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1 **Experimental Study on Filtration Effect and Mechanism of Pavement Runoff in Permeable**

2 **Asphalt Pavement**

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13 **Abstract:** In this study, self-developed laboratory apparatus was devised to investigate filtration
14 effects of permeable asphalt pavements (PAP) and their mechanisms. The filtration effect of PAP
15 is specified by measuring 16 pollutant indices in influent and effluent samples. Results show that
16 the PAP is highly effective in removing copper (Cu), zinc (Zn), lead (Pb) and Cadmium (Cd), and
17 relatively less effective on petroleum pollutants (PP), animal & vegetable oil (AVO), biochemical
18 oxygen demand (BOD), chemical oxygen demand (COD) and ammonia nitrogen (NH₄-N). The
19 effect on removing total phosphorus (TP), chloride (Cl⁻) and total nitrogen (TN) is marginal.
20 Influences of sampling time on pollutant concentrations were investigated as well, which indicates
21 that the increases of sampling time reduce the pollutant concentrations to some extent. The
22 decreases of pollution concentrations can be attributed to the interception and physisorption of
23 porous materials used in the PAP.

24

25 **Key words:** permeable asphalt pavement, porous asphalt concrete, pavement runoff, filtration
26 effect, filtration mechanism

27

28 **1 Introduction**

29 Permeable Asphalt Pavement (PAP), in which water on the pavement surfaces can enter the
30 pavement structures and finally infiltrate into underground, consists of porous asphalt concrete
31 (PAC) and open graded stones[1, 2]. Compared with conventional impervious asphalt pavements,
32 PAP can effectively recharge groundwater, thereby alleviate water table sinking and land
33 subsidence caused by over-exploitations of groundwater. Furthermore, PAP can adjust atmospheric
34 humidity, which benefits plant growing and mitigates urban heat island effect. Therefore, PAP is
35 known as a breathability pavement [3-5]. PAP can reduce the stresses on urban drainage systems
36 by decreasing the peak flow during rainstorms. Additionally, it can reduce tire noises and enhance
37 driving safety [6-8]. In general, PAP has attracted more and more attentions in pavement
38 engineering due to its extraordinary benefits in ecological and environmental fields.

39 However, pavement runoff could permeate into subgrade through pavement structures with large
40 amount of pollutants. Heavy metal, nitrogen, phosphorus and oil found in these pollutants are
41 difficult to degrade in the environment. Once these pollutants infiltrate into subgrade, they may
42 cause groundwater contamination. Since it is difficult to restore water quality after groundwater
43 contamination, domestic water and ecological environment will be severely affected [1, 9-12].
44 Therefore, the quality of the water permeating into the subgrade needs to be carefully assessed,
45 especially for the road sections with heavy traffic and potentially high concentrations of pollutants
46 (e.g. urban permeable pavements).

47 Many studies have identified permeable pavements are effective to retain pollutants and preserve the
48 natural hydrologic functions [13-15]. Rushton B T [16] compared the pervious paving and impervious
49 paving of parking lot at the Florida Aquarium in Tampa, USA. Results indicated that pervious paving

50 with a swale reduced the pollutant loads by at least 75% for metals and total suspended solids (TSS)
51 compared to asphalt paving without a swale. Pagotto C et al. [17] reported that porous asphalt exfiltrate
52 contained lower lead (Pb) and copper (Cu) concentrations than conventional asphalt based on the
53 results of the field investigation. Brown C et al. [18] investigated the solids removal abilities in two
54 types of permeable pavement: porous asphalts and open-jointed paving blocks. Results illustrated that
55 both types of pavement were capable of removing suspended solids with an elimination ratio ranging
56 from 90% to 96%. Barrett M E [19] assessed the effects of Permeable Friction Courses on the filtration
57 of highway runoff. Concentration reductions were observed for TSS, Pb, Cu, and zinc (Zn).

58 There have also been studies outlining the potential water quality improvements of interlocking
59 concrete permeable pavement and other type permeable pavements. Nitrogen removal effect and
60 applications of four permeable pavements: permeable interlocking concrete pavements (PICP),
61 pervious concrete (PC) , concrete grid pavers (CGP) filled with sand and dense-graded asphalt
62 pavements were compared[20,21]. Lower concentrations of Zn, ammonia nitrogen (NH₄-N), total
63 nitrogen (TN) and total phosphorus (TP) were observed in permeable pavements than dense-graded
64 asphalt pavements. Drake J et al. [22] compared the water quality of effluent from two Interlocking
65 Permeable Concrete Pavements, a pervious concrete pavement with runoff from a control asphalt
66 pavement. The results showed that the permeable pavement provided excellent stormwater treatments
67 to petroleum hydrocarbons, TSS, Cu, iron (Fe), manganese (Mn), Zn, TN and TP by reducing mean
68 concentrations (EMC) and total pollutant loadings. Brattebo B O et al. [23] evaluated the performance
69 of four permeable pavement systems, including two types of flexible plastic grid systems, a concrete
70 block lattice and a small concrete block. Results showed that the infiltrated water contained less Cu, Zn
71 and motor oil as compared with direct surface runoff. Gilbert J K et al. [24] compared the quality and

72 quantity of stormwater runoff among a dense-graded asphalt pavement, an interlocking concrete
73 permeable pavement and a crushed-stone permeable pavement. It was found that the permeable
74 pavements runoff have lower concentrations of suspended solid (SS), TN, nitrate-nitrogen (NO₃-N),
75 NH₄-N, TP, Zn, Pb and Cu than dense-graded asphalt pavements runoff.

76 Previous studies conducted to evaluate the PAP filtration effect of pavement runoff were mainly
77 concentrated on the permeable interlocking concrete pavements and porous concrete. The filtration
78 effect of PAP which consists of PAC, open graded stones and natural sand is not well considered.
79 Besides, previous researches were mainly based on the field investigation. Among the available
80 data about PAP filtration effect of pavement runoff, the majorities were focused on certain types of
81 pollutants and there is no comprehensive study for water quality. For this purpose, a laboratory
82 apparatus was developed in this study to simulate the filtration process and gather the infiltrated
83 water from the PAP structure. Concentrations of 16 pollutants in the influent and effluent water
84 samples were assessed to study the filtration effect by the PAP on different pollutants. Furthermore,
85 the removal mechanisms of pavement runoff in the RAP were analyzed. The developed test
86 apparatus can be used in future study, to investigate the filtration effects of PAP with different
87 layer configurations and materials to optimize the PAP design.

88 **2 Pollutants in urban pavement runoff**

89 **2.1 Sources and types**

90 The sources of pollutants in urban pavement runoff can be from vehicle and pavement themselves,
91 or from exposed surface of surrounding pavements, which include urban pavement runoff after
92 rain shower.

93 On one hand, pollutants in urban pavement runoff come from the vehicle and pavement

94 themselves [25-27]. For instance, the additions of cadmium salt and zinc into tires and lubricating
95 oil make the tire abrasion and lubricating oil burning the main sources of zinc and cadmium
96 pollutants in urban pavement runoff. Besides, zinc-bearing dusts caused by the wide use of
97 galvanized automobile sheets aggravate the zinc pollutants in urban pavement runoff [28]. Heavy
98 metal pollutants such as Cu, Pb, Cr and Cd, are generated by the abrasions of vehicle brake pads
99 and body metal components [29-31]. Petroleum pollutants (PP) coming from seeping of bitumen
100 and volatilizing of bitumen components at high temperature are not negligible [32]. In cold
101 regions, chlorine salts in snow-dissolving agents is a source of pollutant [33].

102 On the other hand, the pollutants may come from surrounding natural and built environment.
103 Adjacent buildings, greenbelts and plants around pavements accumulate to the atmospheric
104 pollutants in dry climates. These pollutants blend into the pavement runoff through rain shower
105 and eventually infiltrate into the subgrade [34]. The applications of waterproof materials, metallic
106 materials and drainage pipelines to buildings result in some heavy metal pollutants (such as Cu, Pb,
107 Zn) and PP. Organic matters and nitrogen & phosphorus nutrients produced by fallen leaves,
108 animal waste and pollen, as well as applying chemical fertilizer and pesticides are treated as
109 pollutants as well.

110 Generally, the ingredients and concentrations of pollutants in pavement runoff are closely related
111 to pavement locations (residential, commercial, industrial and suburb), climates (temperature,
112 humidity, rainfall and catchment area) and traffic conditions (traffic volume and type).

113 **2.2 Pollutant Indexes**

114 Based on the above discussions, 16 pollutants are selected for the comprehensive evaluation of
115 water quality in this study, including physicochemical indexes (pH value, turbidity, SS), nutrient

116 and organic pollution indexes (COD, BOD, NH₄-N, TN, TP, PP, animal & vegetable oil (AVO)),
117 heavy metal pollutant indexes (hexavalent chromium (Cr⁶⁺), Cu, Zn, Pb, Cd and chloride (Cl⁻)).

118 **3 Test equipment and scheme**

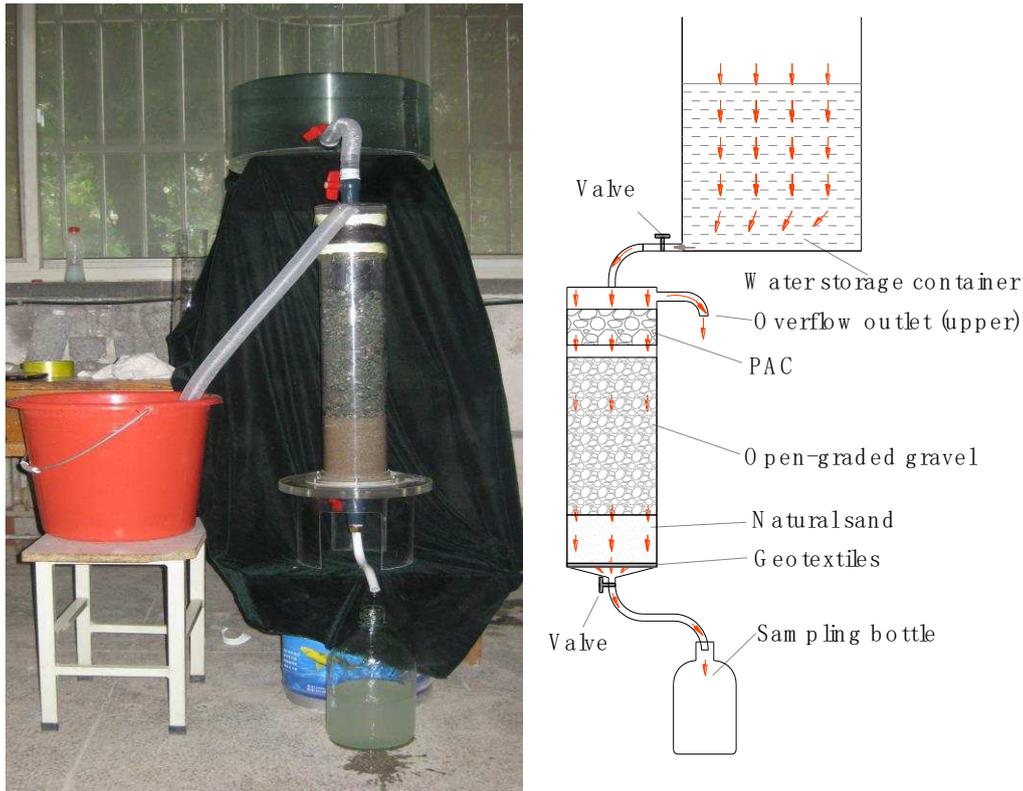
119 **3.1 Permeable pavement infiltrate apparatus**

120 The developed laboratory apparatus is shown in Fig.1. A 60L water storage container (40cm in
121 diameter and 50cm in height) and a long cylinder (10cm in inner diameter and 52.5cm in height)
122 are used. A layer of geotextile is paved at the bottom of the long cylinder to prevent the erosion
123 and infiltration of fine particles. The top of cylindrical tube is connected to a PAC Marshall
124 specimen (without removing the mold).

125 The water storage container is connected to the long cylindrical tube by a flexible pipe with valve.

126 When the valve is open, the water in the storage container flows into the PAC Marshall specimen,
127 and then permeates into the pavement materials inside the long cylindrical. The water eventually
128 seeps from the bottom of the long cylindrical tube into a sampling bottle (2.5L) via another
129 flexible pipe with a valve.

130 In order to eliminate the effects of water pressure on the penetration process, an overflow outlet is
131 set on the top of the long cylindrical tube to ensure the water head remains unchanged during the
132 whole test.



a) Test apparatus b) Schematic

Fig.1. Permeable pavement infiltrate apparatus

133

134

135

136 The apparatus can be used to imitate permeable pavement infiltrate with combination of different
 137 thickness and pavement material. The water seeping from the bottom of the long cylindrical tube
 138 can be collected for analysis. Additionally, other materials could also be tested for their filtration
 139 effect as well as permeation rate by this apparatus.

140 3.2 Materials

141 3.2.1 Porous Asphalt Concrete (PAC)

142 The PAC specimen used in this study is mixed by bitumen with a penetration grade of 60/80,
 143 crushed diabase aggregates, limestone powder, and high viscosity bitumen modifiers
 144 (TAFPACK-SUPER, 12% TPS). Mixtures were prepared by Marshall compaction (50 blows per
 145 side). According to the D3203 of ASTM [35], the void content of the PAC specimen is controlled
 146 at around 20.1%. The gradation of the PAC is presented in Table 1.

147 **Table 1** Gradation of PAC for testing

Mixtures	Passing (by Mass) under different sieve size (mm) /%										Binder content (%)
	16	13.2	9.5	4.75	2.36	1.18	0.6	0.3	0.15	0.075	
PAC-13	100.0	90.1	61.3	23.4	14.8	12.7	10.8	8.3	7.0	5.0	4.6

148 3.2.2 Open-graded gravel

149 Crushed diabase aggregates were used as the open-graded gravel. In consideration of the long
 150 cylindrical tube dimensions, the maximum aggregate size of open-graded gravel is 9.5mm. The
 151 gradation of the open-graded gravel is presented in Table 2. Open-graded gravel filled in the long
 152 cylinder were packed in layers of 5cm thickness each with preparatory tamping. Because of
 153 restriction of further compaction in the long cylinder, the open-graded gravel was not in the state
 154 of fully compacted. The air void content is 39% with stacking state in accordance with Chinese
 155 specification JTG E42—2005 [36].

156 **Table 2** Gradation of open-graded gravel for testing

Sieve Size (mm)	9.5	4.75	2.36	1.18	0.6	0.3	0.15	0.075
Passing (%)	100	40.5	27.1	16.9	10.8	4.4	2.2	0.8

157 3.2.3 Natural sand

158 Natural sand was used for the cushion layer. The gradation of the natural sand is presented in
 159 Table 3. The fineness modulus of the natural sand is 2.316 and the mud content is 0.64%. The bulk
 160 specific gravity is 2.598g/cm³. Natural sand filled in the long cylinder was packed in layers of 5cm
 161 thickness each with preparatory tamping. Because of restriction of further compaction in the long
 162 cylinder, natural sand was not in the state of fully compacted. Air voids content is 41.1% with
 163 stacking state in accordance with Chinese specification JTG E42—2005 [36].

164 **Table 3** Gradation of natural sand for testing

Sieve Size (mm)	9.5	4.75	2.36	1.18	0.6	0.3	0.15	0.075
Passing (%)	100.0	95.3	87.3	82.5	66.3	17.6	1.9	0.4

165 3.2.4 Geotextiles

166 Geotextiles, for permeability and separation purpose, was set underneath the natural sand cushion

167 layer. On the one hand, the geotextiles could prevent the loss of the fine particles in the natural
 168 sand under the scouring of flowing water. On the other hand, the geotextiles could avoid voids
 169 blocking caused by the soil particles in subgrade entering the upper pavement structure under
 170 capillary actions. The main properties of geotextile are listed in Table 4.

171 **Table 4 Properties of geotextiles**

Properties	Test result	Testing methods
Mass per unit area , g/m ²	120.2	ISO 9864
Thickness, mm (Under pressure of 2kpa)	1.203	ISO 9863
Tensile strength, kN/m	9.3	ISO 10319
Rate of elongation, %	43	ISO 10319
CBR bursting strength, N	1575	ISO 12236
permeability, mm/s	8.9	ISO 11508

172 **3.3 Urban pavement runoff collection**

173 The rainfall and pavement runoff samples used in this study were collected at round 22:00 on 6th
 174 August 2014 after 2 hours light rainfall. It should be noted that the half-month continuous dry
 175 weather with high temperature before this rainfall makes the pollutants concentration of the
 176 pavement runoff extraordinarily high.

177 Three collection sites were selected near Chang'an University, Xi'an, China, as shown in Fig.2.

178 The first site locates at the intersection of Southern 2nd Circular Road and Wenyi Road. This site
 179 was selected since the southern 2nd Circular Road is a city expressway with 100 000 vehicles per
 180 day, which means the pollutants mainly come from the traffic. The second site locates in the
 181 Wenyi South Road surrounded by pets and plants markets. In this site, pavement runoff pollutants
 182 are mainly from animal and plant organic matters, domestic sewages and plant decays. The third
 183 site is located at the intersection of Yucai Road and Cuihua Road with lots of chophouses
 184 surrounded. Apart from the pollutants from traffic, domestic sewages and eatery offal are the main

185 pollutants at this location.

186 Dustpans were used for runoff collection 20 minutes after rainfall. The collected pavement runoff

187 from these sites was stored in three 50L plastic buckets clearly marked for laboratory analysis.



188

189 **Fig.2. Three pavement runoff collection sites**

190 **3.4 Test scheme**

191 In order to maximize the types of pollutants in the water sample, the pavement runoff samples

192 collected from three sites were mixed in equal volumes. The mixed water sample was filtered by a

193 0.15mm sieve to remove the plant leaves and large particulates, thereby reducing the probability of

194 apparatus being clogged.

195 About 60L of water sample was poured into the water storage container. An electric mixer was

196 used to avoid pollutants sediment during the test, as shown in Fig.3. As a result, the water sample

197 between upper layer and lower layer maintained a uniform color during the whole test. After the

198 test, no sediment was found at the bottom of the water storage container, which means no evident

199 sedimentation or separation occurred in the water storage container.



a) Electric mixer

b) pavement runoff water

Fig.3. Electric mixer and pavement runoff water in the water storage container

200
201
202
203 The PAP specimen consists of a 6.3cm thick PAC layer, a 30cm thick open-graded gravel layer
204 and a 15cm thick natural sand layer. Water sample was collected directly form the outlet of water
205 storage container at the beginning and designated as S1. Then open the valve of the water storage
206 container and the bottom valve of the long cylindrical tube and start to collect initial seeped water
207 from the outlet of the long cylindrical tube (designate the collected sample as S2). Then, the
208 seeped water samples were collected under various infiltrate time varying from 10min to 70min
209 and designated as S3 to S6 (Table 5). The total test time is determined by the capacity of the water
210 storage container. In consideration of larger changes of pollutant concentrations at the early stage,
211 the sampling time interval is relatively short (e.g. 10mins)and as the test continue, the sampling
212 time interval is increased (e.g. 30mins). Finally, the remaining water in the water storage container
213 was collected and designated as E1. All the water samples (2500ml for each) were stored in
214 sampling bottles and temporarily placed in a sink filled with 0°C ice water. The pollutant
215 concentrations of these samples were assessed within 24 hours.

216

Table 5 Designation and illustration of water samples

Designation of water samples	Illustration of water samples
S1	Collected directly form water storage container at beginning of test
S2	Initial seeped water sample collected form outlet of long cylindrical tube
S3	After 10 min seepage, collected form outlet of long cylindrical tube
S4	After 20 min seepage, collected form outlet of long cylindrical tube
S5	After 40 min seepage, collected form outlet of long cylindrical tube
S6	After 70 min seepage, collected form outlet of long cylindrical tube
E1	Remaining water in the water storage container

218 4 Test results and discussion

219 4.1 Uniformity evaluation of test water

220 As shown in Table 6, the pollutants concentration of S1 and E1 are similar, indicating that the
 221 runoff water in the water storage container was uniform under the agitation of electric mixer.

222 **Table 6 Pollutants concentration of S1 and E1**

Test index	S1	E1
pH Value	7.17	7.16
Turbidity, NTU	9750	10600
SS, mg·L ⁻¹	785	796
COD, mg·L ⁻¹	532	501
BOD, mg·L ⁻¹	218	228
NH ₄ -N, mg·L ⁻¹	0.929	0.948
TN, mg·L ⁻¹	10.3	11.6
TP, mg·L ⁻¹	0.39	0.408
PP, mg·L ⁻¹	0.87	0.77
AVO, mg·L ⁻¹	6.69	6.08
Cu, mg·L ⁻¹	0.06	0.05
Zn, mg·L ⁻¹	0.46	0.44
Pb, mg·L ⁻¹	0.0427	0.0411
Cd, mg·L ⁻¹	0.00219	0.00192
Cr ⁶⁺ , mg·L ⁻¹	0.036	0.036
Cl, mg·L ⁻¹	37.7	36.2

223 4.2 Filtration effect of PAP on pavement runoff

224 Pollutant concentrations in the pavement runoff samples before and after the PAP filtration are
 225 listed in Table 7 against different sampling time between 10min to 70min.

226 **Table 7 Pollutants concentration of pavement runoff before and after infiltrated in PAP with different**
 227 **sampling time**

Test index	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6
pH Value	7.17	7.18	7.13	7.14	7.17	7.18
Turbidity, NTU	785	110	107	96	91	77
SS, mg·L ⁻¹	9750	2500	2000	1900	1500	1250
COD, mg·L ⁻¹	532	258	240	235	226	226
BOD, mg·L ⁻¹	218	111	106	95.7	93.4	92.8
NH ₄ -N, mg·L ⁻¹	0.929	0.96	0.638	0.611	0.608	0.602
TN, mg·L ⁻¹	10.3	10	10.6	10.7	10.9	10.6
TP, mg·L ⁻¹	0.39	0.371	0.326	0.307	0.297	0.271
PP, mg·L ⁻¹	0.87	ND0.04 ^a	ND0.04	ND0.04	ND0.04	ND0.04
AVO, mg·L ⁻¹	6.69	3.86	3.78	3.13	2.46	2.32
Cr ⁶⁺ , mg·L ⁻¹	0.036	0.035	0.033	0.029	0.021	0.02
Cl ⁻ , mg·L ⁻¹	37.7	38.2	37.4	36.2	36.2	35.2
Cu, mg·L ⁻¹	0.06	ND0.05	ND0.05	ND0.05	ND0.05	ND0.05
Zn, mg·L ⁻¹	0.46	ND0.05	ND0.05	ND0.05	ND0.05	ND0.05
Pb, mg·L ⁻¹	0.0427	ND0.001	ND0.001	ND0.001	ND0.001	ND0.001
Cd, mg·L ⁻¹	0.00219	0.00100	0.00092	0.00065	0.00056	0.00038

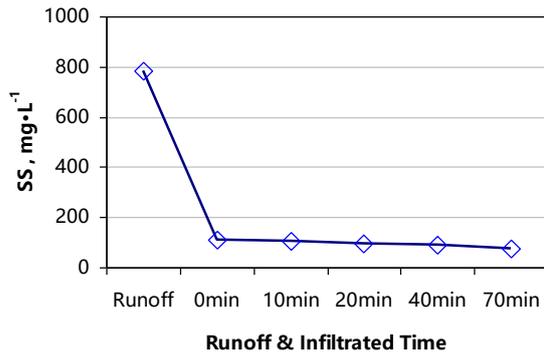
228 a: ND represents Not Detected. The number after ND is the limit value that can be detected.

229 4.2.1 pH value

230 From Table 7, the water specimen shows no significant changes in the pH values before and after
 231 infiltrating through PAP.

232 4.2.2 Suspended solid (SS)

233 Fig.4 shows SS concentration of pavement runoff before and after infiltrated in PAP with different
 234 sampling time. It was found that the SS concentration of pavement runoff decreased sharply by
 235 86.0% after initial infiltrate in PAP, and continued to decrease but very slightly over sampling time.
 236 The total reduction was 90.1% with the sampling time at 70min. This is due to the fact that SS in
 237 pavement runoff mainly refers to the particle with grain size larger than 0.45 μ m. In the process of
 238 infiltrate, these particles were easy to be intercepted and adsorbed by PAP materials.



239

240 **Fig.4. SS concentration of pavement runoff before and after infiltrated in PAP with different sampling time**

241 4.2.3 Turbidity

242 Turbidity is the cloudiness or haziness of a fluid caused by large number of individual particles

243 that are generally invisible to the naked eyes. The unit of turbidity from a calibrated nephelometer

244 is called Nephelometric Turbidity Units (NTU). Generally, high concentration of SS indicates

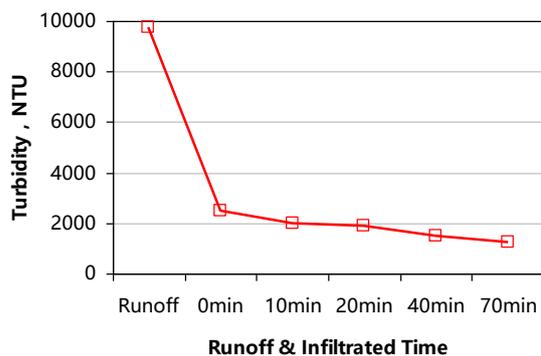
245 great turbidity of the fluid. Thus, similar tendency to the SS concentrations was observed for

246 turbidity as shown in Fig.5. A sharp decrease of turbidity (74.4%) was observed from original

247 runoff sample (S0) to the initial seeped water (S1). With the increase of the sampling time, the

248 turbidity shows a slight downwards tendency and reached 87.2% of the original value (i.e.

249 turbidity of S0).



250

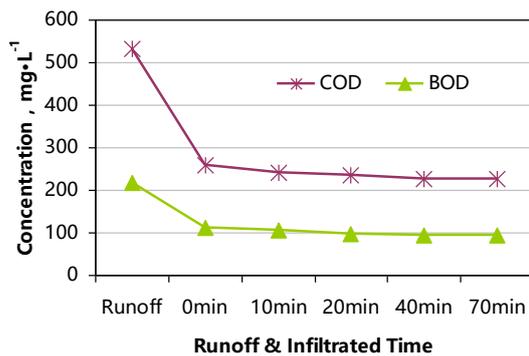
251 **Fig.5. Turbidity of pavement runoff before and after infiltrated in PAP with different sampling time**

252 4.2.4 Chemical Oxygen Demand (COD) & Biochemical Oxygen Demand (BOD)

253 COD is the amount of organic compounds in water, which indicates the mass of oxygen consumed

254 per liter. The higher the value of COD the heavier pollution of the water. BOD is the amount of
255 dissolved oxygen needed by aerobic biological organisms in water body to break down organic
256 materials, which indirectly indicates the relative amount of organic matter. Fig.6 shows the COD
257 and BOD in pavement runoff with various sampling time.

258 The results illustrate that the COD and the BOD decreased significantly after the runoff was
259 infiltrated through the PAP, and largely remained stable with the increase of sampling time. The
260 decreasing amplitudes of COD and BOD were around 50% for S2, and around 55% for S6. The
261 decreases of COD and BOD can be attributed to the interception and adsorption of porous
262 materials used in the PAP.



263

264 **Fig.6. COD and BOD of pavement runoff before and after infiltrated in PAP with different sampling time**

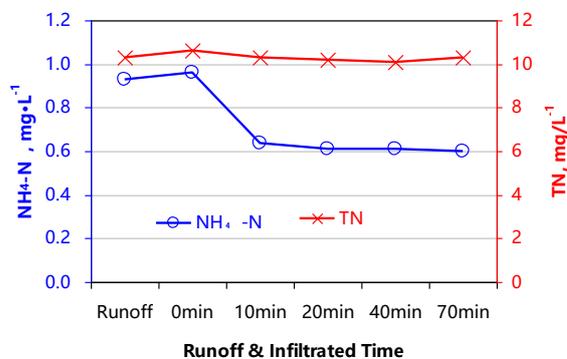
265 4.2.5 Total nitrogen (TN) & ammonia nitrogen (NH₄-N)

266 Nitrogen in pavement runoff usually comes from industrial emissions and sewage decomposition,
267 and mainly exists in the form of organic nitrogen and NH₄-N. The pollutant index TN is analyzed
268 by considering both of these two forms. Generally, the organic nitrogen concentration of pavement
269 runoff is remarkably higher than the concentration of NH₄-N.

270 It is found from Fig.7 that the NH₄-N concentration of pavement runoff decreased by 34% with
271 the sampling time increase from 20min to 70min. The results suggest that, on one hand, only a
272 small amount of NH₄-N could be removed because of the interception and adsorption by PAP

273 materials; on the other hand, $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ removal efficiency is low which may be caused by short
 274 infiltrate time or weak adsorption ability of the PAP materials. It is interesting that $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$
 275 concentration has a slight increase with the sampling time at 0 min. This increase is owing to the
 276 existence of nitrogen in the cushion layer constructed by natural sand containing sediments of
 277 animal and plant waste.

278 As shown in Fig.7, the PAP has very limited effect on the TN removal. The possible reason is that
 279 the $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ concentration is less than 10% of TN (concentration of TN is 10.3 mg/L, and
 280 concentration of $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ is 0.929 mg/L), which means the majority of nitrogen in the pavement
 281 runoff is organic. The way of removal of organic nitrogen is largely by ammoniation which takes
 282 place in the aerobic environment under a certain amount of microorganism. Based on the above,
 283 there are no conditions of ammoniation for organic nitrogen during the infiltrate process in PAP.

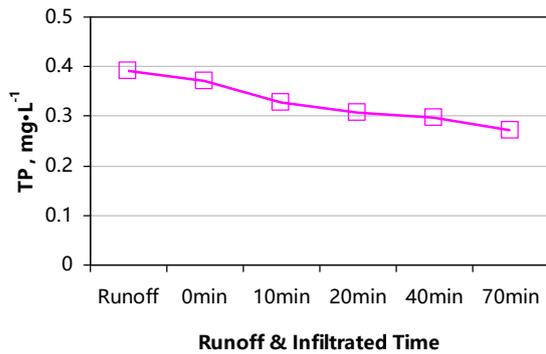


284
 285 **Fig.7. $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ and TN of pavement runoff before and after infiltrated in PAP with different sampling time**

286 4.2.6 Total phosphorus TP

287 Fig.8 gives the TP concentrations in the samples collected under different sampling time. The TP
 288 concentration obviously decrease after the water specimen infiltrated through the PAP and shows a
 289 downward tendency with the increase of sampling time. The decreasing amplitude varies from 5%
 290 to 87.2% with the sampling time increasing from 0min to 70min. The TP is normally removed by
 291 the adsorption and filtration of the PAP materials, as well as the precipitin reactions of phosphate

292 and calcium ions in PAP materials.



293

294 **Fig.8. TP of pavement runoff before and after infiltrated in PAP with different sampling time**

295 4.2.7 Petroleum pollutants (PP) and animal & vegetable oil (AVO)

296 The concentrations of PP and AVO in the water samples are illustrated in Fig.9. It can be seen that

297 the PP concentration of the initial seeped water (S1) decreases below the limit value (0.04 mg/L)

298 and cannot be detected with the increase of sampling time, which means the PAP has a good effect

299 on PP removal. In terms of AVO, the decreasing amplitude of AVO changes from 42% to 65%

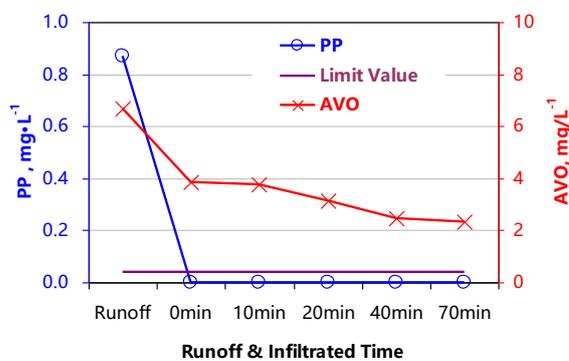
300 when the sampling time increase from 0min to 70min. PP and AVO are removed by the

301 physisorption of the PAP materials, which is closely related to the Van der Waals force. Generally,

302 the larger molecular weight results in greater Van der Waals force, greater polarity and therefore

303 larger physisorption ability. Compared with AVO, the larger molecular weight of PP enables the

304 PAP to remove it more efficiently.

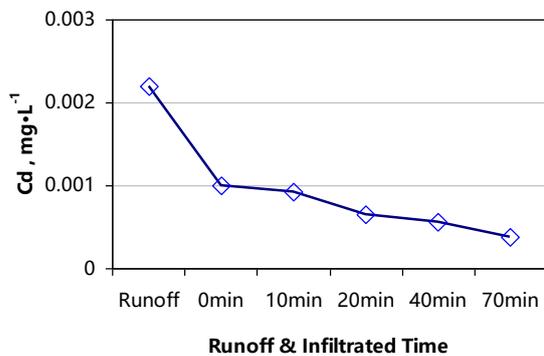


305

306 **Fig.9. PP and AVO of pavement runoff before and after infiltrated in PAP with different sampling time**

307 4.2.8 Heavy metals

308 From Table 7, it can be seen that the concentrations of Cu, Zn and Pb decrease dramatically below
309 the limit value for S1, and tend to be smaller with the increase of sampling time. The
310 concentration of Cd in S0 is 0.00219 mg/L, while decreases to 0.00100 mg/L in S1 and 0.000380
311 mg/L in S6. The decreasing amplitude is about 54.3% for S1 and 82.6% for S6, as shown in Fig.10.
312 Test results show that the PAP has a good effect of Cu, Zn, and Pb removal. This confirms with
313 previous findings that the Cu, Zn, Pb and Cd are adsorbed on the suspension colloids and can be
314 removed along with the suspended particles by PAP materials [37-40].



315

316 **Fig.10. Cd of pavement runoff before and after infiltrated in PAP with different sampling time**

317 Fig.11 shows Cr⁶⁺ of pavement runoff before and after it was infiltrated by the PAP with different
318 sampling time. Compared with S0, the Cr⁶⁺ concentration in S1 shows a slight decrease (2.8%)
319 and the decreasing amplitude increases to 44.4% when the sampling time increases to 70 min (for
320 S6). It can be seen that the Cr⁶⁺ removal efficiency for PAP is relatively lower compared to other
321 heavy metal pollutions of Cu, Zn, Pb and Cd. Cr⁶⁺ mainly exists in the forms of CrO²⁻₄ and Cr₂O²⁻₇,
322 which are stable and soluble in water. On the other hand, CrO²⁻₄ and Cr₂O²⁻₇ (with negatively
323 charged) are difficult to be adsorbed by minerals and organic matter. Thus, Cr⁶⁺ in pavement
324 runoff with strong mobility is difficult to be removed. However, as the sampling time goes on, the
325 Cr⁶⁺ can transform into Cr³⁺ by reacting with some inorganic matters, microorganisms and humus

326 intercepted, thereby leading to a more significant Cr^{6+} removal with the increase of sampling time.



327

328 **Fig.11. Cr^{6+} of pavement runoff before and after infiltrated in PAP with different sampling time**

329 4.2.9 Chloride (Cl^-)

330 The concentration of Cl^- in pavement runoff is illustrated in Fig.12 against different sampling time.

331 It seems that the PAP does not have very significant effect on the removal of Cl^- in pavement

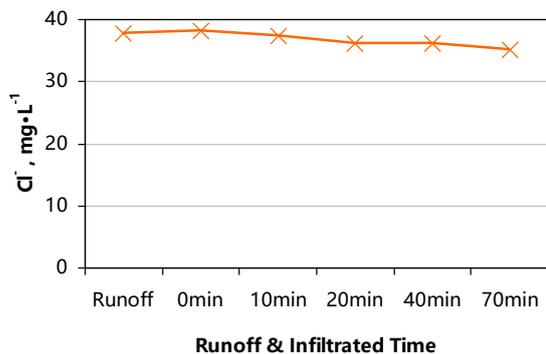
332 runoff with only 6% Cl^- being removed in the water sample collected after 70min seepage. The

333 water-solubility of Cl^- is one of the main reasons of the low removal rate. Additionally, even

334 though the Cl^- can react with some metallic ions, the products of reaction are difficult to

335 precipitate. Generally, electrostatic attractions rather than physical absorption are recommended to

336 be used to remove the Cl^- .



337

338 **Fig.12. Cl^- of pavement runoff before and after infiltrated in PAP with different sampling time**

339 It's worth noting that pollutants concentration of the pavement runoff samples after infiltrated in

340 PAP was closely related to the materials and structure of PAP. In other words there were close

341 relationships between materials composition, thickness, cleanliness and pollutants concentration of
342 the pavement runoff samples after infiltrated in PAP. Therefore, the pavement runoff filtration
343 effect was not merely affected by one layer, but the combination of layers.

344 In practice, the pollutants intercepted by the PAP materials could be removed by special vacuum
345 air sweeper vehicles [41,42]. Recent studies have revealed the usefulness of washing
346 permeable pavements with clean, low-pressure water, followed by immediate vacuuming.
347 Combinations of washing and vacuuming techniques have proved effective in cleaning
348 both organic clogging as well as sandy clogging [43].

349 **5 Summary and conclusions**

350 Permeable asphalt pavement can reduce the stresses on urban drainage systems by decreasing the
351 peak flow in during rainstorms. However, the rainfall-runoff could permeate into subgrade
352 through pavement structures with large volume of pollutants; the quality of the water permeating
353 into the subgrade needs to be carefully assessed. Laboratory studies were conducted to investigate
354 the filtration effects and their mechanisms of permeable asphalt pavement. The filtration effect of
355 PAP is specified by measuring 16 pollutant indices in influent and effluent samples with
356 self-developed laboratory apparatus. Based on the results from the study, the following
357 conclusions can be made:

358 (1) The self-developed apparatus developed is adequate to model the permeable pavement
359 infiltration process. The water samples collected from the apparatus can be used for pollutant
360 concentration analysis and study of the filtration ability of PAP. Additionally, other materials
361 could also be tested for the filtration effect as well as permeation rate by this apparatus.

362 (2) PAP has very high removal efficiency on heavy metal pollutions, such as Cu, Zn, Pb and Cd.

363 Similarly, it can remove AVO, BOD, COD, NH₄-N and TP effectively. However, PAP is
364 incompetent with the removal of Cl⁻ and TN.

365 (3) Pollutions concentrations are reduced to different degrees as the sampling time goes on. On the
366 one hand, the pollutions contained in PAP materials themselves would be removed by the scouring
367 action of the seepage water at initial stage; On the other hand, the removal efficiency for PAP
368 would be improved by the inorganic matter, microorganism and humus intercepted.

369 Because of the restriction on compaction in the long cylinder, the open-graded gravel and natural
370 sand were not in the state of fully compacted. Therefore, air voids of the two materials are larger
371 compared with the real condition used in the pavement. Based on the filtration mechanism of PAP,
372 it can be expected that the materials with small air voids will have better filtration effect.

373 Further work can be conducted to improve the modeling of the filtration effect, such as using
374 special tool and device to compact the materials filled in the long cylinder. Meanwhile, the
375 different thickness and materials combination can be tested to simulate different in situ
376 construction details. Besides, the relationship between laboratory and field test results can be
377 explored.

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383

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