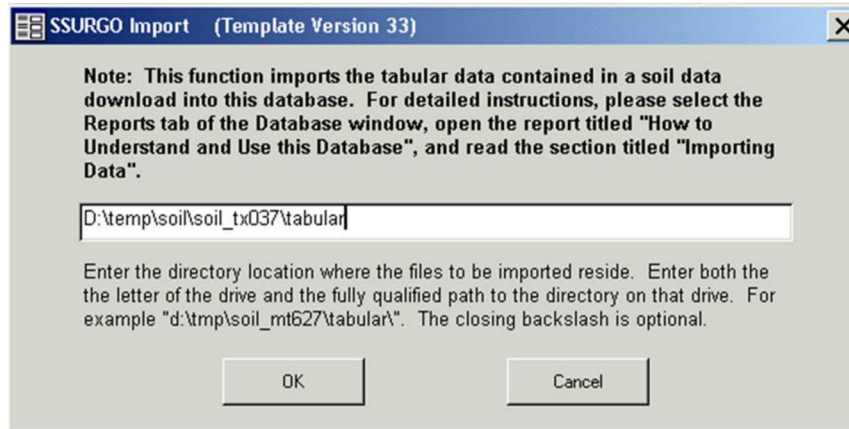
Following is a procedure for downloading data from the NRCS web site and importing in into ArcGIS.

Downloading SSURGO Soil Data into ArcInfo 9.x

1. Go to <http://soildatamart.nrcs.usda.gov>
2. Click **Select State**
3. Select State (**Texas**)
4. Select **County** of interest (**Bowie**)
5. Click **Select Survey Area**
6. Click **Download Data**
7. Enter your e-mail address in the provided form space
8. Click **Submit Request**
9. You will receive an immediate message acknowledging your request and a follow-up e-mail once your request has been processed.
10. The file(s) will be provided in compressed ZIP format, requiring the use of WinZip to extract.
11. Extract the files to a destination directory of your choice. The extracted files contain a spatial sub-folder, a tabular sub-folder, and a zip file containing the SSURGO MS Access template file.

Importing raw tabular soil data into Microsoft Access

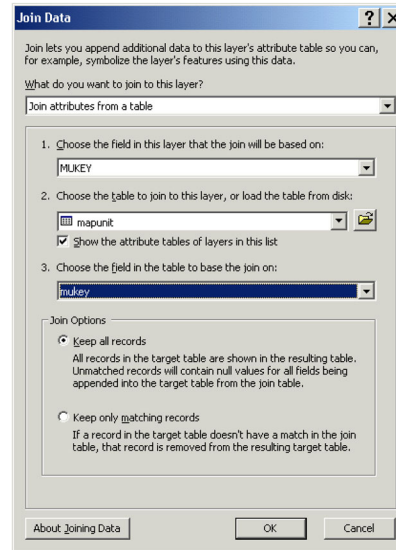
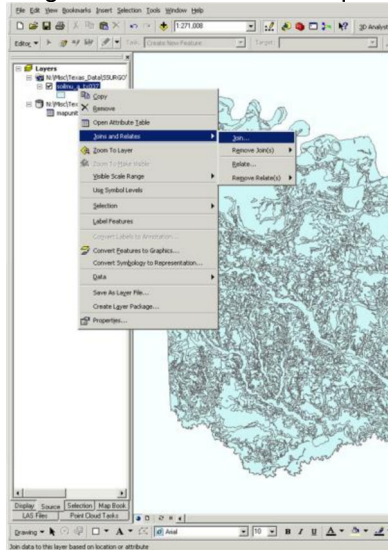
1. Extract the soildb_US_2002.zip file into the same destination folder by using the “extract to here” command in WinZip. This will extract the template database.
2. Open the template database and input the path name to the tabular data. This will build the SSURGO database and allow the creation of reports and queries.



3. Once the data is imported into the database, a report can be run. With the soil reports dialog box up, press the **Select All** option and generate the report. Note: Regardless of what report you wish to run, all reports are simultaneously created. The selected report is displayed on the screen.
4. All the reports are now complete, and the tables can now be added directly into ArcGIS.

Joined tables to shapefiles in ArcGIS

1. Open **ArcGIS** and add the **Soils** shapefile. (soilmu_a_tx037.shp)
2. Add the **mapunit** report to ArcGIS by navigating directly to the MS Access database and opening it (via the add data dialog box). Note: mapunit is only a commonly used example, containing full soil names and prime farmland information.
3. Now that the table is added to the Table of Contents, it is ready to be joined to the existing soils shapefile.
4. Right click on the **soils** shapefile and select **join**.



5. Under the **Join Data** dialog box, select the **mukey** field in Dropdown Box 1 and select **mapunit** in Dropdown Box 2.
6. Now that your shapefile is joined with the appropriate information, the next step is to export the shapefile into a new shapefile with the joins saved permanently. Right click on the soils shapefile and choose **Data > Export** and **Save** your file.

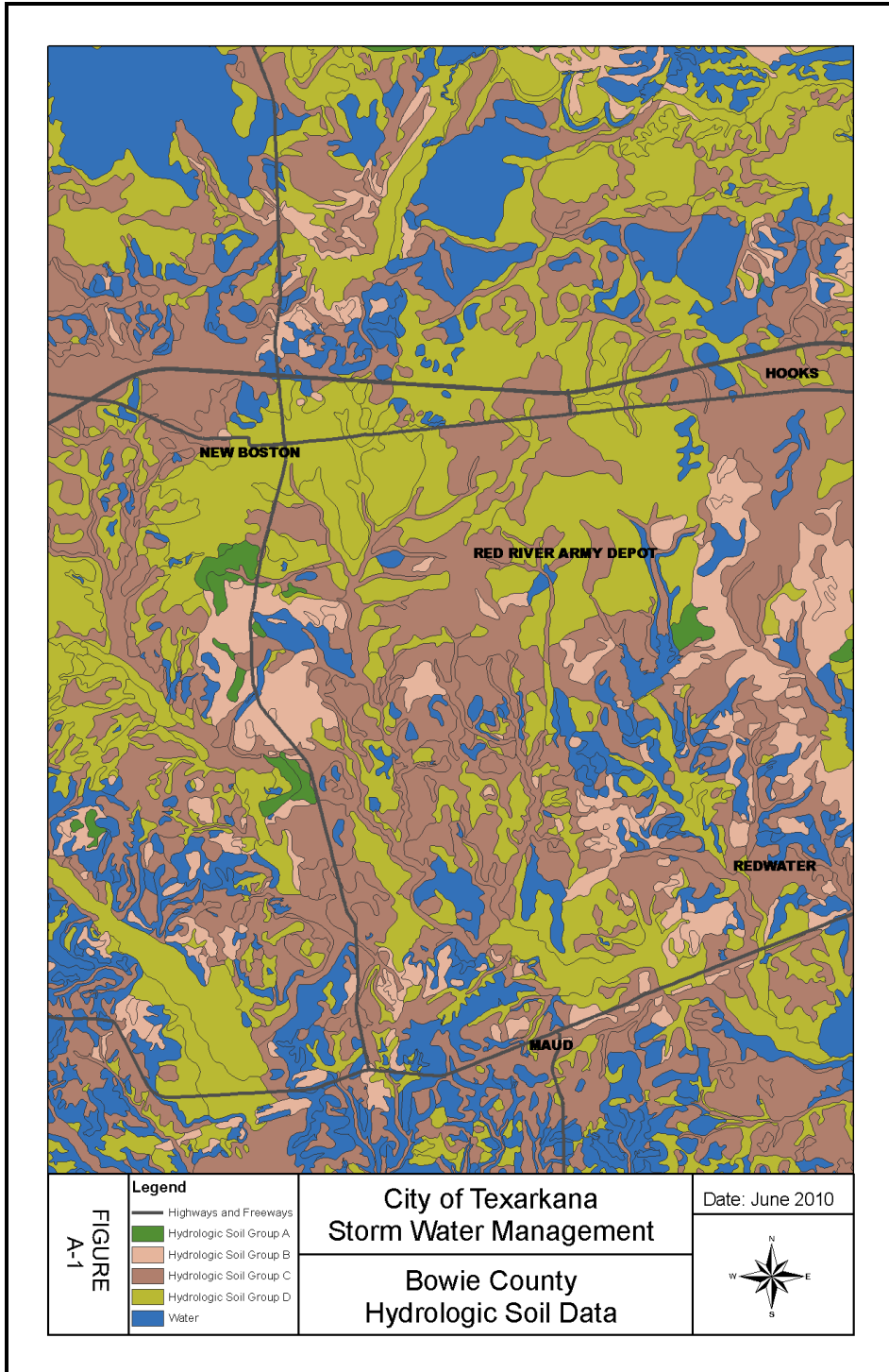


Figure A-1. Example SSURGO Soil Map – Bowie County

Appendix C

Federal, State & Regional Initiatives

FEDERAL, STATE & REGIONAL INITIATIVES

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C.1 Overview

As a result of the need to address the potential negative impacts of development and stormwater runoff, numerous federal, state, and regional programs and regulations have been created to deal with the problems of urban runoff and nonpoint source pollution. It is at the local level, however, where a stormwater management program is best implemented, due to the fact that local communities can influence land use and development related decisions. Federal and state legislation greatly influence and support local governments in their efforts to manage stormwater runoff in their communities.

It is the intent of this Stormwater Management Design Manual to complement the federal, state, and regional initiatives in an integrated partnership approach to stormwater management.

The purpose of this section is to provide a brief overview of many of the regional, state, and federal laws, regulations, and programs that are required of local government entities in the North Central Texas region that may impact local stormwater management programs and activities. The initiatives are summarized in Table C.2-1 as a general guide for developers and communities indicating areas where federal, state, or regional initiatives may affect their project.

As this is not intended to be a detailed analysis of each requirement, it would be advisable to obtain a copy of the specific administrative rules for each program from the appropriate regulatory agency.

C.2 Federal Initiatives

C.2.1 National Flood Insurance Program

Established under the National Flood Insurance Act of 1968 and broadened with the passage of the Flood Disaster Protection Act of 1973, the National Flood Insurance Program (NFIP) provides federally supported flood insurance to residents in communities that voluntarily adopt and enforce regulations to reduce future flood damage. As part of the program, the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) defines minimum standards for floodplain development that the local communities must adopt to be eligible for program benefits. New construction and substantial improvements must be built at or above the base flood elevation, which is the computed elevation of the "100 year flood". Also, new development that would result in an increase in flood heights is prohibited in the defined floodways. More information on the NFIP and floodplain management in general is available from the FEMA – Region VI office in Denton, TX.

Contact Agency	Phone	Address
Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) Region VI	940-898-5399	800 N. Loop 288 Denton, TX 76209

Website: <http://www.fema.gov/regions/vi/index.shtm>

C.2.2 U.S. Army Corps of Engineers Regulatory Program

The U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (USACE) Regulatory Program implements Section 404 of the Clean Water Act and Section 10 of the Rivers and Harbors Act of 1899, through regulations that serve to protect the Nation's valuable aquatic resources.

Under Section 404 of the Clean Water Act, permits are required for the discharge of dredged or fill material into waters of the United States (U.S.). Waters of the U.S. include all surface waters, such as coastal and navigable inland waters, lakes, rivers, streams, and their tributaries; interstate waters and their tributaries; wetlands adjacent to the above (e.g. swamps, marshes, bogs, or other land areas); and isolated wetlands and lakes, intermittent streams, and other waters where degradation could affect interstate commerce. The TCEQ is responsible for conducting water quality certification reviews for 404

permits in Texas. The certification reviews are required by Section 401 of the Clean Water Act. The goal of these certification reviews is to determine whether a proposed discharge will comply with state water quality standards. The Railroad Commission of Texas is the certifying agency in Texas for projects associated with oil and gas.

Where deemed applicable and when approved by the USACE, landowners may be able to conduct permittee responsible mitigation for impacts related to Section 404 of the Clean Water Act. Contact information for the Fort Worth and Tulsa Army Corps of Engineers district offices is listed below.

Under Section 10 of the Rivers and Harbors Act of 1899, the Corps regulates all work and structures in or affecting the course, condition, or capacity of navigable waters of the U.S. Navigable waters of the U.S. are those waters that are subject to the ebb and flow of the tide shoreward to the mean high water mark and/or are presently used, have been used in the past, or may be susceptible to use in the transport of interstate or foreign commerce.

Contact Agency	Phone	Address
Texas Commission on Environmental Quality	512-239-0400	MC 174 P.O. Box 13087, Austin, TX 78711-3087
US Army Corps of Engineers, Fort Worth District	817-886-1731	CESWF-PER-R 819 Taylor St P.O. Box 17300 Fort Worth, TX 76102-0300
US Army Corps of Engineers, Tulsa District	918-669-7366	2488 E 81 st Street Tulsa, OK 74137

Website: www.tceq.state.tx.us and <http://www.swf.usace.army.mil>

C.2.3 National Environmental Policy Act, Council on Environmental Quality

Congress established the Council on Environmental Quality within the Executive Office of the President as part of the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969 (NEPA). NEPA establishes the Federal government's environmental policy to help public officials make decisions based on an understanding of the environmental consequences of their actions, and to take actions that protect, restore, and enhance the environment. To accomplish this, NEPA requires Federal agencies to either prepare or have prepared written assessments of statements that describe the:

- Affected environment and environmental consequences of a proposed project;
- Reasonable or practical alternatives to the proposed project; and
- Any mitigation measures necessary to avoid or minimize adverse environmental effects.

If a project is either directly or indirectly funded by a federal source, then the agency providing funds to the project owner is responsible for seeing that the appropriate level of environmental assessment is performed.

C.2.4 Wildlife and Habitat

The mission of the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS) is to conserve, protect, and enhance fish and wildlife, and their habitats for the continuing benefit of the American people. USFWS activities include, but are not limited to enforcing the federal Endangered Species Act (ESA); acquiring wetlands, fishery habitats, and other lands for restoration and preservation; insuring compliance with the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA); managing National Wildlife Refuges and National Fish Hatcheries; and reviewing and commenting on all water resource projects.

Table C.2-1 Federal, State and Regional Initiative Indicators

<u>Indicator Questions</u>	<u>Potentially Applicable Initiative(s)</u>
Are Federal funds to be used? Is a Federal Action Permit required?	National Environmental Policy Act, Council on Environmental Quality (Section C.2.3) Federal Agency with Action
Are structures or manmade features to be disturbed?	Texas Historical Commission (Section C.3.11)
Is this a construction project with land disturbing activity?	TPDES Stormwater Permits for Construction Activities (Section C.3.2)
Is there new landscaping and/or erosion potential ?	Local Ordinances
Will stormwater discharge to an MS4 ?	TPDES MS4 Stormwater Permit Program (Phase I and II) (Section C.3.1)
Is this an industrial facility?	TPDES Industrial Stormwater Permit Program (Section C.3.3)
Is there a wastewater discharge?	TPDES Wastewater Discharge Permit Program (Section C.3.4)
Is there a nearby public water supply ?	Source Water Assessment Program (Section C.3.8)
Are there nearby groundwater usages?	Texas Groundwater Protection Committee Local Groundwater District (Section C.3.9)
Are there adjacent or nearby surface water features or wetlands that may be affected?	U.S. Army Corps of Engineers Regulatory Program (Section C.2.2) Texas Railroad Commission (Section C.2.2) Water Quality Management Plan – TCEQ (Section C.3.5) Surface Water Quality Standards – TCEQ (Section C.3.6) Total Maximum Daily Load Program – TCEQ (Section C.3.7) Texas General Land Office (Section C.3.12)
Will there be dredging ?	U.S. Army Corps of Engineers Regulatory Program (Section C.2.2) Sand, Gravel, Shell, and Marl Protection – TCEQ (Section C.3.13) Texas Parks and Wildlife Department (Section C.3.14)
Will a dam be constructed or modified?	U.S. Army Corps of Engineers Regulatory Program (Section C.2.2) Dam Safety Program – TCEQ (Section C.3.10)
Is the project in a floodplain ?	National Flood Insurance Program (Section C.2.1) Hazard Mitigation Action Planning (Section C.4.2)
Are there potential impacts on fish, wildlife, or habitats ?	Texas Parks and Wildlife Department (Section C.3.14) U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (Section C.2.4)

C.3 State of Texas Initiatives

C.3.1 TPDES MS4 Stormwater Permit Program (Phase I and II)

The National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System (NPDES) permit system was originally established by the Clean Water Act of 1972 to control wastewater discharges from various industries and wastewater treatment plants known as “point” sources. Congress amended the Clean Water Act with the Water Quality Act of 1987 to expand the NPDES permit program to address “nonpoint” source pollution through schedules for permitting municipal stormwater discharges. The Municipal Separate Storm Sewer System (MS4) stormwater discharge permit establishes requirements for municipalities to minimize pollutants in stormwater runoff to the “maximum extent practicable.”

In Texas, the Texas Commission on Environmental Quality (TCEQ) has authority to administer the NPDES program (TPDES – Texas Pollutant Discharge Elimination System). Under the TCEQ’s Municipal Separate Storm Sewer System (MS4) permit program, local governments and public entities in regulated areas are required to establish and implement a comprehensive Stormwater Management Program (SWMP) to control potential pollutants in stormwater runoff discharging to Waters in the State to the maximum extent practicable and to eliminate non-stormwater discharges entering the stormwater system.

Contact Agency	Phone	Address
TCEQ – Stormwater and General Permits Team	512-239-4527	MC 148 P.O. Box 13087, Austin, TX 789711-3087

Website: www.tceq.state.tx.us and www.dfwstormwater.com

This is accomplished by a municipal program which includes the implementation of structural and non-structural stormwater measures to protect stormwater quality. These measures are called best management practices (BMP’s). BMP’s include public education and public involvement activities, ordinance or other enforcement mechanisms, inspections and enforcement, employee training, and structural controls. Stormwater management ordinances, erosion and sediment control ordinances, development regulations, and other local regulations provide enforcement authority and criteria for controlling significant components of the Stormwater Management Program.

Since 1993, the Phase I permit requirements have applied in Texas to large and medium municipal separate storm sewer systems (defined by a population greater than 250,000 and population between 100,000 and 250,000, respectively, based on the 1990 census, or those areas contributing to water quality violations). In Texas, 22 entities are in the Phase I program, NOT including the City of Texarkana.

Federal regulations were issued in 1999 to extend the NPDES MS4 permit program to smaller (Phase II) communities INCLUDING the City of Texarkana. In Texas, the TCEQ administers this permit program. The Phase II rules take a slightly different approach than Phase I rules for the implementation of local stormwater management programs. Unlike Phase I communities that were required to develop detailed individual permits, each Phase II community that is the operator of a municipal storm sewer system will be required to develop a stormwater management program (SWMP) to protect water quality. The SWMP will be required to either meet the conditions of a general permit or an individual permit authorized by the TCEQ.

Under the TCEQ Phase II MS4 general permit ([General Permit No. TXR040000](#)), regulated entities are required to develop and submit to the TCEQ a plan for their SWMP within 180 days from the date the permit is issued. Additional communities may be added to the Phase II program if the TCEQ determines that stormwater in the community is adversely impacting the quality of receiving waters such as streams, lakes, and estuaries. Communities added to the program by the TCEQ will have 180 days from the date of notification to develop and submit a plan for their SWMP.

The U.S. EPA and TCEQ established six elements, termed “minimum control measures,” that each Phase II SWMP must address. The TCEQ has added an optional seventh minimum control measure. Each of the control measures is listed below:

1. Public Education and Outreach
2. Public Participation / Involvement
3. Illicit Discharge Detection and Elimination
4. Construction Site Runoff Control
5. Post-Construction Runoff Control
6. Pollution Prevention / Good Housekeeping
7. Municipal Construction Activity

The seventh optional minimum control measure allows regulated communities the option of including municipal construction activity in the MS4 general permit instead of having to obtain a permit for each construction site over five acres. The goal of this option is to reduce paperwork for regulated communities with numerous construction projects.

Each Phase II MS4 community is required to develop and submit a plan for their SWMP to the TCEQ. In the plan, the regulated community must identify its selection of BMP’s for each required minimum control measure. Additionally, measurable goals to track the implementation progress and success of each BMP must be identified, and a timeline is required for the implementation of the BMP’s over the five-year permit term.

C.3.2 TPDES Stormwater Permits for Construction Activities

The TPDES stormwater permit for construction activities is directed toward controlling the quality of stormwater runoff from construction activities. The permit requires the development of a construction Stormwater Pollution Prevention Plan (SWPPP) that emphasizes the application of BMP’s to protect stormwater quality from erosion and sedimentation processes, as well as construction materials and wastes, during the construction phase of development. In Texas, this program which became effective March 5, 2008, is managed by TCEQ.

Operators of construction sites five acres or greater are required to obtain stormwater permits from the TCEQ by developing a SWPPP and filing a Notice of Intent (NOI) 48 hours prior to initiating construction activities.

Construction sites one to five acres in size require a SWPPP to be developed, but an NOI is not required to be submitted to the TCEQ. Construction sites that are part of a larger common plan of development, such as a subdivision, that is collectively greater than one or five acres, must be evaluated according to the size of the larger common plan of development when considering permit requirements. For example, a person constructing on a ¼-acre site located within a 10-acre subdivision under construction would be required to comply with the permit requirements for sites disturbing 5 acres or more.

If stormwater runoff from the construction site enters a municipal storm sewer system, the construction site operator and/or owner is also required to notify the MS4 operator about the construction activity. For large construction sites, submitting a copy of the NOI to the MS4 operator is required, and for small construction sites, a copy of the Construction Site Notice is required. Local ordinances should be checked for additional requirements. For example, in some communities the SWPPP must also be submitted to the MS4 operator.

Construction site operators on sites with an NOI are further required to submit a Notice of Termination (NOT) to TCEQ when final stabilization has been achieved on all portions of the site under their control. Refer to TPDES General Permit TXR150000 for specific permit requirements.

C.3.3 Industrial TPDES Stormwater Permit Program

The TPDES program also requires that the discharge of stormwater from certain types of industrial facilities be regulated under a permit program. Industrial stormwater is defined as that discharged from any conveyance which is used for collecting and conveying stormwater and which is directly related to

manufacturing, processing, or materials storage areas. Discharge of stormwater from regulated industrial facilities in Texas is managed by the TCEQ under a single general permit issued in 2001.

Currently, the following thirty categories of industrial facilities identified in the Multi-Sector General Permit are required to have an NPDES permit for their stormwater discharge:

- Timber Products
- Paper and Allied Products
- Chemical and Allied Products
- Asphalt Paving and Roofing Materials and Lubricants
- Glass, Clay, Cement, Concrete, and Gypsum Products
- Primary Metals
- Metal Mining (Ore Mining and Dressing)
- Coal Mines and Coal Mining Related Facilities
- Oil and Gas Extraction
- Mineral Mining and Dressing
- Hazardous Waste Storage Facilities
- Landfills and Land Application Sites
- Automobile Salvage Yards
- Scrap Recycling Facilities
- Steam Electric Generating Facilities
- Land Transportation and Warehousing
- Water Transportation
- Ship and Boat Building or Repairing Yards
- Air Transportation
- Treatment Works
- Food and Kindred Products
- Textile Mills, Apparel, and Other Fabric Product Manufacturing, Leather and Leather Products
- Furniture and Fixtures
- Printing and Publishing
- Rubber, Miscellaneous Plastic Products, and Miscellaneous Manufacturing Industries
- Leather Tanning and Finishing
- Fabricated Metal Products
- Transportation Equipment, Industrial or Commercial Machinery
- Electronic, Electrical, Photographic, and Optical Goods
- Miscellaneous Industrial Activities

Regulated industrial facilities are required to develop a stormwater pollution prevention plan (SWPPP) and submit a Notice of Intent (NOI) for permit coverage to the TCEQ. Components of the SWPPP include identification and elimination of potential sources of stormwater contamination, stormwater monitoring at each stormwater outfall, employee training, and other stormwater protection activities. New industrial facilities are required to submit an NOI 48 hours prior to conducting any new activity.

C.3.4 TPDES Wastewater Discharge Permit Program

Municipalities, communities, and industrial facilities are required to obtain an NPDES permit to discharge wastewater to waters of the U.S. These point source discharges have been regulated by the EPA for more than 30 years. The TCEQ administers the wastewater discharge permit program in Texas. Permit effluent limitations are developed based on the quality of the receiving water. More stringent limitations are placed on discharges to waters listed on the 303(d) list of impaired waters. As part of the permitting process, applicants are required to characterize the quality of the proposed effluent, evaluate the conditions of the receiving water, identify nearby water supply intakes, and conduct other activities to document the continued protection of water quality.

Contact Agency	Phone	Address
TCEQ – Wastewater Permitting Section	512-239-4433	MC 148 P.O. Box 13087 Austin, TX 789711-3087

Website: www.tceq.state.tx.us and www.tnrcc.state.tx.us/water/quality/tmdl/index.html

C.3.5 Water Quality Management Plan

The Water Quality Management Plan (WQMP) for Texas is developed and updated by the TCEQ as part of the requirements of the Clean Water Act. The plan provides long-range planning and technical data for water quality management activities required under the Texas Water Code and the Clean Water Act. Projected effluent limitations for dischargers are based on the recommendations in the WQMP. The Texas State Soil and Water Conservation Board (TSSWCB) is responsible for addressing water quality issues from nonpoint source pollution from agricultural and silvicultural activities. All new and amended permits are reviewed by the TCEQ for conformance with the recommendations of the WQMP. The plan is updated on a quarterly basis by the State.

For Texarkana, the Ark-Tex Council of Governments (ATCOG) is the designated water quality management planning agency. Under guidance of its Environmental Planning Department, ATCOG annually updates the plan and submits amendments to the TCEQ for certification.

Contact Agency	Phone	Address
TCEQ – Office of Environmental Policy, Analysis, and Assessment	817-239-4900	MC 147 P.O. Box 13087, Austin, TX 789711-3087
TSSWCB – Technical Assistance	254-773-2250	Temple, TX 76501
ATCOG – Regional Plan	903-832-8636	4808 Elizabeth St. Texarkana, TX 75503

Website: www.tceq.state.tx.us and www.dfwstormwater.com

C.3.6 Surface Water Quality Standards

The TCEQ sets surface water quality standards in an effort to maintain the quality of water in the state consistent with public health and enjoyment, protection of aquatic life, operation of existing industries, and economic development of the state, as well as to encourage and promote development and use of regional and area-wide wastewater collection, treatment, and disposal systems. Standards are implemented primarily through effluent limits established in permits that allow discharges of wastewater into the surface waters of the state. Currently, the State of Texas has no numerical criteria for nutrients in the Texas Surface Water Quality Standards (TSWQS). The EPA is requiring states to develop nutrient criteria. The TCEQ is currently developing and evaluating criteria to address nutrients and eutrophication.

Contact Agency	Phone	Address
TCEQ – Water Quality Assessment Section	817-239-4576	MC 150 P.O. Box 13087, Austin, TX 789711-3087

Website: www.tceq.state.tx.us

C.3.7 Total Maximum Daily Load (TMDL) Program

Under Section 303(d) of the Clean Water Act, the State of Texas is required to develop a list of impaired waters that do not meet water quality standards. The TCEQ must then establish priority rankings for waters on the list and develop Total Maximum Daily Loads (TMDL's) for listed waters. The TMDL specifies the maximum amount of a specific pollutant of concern that a designated segment of a water body can receive and still meet water quality standards. The TMDL also allocates pollutant loadings among point and nonpoint pollutant sources, including stormwater runoff. If a TMDL has been established

for a water body, the impact of new point and nonpoint sources must be assessed prior to TCEQ approval of new or amended discharge or stormwater permits.

For each pollutant identified, a TMDL implementation plan must be developed. The implementation plans must identify the sources of the pollutant and provide a list of actions or management measures needed to reduce the pollutant, a schedule for implementing controls or measures, milestones for implementation, and a monitoring program to measure progress. Controls and management measures need to be in place five years after the plan is developed.

The TMDL program has a broad impact on local stormwater management programs because nonpoint sources of pollutants must be addressed at the local level. Currently, the EPA TMDL requirements have been withdrawn and are under evaluation by EPA to determine whether and how the TMDL program can best be implemented to achieve the goals of the Clean Water Act. TMDL's have not been established for Bowie County and the City of Texarkana.

Contact Agency	Phone	Address
U.S. EPA – Region 6	214- 665-6444	1445 Ross Avenue, Suite 1200 Dallas, TX 75202 (214) 665-6444
TCEQ – TMDL Section	817-239-4300	MC 150 P.O. Box 13087, Austin, TX 789711-3087

Website: <http://www.epa.gov/region6/index.htm> and <http://www.tceq.state.tx.us>

C.3.8 Source Water Assessment Program (SWAP)

The 1996 amendments to the Federal Safe Drinking Water Act brought about a new approach for ensuring clean and safe drinking water served by public water supplies known as the Source Water Assessment Program. The U.S. EPA is advocating prevention as an important tool in the protection of public drinking water sources from contamination. In order to implement source protection, an assessment of potential pollutant sources in water supply watersheds must be conducted. The goals of this assessment will be reached through implementation of a four-step method which includes watershed delineation, inventory of potential pollutant sources within the watershed, analysis of susceptibility of a water intake to the pollutant sources, and communication of this information to the public.

As many pollutants can enter waterways and reservoirs through stormwater drainage systems, the SWAP efforts will provide an informational resource to local stormwater pollution prevention and mitigation programs. Future water supply protection efforts to control the identified pollution sources should be coordinated with and included as part of a local stormwater program.

The TCEQ's Source Water Assessment Program consists of source water protection, source water assessments, and vulnerability assessments. The Source Water Protection (SWP) program is a voluntary program that public water supply systems participate in to prevent pollution from entering surface or ground water supplies. It was created by the 1996 Amendments to the Safe Drinking Water Act and is an expansion of the Wellhead Protection (WHP) program, which protects public water supplies that use groundwater. Source water assessments and vulnerability assessments are conducted to evaluate a public water supply systems susceptibility to a wide range of contaminants.

Contact Agency	Phone	Address
TCEQ – Public Drinking Water Section	512-239-4782	MC 155 P.O. Box 13087, Austin, TX 789711-3087

Website: www.tceq.state.tx.us

C.3.9 Texas Groundwater Protection Committee

The Texas legislature established the Texas Groundwater Protection Committee (TGPC) in 1989 with a specific charge to “. . . *develop and update a comprehensive groundwater protection strategy for the state that provides guidelines for the prevention of contamination and for the conservation of groundwater and that provides for the coordination of the groundwater protection activities of the agencies represented on the committee...* (Water Code Section 26.405(2)).” The TGPC first established a groundwater protection strategy in 1988 and recently updated the strategy (February 2003). Implementation of the strategy is primarily through local groundwater districts, but may also be conducted through River Authorities and Regional Water Planning Groups, City ordinances, or County on-site treatment regulatory programs.

Contact Agency	Phone	Address
TCEQ – Texas Groundwater Protection Committee	512-239-4506	MC 197 P.O. Box 13087, Austin, TX 789711-3087

Website: www.tgpc.state.tx.us

C.3.10 Dams and Reservoirs in Texas

The Texas Commission on Environmental Quality (TCEQ) regulates the construction of dams in Texas. More information on dams and reservoirs can be found in Appendix F and on-line at www.tnrcc.state.tx.us/enforcement/dam_safety/intro2.html.

The U.S. Army Corps of Engineers Regulatory Program implements Section 9 of the Rivers and Harbors Act of 1899. Under Section 9, permits are required for the construction of dams and dikes in navigable waters of the U.S. See www.swf.usace.army.mil/pubdata/environ/regulatory/jurisdiction/navlist.pdf for a list of navigable waters of the U.S. for the Fort Worth, Tulsa, and Albuquerque Districts within the State of Texas.

C.3.11 Texas Historical Commission

The Texas Historical Commission (THC) is the state agency for historic preservation. THC staff consults with citizens and organizations to preserve Texas' architectural, archeological, and cultural landmarks. The agency maintains the *Texas Historic Atlas*, a directory of historic site records, including data on Texas Historical Markers and National Register of Historic Places in Texas. Projects that include the disturbance of existing features such as buildings or other manmade structures should include a search of the THC database to screen for potential historic significance. Projects that include ground disturbance, such as new construction or pipeline installation, should include an assessment of the potential for disturbance of archeological or other culturally significant sites. The contact information for the THC is below.

Contact Agency	Phone	Address
Texas Historical Commission	512-463-6100	P.O. Box 12276 Austin, TX 78711-2276

Website: <http://www.thc.state.tx.us>

C.3.12 Texas General Land Office

A General Land Office (GLO) easement may be required if the project crosses or disturbs any state-owned streambeds. The ownership of any stream is determined on a case-by-case basis by the GLO.

Contact Agency	Phone	Address
Texas General Land Office	1-800-998-4456 <i>or</i> 512-463-5001	1700 N. Congress Ave. Suite 840 Austin, TX 78701-1495

Website: <http://www.glo.state.tx.us>

C.3.13 Sand, Gravel, Shell, and Marl Protection

The Texas Parks and Wildlife Department (TPWD) requires a permit for a project if it "disturbs or takes" streambed materials from a streambed claimed by the State. If the stream is perennial (flows most of the time), or is more than 30 feet wide between the banks (even if it is dry most of the time), the State might claim the bed and the sand and gravel in it as State-owned.

An application must be filed with the TPWD including information on the size of the stream; the nature of the banks and the bed of the stream; the amount of material requested; the adjacent landowners; and the probable effects on the stream and its other users. The TPWD evaluates the probable impacts of the activity, and grants a permit if no significant damage is anticipated. Payment is required for any material removed, in addition to the application fee. A hearing may be required before deciding whether to issue the permit.

C.3.14 Wildlife and Habitat

The Texas Parks and Wildlife Department (TPWD) Resource Protection Division is charged with protecting the state's fish, wildlife, plant, and mineral resources from degradation or depletion. The TPWD investigates environmental contamination events that may result in impacts to fish or wildlife. The agency also provides information and recommendations to other government agencies and participates in administrative and judicial proceedings concerning pollution incidents, development projects, and other actions that may affect fish and wildlife. The Department investigates fish kills, and when responsibility for fish kills can be traced, the agency recovers from the responsible party the economic value of the fish and other lost aquatic life, which by law are state properties. As a state natural resource trustee, the TPWD assesses damages to fish and wildlife resources from oil and hazardous chemical releases and seeks restoration of these resources from the responsible party.

C.4 Regional Initiatives

The ATCOG is a voluntary association of, by, and for local governments, and was established to assist local governments in planning for common needs, cooperating for mutual benefit, and coordinating for sound regional development. ATCOG's purpose is to strengthen both the individual and collective power of local governments and to help them recognize regional opportunities, eliminate unnecessary duplication, and make joint decisions.

C.4.1 Hazard Mitigation Action Planning (HazMAP)

In response to a nationally identified need to reduce our vulnerability to disasters, the Ark-Tex Council of Governments is coordinating multi-jurisdictional Hazard Mitigation Action Planning (HazMAP) for the 9-county region.

Hazard mitigation is the cornerstone of the Federal Emergency Management Agency's (FEMA) approach to reducing our nation's vulnerability to disasters. Hazard mitigation is defined as the actions taken to reduce or eliminate long-term risk to people and property from hazards and their effects. This definition distinguishes actions that have a long-term impact from those that are more closely associated with immediate preparedness, response, and recovery activities. Hazard mitigation is the only phase of emergency management specifically dedicated to breaking the cycle of damage, reconstruction, and repeated damage.

HazMAP is a multi-jurisdictional planning process consistent with the Disaster Mitigation Act of 2000 (DMA 2000) and the requirements of the State of Texas Division of Emergency Management (TxDEM) that is putting into place a framework for coordinated and focused hazard mitigation actions both at the local and regional levels. According to the TxDEM website the City of Texarkana has a FEMA-approved Local Mitigation Plan (LMP) dated August 9, 2005. Important elements include:

- Identifying and prioritizing the risks of a range of natural and technological hazards, from tornadoes and flooding to nuclear power plant accidents and chemical spills, as well as civil hazards;
- Considering where improved mitigation measures could help reduce hazard risks and vulnerability; and

The Stafford Act (amended by DMA 2000) requires locally-adopted and FEMA-approved mitigation action plans by November 1, 2004, in order for local governments to participate in certain federal grant programs for disaster planning and relief. Based on federal rules, the process includes annual reporting and plan updating at least every five years.

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Appendix D

Landscaping and Aesthetics Guidance

Landscaping and Aesthetics Guidance

Introduction

Landscaping is a critical element in the design of stormwater facilities for water quantity and quality management, serving both functional and aesthetic purposes. Plants and vegetation perform a number of functions in stormwater controls and conveyance facilities, including:

- Slowing and retarding flow by increasing hydraulic roughness
- Preventing the erosion of bare soil
- Enhancing infiltration of runoff into the soil
- Providing pollutant removal through vegetative uptake
- Preventing access to deep open water areas
- Contributing to wildlife and fish habitat
- Improving the overall appearance of stormwater facilities

The purpose of this Appendix is to provide guidance on landscaping and plant selection for stormwater facilities and structural controls, as well as provide an overview on developing aesthetically-pleasing stormwater facilities. This appendix is divided into the following sections:

- Subsection D.1 covers general landscaping guidance that should be considered when landscaping any stormwater facility.
- Subsection D.2 discusses the physical site factors and considerations involved in selecting plant material for stormwater facility landscaping.
- Subsection D.3 includes key factors to consider in selecting plant material for stormwater landscaping are reviewed, including hardiness, physiographic regions, inundation tolerance, and other factors.
- Subsection D.4 outlines more specific guidance on landscaping criteria and plant selection for individual structural stormwater control designs, including:
 - Stormwater Ponds and Wetlands
 - Bioretention Areas
 - Infiltration Trench and Surface Sand Filter Facilities
 - Enhanced Swales and Grass Channels
 - Filter Strips and Stream Buffers
- Subsection D.5 contains a detailed plant list of trees and shrubs that may be used when preparing a vegetation and landscaping planting plan for a stormwater facility.
- Subsection D.6 provides examples of aesthetics and good landscaping in structural control design.

For information on native and adapted plants and trees to create landscapes that need less water, pesticides, and fertilizer to thrive in the North Central Texas climate, visit www.txsmartscape.com. Excessive fertilizer in runoff can lead to “overgrowth” of submerged plants.

D.1 General Landscaping Guidance

Below are general guidelines that should be followed in the landscaping of any stormwater control or conveyance facility.

DO NOT:

- ❑ Plant trees, scrubs or any type of woody vegetation on an embankment
- ❑ Plant trees and shrubs within 15 feet of the toe of slope of a dam.
- ❑ Plant trees or shrubs known to have long tap roots within the vicinity of the earthen dam or embankment, or subsurface drainage facilities.
- ❑ Plant trees and shrubs within 25 feet of a principal spillway structure (e.g., riser)
- ❑ Plant trees and shrubs within 25 feet of perforated pipes.
- ❑ Block maintenance access to structures with trees or shrubs.
- ❑ Plant trees and shrubs within 25 feet of a structural concrete dam.

DO:

- ❑ Take into account site characteristics and plant selection guidelines (see subsections D.2 and D.3, respectively) when selecting plants for stormwater facilities.
- ❑ Consider how plant characteristics will affect the landscape and the performance of a structural stormwater control or conveyance.
- ❑ Carefully consider the long-term vegetation management strategy for the structural control, keeping in mind the maintenance legacy for the future owners.
- ❑ Preserve existing natural vegetation when possible.
- ❑ Avoid the overuse of any plant materials.
- ❑ Have soils tested to determine if there is a need for amendments.
- ❑ Select plants that can thrive in on-site soils with no additional amendments or a minimum of amendments.
- ❑ Consider water availability, particularly for wetland and water-intensive plantings.
- ❑ Decrease the areas where turf is used. Use low maintenance ground cover to absorb run-off.
- ❑ Plant stream and edge of water buffers with trees, shrubs, ornamental grasses, and herbaceous materials where possible, to stabilize banks and provide shade.
- ❑ Provide slope stabilization methods for slopes steeper than 2:1, such as planted erosion control mats. Also, use seed mixes with quick germination rates in this area. Augment temporary seeding measures with container crowns or root mats of more permanent plant material.
- ❑ Utilize erosion control mats and fabrics to protect inverts of channels that are subject to frequent wash outs.
- ❑ Stabilize all water overflows with plant material that can withstand strong current flows. Root material should be fibrous and substantial but lacking a tap root.
- ❑ Sod area channels that are not stabilized using erosion control mats.
- ❑ Divert flows temporarily from seeded areas until stabilized.
- ❑ Check water tolerances of existing plant materials prior to inundation of area.
- ❑ Stabilize aquatic and safety benches with emergent wetland plants and wet seed mixes.
- ❑ Provide a 15-foot clearance from a non-clogging, low flow orifice.

- ❑ Limit herbaceous embankment plantings to 10 inches in height, to allow visibility for the inspector who is looking for burrowing rodents that may compromise the integrity of the embankment.
- ❑ Shade inflow and outflow channels, as well as the southern exposures of pond, to reduce thermal warming
- ❑ Avoid plantings that will require routine or intensive chemical applications (i.e. turf area).
- ❑ Maintain and frame desirable views. Be careful not to block views at entrances, exits, or difficult road curves. Screen or buffer unattractive views into the site.
- ❑ Use plants to prohibit pedestrian access to pools or slopes that may be unsafe.
- ❑ Keep maintenance area open to allow future access for pond maintenance.
- ❑ Provide a planting surface that can withstand the compaction of vehicles using maintenance access roads.
- ❑ Make sure the facility maintenance agreement includes a maintenance requirement of designated plant material.
- ❑ Provide signage for:
 - Stormwater management facilities to help educate the public
 - Wildflower areas to designate limits of mowing
 - Preserving existing natural vegetation

D.2 Site Considerations

A development site's characteristics often will help to determine which plant materials and planting methods the site designer should select and will help improve plant establishment. Primary site considerations include:

- (1) Soil Characteristics
- (2) Drainage
- (3) Slope
- (4) Orientation

Soil Characteristics

Plant establishment and growth can be limited by a number of different soil characteristics including:

- Soil texture
- PH -- whether acid, neutral, or alkali
- Nutrient levels -- nitrogen, phosphorus, potassium
- Minerals -- such as chelated iron, lime
- Salinity
- Toxicity

Soils are made up of four basic ingredients: mineral elements, pore space, organic matter and other items consisting mainly of living organisms including fungi, bacteria, and nematodes. One classification of soils is based upon the mineral part of soil and consists of four sizes of particles. Clay particles are the smallest, followed by silt, sand, and gravel. The USDA has devised another system of classifying soil particles. In this system soil is divided into seven categories: clay, silt, and five sizes of sand.

Soil texture is determined by the percentage of sand, silt, and clay in the soil. The structure of a soil is influenced by soil texture and also by the aggregation of small soil particles into larger particles. The amount of aggregation in a soil is strongly influenced by the amount of organic matter present.

Soil samples should be analyzed by experienced and qualified individuals who can explain the results

and provide information on any soil amendments that are required. Soil fertility can often be corrected by applying fertilizer or by increasing the level of organic matter in the soil. Soil pH can be corrected with applications of lime. Where poor soils can't be amended, seed mixes and plant material must be selected to establish ground cover as quickly as possible.

Areas that have recently been involved in construction can become compacted so that plant roots cannot penetrate the soil. Seeds lying on the surface of compacted soils can be washed away or be eaten by birds. Soils should be loosened to a minimum depth of two inches, preferably to a four-inch depth. Hard soils may require disking to a deeper depth. Loosening soils will improve seed contact with the soil, provide greater germination rates, and allow the roots to penetrate into the soil. If the area is to be sodded, disking will allow the roots to penetrate into the soil.

Whenever possible, topsoil should be spread to a depth of four inches (two inch minimum) over the entire area to be planted. This provides organic matter and important nutrients for the plant material. This also allows the stabilizing materials to become established faster, while the roots are able to penetrate deeper and stabilize the soil, making it less likely that the plants will wash out during a heavy storm. If topsoil has been stockpiled in deep mounds for a long period of time, it is desirable to test the soil for pH as well as microbial activity. If the microbial activity has been destroyed, it may be necessary to inoculate the soil after application.

Drainage

Soil moisture and drainage have a direct bearing on the plant species and communities that can be supported on a site. Factors such as soil texture, topography, groundwater levels and climatic patterns all influence soil drainage and the amount of water in the soil. Identifying the topography and drainage of the site will help determine potential moisture gradients. The following categories can be used to describe the drainage properties of soils on a site:

Flooded - Areas where standing water is present most of the growing season.

Wet - Areas where standing water is present most of the growing season, except during times of drought. Wet areas are found at the edges of ponds, rivers, streams, ditches, and low spots. Wet conditions exist on poorly drained soils, often with a high clay content.

Moist - Areas where the soil is damp. Occasionally, the soil is saturated and drains slowly. These areas usually are at slightly higher elevations than wet sites. Moist conditions may exist in sheltered areas protected from sun and wind.

Well-drained - Areas where rain water drains readily, and puddles do not last long. Moisture is available to plants most of the growing season. Soils usually are medium textures with enough sand and silt particles to allow water to drain through the soil.

Dry - Areas where water drains rapidly through the soil. Soils are usually coarse, sandy, rocky or shallow. Slopes are often steep and exposed to sun and wind. Water runs off quickly and does not remain in the soil.

Slope

The degree of slope can also limit its suitability for certain types of plants. Plant establishment and growth requires stable substrates for anchoring root systems and preserving propagules such as seeds and plant fragments, and slope is a primary factor in determining substrate stability. Establishing plants directly on or below eroding slopes is not possible for most species. In such instances, plant species capable of rapid spread and anchoring soils should be selected or bioengineering techniques should be used to aid the establishment of a plant cover.

In addition, soils on steep slopes generally drain more rapidly than those on gradual slopes. This means that the soils may remain saturated longer on gradual slopes. If soils on gradual slopes are classified as poorly drained, care should be taken that plant species are selected that are tolerant of saturation.

Site topography also affects maintenance of plant species diversity. Small irregularities in the ground surface (e.g., depressions, etc.) are common in natural systems. More species are found in areas with many micro-topographic features than in areas without such features. Raised sites are particularly important in wetlands because they allow plants that would otherwise die while flooded to escape inundation.

In wetland plant establishment, ground surface slope interacts with the site hydrology to determine water depths for specific areas within the site. Depth and duration of inundation are principal factors in the zonation of wetland plant species. A given change in water levels will expose a relatively small area on a steep slope in comparison with a much larger area exposed on a gradual or flat slope. Narrow planting zones will be delineated on steep slopes for species tolerant of specific hydrologic conditions, whereas gradual slopes enable the use of wider planting zones.

Orientation

Slope exposure should be considered for its effect on plants. A southern-facing slope receives more sun and is warmer and drier, while the opposite is true of a northern slope. Eastern- and western-facing slopes are intermediate, receiving morning and afternoon sun, respectively. Western-facing slopes tending to receive more wind.

D.3 Plant Selection for Stormwater Facilities

D.3.1 Hardiness Zones

Hardiness zones are based on historical annual minimum temperatures recorded in an area. A site's location in relation to plant hardiness zones is important to consider first because plants differ in their ability to withstand very cold winters. This does not imply that plants are not affected by summer temperatures. Given that Texas summers can be very hot, heat tolerance is also a characteristic that should be considered in plant selection.

It is best to recommend plants known to thrive in specific hardiness zones. The plant list included at the end of this appendix identifies the hardiness zones for each species listed as a general planting guide. It should be noted, however, that certain site factors can create microclimates or environmental conditions which permit the growth of plants not listed as hardy for that zone. By investigating numerous references and based on personal experience, a designer should be able to confidently recommend plants that will survive in microclimates.

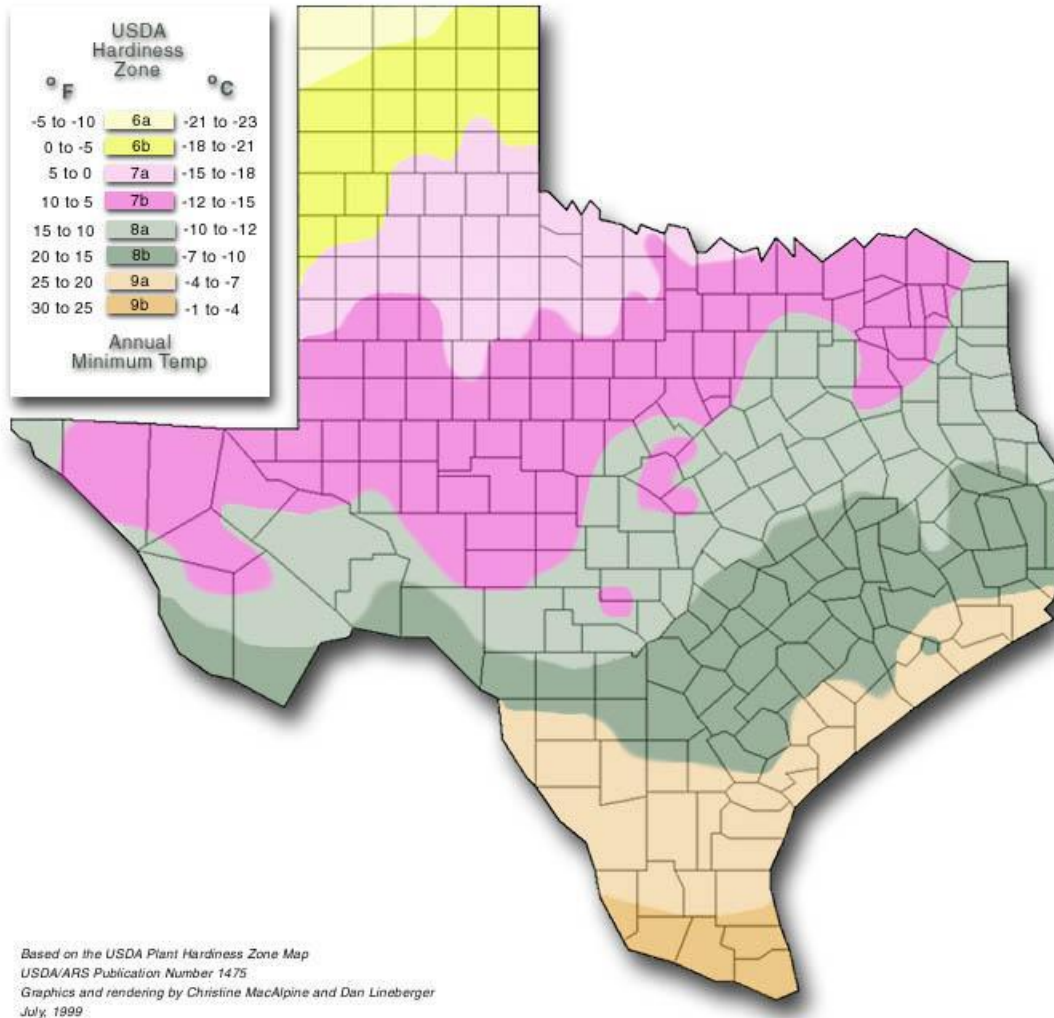


Figure D-1 USDA Plant Hardiness Zones in Texas

D.3.2 Physiographic Provinces

There are three physiographic provinces in Texas that describe distinct geographic regions in the state with similar physical and environmental conditions (Figure D-2). These physiographic provinces include, from northwest to southeast, High Plains, Edwards Plateau, and Gulf Coastal Plains (subdivided into multiple subregions). Each physiographic region is defined by unique geological strata, soil type, drainage patterns, moisture content, temperature and degree of slope which often dictate the predominant vegetation. Because the predominant vegetation has evolved to live in these specific conditions, a successful stormwater management facility planting design can be achieved through mimicking these natural associations. The three physiographic regions are described below with associated vegetation listed as general planting guidance.

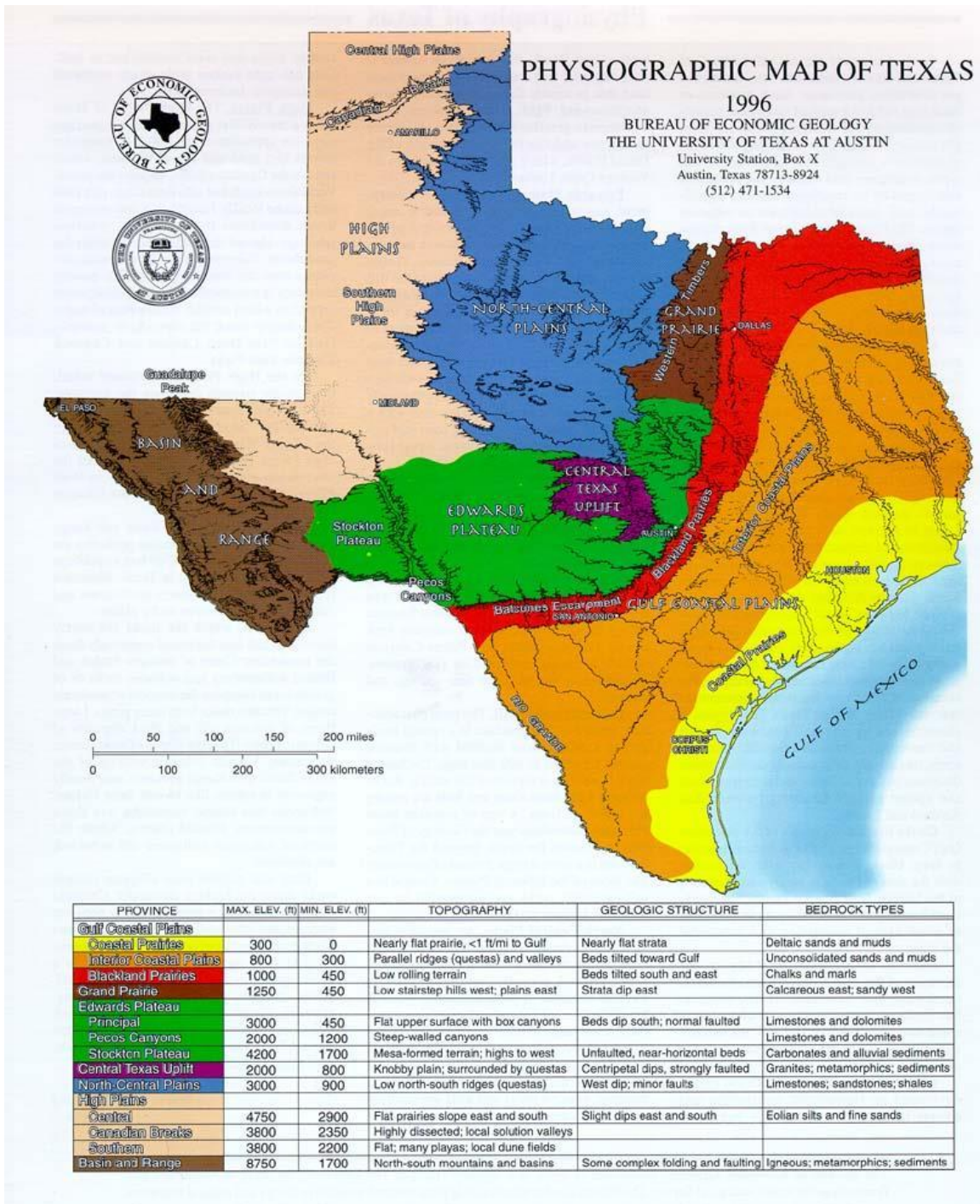


Figure D-2 Physiographic map of Texas

Gulf Coastal Plains. The Gulf Coastal Plains include three subprovinces named the Coastal Prairies, the Interior Coastal Plains, and the Blackland Prairies. The Coastal Prairies begin at the Gulf of Mexico shoreline. Young deltaic sands, silts, and clays erode to nearly flat grasslands that form almost imperceptible slopes to the southeast. Trees are uncommon except locally along streams and in Oak mottes, growing on coarser underlying sediments of ancient streams. Minor steeper slopes, from 1 foot to as much as 9 feet high, result from subsidence of deltaic sediments along faults. Between Corpus Christi

and Brownsville, broad sand sheets pocked by low dunes and blowouts forming ponds dominate the landscape.

The Interior Coastal Plains comprise alternating belts of resistant uncemented sands among weaker shales that erode into long, sandy ridges. At least two major down-to-the coast fault systems trend nearly parallel to the coastline. Clusters of faults also concentrate over salt domes in East Texas. That region is characterized by pine and hardwood forests and numerous permanent streams. West and south, tree density continuously declines, pines disappear in Central Texas, and chaparral brush and sparse grasses dominate between San Antonio and Laredo.

On the Blackland Prairies of the innermost Gulf Coastal Plains, chalks and marls weather to deep, black, fertile clay soils, in contrast with the thin red and tan sandy and clay soils of the Interior Gulf Coastal Plains. The blacklands have a gentle undulating surface, cleared of most natural vegetation and cultivated for crops.

From sea level at the Gulf of Mexico, the elevation of the Gulf Coastal Plains increases northward and westward. In the Austin San Antonio area, the average elevation is about 800 feet. South of Del Rio, the western end of the Gulf Coastal Plains has an elevation of about 1,000 feet.

Grand Prairie. The eastern Grand Prairie developed on limestones; weathering and erosion have left thin rocky soils. North and west of Fort Worth, the plateau like surface is well exposed, and numerous streams dissect land that is mostly flat or that gently slopes southeastward. There, silver bluestem-Texas wintergrass grassland is the flora. Primarily sandstones underlie the western margin of the Grand Prairie, where post oak woods form the Western Cross Timbers.

Edwards Plateau. The Balcones Escarpment, superposed on a curved band of major normal faults, bounds the eastern and southern Edwards Plateau. Its principal area includes the Hill Country and a broad plateau. Stream erosion of the fault escarpment sculpts the Hill Country from Waco to Del Rio. The Edwards Plateau is capped by hard Cretaceous limestones. Local streams entrench the plateau as much as 1,800 feet in 15 miles. The upper drainages of streams are waterless draws that open into box canyons where springs provide permanently flowing water. Sinkholes commonly dot the limestone terrain and connect with a network of caverns. Alternating hard and soft marly limestones form a stair step topography in the central interior of the province.

The Edwards Plateau includes the Stockton Plateau, mesa like land that is the highest part of this subdivision. With westward decreasing rainfall, the vegetation grades from mesquite juniper brush westward into creosote bush tarbush shrubs.

The Pecos River erodes a canyon as deep as 1,000 feet between the Edwards and Stockton Plateaus. Its side streams become draws forming narrow blind canyons with nearly vertical walls. The Pecos Canyons include the major river and its side streams. Vegetation is sparse, even near springs and streams.

Central Texas Uplift. The most characteristic feature of this province is a central basin having a rolling floor studded with rounded granite hills 400 to 600 feet high. Enchanted Rock State Park is typical of this terrain. Rocks forming both basin floor and hills are among the oldest in Texas. A rim of resistant lower Paleozoic formations surrounds the basin. Beyond the Paleozoic rim is a second ridge formed of limestones like those of the Edwards Plateau. Central live oak mesquite parks are surrounded by live oak ash juniper parks.

North-Central Plains. An erosional surface that developed on upper Paleozoic formations forms the North-Central Plains. Where shale bedrock prevails, meandering rivers traverse stretches of local prairie. In areas of harder bedrock, hills and rolling plains dominate. Local areas of hard sandstones and limestones cap steep slopes severely dissected near rivers. Lengthy dip slopes of strongly fractured limestones display extensive rectangular patterns. Western rocks and soils are oxidized red or gray where gypsum dominates, whereas eastern rocks and soils weather tan to buff. Live oak ash juniper parks grade westward into mesquite lotebush brush.

High Plains. The High Plains of Texas form a nearly flat plateau with an average elevation approximating 3,000 feet. Extensive stream-laid sand and gravel deposits, which contain the Ogallala aquifer, underlie the plains. Windblown sands and silts form thick, rich soils and caliche locally. Havard shin oak mesquite brush dominates the silty soils, whereas sandsage Havard shin oak brush occupies the sand sheets. Numerous playa lakes scatter randomly over the treeless plains. The eastern boundary is a westward-retreating escarpment capped by a hard caliche. Headwaters of major rivers deeply notch the caprock, as exemplified by Palo Duro Canyon and Caprock Canyons State Parks.

On the High Plains, widespread small, intermittent streams dominate the drainage. The Canadian River cuts across the province, creating the Canadian Breaks and separating the Central High Plains from the Southern High Plains. Pecos River drainage erodes the west-facing escarpment of the Southern High Plains, which terminates against the Edwards Plateau on the south.

Basin and Range. The Basin and Range province contains eight mountain peaks that are higher than 8,000 feet. At 8,749 feet, Guadalupe Peak is the highest point in Texas. Mountain ranges generally trend nearly north-south and rise abruptly from barren rocky plains.

Plateaus in which the rocks are nearly horizontal and less deformed commonly flank the mountains. Cores of strongly folded and faulted sedimentary and volcanic rocks or of granite rocks compose the interiors of mountain ranges. Volcanic rocks form many peaks. Large flows of volcanic ash and thick deposits of volcanic debris flank the slopes of most former volcanoes. Ancient volcanic activity of the Texas Basin and Range province was mostly explosive in nature, like Mount Saint Helens. Volcanoes that poured successive lava flows are uncommon. Eroded craters, where the cores of volcanoes collapsed and subsided, are abundant.

Gray oak, pinyon pine, and alligator juniper parks drape the highest elevations. Creosote bush and lechuguilla shrubs sparsely populate plateaus and intermediate elevations. Tobosa black grama grassland occupies the low basins.

Floodplain Plant Communities – Floodplain areas are a microclimatic area that results in a characteristic plant community that is similar in all three physiographic provinces. Floodplain plant communities are an important reference community since many stormwater practices are located with this area. Floodplains occur along streams in both steep and level areas. The most noteworthy plants found along floodplains are River Birch, Willows, Poplars, Maple, Sweet Gum, Sycamore, Box Elder, Green Ash, American Elm, Swamp White Oak, Bur Oak, Honeylocust and Hackberry. Shrubs commonly found in floodplains include Shrub Willows, Yaupon, Buttonbush, Blackberry, and Elderberry.

D.3.3 Other Considerations in Plant Selection

Use or Function

In selecting plants, consideration must be given to their desired function in the stormwater management facility. Is the plant needed as ground cover, soil stabilizer, biofilter or source of shade? Will the plant be placed for functional or aesthetic purposes? Does the adjacent use provide conflicts or potential problems and require a barrier, screen, or buffer? Nearly every plant and plant location should be provided to serve some function in addition to any aesthetic appeal.

Plant Characteristics

Certain plant characteristics are so obvious, they may actually be overlooked in the plant selection. These are:

- Size
- Shape

For example, tree limbs, after several years, can grow into power lines. A wide growing shrub may block maintenance access to a stormwater facility. Consider how these characteristics can work for you or against you, today and in the future.

Other plant characteristics must be considered to determine how the plant grows and functions seasonally, and whether the plant will meet the needs of the facility today and in the future. Some of these characteristics are:

- ❑ Growth Rate
- ❑ Regeneration Capacity
- ❑ Maintenance Requirements (e.g. mowing, harvesting, leaf collection, etc.)
- ❑ Aesthetics

In urban or suburban settings, a plant's aesthetic interest may be of greater importance. Residents living next to a stormwater system may desire that the facility be appealing or interesting to look at throughout the year. Aesthetics is an important factor to consider in the design of these systems. Failure to consider the aesthetic appeal of a facility to the surrounding residents may result in reduced value to nearby lots. Careful attention to the design and planting of a facility can result in maintained or increased values of a property.

Availability and Cost

Often overlooked in plant selection is the availability from wholesalers and the cost of the plant material. There are many plants listed in landscape books that are not readily available from the nurseries. Without knowledge of what is available, time spent researching and finding the one plant that meets all the needs will be wasted, if it is not available from the growers. It may require shipping, therefore, making it more costly than the budget may allow. Some planting requirements, however, may require a special effort to find the specific plant that fulfills the needs of the site and the function of the plant in the landscape.

Native versus Nonnative Species

This Manual encourages the use of native plants in stormwater management facilities, since they are best suited to thrive under the physiographic and hardiness conditions encountered at a site. Unfortunately, not all native plants provide the desired landscape or appearance, and may not always be available in quantity from local nurseries. Therefore, naturalized plants that are not native species, but can thrive and reproduce in the new area may be a useful alternative.

Because all landscaping needs may not be met by native or naturalized plants, some ornamental and exotic species are provided in this guide that can survive under difficult conditions encountered in a stormwater management facility. Since many stormwater facilities are adjacent to residential areas, the objectives of the stormwater planting plan may shift to resemble the more controlled appearance of nearby yards, or to provide a pleasing view. Great care should be taken; however, when introducing plant species so as not to create a situation where they may become invasive and take over adjacent natural plant communities.

Moisture Status

In landscaping stormwater management facilities, hydrology plays a large role in determining which species will survive in a given location.

For areas that are to be planted within a stormwater management facility it is necessary to determine what type of hydrologic zones will be created within the facility.

The six zones shown in Table F-1 in the next section describe the different conditions encountered in stormwater management facilities. Every facility does not necessarily reflect all of these zones. The hydrologic zones designate the degree of tolerance the plant exhibits to differing degrees of inundation by

water. Each zone has its own set of plant selection criteria based on the hydrology of the zone, the stormwater functions required of the plant and the desired landscape effect.

D.4 Specific Landscaping Criteria for Structural Stormwater Controls

D.4.1 Stormwater Ponds and Wetlands

Stormwater ponds and wetlands are engineered basins and wetland areas designed to control and treat stormwater runoff. Aquatic vegetation plays an important role in pollutant removal in both stormwater ponds and wetlands. In addition, vegetation can enhance the appearance of a pond or wetland, stabilize side slopes, serve as wildlife habitat, and can temporarily conceal unsightly trash and debris.

Within a stormwater pond or wetland, there are various hydrologic zones as shown in Table D-1 that must be considered in plant selection. These hydrologic zones designate the degree of tolerance a plant must have to differing degrees of inundation by water. Hydrologic conditions in an area may fluctuate in unpredictable ways; thus the use of plants capable of tolerating wide varieties of hydrologic conditions greatly increases the successful establishment of a planting. Plants suited for specific hydrologic conditions may perish when those conditions change, exposing the soil, and therefore, increasing the chance for erosion. Each of the hydrologic zones is described in more detail below along with examples of appropriate plant species.

Table D-1 Hydrologic Zones

<u>Zone #</u>	<u>Zone Description</u>	<u>Hydrologic Conditions</u>
Zone 1	Deep Water Pool	1-6 feet depth (permanent pool)
Zone 2	Shallow Water Bench	Normal pool elevation to 1 foot depth
Zone 3	Shoreline Fringe	Regularly inundated
Zone 4	Riparian Fringe	Periodically inundated
Zone 5	Floodplain Terrace	Infrequently inundated
Zone 6	Upland Slopes	Seldom or never inundated

Zone 1: Deep Water Area (1- 6 Feet)

Ponds and wetlands both have deep pool areas that comprise Zone 1. These pools range from one to six feet in depth, and are best colonized by submergent plants, if at all.

This pondscaping zone is *not* routinely planted for several reasons. First, the availability of plant materials that can survive and grow in this zone is limited, and it is also feared that plants could clog the stormwater facility outlet structure. In many cases, these plants will gradually become established through natural recolonization (e.g., transport of plant fragments from other ponds via the feet and legs of waterfowl). If submerged plant material is commercially available and clogging concerns are addressed, this area can be planted. The function of the planting is to reduce resedimentation and improve oxidation while creating a greater aquatic habitat.

- Plant material must be able to withstand constant inundation of water of one foot or greater in depth.
- Plants may be submerged partially or entirely.

- ❑ Plants should be able to enhance pollutant uptake.
- ❑ Plants may provide food and cover for waterfowl, desirable insects, and other aquatic life.

Some suggested emergent or submergent species include, but are not limited to: Water Lily, Deepwater Duck Potato, Spatterdock, Wild Celery and Redhead Grass.

Zone 2: Shallow Water Bench (*Normal Pool To 1 Foot*)

Zone 2 includes all areas that are inundated below the normal pool to a depth of one foot, and is the primary area where emergent plants will grow in stormwater wetlands. Zone 2 also coincides with the aquatic bench found in stormwater ponds. This zone offers ideal conditions for the growth of many emergent wetland species. These areas may be located at the edge of the pond or on low mounds of earth located below the surface of the water within the pond. When planted, Zone 2 can be an important habitat for many aquatic and nonaquatic animals, creating a diverse food chain. This food chain includes predators, allowing a natural regulation of mosquito populations, thereby reducing the need for insecticidal applications.

- ❑ Plant material must be able to withstand constant inundation of water to depths between six inches and one foot deep.
- ❑ Plants will be partially submerged.
- ❑ Plants should be able to enhance pollutant uptake.
- ❑ Plants may provide food and cover for waterfowl, desirable insects and other aquatic life.

Common emergent wetland plant species used for stormwater wetlands and on the aquatic benches of stormwater ponds include, but are not limited to: Arrowhead/Duck Potato, Soft Rush, various Sedges, Softstem Bulrush, Cattail, Switchgrass, Southern Blue-Flag Iris, Swamp Hibiscus, Swamp Lily, Pickerelweed, Pond Cypress and various Asters.

Zone 3: Shoreline Fringe (*Regularly Inundated*)

Zone 3 encompasses the shoreline of a pond or wetland, and extends vertically about one foot in elevation from the normal pool. This zone includes the safety bench of a pond, and may also be periodically inundated if storm events are subject to extended detention. This zone occurs in a wet pond or shallow marsh and can be the most difficult to establish since plants must be able to withstand inundation of water during storms, when wind might blow water into the area, or the occasional drought during the summer. In order to stabilize the soil in this zone, Zone 3 must have a vigorous cover.

- ❑ Plants should stabilize the shoreline to minimize erosion caused by wave and wind action or water fluctuation.
- ❑ Plant material must be able to withstand occasional inundation of water. Plants will be partially submerged partially at this time.
- ❑ Plant material should, whenever possible, shade the shoreline, especially the southern exposure. This will help to reduce the water temperature.
- ❑ Plants should be able to enhance pollutant uptake.
- ❑ Plants may provide food and cover for waterfowl, songbirds, and wildlife. Plants could also be selected and located to control overpopulation of waterfowl.
- ❑ Plants should be located to reduce human access, where there are potential hazards, but should not block the maintenance access.
- ❑ Plants should have very low maintenance requirements, since they may be difficult or impossible to reach.
- ❑ Plants should be resistant to disease and other problems which require chemical applications (since

chemical application is not advised in stormwater ponds).

Many of the emergent wetland plants that perform well in Zone 2 also thrive in Zone 3. Some other species that do well include Broom Grass, Upland Sea-Oats, Dwarf Tickseed, various Ferns, Hawthorns. If shading is needed along the shoreline, the following tree species are suggested: Boxelder, Ash, Willow, Red Maples and Willow Oak.

Zone 4: Riparian Fringe (*Periodically Inundated*)

Zone 4 extends from one to four feet in elevation above the normal pool. Plants in this zone are subject to periodic inundation after storms, and may experience saturated or partly saturated soil inundation. Nearly all of the temporary extended detention (ED) storage area is included within this zone.

- ❑ Plants must be able to withstand periodic inundation of water after storms, as well as occasional drought during the warm summer months.
- ❑ Plants should stabilize the ground from erosion caused by run-off.
- ❑ Plants should shade the low flow channel to reduce the pool warming whenever possible.
- ❑ Plants should be able to enhance pollutant uptake.
- ❑ Plant material should have very low maintenance, since they may be difficult or impossible to access.
- ❑ Plants may provide food and cover for waterfowl, songbirds and wildlife. Plants may also be selected and located to control overpopulation of waterfowl.
- ❑ Plants should be located to reduce pedestrian access to the deeper pools.

Some frequently used plant species in Zone 4 include Broom Grass, Yellow Indian Grass, Ironweed, Joe Pye Weed, Lilies, Flatsedge, Hollies, Forsythia, Lovegrass, Hawthorn and Sugar Maples.

Zone 5: Floodplain Terrace (*Infrequently Inundated*)

Zone 5 is periodically inundated by flood waters that quickly recede in a day or less. Operationally, Zone 5 extends from the maximum two year or C_p water surface elevation up to the 25 or 100 year maximum water surface elevation. Key landscaping objectives for Zone 5 are to stabilize the steep slopes characteristic of this zone, and establish a low maintenance, natural vegetation.

- ❑ Plant material should be able to withstand occasional but brief inundation during storms, although typical moisture conditions may be moist, slightly wet, or even swing entirely to drought conditions during the dry weather periods.
- ❑ Plants should stabilize the basin slopes from erosion.
- ❑ Ground cover should be very low maintenance, since they may be difficult to access on steep slopes or if the frequency of mowing is limited. A dense tree cover may help reduce maintenance and discourage resident geese.
- ❑ Plants may provide food and cover for waterfowl, songbirds, and wildlife.
- ❑ Placement of plant material in Zone 5 is often critical, as it often creates a visual focal point and provides structure and shade for a greater variety of plants.

Some commonly planted species in Zone 5 include many wildflowers or native grasses, many Fescues, many Viburnums, Witch Hazel, Blueberry, American Holly, American Elderberry and Red Oak.

Zone 6: Upland Slopes (*Seldom or Never Inundated*)

The last zone extends above the maximum 100 year water surface elevation, and often includes the outer buffer of a pond or wetland. Unlike other zones, this upland area may have sidewalks, bike paths, retaining walls, and maintenance access roads. Care should be taken to locate plants so they will not overgrow these routes or create hiding places that might make the area unsafe.

- ❑ Plant material is capable of surviving the particular conditions of the site. Thus, it is not necessary to select plant material that will tolerate any inundation. Rather, plant selections should be made based on soil condition, light, and function within the landscape.
- ❑ Ground covers should emphasize infrequent mowing to reduce the cost of maintaining this landscape.

Placement of plants in Zone 6 is important since they are often used to create a visual focal point, frame a desirable view, screen undesirable views, or serve as a buffer.

Some frequently used plant species in Zone 6 include most ornamentals (as long as soils drain well, many wildflowers or native grasses, Linden, False Cypress, Magnolia, most Spruce, Mountain Ash and most Pine.

- ❑ Table D-2 provides a list of selected wetland plants for stormwater ponds and wetlands. For hydrologic zones 1-4, provide shade to allow a greater variety of plant materials. Particular attention should be paid to seasonal color and texture of these plantings.

Table D-2 Wetland Plants (Herbaceous Species) for Stormwater Facilities

Scientific Name	Common Name	Hydrologic Zone
<i>Acorus calamus</i>	Sweetflag	2
<i>Andropogon glomeratus</i>	Bushy Broom Grass	3
<i>Andropogon virginicus</i>	Broom Grass	4
<i>Canna flaccida</i>	Golden Canna	2
<i>Carex spp.</i>	Caric Sedges	2
<i>Chasmanthium latifolium</i>	Upland Sea-Oats	3
<i>Coreopsis leavenworthii</i>	Tickseed	2
<i>Coreopsis tinctoria</i>	Dwarf Tickseed	3
<i>Crinum americanum</i>	Swamp Lily	2
<i>Cyperus odoratus</i>	Flat Sedge	2
<i>Eleocharis cellulose</i>	Coastal Spikerush	2
<i>Eleocharis interstincta</i>	Jonited Spikerush	2
<i>Eupatorium fistulosum</i>	Joe Pye Weed	4
<i>Helianthus angustifolius</i>	Swamp Sunflower	2
<i>Hibiscus coccineus</i>	Swamp Hibiscus	2
<i>Iris Louisiana</i>	Louisiana Iris	2
<i>Iris virginica</i>	Southern Blue-Flag	2

Scientific Name	Common Name	Hydrologic Zone
<i>Juncus effuses</i>	Soft Rush	2
<i>Leersia oryzoides</i>	Rice Cut Grass	2
<i>Liatris spicata</i>	Spiked Gayfeather	3
<i>Lobelia cardinalis</i>	Cardinal Flower	3
<i>Nuphar luteum</i>	Spatterdock	1
<i>Nymphaea mexicana</i>	Yellow Water Lily	1
<i>Nymphaea odorata</i>	Fragrant Water Lily	1
<i>Osmunda cinnamomea</i>	Cinnamon Fern	3
<i>Osmunda regalis</i>	Royal Fern	3
<i>Panicum virgatum</i>	Switchgrass	2
<i>Peltandra virginica</i>	Green Arum	2
<i>Polygonum hydropiperoides</i>	Smartweed	2
<i>Pontederia cordata</i>	Pickernelweed	2
<i>Pontederia lanceolata</i>	Pickernelweed	2
<i>Rudbeckia hirta</i>	Black-eyed Susan	4
<i>Sagittaria lancifolia</i>	Lance-leaf Arrowhead	2
<i>Sagittaria latifolia</i>	Duck Potato	2
<i>Saururus cernuus</i>	Lizard's Tail	2
<i>Scirpus americanus</i>	Three-square	2
<i>Scirpus californicus</i>	Giant Bulrush	2
<i>Scirpus validus</i>	Softstem Bulrush	2
<i>Sorgham nutans</i>	Yellow Indian Grass	4
<i>Thalia geniculata</i>	Alligator Flag	2
<i>Vernonia gigantea</i>	Ironweed	4
<i>Woodwardia virginica</i>	Virginia Chain Fern	2

Source: Aquascape, Inc.



12 to 36 inch depth below normal pool elevation
 Water Lily, Deep Water Duck Potato, Spatterdock, Wild Celery, Redhead Grass



0 to 12 inch depth below normal pool elevation
 Arrowhead/Duck Potato, Soft Rush, various Sedges, Softstem Bulrush, Switchgrass, Southern Blue Flag Iris, Swamp Hibiscus, Swamp Lily, Pickerelweed, Pond Cypress, various Asters



0 to 12 inch elevation above normal pool elevation
 Various species from above, Broom Grass, Upland Sea-Oats, Dwarf Tickseed, various Ferns, Hawthorns, Boxelder, Ash, Willow, Red Maple, Willow Oak



1 to 4 foot elevation above normal pool elevation
 Broom Grass, Yellow Indian Grass, Ironweed, Joe Pye Weed, various Lilies, Flatsedge, Hollies, Lovegrass, Hawthorn, Sugar Maple



C_p to Q_p or Q_f water surface elevation
 Many wildflowers or native grasses, many Fescues, many Viburnums, Witch Hazel, Blueberry, American Holly, American Elderberry, Red Oak



Q_f water surface elevation and above
 Many ornamentals as long as soils drain well, many wildflowers or native grasses, Linden, False Cypress, Magnolia, most Spruce, Mountain Ash, most Pine

Figure D-3 Legend of Hydrologic Zones Around Stormwater Facilities

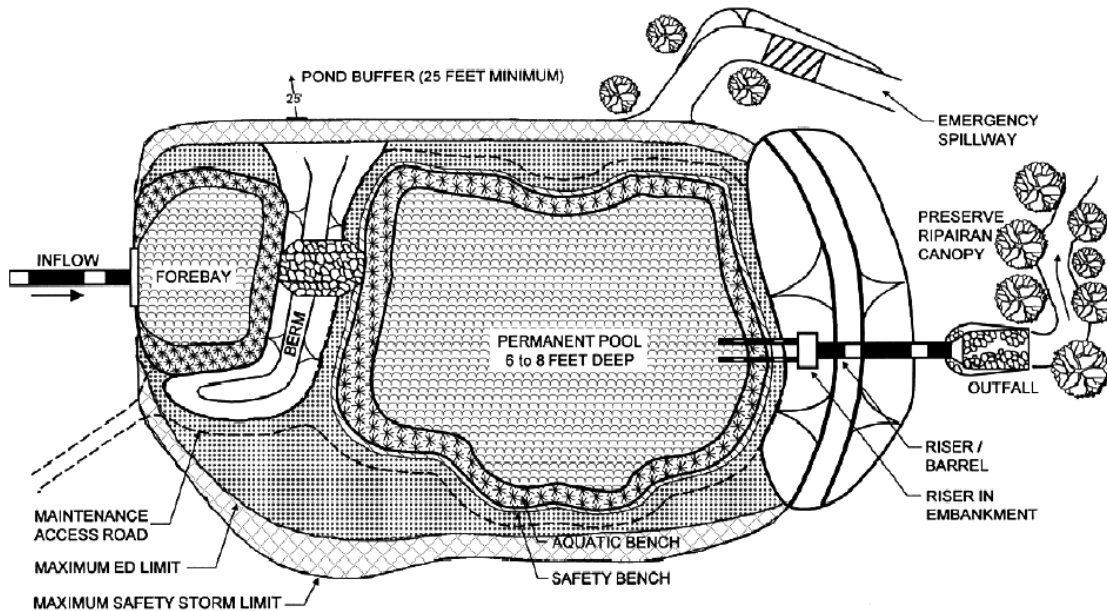


Figure D-4 Plan View of Hydrologic Zones around Stormwater Wet ED Pond

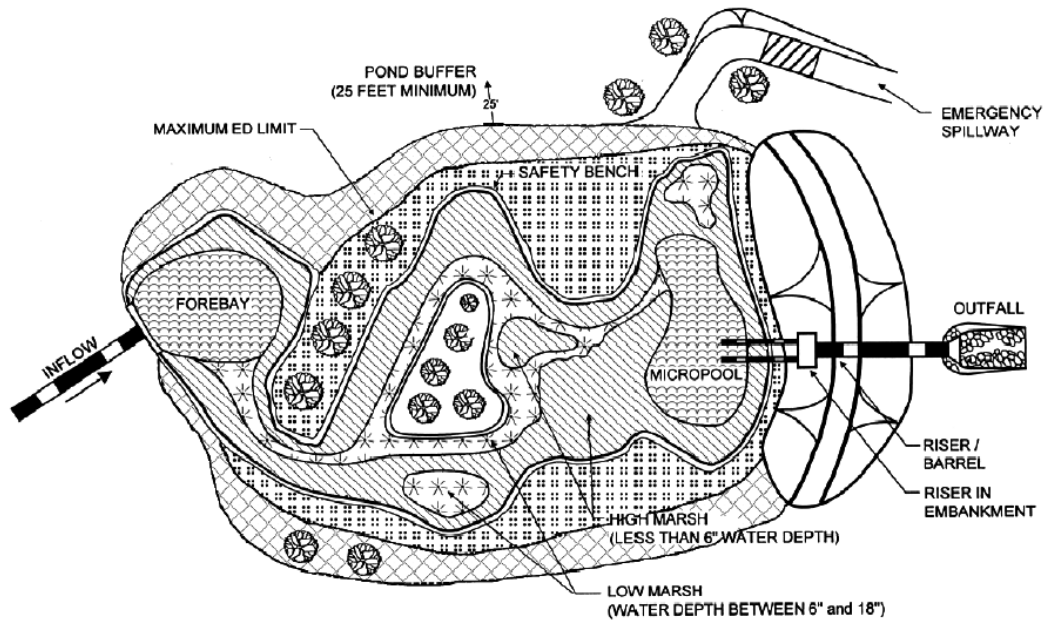


Figure D-5 Plan View of Hydrologic Zones around Stormwater ED Shallow Wetland

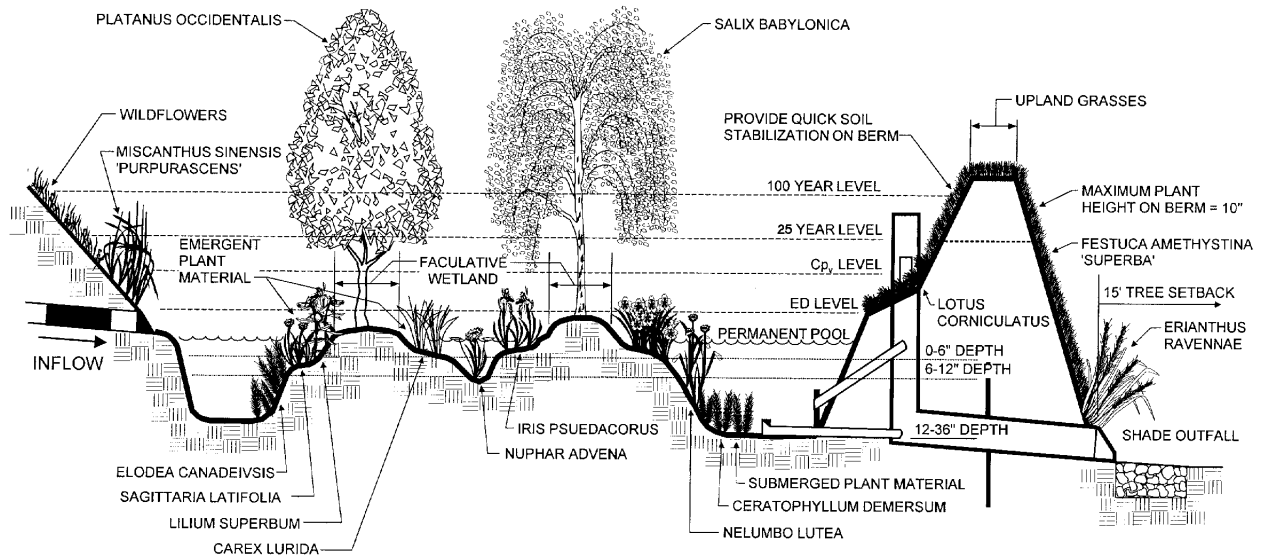


Figure D-6 Section Typical Shallow ED Wetland

D.4.2 Bioretention Areas

Bioretention areas are structural stormwater controls that capture and treat runoff using soils and vegetation in shallow basins or landscaped areas. Landscaping is therefore critical to the performance and function of these facilities. Below are guidelines for soil characteristics, mulching, and plant selection for bioretention areas.

Planting Soil Bed Characteristics

The characteristics of the soil for the bioretention facility are perhaps as important as the facility location and size. The soil must be permeable enough to allow runoff to filter through the media, while having characteristics suitable to promote and sustain a robust vegetative cover crop. In addition, much of the nutrient pollutant uptake (nitrogen and phosphorus) is accomplished through adsorption and microbial activity within the soil profile. Therefore, the soils must balance soil chemistry and physical properties to support biotic communities above and below ground.

The planting soil should be a sandy loam, loamy sand, loam, or a loam/sand mix (should contain a minimum of 35 to 60% sand, by volume). The clay content for these soils should be less than 25% by volume. Soils should fall within the SM, ML, SC classifications of the Unified Soil Classification System (USCS). A permeability of at least 1.0 feet per day (0.5"/hr) is required (a conservative value of 0.5 feet per day should be used for design). The soil should be free of stones, stumps, roots, or other woody material over 1" in diameter. Brush or seeds from noxious weeds, such as Johnson Grass, Mugwort, Nutsedge, and Canadian Thistle should not be present in the soils. Placement of the planting soil should be in lifts of 12 to 18", loosely compacted (tamped lightly with a dozer or backhoe bucket). The specific characteristics are presented in Table D-3.

Table D-3 Planting Soil Characteristics

Parameter	Value
pH range	5.2 to 7.00
Organic matter	1.5 to 4.0%
Magnesium	35 lbs. per acre, minimum (0.0072 lbs/Sq yd)
Phosphorus (P ₂ O ₅)	75 lbs. per acre, minimum (0.0154 lbs/Sq yd)
Potassium (K ₂ O)	85lbs. per acre, minimum (0.0175 lbs/Sq yd)
Soluble salts	500 ppm
Clay	10 to 25%
Silt	30 to 55%
Sand	35 to 60%

(Adapted from EQR, 1996; ETAB, 1993)

Mulch Layer

The mulch layer plays an important role in the performance of the bioretention system. The mulch layer helps maintain soil moisture and avoids surface sealing which reduces permeability. Mulch helps prevent erosion, and provides a micro-environment suitable for soil biota at the mulch/soil interface. It also serves as a pretreatment layer, trapping the finer sediments which remain suspended after the primary pretreatment. The mulch layer should be standard landscape style, single or double, shredded hardwood mulch or chips. The mulch layer should be well aged (stockpiled or stored for at least 12 months), uniform in color, and free of other materials, such as weed seeds, soil, roots, etc. The mulch should be applied to a maximum depth of three inches. Grass clippings should not be used as a mulch material.

Planting Plan Guidance

Plant material selection should be based on the goal of simulating a terrestrial forested community of native species. Bioretention simulates an ecosystem consisting of an upland-oriented community dominated by trees, but having a distinct community, or sub-canopy, of understory trees, shrubs and herbaceous materials. The intent is to establish a diverse, dense plant cover to treat stormwater runoff and withstand urban stresses from insect and disease infestations, drought, temperature, wind, and exposure.

The proper selection and installation of plant materials is key to a successful system. There are essentially three zones within a bioretention facility (Figure D-7). The lowest elevation supports plant species adapted to standing and fluctuating water levels. The middle elevation supports a slightly drier group of plants, but still tolerates fluctuating water levels. The outer edge is the highest elevation and generally supports plants adapted to dryer conditions. A sample of appropriate plant materials for bioretention facilities are included in Table D-4. More potential bioretention species can be found in the wetland plant list in subsection D.5.

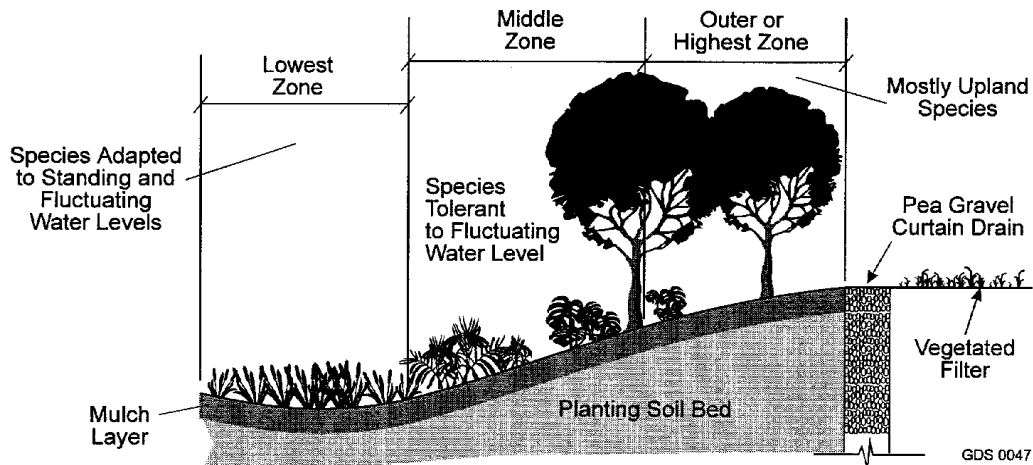


Figure D-7 Planting Zones for Bioretention Facilities

The layout of plant material should be flexible, but should follow the general principals described below. The objective is to have a system that resembles a random and natural plant layout, while maintaining optimal conditions for plant establishment and growth.

- Native plant species should be specified over exotic or foreign species.
- Appropriate vegetation should be selected based on the zone of hydric tolerance
- Species layout should generally be random and natural.

The tree-to-shrub ratio should be 2:1 to 3:1. On average, the trees should be spaced 8 feet apart. Plants should be placed at regular intervals to replicate a natural forest. Woody vegetation should not be specified at inflow locations.

A canopy should be established with an understory of shrubs and herbaceous materials.

- Woody vegetation should not be specified in the vicinity of inflow locations.
- Trees should be planted primarily along the perimeter of the bioretention area.
- Urban stressors (e.g., wind, sun, exposure, insect and disease infestation, drought) should be

considered when laying out the planting plan.

- ❑ Noxious weeds should not be specified.
- ❑ Aesthetics and visual characteristics should be a prime consideration.
- ❑ Traffic and safety issues must be considered.
- ❑ Existing and proposed utilities must be identified and considered.

Plant materials should conform to the American Standard Nursery Stock, published by the American Association of Nurserymen, and should be selected from certified, reputable nurseries. Planting specifications should be prepared by the designer and should include a sequence of construction, a description of the contractor's responsibilities, a planting schedule and installation specifications, initial maintenance, and a warranty period and expectations of plant survival. Table D-5 presents some typical issues for planting specifications. Figure D-8 shows an example of a sample planting plan for a bioretention area.

Table D-4 Commonly Used Species for Bioretention Areas

Trees	Shrubs	Herbaceous Species
<i>Acer rubrum</i> Red Maple	<i>Aesculus parviflora</i> Bottlebrush Buckeye	<i>Andropogon virginicus</i> Broomsedge
<i>Betula nigra</i> River Birch	<i>Aronia arbutifolia</i> Red Chokeberry	<i>Eupatorium perpurea</i> Joe Pye Weed
<i>Juniperus virginiana</i> Eastern Red Cedar	<i>Fothergilla gardenii</i> Fothergilla	<i>Hemerocallis spp.</i> Day Lily
<i>Koelreuteria paniculata</i> Golden Rain Tree	<i>Hamamelis virginiana</i> Witch Hazel	<i>Iris pseudacorus</i> Yellow Iris
<i>Nyssa sylvatica</i> Black Gum	<i>Hypericum densiflorum</i> Common St. Johns Wort	<i>Lobelia cardinalis</i> Cardinal Flower
<i>Platanus acerifolia</i> London Plane-Tree	<i>Ilex glabra</i> Inkberry	<i>Panicum virgatum</i> Switchgrass
<i>Platanus occidentalis</i> Sycamore	<i>Ilex verticillata</i> Winterberry	<i>Pennisetum alopecuroides</i> Fountaingrass
<i>Quercus palustris</i> Pin Oak	<i>Juniperus horizontalis</i> Creeping Juniper	<i>Rudbeckia laciniata</i> Greenhead Coneflower
<i>Quercus phellos</i> Willow Oak	<i>Lindera benzoin</i> Spicebush	<i>Scirpus cyperinus</i> Woolgrass
<i>Salix nigra</i> Black willow	<i>Myrica pennsylvanica</i> Bayberry	<i>Vernonia gigantea</i> Ironweed

Table D-5 Planting Plan Specification Issues for Bioretention Areas

Specification Element	Elements
Sequence of Construction	Describe site preparation activities, soil amendments, etc.; address erosion and sediment control procedures; specify step-by-step procedure for plant installation.
Contractor's Responsibilities	Specify the contractors responsibilities, such as watering, care of plant material during transport, timeliness of installation, repairs due to vandalism, etc.
Planting Schedule and Specifications	Specify the materials to be installed, the type of materials (e.g., B&B, bare root, containerized); time of year of installations, sequence of installation of types of plants; fertilization, stabilization seeding, if required; watering and general care.
Maintenance	Specify inspection periods; mulching frequency; removal and replacement of dead and diseased vegetation; treatment of diseased trees; watering schedule after initial installation (once per day for 14 days is common); repair and replacement of staking and wires.
Warranty	Specify warranty period, the required survival rate, and expected condition of plant species at the end of the warranty.

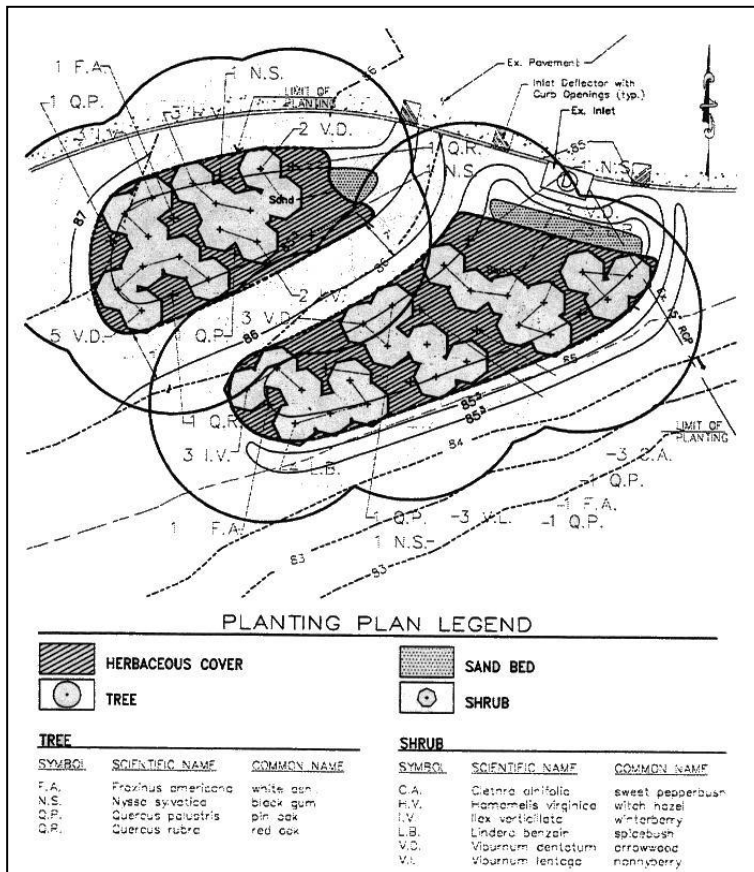


Figure D-8 Sample Bioretention Area Planting Plan
(Source: VDCR, 1999)

D.4.3 Surface Sand Filters and Infiltration Trenches

Both surface sand filters and infiltration trenches can be designed with a grass cover to aid in pollutant removal and prevent clogging. The sand filter or trench is covered with permeable topsoil and planted with grass in a landscaped area. Properly planted, these facilities can be designed to blend into natural surroundings.

Grass should be capable of withstanding frequent periods of inundation and drought. Vegetated filter strips and buffers should fit into and blend with surrounding area. Native grasses are preferable, if compatible.

Design Constraints:

- Check with your local review authority to see if the planning of a grass cover or turf over a sand filter or infiltration trench is allowed.
- Do not plant trees or provide shade within 15 feet of infiltration or filtering area or where leaf litter will collect and clog infiltration area.
- Do not locate plants to block maintenance access to the facility.
- Sod areas with heavy flows that are not stabilized with erosion control mats.
- Divert flows temporarily from seeded areas until stabilized.
- Planting on any area requiring a filter fabric should include material selected with care to insure that no tap roots will penetrate the filter fabric.

D.4.4 Enhanced Swales, Grass Channels and Filter Strips

Table F-6 provides a number of grass species that perform well in the stressful environment of an open channel structural control such as an enhanced swale or grass channel, or for grass filter strips. In addition, wet swales may include other wetland species (see D.4.1). Select plant material capable of salt tolerance in areas that may include high salt levels.

Table D.6 Common Grass Species for Dry and Wet Swales and Grass Channels

Common Name	Scientific Name	Notes
Bermuda grass	<i>Cynodon dactylon</i>	1,2
Big Bluestem	<i>Andropogon gerardii</i>	2, 3, Not for wet swales
Creeping Bentgrass	<i>Agrostis palustris</i>	1,2
Red Fescue	<i>Festuca rubra</i>	Not for wet swales
Reed Canary grass	<i>Phalaris arundinacea</i>	Wet swales
Witchgrass	<i>Panicum capillare</i>	2,3, Not for wet swales
Rescuegrass	<i>Bromus unioloides</i>	2, Not for wet swales
Switchgrass	<i>Panicum virgatum</i>	3
Buffalograss	<i>Buchloe dactyloides</i>	1, 2, 3
Bushy Bluestem	<i>Andropogon glomeratus</i>	2,3
Virginia Wildrye	<i>Elymus virginicus</i>	2,3,4 Not for wet swales

Common Name	Scientific Name	Notes
Texas Bluegrass	<i>Poa arachnifera</i>	2,3, Not for wet swales
Common Sixweeksgrass	<i>Vulpia octoflora</i>	2,3
Green Sprangletop	<i>Leptochloa dubia</i>	2,3
Canada Wildrye	<i>Elymus canadensis</i>	2,3,4, Wet swales
Longleaf Chasmanthium	<i>Chasmanthium latifolium</i>	2,3,4
Eastern Gamagrass	<i>Tripsacum dactyloides</i>	2,3
<p>Note 1: These grasses are sod-forming and can withstand frequent inundation, and are thus ideal for the swale or grass channel environment. Most are salt-tolerant, as well.</p> <p>Note 2: Where possible, one or more of these grasses should be in the seed mixes</p> <p>Note 3: Native Texas grasses</p> <p>Note 4: Shade tolerant</p>		

D.5 Trees and Shrubs for Stormwater Facilities

The following pages present a detailed list of wetland trees and shrubs that may be used for stormwater management facilities such as stormwater ponds, stormwater wetlands and bioretention areas. (Source: Garber and Moorhead, 1999)

Table D-7 Wetland indicator status, growth form, flood tolerance and seed dispersal and treatment for selected native wetland trees and shrubs'

Species	Indicator*	Form	Flood Tolerance**	Seed Dispersal***	Seed Treatments****	Comments
Boxelder <i>Acer negundo</i>	FACW-	Tree	T	Sept.-Mar.	Cold Strat. 30-40 Days (Mech. Rup. Pericarp)	Can propagate by softwood cuttings
Red Maple <i>Acer rubrum</i>	FAC	Tree	T	Apr.-July	Strat. not required	Can propagate by softwood cuttings, tissue culture
Silver Maple <i>Acer saccharinum</i>	FAC	Tree	T	Apr.-June	Strat. not req.	
Red Buckeye <i>Aesculus pavia</i>	FAC-	Shrub	NE	Sept.-Nov.	Strat. not req.	Plant seed as soon as collected. Do not let dry out.
Painted Buckeye <i>Aesculus sylvatica</i>	NI	Shrub	NE	July-Aug.	Cold Strat. 90 Days	
Hazel Alder <i>Alnus serrulata</i>	OBL	Tree	NE	Sept.-Oct.	Cold Strat. 30-60 Days	Can propagate by cuttings, tissue culture
Common Pawpaw <i>Asimina triloba</i>	FAC-	Tree	I	Sept.-Oct.	Scarification Required Cold Strat. 60-90 Days	

			Flood	Seed	Seed	
Species	Indicator*	Form	Tolerance**	Dispersal***	Treatments****	Comments
River Birch <i>Betula nigra</i>	FACW	Tree	IT	May-June	Cold Strat. 60-90 Days	Can propagate by softwood cuttings
American Hornbeam <i>Carpinus caroliniana</i>	FAC	Tree	WT	Oct.-Spring	Cold Strat. 60 Days	
Water Hickory C <i>Carya aquatica</i>	OBL	Tree	IT	Oct.-Dec.	Cold Strat. 30-90 Days Warm Strat. 60 Days	
Bitternut Hickory I <i>Carya cordiformis</i>	FAC	Tree	NE	Sept.-Dec.	Cold Strat. 90 Days	
Pecan <i>Carya illinoensis</i>	FAC +	Tree	IT	Sept.-Dec.	Cold Strat. 30-90 Days	
Shellbark Hickory <i>Carya laciniosa</i>	FAC	Tree	NE	Sept.-Oct.	Cold Strat. 90-120 Days	
Sugarberry <i>Celtis laevigata</i>	FAC	Tree	IT	Oct.-Dec.	Cold Strat. 60-90 Days	
Common Buttonbush <i>Cephalanthus occidentalis</i>	OBL	Shrub	VT	Sept.-Oct.	Strat. not req.	
Atlantic White Cedar <i>Chamaecyparis thyoides</i>	OBL	Tree	T	Oct.-March	Warm Strat. 30 Days Cold Strat. 30 Days	
Slash Pine <i>Pinus elliotii</i>	NI	Tree	IT	Oct.	Cold Strat. 30 Days	
Spruce Pine <i>Pinus glabra</i>	FACW	Tree	IT	Oct.-Nov.	Cold Strat. 28 Days	
Pond Pine <i>Pinus serotina</i>	FACW +	Tree	T	Spring	Cold Strat. 30 Days	Cones often remain closed after ripening
Loblolly Pine <i>Pinus taeda</i>	FAC-	Tree	IT	Oct.-Dec.	Cold Strat. 30-60 Days	
American Sycamore <i>Platanus occidentalis</i>	FAC +	Tree	T	Feb.-Apr.	Cold Strat. 60-90 Days	
Eastern Cottonwood <i>Populus deltoides</i>	FAC	Tree	VT	May-Aug.	Strat. not req.	Can propagate by cuttings
Swamp Cottonwood <i>Populus heterophylla</i>	OBL	Tree	VT	Apr.-July	Strat. not req.	Can propagate by cuttings
Wafer Ash <i>Ptelea trifoliata</i>	FAC	Shrub	NE	Sept.	Cold Strat. 90-120 Days	
Swamp White Oak <i>Quercus bicolor</i>	FACW +	Tree	T	Aug.-Dec.	Strat. not req.	White oak group, check native range
Cherrybark Oak <i>Quercus pagoda</i>	FAC +	Tree	I	Aug.-Dec. Cold Strat.	30-90 Days	Red Oak group
Laurel Oak <i>Quercus laurifolia</i>	FACW	Tree	IT	Aug.-Dec.	Cold Strat. 30-90 Days	Red Oak group
Overcup Oak <i>Quercus lyrata</i>	OBL	Tree	T	Aug.-Dec.	Strat. not req.	White Oak group
Swamp Chestnut Oak <i>Quercus michauxii</i>	FACW	Tree	I	Aug.-Dec.	Strat. not req.	White Oak group

Species	Indicator*	Form	Flood Tolerance**	Seed Dispersal***	Seed Treatments****	Comments
Water Oak <i>Quercus nigra</i>	FAC+	Tree	T	Aug.-Dec.	Cold Strat. 30-90 Days	Red Oak group
Willow Oak <i>Quercus phellos</i>	FACW	Tree	T	Aug.-Dec.	Cold Strat. 30-90 Days	Red Oak group
Shumard Oak <i>Quercus shumardii</i>	FAC	Tree	IT	Aug.-Dec.	Cold Strat. 30-90 Days	Red Oak group
Coastal Plain Willow <i>Salix caroliniana</i>	FACW+	Tree	VT	Mar.-Apr.	Strat. not req.	Seed will not remain viable in storage; plant within 10 days after collection. Can propagate by cuttings
Black Willow <i>Salix nigra</i>	FACW+	Tree	VT	June-July	Not required.	Seed will not remain viable in storage. Plant within 10 days after collection. Can propagate by cuttings
Baldcypress <i>Taxodium distichum</i> var. <i>distichum</i>	OBL	Tree	VT	Oct.-Nov.	Cold Strat. 90 Days.	Soak seed for 5 min. in ethyl alcohol before placing in cold stratification.
Pondcypress <i>Taxodium distichum</i> var. <i>nutans</i>	OBL	Tree	VT	Oct.-Nov.	Cold Strat. 60-90 Days.	Soak seed for 24 to 48 hrs. in 0.0196 citric acid before placing in cold stratification.
American Elm <i>Ulmus Americana</i>	FAC	Tree	T	Mar.-June	Cold Strat. 60-90 Days	Can propagate by cuttings
Slippery elm <i>Ulmus rubra</i>	FAC	Tree	I	Apr.-June	Cold Strat. 60-90 Days	Can propagate by cuttings
Rough-Leaf Dogwood <i>Cornus drummondii</i>	FAC	Tree	T	Aug.-Jan.	Warm Strat. 70°-80° 1 Day	
					Cold Strat. 30 Days	
Hawthornes <i>Crataegus spp.</i>	FAC	Shrub	IT	Fall-Winter	May Req. Scarification Warm Strat. 70°-80° 30-90 Days	
					Cold Strat. 90-180 Days	
Common Persimmon <i>Diospyros virginiana</i>	FAC	Tree	T	Oct.-Nov.	Cold Strat. 60-90 Days	
Eastern Burning Bush <i>Euonymus atropurpureus</i>	FAC+	Shrub	NE	Sept.-Oct.	Warm Strat. 68°-86° 60 Days	
					Cold Strat. 60 Days	
Carolina Ash <i>Fraxinus caroliniana</i>	OBL	Shrub	VT	Sept.- Dec.	Cold Strat. 60 Days	
Green Ash <i>Fraxinus pennsylvanica</i>	FACW-	Tree	VT	Oct.-Feb.	Cold Strat. 60-90 Days	
Pumpkin Ash <i>Fraxinus profunda</i>	OBL	Tree	VT	Oct.-Dec.	Cold Strat. 60 Days	
Waterlocust <i>Gleditsia aquatica</i>	OBL	Tree	T	Sept.-Dec.	Req. Scarification	
Loblolly Bay <i>Gordonia laisianthus</i>	FACW-	Tree	T	Fall	Not Established	
Deciduous Holly <i>Illex deciduas</i>	FACW	Shrub	VT	Sept.-Mar.	Warm Strat. 68°-Day, 86°-Night 60 Days Cold Strat.-60 Days	

Species	Indicator*	Form	Flood Tolerance**	Seed Dispersal***	Seed Treatments****	Comments
Spicebush <i>Lindera benzoin</i>	FACW	Shrub	NE	Sept.-Oct.	Cold Strat. 120 Days	
Sweetgum <i>Liquidambar styraciflua</i>	FAC	Tree	T	Sept.-Nov.	Cold Strat. 30 Days	
Yellow Poplar <i>Liriodendron tulipifera</i>	FACU	Tree	I	Oct.-Nov.	Cold Strat. 60-90 Days	
Sweetbay <i>Magnolia virginiana</i>	OBL	Tree	IT	Sept.-Nov.	Cold Strat. 90-180 Days	Can propagate by cuttings
Red Mulberry <i>Morus rubra</i>	FACU	Tree	IT	June-Aug.	Cold Strat. 30-90 Days	
Southern Bayberry <i>Myrica cerifera</i>	FAC	Shrub	NE	Aug.-Oct.	Cold Strat. 60-90 Days	
Water Tupelo <i>Nyssa aquatica</i>	OBL	Tree	VT	Oct.-Nov.	Cold Strat. 30-120 Days	
Ogeechee Tupelo <i>Nyssa ogeche</i>	OBL	Tree	VT	Aug.-Sept.	Cold Strat. 30-120 Days	
Swamp Tupelo <i>Nyssa sylvatica</i> var. <i>biflora</i>	OBL	Tree	VT	Sept.-Dec.	Cold Strat. 30-120 Days	
Redbay <i>Persea borbonia</i>	FACW	Tree	MT	Fall	Not established	

* **Indicator:** OBL-obligate; FACW-facultative wetland; FAC-facultative; FACU-facultative upland.

Indicators may be modified by (+) or (-) suffix; (+) indicates a species more frequently found in wetlands; (-) indicates species less frequently found in wetlands.

** **Flood Tolerance Mature Plants:**

VT-Very Tolerant: Survives flooding for periods of two or more growing seasons.

T-Tolerant: Survives flooding for one growing season.

I-Intermediately Tolerant: Survives one to three months of flooding during growing season

WT-Weakly Tolerant: Survives several days to several weeks of growing-season flooding.

IT-Intolerant: Cannot survive even short periods of a few days or weeks of growing-season flooding.

NE-Not established.

*** **Seed Dispersal:** Approximate dates across natural range of a given species.

**** **Seed Treatments:**

Cold stratification: Place moist seeds in polyethylene plastic bags and place in refrigerated storage at 33°-41° F for specified time.

Warm stratification: Place moist seeds in polyethylene plastic bags at 68°-86° F for specified time. Scarification-mechanical or chemical treatment to increase permeability of seed coat.

Table D-8 Seedling response of selected species to flooding conditions

Species	Water Level	Seedling Survival*	Comments
Boxelder <i>Acer negundo</i>	Total submersion Growing Season	100% at 2 weeks 70% at 3 weeks 36% at 4 weeks 0% at 32 days	Chlorotic leaves after 4 days. Slow recovery.
Red Maple <i>Acer rubrum</i>	Partial submersion Growing season	100% at 5 days 90% at 10 days 0% at 20 days	Adventitious roots developed after 15 days Height growth decreased in saturated soil Soil saturation
	Soil saturation Growing season	Growing season 100% at 32 days	
Silver Maple <i>Acer saccharinum</i>	Total submersion Growing season	100% at 3 weeks	Lower leaves wilt after 2 days. Slow recovery Height growth better at satu- rated conditions than field ca- pacity
	Soil saturation Growing season	100% at 60 days	
River Birch <i>Betula nigra</i>	Soil saturation Growing season	100% at 32 days	Growth severely stunted
Pecan <i>Carya illinoensis</i>	Total submersion Growing season	75% at 4 weeks	
Sugarberry <i>Celtis laevigata</i>	Soil saturation Growing season	100% at 60 days	
Common Buttonbush <i>Cephalanthus occidentalis</i>	Total submersion Growing season	100% at 30 days	
Green Ash <i>Fraxinus pennsylvanica</i>	Total submersion Growing season	100% at 5 days 90% at 10 days 73% at 20 days 20% at 30 days	Lower leaves chlorotic after 8 days Better growth in saturated soil than soil at field capacity
	Partial submersion Growing season	100% at 14 days	
	Soil saturation Growing season	100% at 60 days	
Sweetgum <i>Liquidambar styraciflua</i>	Total submersion Growing season	0% at 32 days	
	Partial submersion Growing season	0% at 3 months	

Adapted from Teskey & Hinkley, 1977

* Seeding survival in relation to length of flooding

Table D-8 continued

Species	Water Level	Seedling Survival*	Comments
Yellow Poplar <i>Liriodendron tulipifera</i>	Partial submersion Growing Season	0% at 2 months No adverse effects	
Water Tupelo <i>Nyssa aquatica</i>	Partial submersion Growing season	90-100% over growing season 32% when seedlings near- ly overtopped	Best growth when water ta- ble fluctuates
Swamp Tupelo <i>Nyssa sylvatica</i> var. <i>bifora</i>	Partial submersion Growing season	90 - 100% over growing season	Poor root growth in stag- nant water
	Soil saturation Growing season	90 - 100% over growing season	Best growth in saturated soil
Slash Pine <i>Pinus elliottii</i>	Partial submersion Growing season	68% at 2 months 12% at 7 months	Root and shoot growth de- creased
Loblolly Pine <i>Pinus taeda</i>			Root & shoot growth re- duced during flooding Dormant season flooding increased height and diam- eter growth
American Sycamore <i>Platanus occidentalis</i>	Total submersion Growing season	100% at 10 days 0% at 30 days	Growth decreased by satu- rated soil
	Soil saturation Grnwina season	95% at 32 days	
Eastern Cottonwood <i>Populus deltoids</i>	Total submersion Growing season	0% at 16 days	Best growth when water ta- ble is 2 feet below surface
	Partial submersion Growing season	90% at 10 days 70% at 20 days 47% at 30 days	High mortality when deep- ly flooded
Cherrybark Oak <i>Quercus pagoda</i>	Total submersion Growing season	87% at 5 days 6% at 10 days 0% at 20 days	Height growth decreased by soil saturation
	Soil saturation Growing season	89% at 15 days 47% at 30 days 13% at 60 days	
Water Oak <i>Quercus nigra</i>	Partial submersion Growing season	Survived 2 months	
Willow Oak <i>Quercus phellos</i>	Soil saturation Growing season	100% at 50 days	Poorer growth in saturated soil than soil at field capac- ity
Shumard Oak <i>Quercus shumardii</i>	Total submersion Growing season	100% at 5 days 90% at 10 days 6% at 20 days	Height growth poorer in saturated soil than soil at field capacity
	Soil saturation Growing season	100% at 30 days 66% at 60 days	
Black Willow <i>Salix nigra</i>	Total submersion Growing season	100% at 30 days	Better height growth in sat- urated soil than soil at field capacity
	Soil saturation Growing season	100% at 60 days	
Baldcypress <i>Taxodium distichum</i> var. <i>disti- chum</i>	Total submersion Growing season	100% at 4 weeks	
American Elm <i>Ulmus Americana</i>	Total submersion Growing season	100% at 10 days 27% at 20 days 0% at 30 days	Height growth decreased in saturated soil
	Soil saturation Growing season	100% at 15 days 94% at 60 days	

* Seeding survival in relation to length of flooding

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Appendix E

Stormwater Computer Models

Stormwater Computer Models and Information Tools

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E.1 Introduction

Stormwater management is becoming increasingly complex. The simple notion of collecting runoff and sending it efficiently to the nearest stream is being replaced with considerations of stormwater quantity and quality control, infrastructure management, master planning and modeling, financing, complaint tracking, and more. Information needs are critical to a successful local program. North Central Texas communities need to both invest in and be aware of new and emerging technologies that can provide the ability to collect, organize, maintain and effectively use vast amounts of data and information for their community's stormwater management activities.

There is a great deal of computer software that has been developed based on the intensive research effort in urban hydrology, hydraulics and stormwater quality. Computer models use the computational power of computers to automate the tedious and time-consuming manual calculations. Most models also include extensive routines for data management, including input and output procedures, and possibly including graphics and statistical capabilities.

Computer modeling became an integral part of storm drainage planning and design in the mid-1970s. Several agencies undertook major software developments, and these were soon supplemented by a plethora of proprietary models, many of which were simply variants on the originals. The proliferation of personal computers in the 1990s has made it possible for virtually every engineer to use state-of-the-art analytical technology for purposes ranging from analysis of individual pipes to comprehensive stormwater management plans for entire cities.

In addition to the simulation of hydrologic and hydraulic processes, computer models can have other uses. They can provide a quantitative means to test alternatives and controls before implementation of expensive measures in the field. If a model has been calibrated and verified at a minimum of one site, it may be used to simulate non-monitored conditions and to extrapolate results to similar ungauged sites. Models may be used to extend time series of flows, stages and quality parameters beyond the duration of measurements, from which statistical performance measures then may be derived. They may also be used for design optimization and real-time control.

A local staff or design engineer will typically use one or more of these pieces of software in stormwater facility design and review, according to the design objectives and available resources. However, it should be kept in mind that proper use of computer modeling packages requires a good knowledge of the operations of the software model and any assumptions that the model makes. The engineer should have knowledge of the hydrological, hydraulic and water quality processes simulated and knowledge of the algorithms employed by the model to perform the simulation.

E.2 Types of Models

In urban stormwater management there are typically three types of computer models that are commonly used: *hydrologic*, *hydraulic* and *water quality* models. There are also a number of other specialty models to simulate ancillary issues (some of which are sub-sets of the three main categories) such as sediment transport, channel stability, lake quality, dissolved oxygen and evapotranspiration, etc.

E.2.1 Hydrologic Models

Hydrologic models attempt to simulate the rainfall-runoff process to tell us “how much water, how often.” They use rainfall information or models to provide runoff characteristics including peak flow, flood hydrograph and flow frequencies. Hydrologic models can be either:

- *Deterministic* – giving one answer for a specific input set, or
- *Stochastic* – involving random inputs giving any number of responses for a given set of parameters;
- *Continuous* – simulating many storm events over a period of time, or
- *Single Event* – simulating one storm event;

- *Lumped* – representing a large area of land use by a single set of parameters, or
- *Distributed* – land areas are broken into many small homogeneous areas each of which has a complete hydrologic calculation made on it.

E.2.2 Hydraulic Models

Hydraulic models take a known flow amount (typically the output of a hydrologic model) and provide information about flow height, location, velocity, direction, and pressure. Hydraulic models share some of the differing characteristics of hydrologic models (continuous vs. single event) and add the following:

- *One-dimensional* – calculating flow information in one direction (e.g. downstream) only, or
- *Multi-dimensional* – calculating flow information in several dimensions (e.g. in and out of the channel and downstream);
- *Steady* – having a single unchanging flow velocity value at a point in the system, or
- *Unsteady* – having changing flow velocities with time;
- *Uniform* – assuming the channel slope and energy slope are equal, or
- *Non-uniform* – solving a more complex formulation of the energy and momentum equations to account for the dynamic nature of flows.

For most problems encountered in hydraulics, a simple one-dimensional, steady model will work well. But if the volume and time distribution of flow are important (for example, in a steeper stream with storage behind a series of high culvert embankments) an unsteady model is needed. If there is a need to predict with accuracy the ebb and flow of floodwater out of a channel (for example in a wide, flat floodplain where there are relief openings under a road) then a 2-dimensional model becomes necessary. If pressure flow and the accurate computation of a hydraulic grade line are important an unsteady, non-uniform model with pressure flow calculating capabilities is needed.

E.2.3 Water Quality Models

The goal in water quality modeling is to adequately simulate the various processes and interactions of stormwater pollution. Water quality models have been developed with an ability to predict loadings of various types of stormwater pollutants.

Water quality models can become very complex if the complete cycle of buildup, wash-off and impact are determined. These models share the various features of hydrologic and hydraulic models in that it is the runoff flow that carries the pollutants. Therefore, a continuous hydrologic model with estimated pollution concentrations becomes a continuous water quality pollution model. Water quality models can reflect pollution from both point and nonpoint sources.

Water quality models tend to have applications that are targeted toward specific pollutants, source types or receiving waters. Some models involve biological processes as well as physical and chemical processes. Often great simplifications or gross assumptions are necessary to be able to model pollutant accumulations, transformations and eventual impacts.

Detailed short time increment predictions of “pollutographs” are seldom needed for the assessment of receiving water quality. Hence, the total storm event loads or mean concentrations are normally adequate. Simple spreadsheet-based loading models involve an estimate of the runoff volume which, when multiplied by an event mean concentration, provide an estimate of pollution loading. Because of the lack of ability to calibrate such models for variable physical parameters, such simple models tend to be more accurate the longer the time period over which the pollution load is averaged. An annual pollutant load prediction may tend toward a central estimate, while any specific storm prediction may be grossly in error when compared to actual loadings because antecedent conditions vary widely from week to week. Simulation models have the ability to adjust a number of loading parameters for calibration

purposes and can simulate pollution accumulation over a long period. They can then more reliably predict loadings for any specific storm event.

While calibration data is not always needed in hydrologic or hydraulic models for an acceptably accurate answer, in water quality models the non-calibrated prediction is often off by orders of magnitude. Water quality predictions are not credible without adequate site-specific data for calibration and verification. However, even without specifically accurate loading values relative effects of pollution abatement controls can be tested using uncalibrated models.

E.2.4 Computer Model Applications

Stormwater computer models can also be categorized by their use or application:

Screening-level models are typically equations or spreadsheet models that give a first estimate of the magnitude of urban runoff quality or quantity. At times this is the only level that is necessary to provide answers. This is true either because the answer needs to be only approximate or because there is no data to justify a more refined procedure.

Planning-level models are used to perform "what if" analysis comparing in a general way design alternatives or control options. They are used to establish flow frequencies, floodplain boundaries, and general pollution loading values.

Design-level models are oriented toward the detailed simulation of a single storm event for the purposes of urban stormwater design. They provide a more complete description of flow or pollution values anywhere in the system of concern and allow for adjustment of various input and output variables in some detail. They can be more exact in the impact of control options, and tend to have a better ability to be calibrated to fit observed data.

Operational models are used to produce actual control decisions during a storm event. They are often linked with SCADA systems. They are often developed from modified or strongly calibrated design models, or can be developed on a site-specific basis to appropriately link with the system of concern and accurately model the important physical phenomena.

E.3 The Modeling Process

E.3.1 Basic Computer Modeling Principles

The following basic principles apply to all forms of computer modeling:

1. All computer models require site-specific information to be supplied by the user. Inputs are the measured or estimated parameters the model needs to make calculations. For example, for basic hydrologic models it might include: area, slope, land use, channel forms and roughness, connectivity, and rainfall. A basic hydraulic model would include: channel slope, discharge, roughness, shape, obstructions or constrictions, and connectivity. Water quality models may add pollution loading or build-up-washoff factors and fate and transport information. All models, for planning and design, allow the modeler to try different combinations of variables to see what happens (called a "what if" analysis).
2. While modeling generally yields more information, simpler methods may provide sufficient information for design or solving management issues. In general, the simplest method that provides the desired analysis should be used. The risk of using a more complex (and presumably "better") model is that it requires more expertise, data, support, etc. to use and understand, with a consequent higher probability of misapplication.
3. If water quality problems are being considered, it still may not be necessary to simulate quality processes since most control strategies are based on hydrologic or hydraulic considerations. Quality

processes are very difficult to simulate accurately. If abatement strategies can be developed without the simulation of water quality parameters, the overall modeling program will be greatly simplified.

Models sometimes may be used to extrapolate beyond the measured data record. It is important to recognize, however, that models do not extend data, but rather generate simulated numbers that should never be assumed to be the same as data collected in the field. Careful consideration should be given when using models to provide input to receiving water quality analyses. The quality response of most receiving waters is relatively insensitive to such short-term variations. In many instances, the total storm load will suffice to determine the receiving water response. Simulation of short time increment changes in concentrations and loads is generally necessary only for analysis of control options, such as storage or high-rate treatment, whose efficiency may depend on the transient behavior of the quality constituents.

The overall modeling process involves: (1) development of study or model objectives, (2) identification of resources and constraints, and finally, (3) the selection and implementation of the model itself.

E.3.2 Model Objectives

It is important to know specifically what answers are needed, to what accuracy, and in what format. Requiring a simple peak flow is far different from needing to know the timing of peaks from several different intersecting watersheds. Estimating future floodplain elevations along a reach is a fundamentally different problem than finding the probability of roadway overtopping.

A review of the problem begins the process of determining the model objectives. These objectives also establish a performance or design criteria for the model. Must the system handle the 25-year storm? Are future conditions important? Which ones? Are annual loadings of pollution adequate? Which pollutants?

Those aspects of the system to be modeled will dictate what models are appropriate for use. For example, if storm sewers are present then an open channel model can be ruled out as an appropriate model for the entire system. If a specific type of hydraulic structure is present that a standard model cannot handle, an alternate way to simulate that structure will be necessary.

Model objectives also explain how the numbers generated from the model will relate to the needs of the study. For example, if a cost-benefit analysis is required, the model results must be interpreted in terms of overall life-cycle cost and not simply in terms of discharge rate.

E.3.3 Model Constraints

Availability of data, funds, time and user ability can potentially constrain modeling solutions. The goal of any modeling effort is to develop an approach that stays within the constraints dictated while addressing the needs of the study identified in the previous step. Data collection/availability and cost are usually the chief constraints.

Sources of existing available data should be researched. Look for data that tends to “ground truth” model outputs. Even partial data can be useful if it helps to validate the model or modeling results. After existing data sources have been identified, the need to gather additional data is assessed. Automated processes and systems such as GIS and GPS can reduce both cost and human error. A consideration of the long-term use of data and its maintenance is necessary. For example, if the model is to eventually become an operational model, the ability to maintain the data in a cost effective way becomes of paramount importance.

Accuracy and the corresponding necessary level of detail are of overriding importance. Accuracy depends on both the accuracy of the input data and the degree to which the model adequately represents the hydrologic, hydraulic or water quality processes being modeled. For example, if lumped hydrologic parameters are adequate, then the cost of the modeling effort can be reduced. However, the ability to determine information within the sub-basin represented by a single parameter is lost. Changing model needs from an average 500-acre sub-basin size to a 50-acre size can increase the cost of a model almost ten fold. Is the information derived worth the cost?

Both risk and uncertainty affect the modeler's ability to predict results accurately. Risk is an estimated chance of an occurrence, such as flooding. Uncertainty is the error associated with measuring or estimating key parameters or functions. Uncertainty arises due to errors in sampling, measurement, estimation and forecasting, and modeling. For hydrologic and hydraulic analysis, stage and discharge are of prime importance. Uncertainty in discharge is due to short or nonexistent flood records, inaccurate rainfall-runoff modeling, and inaccuracy in known flood flow regulation where it exists. Stage uncertainty comes from errors and unknowns in roughness, geometry, debris accumulation, sediment effects and others factors.

Accuracy developed in one area can be impacted by rough estimates in another, and the technological gains lost. For example, the gains in accuracy from very precise field surveys of cross sections can be lost if the estimates of roughness coefficients or discharge rates are very approximate.

Sensitivity analysis involves holding all parameters constant except one and assessing the change in output variable of concern with a certain percent change in the input variable. Those variables that are amplified in the output should be estimated with higher accuracy and with a more detailed consideration of the potential range of values and the need for conservative design. The modeler must try to assess how accurate estimates are and to account for risk and uncertainty through estimating the range of potential error and choosing values that balance conservative engineering with cost consciousness. The designer typically develops a "most likely" estimate of a certain design parameter (for example, 10-year storm rainfall or Manning's roughness coefficient) and then uses sensitivity analysis to test the impact of variability in the parameter estimate on the final solution

E.3.4 Selection and Implementation

Once the model objectives and constraints have been evaluated, the model (or models) is selected and the study or design is implemented. Typical steps in model implementation include *validation*, *calibration*, *verification* and *production*.

Validation involves a determination that the model is structured and coded as intended for the range of variables to be encountered in the study. Validation tests key algorithms for accuracy. For example, if a hydrologic model cannot handle short time steps or long time periods it cannot be used without modification. If a certain model begins to lose accuracy at high or low imperviousness or cannot accurately handle backwater situations, and these will be encountered in practice the model cannot be used. Often validation is a one-time effort, after which the modeler is comfortable with the model's "quirks" and knows how to deal with them. Validation often involves pushing parameters to the limit of reasonable extent to test an algorithm. For example, in a hydrologic model infiltration can be reduced to zero to test if the input and output hydrographs are equal. Or the model can be run with small rainfalls using porous soils to determine if no runoff is generated, or only runoff from directly connected impervious areas.

Calibration is the comparison of a model to field measurements, other known estimates of output (e.g. regression equations), or another model known to be accurate, and the subsequent adjustment of the model to best fit those measurements. *Verification* then tests the calibrated model against another set of data not used in the calibration. This step is not always possible due to the general shortage of data of any sort in stormwater management. Goodness of prediction is done through a simple comparison of the difference in observed and predicted peaks, pollution loads, flood elevations or volumes divided by the observed values and expressed as a percentage, or as simple ratio. Assessing the goodness of fit of a hydrograph is done by calculating the sum of the squares of the difference between observed and predicted values at discreet time steps.

Once the model is prepared for use, attention shifts to efficient *production* methods that minimize the potential for errors while maximizing efficiency. Often "production line"-type efforts are used for large modeling projects. However, constant attention must be paid to ensure the execution of correct procedures, detailed documentation of efforts and input/output data sets, and recognition of anomalies that would invalidate a particular model run.

While there is much to be gained from simple user interfaces and black box approaches that simplify the input and output processes, there is an inherent danger that the modeler will not be aware of errors or problems in the modeling process. For example, in hydraulic modeling, shifts from super- to sub-critical flow happen at sharp break points and are reflected in a jump in water surface. If not caught, a model will under predict flow elevation. Numeric instability in mathematical algorithms may give oscillating answers that have nothing to do with reality. A structured review process must be established to insure reasonableness of output and accuracy of input values has been used. Labeling of data sets should be systematic and exact.

E.4 Summary of Commonly-Used Models

Computer models can be simple, representing only a very few measured or estimated input parameters or can be very complex involving twenty times the number of input parameters. The “right” model is the one that: (1) the user thoroughly understands, (2) gives adequately accurate and clearly displayed answers to the key questions, (3) minimizes time and cost, and (4) uses readily available or collected information. Complex models used to answer simple questions are not an advantage. However, simple models that do not model key necessary physical processes are useless.

There is no one engineering model or software that addresses all hydrologic, hydraulic and water quality situations. Design needs and troubleshooting for watershed and stormwater management occur on several different scales and can be either system-wide (i.e., watershed) or localized. System-wide issues can occur on both large and small drainage systems, but generally require detailed, and often expensive, watershed models and/or design tools. The program(s) chosen to address these issues should handle both major and minor drainage systems. Localized issues also exist on both major and minor drainage systems, but unlike system-wide problems, flood and water quality solution alternatives can usually be developed quickly and cheaply using simpler engineering methods and design tools.

Table E.4-1 lists several widely used computer programs and modeling packages. The programs were examined for their applicability to both system-wide and localized issues, the methodologies used for computations, and ease-of-use.

For the purposes of this table, major drainage systems are defined as those draining to larger receiving waters. These are typically FEMA-regulated streams, or lakes or reservoirs. Minor drainage systems are smaller natural and man-made systems that drain to the more major streams. Minor drainage systems can have both closed and open-channel components and can include, but are not limited to, neighborhood storm sewers, culverts, ditches, and tributaries.

A brief description of program capabilities and methodologies are presented in a short discussion of each program.

Table E.4-1 Stormwater Modeling Programs and Design Tools					
	Major System Modeling	Minor System Modeling	Hydrologic Features	Hydraulic Features	Water Quality Features
Hydrology Software					
HEC-1	X		X		
TR-55			X		
PondPack		X	X	X	
WMS	X		X		
Watershed Modeling	X		X		
Hydraulics Software					
HEC-RAS	X			X	
WSPRO	X			X	
EPA SWMM	X	X	X	X	X
CulvertMaster		X		X	
FlowMaster		X		X	
Water Quality Software					
HSPF	X		X		X
BASINS	X		X	X	X
QUAL2E	X			X	X
WASP5	X			X	X
SLAMM	X		X		X

E.4.1 Hydrology Programs

HEC-1 - Flood Hydrograph Package

HEC-1 was developed by the Hydrologic Engineering Center of the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers to simulate the surface runoff response of a watershed to rainfall events. Although it is a DOS-based program, it is still considered by many in the engineering and regulatory communities to be the leading model for major drainage system applications such as Flood Insurance Studies and watershed master planning. HEC-1 is accepted by the Federal Emergency Management Agency; therefore it is the most widely used model for major drainage system analyses.

In a HEC-1 model, the watershed is represented in the model as an interconnected system of hydrologic (e.g., sub-basins, reservoirs, ponds) and hydraulic (e.g., channels, closed conduits, pumps) components. The model computes a runoff hydrograph at each component, combining two or more hydrographs as it moves downstream in the watershed. The model has a variety of rainfall-runoff simulation methods, including the popular SCS Curve Number methodology. The user can define rainfall events using gage or historical data, or HEC-1 can generate synthetic storms. Hydrograph generation is performed using the unit hydrograph technique. Clark, SCS Dimensionless, and Snyder Unit Hydrographs are the available methodologies. Several common channel and storage routing techniques are available as well.

HEC-1 is not considered a "design tool." The program has limited hydraulic capabilities. It does not account for tailwater effects and cannot adequately simulate many urban hydraulic structures such as pipe networks, culverts and multi-stage detention pond outlet structures. However, there are other hydrologic applications developed within HEC-1 that have been utilized with much success. Multiplan-multiflood analyses allow the user to simulate a number of flood events for different watershed situations (or plans). The dam safety option enables the user to analyze the impact dam overtopping or structural failure on downstream areas. Flood damage analyses assess the economic impact of flood damage.

Because it is not a Windows-based program, HEC-1 does not have easy-to-use input and output report generation and graphical capabilities, and therefore is generally not considered a user-friendly program. Because of its wide acceptance, several software development companies have incorporated the source code into enhanced "shells" to provide a user-friendly interface and graphical input and output capabilities. Examples of these programs include Graphical HEC-1 developed by Haested Methods and WMS developed by the Environmental Modeling Research Laboratory.

The Corps of Engineers has developed a user-friendly, Windows-based Hydrologic Modeling System (HEC-HMS) intended to replace the DOS-based HEC-1 model. The new program has all the components of HEC-1, with more user-friendly input and output processors and graphical capabilities. HEC-1 files can be imported into HEC-HMS.

TR-55 - Technical Release 55

The TR-55 model is a DOS-based software package used for estimating runoff hydrographs and peak discharges for small urban watersheds. The model was developed by the NRCS (formally SCS), and therefore uses SCS hydrograph methodology to estimate runoff. No other methodology is available in the program. Four 24-hour regional rainfall distributions are available for use. Rainfall durations less than 24-hours cannot be simulated. Using detailed input data entered by the user, the TR-55 model can calculate the area-weighted CN, time of concentration and travel time. Detention pond (i.e., storage) analysis is also available in the TR-55 model, and is intended for initial pond sizing. Final design requires a more detailed analysis.

TR-55 is easy-to-use, however because it is DOS-based it does not have the useful editing and graphical capabilities of a Windows-based program. Haestad Methods, Inc., included most of the TR-55 capabilities in its PondPack program described below.

PONDPACK

PondPack, by Haestad Methods, Inc., is Windows-based software developed for modeling general hydrology and runoff from site development. The program analyzes pre- and post-developed watershed conditions and sizes detention ponds. It also computes outlet rating-curves with consideration of tailwater effects, accounts for pond infiltration, calculates detention times and analyzes channels.

Rainfall options are unlimited. The user can model any duration or distribution, for synthetic or real storm events. Several peak discharge and hydrograph computation methods are available, including SCS, the Rational Method and the Santa Barbara Unit Hydrograph procedure. Infiltration can be considered, and pond and channel routing options are available as well. Like TR-55, PondPack allows the user to calculate hydrologic parameters, such as the time of concentration, within the program.

PondPack has limited, but useful hydraulic features, using Manning's equation to model natural and man-made channels and pipes. A wide variety of detention pond outlet structure configurations can be modeled, including low flow culverts, weirs, riser pipes, and even user-defined structures.

WMS - Watershed Modeling System

WMS was developed by the Engineer Computer Graphics Laboratory of Brigham Young University. WMS is a Windows-based user interface that provides a link between terrain models and GIS software, with industry standard lumped parameter hydrologic models, including HEC-1, TR-55, TR-20 and others. The hydrologic models can be run from the WMS interface. The link between the spatial terrain data and the hydrologic model(s) gives the user the ability to develop hydrologic data that is typically gathered using manual methods from within the program. For example, when using SCS methodologies, the user can delineate watersheds and sub-basins, determine areas and curve numbers, and calculate the time of concentration at the computer. Typically, these computations are done manually, and are laborious and time-consuming. WMS attempts to utilize digital spatial data to make these tasks more efficient.

Watershed Modeling

The Watershed Modeling program was developed to compute runoff and design flood control structures. The program can run inside the MicroStation CAD system. Like WMS, this feature enables the program

to delineate and analyze the drainage area of interest. Area, curve number, land use and other hydrologic parameters can be computed and/or catalogued for the user, removing much of the manual calculation typically performed by the hydrologic modeler.

Watershed Modeling contains a variety of methods to calculate flood hydrographs, including SCS, Snyder and Rational methods. Rainfall can be synthetic or user-defined, with any duration and return period. Rainfall maps for the entire U.S. are provided to help the user calculate IDF relationships. Several techniques are available for channel and storage routing. The user also has a wide variety of outlet structure options for detention pond analysis and design.

E.4.2 Hydraulics Programs

HEC-RAS - River Analysis System

HEC-RAS is a Windows-based hydraulic model developed by the Corps of Engineers to replace the popular, DOS-based HEC-2 model. RAS has the ability to import and convert HEC-2 input files and expounds upon the capabilities of HEC-2. Since its introduction several years ago, the user-friendly HEC-RAS has become known as an excellent model for simulation of major systems (i.e., open channel flow) and has become the chief model for calculating floodplain elevations and determining floodway encroachments for Flood Insurance Studies. Like HEC-2, HEC-RAS has been accepted for FIS analysis by the FEMA. However, RAS is a much easier model to use than HEC-2 as it has an extremely useful interface that provides the immediate capability to view model input and output data in graphical, tabular, and report formats.

HEC-RAS performs one-dimensional analysis for steady flow water surface profiles, using the energy equation. Energy losses are calculated using Manning's equation and contraction and expansion changes. Rapidly varied flow (e.g., hydraulic jumps) is modeled using the momentum equation. The effects of in-stream structures, such as bridges, culverts, weirs and floodplain obstructions and in-stream changes such as levees and channel improvements can be simulated. The model allows the user to define the geometry of the channel or structure to the level of detail required by the application. One popular and useful feature of the HEC-RAS model is the capability to easily facilitate floodway encroachment analysis. Five encroachment methods are available to the user.

WSPRO

WSPRO was developed by the USGS to compute water surface profiles for one-dimensional, gradually varied, steady flow. Like HEC-RAS, WSPRO can develop profiles in subcritical, critical and supercritical flow regimes. WSPRO is designated HY-7 in the Federal Highway

Administration (FHWA) computer program series and its original objective was analysis and design of bridge openings and embankment configurations. Since then, the model has been expanded to model open channels and culverts.

Open channel computations use standard step-backwater techniques. Flow through bridges is simulated using an energy-balancing technique that uses a coefficient of discharge and estimates an effective flow length. Pressure flow under bridges using orifice-type flow equations developed by the FHWA. Culvert flow is simulated using FHWA techniques for inlet control and energy balance for outlet control.

WSPRO is considered a fairly easy-to-use DOS-based model, applicable to water surface profile analysis for highway design, flood insurance studies, and establishing stage-discharge relationships. However, the model in its original form is not Windows based and therefore does not have the useful editing and graphical features found in HEC-RAS. Like HEC-RAS, a third party software developer has designed SMS (Surface Water Modeling Software) to support both pre- and post-processing of WSPRO data.

EPA SWMM - Stormwater Management Model

EPA SWMM was developed by the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) to analyze stormwater quantity and quality problems associated with runoff from urban areas. EPA SWMM has become the model of choice for simulation of minor drainage systems primarily composed of closed conduits. The

model can simulate both single-event and continuous events and has the capability to model both wet and dry weather flow. The basic output from SWMM consists of runoff hydrographs, pollutographs, storage volumes and flow stages and depths.

SWMM's hydraulic computations are link-node based, and are performed in separate modules, called blocks. The EXTRAN computational block solves complete dynamic flow routing equations to simulate backwater, looped pipe connections, manhole surcharging and pressure flow. It is the most comprehensive model in its capabilities to simulate urban storm flow and many cities have used successfully for stormwater, sanitary, or combined sewer system modeling. Open channel flow can be simulated using the TRANSPORT block, which solves the kinematic wave equations for natural channel cross-sections.

Although evaluated for this study as a hydraulic model, SWMM has both hydrologic and water quality components. Hydrologic processes are simulated using the RUNOFF block, which computes the quantity and quality of runoff from drainage areas and routes the flow to the major sewer system lines. Pollutant transport is simulated in tandem with hydrologic and hydraulic computations and consists of calculation of pollutant buildup and washoff from land surfaces and pollutant routing, scour and in-conduit suspension in flow conduits and channels.

EPA SWMM is a public domain, DOS-based model. For large watersheds with extensive pipe networks, input and output processing can be tedious and confusing. Because of the popularity of the model commercial, third-party enhancements to SWMM have become more common, making the model a strong choice for minor system drainage modeling. Examples of commercially enhanced versions of EPA SWMM include MIKE SWMM, distributed by BOSS International, XPSWMM by XP-Software, and PCSWMM by Computational Hydraulics Inc (CHI). CHI also developed PCSWMM GIS, which ties the SWMM model to a GIS platform.

CULVERTMASTER

CulvertMaster, developed by Haestad Methods, Inc., is an easy-to-use, Windows-based culvert simulation and design program. The program can analyze pressure or free surface flow conditions and in subcritical, critical and supercritical flow conditions, based on drawdown and backwater. A variety of common culvert shapes and section types are available. Tailwater effects are considered and user can enter a constant tailwater elevation, a rating curve, or specify an outlet channel section. Culvert hydraulics are solved using FHWA methodology for inlet and outlet control computations. Roadway and weir overtopping are checked in the solution of the culvert.

CulvertMaster does have a hydrologic analysis component to determine peak flow using the Rational Method, SCS Graphical Peak Methods. The user also has the option of entering a known peak flow rate. The user must enter all rainfall and runoff information (e.g., IDF data, rainfall depths, curve numbers, C coefficients, etc).

FLOWMASTER

FlowMaster, also developed by Haestad Methods, Inc., is a Windows-based hydraulic pipe and channel design program. The user enters known information on the channel section or pipe, and allows the program to solve for the unknown parameter(s), such as diameter, depth, slope, roughness, capacity, velocity, etc. Solution methods include Manning's equation, the Darcy-Weisbach formula, Hazen-Williams formula, and Kutter's Formula. The program also features calculations for weirs, orifices, gutter flow, ditch and median flow and discharge into curb, grated, and slot inlets.

Other Hydraulics Programs

In addition to the Hydraulics Software listed in Table G.4-1, appropriately applied versions of the following computer models are also available for use.

- *CULVERT* – by TxDOT for hydraulic analysis and design of culverts.
- *WINSTORM* – by TxDOT for analysis and design of storm sewer.
- *HY8* – by the Federal Highway Association (FHWA) for hydraulic analysis and design of culverts.

- *HY8Energy* – by FHWA for the selection and analysis of energy dissipation structures.
- *CHANLPRO* – by U.S. Army Corps of Engineers for analysis and design of streambank protection.

E.4.3 Water Quality Programs

HSPF - Hydrologic Simulation Program FORTRAN

The HSPF model was developed by the EPA for the continuous or single-event simulation of runoff quantity and quality from a watershed. The original model was developed from the Stanford Watershed Model, which simulated runoff quantity only. It was expanded to include quality components, and has since become a popular model for continuous non-point source water quality simulations. Non-point source conventional and toxic organic pollutants from urban and agricultural land uses can be simulated, on pervious and impervious land surfaces and in streams and well-mixed impoundments. The various hydrologic processes are represented mathematically as flows and storages. The watershed is divided into land segments, channel reaches and reservoirs. Water, sediment and pollutants leaving a land segment move laterally to a downstream land segment, a stream or river reach, or reservoir. Infiltration is considered for pervious land segments.

HSPF model output includes time series information for water quality and quantity, flow rates, sediment loads, and nutrient and pesticide concentrations. To manage the large amounts of data associated with the model, HSPF includes a database management system. To date, HSPF is still a DOS-based model and therefore does not have the useful graphical and editing options of a Windows-based program. Input data requirements for the model are extensive and the model takes some time to learn. However the EPA continues to expand and develop HSPF, and still recommends it for the continuous simulation of hydrology and water quality in watersheds.

BASINS - Better Assessment Science Integrating Point and Non-Point Sources

The BASINS watershed analysis system was developed by the EPA for use by regional, state and local pollution control agencies to analyze water quality on a watershed-wide basis. BASINS integrates the ArcView GIS environment, national databases containing watershed data, and modeling programs and water quality assessment tools into one stand-alone program. The program will analyze both point and non-point sources and supports the development of the total maximum daily loads (TMDLs). The assessment tools and models utilized in BASINS include TARGET, ASSESS, Data Mining, HSPF, TOXIRoute and QUAL2E. The databases, assessment tools and models are directly tied to the ArcView GIS environment.

QUAL2EU - Enhanced Stream Water Quality Model

QUAL2EU was developed by the EPA and intended for use as a water quality planning tool. The model actually consists of four modules: QUAL2E - the original water quality model, QUAL2EU - the water quality model with uncertainty analysis, and pre and post processing modules. QUAL2EU simulates steady state or dynamic conditions in branching streams and well-mixed lakes, and can evaluate the impact of waste loads on water quality. It also can enhance a field sampling program by helping to identify the magnitude and quality characteristics of non-point waste loads. Up to 15 water quality constituents can be modeled. Dynamic simulation allows the user to study the effects of diurnal variations in water quality (primarily DO and temperature). The steady state option allows the user to perform uncertainty analyses.

QUAL2EU is a DOS-based program, and the user will require some length of time to develop a QUAL2EU model, mainly due to the complexity of the model and data requirements for a simulation. However, to ease user interaction with the model an interactive preprocessor (AQUAL2) has been developed to help the user build input data files. A postprocessor (Q2PLOT) also exists that displays model output in textual or graphical formats.

WASP5 - Water Quality Analysis Simulation Program

The WASP5 model was developed by the EPA to simulate contaminant fate in surface waters. Both chemical and toxic pollution can be simulated in one, two, or three dimensions. Problems studied using WASP5 include biochemical oxygen demand and dissolved oxygen dynamics, nutrients and

eutrophication, bacterial contamination, and organic chemical and heavy metal contamination. WASP5 has an associated stand alone hydrodynamic model, called DYNHYD5, that simulates variable tidal cycles, wind and unsteady flows. DYNHYD4 supplies flows and volumes to the water quality model. The model is DOS-based, however WASP packages can be obtained from outside vendors that include interactive tabular and graphical pre- and post-processors.

SLAMM - Source Loading and Management Model

The SLAMM model was originally developed as a planning tool to model runoff water quality changes resulting from urban runoff pollutants. The model has been expanded to include simulation of common water quality best management practices such as infiltration BMPs, wet detention ponds, porous pavement, street cleaning, catchbasin cleaning and grass swales. Unlike other water quality models, SLAMM focuses on small storm hydrology and pollutant washoff, which is large contributor to urban stream water quality problems. SLAMM computations are based on field observations, as opposed to theoretical processes. SLAMM can be used in conjunction with more commonly used hydrologic models to predict pollutant sources and flows.

E.5 Information Tools

E.5.1 Geographic Information Systems (GIS)

A Geographic Information System (GIS) is a computer-based database system designed to spatially analyze and display data. A GIS stores information about a given area as a collection of thematic layers that can be linked together by geography or geo-referencing. This simple but extremely powerful and versatile concept has proven invaluable for solving many real-world stormwater problems from tracking complaints, to master planning applications and infrastructure management.

GIS Components

A functional GIS integrates four key components: hardware, software, data, and trained users:

- *Hardware* – Desktop computers and digitizing equipment are the primary hardware components of a typical local GIS system.
- *Software* – GIS software provides the functionality and tools needed to capture or input, store, analyze, display, and output geographic information.
- *Data* – Generally, the most costly part of a GIS is data development. Some geographic data and related tabular data can be collected in-house or purchased from commercial data providers. A GIS can also integrate tabular data or electronic drafting (CAD) data to build information into the GIS database.
- *Users* – GIS technology is of limited value without trained operators who understand the data, system, organization and how to apply the resources to achieve the desired results.

GIS Functions

General purpose geographic information systems essentially perform four processes or tasks:

1. Data Input – Before geographic data can be used in a GIS, the data must be converted into a suitable digital format. The process of converting data from paper maps into computer files is called digitizing. Modern GIS technology can sometimes automate this process fully for projects using scanning technology; some jobs may require some manual digitizing using a digitizing table. Today many types of geographic data already exist in GIS-compatible formats. These data can be obtained from a number of different sources including the North Central Texas GIS Data Clearinghouse at <http://gis.dfwinfo.com/geodata/>.

2. Data Conversion – It is likely that some needed data may not be in the correct format or proper map projection to use with your system. Most GIS software has the ability to do this conversion, but in some cases this is better done by a contractor who specializes in data conversion. Be careful with third party data; it is imperative that you understand the source, quality, age, accuracy and limitations of a dataset. This and other information about a dataset is often provided in (FGDG) metadata that accompanies the dataset.

3. Query and Analysis – Once there is a functioning GIS containing geographic information, it can be used to answer questions such as:

- Who owns the land parcel being flooded?
- What is the distance between two stream locations?
- Which homes are located in the updated floodplain?
- How will the new development impact downstream properties?
- What types of infrastructure give us the most complaints and where are they located?

GIS provides both simple point-and-click query capabilities and sophisticated spatial analysis tools to provide timely information to stormwater managers and analysts alike. GIS technology can also be used to analyze geographic data to look for patterns and trends and to undertake "what if" scenarios. Most modern GIS's have many powerful analytical tools including:

- *Size Analysis* – Provides specific information about a feature. (e.g. What is the area and perimeter of a parcel?)
- *Proximity Analysis* – Determines relationships between objects and areas. (e.g. Who is located within 100 feet of the streambank?)
- *Overlay Analysis* – Performs integration of different data layers. (e.g. What is the SCS curve number for this sub-watershed considering soils, and land use?) Figure G.3-1 illustrates the overlay concept.
- *Network Analysis* – Analyzes the connectivity of linear features and establishes routes or direction of flow. (e.g. Which pipes feed into this junction box?)
- *Raster Analysis* – Utilizes a raster model to address a number of hydrologic issues. (e.g. What does the 3-D model of this watershed look like? Where does the water flow?)

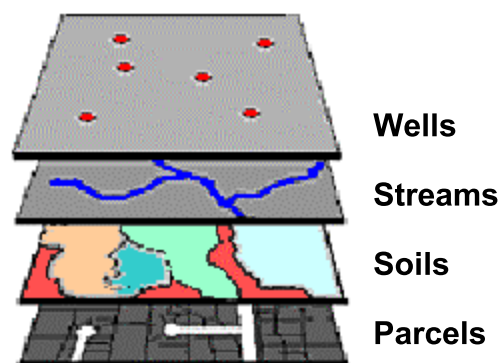


Figure E.5-1 Example of Overlay Analysis
Source: ESRI

4. Data Display, Output and Visualization – Geographic information systems excel at being able to create rich and detailed maps, graphs and other types of output which allow local staff, elected officials and the general public to be able to visualize and understand complex problems and large amounts of information. These maps and charts can be integrated with reports, three-dimensional views, photographic images, and multimedia presentations.

Use of GIS in Stormwater Management

GIS can be useful to a community in a wide variety of stormwater-related applications:

- GIS can be used for the mapping of surface features, land uses, soils, rainfall amounts, watershed boundaries, slopes, land cover, etc.
- A GIS can manage a stormwater system inventory and information about facility conditions, storm sewer networks, maintenance scheduling, and problem areas.
- GIS can be used to automate certain tasks such as measuring the areas of subwatersheds, plotting floodplain boundaries, or assessing stormwater utility fees. Figure G.3-2 shows an example of automated hydrologic mapping.
- A GIS can be used to evaluate water quality impacts and answer cause and effect questions, such as the relationship between various land uses and in-stream pollution monitoring results.
- “What if” analyses can be undertaken with GIS. For example, various land use scenarios and their impacts on pollution or flooding can be tried in various combinations to determine the best management solutions or to determine the outcome of current decisions. When tied to hydrology, hydraulics and/or water quality models this type of analysis becomes a powerful tool to assess the impacts of new development on downstream properties. For example, Figure G.3-3 shows the flooding impacts on a small tributary for a proposed new development approved during a rezoning.
- GIS databases can provide staff, elected officials, and citizens with immediate answers and ready information. For example, inventory, complaints and other information about stormwater infrastructure (including pictures) can be placed in a database tied to geographic location.
- Complex problems or changes over time, such as water quality improvements, can be easily visualized in maps and graphs generated by GIS systems.

- GIS maps can be used to educate or convince citizens and political leadership concerning a course of action or a project's viability.

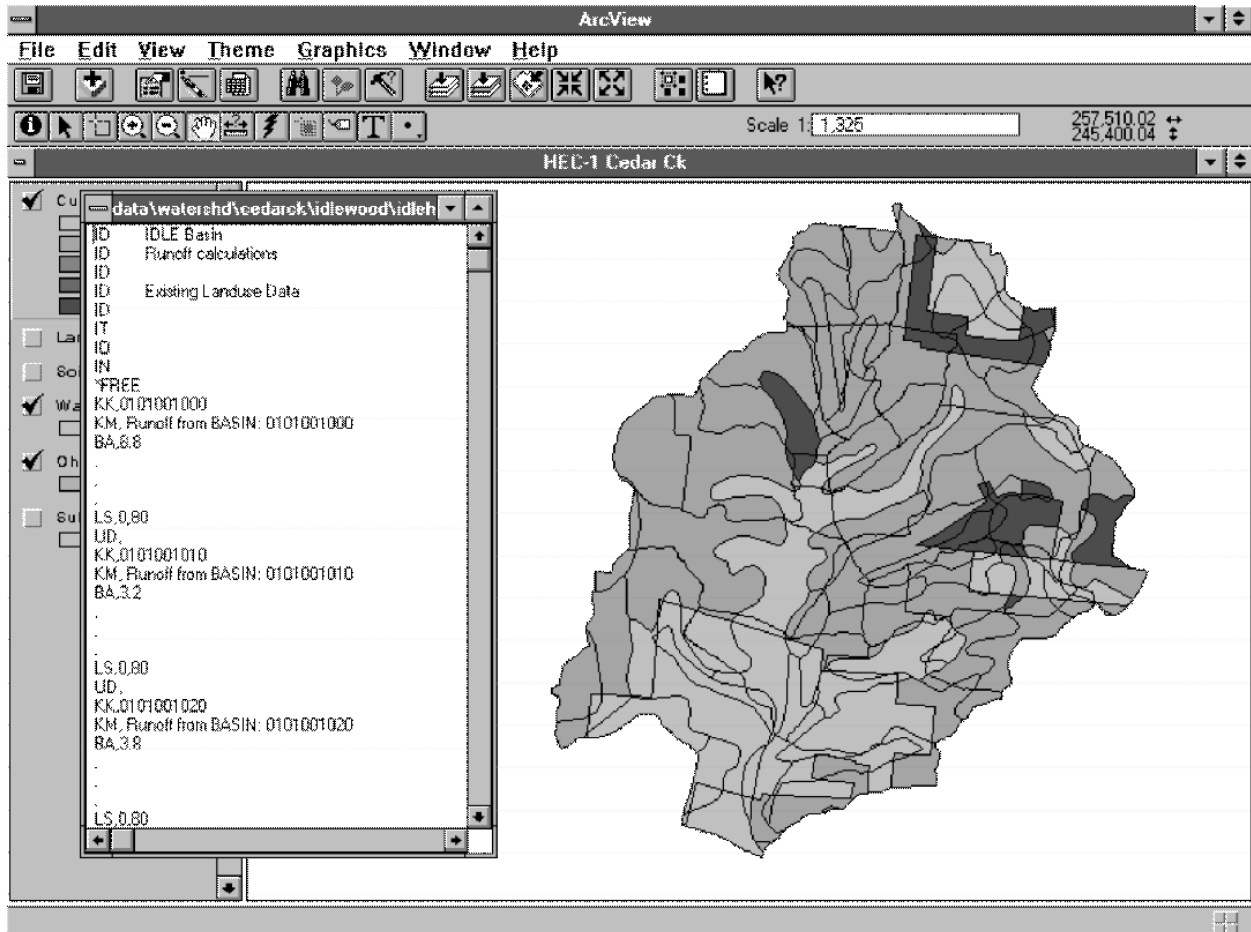


Figure E.5-2 Automated Hydrologic Modeling

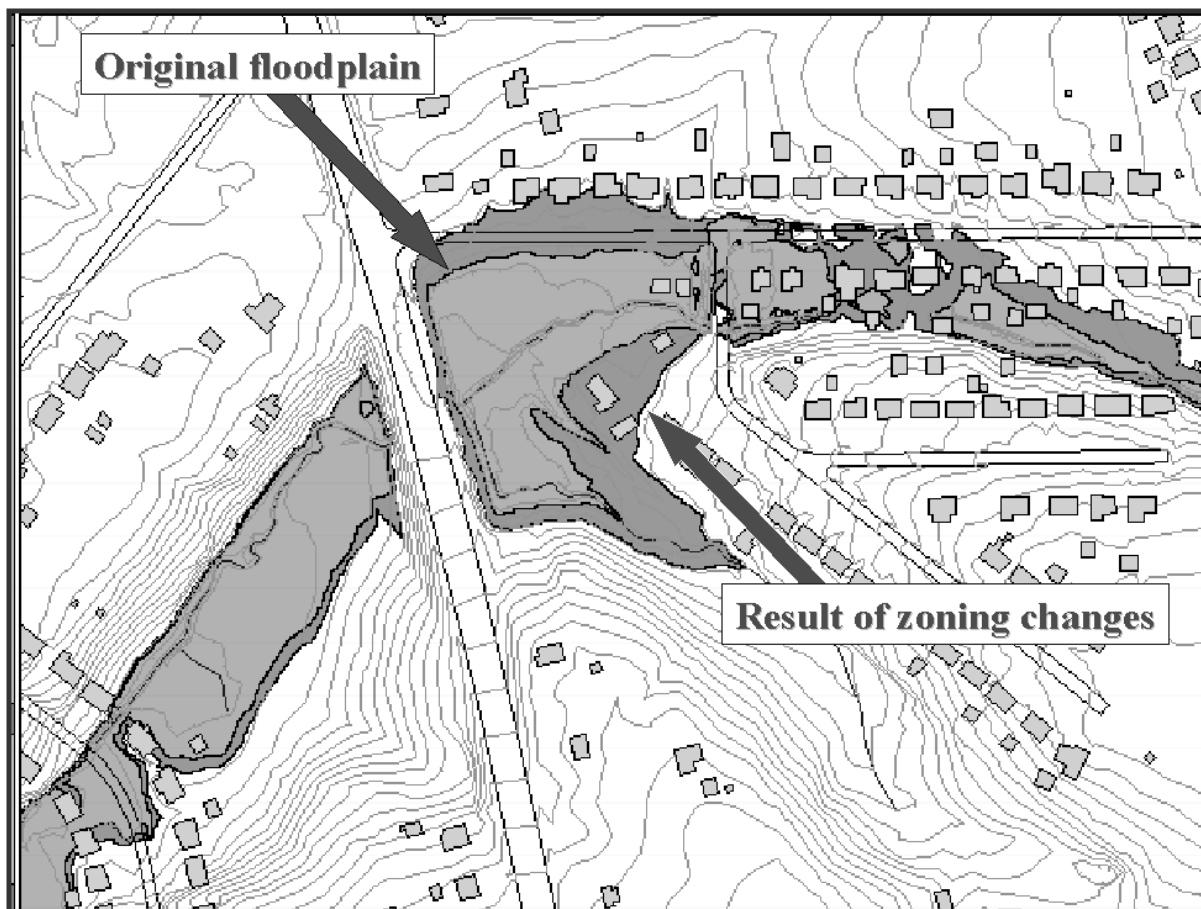


Figure E.5-3 Use of a GIS to Map Current and Potential Floodplains

Communities often make the mistake of making enormous expenditures on data, hardware and software and databases but little on planning, staff familiarization, training and graphical user interface (GUI) and applications development. The end result is often an unusable system accessible by only a few who have the resources to learn the system, hire competent staff, and develop applications. It is often better to target the GIS implementation to certain needs and quickly roll-out applications that work for these needs even prior to the complete development of the database and overall system.

Proper implementation of GIS applications for stormwater management involves planning for both stormwater only applications and to integrate these applications with other potential users within the municipality.

Other Related Technologies

GIS is closely related to several other types of information systems, and can be used with these other information tools, including:

- *Computer-Assisted Design (CAD)* – CAD systems evolved to create designs and plans of buildings and infrastructure. The systems are designed to do very detailed drafting and drawing but have only limited capability to attach data fields to the electronic drawing. As a result these systems do not have the capability to perform spatial analysis. Fortunately these drawings can be input to a GIS saving significant digitizing efforts. Once in a GIS, attribute data can then be added to the graphic features.

- *Database Management Systems (DBMS)* – These systems specialize in the storage and management of all types of data including geographic data. DBMS's are optimized to store and retrieve data and many GIS's rely on them for this purpose. They do not typically have the analytic and visualization tools common to GIS.
- *Supervisory Control and Data Acquisition System (SCADA)* –These systems combine the ability to monitor information (e.g. rainfall, stream flow, flood level, etc.) remotely through telemetry. SCADA systems can also execute commands to do such things as open gates or close valves from a distance. Examples of the use of SCADA include automating stormwater pump station operation, automated alarms for flood warning and automated lowering of traffic control barrier arms during high water periods. SCADA systems can be combined with GIS to create comprehensive tracking systems.

E.5.2 Global Positioning Systems (GPS)

The Global Positioning System (GPS) is a space satellite based radio positioning system for obtaining accurate positional information for mapping or navigational purposes. GPS is made up of three distinct parts:

- *Satellites* – A constellation of 24 satellites orbiting the earth continuously emit a timing signal, provided by an on-board atomic clock, which is used to calculate the distance from each satellite to the receiver.
- *Receiver* – A GPS receiver located on the ground converts satellite signals into position, velocity, and time estimates.
- *Ground Control* – The U.S. Department of Defense (DOD) developed and currently manages the maintenance of the satellite system. The DOD uses tracking antennas to constantly monitor the precise position of the NAVSTAR satellites. These positions can be used to correct for errors in the calculated positions of the roving receivers.

The GPS was built and is maintained by the U.S. government. The satellites orbit at an altitude of approximately 12,000 miles in a 12-hour pattern that provides coverage to the entire earth. The system is capable of serving an unlimited number of users free of charge.

A GPS receiver uses information from at least 4 of the 24 satellites to precisely triangulate its position on the earth with about one meter accuracy. If a receiver cannot "see" four satellites, it can calculate a less-accurate estimate based on three satellites. Virtually all GPS receivers display basic positional information including latitude, longitude, elevation and speed (if moving). Most receivers also display time, heading, the number of satellites in view, where those satellites are positioned in the sky, and signal quality. GPS receivers for data collection can collect both the location (coordinates) and the attribute data of a given geographical feature.

GPS Applications to Stormwater

Stormwater infrastructure inventories can be conducted more easily and in far less time using GPS. In the past, traditional geodetic surveying was used to locate and map stormwater system components. A transit survey requires traversing between a known point to the point of interest, which may take half to one day per point. GPS surveying is much more efficient, possibly taking as little as a few seconds to map each point. Using bicycle or car-mounted equipment, a community may be able to survey up to 500 points per day. Obviously, the users must be trained and knowledgeable of the GPS devices and the objectives of the inventory to insure accuracy of the data.

GPS inventory work can be integrated with GIS application software. For example, a GIS layer of structural control locations can be created using GPS data and linked to a maintenance database. GPS

data can also be used in computer modeling activities for stormwater management. For instance, GPS data can be used to create a ground surface for automated stream floodplain modeling and mapping.

E.5.3 Remote Sensing

Remote Sensing is a technique for collecting observations of the earth using airborne platforms (airplanes and satellites) which have on-board instruments, or sensors. These sensors record physical images based on light, temperature or other reflected electromagnetic energy. This sensor data may be recorded as either analog data, such as photos or digital image data. Figure E.5-1 gives an example of low (25-meter), medium (5-meter) and high (1-meter) resolution satellite imagery.



Figure E.5-4 Low, Medium and High Resolution Satellite Imagery

Source: Space Imaging, Inc.

Ground reference data is then applied to aid in the analysis and interpretation of the sensor data, to calibrate the sensor, and to verify the information extracted from the sensor data. Remotely sensed images have a number of advantages to on-the-ground observation, including:

- Remote sensing can provide a regional view.
- Remote sensing can provide repetitive looks at the same area over time.
- Remote sensors "see" over a broader portion of the electromagnetic spectrum than the human eye.
- Sensors can focus on specific bandwidths in an image and can also look at a number of bandwidths simultaneously.
- Remote sensors often record signals electronically and provide geographically referenced data in digital format.
- Remote sensors operate in all seasons, at night, and in bad weather.

The airborne platforms that carry remote sensing instruments can be any kind of aircraft or satellite observing the Earth at altitudes anywhere from a few thousand feet to orbits of hundreds of kilometers. Satellites may employ a variety of sensors for numerous of applications. Currently, no single sensor is sensitive to all wavelengths. All sensors have fixed limits of spectral sensitivity and spatial sensitivity, the limit on how small an object on the earth's surface can be seen. The common types of sensors aboard satellites include:

- *Multispectral Scanner (MSS) Sensors* – Data are sensed in four spectral bands simultaneously: green, red, and two in near-infrared. (Steve – these can sense as many as six bands including UV, visible, near-IR, mid-IR and thermal)
- *Thematic Mapper (TM) Sensors* – Data are sensed in seven spectral bands simultaneously: blue, green, red, near-infrared, and two in mid-infrared. The seventh band detects only the thermal portion of the spectrum.
- *Radio Detection and Ranging (RADAR)* – Examples are Doppler radar systems used in weather and cloud cover predictions.

The appropriate band or combination of MSS bands should be selected for each interpretive use. For example bands 4 (green) and 5 (red) are usually best for detecting cultural features such as urban areas, roads, new subdivisions, gravel pits, and quarries. The TM bands are more finely tuned for vegetation discrimination than those of the MSS due in part to the narrower width of the green and red bands.

Examples of the growing number of remote sensing satellites include the U.S. Landsat satellites, the Indian Remote Sensing (IRS) satellites, Canada's RADARSAT, and the European Space Agency's Radar Satellite. Images from these satellites have spatial resolutions ranging from approximately 100 meters to 15 meters or better. The first commercial satellite capable of resolving objects on the ground as small as one meter in diameter was recently launched. Several competing companies have similar offerings. For example, the IKONOS-2 features high spatial resolutions of 1-meter panchromatic (black and white) and 4-meter multispectral (color). Panchromatic data has a higher resolution, while multispectral data provides better interpretation. Additionally, the 1-meter panchromatic spatial content can be combined with the spectral content of the 4-meter multispectral data. This 1-meter accuracy allows for a wide range of applications in stormwater management at a price typically less than \$500 per square mile (with some minimum order restrictions).

Digital Orthophoto Quarter Quadrangles (DOQQ's)

Orthophotos combine the image characteristics of a photograph with the geometric qualities of a map. Unlike standard aerial photography, relief displacement in orthophotos has been removed displaying ground features in their true ground position, thus allowing for direct measurement of distance, area, angles, and positions.

The National Aerial Photography Program (NAPP) is the primary source of aerial photography used in the production of 1-meter digital orthophotos. The North Central Texas Council of Governments (NCTCOG) maintains a database of digital aerial photography known as digital orthophoto quarter quadrangles (DOQQ's).

Figure E.5-2 illustrates a section of a DOQQ. Local government organizations that do not have access to their own digital aerial photography can acquire this data. The details concerning DOQQ's are:

- A standard DOQQ image covers an area of 3.75' x 3.75', or ¼ of a USGS quadrangle with some overlap
- 1-meter pixel resolution (1-meter resolution provides the minimum resolution needed for capturing smaller impervious features within the 200 sq. ft. to 100 sq. ft. range)
- Projected in Universal Transverse Mercator (UTM) with units in meters
- Available in TIFF format
- Coverage for the entire state of Texas
- Images were captured between 1994 and 1997
- DOQQ images for all of North Central Texas can be obtained at the www.tnris.state.tx.us/digitaldata/doq.htm.



Figure E.5-5 Example DOQQ

Remote Sensing Applications for Stormwater

Satellite imagery offers a diverse set of mapping products for projects ranging from land use/land cover evaluation to urban and regional planning, tax assessment and collection, and growth monitoring. In the case of stormwater runoff, multispectral imagery can be used to measure impervious surfaces, such as rooftops, streets, and parking lots. Pervious surfaces, such as tree- and grass-covered areas can also be measured or delineated. Applying runoff coefficients to the area of each surface type can provide the best available estimates for nonpoint source water pollution. By adding parcel boundaries, it is possible to provide estimates of runoff per parcel in order to calculate stormwater user fees. Similarly, designated land use categories can be applied to the area of each surface type and in combination with the known soil coverage can be used to calculate hydrologic curve numbers. Flood boundaries can be measured within a few meters accuracy in areas without tree cover using submeter multispectral fused imagery. Individual buildings and parcel boundaries can also be identified in order to assess flood vulnerability.

E.6 Additional Models

In addition to Stormwater Computer Models listed in Appendix E of this Manual, the City of Texarkana accepts appropriately applied versions of the following computer models.

1. STORMCAD and GeoPac by Bentley for analysis and design of storm sewer.
2. Gabion Design Programs by Maccaferri:
 - a. Macra 1 for Channel Design
 - b. GawacWIN for Retaining Wall Design
3. SWFHYP (formerly NUDALLAS) by Fort Worth District, U.S. Army Corps of Engineers for hydrologic routing studies (use only where model currently exists).
4. AdICPR (Advanced Interconnected Pond Routing) by Streamline Technologies, Inc. for complex hydrograph routing particularly detention ponds in series.
5. InforWorks by MWHSOFT (formerly Wallingford) for complex dynamic routing applications.

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Appendix F

Dams and Reservoirs in Texas

Dams and Reservoirs in Texas

The Texas Commission on Environmental Quality (TCEQ) regulates the construction of dams in Texas as per the Texas Administrative Code (Title 30, Part 1, Chapter 299 – Dams and Reservoirs). Approval from the TCEQ of plans and specifications is required for construction of a dam. The TCEQ also has the authority to inspect existing dams, and if necessary, require unsafe dams to be upgraded or removed. The Dam Safety Program is administered under the Field Operations Division of the Office of Compliance and Enforcement. Forms, Guidelines, Rules, Regulations, and many other resources can be found on-line at www.tnrc.state.tx.us/enforcement/dam_safety/intro2.html.

F.1 Overview

Structures constructed for the purpose of the impounding water either on a temporary or permanent basis, which meet specific height, storage or hazard criteria are regulated by the State. The Texas Commission on Environmental Quality (TCEQ) is the regulatory agency responsible for administration of the State dam safety laws in Texas. Dams are classified according to size, and the potential for loss of human life and/or property damage within the area downstream of the dam. According to 30 TAC 299.1(a) dams fall under the jurisdiction of the TCEQ Dam Safety Program if they meet one or more of the following criteria:

- (1) they have a height greater than or equal to 25 feet and a maximum storage capacity greater than or equal to 15 acre-feet;
- (2) they have a height greater than 6 feet and a maximum storage capacity greater than or equal to 50 acre-feet;
- (3) they are a high or significant hazard dam as defined by 30 TAC 299.14 (relating to Hazard Classification Criteria), regardless of height or maximum storage capacity; or
- (4) they are used as a pumped storage or terminal storage facility.

The State regulates the design, construction, operation and maintenance of dams and this chapter provides an overview of some of the pertinent criteria.

F.2 Symbols and Definitions

The following words and terms, when used in this chapter, shall have the following meanings, unless the context clearly indicates otherwise:

Dam--Any barrier, including one for flood detention, designed to impound liquid volumes and which is defined as described in the previous section. This does not include highway, railroad, or other roadway embankments, including low water crossings that may temporarily detain floodwater, levees designed to prevent inundation by floodwater, closed dikes designed to temporarily impound liquids in the event of emergencies, or off-channel impoundments authorized by the commission in accordance with the Texas Water Code, Chapter 26, or the Texas Solid Waste Disposal Act, Texas Civil Statutes, Article 4477-7.

Effective crest of the dam--The elevation of the lowest point on the crest of the dam excluding spillways.

Existing dam--

- (A) any dam constructed in accordance with necessary authorizations of the TCEQ;
- (B) any existing dam exempt under the Texas Water Code, §11.142.

Height of dam--The vertical distance from the effective crest of the dam to the lowest elevation on the centerline or downstream toe of the dam, including the natural stream channel.

Maximum storage capacity--The volume of the impoundment created by the dam at the effective crest of the dam, usually expressed in acre-feet.

Normal storage capacity--The volume of the impoundment created by the dam, at the lowest uncontrolled spillway crest, usually expressed in acre-feet.

Probable maximum flood (PMF)--The flood magnitude that may be expected from the most critical combination of meteorologic and hydrologic conditions that are reasonably possible for a given watershed.

Probable maximum precipitation (PMP)--Theoretically, the greatest depth of precipitation for a given duration that is physically possible over a given size storm area at a particular geographical location at a certain time of the year.

Proposed dam--Any dam, constructed or to be constructed, which is not included in the definition of existing dam.

Spillway design flood (SDF)--The flood criteria that needs to be considered in the design of a proposed project.

Spillway evaluation flood (SEF)--The flood criteria that needs to be considered in the hydrologic evaluation of an existing structure.

F.3 Dam Classifications

Texas Administrative Code, Chapter 299 - DAMS

In accordance with the Texas Administrative Code, Chapter 299, the State of Texas considers a dam any barrier designed to impound liquid volumes that meets the criteria described in Section F.1. Dams in Texas are classified based on their size (height), hazard potential (failure consequences), and hydrologic criteria (spillway capacity).

F.3.1 Size

The Texas Administrative Code classifies the size of a dam as small, intermediate or large depending upon the height of the dam and the storage volume of the reservoir or pond created by the dam. The height of a dam is the vertical distance from the lowest point on the dam crest, excluding the spillway, to the lowest elevation on the centerline or downstream toe of the dam, including the natural stream channel. The storage capacity in acre-feet is the volume of the pond when the water level is at the crest of the service spillway. A "rule of thumb" is that the storage capacity of a pond in acre-feet is equal to the surface area of the pond in acres times 40 percent of the maximum depth of the pond in feet. Once the dam height and pond volume are know, the size classification of the dam is determined by the following table:

SIZE CLASSIFICATION		
Category	Storage (Ac-Ft) Impoundment	Height (Ft.)
Small	Equal to or Greater than 15 & Less than 1,000 Equal to or Greater than 50 & Less than 1,000	Equal to or Greater than 25 & Less than 40 Greater than 6 & Less than 40
Intermediate	Equal to or Greater than 1,000 & less than 50,000	Equal or Greater than 40 & less than 100
Large	Equal to or Greater than 50,000	Equal or Greater than 100

F.3.2 Hazard Potential

Hazard classification pertains to potential loss of human life and/or property damage within either existing or potential developments in the area downstream of the dam in event of failure or malfunction of the dam or appurtenant facilities. Hazard classification does not indicate any condition of the dam itself. Dams in the low hazard potential category are normally those in rural areas where failure may damage farm buildings, limited agricultural improvements, and county roads. Significant hazard potential category dams are usually those in predominantly rural areas where failure would not be expected to cause loss of human life, but may cause damage to isolated homes, secondary highways, minor railroads, or cause interruption of service or use (including the design purpose of the facility) of relatively important public utilities. Dams in the high hazard potential category are usually those in or near urban areas where failure would be expected to cause loss of human life, extensive damage to agricultural, industrial, or commercial facilities, important public utilities (including the design purpose of the facility), main highways, or railroads.

The Texas Administrative Code's hazard classifications for dams include the classifications of *low*, *significant* or *high* according to the criteria listed in the following table:

HAZARD POTENTIAL CLASSIFICATION		
Category	Loss of Human Life	Economic Loss
Low	None expected (No Permanent structures for human habitation)	Minimal (Underdeveloped to occasional structures or agricultural improvements)
Significant	Possible, (one to six lives or one or two habitable structures)	Appreciable (Notable agricultural, industrial or commercial development)
High	Expected (seven or more lives or three or more habitable structures)	Excessive (Extensive public, industrial, commercial or agricultural development)

F.3.3 Hydrologic Criteria

Uncontrolled floodwaters are one of the most powerful and destructive forces in nature. Dams that are not designed to withstand major storms may be destroyed by them, increasing flood damage downstream. This damage is too often catastrophic. In order to protect lives and property downstream, the Texas Administrative Code requires that dams be constructed to safely handle an appropriate percentage of the Probable Maximum Flood (PMF). This percentage varies according to the height of the dam, size of the impoundment, and extent and severity of damage possible upon failure. The requirements established in Texas are similar to those used in other states, and historical records of significant storms and dam failures this century verify that the design criteria are reasonable.

F.3.4 Development of the PMP

Scientists use both meteorological methods and historical records to determine the greatest amount of precipitation that is theoretically possible within a region. The historical data consists of point precipitation amounts measured at rain gages throughout the region being studied, or a region with very similar meteorologic and topographic characteristics. These rainfall data are subsequently maximized through "moisture maximization" and other numerical methods. Moisture maximization is a process in which the maximum possible atmospheric moisture for a region is applied to rainfall data from a historic storm. This process increases the rainfall depths, bringing them closer to their potential maximum.

Probable maximum precipitation amounts vary slightly throughout Texas because of variations in topography and meteorology. The PMP is greatest in the eastern portion of the state. Furthermore, not all

storms have the same duration. Using the methods mentioned above, the PMP has been determined for different storm periods, generally ranging from six to seventy two hours.

F.3.5 Development of the PMF

The Probable Maximum Flood is the flood that is a direct result of the Probable Maximum Precipitation. However, drainage areas with the same PMP may have different PMFs. This is possible because the amount of flooding which results from a given rainfall amount depends upon the characteristics of the drainage basin. For this reason, the PMF, not the PMP, must be used as a design criterion for a dam. Some important characteristics include soil type, land use, size and shape of the watershed, and average watershed slope. Both the volume and rate of runoff are affected. For example, water will run off of steep slopes more quickly than gentle ones. More water will infiltrate sandy soils than clay.

F.3.6 Application of the PMF

The percentage of the PMF that a dam must be designed to withstand depends upon its classification. The Texas Administrative Code's hydrologic criteria for dams is as shown in the table below.

HYDROLOGIC CRITERIA FOR DAMS		
Classification		-
Hazard	Size	Minimum Design Flood Hydrograph
Low (No. 3)	Small	1/4 PMF
	Intermediate	1/4 PMF to 1/2 PMF
	Large	PMF
Significant (No. 2)	Small	1/2 PMF
	Intermediate	1/2 PMF to 3/4 PMF
	Large	PMF
High (No. 1)	Small	3/4 PMF
	Intermediate	3/4 PMF to PMF
	Large	PMF

The exact percent of the PMF to be passed is determined by a straight-line interpolation of the dam height in the range. For example, a small, significant hazard dam would be between 6 to 40 feet high. If the dam has a height of 20 feet, the hydrologic criteria would be that the dam spillway should pass $20' \times (50\% - 25\%) / (40' - 6') + 25\%$ or 39.7% of the PMF.

There are some exemptions to minimum hydrologic criteria. Proposed low hazard dams exempt under the Texas Water Code, §11.142, (see below) are exempt from the minimum criteria. Any other proposed structure may be exempt from the minimum criteria if properly prepared dam breach analyses show that existing downstream improvements or known or planned future improvements will not be adversely affected. A properly prepared breach analysis should include at least three events, the normal storage capacity nonflood event, the barely overtopping event, and the PMF event. Data on additional flood magnitudes may be provided as necessary to document other conditions or conclusions. Downstream flooding differentials of one-foot or less between breach and nonbreach simulations are not considered to be adverse.

F.3.7 Water Rights

The Texas Water Code requires anyone appropriating State Water or beginning work to store or divert State Water to obtain a permit from the Texas Commission on Environmental Quality (TCEQ). Private developments with ponds that contain 200 acre-feet or less of storage and that are used exclusively for domestic and livestock purposes are exempt from this requirement (11.142–Permit Exemptions). This exemption is based in part on the premise that all such ponds would by their nature of construction and due to their location on ranches or farms, be *low* hazard dams. However, as soon as the purpose for and use of these ponds change, there is a requirement to inform the TCEQ and obtain water rights permit. Usually the downstream water rights holders do not challenge these new storage permits for existing small ponds; however notifications are sent out and public hearings could be held if there are objections to the permit. All dams that are classified as *significant* or *high* hazard must have a permit.

If any other use of the stored water were contemplated, such as using the pond water for irrigation purposes, then another water right authorization would be required. Authorization for a permit to divert State Water for other than domestic and livestock uses on a reservoir permitted for storage only, should be requested pursuant to Texas Water Code, 11.143.

F.4 Design Criteria

Preparation of all plans and specifications, and the construction, enlargement, alteration, repair, or removal of dams subject to TCEQ review shall be under the supervision of an engineer registered in Texas. Construction of a dam or the enlargement, repair, or alteration of an existing dam requiring TCEQ authorization shall not be commenced prior to the executive director's written approval of final construction plans and specifications. Construction plans and specifications shall be submitted to the executive director and shall be as completely detailed as necessary for submission to the contractors bidding on the proposal. The proper design of a dam involves a complex combination of engineering applications.

Failure of an impoundment structure and the sudden release of water is referred to as a dam breach. A breach may occur during flooding or in fair weather due to effects of erosion or seepage. The hydrologic and hydraulic design determines what the potential impacts of a dam breach might be and what volume and flow rate a structure must withstand.

The geotechnical and structural design must consider that the structure can safely withstand the hydraulic forces imposed by the estimated hydrologic and hydraulic design. The following steps are necessary for the design of an embankment or concrete dam and each step must be thoroughly evaluated and documented.

1. Hydrologic and Hydraulic Design

Determination of controlling design conditions and associated storm runoff.

Setting of spillway and stilling basin widths and elevations, top of dam elevation, and normal pool elevation if necessary.

2. Structural and geotechnical design of embankments, concrete structure, spillways, and drawdown structures.

3. Development of operation and maintenance procedures.

F.4.1 Hydrologic and Hydraulic Design

The height of the dam, the amount of freeboard, the size and capacity of the spillways must be designed to balance the hydrologic and hydraulic properties. The structure must be designed based on the size and classification of the dam. The hydrologic and hydraulic modeling is discussed elsewhere in the manual. General considerations include the sizing of the capacity of the outlet works and spillway.

F.4.2 Geotechnical Considerations

Information concerning geology, seismicity, foundation conditions, and construction materials is essential for any size structure. It is necessary for the stability of the structure that the material used in the embankment, as well as the foundation and adjacent earth have the necessary structural properties to withstand the hydrostatic forces required by the design. The foundation for these structures may vary significantly, and will affect the general shape and configuration of the embankment. In addition, the potential for seepage should be identified and provided for in the design. The embankment should also be adequately protected from surface erosion.

Field investigations to determine the soils and groundwater conditions for stability and seepage control must be considered. Stability analysis should consider after construction conditions, based on shear strength parameters as determined by laboratory tests.

F.4.3 Structural Considerations

Structural designs should be prepared in accordance with generally accepted structural engineering practices. Components of the dam, spillway or outlet structures should resist the most critical loading considering buoyancy, sliding, hydrostatic uplift, overturning, soil and water pressure forces, impact forces, and other loads.

Embankment dams are the most common type of dam constructed today. They generally have a trapezoidal shape with side slopes of two horizontal to one vertical or flatter. The ability of an embankment dam to resist the hydrostatic pressure caused by the water in the reservoir or detention pond is primarily the result of the weight of the materials and the strength of the materials which are used.

The embankment must be stable and resistant to movement under all operating conditions including rapid drawdown. Seepage through the embankment, abutments, and foundation should be controlled so that piping or surface slides do not occur. The embankment must be safe from overtopping by flow and surface erosion, or protected to allow these flows. The embankment must be safe from damage due to wave action or rain.

Concrete structures use many of the same considerations in the design. Concrete dams generally use their own weight as the primary resistance to sliding. Other considerations include the strength of the concrete, the hydrostatic uplift on the structure, silt load which may accumulate on the upstream toe, as well as overturning and impact forces.

F.4.4 Seepage Considerations

Embankment materials vary with the site. Their water retention capability is due to the low permeability of the embankment material whether it is a homogeneous mass of material or a zone of low permeability material in the structure. Materials used for the construction of embankment dams can include soil or rock. If the difference between the permeability of the core section of the embankment and the downstream shell is great, an internal drainage system is probably not needed. If the variation in permeability is not great, then the entire embankment section can become saturated and that condition reduces the stability of the structure. The drainage system could consist of a chimney drain, a toe drain, a blanket drain, finger drains, or a combination of these items.

Concrete structures are also subject to seepage. Seepage can be present at the dam foundation interface reducing the sliding resistance. A line of drain holes away from the upstream face can relieve seepage pressure under the structure.

F.4.5 Other Considerations

Slopes for most embankment sections can be as steep as two horizontal to one vertical, however if the slope is designed with grass and will need to be mowed, a three horizontal to one vertical is about as steep as can be maintained without special equipment. The higher the plasticity index of the material in the embankment section, the more possibility for slope failures and therefore flatter slopes should be used. Compaction of materials in the construction process is another critical item for consideration. The need for rock riprap or other type of slope protection is usually evaluated on a case specific need depending on the potential for wave or water erosion. Grass on the slopes particularly the downstream slope generally provides adequate protection for structures where overtopping is not an issue.

Slopes for concrete structures especially if they are designed for overtopping, need to consider the difference between headwater and tailwater, the potential for a hydraulic jump, and overturning stability.

There are many resources available for the design of dams. Design of Small Dams by the Bureau of Reclamation is a good resource for both embankment structures and concrete dams.

The attached forms for submittal of a dam for approval to TCEQ are needed.

F.5 Operation and Maintenance

Once completed, the structure must be kept in good condition by regular maintenance. This includes periodic inspection of the structure. Evaluating the structural condition of an existing dam includes, but is not limited to, visual inspections and evaluations of potential problems such as seepage, cracks, slides, conduit and control malfunctions, erosion, rodent damage, spillway blockage, and other structural and maintenance deficiencies which could lead to failure of a structure. In addition, existing dams may need to be re-evaluated in consideration of continuing downstream development. The Texas Water Commission has prepared Guidelines for Operation and Maintenance of Dams in Texas, which covers many of the considerations for dam safety.

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Appendix F Submittal Forms

Information Sheet: Existing Dam (Form TCEQ-20344)

Information Sheet: Proposed New Construction, Modification,
Repair, Alteration, or Removal of a Dam (Form TCEQ-20345)

Hydrologic and Hydraulic (H&H) Evaluation Summary (Form TCEQ-20346)

Engineer's Notification of Completion (Form TCEQ-20347)

Texas Commission on Environmental Quality

INFORMATION SHEET: EXISTING DAM

(PLEASE PRINT OR TYPE)

Reference 30 Texas Administrative Code, Chapter 299, Dams and Reservoirs

SECTION 1: OWNER INFORMATION

Owner's Name _____ Title _____
Organization _____

(Signature of Owner)

(Date)

Owner's Address _____

City _____ State _____ Zip Code _____

Phone Number () _____ Emergency Contact Phone () _____

Fax Number () _____ E-mail _____

Owner Code (Please check one): Federal (F) Local Government (L) Utility (U) Private (P) State (S)

Other (O) please specify: _____

Year Built _____ Year Modified _____

Dam and Reservoir Use (Please check one): Augmentation Diversion Domestic Erosion Control

Evaporation Flood Control Fire Control Fish Hydroelectric Industrial Irrigation Mining

Municipal Pollution Control Recreation Stock Water Settling Ponds Tailings Waste Disposal

Other, please specify: _____

Engineering Firm _____

Project Engineer _____ Texas P.E. License Number _____

Engineering Firm Address _____

City _____ State _____ Zip Code _____

Phone () _____ Fax () _____

E-mail _____

SECTION 2: GENERAL INFORMATION

Name of Dam _____

Other Name(s) of Dam _____

Reservoir Name _____

Location _____ Latitude _____ Longitude _____

County _____ Stream Name _____

River Basin _____ Topographic Map No. _____

Distance & Direction from Nearest City or Town _____

Last Inspection Date _____ Inspected by (name of company or agency) _____

TX Number _____ Water Rights Number _____

Date of Emergency Action Plan (EAP), if one exists _____

Describe the current operating condition of dam _____

If you have questions on how to fill out this form or about the Dam Safety Program, please contact us at 512-239-5195. Individuals are entitled to request and review their personal information that the agency gathers on its forms. They may also have any errors in their information corrected. To review such information, contact us at 512-239-3262.

TCEQ-20344 (1/07)

SECTION 3: INFORMATION ON DAM

Classification

Size Classification: Large Medium Small
Hazard Classification: High Significant Low
Number of People at Risk _____ Study Year _____

Type of Dam: Concrete Gravity Earthfill Rockfill Masonry Other (specify) _____

Dam Structure (dimensions to nearest tenth of foot, volume to nearest acre-foot or cubic yard, areas to nearest acre):

Spillway Height _____ ft (*natural surface of ground to bottom of emergency spillway at longitudinal centerline*)
Embankment Height _____ ft (*natural surface of ground to crest of dam at centerline*)
Structural Height _____ ft (*bottom of cutoff trench to crest of dam at centerline*)
Length of Dam _____ ft Crest Width _____ ft
Normal Pool Elevation _____ ft-MSL Principal Spillway Elevation _____ ft-MSL
Emergency Spillway Elevation _____ ft-MSL Top of Dam Elevation _____ ft-MSL
Embankment Volume _____ cu yd
Maximum Impoundment Capacity _____ ac-ft (*at top of dam*)
Normal Reservoir Capacity _____ ac-ft (*at normal or conservation pool*)
Reservoir Surface Area _____ acres (*at normal or conservation pool*)

Outlet

Outlet Diameter: _____ in ft (*check one*)
Type: _____

Principal Spillway

Type: Natural Riprap Concrete CMP RCP Other
Width (Diam.): _____ ft Capacity: _____ cfs

Emergency Spillway

Type: Natural Riprap Concrete CMP RCP Other
Width (Diam.): _____ ft Capacity: _____ cfs
Total Spillway Capacity: _____ cfs (*crest of the dam*)

SECTION 4: HYDROLOGIC INFORMATION

Required Hydrologic Criteria (% PMF) _____ % PMF Passing _____
PMF Study Year _____
Drainage Area: _____ acres, or _____ sq mi
Curve Number (AMC III condition) _____
Time of Concentration _____ hr
Peak Discharge _____ cfs
Peak Stage _____ ft-MSL
Storm Duration Causing Peak Stage _____ hr

Texas Commission on Environmental Quality

**INFORMATION SHEET: PROPOSED NEW CONSTRUCTION,
MODIFICATION, REPAIR, ALTERATION, OR REMOVAL OF A DAM
(PLEASE PRINT OR TYPE)**

Reference 30 Texas Administrative Code, Chapter 299, Dams and Reservoirs

PLEASE CHECK ONE: New Modification Repair Removal Alteration

SECTION 1: OWNER INFORMATION

Owner's Name _____ Title _____
Organization _____

I have authorized the submittal of the final construction plans and specifications to the TCEQ Dam Safety Program according to 30 TAC Chapter 299.

(Signature of Owner) (Date)

Owner's Address _____

City _____ State _____ Zip Code _____

Phone Number () _____ Emergency Contact Phone () _____

Fax Number () _____ E-mail _____

Owner Code (Please check one): Federal (F) Local Government (L) Utility (U) Private (P) State (S)
 Other (O) please specify: _____

Dam and Reservoir Use (Please check one): Augmentation Diversion Domestic Erosion Control Evaporation
 Flood Control Fire Control Fish Hydroelectric Industrial Irrigation Mining Municipal Pollution Control
Recreation Stock Water Settling Ponds Tailings Waste Disposal Other, please specify: _____

Engineering Firm _____

Project Engineer _____ Texas P.E. License Number _____

Engineering Firm Address _____

City _____ State _____ Zip Code _____

Phone () _____ Fax () _____

E-mail _____

SECTION 2: GENERAL INFORMATION

Name of Dam _____

Other Name(s) of Dam _____

Reservoir Name _____

Location _____ Latitude _____ Longitude _____

County _____ Stream Name _____

River Basin _____ Topographic Map No. _____

Distance and Direction from Nearest City or Town _____

TX Number _____ Water Rights Number _____

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TCEQ-20345 (1/07)

SECTION 3: INFORMATION ON DAM

Classification

Size Classification: Large Medium Small
Hazard Classification: High Significant Low
Number of People at Risk _____ Study Year _____

Type of Dam: Concrete Gravity Earthfill Rockfill Masonry Other (specify)

Dam Structure (dimensions to nearest tenth of foot, volume to nearest acre-foot or cubic yard, areas to nearest acre):

Spillway Height _____ ft (*natural surface of ground to bottom of emergency spillway at longitudinal centerline*)
Embankment Height _____ ft (*natural surface of ground to crest of dam at centerline*)
Structural Height _____ ft (*bottom of cutoff trench to crest of dam at centerline*)
Length of Dam _____ ft Crest Width _____ ft
Normal Pool Elevation _____ ft-MSL Principal Spillway Elevation _____ ft-MSL
Emergency Spillway Elevation _____ ft-MSL Top of Dam Elevation _____ ft-MSL
Embankment Volume _____ cu yd
Maximum Impoundment Capacity _____ ac-ft (*at top of dam*)
Normal Reservoir Capacity _____ ac-ft (*at normal or conservation pool*)
Reservoir Surface Area _____ acres (*at normal or conservation pool*)

Outlet

Outlet Diameter: _____ in ft (*check one*)
Type: _____

Principal Spillway

Type: Natural Riprap Concrete CMP RCP Other
Width (Diam.): _____ ft Capacity: _____ cfs

Emergency Spillway

Type: Natural Riprap Concrete CMP RCP Other
Width (Diam.): _____ ft Capacity: _____ cfs
Total Spillway Capacity: _____ cfs (*crest of the dam*)

SECTION 4: HYDROLOGIC INFORMATION

Required Hydrologic Criteria (% PMF) _____ % PMF Passing _____
PMF Study Year _____
Drainage Area: _____ acres, or _____ sq mi
Curve Number (AMC III condition) _____
Time of Concentration _____ hr
Peak Discharge _____ cfs
Peak Stage _____ ft-MSL
Storm Duration Causing Peak Stage _____ hr

Texas Commission on Environmental Quality

HYDROLOGIC AND HYDRAULIC (H&H) EVALUATION SUMMARY

(Please complete all sections, unless otherwise specified)

Name of Dam: _____

TCEQ Dam Safety Project No.: _____

County: _____

Year to Build: _____

Maximum Record Precipitation (in): _____

Record Area (county or city): _____

Duration (hr): _____

Date of Record (MM/DD/YY): _____

Source Ref. (FEMA, National Weather Service, etc.): _____

Downstream Dam Toe _____ (ft-MSL) Normal Reservoir Capacity _____ (ac-ft)

Normal Pool _____ (ft-MSL) Maximum Reservoir Capacity _____ (ac-ft)

Principal Spillway _____ (ft-MSL) Reservoir Surface Area _____ (ac)

Emergency Spillway _____ (ft-MSL) Drainage Area _____ (ac)

Top of Dam _____ (ft-MSL) Outlet Diameter or Cross-Section _____ (in)

Storm Duration	Peak Inflow (cfs)	Peak Outflow (cfs)	Peak Stage (ft-MSL)	% PMF Passing	Comments (if needed)
1 hr					
2 hr					
3hr					
6 hr					
12 hr					
24 hr					
48 hr					
72 hr					

To the best of my knowledge, I certify the above data are correct. I will supply the hydrologic and hydraulic reports to the Texas Commission on Environmental Quality upon request.

(P. E. Seal)

(Signature)

(Date)

TCEQ-20346 (1/07)

Texas Commission on Environmental Quality

ENGINEER'S NOTIFICATION OF COMPLETION (PLEASE PRINT OR TYPE)

PLEASE CHECK ONE: New Modification Repair Removal Alteration

TX Number _____ County _____

Adjudication Number _____ Permit Number _____

Name of Dam/Project _____

Owner:

Name _____

Address _____

City _____ State _____ Zip Code _____

Phone () _____ Emergency Contact Phone () _____

Fax () _____ E-mail _____

Engineering Firm:

Firm Name _____

Project Engineer _____ TX P.E. License No _____

Firm Address _____

City _____ State _____ Zip Code _____

Phone () _____ Fax () _____

E-mail _____

The project was completed on _____, 20____. To the best of my knowledge, the project was constructed in substantial conformance with plans, specifications, and change orders filed with and approved by the Texas Commission on Environmental Quality.

(P. E. Seal)

(Signature)

(Date)

If you have questions on how to fill out this form or about the Dam Safety Program, please contact us at 512-239-5195. Individuals are entitled to request and review their personal information that the agency gathers on its forms. They may also have any errors in their information corrected. To review such information, contact us at 512-239-3282.

TCEQ-20347 (1/07)