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Andrés Doménech, I.; Hernández Crespo, C.; Martín Monerris, M.; Andrés-Valeri, VC. (2018). Characterization of wash-off from urban impervious surfaces and SuDS design criteria for source control under semi-arid conditions. *The Science of The Total Environment*. 612:1320-1328. doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.09.011



The final publication is available at

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.09.011>

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Additional Information

1 Characterization of wash-off from urban impervious surfaces and SuDS design criteria for source 2 control under semi-arid conditions

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8 9 **Abstract**

10 Knowledge about pollutant wash-off from urban impervious surfaces is a key feature for developing
11 effective management strategies. Accordingly, further information is required about urban areas
12 under semi-arid climate conditions at the sub-catchment scale. This is important for designing source
13 control systems for pollution. In this study, a characterization of pollutant wash-off has been
14 performed over sixteen months, at the sub-catchment scale for urban roads as impervious surfaces.
15 The study was conducted in Valencia, Spain, a city with a Mediterranean climate. The results show
16 high event mean concentrations for suspended solids (98 mg/l), organic matter (142 mg COD/l, 25
17 mg BOD₅/l), nutrients (3.7 mg TN/l, 0.4 mg TP/l), and metals (0.23, 0.32, 0.62 and 0.17 mg/l for Cu,
18 Ni, Pb, and Zn, respectively). The results of the runoff characterization highlight the need to control
19 this pollution at its source, separately from wastewater because of their different characteristics. The
20 wash-off, defined in terms of mobilized mass (g/m²) fits well with both process-based and statistical
21 models, with the runoff volume and rainfall depth being the main explanatory variables. Based on
22 these results and using information collected from hydrographs and pollutographs, an approach for
23 sizing sustainable urban drainage systems (SuDS), focusing on water quality and quantity variables,
24 has been proposed. By setting a concentration-based target (TSS discharged to receiving waters <35
25 mg/l), the results indicate that for a SuDS type detention basin (DB), an off-line configuration
26 performs better than an on-line configuration. The resulting design criterion, expressed as SuDS
27 volume per unit catchment area, assuming a DB type SuDS, varies between 7 and 10 l/m².

28
29 **Keywords:** wash-off; wash-off modelling; urban impervious surfaces; SuDS design criteria; semi-arid
30 conditions

31 32 **1. Introduction**

33
34 One of the current major challenges in urban areas is adequate stormwater management. Runoff
35 generated in urban areas from daily activities is an important driver of pollution in receiving water
36 bodies. Among these pollutants are suspended solids, organic matter, nutrients, metals,
37 hydrocarbons, pesticides, and pathogens, among others (Woods et al. 2015). Furthermore, some are
38 included in the European list of priority hazardous substances (2008/105/CE).

39
40 Traditionally, stormwater management in cities has been focused on conveying runoff quickly from
41 urban areas, through combined or stormwater sewer systems, to treatment plants or the aquatic
42 environments of receiving waters (Castro-Fresno et al 2013). Combined sewer overflows are widely
43 recognized to produce negative environmental impacts on water bodies, so in accordance with the
44 implementation of the Water Framework Directive (2000/60/EC), water basin administrators are
45 seeking the most efficient stormwater management solutions. Currently, stormwater management

46 philosophies are changing and a transition to more sustainable and holistic approaches is taking
47 place (Perales-Momparler et al. 2016). Sustainable urban drainage systems (SuDS) represent nature
48 based solutions that use natural processes to mimic the natural water cycle. Although their
49 implementation is increasing throughout the world, practical experience in applying these systems in
50 semi-arid regions is still limited, mainly due to uncertainty about their efficiency under climatic
51 conditions of extended dry periods followed by infrequent torrential rain. Some experience has been
52 developed in the Mediterranean region consisting of the characterization of urban runoff and SuDS
53 design proposals or performance assessments of constructed wetlands for treating highway runoff
54 (Lee et al. 2004; Terzakis et al. 2008).

55

56 In this sense, it is important to have more information on the characteristics of urban runoff in this
57 climatic region, to adapt the design criteria to provide greater certainty for the implementation of
58 SuDS and accelerate the transition towards new urban design models. Additional knowledge of the
59 runoff generated from specific types of urban surfaces is needed in order to optimize the design of
60 pollution control systems at the source (Brodie and Dunn, 2010). For example, it is important to
61 know whether a 'first flush', a term usually used to indicate a disproportionately high delivery of
62 either concentration or mass of a constituent during the first part of a rainfall or runoff event, is
63 produced (Sansalone and Cristina, 2004).

64

65 The development of mathematical models for characterizing urban runoff is an important task since
66 they represent a useful tool for the design and management of urban drainage systems. These
67 models can be classified as 'process-based' stormwater models or regression models (Chen et al.
68 2006; Murphy et al. 2015). Classical build-up and wash-off pollutant models are within the first
69 group. They consider antecedent dry days (ADD) and event runoff volume (V_r) as the two main
70 explanatory variables, respectively (Wang et al., 2011). The pollutant accumulation on a catchment
71 surface, or the build-up process, is typically estimated as a linear, exponential, power, or Michaelis-
72 Menten function of the number of ADDs since the previous storm event (Vaze and Chiew, 2002).
73 The modelling of the pollutant build-up process is a complex task since it depends on several factors
74 such as the proportion of the surface pollutant load removed in the previous event and the cleaning
75 or maintenance of the surface (Vaze and Chiew 2002; Zhao et al. 2016). The wash-off process is
76 commonly modelled as an exponential function of V_r (Chen et al. 2006) or the product of rainfall
77 duration (D) and rainfall intensity (I) (Egodawatta et al. 2009; Wijesiri et al. 2015), since the rainfall
78 intensity determines the erosive capacity of the event.

79

80 Regression models are generally used with logarithmically transformed data and have been widely
81 used to predict urban runoff pollutant concentrations (Murphy et al. 2015) and runoff loads at
82 different time scales (intra-event, event, seasonal, or annual) (Shaw et al. 2010). An important
83 advantage of these models is their simplicity and ease of calibration once the explanatory variables
84 have been established. In addition, they can help to identify interesting behaviours such as whether
85 pollutants are predominantly in the particulate phase dependent on rainfall intensity and duration;
86 or predominantly in the dissolved phase dependent on higher rainfall depth (Murphy et al. 2015).
87 Nevertheless, their application outside calibrated conditions has a higher uncertainty, as these
88 models generally do not use physical variables.

89

90 This present study raises the hypothesis that runoff generated from impervious surfaces at the sub-
91 catchment scale in semi-arid climatic conditions demonstrates a first flush behaviour. If this
92 hypothesis is true, recommendations for the design and maintenance of SuDS for managing urban
93 stormwater may be proposed based on this behaviour. To address this issue, the following objectives
94 are set: to characterize the runoff generated from an urban roadways with moderate traffic intensity
95 from a quantity and quality perspective; to classify and characterize urban runoff using
96 corresponding pollution hazard levels established in international manuals (Woods et al. 2015); and
97 to evaluate the most influential meteorological variables on pollutant wash-off in order to analyse
98 the design and management of this kind of SuDS infrastructure. To achieve these aims, urban runoff
99 was collected at sub-catchment scale, at a drainage inlet just before it was mixed with wastewater
100 from the sewage system, to avoid any interference associated with the combined flow.

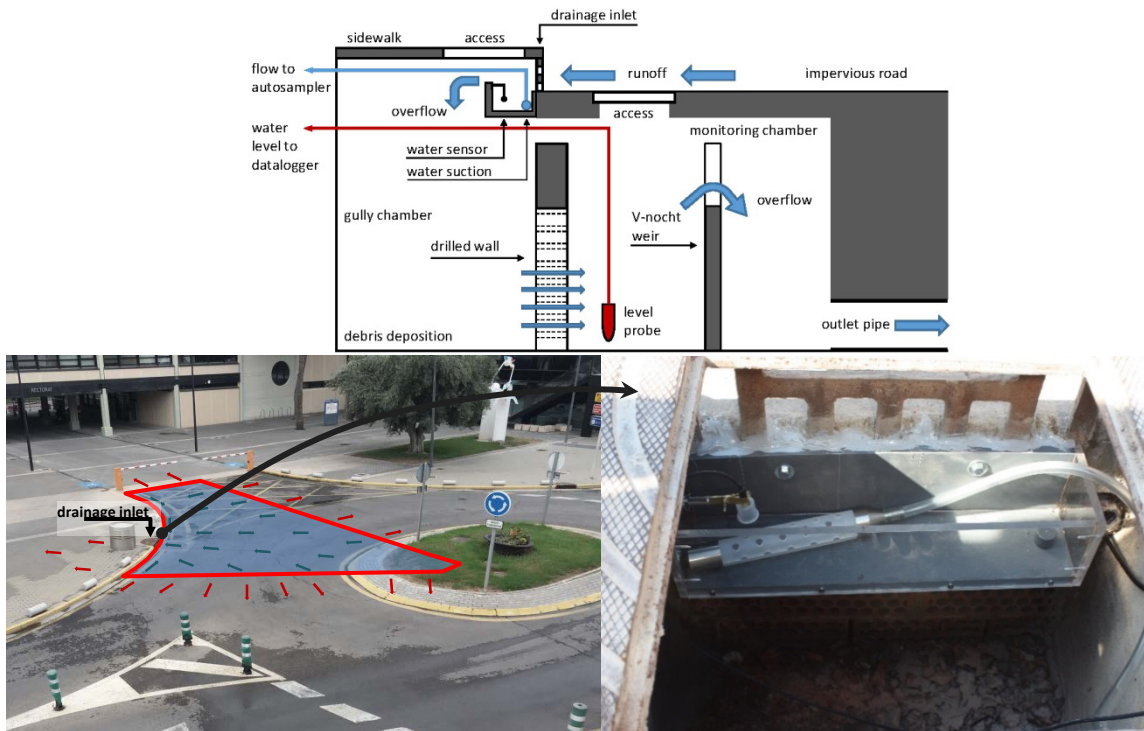
101

102 **2. Materials and methods**

103

104 **2.1 Study site, field measurements, and sampling**

105 The study site is located in Valencia, Spain. Valencia is on the east coast of Spain, and has a mild
106 Mediterranean climate with some semiarid features. The average annual temperature is around 18
107 °C, with oscillations between 11 °C in winter and 26 °C in summer. Average annual rainfall is close to
108 450 mm, with a strong seasonality. Heavy rainfall and storms are usually concentrated in autumn
109 months, with typically high, torrential intensities, and this influx is managed using a combined
110 sewage system (Andrés-Doménech et al. 2015; García-Bartual and Andrés-Doménech 2017). The
111 monitored site is a 79 m² impervious urban catchment located within the campus of the Polytechnic
112 University of Valencia (Figure 1), including mainly the impervious surface of a roundabout and, to a
113 lesser extent, part of its garden area. This catchment area and the divide to the inlet were
114 obtained after the completion of a topographical survey using 3D laser scanning. The site is on one of
115 the main access roads to the campus, so it experiences intense traffic on weekdays (approximately
116 2500 vehicles/d; estimated by traffic count at different times and days of the week) but scarce traffic
117 on the weekend. Surface cleaning is performed daily by a sweeping machine and once a week by
118 flushing with water.



119
 120 Figure 1. A schematic diagram of the monitoring instrumentation (above), images of the impervious catchment and
 121 drainage inlet (lower left), and the automatic sampler and supply line inside the drainage inlet (lower right).

122
 123 To monitor the quantity and quality of water from this catchment, one drainage inlet was selected to
 124 locate the necessary instrumentation. The purpose of monitoring the drainage inlet is to collect
 125 surface runoff before it is mixed with wastewater in the combined sewer, thus obtaining valuable
 126 information for the management of urban runoff at source. To achieve this, a chamber was
 127 constructed between the inlet and the access hole of the drain, to install a V-notch weir (90°) with a
 128 submersible depth pressure transmitter (Protran® PR3441) that records the water level every
 129 minute. As the water level is measured upstream of the weir, the flow is calculated by applying the
 130 corresponding Bernoulli relationship. On the footpath, a cabinet was installed to house an automatic
 131 sampler (ISCO3270), equipped with a liquid detector, a set of 24 one litre bottles, and a data logger
 132 for the level probe. A rain gauge (Detectronic rainfall gauge, 0.2 mm accuracy, with a Bühler Montec
 133 datalogger) is also used in the monitoring system.

134
 135 The runoff events were measured for all rainfall events that occurred between September 2013 and
 136 December 2014. Twenty-eight events were recorded during this period for water quantity. Of these,
 137 14 events were also monitored for water quality characterization; of these, 8 events occurred on
 138 weekdays (high traffic intensity) and 6 on weekends (very low traffic). A small container (2 l) was
 139 installed in the constructed chamber to collect the runoff samples by the autosampler (Figure 1). The
 140 frequency of sampling was variable, with the following schedule used to take 24 samples: the first 10
 141 samples were taken every 3 min, then the next 6 samples were taken every 5 min, and finally, 8
 142 samples were taken every 10 min, to adequately cover the variability of the water quality. In
 143 addition, atmospheric deposition was measured by collecting rain water with a total deposition
 144 sampler, measuring the concentration of physicochemical variables, dividing these results by the
 145 area of the sampler and the antecedent dry period, and multiplying by the volume of water collected
 146 to express the deposition in terms of mass per area and time.

147

148 **2.2 Chemical analysis**

149 Chemical oxygen demand (COD), total nitrogen (TN), total phosphorus (TP) and total metals (Cu, Ni,
150 Pb, Zn) were analysed using a Spectroquant® analysis system (Merck). Five-day biochemical oxygen
151 demand (BOD₅) was also measured using the OxiTop® Control system. Total suspended solids (TSS)
152 and volatile suspended solids (VSS) were determined according to the standard methods for the
153 examination of water and wastewater (APHA, 1991). Water temperature, pH, electrical conductivity
154 (EC), and dissolved oxygen (DO) were measured with WTW® probes.

155

156 **2.3 Data processing - Statistical analysis**

157 Combining the measured instantaneous concentrations of water quality variables $C(t)$ and the flow
158 hydrographs $Q(t)$, the total pollutants loads and event mean concentration (EMC) can be calculated
159 as:

$$160 \quad EMC = \frac{M_r}{V_r} = \frac{\int_0^{t_r} C(t)Q(t)dt}{\int_0^{t_r} Q(t)dt} \quad (\text{Ec. 1})$$

161

162 where M_r is the total mass mobilized during the event, V_r is the runoff total volume, $C(t)$ is the
163 pollutant concentration as a function of time, $Q(t)$ is the runoff flow as a function of time, and the
164 limits of integration refer to time 0 (start of runoff) and t_r (end of runoff).

165

166 Once the values of these parameters were obtained for all events, process-based wash-off models
167 were developed:

$$168 \quad M_r = M_0 \cdot (1 - e^{-k_w \cdot V_r}) \quad (\text{Ec. 2})$$

169

170 where M_0 (g/m² or mg/m²) is the mass of pollutant before the storm event and k_w (mm⁻¹) is the wash-
171 off coefficient.

172

173 Statistical models for the wash-off process were also implemented, using a multivariate analysis
174 (linear regression with the stepwise selection method). The independent variables introduced in the
175 analysis were antecedent dry days (ADD), rainfall depth (V), maximum 10-min intensity (I_{\max}), and
176 rainfall duration (D). Data were log(10) transformed to reduce skew.

177

178 Other statistics calculated included the Pearson correlation coefficients between different water
179 quality variables. The influence of the traffic intensity was analysed by comparing the results from
180 weekdays and weekends, using a non-parametric test (Mann-Whitney; significance level $p < 0.05$).
181 Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 16.0 software (SPSS® software).

182

183

184 **3. Results and discussion**

185

186 **3.1 Rainfall and runoff flow characterization**

187 The key variables to characterize during rainfall events (rainfall depth (V), rainfall duration (D),
188 antecedent dry days (ADD), and maximum rainfall intensity (I_{\max})) were recorded as described above
189 and the main descriptive statistics are shown in **Table 1**. The recorded events are typical of a

190 Mediterranean climate, with high maximum intensities, long dry periods between events, and
 191 relatively short durations. In fact, the hydrologic characteristics of the storm events monitored in this
 192 study fit the models proposed by previous studies well and these characterize the rainfall patterns
 193 for Valencia during the period between 1990 and 2006 (Andrés-Doménech et al. 2010). Therefore,
 194 the information obtained can be considered representative and reliably used to propose design
 195 criteria for stormwater management systems in the area. Only the ADD differed from this pattern, 14
 196 days in this study and 8 days in the previous study (Andrés-Doménech et al. 2010), so it is on average
 197 larger during the monitored period in the present study, which was a drier period than usual.
 198 Nevertheless, since the study site is an urban area with a rigorous maintenance and cleaning
 199 program, it is considered that ADD is not a determinant variable of the pollutant mass mobilized
 200 during rainfall events.

201

202 Runoff generated during the monitored events was highly variable and related to the rainfall
 203 characteristics, with high peak flow values. Both the volumetric variables, V and V_r , as expected,
 204 correlated significantly ($r_{\text{Pearson}} = 0.98$; $p < 0.001$) and could be successfully fitted to the US Soil
 205 Conservation Service (SCS) model as shown in the following section.

206

207

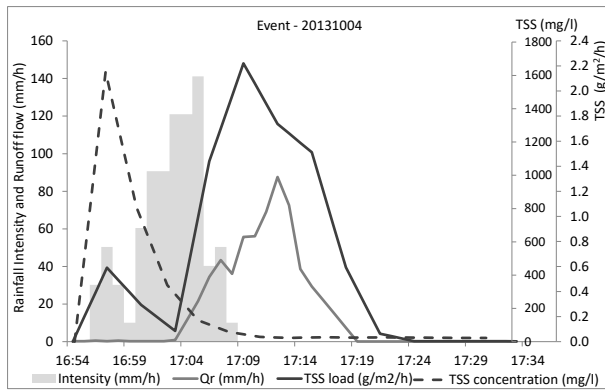
Table 1. Main characteristics of rainfall and runoff events.

| | Mean \pm Std. Dev. | Min. | Max. |
|---------------------------------|----------------------|------|-------|
| Antecedent dry days (d) | 14.4 \pm 9.1 | 2.0 | 33.0 |
| Rainfall depth (mm) | 13 \pm 12 | 0.8 | 42.7 |
| Maximum 10-min Intensity (mm/h) | 27.1 \pm 48.9 | 0.1 | 168.0 |
| Rainfall duration (h) | 27.9 \pm 29.9 | 0.7 | 93.2 |
| Runoff volume (mm) | 8.7 \pm 8.7 | 0.3 | 30.5 |
| Runoff peak flow (mm/h) | 37.4 \pm 36.7 | 2.3 | 103.0 |

208

209 Regarding runoff water quality during the monitored events, the concentrations of pollutants
 210 presented great variability, generally reaching maximum values at the beginning of the storm events.
 211 A representative example of a typical Mediterranean storm event, with a short duration and a very
 212 high pollutant wash-off in terms of both mass and concentration during the initial part of the rainfall
 213 event, is shown in Figure 2. This behavioural characteristic, with a disproportionately high
 214 constituent concentration rising during the early part of the runoff hydrograph, corresponds to a
 215 catchment first flush (Sansalone and Cristina 2004). The maximum concentration reached during this
 216 first flush is very high (up to 1600 mg/l for TSS, Fig. 2). This implies a strong negative impact on
 217 receiving waters or even the sewage system. Indeed, it exceeds the maximum acceptable value fixed
 218 by municipal regulations of 1000 mg/l), so best management practices should be focused on
 219 capturing and mitigating this first flush. High levels of pollutants in roadway runoff have also been
 220 reported by other researchers (Sansalone and Cristina 2004; Perales-Momparler et al. 2014, 2016).

221



222 Figure 2. Hyetograph, hydrograph, and pollutograph for TSS (concentration and load) in a characteristic storm event in a
 223 Mediterranean climate. Hydraulic variables are on the primary axis and quality variables on the secondary axis.
 224
 225

226 The event mean concentration (EMC) (see Figure 3), which is calculated by integrating the
 227 hydrographs and pollutographs, are also considered excessive. For instance, the concentration of TSS
 228 (98 mg/l) on average exceeds the discharge requirement for effluent from wastewater treatment
 229 plants fixed in the European Directive 91/271/ECC (35 mg/l). Its impact on the environment is both
 230 significant and negative whether the final destination is the sewer system or a natural receiving
 231 water body. Organic matter, measured as COD, demonstrates a similar behaviour, with a mean value
 232 (124 mg/l) at the discharge limit (125 mg/l), which was exceeded during 35% of the monitored
 233 events. The origin of this pollutant load is believed to be primarily associated with road traffic; other
 234 minor inputs of organic matter and nutrients may come from the central gardened area of the
 235 roundabout and the trees in the surrounding area.
 236

237 An important issue is the biodegradability of the organic matter present in the runoff. The
 238 relationship between BOD₅ and COD (mean BOD₅/COD = 0.2) indicates that this organic matter is not
 239 readily biodegradable and the mean value obtained for the decay rate constant (0.1 d⁻¹) highlights
 240 that it has a slow biodegradation rate. This finding confirms results from previous studies (Perales-
 241 Momparler et al. 2014, 2016), recommending the management of urban runoff at the source,
 242 controlling it separately from wastewater.
 243

244 The EMC of the nutrients complies with the requirements for discharge to sensitive areas if the same
 245 European Directive (91/271/ECC) is considered. However, the EMC of the analysed metals (Cu, Ni, Pb,
 246 and Zn) is not negligible at all. In fact, the EMC of Cu, Ni, and Pb, exceed environmental quality
 247 standards (EQS) set out in European Directive (2008/105/CE) for inland surface waters, being
 248 especially high for Pb (0.62 mg/l on average). The concentration of pollutants in the receiving water
 249 body depends on the dilution capacity; however, it is clear that the discharge of urban runoff with
 250 these EMC characteristics will have a major negative impact. The pollution hazard level according to
 251 Woods et al. (2015) is high and would require a SuDS management train composed of green swale
 252 plus a detention basin (DB) or pond, or a SuDS consisting of a single wetland. The EMC obtained in
 253 this study falls within the range found by other studies performed on highways (Kim et al. 2006;
 254 Rodriguez-Hernandez et al. 2013; Terzakis et al. 2008; Stagge et al. 2012; Han et al. 2015).
 255

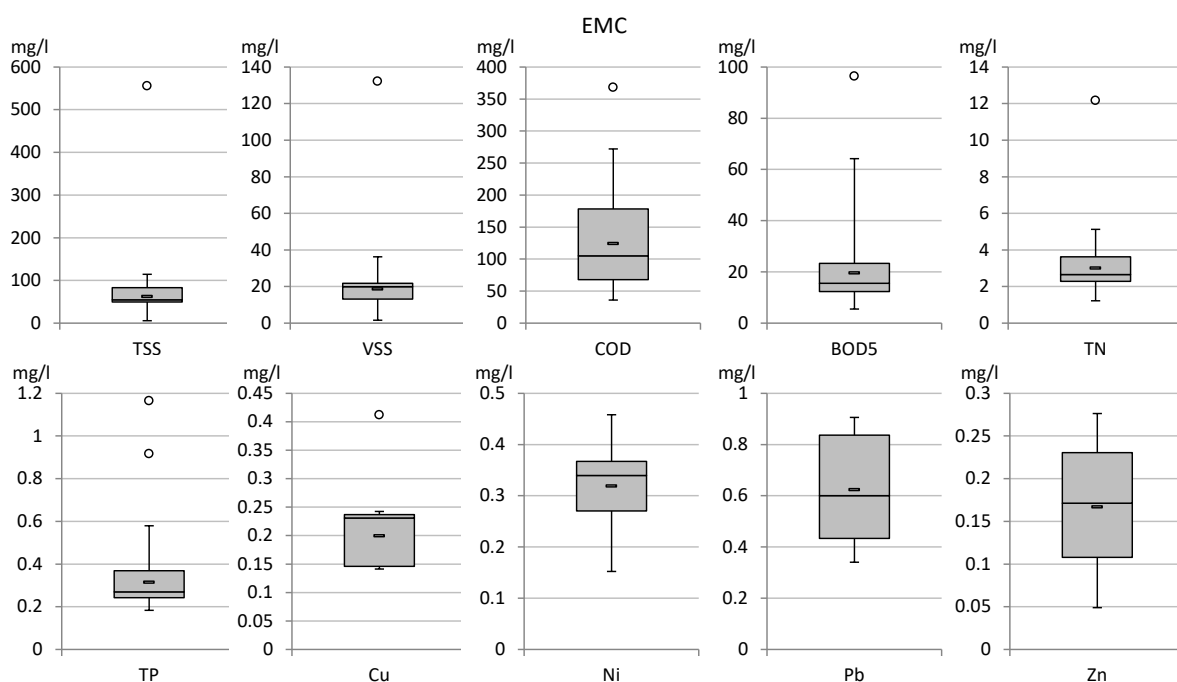
256 The concentration of all pollutants is significant and are linearly correlated with TSS ($p < 0.01$; r_{Pearson} :
 257 0.64 (COD), 0.35 (BOD₅), 0.94 (VSS), 0.30 (TN), 0.87 (TP), 0.76 (Cu), 0.82 (Ni), 0.91 (Pb), 0.40 (Zn)).
 258 From the slope of the linear correlations, the concentration of pollutants associated with suspended

259 solids can be estimated. These results indicate that sediment, which is discharged to the receiving
 260 water body, contains high concentrations of organic matter (41.6 g COD/100 g TSS or 22.1 g VSS/100
 261 g TSS), nutrients (6.8 g N/kg and 1.7 g P/kg) and metals (around 0.3 g/kg for Zn, 1.7 g/kg for Cu, 2.1
 262 g/kg for Ni, and 3.6 g/kg for Pb). These metal concentrations in the sediment are very high, and with
 263 the exception of Zn, widely exceed the sediment quality guidelines commonly used to evaluate
 264 pollution levels of sediments (Hernández-Crespo and Martín 2015). This finding implies that
 265 sediment accumulated in drainage systems should be managed as hazardous waste. This means, for
 266 example, that should not be applied for agricultural use, in accordance with the European Directive
 267 86/278/EEC.

268

269 All these results demonstrate the need to treat urban runoff as well as the practicability of doing this
 270 separately to wastewater because of their different characteristics.

271



272

273 Figure 3. Box-plots for Event Mean Concentration (EMC) of different water quality variables (general contaminants and
 274 priority substances). The box is delimited by quartiles (Q1, Q3), divided by a horizontal bar that represents the median, the
 275 hyphen is the mean, and error bars mark the minimum and maximum. The circles are data considered outliers because they
 276 are outside the defined range (1.5 times the interquartile range).

277

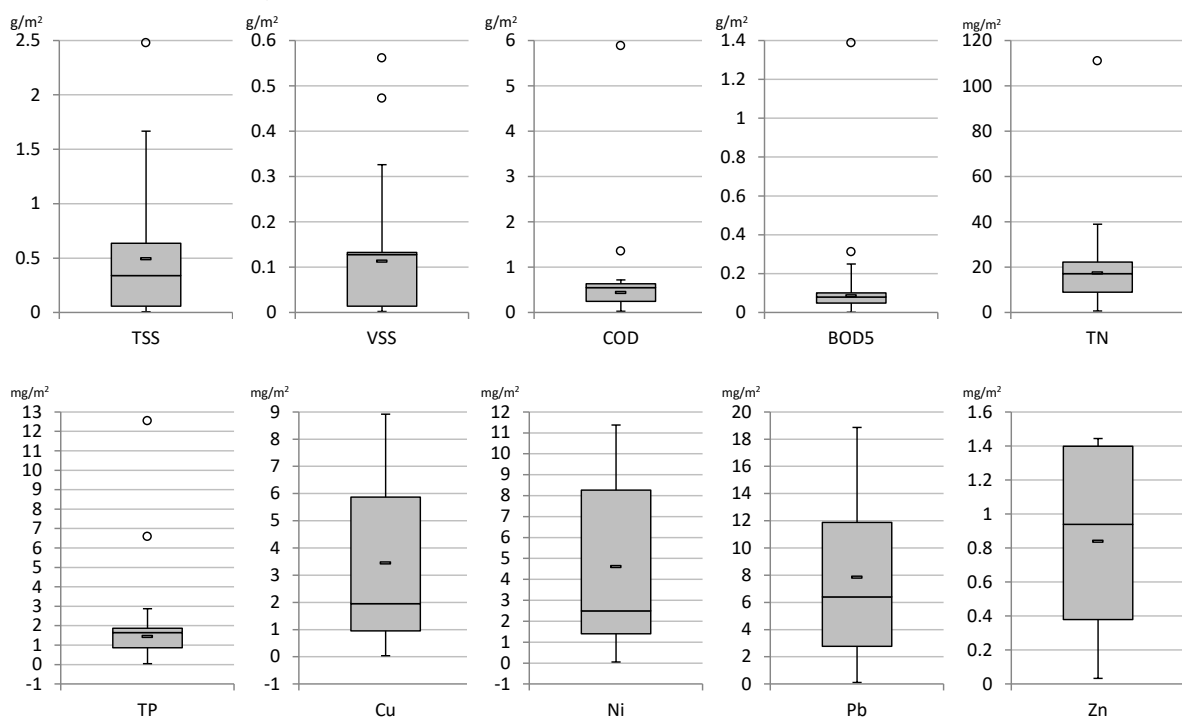
278 In terms of mass mobilized per unit area (see Figure 4), the measured values are also high; especially
 279 if one takes into account that this is an urban area with frequent cleaning and maintenance. In
 280 comparison, the results obtained for this study fall in the lower range of those found in the literature
 281 (Deletic et al. 1997; Vaze and Chiew 2002; Chen et al. 2006; Stagge et al. 2012; Zhao et al. 2016). In
 282 this sense, it is noteworthy that information about the frequency of maintenance is usually
 283 unavailable in the literature, but it should be considered when comparing the mobilized masses.

284 Considering the intensity of traffic as a qualitative variable (high during weekdays, low in weekends)
 285 and dividing the data into two groups of events according to this variable, it was found that pollutant
 286 wash-off is higher on average during weekdays, in terms of mobilized mass and EMC, although the
 287 difference is not significant ($p > 0.05$). For instance, the mean TSS mobilized for weekday events are
 288 0.778 g/m², while the mean mass mobilized during weekend events is 0.443 g/m². Traffic intensity is

289 one of the a priori influential variables on the accumulation of pollutants on urban surfaces;
 290 however, its influence is not always statistically significant as in the case of the present study. This
 291 result was also observed by Rodriguez-Hernandez et al. (2013) in a review of 46 areas with 4
 292 categories of traffic intensity.

293

294 Keeping in mind the application of SuDS, the magnitude of mobilized mass of TSS is far less than that
 295 which would negatively affect the infiltration capacity of a permeable pavement (500 g/m^2), reducing
 296 it by only between 57% and 86% depending on the material used for the pavement (Andrés-Valeri et
 297 al. 2016). This underscores the importance of carrying out a proper cleaning maintenance, such as
 298 that applied in this study site. The combination of suction and pressure wash systems with water has
 299 also been shown to be effective in recovering the permeability of permeable pavements (Sañudo-
 300 Fontaneda et al., 2014)



301

302 Figure 4. Box-plots for the mobilized mass of different water quality variables (general contaminants and priority
 303 substances) (g/m^2 or mg/m^2 depending on the pollutant).

304

305 It is interesting to quantitatively evaluate the increase of pollutant loads that are produced between
 306 both at the atmospheric level and at the surface level of urban roads. Atmospheric deposition is the
 307 transfer of pollutants present in the air to surfaces by wet or dry processes. Pollutant loads of the
 308 surface level are the net build-up of contaminants from an urban road, which is increasingly found
 309 because of direct discharges. This net build-up rate (M_{nb}) of a contaminant is calculated as the mass
 310 washed off roads (M_r) divided by the ADD. The term “net” implies that the mass of pollutant is the
 311 mass that remains on the surface despite cleaning and maintenance tasks. As can be seen in [Table 2](#),
 312 the difference between both levels of pollutant loads is noticeable for TSS and COD; but not as much
 313 for other variables (BOD_5 , TN, or TP) when compared with other urban areas. In this study, the
 314 observed increase is thought to be mainly associated with traffic and less so with the fertilizers
 315 present in the soil of the adjacent landscaped roundabout. It should be noted that for urban areas
 316 with less cleaning and maintenance activities, this increase could be considerably higher.

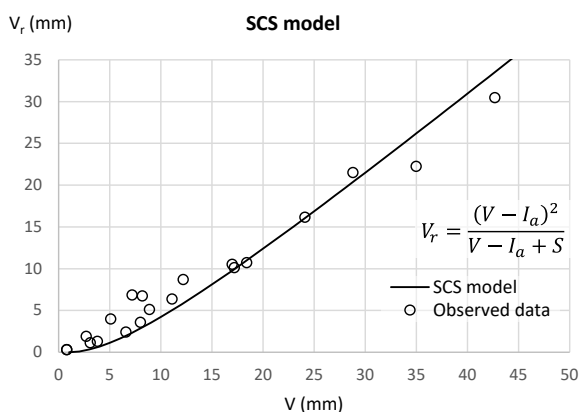
317

318 Table 2. Results for the net build-up of contaminants (M_{nb}) and atmospheric deposition data from this and other urban
 319 areas near the study site.

| Pollutant | M_{nb} (mg/m ² /d) | | Atmospheric Deposition (mg/m ² /d) | | |
|------------------|---------------------------------|----------|---|--|----------------------------|
| | | | This site | Other urban areas | Agricultural areas |
| TSS | 75.58 | ± 131.73 | 22.60 | 12.80 ⁽¹⁾ ; 52.42 – 103.23 ⁽²⁾ | - |
| COD | 96.19 | ± 169.73 | 16.03 | 29.85 ⁽¹⁾ ; 9.25 – 134.99 ⁽²⁾ | - |
| BOD ₅ | 18.08 | ± 39.70 | | 4.31 – 45.91 ⁽²⁾ | - |
| TN | 2.07 | ± 3.10 | 0.21 | 2.17 ⁽¹⁾ ; 1.08 – 3.76 ⁽²⁾ | 1.10 – 1.68 ⁽³⁾ |
| TP | 0.30 | ± 0.41 | 0.07 | 0.12 ⁽¹⁾ ; 0.09 – 0.77 ⁽²⁾ | 0.11 – 0.16 ⁽³⁾ |
| Cu | 0.28 | ± 0.39 | 0.05 | - | - |
| Ni | 0.36 | ± 0.47 | 0.07 | - | - |
| Pb | 0.60 | ± 0.80 | 0.09 | - | - |
| Zn | 0.04 | ± 0.03 | 0.04 | - | - |

⁽¹⁾(Martin et al. 2013) ⁽²⁾(Perales-Momparler et al. 2016); ⁽³⁾(Hernández-Crespo et al. 2017)

320
 321
 322 **3.2 Process-based and statistical models**
 323 The hydrological variables of rainfall depth (V) and runoff volume (V_r) correlate significantly and
 324 have been fitted to the SCS model with a root-mean-square error of 2.07 mm and a Nash-Sutcliffe
 325 goodness-of-fit index of 0.93 (Figure 5). The calibrated value for initial abstractions (I_a) is 1.0 mm, a
 326 typical value for urban impervious surfaces (Chen et al. 2006). Other parameters of the model
 327 include the soil storage index (S) and the rainfall threshold ratio to storage ($k = I_a/S$). The latter
 328 adopts a value of 0.2 according to the SCS recommendations. In the case studied, the value that best
 329 fits the model is 0.1, slightly lower than that recommended by the SCS. Nevertheless, several authors
 330 have discussed that the recommended value is too high for highly impervious surfaces and that
 331 values of 0.1 are more accurate (Shi et al. 2009; Lim et al. 2006). By using this model, the runoff
 332 volume for typical rainfall depths from the study area can be calculated. This information is valuable
 333 for designing stormwater management infrastructure like SuDS from a quantity point of view but
 334 also for predicting the mass of contaminants washed off by a runoff volume V_r , as explained below.



335
 336 Figure 5. SCS model fitted to experimental data ($R^2 = 0.97$). In the equation of the SCS model, V_r is the runoff volume, V is
 337 the rainfall depth, I_a is the initial abstraction, S is equal to the ratio P_0/k and indicates the soil storage index related to soil
 338 use.

339
 340 The development of models for predicting the mobilized mass of pollutants during the wash-off
 341 process is important from multiple points of view. These models allow the evaluation of the potential
 342 impact on the receiving environment, provide useful information for the design and management of
 343 drainage systems for either a sustainable or conventional solution, and enable an assessment of the
 344 benefits of these proposed solutions. As revealed in the introduction, there are two kinds of models

345 generally used from these perspectives, i.e. ‘process-based’ models and statistical regression models.
 346 In this study, both types of models are implemented to obtain a rich description of the variance in
 347 the data (Table 3). The use of stepwise variable selection to obtain the regression model indicates
 348 that for almost all pollutants, V is the only significant variable, which supports the suitability of using
 349 the process-based model. The value of M_0 , the pollutant mass present before the rain events, is
 350 specific to this urban sub-catchment for each pollutant. The implemented model assumes M_0 to be
 351 constant, based on the fact that the surface is subject to a periodic cleaning program. Nevertheless,
 352 it is known that M_0 varies seasonally. For example, in autumn and winter, there is an increase in
 353 organic matter due to the decomposition of leaves, or in spring due to flowering and pollen.
 354 However, to consider these variables, longer time series data would be necessary to calibrate this
 355 seasonality. The wash-off coefficients (k_w) are very similar among different pollutants and
 356 comparable to those obtained from other studies (Chen et al. 2006; Wijesiri et al. 2015). The
 357 meaning of this coefficient can be interpreted as the percentage of initial mass that is washed off the
 358 surface for each unit of runoff volume.

359

360 Table 3. Mathematical models for the pollutant wash-off process. A process-based model has the general equation:

361 $M_r = M_0 \cdot (1 - e^{-k_w \cdot V_r})$ where M_0 (g/m² or mg/m²) is the mass of pollutant before the storm event and k_w (mm⁻¹) is the
 362 wash-off coefficient. Units of variables: M_r (g/m² or mg/m²), V_r (mm), V (mm), D (h).

| Pollutant M_r | Process-based model for wash-off | R ² | Multiple linear regression model | R ² |
|--------------------------------------|--|----------------|--|----------------|
| TSS (g/m ²) | $M_r = 6.2 \cdot (1 - e^{-0.012 \cdot V_r})$ | 0.54 | $LogM_r = 1.368 \cdot LogV - 1.823$ | 0.82 |
| COD (g/m ²) | $M_r = 5.3 \cdot (1 - e^{-0.013 \cdot V_r})$ | 0.75 | $LogM_r = 0.877 \cdot LogV + 0.279 \cdot LogD - 1.442$ | 0.89 |
| BOD ₅ (g/m ²) | $M_r = 1.2 \cdot (1 - e^{-0.012 \cdot V_r})$ | 0.49 | $LogM_r = 1.217 \cdot LogV - 2.225$ | 0.84 |
| TN (mg/m ²) | $M_r = 135 \cdot (1 - e^{-0.016 \cdot V_r})$ | 0.75 | $LogM_r = 0.957 \cdot LogV + 0.231 \cdot LogD - 0.024$ | 0.92 |
| TP (mg/m ²) | $M_r = 30 \cdot (1 - e^{-0.013 \cdot V_r})$ | 0.71 | $LogM_r = 1.275 \cdot LogV - 0.995$ | 0.90 |
| Cu (mg/m ²) | $M_r = 20 \cdot (1 - e^{-0.014 \cdot V_r})$ | 0.81 | $LogM_r = 1.336 \cdot LogV - 1.248$ | 0.96 |
| Ni (mg/m ²) | $M_r = 30 \cdot (1 - e^{-0.015 \cdot V_r})$ | 0.92 | $LogM_r = 1.300 \cdot LogV - 1.073$ | 0.94 |
| Pb (mg/m ²) | $M_r = 42 \cdot (1 - e^{-0.017 \cdot V_r})$ | 0.72 | $LogM_r = 1.234 \cdot LogV - 0.719$ | 0.93 |

363

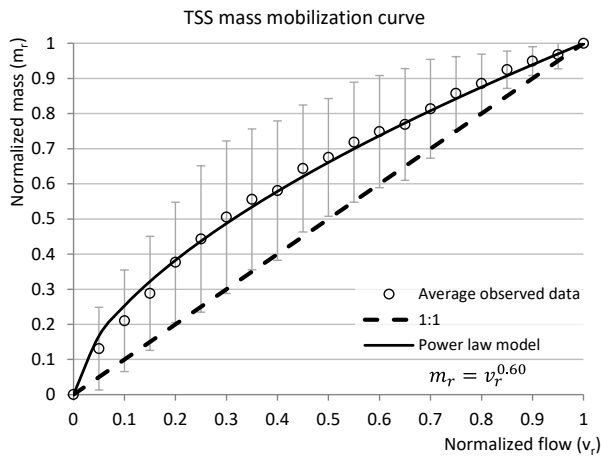
364

365 3.3 Recommendations for designing SuDS based on water quantity and quality variables

366 Traditionally the design of stormwater management infrastructure has been based on volumetric
 367 capture criteria. Against this background, there is an increasing awareness and agreement on the
 368 appropriateness of applying a mass or concentration control approach. One concept derived from
 369 these approaches based on water quality is the water quality volume (WQV), which represents the
 370 volume of runoff constituting the first flush (Sansalone and Cristina 2004). As previously defined, a
 371 first flush occurs when a disproportionately high mobilization of either the concentration or mass of
 372 pollutant is produced during the initial part of a rainfall event. A first flush can be identified through
 373 the mass mobilization curves (Figure 6), which represents the relationship between the normalized
 374 cumulative runoff volume and the normalized cumulative mobilized mass. Mobilization curves are a
 375 good fit with the power law model (Griffin et al., 1980): $m_r = v_r^\beta$, where m_r is the cumulative
 376 normalized mass, v_r is the cumulative normalized runoff volume and β is the model exponent.

377

378 If the curve is located above the line with a slope of 1:1, or similarly if $\beta < 1$, the variables associated
 379 with the curve are considered to represent a first flush event. In this study, the curve displayed in
 380 Figure 6 represents an average curve for all monitored events. The values of β fitting this model for
 381 all pollutants studied is provided in Table 4, showing that all the pollutants demonstrate behaviour
 382 according to the first flush phenomenon.



384
 385 Figure 6. Normalized mass mobilization curve for TSS and fitted to the power law model. The circles are the average values
 386 of all events; error bars represent the standard deviation; and the dashed line represents the line with 1:1 slope.
 387

388 Table 4. Values of β for the mass mobilization curves for all the water quality variables studied.

| Pollutant | B | R ² |
|------------------|------|----------------|
| TSS | 0.60 | 0.996 |
| VSS | 0.59 | 0.996 |
| COD | 0.62 | 0.996 |
| BOD ₅ | 0.67 | 0.998 |
| TN | 0.69 | 0.998 |
| TP | 0.70 | 0.997 |
| Cu | 0.70 | 0.996 |
| Ni | 0.68 | 0.995 |
| Pb | 0.69 | 0.995 |
| Zn | 0.64 | 0.989 |
| E.C. (25 °C) | 0.73 | 0.998 |

389
 390 These models, together with those developed in the previous section, enable the proposal of mass
 391 based criteria for the design of drainage devices at source control scale, such as SuDS. Along these
 392 lines, it was qualitatively observed that the TSS present in the samples showed rapid settling
 393 properties. On the other hand, all the pollutants were correlated significantly with TSS (r_{Pearson} varies
 394 between 0.41 and 0.99), meaning that the particulate fraction is important and it can be expected
 395 that an effective removal of TSS represents an effective removal of contaminants as well. All these
 396 findings enable the proposal of TSS as a control variable for evaluating the pollutant removal
 397 efficiencies of stormwater infrastructure. Given these results, among the different types of SuDS
 398 designs, those that retain runoff for a few hours seem to be appropriate to manage these first flush
 399 type events, for instance, green swales, rain gardens, bioretention areas, DBs, or wetlands (Terzakis
 400 et al. 2008; Woods et al. 2015).

401
 402 Another design approach may involve establishing a concentration-based discharge requirement. In
 403 this case, the first question to be addressed is the water quality target in the SuDS overflow. Usually,
 404 the basin administrators are responsible for this process, but they are yet to be so here. Meanwhile,
 405 we can take the TSS as the pollutant concerned and nominate two reference concentrations (35 mg/l

406 and 60 mg/l), which are the targets for small urban agglomerations discharged to freshwater
 407 (according to the 91/271/EEC Directive concerning urban waste water treatment).

408
 409 The second question concerns the configuration of the SuDS system regarding the drainage
 410 conveyance path and whether this should be on-line or off-line. From the point of view of the needs
 411 of a natural water body, the best design is one that maximizes the mass of pollutants captured and
 412 minimizes the mean effluent concentration. Keeping this in mind, the following methodology has
 413 been developed for the design of SuDS, such as DBs. The hypothesis is that the best system is the off-
 414 line version, so once the basin filled, runoff can be diverted to sewage systems, the river etc. Once
 415 designed, the device is checked to confirm the hypothesis about the on-line configuration i.e. all the
 416 runoff enters to DB and the exceeding water is discharged to the sewage system; the concentration
 417 of discharged water is obtained modelling the DB as a continuous stirred-tank reactor. Normally the
 418 water retained in the DB is infiltrated to the ground before the next event occurs (Perales-
 419 Momparler et al. 2016); the pollutant load is removed via sedimentation, degradation by bacteria
 420 and absorption by the planted vegetation.

421
 422 The design requirement for off-line DB is that excess water does not enter the basin and it may have
 423 a TSS concentration below 35 mg/l. Using this target and the TSS pollutographs (Fig. 2), the runoff
 424 volume that meets this condition is calculated for each event. The facility volume needed to collect
 425 runoff while the inlet water has a TSS concentration of less than 35 mg/l is quite variable among
 426 different rainfall events. For some events, this condition is achieved when 2.8% of the V_r has been
 427 collected, but in other events up to 90% of total V_r needs to be collected before this condition is
 428 reached.

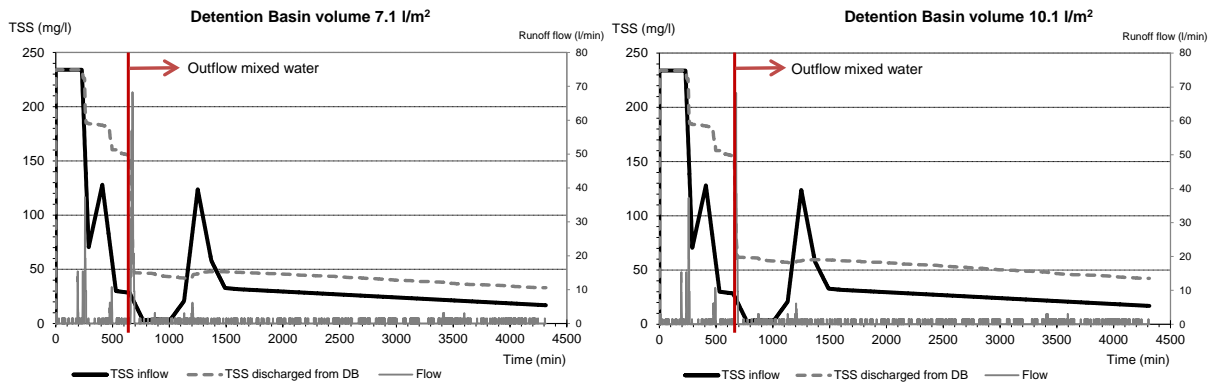
429
 430 However, the percentage mass removed at this point is very similar to the mean value of 88.3%.
 431 Accordingly, a design criterion is proposed that only 20% of the events might divert water with a TSS
 432 content of more than 35 mg/l. Next, the response of several DB volumes: from 100% of the mean V_r
 433 to 40% is evaluated (Table 5). Only four of the volumes meet the design criterion, with mass
 434 removals between 65.9% and 73.1% and a bypassed mean concentration (BMC) between 54.3 and
 435 61.8 mg/l (Table 5). Therefore, the design parameter 'volume per unit catchment area' ranges
 436 between 7.1 and 10.1 l/m², which represent volumes very affordable for urban planning. For instance
 437 in this case, selecting a rain garden, a bioretention area, or a DB volume of 10 l/m² of drained
 438 impermeable area, and assuming a depth of 0.2 m, an area of 4 m² would be necessary, completely
 439 fitting either in the center of the roundabout, or in its perimeter.

440
 441 Table 5. Results obtained for the application of the proposed design approach. V_r is the runoff volume, BMC is the bypassed
 442 mean concentration, DB is detention basin, M_r is runoff mobilized mass, and DMC is the discharged mean concentration.

| Percentile of DB volume (%) | Mean volume of DB (l) | Compliance ($BMC_{TSS} < 35 \text{ mg/l}$) frequency (%) | V_r collected (%) | Size of DB (l/m ²) | Off-line DB | | On-line DB | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|--|------------------------|--------------------------------------|---------------------|---------------|---------------------|---------------|
| | | | | | M_r collected (%) | BMC (mg/l) | M_r collected (%) | DMC (mg/l) |
| 100 | 799.4 | 83 | 68.4 | 10.1 | 73.1 | 61.8 | 67.8 | 73.7 |
| 90 | 719.5 | 83 | 64.3 | 9.1 | 70.4 | 59.9 | 64.3 | 73.9 |
| 80 | 639.6 | 83 | 59.5 | 8.1 | 68.3 | 56.7 | 60.7 | 73.2 |
| 70 | 559.6 | 83 | 54.5 | 7.1 | 65.9 | 54.3 | 57.1 | 72.2 |
| 60 | 479.7 | 75 | 49.3 | 6.1 | 62.9 | 53.0 | 53.2 | 71.3 |
| 50 | 399.7 | 67 | 43.3 | 5.1 | 59.5 | 51.7 | 48.9 | 70.5 |
| 40 | 319.8 | 58 | 35.8 | 4.0 | 54.9 | 50.9 | 43.7 | 71.0 |

443

444 As can be seen in Table 5, the efficiency of the on-line DB is worse than that of the off-line DB, both
 445 in terms of the collected mass and discharged mean concentration, because of the mixing process
 446 inside the DB. In this case, the DB can be modelled as a continuous stirred-tank reactor and on many
 447 occasions, the output concentration is higher than input concentration (Figure 7).
 448



449 Figure 7. An example of the performance of an on-line DB supposing two different volumes of DB (left: 559.6 l, equivalent
 450 to a volume per unit catchment area of 7.1 l/m², right: 799.4 l, equivalent to 10.1 l/m²). The concentration of TSS refers to
 451 the discharged concentration from the DB.
 452
 453

454
 455 **4. Conclusions**

456 The outcomes from this study are that urban runoff from impervious areas under semi-arid climatic
 457 conditions present a significant level of pollution, with high event mean concentrations for
 458 suspended solids, organic matter, nutrients, and metals. The organic matter detected in the runoff
 459 has a low biodegradability and a slow biodegradation rate. These characteristics suggest the
 460 convenience of treating the runoff from urban surfaces and the suitability of controlling it at the
 461 source, performing a treatment separately from wastewater. The washed-off pollutants fit the
 462 process-based and statistical models well, with the runoff volume being the most explanatory
 463 variable, clearly presenting first flush behaviour. Based on this, and using the information collected
 464 from hydrographs and pollutographs, we propose a novel approach for sizing SuDS focused on water
 465 quality and quantity variables. Fixing a concentration-based requirement, our results indicate that an
 466 off-line configuration performs better than an on-line configuration. The resulting design criterion,
 467 assuming a detention basin type SuDS, can be expressed as the required volume per unit catchment
 468 area, which varies between 7 and 10 l/m².

469
 470
 471
 472 **Acknowledgments**

473 This research was funded through the SUPRIS-SUReS projects (Ref. BIA2015-65240-C2-1-R MINECO/
 474 ERDF, UE) and SUPRIS-SUPel (Ref. BIA2015-65240-C2-2-R MINECO/ERDF, UE), financed by the
 475 Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness and the European Regional Development Fund
 476 (ERDF) and by the project IMBORNAL (Ref. SP20120732), financed by Universitat Politècnica de
 477 València.

478
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