

**Appendix E1: The Effect of Technology and Public Education on the Water Quality of Dry Weather Runoff from Residential Neighborhoods**

> **The Residential Runoff Reduction Study**

## **Appendix E1 The Effect of Technology and Public Education on the Water Quality of Dry Weather Runoff from Residential Neighborhoods**

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**May 2003**

## **ABSTRACT**

Urban runoff is one of the largest contributors of pollutants to impaired surface waters in the United States, however little is known about effectiveness of potential best management actions (BMPs) to improve water quality. The goal of this study was to quantify the effectiveness of a technological BMP compared to public education as a BMP. The technological BMP consisted of a new evapotranspiration (ET) sprinkler controller that automatically changes sprinkler timing based on weather conditions using remotely controlled radio signals at a nearby weather station. Water quality (nutrients, trace metals, bacteria, pesticides, toxicity) was measured every two weeks for six months at five similar residential neighborhoods, then the technology plus education or education only treatments were applied to one neighborhood each, and measurements continued for another year. At the end of one year post intervention, there was virtually no difference in concentrations or pollutant flux over time. The technological and education treatments provided essentially no detectable increase or decrease in water quality following the intervention. The lack of detectable differences in water quality was a result of a combination of factors including large variability among measurements within a neighborhood and insufficient sample sizes to detect small changes in concentration or pollutant flux.

#### **INTRODUCTION**

Urban runoff has been identified as a major contributor to water quality problems throughout the United States (EPA 2000). Runoff from urban areas contains numerous potential pollutants including nutrients, trace metals, pesticides, and/or bacteria (US EPA 1987, Wong et al 1997, Smullen et al 1999, Ackerman and Schiff in press). These discharges have resulted in water quality impairments such as excessive blooms of algae (Bricker et al 1999), toxicity to aquatic organisms (deVlaming et al 2000, Bay et al 1996, closures of recreational shoreline for protection of human health (Noble et al 2000).

As managers become aware of the environmental concerns resulting from discharges of urban runoff, they are seeking methods and technologies for reducing or eliminating these discharges. Best management practices (BMPs) come in a variety of forms, including structural and non-structural control measures. Structural BMPs typically include technologically driven management actions that either reduce or eliminate runoff volume and/or attempt treatment of runoff prior to discharge. Non-structural BMPs typically are aimed at changing peoples attitudes or behavior that reduce the use of potential pollutants or limit their entry into the storm drainage systems. The most commonly cited form of non-structural BMPs is public education, which often consists of advertising campaigns, mailers, and other widely distributed educational materials.

The problem with both structural and nonstructural BMPs is that the efficiency and effectiveness of these BMPs are largely unknown. There is no uniform manner or standard method for independently testing these BMPs. Manufacturer information is occasionally available for some structural BMPs, but these data are looked upon suspiciously by most urban runoff managers as a result of their potential conflict of interest. Nonstructural BMPs, such as public education, are almost entirely without rigorous evaluation of their effectiveness. Hence, managers struggle with which BMPs to select, and in which environmental application, to achieve the greatest reduction in pollutant concentrations or mass emissions. At the same time, regulatory mechanisms like National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System (NPDES) Permits for municipal

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separate storm sewer systems or total maximum daily loads (TMDLs) continue to push the regulatory obligation of urban runoff managers to reduce concentrations and mass emissions of many potential pollutants.

The goal of this study is to compare the effectiveness of technological BMPs versus public education for reducing concentrations or mass emissions of potential pollutants in dry weather discharges. The technological BMP consisted of evapotranspiration (ET) controllers that communicate with landscape irrigation systems of individual households. This technology is designed to optimize watering times for landscaped areas, hence reducing overwatering and resultant runoff. The public education campaign focused on not just appropriate watering times, but also minimization of pesticide, herbicide, and fertilizer usage. These two types of BMPs were tested in residential neighborhoods, typically the most common land use in urban watersheds (Wong et al. 1997). Our goal was to determine if technology or education provides more pollutant reduction so that urban runoff managers can select optimal runoff pollutant minimization strategies.

#### **METHODS**

We used a before-after, control-impact (BACI) design for evaluating the effectiveness of both the sprinkler technology and public education. Each neighborhood was sampled every other week between December 2000 and June 2001. In June 2001, homes in one of the neighborhoods were outfitted with the ET sprinkler controllers. Since homeowners with the retrofitted sprinkler controllers were simultaneously being educated, a welldefined public education campaign was also begun with these homeowners. To ascertain the difference between education and ET sprinkler technology, homeowners in a second neighborhood were targeted with an identical public education campaign, but without effect of the ET sprinkler retrofit technology. There was no education or technology intervention in the remaining three neighborhoods, which served as control neighborhoods to document the effect of no treatment. Sampling at the five neighborhoods continued every other week from June 2001 to June 2002.

#### *ET Sprinkler Controller and Public Education*

The ET controller is described in detail elsewhere (*see Chapter 2 – Study Methods*). It is similar to any automatic sprinkler timer available at most home improvement stores and nurseries, but with the capacity to receive radio signals that will alter sprinkler timing based on current weather conditions. If weather is hot and dry, the radio signals call for longer or more frequent irrigation. If the weather is cool and moist, such as recent precipitation, the radio signals call for shorter or less frequent irrigation. For this study, the existing sprinkler timers that are set manually by the homeowner were replaced with the radio controlled ET controller systems. Trained technicians were used to ensure successful installation; ET controller requires programming for each valve including area (size of yard or planter per valve), soil type (clay, sand, etc.), and landscape type (turfgrass, shrubbery, etc.). The remaining irrigation system was unchanged, including piping and sprinkler head configuration.

Public education consisted of an initial informational packet containing three items. The first item was an introductory letter that described the purpose of the packet. The second item was a booklet with irrigation, fertilization and weed and pest control information. The centerfold of the booklet was a month-by-month guide to irrigating, fertilizing and pesticide application suitable for posting near their sprinkler timer. Third, each homeowner was supplied a soil probe for measuring the water content of their landscaped soils. In addition to the initial packet, monthly reminders were mailed to each homeowner including landscape maintenance tips such as irrigation system, water schedule, fertilizing, and weed and insect control. Suggested sprinkler run times (for the non-ET sprinkler neighborhood) and fertilizer or pesticide application usage, including non-toxic alternatives, were also provided in the monthly newsletter.

#### *Treatment Neighborhoods*

The five neighborhoods were located within a three mile radius in Irvine, CA. The selection criteria for the neighborhoods included similarity in: 1) age of neighborhood (approximately 20 years old); 2) primary land use (single family residential); 3) irrigation management factors (precipitation rate, soil type, plant type, slope and sun exposure); 4) proximity to radio signal for ET controller (all neighborhoods used the same signal). The five neighborhoods were designated 1001 (sprinkler retrofit + education), 1002 (control), 1003 (control), 1004 (control), and 1005 (education only). Although each of the five neighborhoods met the selection criteria, there were some differences worth noting (Table WQ1). First, the two treatment neighborhoods were larger, up to twice as large as the control neighborhoods. Second, the two treatment neighborhoods were more impervious, up to two twice as much impervious area, as the control neighborhoods. Third, the two treatment neighborhoods had greater proportions of landscaped common areas than any of the control neighborhoods.

The treatments were not uniformly applied to all homeowners in either the 1001 or 1005 neighborhoods. In the case of sprinkler + retrofit neighborhood (1001), roughly one third of the pervious area actually retrofit their sprinkler systems. These homeowners, condominium complexes, school and city landscaped areas were recruited by trained personnel. In order to keep the relative percentages approximately the same between treatment neighborhoods, homeowners representing roughly 30% of the pervious area were selected to receive the education materials in the education only neighborhood (1005). These homeowners were selected at random.

#### *Sampling and Laboratory Analysis*

Each of the five neighborhoods were hydrologically self-contained and drained to a single underground pipe unique to each neighborhood. At each of these five locations, samples were collected for flow and water quality. Stage (water depth) and velocity were recorded at 5 min intervals using an ultrasonic height sensor mounted at the pipe invert and a velocity sensor mounted on the floor of the pipe. Flow was calculated as the

product of velocity and wetted cross-sectional area as defined by the stage and pipe circumference. Despite the relatively continuous measurement of flow, many of the flow measurements were excluded due to faulty readings. Synoptic flow and water quality measurements were only available for two sites over the course of the entire study (i.e. before and after intervention), including the sprinkler + education and education only sites. Flow measurements at the time of water quality sampling for the three control sites were considered faulty and discarded.

Grab samples for water quality, collected just downstream of the flow sensors in the early morning, were collected using peristaltic pumps and pre-cleaned Teflon tubing. Samples were placed in individual pre-cleaned jars, placed on ice, and transported to the laboratory within one hour. Each sample was analyzed for 19 target analytes, five microbiological parameters, and four toxicity endpoints (Table WQ2). Target analytes included trace metals, nutrients, and organophosphorus (OP) pesticides. Microbiological parameters included fecal indicator bacteria and bacteriophage. Toxicity was eva luated using two marine species, the purple sea urchin *Strongylocentrotus purpuratus* and the mysid *Americamysis bahia*. Toxicity endpoints included the median effects concentration that estimates the concentration at which 50% of the sample population is affected (EC50) and the no effect concentration that estimates the highest concentration at which no effect is observed (NOEC). All of the laboratory methodologies followed standard protocols developed by the US EPA (1995, 1993, 1983) or Standard Methods (APHA 2001).

## *Data Analysis*

Data analysis consisted of five steps. These steps included: 1) comparison of water quality among the five neighborhoods prior to intervention; 2) comparison of water quality concentrations over time by neighborhood; 3) comparison of water quality concentrations before and after intervention by treatment type; 4) comparison of pollutant flux before and after intervention by treatment type; and 5) correlation of toxicity measures with potential toxicants in dry weather runoff.

Comparison of water quality concentrations among the five neighborhoods prior to intervention was conducted to assess if there were inherent differences among treatment sites for each constituent. This analysis was conducted using an analysis of variance (ANOVA) using Tukey's post hoc test for identifying the significantly different neighborhoods. All data were tested for normality and homogeneous variance prior to testing. Only the microbiological data were determined to be non-normally distributed, so these results were log transformed prior to data analysis

Comparison of water quality concentrations over time was accomplished by creating temporal plots of monthly mean concentration. Comparisons of water quality concentration before and after intervention by treatment type were accomplished using a standard t-test of the mean concentration before versus mean concentration after intervention. The mean concentrations for sprinkler+education, education only, and sprinkler+education – education only for each sampling event were normalized by the grand mean of the control sites for the same sampling event.

Pollutant flux estimates were calculated by the product of the concentration and volume at the time of sampling and then normalized to the area of the sampled neighborhood. Pollutant flux before and after treatment was compared somewhat differently since the lack of flow data at the control sites did not permit an estimate of flux for these neighborhoods. Mean pollutant flux before and after intervention was compared using standard t-tests at the sprinkler+education and education only neighborhoods without normalization to control values.

Correlation of toxicity with toxicant concentrations was accomplished using a Pearson product moment correlation. These correlations are inferential only and do not presume resulting correlations automatically identify the responsible toxicants. In order to help identify potential causative toxic agents, concentrations of the correlated constituents were compared to concentrations known to induce toxicity in the respective test organisms.

#### **RESULTS**

There were significant differences in water quality among sites prior to intervention (Table WQ3). Site 1004, the control site, had the greatest mean concentrations for 15 of the 24 constituents evaluated prior to the sprinkler intervention. Mean concentrations for seven of the 15 constituents were significantly greater at site 1004 than mean concentrations at least one other site (ANOVA,  $p<0.05$ ). In particular, all of the mean nutrient concentrations were greater at site 1004 than the other sites. Mean ammonia, nitrate/nitrite, and TKN were a factor of 13, 11, and 2.5-fold greater at site 1004 than the mean concentrations at the next greatest site, respectively. On the other hand, sites 1001 and 1002 generally had the lowest average concentrations prior to the sprinkler intervention. Cumulatively, these sites had the lowest mean concentrations for 17 of the 24 constituents evaluated. Site 1002 also had the least toxicity, on average, of all five sites. Finally, site 1003 had an intermediate status. Mean concentrations of enterococcus and fecal coliforms at this site were greater than any other site (fecal coliforms significantly greater than sites 1001 and 1002), but the mean concentrations of five trace metals (chromium, copper, cobalt, nickel, selenium) were lowest at this site.

Water quality concentrations and toxicity were highly variable over time during the study period (Figure WQ1). Temporal plots of concentrations and toxicity for each site demonstrated that there was no seasonal trend and no overall trend with time. There were, however, occasional spikes in concentrations for many constituents that appeared to fall into one of two categories. The first category was recurring spikes in concentration that were unpredictable in timing and location. For example, both fecal coliform and enterococcus consistently varied by more than an order of magnitude from month to month during the study period and there was no similarity in pattern between the sites. The second category of concentration spike was single or infrequent peaks. Occasionally these spikes would occur across multiple sites, such as the peak in both lead and zinc at all three control sites (1002, 1003, and 1004) in October 2001, without

commensurate changes in concentration at the treatment sites (1001 or 1005). More often, infrequent spikes were isolated to a single site. For example, concentrations of chlorpyrifos climbed to over 10,000 ng/L in July 2001, but averaged near 50 ng/L the remainder of the year at site 1005. Similarly, concentrations of ammonia and total phosphorus spiked 10 and 25-fold prior to June 2001 at the control site (1004) with less variability and overall lower concentrations the remainder of the study.

There were few significant differences that resulted from the intervention of education, sprinkler retrofit and education, or sprinkler retrofit minus education, relative to control sites (Table WQ4). Only six of the 24 constituents evaluated showed a significant difference between pre and post-intervention concentrations after normalizing to mean control values. These significant differences were a net increase in concentrations of ammonia, nitrate/nitrite, total phosphorus, chlorpyrifos, diazinon, and fecal coliforms. These statistical analyses were the result of one of two circumstances. In the first circumstance, there were individual large spikes in concentration at treatment sites, but not at control sites following intervention (i.e. chlorpyrifos and diazinon at sites 1001 and 1005). Therefore, the net difference in concentrations between controls and treatments increased following the intervention. In these cases, removal of the outlier samples resulted in no significant difference among treatment effects relative to controls before intervention compared to after intervention. In the second circumstance, there were large spikes in concentrations at control site(s) prior to the intervention (i.e. ammonia, nitrate/nitrite, and total phosphorus at site 1004) that later subsided while treatment site concentrations and variability remained steady. Therefore, the difference between treatments and controls changed following interventions, although it was not a result of the education or technology.

Although there were no significant differences in pollutant flux as a result of the intervention, there were significant differences in pollutant flux among sites prior to intervention (Table W5). Mean flux did not change at either site from before to after the installation of technology or initiation of education. Site 1001 however, the sprinkler+education site, had the greatest mean flux for 22 of the 24 constituents

evaluated prior to the sprinkler intervention. The mean flux for 20 of these 22 constituents was significantly greater at site 1001 than the mean flux at site 1005 (t-test, p<0.05). Site 1005 had greater mean fluxes only for MS2 phage and ammonia. The differences among the fluxes prior to (and after) intervention was the result of two factors; greater flow and, at times, greater concentrations at site 1001 compared to site 1005. Mean dry weather flow at the time of water quality sampling was nearly three times greater at site 1001 than 1005.

Toxicity was inconsistently found at all five of the sampling sites (Table WQ3, Figure WQ4) and there was no change in toxicity as a result of the intervention (Table WQ4). The two species tested did not respond similarly either among sites, among treatments, or over time. Correlation of toxicity with constituent concentrations yielded few significant relationships for either species (Table WQ6). Mysid toxicity was correlated with diazinon and several trace metals, but the strongest relationship was with diazinon concentration. Moreover, the concentrations of diazinon were well above the levels known to cause adverse effects in this species while trace metals were not (Table WQ7). Sea urchin fertilization toxicity was only correlated with concentrations of zinc. The concentrations of zinc were well above the level known to induce adverse effects in this species (Table WQ7).

## **DISCUSSION**

This study was unable to find large, significant reductions in concentration or pollutant flux as a result of education and/or sprinkler retrofit technology. This may indicate that the technology and/or education are inefficient for improvements in water quality. Equally as important, however, was the absence of meaningful increases in concentrations. Of the small number of concentrations that showed significant increases, most could be explained by highly variable spikes in concentrations reminiscent of

isolated entries to the storm drain system as opposed to ongoing chronic inputs or the effects of best management practices evaluated in this study.

If significant changes did occur, our study design may not have detected these changes due to two factors. First, the variability in concentrations within and between sites are naturally high and our study simply collected too few samples. After taking into account the variability and relative differences in mean concentrations, we used zinc as an example constituent to determine what sample sizes would be required to detect meaningful differences. Assuming that our sampling yielded the true mean and variance structure that actually existed at the five sites, power analysis indicated that a minimum sample size of no less than five-fold would have been required to detect the differences we observed in zinc concentrations during this study.

The second factor that could have hindered our ability to detect meaningful differences in water quality is that the technology and education treatments were applied at the spatial scale of individual homes, while our study design sampled at the neighborhood scale. This problem was exacerbated in this study because only a fraction (approximately onethird) of the homes within the neighborhoods we sampled had the technological or educational treatments. Therefore, the treatments were effectively diluted, decreasing our ability to detect differences in water quality.

It appears that residential dry weather flows measured in our study may contribute significant proportions of some constituents to overall watershed discharges. Our study sites were located within the San Diego Creek watershed, the largest tributary to Newport Bay. San Diego Creek is routinely monitored to provide environmental managers the information they need to properly manage the Bay (OCPFRD 2002). We compiled the dry weather monitoring data at the mouth of San Diego Creek from OCPFRD during 2001-2002 and compared the concentrations to our results from residential neighborhoods (Table wq5). Mean concentrations of chlorpyrifos, diazinon, copper and zinc were much higher in upstream residential neighborhoods, than concentrations measured at the mouth of San Diego Creek. These residential dry weather contributions

are amplified by the fact that the San Diego Creek watershed is primarily composed of residential land uses. In contrast, concentrations of selenium, arsenic, and total phosphorus in the residential dry weather discharges were much lower than the cumulative dry weather discharges from San Diego Creek, indicating that residential areas may not be the primary source of these constituents.

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	Neighborhood									
	1001	1002	1003	1004	1005					
Total Area (ft <sup>2</sup> )	5,174,861	2,145,864	2,426,731	3,868,375	6,176,782					
Impervious Area (%)	64.3	30.3	33.6	54.8	82.2					
Land Use (%)										
Single Family Res	34.4	52.8	65.4	53.8	47.9					
Condo	7.7	2.2	0.0	0.0	1.1					
Homeowners Assoc	1.6	8.1	0.0	1.0	4.3					
School	3.8	0.0	0.0	9.0	4.2					
Landscape	16.3	0.1	6.6	0.0	12.5					
<b>Street</b>	29.2	30.4	28.1	28.2	28.1					
<b>Unknown</b>	7.0	6.5	0.0	8.0	1.9					

Table WQ1. Characteristics of the five treatment<sup>a</sup> study neighborhoods.

 $a$  1002, 1003, 1004=control, 1005=education, 1001=education + sprinkler retrofit



# Table WQ2. Reporting level and method for target analytes.

Table WQ3. Mean concentration (and 95% confidence interval) of constituents in dry weather discharges collected before and after intervention<sup>a</sup> at five residential neighborhoods in Orange County, CA.

			Site 1001				Site 1002				Site 1003				Site 1004				Site 1005	
Parameter		Pre-Intervention		Post-Intervention		Pre-Intervention		Post-Intervention		Pre-Intervention		Post-Intervention		Pre-Intervention		Post-Inter vention	Pre-Intervention			Post-Intervention
	Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI
Metals (ug/L)																				
Antimony	3.28	0.52	3.09	0.51	2.90	0.29	3.49	0.73	3.33	0.60	3.71	0.72	2.98	0.33	3.46	0.51	2.66	0.30	3.11	0.58
Arsenic	2.19	0.64	2.61	0.95	1.99	0.41	2.87	1.25	1.58	0.35	2.38	0.94	4.06	0.85	3.07	0.95	2.44	0.60	3.02	0.97
Barium	80.91	11.61	93.04	10.97	87.39	9.00	105.12	23.99	88.34	6.09	80.12	11.72	79.22	21.23	82.01	13.16	94.36	13.93	104.55	17.74
Cadmium	0.26	0.09	0.15	0.07	0.26	0.11	0.42	0.38	0.25	0.12	0.23	0.18	0.37	0.14	0.21	0.12	0.28	0.12	0.28	0.18
Chromium	2.49	0.98	1.97	0.59	3.74	1.53	4.72	3.35	1.96	0.41	2.70	1.25	3.31	1.41	2.44	0.82	4.01	2.79	3.89	2.01
Cobalt	0.43	0.11	0.50	0.21	0.65	0.28	1.19	0.81	0.40	0.11	0.53	0.26	0.97	0.49	0.73	0.25	0.64	0.19	1.08	0.54
Copper	13.91	4.31	16.14	7.27	31.50	30.24	27.12	17.30	11.82	2.57	24.30	15.41	24.02	12.64	16.81	6.71	33.98	39.62	29.67	14.38
Lead	0.57	0.18	1.63	1.15	6.95	9.32	4.23	2.90	0.88	0.40	1.45	0.88	4.09	4.84	1.34	0.69	0.79	0.23	3.09	1.98
Nickel	9.28	0.91	9.32	1.87	9.40	1.58	10.94	4.14	7.76	0.72	7.87	2.06	11.18	1.94	9.11	1.60	9.97	1.46	10.23	2.33
Selenium	2.43	0.13	2.50	0.00	2.43	0.13	2.50	0.00	2.30	0.26	2.50	0.00	2.43	0.13	2.50	0.00	2.30	0.26	2.50	0.00
Silver	0.13	0.05	0.14	0.07	0.11	0.02	0.18	0.10	0.17	0.09	0.17	0.15	0.12	0.03	0.16	0.17	0.16	0.09	0.17	0.15
Zinc	58.75	7.13	40.57	10.49	130.25	115.77	65.28	29.77	59.33	14.92	53.58	16.10	93.40	50.30	40.80	12.22	73.08	31.52	75.74	35.18
Microbiology (Log)																				
Enterococcus (MPN/100 mL)	3.95	0.43	3.24	0.18	3.80	0.38	4.16	0.35	4.36	0.68	4.22	0.24	4.49	0.61	4.35	0.25	4.34	0.31	4.37	0.29
Fecal Coliform (MPN/100 mL)	3.45	0.31	2.94	0.27	3.15	0.37	3.50	0.45	4.13	0.33	3.67	0.32	4.08	0.35	3.84	0.32	3.88	0.33	3.67	0.23
Total Coliform (MPN/100 mL)	4.16	0.27	3.82	0.24	4.30	0.30	4.51	0.46	4.70	0.33	4.36	0.26	5.04	0.39	4.50	0.27	4.53	0.34	4.51	0.24
MS2 Phage (PFU/100 mL)	$-0.30$	0.00	0.02	0.55	$-0.30$	0.00	$-0.09$	0.52	$-0.19$	0.14	0.02	0.53	0.30	0.44	0.05	0.52	0.05	0.43	0.33	0.54
Somatic Phage (PFU/100 mL)	2.00	0.35	2.02	0.49	1.84	0.42	1.81	0.69	2.59	0.40	2.24	0.62	2.88	0.32	2.52	0.54	2.16	0.46	2.37	0.47
Nutrients (mg/L)																				
Ammonia as N	0.17	0.15	0.08	0.03	0.17	0.07	0.39	0.51	0.23	0.11	0.28	0.23	7.32	4.93	0.31	0.26	0.65	0.32	0.42	0.24
Nitrate/Nitrite as N	2.72	0.50	1.48	0.28	3.00	1.14	1.00	0.33	2.35	0.96	1.63	0.78	38.71	18.21	9.29	6.58	2.94	0.61	3.70	4.48
<b>Total Kjeldahl Nitrogen</b>	1.62	0.51	1.87	1.20	1.75	0.62	2.38	0.92	1.96	1.33	2.61	1.75	11.18	5.71	3.60	2.03	4.49	2.64	3.51	1.65
Ortho-Phosphate as P	0.65	0.15	0.64	0.12	0.80	0.25	0.73	0.14	0.79	0.39	1.21	0.75	2.93	0.90	1.55	0.57	0.87	0.25	1.00	0.22
<b>Total Phosphorus</b>	0.79	0.21	0.63	0.16	0.78	0.25	0.82	0.23	1.22	0.83	1.19	1.07	3.30	1.37	1.46	0.73	0.96	0.39	1.16	0.40
OP Pesticides (ng/L)																				
Chlorpyrifos	22.66	9.27	442.78	827.29									45.54	33.48	11.34	6.31	75.27	64.41	803.44	1433.34
Diazinon	1680.45	1379.39	829.56	338.72									3265.38	3277.20	1650.50	1540.87	1159.12	553.01	1738.58	721.44
Toxicity (% effluent)																				
Fertilization EC50	47.26	8.89	53.73	6.17	57.37	3.48	51.94	9.85	41.60	8.94	49.58	10.17	49.79	8.96	55.91	6.48	43.81	9.26	58.35	2.98
<b>Fertilization NOEC</b>	25.36	8.61	44.62	10.32	35.00	8.54	46.23	11.11	32.07	13.27	37.69	11.15	32.50	9.66	51.92	7.67	22.00	9.31	42.88	9.76
Mysid EC50	46.76	25.04	60.00	0.00	56.32	10.22	39.04	35.71	39.10	24.16	51.94	22.38	54.28	15.88	49.36	25.33	39.32	25.25	60.00	0.00
Mysid NOEC	90.71	17.23	104.00	9.49	82.14	18.13	95.00	16.20	95.71	12.20	77.50	17.53	64.29	16.73	68.50	22.30	53.86	14.81	83.00	17.96

 $a$  1002, 1003, 1004=control, 1005=education, 1001=education + sprinkler retrofit



Table WQ4. Significance of ANOVA results for the effect of sprinkler + education, education alone, and the difference between sprinkler + education and education alone relative to control concentrations. No data indicates  $p > 0.05$ 

mervendon al eno residendar neignoomoods in Orange County, Crit <b>Parameter</b>			Site 1001	<b>Site 1005</b>				
	Pre-Intervention		Post-Intervention		Pre-Intervention		Post-Intervention	
	<b>Mean Flux</b>	95% CI	<b>Mean Flux</b>	95% CI	<b>Mean Flux</b>	95% CI	Mean Flux	95% CI
Metals (ug/hr/km <sup>2</sup> )								
Antimony	1564	740	920	410	167	99	1756	1666
Arsenic	1476	1006	741	427	164	107	2610	2425
Barium	41644	18423	29241	11384	6537	4624	83266	71121
Beryllium	43	17	36	15	$\overline{7}$	5	94	79
Cadmium	157	97	40	17	13	5	207	189
Chromium	880	474	562	264	155	86	3199	2810
Cobalt	273	166	131	57	41	21	958	854
Copper	4738	2383	3600	1587	2233	1178	13717	11137
Lead	1149	861	253	133	81	52	1475	1270
Nickel	4287	2096	2743	1249	636	465	7319	6221
Selenium	1075	420	910	367	177	132	2045	1894
Silver	58	19	49	35	13	8	64	73
Zinc	28968	13481	11264	9171	5589	3276	39966	39179
Microbiology (Log)								
Enterococcus (MPN/hr/km <sup>2</sup> )	1771	768	1437	624	281	208	1822	1464
Fecal Coliform (MPN/hr/km <sup>2</sup> ))	1254	567	955	418	234	170	3393	3251
Total Coliform (MPN/hr/km <sup>2</sup> )	1628	607	1264	489	284	193	3902	3687
Somatic Phage (PFU/hr/km <sup>2</sup> )	976	480	650	282	57	32	748	550
Nutrients (mg/hr/km <sup>2</sup> )								
Ammonia as N	584	324	339	260	1145	1236	2466	2475
Nitrate/Nitrite as N	12981	6366	4316	2174	1849	1706	12102	9812
<b>Total Kjeldahl Nitrogen</b>	8144	4881	3621	1893	3083	2614	18149	13628
Ortho-Phosphate as P	4822	2535	1516	679	504	279	6735	6634
<b>Total Phosphorus</b>	4875	2573	1645	657	477	308	7782	8007
Pesticides (ng/hr/km <sup>2</sup> )								
Chlorpyrifos	8	8	$\overline{7}$	4	3	5	26	20
Diazinon	467	606	234	185	56	36	822	579

Table WQ5. Mean flux (and 95% confidence interval) of constituents in dry weather discharges collected before and after intervention<sup>a</sup> at two residential neighborhoods in Orange County, CA.

 $a$  1005=education, 1001=education + sprinkler retrofit

Table WQ6. Correlation coefficients (and p value) of constituent concentrations with toxicity endpoints (No Observed Effect Concentration, NOEC and Median Effect Concentration, EC50) in dry weather discharges from residential neighborhoods in Orange County, CA. No data indicates  $p > 0.05$ 





Table WQ7. Comparison of median effect concentrations for the mysid survival (*Americamysis bahia*) and sea urchin (*Strongylocentrotus purpuratus* ) fertilization tests.

- indicates no data available

Table WQ8. Comparison of mean concentrations (95% confidence intervals) in residential dry weather discharges from this study compared to concentrations in dry weather discharges from San Diego Creek at Campus during 2001-2002 (Data from OCPFRD).





Figure WQ1. Monthly average concentrations in dry weather discharges from five residential neighborhoods in Orange ounty, CA.

Figure WQ1 continued.









Figure WQ2. Toxicity of dry weather discharges from five residential neighborhoods in Orange County, CA