

1 **Roadside Vegetated Filter Strips to Simultaneously Lower Stormwater Pollution Loadings**  
2 **and Improve Economics of Biorefinery Feedstocks**

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15 **Abstract:**

16 Roadside vegetated filters strips (VFSs) reduce roadway runoff pollution by intercepting  
17 stormwater and reducing pollutant loads. VFS maintenance and operating costs can be reduced  
18 by designing the VFSs to serve as sites for production of marketable biomass. This biomass can  
19 provide feedstock for the emerging bioeconomy producing renewable fuels and biobased  
20 chemicals and products. Economic evaluation is needed to quantify the benefit of combining  
21 VFS with bioenergy biomass production. This evaluation requires a place-based approach to  
22 quantify availability of land, transportation costs, and benefits to sensitive habitats. We evaluated  
23 roadside land, within the state right-of-way, in Western Washington, to determine the total area

24 available for implementing VFSs. These data were then used to estimate the volume and cost, of  
25 biomass produced on the filter strips, and the resultant reduction in pollutants emitted through  
26 highway runoff. The analysis showed that up to 5,600 hectares were available for roadside VFSs  
27 that would be within transportation distance of the theoretical biorefinery location. This space  
28 could produce up to 97 dry Gg per year of poplar biomass. The resulting reduction in biorefinery  
29 feedstock cost was up to \$24 per dry Mg compared to biomass from dedicated tree farms. The  
30 results showed that combining roadside poplar with traditional dedicated poplar feedstocks can  
31 reduce the feedstock cost of the biorefinery from \$76 to \$67 per Mg for a biorefinery processing  
32 150 Gg biomass per year. Environmental impact analysis showed that within the study area half  
33 of urban roadways and one-third of rural roadways in highly sensitive aquatic areas were  
34 amenable to VFS. Construction of VFS in these amenable areas would reduce total loadings to  
35 sensitive aquatic areas in urban areas by 26% for TSS, copper, and zinc, and by 10% for  
36 phosphorus, and nitrogen and by 21% for lead. The impact for rural sensitive areas was even  
37 greater where the VFS had potential to reduce total loadings to sensitive aquatic areas by 38%  
38 for TSS, copper, and zinc, by 15% for phosphorus and nitrogen, and by 31% for lead. This  
39 research showed an approach combining geographic information system (GIS) mapping and  
40 economic analysis to document simultaneous evaluation of cost and environmental benefits  
41 when considering use of non-traditional land for bioenergy crop production.

42

43 **Key Words:** geospatial analysis, environmental analysis, short rotation woody crop, ecosystem  
44 services, transportation corridor

45 **Highlights:**

46 • Multi-layering GIS applied to identify land near sensitive habitats for vegetative filters.

47 • Modeling demonstrated that growing roadside poplar provides environmental protection.

48 • Economic modeling showed that the resulting poplar feedstock reduced costs for biofuel  
49 production.

50

## 51 **1 Introduction**

52 Vegetated filter strips provide a critical function for pollution protection from roadway  
53 runoff. Roadway runoff carries pollutants, metals, and nutrients (Winston and Hunt, 2017) that  
54 impair the health of road-side habitats (Barbosa and Fernandes, 2021; Kayhanian, et al., 2007).  
55 Highway runoff pollution is an environmental concern that transportation agencies are  
56 increasingly expected to address (Shokri, et al., 2021). Roadside vegetated filters strips (VFSs)  
57 reduce highway runoff pollution (Boger, et al., 2018) and sequester soil carbon (Bouchard, et al.,  
58 2013). An opportunity is missed when the VFS is viewed only as a treatment unit. Potential  
59 exists to use the valorization of VFS through growth of bioenergy crops (Pennington, et al.,  
60 2012), thus simultaneously treating stormwater while making lignocellulosic bioenergy more  
61 economically viable. For the valorization of VFS to be effective, not only must stormwater  
62 management be achieved, but the economics of the final product production must also be viable.

63 Although roadside VFSs provide a solution to reducing highway runoff pollution,  
64 installation and maintenance can be cost prohibitive. VFS are designed as slightly sloped  
65 roadside embankments that host vegetation that improve water quality by reducing flow velocity  
66 and improving soil infiltration (Barrett, et al., 2006; Winston, et al., 2017). They reliably remove  
67 TSS and total metal concentration of roadway runoff, with more variable removal of nutrients  
68 (Li, et al., 2008; Shokri, et al., 2021; Wu and Allan, 2018) and dissolved organic pollutants  
69 (Flanagan, et al., 2018). VFS are more economically viable when maintenance costs are offset by  
70 producing a marketable biomass. The potential for roadside biomass energy recovery through  
71 anaerobic digestion biogas production has been considered (Brown, et al., 2020; Van Meerbeek,  
72 et al., 2019). An alternative is production of liquid fuels in a biorefinery (Voinov, et al., 2015).  
73 For example, the economics of growing poplar trees as a biofuel crop in conjunction with

74 wastewater treatment has been previously described (Chowyuk, et al., 2021). Given the large  
75 availability of roadside land area and access to major transportation routes, VFSs represent a  
76 potential feedstock producer for a biorefinery (Pennington, et al., 2012). Pennington et al  
77 determined that 11,182 acres (4,500 hectares) of non-traditional lands (including highway rights-  
78 of-ways) were available for biomass production on highway medians in Michigan and that  
79 89,000 tons/year of switchgrass could be produced. Not included in Pennington et al. (2012) or  
80 Voinov et al. (2015) was the potential for improved economics when growing biomass as part of  
81 a VFS to simultaneously reduce runoff pollution.

82         The objectives of the current study were to assess the potential supply and cost of  
83 biomass feedstock produced on roadsides and to assess the efficacy of highway runoff pollution  
84 reduction through roadside VFSs. Geospatial information has long been valued as a management  
85 practice for estimating land use changes related to transportation corridors (Karimi and Liu,  
86 2004). Here, we apply geospatial approaches to investigate the economic viability of highway  
87 runoff pollution reduction systems for bioenergy crop production. By applying the study to a  
88 theoretical biorefinery location (in Western Washington, USA), we demonstrate an approach that  
89 combined geospatial data from geopolitical, public-property right-of-way, transportation, and  
90 land use mapping. These data were used to model biomass production and pollution prevention  
91 potential, including harvest and transportation of biomass to the theoretical biorefinery location.  
92 From this, economic analysis and environmental protection analysis were conducted to test the  
93 approach's ability to evaluate options with dual benefits.

94 **2 Methods**

95 **2.1 Biorefinery Site Selection**

96 A theoretical biorefinery location in Centralia, Washington, USA (46.7162° N, 122.9543°  
97 W) was used for mapping analysis. This location meets previously described economic  
98 guidelines for an ideal biorefinery sites (Bandaru, et al., 2015) due to low land costs and the  
99 location's need for an industry to improve a localized depressed economy (Chowyuk, et al.,  
100 2021; Hart, et al., 2018).

101 **2.2 Roadside Poplar Supply and Cost**

102 **2.2.1 Vegetation Species Selection**

103 Analysis was based on planting with hybrid poplar due to the large amount of data for  
104 poplar growth in the hypothetical study region (Chowyuk, et al., 2021; Chudy, et al., 2019).  
105 Hybrid poplar complies with three selection criteria for VFA vegetation: (1) non-invasive,  
106 perennial species adaptable to marginal land (Voinov, et al., 2015), (2) require minimal  
107 fertilizer/herbicide while providing high yield (Voinov, et al., 2015), (3) comply with local  
108 roadside vegetation restrictions (e.g. WSDOT, 2003). Short-rotation poplar is a high-yield,  
109 perennial energy crop (PEC) (Dillen, et al., 2013) recognized for its suitability to sustainable  
110 cultivation (Ruf and Emmerling, 2021), adaptability to marginal land (Feng, et al., 2017;  
111 Ghezehei, et al., 2021), and minimal fertilizer and herbicide needs (Labrecque and Teodorescu,  
112 2005). Poplar has previously been considered for tertiary treatment during wastewater  
113 reclamation (Chowyuk, et al., 2021; Kargol, et al., 2022). The approach in the current study is  
114 readily extended to other perennial bioenergy feedstocks, such as switchgrass or miscanthus.

## 115 2.2.2 Identification of Available Land

116 VFS land availability was identified using state and regional maps to identify the  
117 roadside land within transportation corridor right-of-ways and other public land that were  
118 adjacent to roadways. The Geographic Information System (GIS) mapping method approach is  
119 depicted in Figure 1. The geographic region was constructed by selecting the counties in Western  
120 Washington on the *County Layer* using a Washington State County vector digital data map  
121 (WADNR, 2021). The northern edge was defined by the political boundary with Canada, the  
122 southern edge was defined by the political boundary with the state of Oregon, USA, the western  
123 boundary was defined by the Pacific Ocean, and the eastern boundary was defined by limitation  
124 of transportation corridors through the Cascade mountains. All the other map layers were clipped  
125 to conform to the shape of Western Washington. Public right-of-way land was identified as non-  
126 taxed land (i.e. blank spaces) on a tax parcel map (WAGeoservices, accessed 2019). The tax  
127 parcel map was inverted to omit taxed parcels, and overlaid with major transportation routes  
128 defined on a road map (WSDOT, 2019) and road surface areas (WSDOT, 2022b) was subtracted  
129 to construct a right-of-way map. A visual depiction for the construction of the right-of-way map  
130 is shown in Supplemental Information Figure 1. Finally, the land use of the right-of-way areas  
131 was mapped using a land cover map (MRLC, 2016; Wickham, et al., 2021). In the land cover  
132 map, lands are is classified as open land, water, developed land, barren land, forest, shrubland,  
133 grassland, cultivated land, and wetlands (MRLC, 2016). We selected open land, barren land,  
134 shrubland, and grassland as land potentially available for VFSs (Figure 1, Step 5). The result was  
135 a final map depicting the state right-of-way in Western Washington with areas that were  
136 available for VFS sites.

### 137 **2.2.3 Biomass Yields, Production Cost, and Transportation**

138 For the current study, production cost models included harvest and transportation costs  
139 while establishment, maintenance, and site re-establishment costs were assumed to be incurred  
140 by the transportation corridor authority responsible for the ecosystem services benefit of the  
141 VFSs. Modeled costs of biomass production were calculated as:

$$142 \quad \text{Plant Gate Cost} = \text{Transportation Cost} + \text{Harvest Cost} \quad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

143 where Plant Gate Cost refers to the cost of the feedstock at the entrance to the biorefinery on a  
144 per mass basis. Harvest costs were set at \$30.15 per Mg as determined previously (Chowyuk, et  
145 al., 2021) based on the GreenWood Resources Production Cost Calculator (Shuren, et al., 2018).  
146 Transportation costs were calculated as \$0.27 per Mg per km, including backhaul transportation  
147 costs following a previously described approach (Chowyuk, et al., 2021). Network Analyst on  
148 GIS was used to calculate the transportation distances for each VFS site.

149 Biomass production was estimated using the assumption that roadside land was  
150 “marginal” such that biomass yield was 17.5 dry Mg·hectare<sup>-1</sup>·year<sup>-1</sup> (Chowyuk, et al., 2021). If  
151 land conditions were better than “marginal,” the actual realized production could be higher than  
152 estimated.

### 153 **2.2.4 Supply Curve Development**

154 The values for Eq 1 for each site were ranked from the lowest to highest. A supply curve  
155 was generated assuming that the biorefinery would use the least expensive biomass source first.  
156 As the biorefinery’s capacity increased, the next cheapest source of biomass was integrated into  
157 the supply. A moving average of this function was applied to determine the average biomass cost  
158 for a specified biorefinery capacity.

159 **2.3 Pollution Reduction**

160 **2.3.1 Roadway Surface Area and Habitat Sensitivity**

161 The total surface area of the major roadways ( $A_R$ ) was determined by buffering major  
162 route lines on a *Roadway Area Layer* (WSDOT, 2022a) with their roadway widths using the  
163 *Lanes Layer* (WSDOT, 2022b), as depicted in Supplemental Information Figure 2. Urban and  
164 rural roadways were classified (WSDOT, 2022c) to reflect the differing pollutant concentrations  
165 associated with the road runoff from each classification (WSDOT, 2015). The roadways were  
166 further classified as high, moderate, low, and no sensitivity based on data from WSDOT  
167 inventories (WSDOT, 2018) to create an *Aquatic Sensitivity Roadway Area Layer*.

168 **2.3.2 Annual Storm Load**

169 The annual storm load was modeled as the mass of a pollutant in runoff per year and was  
170 calculated as:

171 
$$L = EMC * R * (A_R - A_{VFS} * E_f) \quad Eq. (2)$$

172 where L is the annual storm pollutant load in mass per year, EMC is the rainfall event  
173 mean concentration in the roadway runoff, R is the annual average depth of rainfall,  $A_R$  is the  
174 roadway area,  $A_{VFS}$  is the roadway area that is served by a VFS, and  $E_f$  is efficiency of pollutant  
175 removal by the VFS. Table 1 shows the EMC and  $E_f$  values used in Eq 2. The ECM values were  
176 obtained from the Washington State Department of Transportation (WSDOT) Highway Runoff  
177 Characterization Report (WSDOT, 2015). Values from four publications (Cahill, et al., 2018;  
178 Clary, et al., 2017; Dillaha, et al., 1989; USDOT, 1997) were reviewed to determine the  $E_f$  for  
179 use in Eq 2. R was set at the average annual rainfall depth for Western Washington.

180

## 181 3 Results

### 182 3.1 Land Availability and Poplar Supply Curve

183 **Error! Reference source not found.** shows the result of the land availability analysis.  
184 This consisted of 5,600 hectares (56 km<sup>2</sup>) of roadside land in Western Washington available for  
185 conversion to VFS sites. Of this, an estimated 26 km<sup>2</sup> are currently mowed under the WSDOT  
186 Regional Integrated Roadside Vegetation Management (IRVM) plans (Clark and Willard, 2022;  
187 Donk and Willard, 2022; Elley, et al., 2022; Golden, et al., 2022; Hastings and Willard, 2022;  
188 Joyce and Willard, 2022; Nowels and Willard, 2022; Rae, et al., 2022; Renshaw, et al., 2022;  
189 Schiller, et al., 2022; Sexton and Willard, 2022; Stryker, et al., 2022; VanAntwerp and Willard,  
190 2022) . Our analysis showed that the area of land converted to VFS could be doubled over the  
191 IRVM plan estimates by adding open land, barren land, and shrubland, validating that the GIS  
192 land use analysis approach aligned with open roadside lands recognized by regional  
193 transportation authorities.

194 Figure 3 shows the model of poplar supply costs compared to the fraction of roadside  
195 poplar (with the balance of poplar being from dedicated tree farms). If all areas in Figure 2 were  
196 developed as VFS, the total poplar yield would be 97 dry Gg biomass per year. The cost of the  
197 VSF poplar (Eq 1) increased with distance from the biorefinery, visualized as the increased trend  
198 in the dotted line on Figure 3. Roadside poplar was 50% to 70% the cost of dedicated poplar. The  
199 combined supply curve shown in Figure 3 was constructed using the next cheapest biomass  
200 source as the supply increases. When the supply required by the biorefinery exceeded the  
201 maximum roadside supply (97 dry Gg per year), the averaged cost was similar to the cost of  
202 dedicated poplar (\$73 and \$74 per dry Mg for averaged and dedicated poplar, respectively).  
203 Close-proximity dedicated poplar was less expensive than the roadside poplar beginning at 54

204 dry Gg per year. For biorefinery demands above this annual biomass value, a combined poplar  
205 source was the most cost effective.

206  
207 **3.2 Predicted Pollution Reduction**

208 Figure 4 shows the results of the urban-rural road surface area analysis (total area)  
209 compared to road surface areas associated with potential VFS sites from Figure 2. The urban  
210 road surface area was substantially higher than the rural surface area for the study region, while  
211 the rural surface areas were more amenable to VFS and proportionally more often associated  
212 with sensitive habitats. Roadways near highly sensitive aquatic areas are important to this  
213 analysis because these represent the largest environmental impact. As shown in Figure 4, 51% of  
214 the urban road surface area and 77% of the rural road surface area near highly sensitive aquatic  
215 areas could be retrofitted with VFSs.

216 Figure 5 shows the annual storm load calculated using Eq 2 applied to the road areas in  
217 Western Washington. The poplar VFS would remove approximately 26% of TSS, 13% of TP,  
218 13% of TKN, 23% of total Cu, 14% of dissolved Cu, 26% of total Zn, 20% of dissolved Zn, 20%  
219 of total Pb, and 13% of dissolved Pb from roadway runoff.

220  
221 Figure 6 shows the pollutant reduction through VFS implementation on urban highway  
222 roadsides in Western Washington broken down by aquatic sensitivity. Pollutant reduction is  
223 predicted for each aquatic sensitivity designation (high, medium, low, none). While there was  
224 greater road surface area in the urban areas (Figure 4), the higher portion of land amenable to  
225 VFS and the higher proximity to sensitive aquatic habitats suggests that VFS by rural roadways  
226 have higher potential for pollution reduction than their urban counterparts.

227 **4 Discussion**

228 A main barrier to economic lignocellulosic liquid biofuels is feedstock costs (Stanton and  
229 Gustafson, 2019). Cultivation of large-scale lignocellulose plantations is often not considered a  
230 viable option (Chudy, et al., 2019). Dual-purpose growth of lignocellulosic poplar for its  
231 ecosystem services can improve the economics of the feedstock (Chowyuk, et al., 2021; Hart, et  
232 al., 2018). The objective of this research was to examine the potential for growing biomass for  
233 the dual purposes of reducing pollution in roadway runoff and supplying feedstock for a  
234 biorefinery. The research was applied to a fixed geographic region to enable use of GIS  
235 approaches for a realistic analysis. The analysis showed that despite a broad range of  
236 transportation distances, the dual purpose VFS poplar could significantly off-set feedstock costs  
237 for a biorefinery. For a modest scale biorefinery, 150 Gg biomass per year, we calculate a \$1.35  
238 million annual reduction in biomass cost. A first biorefinery would be smaller than 150 Gg  
239 biomass per year to save on capital cost and having such a substantial savings in biomass cost  
240 might be necessary for financial viability. Even a large biorefinery would be constantly looking  
241 for lower cost biomass and would welcome feedstock used to clean stormwater. Taking  
242 advantage of feedstock grown to receive wastewater (Chowyuk, et al., 2021) would enable a  
243 biorefinery to build a substantial 300 Gg biomass per year and still have a biomass cost close to  
244 \$64 per Mg, saving \$4.5 million per year compared purchasing dedicated poplar feedstock.  
245 Another advantage, while not included in the ecosystem analysis, is that there would be benefits,  
246 including decreased land-use-change carbon emissions and potentially impacting land growing  
247 food crops, in reducing the land converted to dedicated poplar growth plantations.

248 The environmental benefits of have extensive VFSs on roadways are substantial. The  
249 environmental impact analysis shows a substantial reduction of pollutant loads in sensitive

250 aquatic areas by planting VFSs. Half of all urban roadways and one-third of all rural roadways in  
251 highly sensitive aquatic areas can be treated with VFSs. The reduction in pollution loading by  
252 implementing the VFSs in these sensitive areas ranged from 10% to 40% depending on the  
253 pollutant. Notably, toxic metals such as copper, zinc, and lead were predicted to have the most  
254 effective removal.

255 Operational details that address regional realities would need to be evaluated before  
256 implementation of roadside biomass production system. For example, poplar may not be the best  
257 biomass species for all regions, but the results would be similar with other types of biomass.  
258 Importantly, the results shown here demonstrate that substantial economic and environmental  
259 benefits are achievable by growing biomass for both cleaning stormwater and for biorefinery  
260 feedstock. It should be noted that the detailed results presented in this paper apply to the region  
261 of study. The paper does, however, present a rigorous approach to examining the use of VFSs  
262 biomass for biorefinery feedstock and similar results would be obtained from analysis of any  
263 region that has a significant transportation infrastructure.

## 264 **5 Conclusion**

265 Growing biomass to simultaneously provide ecosystem services and for biorefinery  
266 feedstock is a compelling concept that can advance the bioeconomy. In this study, we have  
267 shown that one approach to providing ecosystem services, growing roadside biomass, can  
268 produce cost-effective poplar biomass and reduce roadway runoff pollution loads. The results,  
269 presented here with poplar trees in Western Washington, are also adaptable for other crops and in  
270 other regions. Operational details would have to be worked out to have a commercial enterprise,  
271 but the results presented here support that the concept holds great potential and should be further  
272 developed. Future research is needed to clarify the variables that may influence stormwater

273 pollution removal when growing biomass feedstock, and on how these variables, in turn, may  
274 impact biomass production.

## 275 **6 Acknowledgements**

276 This work was supported by the USDA National Institute of Food and Agriculture's  
277 Agriculture and Food Research Initiative Competitive Grant [grant number 2011-68005-30407].  
278 The authors express their gratitude to Chris Gustafson and others at the Washington Department  
279 of Transportation for the data and input to this research.

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470 Table 1. Values used in Eq 2 for Average Event Mean Concentration (EMC) and vegetated filter  
 471 strip (VFS) removal efficiencies ( $E_f$ ).

	TSS	TP	TKN	Cu, Total	Cu, Dissolved	Zn, Total	Zn, Dissolved	Pb, Total	Pb, Dissolved
<b>Average Event Mean Concentration (EMC)</b>									
<b>Roadway Class</b>	mg/L	mg/L	mg/L	ug/L	ug/L	ug/L	ug/L	ug/L	ug/L
Urban	61.25	0.12	1.57	33.21	12.94	126.22	14.31	5.86	0.18
Rural	61.50	0.08	1.46	16.38	4.87	66.61	4.72	4.67	0.12
<b>Reference</b>	<b>Vegetated Filter Strip Removal Efficacy (<math>E_f</math>)</b>								
Clary, 2017	50%	-14%	20%	52%	36%	68%	47%	41%	32%
Cahill, 2018	35-60%	60-65%	30-45%	<i>nr</i>	<i>nr</i>	<i>nr</i>	<i>nr</i>	<i>nr</i>	<i>nr</i>
USDOT, 1997	70%	10%	30%	40-50%	<i>nr</i>	40-50%	<i>nr</i>	40-50%	<i>nr</i>
Dillaha, 1989	50%	20%	20%	40%	40%	40%	40%	40%	40%
<b>Study values</b>	<b>50%</b>	<b>20%</b>	<b>20%</b>	<b>50%</b>	<b>36%</b>	<b>50%</b>	<b>40%</b>	<b>40%</b>	<b>30%</b>

Notes: TSS, total suspended solids; TP, total phosphorus; TKN, total kjeldahl nitrogen; *nr*, not reported. EMC values were obtained from (WSDOT, 2015).  $E_f$  values were from (Cahill, et al., 2018; Clary, et al., 2017; Dillaha, et al., 1989; USDOT, 1997).

473

## 474 **7 Figure Captions**

475 Figure 1. Process for quantifying roadside land area availability using GIS mapping.

476 Numbers in circles indicate the steps. (1) Overlay Land Cover Layer (A) with Buffered Major

477 Routes Layer (B). (2) Clip Land Cover Layer with Buffered Major Routes Layer to produce

478 Clipped Land Cover Layer (D) (3) Overlay Clipped Land Cover Layer (D) with Right-of-Way

479 Layer (E). (4) Clip Clipped Land Cover Layer with Right-of-Way Layer to produce Right-of-

480 Way Land Cover Layer (G). (5) SELECT open land, barren land, shrubland, and grassland from

481 Right-of-Way Land Cover Layer to produce VFS Layer (H).

482 Figure 2. GIS mapping analysis showing land availability for vegetated filter strips in

483 Western Washington, USA. The map was generated following the approach visualized in Figure

484 1. The yellow square shows the modeled location of the biorefinery. The pink circles represent

485 potential VFS sites; size of the circle is relative to the available land at each site. The dashed

486 pink line shows the political boundary between the USA and Canada.

487 Figure 3. Supply Curve for a biorefinery using a combination of dedicated and roadside

488 poplar. The “+” symbol marks the spot on the combined supply curve above which use of both

489 dedicated and roadside poplar became most cost effective.

490 Figure 4. Roadway surface area characterized by surroundings (urban/rural) and near-by

491 aquatic sensitivity (high/medium/low/none). Shading shows the portion of the total roadway

492 surface area with potential for roadside vegetated filter strips (VFS). Habitat sensitivity was

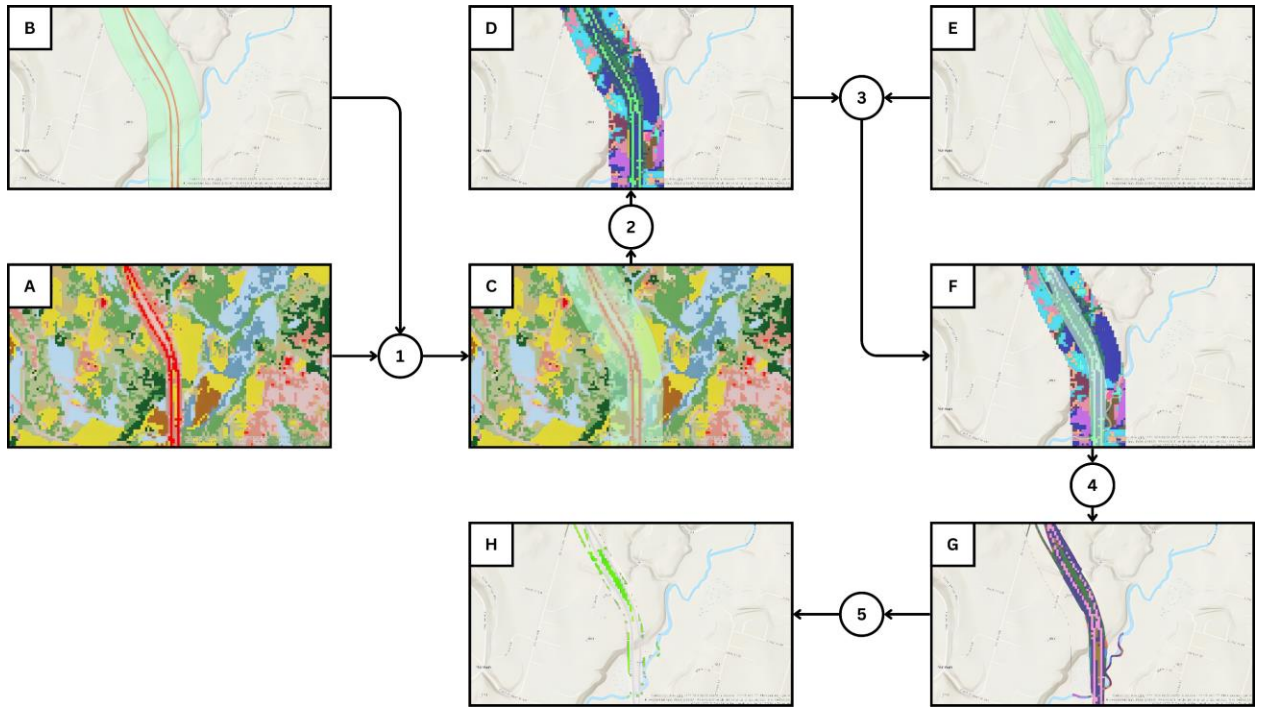
493 defined by the “Sensitive Aquatic Areas” datasets provided by the Washington State Department

494 of Transportation(WSDOT, 2018)

495           Figure 5. Modeled annual storm load calculated for Western Washington, USA. Hashed  
496 area shows the portion of the storm load predicted to be removed by installation of vegetated  
497 filter strips (VFS). TSS, total suspended solids; TP, total phosphorus; TKN, total kjeldahl  
498 nitrogen.

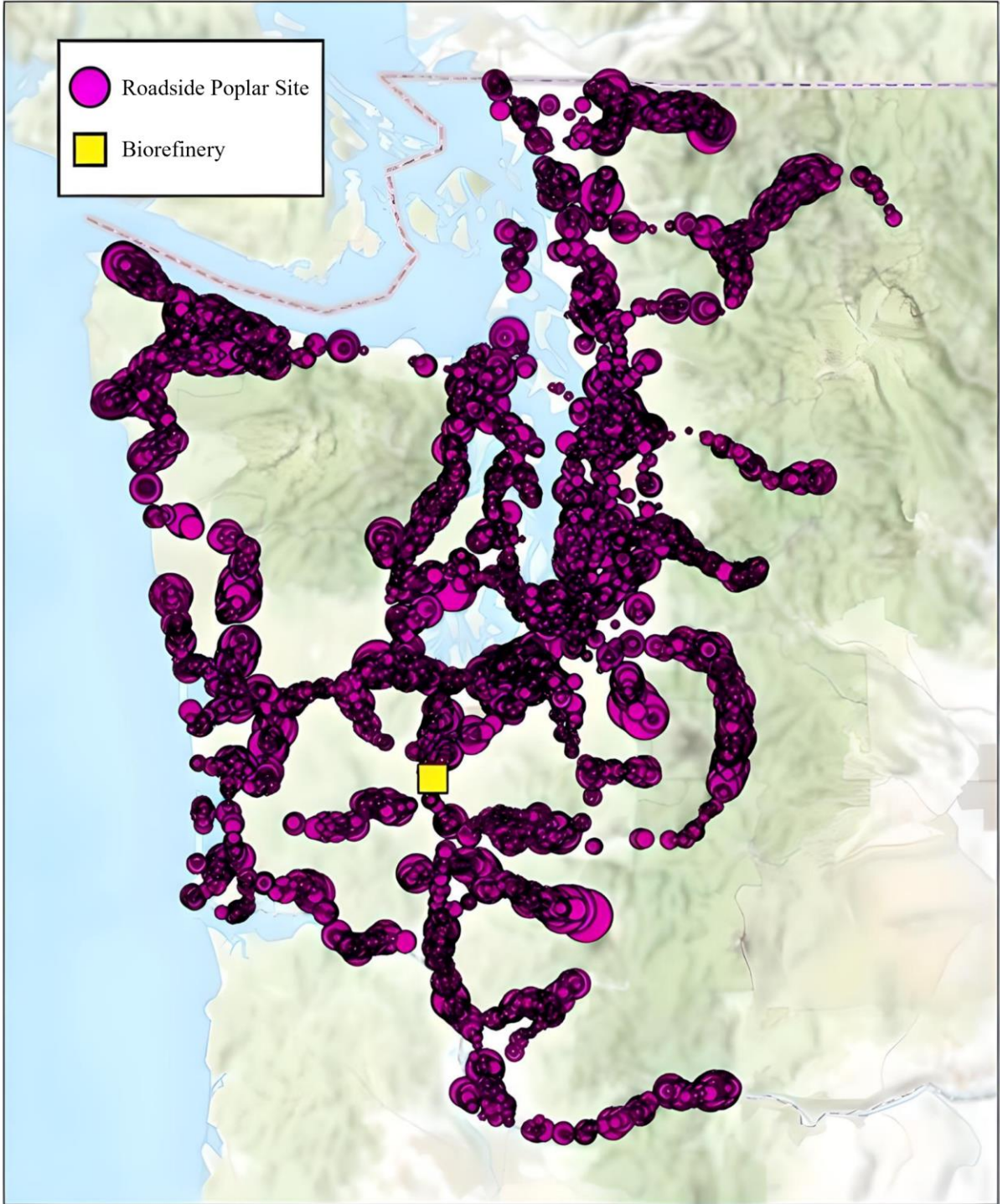
499           Figure 6. Modeled pollution reduction to aquatic habitats in (A) Urban Areas and (B)  
500 Rural Area of Western Washington based on the sensitivity of the habitat. TSS, total suspended  
501 solids; TP, total phosphorus; TKN, total kjeldahl nitrogen. Habitat sensitivity was defined by the  
502 “Sensitive Aquatic Areas” datasets provided by the Washington State Department of  
503 Transportation (WSDOT, 2018).

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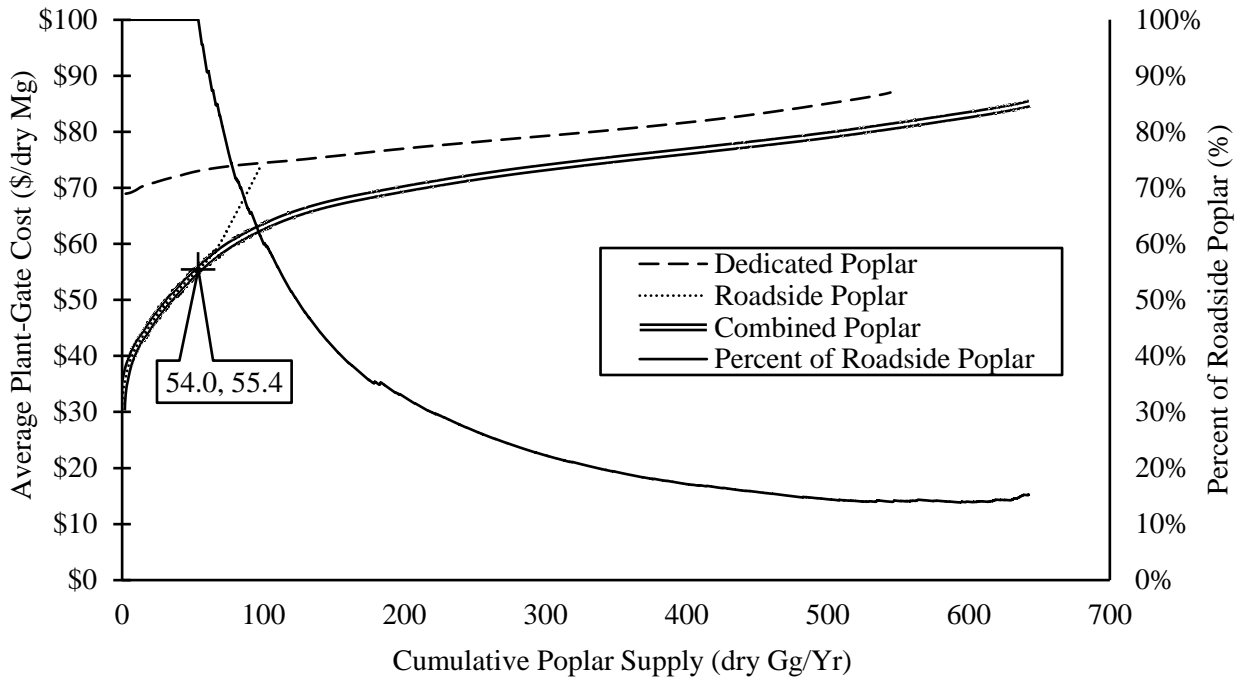
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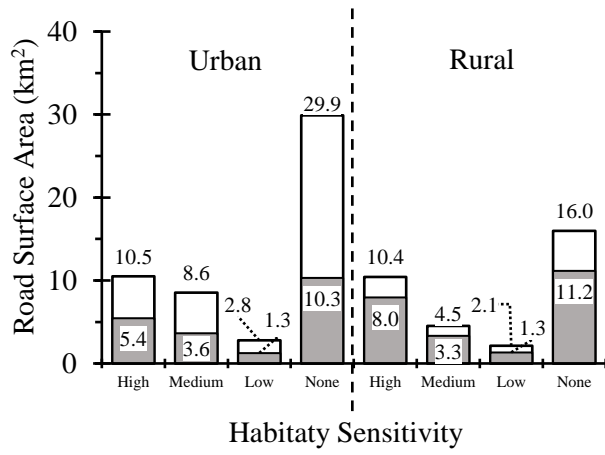
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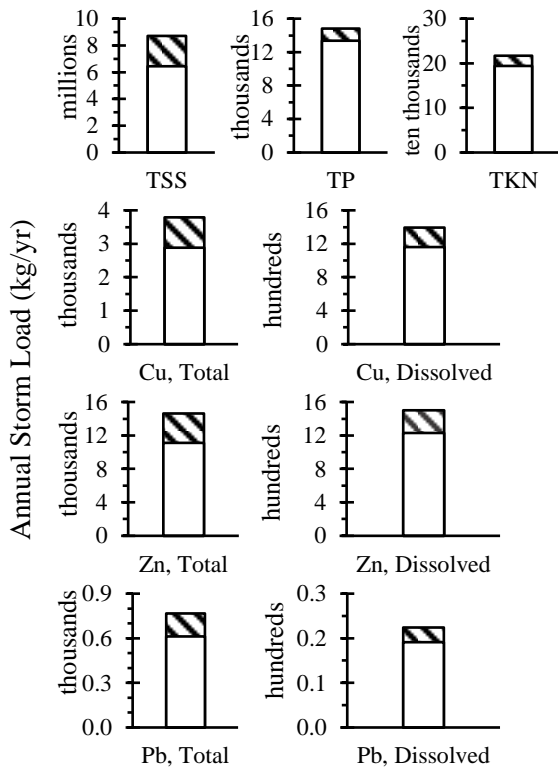
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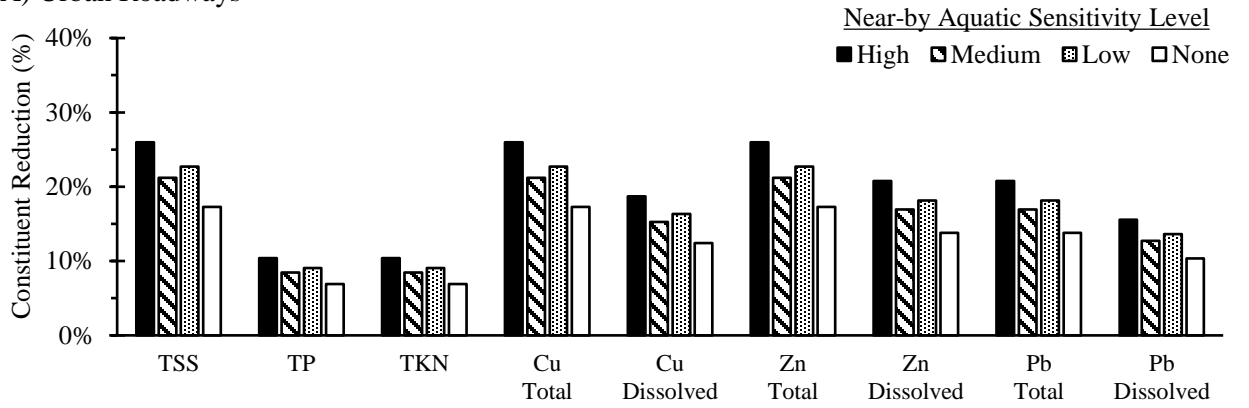
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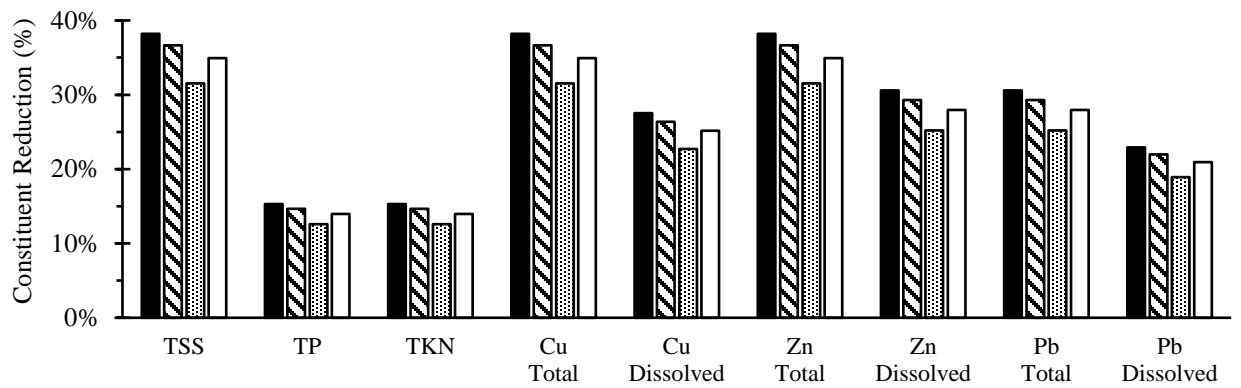
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A) Urban Roadways



515

B) Rural Roadways



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