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Program Engineering and Maintenance Service Washington, D.C. 20591 Runway Rubber Removal Specification Development: Field Evaluation Results and Data Analysis

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The phenomenon of runway touchdown zone rubber buildup is a potentially hazardous problem. Rubber buildup covers the runway surface and occludes the surface texture. This results in a reduced wet friction coefficient between the runway and the aircraft tires.									
Presently, methods and equipment available for evaluating the wet friction coefficient are expensive and require highly trained personnel. Therefore, most airport and airbase managers rely exclusively on visual impressions of rubber buildup in lieu of quantitative measurements.									
The use of pavement surface texture measurements is generally thought capable of determining pavement friction levels. This report discusses use of four economical texture measurement techniques and their relationship to friction levels as determined by the Mu-Meter.									
Good correlations were obtained by relating pavement surface texture measurements to friction. However, predictive errors preclude the use of these models in lieu of friction measurements for use in rubber removal guidelines. Ketyu or d_{2} ,									
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Se	ction	Title	Page
	I II	NTRODUCTION	1
83		OBJECTIVE	1
		BACKGROUND	1
		Phase IRubber Buildup Criteria and Evaluation Procedure Development	2
-		Phase IIRubber Removal Techniques and Equipment Review	2
		Phase IIIRubber Buildup Parameters Development	2
		Phase IVRubber Removal Specifications Development	2
		Phase VPermeability Equipment Evaluation for Porous Friction Surfaces	2
		SCOPE	3
	I T	IRE-PAVEMENT FRICTION	4
		THEORETICAL BACKGROUND	4
		Adhesional Friction Theories	4
8		Hysteretic Friction Theories	8
		EFFECTS OF PAVEMENT TEXTURE ON TIRE-PAVEMENT	9
		HYDROPLANING	11
		EMPIRICAL MODELLING OF WET-TIRE TRACTION	12
		Sinkage, or Squeeze-Film Zone	12
¢ Ý		Draping, or Transition Zone	12
		Actual Contact. or Tractive Zone	14
£,		CURRENT SURFACE-CHARACTERIZATION TECHNIQUES	14
		EFFECTS OF RUBBER DEPOSITS	17
r T	וח ז	SIGN OF FIFID EXPERIMENT	18
	N TI	ST SITES EVALUATED	23
		DAVEMENT TYDES TESTED	23
Ř		DINUAVE INVESTICATED	25
1 1	V D	RUNWATS INVESTIGATED	29
	V D/		20
			22
		ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANUVA)	32
		CORRELATIONS	35
X		iii	

TABLE OF CONTENTS (CONCLUDED)

Section	Title	Page
	REGRESSION ANALYSIS	37
	Burk's Correlation Concept	37
	Slope and Intercept Correlation	38
	Horne and Buhlmann Model	40
	MuN Predictive Modelling, 40 mi/h	43
VI	CONCLUSIONS	45
VII	RECOMMENDATIONS	46
	REFERENCES	47

APPENDIX

200

Α	RUBBER REMOVAL QUESTIONNAIRE AND NMERI COVER LETTER	51
B	PHOTOGRAPHS OF PAVEMENT TYPES EVALUATED	55
C	COLLECTED DATA	65
D	DERIVATION OF SAMPLE VARIABILITY	77
Ε	FREQUENCY HISTOGRAMS OF COLLECTED DATA	79
F	COMPARISON PLOTS OF PREDICTED VERSUS MEASURED FRICTION VALUES	93

Cox

LIST OF FIGURES

1. S. S.

Figure	Title	Page
1	Factors Affecting Aircraft Wet Runway Performance	5
2	Mechanism of Rubber Friction	6
3	Friction Master Curve	7
4	Pavement Roughness Indicating Macrotexture and	10
F	Three Characteristic Designs for the Gree of Public	10
5	Sliding on a Smooth, Sinusoidal Asperity Covered With a Thin Water-Film	11
6	Wet-Rolling Below the Hydroplaning Limit	13
7	Slip Dependency of Friction	15
8	Theoretical Friction Curves	20
9	Field Evaluation Test Matrix	21
10	Typical Test Section Layout	22
11	Burk's Theory of Isometric Friction	38
B-1	Runway Q, a Grooved Portland Cement Concrete	56
B-2	Runway F, a Wire-Tined Portland Cement Concrete	57
B-3	Runway B, a Wire-Combed Portland Cement Concrete	58
B-4	Runway O, a Burlap-Dragged Portland Cement Concrete	59
B-5	Runway D, a Worn Portland Cement Concrete	60
B-6	Runway H, a Porous Friction Surface	61
B-7	Runway K, a Porous Friction Surface	62
B-8	Runway L, a Grooved Asphalt Concrete	63
E-1	32 km/h (20 mi/h) Dry Mu-Meter Tests	79
E-2	64 km/h (40 mi/h) Dry Mu-Meter Tests	80
E-3	96 km/h (60 mi/h) Dry Mu-Meter Tests	81
E-4	32 km/h (20 mi/h) Wet Mu-Meter Tests	82
E -5	64 km/h (40 mi/h) Wet Mu-Meter Tests	83
E-6	96 km/h (60 mi/h) Wet Mu-Meter Tests	84
E-7	Average Texture Depth Measured by the Sand Patch Procedure Expressed in 10 ⁻⁴ in	85
E-8	Average Texture Depth Measured by the Silicone Putty Procedure Expressed in 10 ⁻⁴ in	86
E-9	Raw Drag Test Numbers Measured Dry in the Longitudinal Direction	87
E-10	Raw Drag Test Numbers Measured Dry in the Transverse Direction	88

LIST OF FIGURES (CONCLUDED)

Ň

Title

XIGIAI

Figure	Title	Page
E-11	Raw Drag Test Numbers Measured Wet in the Longitudinal Direction	89
E-12	Raw Drag Test Numbers Measured Wet in the Transverse Direction	90
E-13	Chalk Wear Coefficient Measured in the Longitudinal Direction Expressed in 10 ⁻⁴ in/ft	91
E-14	Chalk Wear Coefficient Measured in the Transverse Direction Expressed in 10 ⁻⁴ in/ft	92
F-1	MW40 Predicted by Regression Model Equation 5 Compared With Measured MW40 Values	94
F-2	MW40 Predicted by Regression Model Equation 6 Compared With Measured MW40 Values	94
F-3	Slope Predicted by Regression Model Equation 7 Compared With Measured Slope Values	95
F-4	Slope Predicted by Regression Model Equation 8 Compared With Measured Slope Values	95
F-5	Slope Predicted by Regression Model Equation 9 Compared With Measured Slope Values	96
F-6	Intercept Predicted by Regression Model Equation 10 Compared with Measured Intercept Values	96
F-7	Intercept Predicted by Regression Model Equation 11 Compared with Measured Intercept Values	97
F-8	Intercept Predicted by Regression Model Equation 12 Compared with Measured Intercept Values	97
F-9	C _{mac} Predicted by Regression Model Equation 21 Compared With C _{mac} Values	98
F-10	C _{mic} Predicted by Regression Model Equation 22 Compared With C _{mic} Values	. 9 8
F-11	MW40 Predicted by Regression Model Equation 23 Compared With Measured MW40 Values	. 99
F-12	MW40 Predicted by Regression Model Equation 24 Compared With Measured MW40 Values	. 99
F-13	MW40 Predicted by Regression Model Equation 25 Compared With Measured MW40 Values	.100
F-14	MW40 Predicted by Regression Model Equation 26 Compared With Measured MW40 Values	.100
F-15	MW40 Predicted by Regression Model Equation 27 Compared With Measured MW40 Values	.101
F-16	MW40 Predicted by Regression Model Equation 28 Compared With Measured MW40 Values	.101

 λ

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Title	Page
1	Selected Field Procedures	18
2	Summary of Runways Tested	24
3	Variation of Field Measurements	30
4	Means of Pavement Edge Control Sections	34
5	Correlation Coefficient Matrix	36
6	Friction Models Using Texture Measurements	44

vii (The reverse of this page is blank.)

SECTION I INTRODUCTION

OBJECTIVE

The objective of this effort is to develop a procedures for determining when runway rubber removal is needed and when rubber has been satisfactorily removed. These developed procedures were correlated in a designed field equipment with friction measurements obtained using a self-watering Mu-Meter. The results of this correlation study are to be used in the development of contract specifications for runway rubber removal.

BACKGROUND

The higher operational speeds and heavier gross weights of modern aircraft require high shear forces generated at the tire-pavement interface for safe operation. These shear forces are dependent upon the available tirepavement friction. Dry friction between the tire and clean pavement does not present a problem, because of the chemical and physical properties of the tire rubber and the mechanical properties of the tire structure. However, once a lubricant, most commonly water from rainfall, is introduced at this interface, a serious loss of friction can occur. This loss of friction can be slight, as on a damp pavement when the operator must reduce frictional demand during maneuvering to maintain directional control, or significant, as in the case of hydroplaning where the operator loses directional control of the vehicle.

Once a contaminant other than rain water is placed upon the pavement, the operational characteristics of the pavement change. Specifically, on a runway, rubber deposits formed by landing aircraft can dramatically reduce the wet frictional performance of the runway touchdown zone pavement. Since these touchdown zones are subjected to impact of the tires during landing, a certain amount of rubber is transferred from the tire to the pavement as a result of heat and abrasion produced when the aircraft tires spin up. This rubber is deposited on the pavement surface as thin layers that adhere to the pavement materials. As subsequent rubber deposits increase the buildup to a significant thickness, several problems appear. They are (1) obliteration of pavement markings, (2) accumulation of loose debris on the runway surface, and (3) reduced wet frictional levels. Maintenance action is required to eliminate or reduce these problems to an acceptable level. Painting of pavement markings is a regular activity at all active airports; periodic sweeping of runways removes the loose debris; and rubber removal may restore the pavement's frictional properties (Reference 1).

Currently both the United States Air Force (USAF) and the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) periodically recommend removal of runway touchdownzone rubber deposits. Presently, the airport or base pavement engineer must rely heavily upon visual impressions or experience or both to determine when rubber removal is required and when removal of rubber has adequately improved the pavement's frictional characteristics. Unfortunately, test results obtained by the USAF indicate that this visual/experience method of inspecting rubber deposits does not correlate well with the frictional results obtained with a Mu-Meter (Reference 2). Since the Mu-Meter or other tire-pavement friction measurement equipment is expensive and requires highly trained personnel, it is unavailable at many airfields. As a result, a cost-effective rubber-removal program is impractical without guidelines indicating when rubber buildup is sufficient to warrant removal.

The New Mexico Engineering Research Institute (NMERI) was tasked to develop an alternate procedure to quantify amounts of rubber buildup and their effect upon the frictional characteristics of the runway pavement. This project was subdivided into the following five phases.

Phase I--Rubber Buildup Criteria and Evaluation Procedure Development

This phase consisted of a review of existing techniques for evaluating surface friction. Based upon this review, five evaluation procedures were selected which require little special training, are insensitive to operator change, and are cost effective (less than \$10,000 per installation for implementation).

Phase II--Rubber Removal Techniques and Equipment Review

Phase II required review and research of existing rubber removal techniques. Evaluation of effectiveness, cost, simplicity, safety, and environmental effects was ascertained when the reviewed techniques are applied solely to porous friction surfaces (PFS).

Phase III--Rubber Buildup Parameters Development

Phase III required the field testing of the evaluation procedures selected in Phase I. This evaluation was conducted before and after rubber removal at selected airports and air bases. Friction measurements using the Mu-Meter along with the five candidate procedures were obtained with subsequent analysis and correlation. The field testing was conducted for various surface types including portland cement concrete (PCC), asphalt concrete (AC) and PFS pavements.

Phase IV--Rubber Removal Specifications Development

This phase incorporates the results of Phases I and III into a concise specification for rubber-removal contracts. The intent of this specification is to eliminate the undesirable attributes of existing visual/experience methods for determining rubber removal quality. Thus an efficient rubber removal program may be initiated.

Phase V--Permeability Equipment Evaluation for Porous Friction Surfaces

Phase V required a review of existing techniques for evaluating permeability of porous friction surfaces. Based upon this review, the application of these techniques was evaluated, and measurement techniques recommended for use on PFS.

Phases I, II, and V have been completed and are reported upon elsewhere (References 3, 1, and 4). Phase IV is currently in progress and will be reported upon at a later date.

SCOPE

This report is a discussion of Phase III. Included are a review of tire-pavement friction theory, both theoretical and empirical, and description of selected field test techniques and design of the field evaluation experiment. Following this review, a description of test sites, test distributions, regression modelling of Mu-Meter friction levels using pavement surface texture measurements, and the results of this analysis are presented.

SECTION II TIRE-PAVEMENT FRICTION

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

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The development of friction between an aircraft tire and the runway pavement is a complex phenomenon. As stated in an earlier report by the authors (Reference 3), many factors influence the aircraft-wet pavement performance. Yager (Reference 5) describes these factors in the flowchart shown in Figure 1. This flowchart emphasizes the effects of principal weather, aircraft runway, and pilot factors which interact to affect the aircraft groundhandling performance during wet runway conditions. To ensure ground handling performance on wet runways, several approaches are necessary to reduce the severity of the problem. These include continued pilot education and training, implementation of procedures to monitor wet runway conditions, implementation of procedures to notify pilots when slippery runway conditions exist, improvement of antiskid brake systems and prompt remedial treatment of runway drainage problems. It is also clear that the quality of the pavement, from a surface texture standpoint, must be ensured at the design, construction and maintenance levels as changes continuously occur throughout the life of the pavement.

Tire-pavement friction is formed by a combination of adhesional and hysteretic friction. Kummer (Reference 6) pictorially represents these components in Figure 2. The adhesional component depends on both the surface area of bonding and the intensity of the bonding, while the hysteretic friction is generated by the surface roughness. To develop a better understanding of these mechanisms, a historical overview of each will be given.

Adhesional Friction Theories

In 1968 Schallamach (Reference 7) presented a review of adhesional friction. In this article, he stressed the importance of the rate temperature equivalence principle first proposed by Williams, Landel, and Ferry (Reference 8). This principle expressed by the Williams, Landel, and Ferry (WLF) equation allows for horizontal shifts in friction versus sliding speeds plots that help researchers correct for temperature and develop "friction master curves." An example of these curves is given in Figure 3 (Reference 9). These master curves are unique for any combination of rubber and surface. For many years researchers have tried unsuccessfully to develop a theory of adhesional friction which models these curves.

Various theoretical models have been used in developing a theory of adhesional friction. Schallamach (Reference 10) used a concept of molecular bonding, akin to Van der Waals bonds, but considered their making and breaking as separately activated processes. A newly formed bond does not sustain any force until a relative displacement occurs, at which time the bond breaks and a new unstressed bond is formed. This explains the slip-stick mechanism of adhesional friction but does not explain friction at either very low or very high frequencies. Also the peak value is related to an adhesional energy concept that depends on both the surface and the rubber.







Notes

- α_{T} = Temperature frequency shift as determined by the WFL equation

FIGURE 3. FRICTION MASTER CURVE (REFERENCE 9)

Schallamach's proposed theory assumed independent bonding of the rubber molecules. This independence between bonds did not predict static friction, since independent bonds would break under the smallest force, just as a Newtonian liquid flows under the slightest shear stress. Hatfield and Rathman (Reference 11) suggested that a finite domain of bonding exists. This theory explained static friction as the result of an equilibrium forming between making and breaking of bonds, which could permit a small finite force to exist.

Savkoor's theory (Reference 12), which becomes quite involved, assumes these finite domains of bonding and Van der Waals bonding, yet uses energy criteria rather than force criteria for bond breakage. This theory was quite successful in predicting adhesional energy behavior; however, equality between stored and bonded energy is not a criterion for bond breakage, and a bonded asperity that is not strained should not support a force.

Kummer (Reference 6) describes adhesional friction by means of an equivalent electrical roughness and a concept of microhysteresis. He describes molecular forces as a series of equivalent sawtooth roughness, and describes the energy losses as microdeformation losses within the rubber. This derivation allows him to describe both adhesional and hysteretic friction as being two processes dependent upon the same rubber properties. However, this theory assumes that the rubber undergoes cyclic deformation due to the making and breaking of bonds, yet does not describe how these bonds are broken. Secondly, this theory is generalized from consideration of cleavage planes of ionic crystals, making it difficult to explain rubber friction on smooth metal surfaces.

Various others have attempted to explain this controversial process of adhesional friction, but detailed descriptions of their work are beyond the scope of this report.

Hysteretic Friction Theories

At this time attention will be turned to hysteretic friction. To make this phenomonen easier to understand, a brief history of analytical modeling follows.

In 1966, Kummer published the **Unified Theory of Rubber and Tire Fric**tion (Reference 6). In this classical work, he described the mechanism of hysteretic friction to be a function of asperity shape, height and density, and the draping and damping properties of the rubber. He modelled the bulk rubber as a Kelvin element, and used this model and elastic-draping theory to describe both the volume of rubber deformed and the energy dissipated within this volume. In 1969, Hegmon (Reference 13) used the concept of conservation of strain energy coupled with the viscoelastic relaxation times of rubber to describe deformation or hysteretic losses of rubber. He also theorized that a specific volume of rubber is deformed during loading and that losses are generated within this volume. This derivation agrees in general with Kummer's, with the major difference being that the rubber damping was modelled by a Maxwell rather than a Kelvin model. Both Kummer and Hegmon describe the energy losses in the area of the displaced rubber. Yandell (Reference 14) determined hysteretic losses, using a mechanolattic analogy to calculate the stresses and deflections in a rubber slider of infinite length, unit width, and finite thickness, fastened to a rigid backing plate. He modeled the losses within a rubber block as an arrangement of eight Kelvin elements. Using this model and simple triangular asperities, his mathematical derivation describes the hysteretic losses as a function of changes in the stress flux of the rubber. This analogy allows energy dissipation to occur in rubber volumes larger than that which is displaced by the surface asperity. He further describes a condition of stress saturation. This condition occurs when residual stresses remain in the rubber at locations of lowstress contours.

As neither component of tire-pavement friction is clearly understood, controversy arises as to the importance of adhesional versus hysteretic friction. Yandell (Reference 14) hypothesizes that hysteretic friction is the primary cause of wet tire-pavement friction. Conversely, Hegmon (Reference 13) believes that the majority of this friction is caused by a suppressed but not completely damped adhesive friction component. Moore (Reference 15) also believes that the adhesional component of friction is the dominating factor at low sliding speeds. He bases this opinion on the tire having an essentially dry contact zone where these adhesional forces are generated. His model of wet tire-pavement friction is discussed later in this report.

EFFECTS OF PAVEMENT TEXTURE ON TIRE-PAVEMENT FRICTION

ALANTAGE SUBJECTION STRATES

Two important features of the pavement govern its characteristics with regard to tire-pavement friction. These are the pavement's adhesional bonding potential and its texture. Since the pavement's adhesional bonding potential has not yet been identified, pavement engineers concentrate on the pavement's textural characteristics.

Pavement texture has been found to govern many aspects of the tire-pavement interaction. Among these are: noise generation, tire wear, and tirepavement friction. As the main focus of this report is the role of pavement texture in tire-pavement friction, emphasis will be given there.

Pavement texture is generally divided into two segments according to typical profile wavelengths; these are termed macrotexture and microtexture, respectively. Moore (Reference 15) differentiates the macrotexture from the microtexture as follows. The individual asperities or stones in a pavement surface constitute the macrotexture, while the finer asperities (or grit) on the larger asperities (macrotexture) constitute the microtexture. Figure 4 illustrates the difference between macro- and microtexture. According to Moore, typical wavelengths (λ) associated with macrotexture are 6 to 20 mm (0.25 to 0.80 inch), and for microtexture are 10 to 100 µm (0.0004 to 0.004 inch).

The pavement's macrotexture performs two functions, the first of which is to provide drainage channels for dissipation of bulk water. Removal of this bulk water prevents the occurrence of dynamic hydroplaning under the leading edge of the tire. Second, the shape of the major asperity determines both the hysteretic losses generated by the tire rubber sliding over this asperity (Reference 14) and the local contact pressures generated at the tip of this asperity (Reference 15). Highly angular asperities, generally represented as



FIGURE 4. PAVEMENT ROUGHNESS INDICATING MACROTEXTURE AND MICROTEXTURE (REFERENCE 15)

cones, cause local contact pressures greater than the viscous fluid pressures; thereby, the bulk water is removed through the drainage channels and the viscous film is broken, allowing the tip of the asperity to be in dry contact with tread rubber. However, road aggregates do not retain this high angularity because of wear and polish. Therefore the macrotexture predominantly determines the frictional decline with speed on wet pavements. Its prime role is to displace the bulk water so the microtexture can penetrate the thin films remaining.

The pavement's microtexture on these larger protrusions must generate these higher contact pressures necessary to penetrate the viscous film. Moore (Reference 16), in his derivation of a viscous hydroplaning theory, estimates the film thickness at the crest of a sinusoidal asperity to be approximately that of average microtexture depth (see h* in Figure 5). Williams' study (Reference 17) showed an optimum texture band of microtexture, from 10 to 100 μ m average texture depth, at which wet friction was adequate yet tire abrasive wear was not excessive. This texture band expressed in texture depth confirmed Moore's estimated microtexture requirements. Therefore, microtexture determines the peak of a wet friction speed curve by determining a percentage of the tire's footprint which remains in dry contact.

The importance of the pavement's microtexture cannot be overemphasized in determining a peak friction value. However, this fraction of the pavement's texture is both the hardest to quantify and the most variable, because of seasonal variations and traffic polish.



FIGURE 5. THE THREE CHARACTERISTIC REGIONS FOR THE CASE OF RUBBER SLIDING ON A SMOOTH, SINUSOIDAL ASPERITY COVERED WITH A THIN WATER FILM (REFERENCE 16)

HYDROPLANING

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The loss of wet tire-pavement friction due to lubrication effects is termed hydroplaning. Since tire-pavement traction becomes critical when the pavement is wet, this case is of utmost importance. Hydroplaning manifests itself in one or more of three forms: dynamic, viscous, and reverted rubber hydroplaning.

Dynamic hydroplaning occurs when the fluid thickness between the tire and the pavement is such that fluid inertial effects predominate in its removal. Two conditions must be met for dynamic hydroplaning to occur. They are: (1) fluid film thickness must be greater than some minimum (this can be as low as 0.05 inch for a Goodyear 29 by 16 aircraft tire placed on a Hawker Siddeley Hunter F-6 Jet Fighter traveling at 1.47 times the critical hydroplaning speed on very lightly brushed concrete [Reference 18]) and (2) a critical velocity at which hydroplaning occurs must be reached. Horne and Joyner (Reference 19) found that the critical velocity is proportional to the square root of the tire inflation pressure. Namely, for aircraft tires $V_c = 1.8 \sqrt{P_{in}}$, where V_c is the critical hydroplaning speed in m/s and P_{in} is the tire inflation pressure in kilopascals.

Viscous hydroplaning, unlike dynamic hydroplaning, can occur at any speed and requires only a thin film of water to be present. Moore (Reference 16) describes the formation of a viscous film on an idealized surface and discusses the necessity of microtexture to penetrate this film. Full development of a viscous film prevents the adhesional component of friction from forming, thereby drastically reducing the wet friction value. The film thicknesses encountered during viscous hydroplaning are slight; therefore, fluid viscous effects predominate. Thus, high localized stresses are required to penetrate these water films, making them much harder to remove than bulk water.

Reverted rubber hydroplaning is caused by heat generated at the tirepavement interface during tire lockup on a damp pavement, causing the rubber to melt or revert back to its uncured state. Nybakken, Staples, and Clark (Reference 20) estimate interface temperatures to be of the order of 204° C to 315°C (400 to 600°F). Two possibilities seem to exist with reverted tire hydroplaning. The first possibility is the tire remains locked, and heat generation continues to occur at the interface between the tire and the damp pavement. This would cause steam generation beneath the tire as first proposed by Obertop (Reference 21). Horne and Joyner (Reference 19) expanded upon this concept and generalized that reverted rubber may form and possibly provide a seal around the periphery of the footprint, thus allowing a very thin film of water to be trapped in the footprint, which upon heating will cause steam. This steam pressure could lift the tire from contact with the pavement; as a result, the tire would slide upon molten rubber and a cushion of steam. The second possibility, suggested by Nybakken et al. (Reference 20), was that the reverted rubber, once formed, could not sustain the high localized stresses necessary to penetrate a viscous film of water, and a resultant process analogous to viscous hydroplaning would exist.

Yager (Reference 5) summarized the types of hydroplaning with the contributing and alleviating factors associated with them. Since wet tire-pavement friction is modelled as a combination of hydroplaning zones and dry contact zones interacting in a complex manner, tire and pavement engineers must rely heavily upon empirical modelling to determine optimum parameters for both the tire and the pavement.

EMPIRICAL MODELLING OF WET-TIRE TRACTION

Empirical modelling of wet tire traction evolves from Moore's generalization of the rolling tire friction zones (Reference 22). A pictorial representation of these zones is shown in Figure 6 and described below.

Sinkage, or Squeeze-Film Zone

Under wet conditions, the forward part of what under dry conditions would normally be considered the contact area floats on a thin film of water, the thickness of which decreases progressively as individual tread elements traverse the contact area. Since the tire, water-film, and road surface have virtually no relative motion in the contact area, the tread elements in effect attempt to squeeze out the water between rubber and pavement.

Draping, or Transition Zone

The draping zone begins when the tire elements, having penetrated the squeeze film, begin to drape over the major asperities of the surface and to make contact with the lesser asperities.

WEDGE ANGLE WATER LAYER DEPTH (a) GENERAL

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FIGURE 6. WET-ROLLING BELOW THE HYDROPLANING LIMIT (REFERENCE 22)

Actual Contact, or Tractive Zone

This is the region where the tire elements, after draping, have attained an equilibrium position vertically on the surface. The length of this region depends on vehicle velocity; it occupies the rear portion of the overall contact area. Tractive effort is developed here.

The frictional forces generated in the tractive zone (Zone C) of the tire footprint depend on the tire's stiffness in the direction of slip and upon the slipping or sliding velocity of the tread elements. As very little slip occurs in an unyawed free-rolling tire, the tire's rolling resistance is not caused by a friction couple between the tread elements and the pavement, but by hysteretic energy losses in the tire structure caused by cyclic deformations and by drag forces. However, during acceleration, braking or cornering, the tread element slips in contact with the pavement. Empirical research has determined that the slip ratio, where wet pavement friction reaches a maximum, ranges from 6 to 12 percent. Both the peak friction value and the slip percent where it occurs is dependent upon many variables, including the tire's structural stiffness, aspect ratio, inflation pressure, operating mode (locked, yawed or transient slip), the tread pattern, physical and chemical characteristics of the tire, and textural and chemical characteristics of the pavement. Figure 7 demonstrates this general relationship between slip and friction.

Figure 7 shows three curves combined to explain the measured wet friction speed curves. The top curve or the theoretical friction curve is analogous to the friction master curves presented earlier. This curve depends on both the tread rubber and the pavement. The tire structural influence curve is dominated by structural properties of the tire and is substantially "slip distance dependent" and substantially independent of speed. These first two curves combine to form the experimentally derived wet friction speed curves (Reference 23).

The tire footprint hydroplaning model is not pictorically correct as to the geometry of the footprint. However, high-speed photos of tires passing over a glass plate have verified the existence of these three distinct zones (References 16, 24). This simplified model has been very useful in explaining the reduction of wet tire-pavement friction, and has enabled engineers to generalize about the role of pavement texture in this reduction of friction levels.

CURRENT SURFACE-CHARACTERIZATION TECHNIQUES

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The pavement's surface texture governs its frictional response. An extensive literature search conducted by the authors reviewed current methods of both measuring surface texture and relationships between texture and friction (Reference 3). A review of methods used to characterize texture and applicable relationship will be reviewed.

The measurement techniques reviewed were divided into three categories according to how the textural property was measured. These three categories were

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FIGURE 7. SLIP DEPENDENCY OF FRICTION (REFERENCE 23)

1. Direct profile measurement methods,

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- 2. Direct measurements yielding average texture values, and
- 3. Indirect texture measurement techniques.

Since this study included two direct average texture depth techniques and two indirect texture measurement techniques, theories or relationships involving profiles are excluded from this report. Emphasis is given to relationships involving measurements taken.

Recalling the shape of the wet-friction speed curves (see Figure 7), large differences in sliding speeds experienced by a locked wheel tester form an exponentially decaying curve, while smaller differences in sliding speed experienced by either limited slip or yawed test modes exhibit linearity in these plots. This difference in testing modes yields two distinct friction speed plots: exponential and linear curves.

Wambold et al. (Reference 25) cite the importance of the two components of texture (macro and micro) on surface friction. They found that the most conceptually satisfying model relating locked wheel friction and texture characteristics is that developed by Leu and Henry (Reference 26), namely

 $SN_V = C_U \exp(C_1 V)$

(1)

where SN is the skid number (friction number), V is the sliding velocity of the tire, and C_0 and C_1 are regression coefficients which define the skid number velocity curve. The coefficient C_0 defines the peak or intercept value and can be correlated with microtexture, while the coefficient C_1 , which describes the frictional decay with speed, depends on macrotexture alone.

However, since the differences in sliding speed experienced by a yawed test trailer, such as Mu-Meter, produced wet friction speed plots that are linear, a conceptually satisfying model relating yawed or side force friction and texture should be

$$MuN_{V} = B - MV$$
(2)

where MuN_V is the Mu-Meter number (friction number), V is the towing velocity, and B and M are the intercept and slope of the linear wet friction speed curves, which are dependent on micro- and macrotexture, respectively.

Horne and Buhlmann (Reference 27), using rolling and yawed aircraft tires, presented another conceptual model that involved the use of interfacial fluid pressures and pavement drainage coefficients to describe the wet frictional performance of the pavement. Using variations of fluid pressures measured under rolling aircraft tires at different speeds, they defined three zones of a tire footprint. Congruent with Moore's footprint model, these zones consisted of a bulk fluid zone, a thin film zone, and a dry contact region. However, unlike Leu and Henry, they modeled the wet friction speed curves as linear, and developed two pavement drainage coefficients, C_{mic}, and C_{mic} C_{mac}, which are related to microtexture and macrotexture, respectively. determines drainage rates through the microtexture, and C_{mac} determines drainage rates through the macrotexture. These pavement drainage coefficients are determined by transformation of the linear wet-friction speed curves by dividing both scales by a peak or critical value to obtain nondimensional parameters. Thus the measured friction is divided by a peak friction value and the velocity is divided by a critical hydroplaning velocity. From these curves a transformed slope, m, and intercept, b, are determined. This slope and intercept are used in regression equations to determine C_{mic} and C_{mac} , namely;

$$C_{mic} = 1.153 - 1.153b + 0.297|m|$$
 (3)

$$C_{\text{mac}} = -0.155 + 0.155b + 0.725|m|$$
 (4)

where

b is the transformed intercept |m| is the absolute value of the transformed slope C_{mic} is the microtexture drainage coefficient C_{mac} is the macrotexture drainage coefficient

A more detailed description of this method is given in Section V, "Data Analysis."

EFFECTS OF RUBBER DEPOSITS

A certain amount of rubber is removed as a result of heat and abrasion as aircraft tires spin up during landings. This rubber is deposited on the pavement surface as thin layers that adhere to the pavement materials. Subsequent rubber deposits increase the buildup to significant thicknesses. Rubber affects tire-pavement friction by first coating the finer microtexture, then occluding the macrotexture as rubber buildup increases.

During dry operations this rubber buildup is not critical, yet during wet operations, friction levels can be dramatically reduced. The rubber coating the microtexture changes the sharp asperities to rounded spheres which cannot generate the hydraulic pressures necessary to penetrate the thin viscous films of water found on a wet runway. This reduces the efficiency of the pavement in removing viscous water films, thereby reducing both the area of dry contact and the adhesional friction developed. Once rubber buildup is excessive, the bulk water drainage capability of the runway is lost. This is caused by the rubber deposits occluding the macrotexture, whereby the bulk water no longer has flow path by which to drain. Thus the combined micro/macrotexture losses could cause high potential for hydroplaning to exist on rubber-contaminated runways.

SECTION III DESIGN OF FIELD EXPERIMENT

Since the evaluation of runway friction by use of the Mu-Meter is impractical, an extensive literature search was conducted to develop field evaluation procedures (Reference 3). That investigation suggested the use of the pavement's textural characteristics to quantify runway friction levels. A thorough analysis of current textural measurement procedures was compiled in that earlier report. The selected candidate test procedures were subject to the following constraints: (1) economic: costing less than \$10,000 to implement; (2) simple: tests and techniques must be readily understandable and usable by typical airport personnel; (3) reliable and sensitive: must be able to predict friction and differences in friction levels due to rubber removal; (4) readily accepted: tests that are currently available and do not require large amounts of research and development to substantiate.

The following test methods were selected for evaluation. Two volumetric techniques of determining average texture depth, the Sand Patch and Silicone Putty tests, were used to quantify the pavement's macrotexture. Two distinctive methods, a rubber slider device (the Penn State Drag Tester) and a chalk wear device (the Chalk Wear Tester developed by NMERI), were used to quantify the pavement's microtexture. The last method, which has yet to be analyzed, is stereophotography. This technique uses an automated system to analyze stereophoto pairs by a technique first proposed by Schonfeld (Reference 28) and further developed by Holt and Musgrove (Reference 29). The test procedures used in predicting friction are summarized in Table 1. Procedures for each of these tests were presented by Lenke et al. (Reference 3).

As the intent of this experiment was both to evaluate runway touchdown zone friction levels before and after rubber removal and to correlate the pavement's textural properties to friction levels as measured by the Mu-Meter, various theoretical concepts were considered. First, rubber removal is not always 100 percent effective in increasing friction levels of the pavement. Therefore, two control sections were included which would determine the effects of both weathering and traffic polish and indicate the maximum

Macrotexture	Sand Patch Volumetric Technique (ASTM E965)						
	Silicone Putty Volumetric Procedure						
Microtexture	Penn State Drag Tester						
	Chalk Wear Test						
Combined Micro/Macro	Stereophotography						

TABLE 1. SELECTED FIELD PROCEDURES

obtainable friction levels on any particular pavement. This concept is further illustrated by Figure 8. On this figure are three theoretical friction curves. The lowest curve is the rubber-contaminated zone before removal. It has the smallest intercept and largest negative slope, due to the rubber deposits coating the microtexture and occluding the macrotexture. The middle curve is representative of the rubber zone after removal. The intercept has increased because of improvement of the pavement's microtexture, and the negative gradient is less because of increase in the macrotexture. The upper curve is indicative of the control sections. The clean pavement's microtexture allows large adhesional friction forces to form and, since the pavement's macrotexture provides good bulk water drainage, the frictional decline with speed is less.

The test matrix (Figure 9) collected both wet and dry Mu-Meter values at 32, 64, and 96 km/h (20, 40, and 60 mi/h), pavement temperatures corresponding to each Mu-Meter run, sand patch average texture depth, silicone putty average texture depth, both dry and wet Penn State Drag Test numbers (DTN) in both the longitudinal and transverse directions with corresponding pavement temperatures, chalk wear coefficients as measured by the chalk wear test in the longitudinal and transverse directions, and two sets of stereophoto pairs for each repetition. The various wet Mu-Meter test speeds (32, 64, 96 km/h [20, 40, 60 mi/h]) were used to develop friction speed curves as discussed previously. An unpublished data report by Burk (Reference 30) suggested that a combination of macrotexture and microtexture dictates the wet 64 km/h (40 mi/h) Mu-Meter testing was also thought to be indicative of the maximum friction or intercept of the wet friction speed curves.

As the Mu-Meter provides an analog output of friction over a given test section, a point-by-point comparison of the Mu-Meter testing with the five candidates was performed. This comparison was performed by using a standard test section layout, as shown in Figure 10. Three distinct sections were analyzed. These included a centerline rubber section, tested before and after rubber removal, a centerline nonrubber section, and a pavement edge nonrubber section. Within each section, three locations, placed at the quarter points of the section approximately 120 feet apart, were tested in a random sequence with two repetitions per location. Since analysis of the effect of both rubber buildup and removal of this buildup on any specific pavement required control sections to gage, the two control sections were used. The centerline nonrubber control section was tested to judge the possible effects of traffic polish. The pavement edge nonrubber section was included to determine both the possible effects of weathering and the maximum friction level of any specific pavement texture. Each of these sections was tested on pavement of the same material and surface texture as the rubber buildup area, enabling comparisons to be valid.

This statistical approach described above was used in collecting a data base to find meaningful relationships between the Mu-Meter and texture measurements. Because runway access time for testing was limited, two replicative measurements were made at each location to analyze test variability.

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FIGURE 8. THEORETICAL FRICTION CURVES (REFERENCE 3)

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"Long." is longitudinal direction of runway. "Trans" is transverse direction of runway.



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SECTION IV TEST SITES EVALUATED

As this experimental design required testing of rubber-contaminated runways prior to and after rubber removal, arrangements for field testing were made in two ways. The first attempt was contacting the various rubber removal contractors. These contractors agreed to notify the NMERI Principal Investigator of pending rubber removal jobs. Upon notification, NMERI personnel would contact the airport or airbase and arrange for testing. This method proved to be unsuccessful after testing the fourth site, so an alternative means of identifying sites for field testing was found. This was accomplished through a massive canvassing of all airports and airbases where rubber removal projects might be conducted. The canvassing questionnaire and cover letter are shown in Appendix A.

PAVEMENT TYPES TESTED

During the field-testing phase of this program, 18 runways were investigated. These are designated A through R; they are discussed briefly later in this report and summarized here. They were located at seven Air Force Bases, nine commercial air facilities, and two Naval Air Stations. These pavements were classified into four basic pavement types discussed below. Photographs of these pavement types are shown in Appendix B.

Seven runways were grooved portland cement concrete (PCC). Five of these runways (C, E, G, P, and Q) were transversely saw-cut PCC with grooves of 6.4 mm by 6.4 mm and 38.1 mm (1/4 inch by 1/4 inch and 1-1/2 inch) center-tocenter groove spacing. Figure B-1, which is a photograph of runway Q, typifies the saw-cut grooving. One runway (F) was a plastic-grooved or wiretined concrete. This runway was textured by a stiff steel brush being swept across the runway while the concrete was still in its plastic state. Figure B-2 demonstrates this texturing. The last of the grooved PCCs (B) was a longitudinal wire-combed PCC. This texturing produced a multitude of small longitudinal channels, which is shown in Figure B-3.

Seven runways were ungrooved PCC pavements. Five of these runways (I, M, N, O, and R) were burlap dragged PCC. The surface texture of these pavements is shown in Figure B-4. Two of these runways (A, D) were worn PCC surfaces. On these surfaces, the original finish of the concrete was worn or weathered away, leaving the aggregate showing through the matrix (Figure B-5).

Three runways were porous friction surfaces (H, J, K). These runways consisted of a thin overlay (0.75 to 1 inch) of a uniform-graded asphaltic concrete mix. The overlay has a porosity of 20 to 45 percent, making it very pervious; thus water drains from both the top surface of the runway and within the thin overlay. Examples of this runway type are seen in Figures 8-6 and B-7.

The last runway type (L) was a grooved dense graded asphalt concrete pavement which is seen in Figure B-8.

Table 2 displays a summary of the bases tested, the pavement type, and the type of facility.

Base	Pavement Type	Facility Type
Δ	PCC	AFR
P	cocca	ALD
B		AFB
L	GPLL	LAF
D	PCC	AFB
E	GPCC	CAF
F	GPCC ^D	CAF
G	GPCC	CAF
н	PFS	AFB
I	PCC	AFB
J	PFS	CAF
К	PFS	CAF
Ł	GAC	CAF
M	PCC	AFB
N	PCC	NAS
0	PCC	NAS
Р	GPCC	CAF
Q	GPCC	CAF
R	PCC	AFB

TABLE 2. SUMMARY OF RUNWAYS TESTED

Pavement type describes the pavement's surface characteristics.

PCC Portland cement concrete

GPCC Grooved portland cement concrete

- PFS Porous friction surface
- GAC Grooved asphalt concrete

Facility type describes major usage of runway.

AFB Air Force Base

- CAF Commercial air facility
- NAS Naval Air Station

^dwire-combed portland cement concrete ^bwire-tined portland cement concrete

RUNWAYS INVESTIGATED

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Runway A is a military runway comprised of old portland cement concrete. Primary usage of this runway is for heavy military aircraft. Rubber is removed once a year in conjunction with paint removal and repainting operations. As total operations are limited, the degree of rubber buildup was medium with the surface retaining a grittiness, indicating that the larger microtexture asperities were coated but not yet obliterated. Pavement slabs were old and polished yet structurally sound, with little differential settlement at the joints. Field notes indicate that friction levels after rubber removal may not be indicative of true friction improvement resulting from rubber removal, because of the presence of glass beads on the runway surface. These glass beads were used in the reflective paint markings, and during application of the reflective paint some of the beads scattered over the runway. These beads may have acted as a ball bearing lubricant.

Runway B is a military runway comprised of a wire combed portland cement concrete (PCC) touchdown zone and an asphalt interior. This runway is used primarily for light fighter aircraft; therefore, rubber buildup was not critical. Rubber is removed regularly once a year, as part of the maintenance program. Permanent slabs were fairly new with a wire combed concrete finish placed longitudinally down the runway. Pavement was structurally sound with good sideslope and a smooth ride. Field notes and visual examination suggested rubber buildup was not a problem. Field testing was performed in the opposite direction of aircraft landing because of limited runup distance.

Runway C is a commercial runway comprised of grooved portland cement concrete. The surface texture was formed by longitudinally wire combing and transversely saw cutting 6.4 by 6.4 by 38.1 mm (1/4 by 1/4 by 1-1/2-inch) grooves. This runway is a high-volume commercial hub with high rubber buildup rates. Although rubber was removed twice a year, rubber buildup was a problem. Pavement structure had been recently constructed and was in good condition in terms of both smoothness and soundness. Here again, measured friction levels after rubber removal may not have been as high as they actually were immediately following removal, since testing was performed 10 days after removal took place. This delay permitted rubber deposits to form on the lands between grooves and possibly reduced friction levels.

Runway D is a military runway comprised of low-texture, worn portland cement concrete. Low volumes of heavy military aircraft formed light rubber deposits. As with most military runways investigated, rubber is removed once a year in conjunction with paint removal and repainting operations. Pavement slabs were old, weathered, and polished. These slabs were structurally sound, yet pavement roughness caused the Mu-Meter to bounce up and down during 64 km/h (40 mi/h) test runs, making traces difficult to read. Thus the reliability of these readings on centerline is a potential source of error.

Runway E is a heavy commercial air cargo runway constructed of portland cement concrete. Surface texture was transversely wire combed and transverse 6.4 by 6.4 by 38.1 mm (1/4 by 1/4 by 1-1/2-inch) grooves were saw cut into the pavement. Rubber buildup was medium, with rubber coating many but not all of the lands. Rubber is removed from this runway twice a year. Pavement structure was sound and smooth. Some surface cracking was noted but considered nondetrimental to the pavement.
Runway F is a medium-density commercial runway constructed of a wiretined or plastic grooved portland cement concrete. Rubber buildup on this runway was light, and was removed twice a year. Pavement structure was sound and smooth, showing few signs of weathering. Field notes indicate that the removal operation may not have been too effective because of silicone putty that remained on the runway after rubber removal. This indicates that little energy was imparted to that area of the pavement during the removal process, and as a result little rubber could be removed. Friction measurements were taken opposite to the direction of landing.

Runway G is the opposite end of runway E. Traffic density at this end is higher, as this is the preferred direction of landing. Rubber buildup was also higher at this end than the E end.

Runway H is a military Runway with a varied traffic pattern. The runway surface consisted of low textured portland cement concrete at both ends with a porous friction course overlay in the center portion of the runway. Typically rubber removal is performed on only the concrete touchdown zones; however, since many touchdowns occurred beyond the concrete touchdown zone, and interest was expressed in removing rubber from porous friction courses, a small test section was selected and rubber was removed from this section. Since the structural integrity of any asphalt friction overlay is dependent upon the strength of the base pavement, this particular runway was in the process of being replaced because of a faulty base. Rubber buildup was light to medium in this area, with much of the pavement texture still visible.

Runway I is a military runway with both varied traffic densities and an asphalt runway with concrete touchdown zones. The touchdown zone had an unusual pattern of rubber buildup. This pattern seemed to develop as a result of pilot technique. Since, at the beginning section of the touchdown zone, the concrete slabs were cracked, and settled and provided a rough landing surface, the pilots tended to touch down beyond this section, depositing rubber near the end of the landing zone. Crack patterns also affected the Mu-Meter readings since water ponding was noticed after multiple runs in areas of cracked slabs. This base did not have a nonrubber centerline section of the same material and the pavement edge nonrubber control section was not of the same texture as the rubber-contaminated zone. This change of texture, coloration and visible gradation indicates that the centerline sections were replaced at some time during the life of the pavement. Rubber buildup was medium, covering much of the pavement's texture. The rubber was removed once a year. All testing was performed opposite to direction of landing.

Runway J is a commercial runway with a porous friction surface which receives low usage due to its orientation (used only during high cross-wind conditions). This surface had minimal rubber buildup with good sideslope. Minor damage in the form of popouts was noticed at location 3 of the centerline nonrubber section. These popouts caused an extremely high average texture depth measurement.

Runway K is also a commercial runway with a porous friction surface. However, this surface serves large volumes of traffic, and had had substantial rubber buildup over a period of 12 years before cleaning operations began. Coating this runway was a hardened rubber which could not be cut by a knife as on most runways, but could only be sampled by chiseling a piece off using a hammer and screwdriver. This coating covered approximately 25 percent of the total exposed area in the touchdown zones and was 6.4 mm (1/4 inch) thick in areas of heaviest deposits. Rubber removal is performed here once a year. The airport manager reported favorable visual impressions following removal. Each year more of the original pavement is cleaned. Effectiveness of rubber removal at this site is dependent upon the removal of recent deposits along with removing the previously deposited, hardened rubber deposits; therefore, this runway was not typical of most removal jobs.

Runway L is a grooved dense-mix, asphalt concrete surface which had been recently constructed with sulfur extenders. Since this runway is used for touch-and-go training of Boeing 747 crews, rubber buildup on the lands was of a medium thickness and grooves were mostly clogged with rubber debris. However, friction values as measured by the Mu-Meter did not show an appreciable reduction in friction levels. The reason for this is not known.

Runway M is a military runway with concrete touchdown zones and an asphalt concrete interior. Rubber buildup was heavy and channelized down the middle 7.62 meters (25 feet) of the runway. Beyond these limits very little rubber was deposited. This heavy buildup completely occluded the pavement's texture, yet the rubber layer had a fair amount of microtexture due to windblown sand embedded in the top rubber layers. The pavement was in good condition, although aged and having little texture. Since the center of the runway was asphalt, only two sections could be tested. The centerline nonrubber section of the same pavement type did not exist. Because of the runway configuration, testing was performed opposite to the direction of aircraft landing.

Runway N, a Naval Air Station runway, is of portland cement concrete. The rubber buildup zone tested was a simulated aircraft carrier deck. The deck was simulated by both painting and lighting the outline of an aircraft carrier's runway on the side of an existing runway. Carrier pilots practice their landings by continously doing touch and go operations in a controlled crash pattern. In other words, the pilot must land within a limited space at a high approach and drop into this zone to ensure grabbing the arresting gear. These landings cause extreme wear rates on the tires and heavy rubber buildup. Unlike most landings where minimal tread wear occurs, this style of landing causes sections of the tire to revert under the high-impact loads, depositing thick layers of rubber at a time. Rubber was being removed at this location once a year; however, because of damage occurring to pavement during removal operations, the contractor ceased removal operations early without removing much of the rubber, and negotiated returning twice a year to remove rubber. Friction testing was performed opposite to direction of travel.

Runway 0 is also a Naval Air Station runway of portland cement concrete. This runway is a parallel of Runway N, where various types of aircraft landed. The rubber buildup occluded most of the pavement's texture, yielding low friction values before rubber removal. The contractor also damaged this pavement during removal operations, and agreed to return twice a year to remove rubber at lower pressures.

Runway P is a grooved portland cement concrete runway that had been recently constructed and that had been open to traffic only about 9 months.

This runway was textured by a wire-combing technique that left the surface rough to the touch. The area tested as a centerline rubber zone was beyond the area of heavier rubber buildup due to the test matrix's requiring 2500 feet of runup distance to perform the 96 km/h (60 mi/h) wet Mu-Meter runs. As there was little rubber on this runway, no improvement in friction levels was seen. High pavement temperatures were recorded during the day, and their effect upon results could not be determined.

Runway Q is a grooved portland cement concrete commercial runway that showed little or no rubber buildup. No evidence of rubber deposits was seen in the grooves of this runway, indicating that rubber buildup was minimal. This runway showed a decay in friction after rubber removal.

Runway R is a portland cement concrete military runway. This particular runway was in a constant state of repair because of an expansive aggregate problem in the concrete used. Pavement slabs were replaced as they became structurally unsound, and little thought was given to texturing. Texture on this runway ranged from a weathered portland cement concrete to a recently replaced broomed portland cement concrete. Since this runway was used to train pilots of light jet aircraft, rubber buildup was not yet a problem. However, the high-pressure water blasts used in rubber removal may accelerate the existing expansive aggregate problem.

Data collected at each of these sites, in accordance with the designed field experiment discussed in Section III, is listed in Appendix C. The sites are designated "Base A" through "Base R," corresponding to "Runway A" through "Runway R," respectively.

SECTION V DATA ANALYSIS

This section discusses test distributions, analysis of variance (ANOVA) techniques, correlations between variables and regression modeling of texture measurements to predict runway friction levels.

Since the primary goal of this experiment was to predict runway friction levels from texture measurements, background information on the test distributions and general trends of the data is given to provide supporting evidence for the conclusions reached.

TEST DISTRIBUTIONS

The validity of inferences from regression analysis and analysis of variance require certain assumptions concerning the variable populations; therefore, descriptions of the variable populations are presented here.

The first step in analyzing the test populations was checking for homogeneity of population variance. The Burr Foster Q test of homogeneity (Reference 31) was used to determine whether or not the hypothesis of equal population variances should be rejected. This test proved to be inconclusive because of the large number of degrees of freedom. However, with 210 cells within the matrix, it was felt that only large departures from homogeneity would affect the data analysis (Reference 32).

Next an estimate of variable variance was computed. Since the number of cells was large but replications within cells were limited to two, only an estimate of variance could be computed. A description of how variable variance was computed is described in Appendix D with the results being expressed as Table 3.

Further descriptive information on the test variables is included in Appendix E, which includes frequency histograms on each of the test variables. The pertinent points of each variable are the following.

The variable M20, or the MuN measured at 32 km/h (20 mi/h) on a dry pavement, has both a very low variance and coefficient of variation. This implies that measurement of this variable is highly repeatable and is fairly precise as to the measured value. The histogram in Figure E-1 of Appendix E shows a wide variation in measured levels. This variation indicates that, on a dry pavement testing at the same speed, tire inflation pressure, rubber compound, and testing mode, the pavement's type and composition play an important role in determining friction levels since, if the measured friction level were independent of the pavement, the range of values would have been smaller. This evidence disputes the concept of an ultimate tire-pavement friction level determined by tire inflation pressure proposed by Horne and Buhlmann (Reference 27).

M40 is the measured MuN at 64 km/h (40 mi/h) on dry pavement. This variable is also highly repeatable and has a range of 20 MuN. This high range of values would not be expected if the pavement did not have some influence in determining the friction levels.

TABLE 3. VARIATION OF FIELD MEASUREMENTS

Variable Name	Estimated Variance σ ²	Lower Limit Variance σ_L^2	Upper Limit Variance $\sigma_{\rm u}^2$	Coefficient of Variation, %	Range of Measurement
M20	1.27	1.16	1.48	1.5	65-88
M40	1.06	0.97	1.24	1.3	68-88
M60	2.62	2.39	3.06	2.1	66-91
MW20	2.57	2.35	3.00	2.3	32-88
MW40	4.58	4.18	5.34	3.7	16-87
MW60	6.88	6.28	8.03	5.5	7-82
SAP	1700	1550	1990	13.0	87-1126
SIP	11960	10900	14000	17.6	148-2109
PTIL	9.15	8.35	10.68	3.5	52-112
PTIT	3.99	3.64	4.66	2.3	54-102
PTIWL	11.42	10.43	13.32	5.8	32-87
PTIWT	5.11	4.67	5.96	3.8	30-85
CTL	273.00	250.00	319.00	15.8	21-220
CTT	195.00	178.00	227.90	12.6	24-221

M20	20	mi/h	drv	Mu	value

- MW20 20 mi/h wet Mu value
- M40 40 mi/h dry Mu value
- MW40 40 mi/h wet Mu value
- M60 60 mi/h dry Mu value
- MW60 60 mi/h wet Mu value
- SAP Average texture depth as measured by sand patch measured in 10^{-4} inches
- SIP Average texture depth as measured by silicone putty measured in 10⁻⁴ inches
- PTIL Raw drag test number (DTN) measured dry in the longitudinal direction
- PTIT Raw DTN measured dry in the transverse direction
- PTIWL Raw DTN measured wet in the longitudinal direction
- PTIWT Raw DTN measured wet in the transverse direction
- CTL Chalk test measured in the longitudinal direction and recorded as a wear coefficient in 10⁻⁴ in/ft
- CTT Chalk test measured in the transverse direction and recorded as a wear coefficient in 10⁻⁴ in/ft

M60 is the measured MuN at 96 km/h (60 mi/h) on a dry pavement. This variable exhibits much the same characteristics as M20 and M40.

MW20 is the MuN measured at 32 km/h (20 mi/h) on a pavement with 1 mm (0.04 in) of water depth delivered to the pavement under the test tires. The water distribution was described in a previous report (Reference 3). Thus the presence of a lubricant is introduced into the testing. This lubrication of the pavement caused a much greater range of measured values while the variance increased only slightly. Thus the measured values are slightly less precise, yet the pavement characteristics caused an appreciably larger difference in range. Of particular note on the frequency histogram (Figure E-4) are the values in the thirties. These values occurred in an area of extremely heavy rubber buildup and their influence will continue throughout the wet testing.

MW40, the MuN measured at 64 km/h (40 mi/h) on a wet pavement, has higher variation than the MW20 which can be attributed with lubrication effects becoming more variable at higher speeds. On the histogram (Figure E-5) there is a slight tendency for two separate peaks to occur. These peaks are caused by the distinct differences in average texture depth or degree of drainage paths between the low textured portland cement concrete pavements and the high textured pavements such as grooved pavements or porous friction surfaces. These peaks will become more evident as the test speed increases to 96 km/h (60 mi/h).

MW60, the MuN measured at 96 km/h (60 mi/h) on a wet pavement, emphasizes the two separate peaks on the frequency histogram (Figure E-6). The lower peak occurs on pavements with an average texture depth of less than 0.8 mm (0.03 in), while the higher peak was on pavements where the average texture depth was greater than 0.8 mm (0.03 inch). This demonstrates the effect of texture depth on friction levels at higher speeds.

SAP, or the average texture depth as measured by the sand patch procedure and recorded in 10⁻⁴ inches, has high variability and its distribution is skewed towards the lower values. The skewed distribution is caused by both the large number of low texture surfaces and the lower texture measured in the rubber contaminated zones. Thus this variable has two distinctive problems, making its predictive worth suspect. First, its high variability is evidenced by a coefficient of variation of 13 percent. Secondly, the Mu-Meter friction data does not exhibit the same skewed frequency distribution. However, as seen later, this variable has the greatest influence and is most stable in the predictive modeling. Therefore, macrotexture is important in determining friction levels; yet average texture depth specifically as measured by the sand patch may not be informative enough to determine friction levels.

SIP is the average texture depth, as measured by the silicone putty procedure, and is also expressed in 10^{-4} inches. This test has a higher variability than the sand patch, which is probably a result of its averaging texture over a smaller area. Its distribution is not as badly skewed and the values recorded are higher than those obtained by the sand patch. This is due to the method of applying the putty to the pavement. This point is emphasized in an earlier report (Reference 3). However, this high variability (COV ~18%) causes this variable to be insensitive to all but very large changes in friction. PTIL is the raw drag test number measured dry in the longitudinal direction. The variability of this number is low; however, the range of values is also low, making its measurement insensitive to changes in pavement characteristics.

PTIT is the raw drag test number measured dry in the transverse direction. Its characteristics are identical to those of PTIL.

PTIWL is the raw drag test number measured wet in the longitudinal direction. Its variability is greater than that of either of the dry values. However, since the measurement system is only slightly damped, the "bouncing" of the measurement needle of the pressure gage introduced a bias on grooved or highly textured pavements. This bounce may have been as great as 20 DTN in number and therefore the first recorded number biased the second recording number. This bouncing also demonstrated the strong influence of macrotexture on this instrument that was designed to measure microtexture independent of macrotexture. Another inherent problem with this device was the difficulty in testing rubber-contaminated zones. The rubber slider would adhere to the rubber-coated pavement momentarily, then slip quickly as this bond was broken. Thus the continuously changing friction, also known as slip-stick friction, was also not damped by the measuring system, making the recorded value a judgment measurement.

PTIWT is the raw drag test number measured wet in the transverse direction. Since this test was not influenced by pavement grooving, its variability was slightly lower than the longitudinal direction. However, the same problems existed here, especially where the rubber-to-rubber contact exhibited a pronounced slip stick friction.

CTL is the chalk wear coefficient measured by the chalk test in the longitudinal direction and recorded in 10^{-4} in/ft. This test method had high variability over the wide range of levels measured. Influence of macrotexture on this microtexture testing device could not be evaluated. Unlike the impact loading condition of the drag tester on grooved pavements, the 25.4-mm (1-inch) diameter chalk was able to bridge the 6.35-mm (1/4-inch) grooves without an adverse effect.

CTT is the chalk wear coefficient measured in the transverse direction. This test also had high variability, making its predictive capabilities suspect.

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA)

Following is a discussion of the results obtained by using an analysis of variance computational package available from the SAS Institute (Reference 33). This statistical procedure was used to identify general trends in the data. This procedure examines differences between class means to determine whether a significant difference exists between the class variable means. Class variables investigated were the location, section, and base where the test was performed. Results of these ANOVA program runs follow.

The first class variable, location, is the building block of this experiment. No significant difference between means of the different locations was found. Thus, each section can be considered a homogeneous pavement with respect to the variables tested.

Next, the four section means were analyzed. The ranking of sections for the wet Mu-Meter tests, the intercept of a linear wet friction speed curve, and the two microtexture tests (the drag tester and the chalk wear tester) were the same. In order of increasing means, this ranking was centerline rubber before removal, centerline rubber after removal, centerline non rubber, and pavement edge nonrubber. Another group of tests ranked in similar order. These were the dry Mu-Meter tests, the slope of the wet friction speed curves, and both macrotexture tests (sand patch and silicone putty volumetric techniques). The ranking here was centerline rubber before removal, centerline rubber after removal, pavement edge nonrubber, and centerline nonrubber. These ranking inverted the relative positions of both the centerline nonrubber and the pavement edge nonrubber control sections. This reversal is caused by two bases not having a centerline nonrubber control section, which biased the pavement edge nonrubber section lower. However, this reversal does show that the macrotexture tests follow the same reversal as the slope of a linear wet friction speed curve.

The ANOVA of section groupings for the wet Mu-Meter tests showed little difference between the friction levels before and after removal. The four sections' centerline rubber before, centerline rubber after, centerline nonrubber, and pavement edge nonrubber had increasing means of 51.9, 54.9, 64.3 and 66.0 MuN, respectively. This ordering is consistent with aggregate polishing and rubber buildup mechanisms present upon a runway. However, the differences between the before and after values in the rubber-contaminated area are slight, and the overall friction level before removal is above the minimum of 50; therefore, rubber removal at some locations is being needlessly done. This confirms the need for a specification or guidelines or both to improve the cost effectiveness of the rubber removal program. Similarly the candidate procedures showed improvement between the conditions before and after rubber removal. However, with these tests, improvement was likewise insignificant. The differences between control sections is also slight. However, this can be attributed to the two bases (I, M) without a centerline nonrubber section and four bases (B, F, N, 0) that were tested opposite the direction of travel, which produced an upward bias to the centerline nonrubber Mu Numbers (MuN).

The last group of ANOVA runs compared base means. Comparing base means of Mu-Meter runs to other tests by ranking was impracticable, as the individual candidate procedures were not sensitive enough to detect these differences. Yet, ranking of the pavement edge control section by order of increasing means reveals the importance of texturing. Table 4 highlights the importance of texturing on airfield pavements. As the friction levels increase, the general trend is for the average texture depth to increase. This table emphasizes the difference in average texture depth between the plain portland cement concrete and the grooved or porous friction pavements. The wire-tined portland cement concrete did not significantly improve either the average texture depth or the friction level over the ungrooved portland cement concrete pavements.

Runway Identification	64 km/h (40 mi/h) Wet Mu-Meter Number (MuN) Pavement Edge Control	Average Texture Depth SAP (10 ⁻⁴ in)	FACTYPE	PVMTYPE
I	^a 39.2	127	AFB	РСС
M	52.5	138	AFB	PCC
N	53.5	170	NAS	PCC
R	57.3	133	AFB	РСС
А	58.2	201	AFB	PCC
0	59.8	251	NAS	РСС
D	62.2	169	AFB	РСС
F	62.5	261	CAF	GPCC ^b
Ε	65.3	429	CAF	GPCC
G	69.3	362	CAF	GPCC
κ	71.5	673	CAF	PFS
Q	72.3	408	CAF	GPCC
J	74.5	626	CAF	PFS
н	75.3	524	AFB	PFS
L	75.5	528	CAF	GAC
В	78.2	309	AFB	GPCC ^C
С	79.8	381	CAF	GPCC
Р	83.5	626	CAF	GPCC
			1	

TABLE 4. MEANS OF PAVEMENT EDGE CONTROL SECTIONS

^aControl section not representative of centerline pavement.

^bWire-tined portland cement concrete.

^CWire-combed portland cement concrete.

Notes:

- FACTYPE = facility type PVMTYPE = pavement type AFB = Air Force Base NAS = Naval Air Station
- CAF = commercial air facility

PCC	=	portland	cement	concrete
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GPCC = grooved portland cement concrete

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- PFS = porous friction surfaces
- GAC = grooved asphaltic concrete

CORRELATIONS

Once general trends of the data were established by the ANOVA computations, efforts to model the friction level, measured by the Mu-Meter, through use of texture measurements began. This was accomplished by use of correlations matrixes.

The correlation matrix (Table 5) highlights some interesting relationships. First there is a strong relationship between the various test speeds for both wet and dry MuN. The correlation between MW60 (MuN measured wet at 96 km/h [60 mi/h]) and MW40 (MuN measured wet at 64 km/h [40 mi/h]) is the strongest relationship. This may be due to the low pressure tire having a sheoretical hydroplaning speed of 52.7 km/h (32.75 mi/h) or a measured hydroplaning speed of 73 km/h (45 mi/h), thus the influence of pavement drainage characteristics is more pronounced in preventing hydroplaning (Reference 34). The lower correlation coefficients between MW20 (MuN measured wet at 32 km/hr [20 mi/h]) and MW40 or MW60 might be caused by a different lubrication condition, since both the 64 km/h (40 mi/h) and the 96 km/h (60 mi/h) test runs are near or above a critical hydroplaning speed. The high correlation coefficient between M20 (MuN measured dry at 32 km/h [20 mi/h]) and M40 (MuN measured dry at 64 km/h [40 mi/h]) may be due to slight differences in relative sliding speed within the rising portion of the adhesion curve. Lower correlation coefficients were noted between M60 (MuN measured dry at 96 km/h [60 mi/h]) and M20 or M40. These lower coefficients are not explainable at present.

The correlations between the various macrotexture candidate procedures also indicate some interesting relationships. The low correlation (0.86) between SIP and SAP (average texture depth measured by the silicone putty and sand patch procedure, respectively) demonstrates either that the different techniques measure different texture depths due to test technique, or that sample variation is too high for accurate correlations. The different techniques measuring different average texture depth was demonstrated earlier by Lenke et al. (Reference 3), where texture measurements were performed on controlled surfaces. The high sample variation is evidenced by Table 3. Since both conditions exist simultaneously, determining which is the deciding factor is impracticable.

The correlations between the microtexture candidate procedures demonstrate the low correlations between the various procedures, indicating that different mechanisms occur between wet and dry testing, and between rubber slider devices versus chalk wear devices. The chalk test seemed to be less influenced by direction than the PTI drag tester. This could probably be attributed to the impact loading which occurred with the drag tester while testing longitudinally on grooved pavements. The chalk wear tester did not experience this impact loading because the 25.4-mm (1-inch) diameter chalk was able to bridge the 6.35-mm (1/4-inch) grooves, and was thus less influenced by direction.

The dry MuN values did not correlate well with any of the candidate procedures. Thus, the techniques used did not address the controversial issue of tire-pavement adhesion. The increasing influence of macrotexture with speed during wet testing demonstrates the influence of bulk water dissipation from the tire-pavement interface. Conversely, the decreasing influence of microtexture indicates the reduced draping of the tread rubber allows thin film lubrication to become more effective as speed increases. TABLE 5. CORRELATION COEFFICIENT MATRIX

<u> </u>													ľ	Γ
CTT														1.00
CTL													1.00	0.84
PTIMT												1.00	0.35	0.42
PTIML											1.00	67.0	0.32	0.35
PTIT										1.00	0.15	0.25	0.14	0.15
PTIL							į		1.00	0.78	0.21	0.14	0.11	0.11
SIP								1.00	0.34	0.29	0.36	0.32	0.28	0.28
SAP							1.00	0.86	0.35	0.29	0.32	0.30	0.23	0.20
MW60						1.00	0.75	0.67	0.32	0.27	0.48	0.50	0.41	0.43
MW40					1.00	0.95	0.67	0.60	0.29	0.27	0.50	0.53	0.44	0.47
MW20				1.00	0.84	0.73	0.34	0.29	0.18	0.21	0.50	0.60	0.48	0.53
M60			1.00	0.34	0.17	0.10	-0.10	-0.18	0.30	0.39	-0.12	00.00	0.20	0.23
M40		1.00	0.87	0.46	0.28	0.20	-0.05	-0.14	0.28	0.39	-0.02	0.13	0.22	0.26
M20	1.00	0.93	0.85	0.48	0.31	0.24	-0.00	-0.07	0.29	0.39	-0.01	0.14	0.31	0.35
	M20	M40	M60	MW20	MW40	MM60	SAP	SIP	PTIL	PTIT	PTIML	PTINT	ст	CTT [

REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Attempts were made to verify one of four possible models or methods for predicting the wet 64 km/h (40 mi/h) MuN. These four methods were:

- Burk's concept of correlating 64 km/h (40 mi/h) wet MuN by a crossproduct of macrotexture and microtexture (Reference 30).
- 2. Correlating microtexture with intercept and macrotexture with slope of linear wet friction speed curve.
- 3. Correlating the Horne and Buhlmann (Reference 27) method, C_{mic} and C_{mac} , to microtexture and macrotexture, respectively.
- Correlating the 64 km/h (40 mi/h) wet MuN directly with micro- and macrotexture measurements.

Burk's Correlation Concept

Burk (Reference 30) suggested that the wet 40 mi/h MuN can be attributed to a cross-product of microtexture and macrotexture. Lenke et al. (Reference 35) described Burk's theory and analysis in a previous paper. This theory indicates that isofriction lines exist that are defined by the pavement's texture. Figure 11 demonstrates this concept. As either component of the pavement texture increases, the measured friction value should increase. This theory can be related to Moore's rolling tire hydroplaning model in the following manner. An increase in macrotexture reduces the sinkage zone of the tire footprint, enabling more of the tire to be in a traction zone. Also as macrotexture increases beyond a certain limit, the asperities become more conical in shape, thereby generating contact pressures necessary to penetrate the viscous film (Reference 20). Similarly, an increase in microtexture reduces the draping zone of the footprint, increasing both the tractive zone area and, correspondingly, the friction level.

Using a General Linear Models Procedure (SAS GLM) the 64 km/h (40 mi/h) wet MuN was modelled by a cross product of a macrotexture (average texture depth measured by the sand patch SAP), and a microtexture measurement (either a raw Drag Test Number [DT] from the PTI drag tester or a chalk wear coefficient [CT] measured by the chalk wear tester). Two combinations showed the most promise, namely:

$$Mu40 = 0.00080 \text{ SAP x DT + 43}$$
(5)

$$\frac{R}{MSE} = 9.4$$

and

$$\begin{array}{rcl} Mu40 &= & 0.00035 & \text{SAP x CT} + & 46 & (6) \\ \hline R &= & 0.70 \\ \hline MSF &= & 9.6 \end{array}$$

where

R is the correlation coefficient \sqrt{MSL} is the root mean square error expressed in MuN Mu40 is the 40 mi/h wet MuN predicted by texture measurements



MICROTEXTURE



However, neither of these regression models, which determine friction levels within approximately 19 MuN, are able to predict friction to the close tolerances necessary to develop specifications for rubber removal. Also the fit of the regression equation, as determined by the correlation coefficient, did not improve much over predicting by macrotexture (SAP) alone. The Pearson correlation coefficients increased from 0.67 for predicting with sand patch alone to 0.70 and 0.72 for the cross-product regression Equations 5 and 6. This demonstrates the strong predictive value of the sand patch with little additional variation being explained by the microtexture parameters, drag tested number, or chalk wear coefficient. Comparison plots of values predicted by the regression models presented in this section and actual measured values are shown in Figures F-1 through F-16 in Appendix F.

Slope and Intercept Correlation

This method of regression modelling correlates the slope and intercept of a linear wet friction speed curve with macrotexture and microtexture parameters, respectively. Since the Mu-Meter measures side force friction, the differences in sliding speeds are limited by the experimental design. This places the measured friction values in the approximately linear range of the wet friction speed curves (see Figure 7). Therefore the developed friction speed curves are expressed as linear functions, unlike the exponential model developed by Leu and Henry (Reference 26). Two parameters are computed from these friction speed lines, namely slope (M) and intercept (B).

The slope (M) describes the frictional decay with speed similar to the exponential decay coefficient C_1 developed by Leu and Henry (Reference 26). This decay of friction with speed is predominantly a result of lubrication becoming more effective as speed increases. Using the tire footprint hydroplaning model, increasing the test speed increases the fluid pressures in the tire-pavement interface which causes both fluid zones of Figure 6, sinkage (Zone A), and draping (Zone B) to encroach upon the dry tractive zone (C), thus resulting in lower friction levels. Measurement of the pavement's drainage capacity, obtained by measuring the average texture depth, can be related to this decay since this relates to pavement drainage times.

Conversely, the intercept is conceptually the highest obtainable friction on any given pavement surface. Relating microtexture to optimum friction is based on Kummer's work of adhesional friction (Reference 6). In his derivation he models adhesional friction as a combination of electrical roughness and microhysteresis. Therefore, microtexture, as measured by a rubber slider device, should simulate both the microhysteresis created by the pavement's microtexture and equivalent electrical roughness.

Using linear regression techniques, both the slope and intercept of each set of data were computed. Using these values the slope (M), expressed in MuN/(mi/h), was modeled against the average texture depth measured by the sand patch (SAP). The regression equation

$$M = -1.0 + 0.0014 \text{ SAP}$$
(7)

$$\frac{R}{MSE} = 0.81$$

shows a relationship between slope and average texture depth; however, much data scatter exists. Including a microtexture term (CT, for the chalkwear coefficient, or DT, the raw drag test number), equivalent to a roughness term in the Manning equation for open channel flow, does little to explain further variance as evidenced by the following equations:

$$M = 1.0 + 0.00048 \text{ CT} + 0.0014 \text{ SAP}$$
(8)

$$R = 0.82$$

$$\overline{\text{MSE}} = 0.18$$

and

of

M = 1.11 + 0.0022 DT + 0.0014 SAP(9) R = 0.82 $\sqrt{MSE} = 0.18$

Next, the intercept (B), expressed in MuN, was modeled with the microtexture test values, Drag Test Number (DT) and chalk wear coefficient (CT). Correlations on this order were very poor. For example:

B = 0.45 DT + 54(10) R = 0.41 $\sqrt{MSF} = 8.1$ B = 0.084 CT + 72(11) R = 0.38 $\sqrt{MSE} = 8.3$

Inclusion of a macrotexture term, sand patch average texture depth (SAP), improved this model slightly; however, the correlation was still poor, namely

> B = 0.56 DT - 0.017 SAP + 53(12) R = 0.52 $\sqrt{MSE} = 7.6$

Therefore, the intercept or optimum friction of a given pavement cannot be related to the simple microtexture devices used. Two major reasons for this lack of fit are probably the small range of both the computed intercepts and the Drag Tester values (DTN) and the high variability of the chalk test (CT).

Equations 7, 8, and 9 emphasize the importance of macrotexture in retaining tire-pavement friction levels at higher speeds. These equations reinforce the trend shown by the ANOVA computations (Table 4) that greater macrotexture yields higher friction levels at high speeds.

Another technique employed in analyzing the importance of texture on the slope M is computing a normalized slope, that is, dividing the value of the slope by the central friction number (Reference 25); namely,

PNS = M/MW40

(13)

where PNS is the percent normalized slope expressed in $(mi/h)^{-1}$, M is the calculated slope and MW40 is the MuN measured wet at 64 km/h (40 mph). Normalizing the slope eliminates the influence of various levels of friction; however, friction values are no longer independent of pavement character-istics. The following relationship was statistically shown between PNS and average texture depth:

$$PNS = 0.000035 SAP - 0.022$$
(14)

$$R = 0.75$$

$$\forall MSE = 0.0054$$

This technique did not improve the modeling effort.

Horne and Buhlmann Model

This method of modelling pavement friction levels from texture measurements is a conceptual model developed by Horne and Buhlmann (Reference 27). This method was derived from measurements of fluid pressures beneath an unyawed rolling tire. From these pressure measurements, they defined three zones of a rolling tire: a bulk fluid drainage zone, a thin film drainage zone and a dry contact zone. This model parallels the analytical model developed by Moore (Reference 22). The bulk fluid drainage zone is essentially the sinkage zone of Figure 6. Similarly, the thin film drainage zone describes the draping zone of the previous model, with the dry contact zone remaining the same with both models.

Since water films cannot generate appreciable shear forces, Horne and Buhlmann (Reference 27) theorized that tractive forces were generated in only the dry contact patch of the tire footprint. The magnitude of this force was thought to be a function of the percent of dry contact zone and the dry tire pavement traction. Namely where

 $\mu_{wet} = \mu_{dry} \left(\frac{A_3}{A} \right) = \mu_{dry} \left(1 - \frac{A_1 + A_2}{A} \right)$

 μ_{wet} is the wet friction coefficient μ_{dry}^{met} is the dry friction coefficient A_3 is dry contact zone area

- A_2 is viscous water film zone area
- A_1^- is dynamic water layer zone area

 $ilde{\mathsf{A}}$ is total footprint area or the summation of A_1 , A_2 , and A_3 To relate the relative magnitudes of the fluid areas, they proposed two pavement drainage coefficients C_{mac} (macrotexture drainage coefficient) and C_{mic} . These are nondimensional drainage coefficients that correlate decreases in interfacial fluid pressures with increased drainage capacity. This is analogous to Darcy's law, where head loss across a sample decreases as permeability increases when all other variables remain constant. Combining this concept of reduced pressures with the concept of the tire as an elastic membrane (contact pressures remain equal to the tire inflation pressure), they hypothesize that a known portion of the tire is supported by these reduced fluid presures; namely,

$$C_{\text{mac}} \left(\frac{p_1}{p}\right)_{u} = \frac{A_1}{A}$$
(16)

and

$$C_{mic} \left(\frac{p_2}{p}\right)_u = \frac{A_2}{A}$$
(17)

where

C_{mac} = macrotexture drainage coefficient mic = microtexture drainage coefficient $\dot{p}_1 = dynamic fluid pressure$ p_2 = viscous fluid pressure \bar{u} = a subscript detonating an ultimate pressure ratio p = tire inflation pressure A_1 = area of tire footprint supported by dynamic pressures = area of tire footprint supported by viscous pressures A = total tire footprint contact area

From Equations 16 and 17, the wet friction coefficient can now be expressed as a function of the fluid pressures and the pavement drainage coefficients. ١

$$\mu_{wet} = \mu_{ult} \left\{ 1 - \left[C_{mac} \left(\frac{p_1}{p} \right)_u + C_{mic} \left(\frac{p_2}{p} \right)_u \right] \right\}$$
(18)

Horne and Buhlmann (Reference 27) postulate that the ultimate tirepavement friction coefficients are dependent upon tire inflation pressure, tread, rubber compound, tread design, vehicle speed, and tire operating mode utilized. They state that earlier research determined the ultimate friction coefficient could be determined from the tire inflation pressure, namely

$$\mu_{ult} = 0.93 - k_1 p \tag{19}$$

(15)

where $k_1 = 0.00016$ when p is expressed in kPa or $k_1 = 0.0011$ when p is expressed in 1b/in²

Using this concept he redefines the functional function as follows

$$r = 1 - \left[C_{\text{mac}} \left(\frac{p_1}{p} \right)_u + C_{\text{mic}} \left(\frac{p_2}{p} \right)_u \right]$$
(20)

where Y_r is the ratio of $\frac{\mu_{wet}}{\mu_{ult}}$

Next, Horne and Buhlmann derive the pavement draining coefficient (C_{mac} and C_{mic}) from a linear regression analysis of theoretical generalized friction speed curves. From this analysis they equate C_{mic} and C_{mac} to the transformed slope and intercept of linear friction speed curves.

 $C_{mic} = 1.153 - 1.153b + 0.297 |m|$ (3)

$$C_{mac} = -0.155 + 0.155b + 0.725 [m]$$
(4)

where b and m are the intercept and slope of the transformed friction speed plots, respectively.

Analysis of this section began with transforming the friction speed plots to the format of the theoretical generalized curves. This was accomplished by dividing the measured friction coefficients by an ultimate value of 91.9 MuN, as determined by Equation 19, and dividing the velocity by 32.73 mi/h. The critical hydroplaning speed was determined by V = 10.35 $\sqrt{P_{in}}$, where P_{in} is the Mu-Meter tire pressure during testing (10 lb/in²). Transformed slopes and intercepts were calculated from these transformed plots and values of C_{mic} and C_{mac} were computed in accordance with Equations 3 and 4.

Correlating these values with texture measurements yielded the following results

C _{mac}	=	0.242 - 0.00037	SAP (2	1)
R	=	0.78		
√ <u>MSE</u>	=	0.052		

and

 $C_{mic} = 0.333 - 0.0012 \text{ CTT}$ (22) R = 0.47 $\sqrt{MSE} = 0.093$

Little confidence was placed in either of these relationships. First, the correlation coefficients were low, showing little dependence of the calculated drainage coefficients on texture measurements. Second, values of the intercept coefficients were extremely low. Since a surface with no macrotexture and no microtexture should have values of $C_{mac} = 1$ and $C_{mic} = 1$, respectively, the low intercept values of 0.243 and 0.333 seemed unrealistic,

since they should be approximately unity. The third and most important reason for rejection is that the standard errors are as high as 20 percent of the estimated value at their best case. Therefore this method was eliminated from further analysis.

MuN Predictive Modelling, 40 mi/h

This last method relates texture measurements to friction measurements using multilinear regression modelling of the 64 km/h (40 mi/h) wet MuN to the best possible set of texture parameters. Since a macrotexture measurement, average texture depth as measured by a volumetric technique, is indicative of bulk water dissipation and a microtexture measurement is indicative of viscous water dissipation, a regression model including at least one parameter of each texture band was included in developing the model.

Table 6 describes the best models determined from a detailed regression analysis. The data scatter for the Equation 23, using all the data, is comparable to the previously discussed techniques; therefore, refinements by separating data into various sections were investigated.

First the data were separated into test sections and the multilinear regression equations were computed. This resulted in a reduction of some other data scatter, evidenced by the lower root mean square values. This subdivision of the data also demonstrated the strong relationship of SAP to friction levels and the unstable predictive value of the microtexture parameters. Thus, if a method were available to measure the average texture depth with less variability the predictive models might have been of more use.

The measurement of microtexture seems to have eluded this experimental design. Research has indicated the transient nature of microtexture determines the seasonal effects on friction levels. From this research, it has been proposed that the variances in microtexture may be indicative of changing levels of friction. However, much development work is still being done in this area and its influences are not fully understood.

Further analysis of the section models was conducted to ascertain the effects of pavement temperature, chronological order of testing, runway type, and higher order regression models, including more of the measured texture variables. None of these techniques were able to improve significantly the predictive qualities of these models. Therefore, any further refinements due to other variables were either hidden in the inherent variability of the texture techniques employed or they were not measured by the experimental design employed here.

Section ^a	Equation ^b	R ^C	√ MSE ^d	Egn. No.
A11	Mu _p = 16.0 LSAP + 0.096 CTT + 0.016 CTL - 43	0.80	8.13	23
C ₁ -R+PE-NR	Mu = 17.0 LSAP + 0.10 CTT + 0.018 CTL - 50	0.82	8.20	24
C,-R-B	$Mu_{p}^{P} = 16.0 \text{ LSAP} + 0.12 \text{ CTT} + 0.080 \text{ CTL} - 53$	0.88	6.43	25
C, -R-A	$Mu_{p}^{P} = 14.1 \text{ LSAP} + 0.091 \text{ CTT} + 0.044 \text{ CTL} - 36$	0.82	6.76	26
CNR	$Mu_{n}^{P} = 10.9 \text{ LSAP} + 0.041 \text{ CTT} - 0.051 \text{ CTL} + 2$	0.66	6.49	27
PE-NR	$Mu_p^{P} = 16.8 \text{ LSAP} + 0.056 \text{ CTT} - 0.049 \text{ CTL} - 31$	0.84	6.24	28

TABLE 6. FRICTION MODELS USING TEXTURE MEASUREMENTS

Notes

^aSection descriptions are as follows:

All All data collected during experiment

C₁-R Centerline rubber area both before and after removal

C₁-R-B Centerline rubber area before removal

 C_1^{-} -R-A Centerline rubber area after removal

C₁-NR Centerline nonrubber control area

PE-NR Pavement edge nonrubber control area

^bVariables descriptions:

MU MU NUMBER PREDICTED BY T	texture	measurements
-----------------------------	---------	--------------

- LSAP Natural log of average texture depth measured by the Sand Patch Procedure and expressed in 10-4 in
- CTT Chalk wear coefficient measured in the transverse direction expressed in 10-4 in/ft
- CTL Chalk wear coefficient measured in the longitudinal direction expressed in 10⁻⁴ in/ft

^CR is the Correlation Coefficient

 $d_{\sqrt{MSE}}$ is the root mean square error, essentially the standard deviation about the regression line (MuN).

SECTION VI CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions can be reached as a result of this field experiment.

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The influence of average texture depth on higher friction levels is strongly evident. This is based upon the strong correlations between average texture depth and the wet 64 km/h (40 mi/h) Mu-Meter testing. MacLennan et al. (Reference 36) reached this same conclusion in the National Runway Friction Program. However, they state that measurement of friction rather than texture is a preferable basis for planning routine runway maintenance. The results of this experiment verify this conclusion for the following reasons:

(1) The measurement of macrotexture by either the sand patch or the silicone putty volumetric procedures is an inexpensive method of quantifying macrotexture. However, important parameters of macrotexture are not measured by these procedures. Average texture depths do not determine the general shape of the pavement's asperities; in addition, nonconnected voids measured by these methods do not help in the removal of bulk water. Each of these parameters is deemed important in friction literature, yet their influence has not been empirically validated. Furthermore, the techniques necessary to measure these parameters are more expensive and require highly trained personnel, thus defeating the purpose of this experiment.

(2) The measurement of microtexture has an elusive quality. The correlations of microtexture measurements to either the intercept of a friction speed curve or to the dry Mu-Meter tests with which it is generally believed to correlate is evidence that microtexture could not be measured by the simple methods employed in this experiment. Current technology has not developed an alternate method of measuring this textural band.

(3) The Mu-Meter was designed to determine averages in friction over an extended length, usually of a 152.4-meter (500-foot) test section. Being designed for such use, the system damping caused by both the test tires and the hydraulics of the load cell make this device insensitive to all but extreme localized texture variations. A friction test device using tires is not sensitive to localized texture variations, since such devices are designed to average friction values over an extended section. Therefore, the pavement's localized textural variability will not affect its readings, making the measurement of texture more variable than that which it is predicting.

(4) Therefore, the measurement of texture to determine friction levels of a pavement will only give an indication or an approximation of values measured by a friction test device. For this reason, if need arises to measure friction closely for performance specifications, one should use a friction measuring device on which acceptance levels were previously established. SECTION VII RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are offered as a result of this experiment.

First, the use of highly textured pavements or use of grooving systems is essential in obtaining high friction levels. Therefore, widespread usage of these pavements is encouraged.

Second, the use of texture measurements to determine accurately the friction levels of a pavement cannot be accomplished with present technology. Therefore, the use of texture measurements should only be used as a guide in determining friction levels, with a friction test device being used for accurately defining friction characteristics of a pavement.

Third, alternate methods of measuring or quantifying the microtexture of the pavement are required for the prediction of friction from texture measurements. These methods must be researched to determine empirically the role of microtexture in pavement friction.

Fourth, alternate methods of measuring the pavement's macrotexture should be investigated. Emphasis should be given to nonconnected voids, asperity density, asperity shape, and profiles of the pavement's macrotexture.

Fifth, investigations into the analysis of stereophoto pairs in determining the microtexture and the shape, density, and nonconnected voids of the macrotexture should be conducted. This concept arises often in friction literature, yet detailed analysis of such procedures has not been reported. This method, if analyzed by appropriate computer algorithms, would be insensitive to operator error; therefore, it would be able to determine true pavement textural variability. Furthermore, if the resolution of the photo pairs is fine enough, the role of microtexture in determining pavement friction may be better defined. Therefore, the stereophoto pairs collected in the designed field experiment should be analyzed in an effort to improve upon the friction predictive models developed in this report. This test may be used to improve the accuracy of methods employed in determining the relationship between texture and friction, enabling friction to be predicted from texture with greater certainty.

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APPENDIX A

RUBBER REMOVAL QUESTIONNAIRE AND NMERI COVER LETTER

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THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW MEXICO

ALBUQUERQUE, NEW MEXICO 87131

NEW MEXICO ENGINEERING RESEARCH INSTITUTE CAMPUS POST OFFICE BOX 25 TELEPHONE (505) 844-4644

(Please be

July 18, 1984

Return to:

CLASS CONTRACTOR

Lary Lenke, Research Engineer New Mexico Engineering Research Institute Campus P. O. Box 25 Albuquerque, NM 87131

RUBBER REMOVAL QUESTIONNAIRE

Does your base or airport regularly perform runway rubber removal? _______ If so, how often (times per year)? ______ What technique(s) is (are) used to remove rubber at your base or airport?

Does your base of airport use a specification for rubber removal? If so, please send a copy of your specification for our files. (Your specification will aid NMERI's specification development effort.) How many runways does your facility have? What are their designations (R/W No.)? What type pavement surface does each of your runways have (PCC, AC, PFS, etc.)?

specific).

Is your base or airport planning rubber removal operations during the remainder of 1984?

If so, when (approximate dates)?

Is it possible for the NMERI to perform field testing during your rubber removal operations?

Please provide a point of contact for further correspondence and for arranging possible field testing.

NAME :	
Telephone:	Autovon:
	(If applicable)



THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW MEXICO

ALBUQUERQUE, NEW MEXICO 87131

NEW MEXICO ENGINEERING RESEARCH INSTITUTE CAMPUS POST OFFICE BOX 25 TELEPHONE (505) 844-4644

July 18, 1984

Dear Sir:

The New Mexico Engineering Research Institute (NMERI) has been contracted by the Air Force Engineering Services Center (AFESC) [Tyndall AFB, FL] and the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) to conduct research and development concerned with runway rubber build-up. The NMERI has been tasked with developing contractor specifications for rubber removal and measurement techniques for evaluating rubber build-up.

The developed specifications will include this measurement technique as a quantifiable method of ascertaining rubber build-up and its effect on decreased wet friction value. This measurement technique will also aid the base or airport engineer in determining when the contractor has satisfied the rubber removal specification.

The NMERI has developed a field test experiment to aid in the development of the field test procedures and resultant specifications. This field experiment includes friction measurements (with a Mu Meter) and various texture measurement techniques performed before and after rubber removal.

It is highly desirable to obtain experimental data from as many bases or airports as possible during the remainder of 1984. Therefore, notification of anticipated rubber removal operations at your facility during this time frame is requested. The enclosed questionnaire is provided for your convenience and quick response to this query.

The NMERI pavement friction evaluation team has recently worked at Hill AFB (UT), Stapleton International (Denver) Airport, Ontario (California) Airport, Tulsa Airport, Holloman AFB, Fairchild AFB, Moses Lake (Wash.) Airport, and Mountain Home AFB. At all test sites, the experiment has been successfully conducted without incident. Our evaluation team is equipped for night operations (if required) and has communication equipment for safe operation. Normal operation of our experiment requires uninterrupted access of 12 hours before (two six-hour sessions are acceptable) and six hours after rubber removal. However, in emergency situations, the team can clear the runway within three minutes.

We appreciate your cooperation in this work, which will provide base and airport engineers and inspectors the simple test procedures necessary to quickly and objectively evaluate runway rubber build-up. The field test proceudres and specifications will be available from the FAA in October, 1985. Inquiry letter July 18, 1984 Page two

If your organization is not responsible for runway pavements at your facility, please forward to the responsible party. Should your facility not have runways, please return questionnaire stating such. For additional information, please feel free to contact the undersigned.

Sincerely,

Lary R. Lenke, P.E. Research Engineer (505) 846-0430 Autovon: 246-0430

P.S. Please return questionnaire and specifications (if any), even if rubber removal is not planned for your facility during 1984.

Enclosure LRL:1t

APPENDIX B PHOTOGRAPHS OF PAVEMENT TYPES EVALUATED



FIGURE B-1. RUNWAY Q, A GROOVED PORTLAND CEMENT CONCRETE (RUNWAYS C, E, G, AND P SIMILAR)



FIGURE B-2. RUNWAY F, A WIRE-TINED PORTLAND CEMENT CONCRETE



FIGURE B-3. RUNWAY B, A WIRE-COMBED PORTLAND CEMENT CONCRETE



FIGURE B-4. RUNWAY O, A BURLAP DRAGGED PORTLAND CEMENT CONCRETE (RUNWAYS I, M, N AND R SIMILAR)



FIGURE B-5. RUNWAY D, A WORN PORTLAND CEMENT CONCRETE (RUNWAY A SIMILAR)

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FIGURE B-6. RUNWAY H, A POROUS FRICTION SURFACE



FIGURE B-7. RUNWAY K, A POROUS FRICTION SURFACE (RUNWAY J SIMILAR)


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FIGURE B-6. RUNWAY H, A POROUS FRICTION SURFACE

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FIGURE B-7. RUNWAY K, A POROUS FRICTION SURFACE (RUNWAY J SIMILAR)



FIGURE B-8. RUNWAY L, A GROOVED ASPHALT CONCRETE

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APPENDIX C

COLLECTED DATA BASE

The follo	wing is an explanation of variables that appear in the data base.
Base	is runway identification code (A through R).
Date	is approximate date of field testing.
Sec	is test section.
	1. 1 being centerline rubber before.
	2. 2 being centerline rubber after.
	3. 3 being centerline nonrubber.
	4. 4 being pavement edge nonrubber.
Loc	is test sites.
	1. 1 is 120 ft from start of test section.
	2. 2 is 240 ft from start of test section.
	3. 3 is 360 ft from start of test section.
Rep	is repetitions of tests.
M20	is 20 mi/h dry Mu value.
T20	is pavement temperature for 20 mi/h dry Mu value.
MW20	is 20 mi/h wet Mu value.
TW20	is pavement temperature for 20 mi/h wet Mu value.
M40	is 40 mi/h dry Mu value.
T40	is pavement temperature for 40 mi/h dry Mu value.
MW40	is 40 mi/h wet Mu value.
TW40	is pavement temperature for 40 mi/h wet Mu value.
M60	is 60 mi/h dry Mu value.
T60	is pavement temperature for 60 mi/h dry Mu value.
MW60	is 60 mi/h wet Mu value.
TW60	is pavement temperature for 60 mi/h wet Mu value.
SAP	is average texture depth as measured by sand patch measured in
	10 ⁻⁴ in.
SIP	is average texture depth as measured by silicone putty measured in
	10 ⁻⁴ in.
PTIL	is raw drag test number (DTN) measured dry in the longitudinal
	direction.

PTIT	is raw DTN measured dry in the transverse direction.
TP	is pavement temperature corresponding to the dry DTN.
PTIWL	is raw DTN measured wet in the longitudinal direction.
PTIWT	is raw DTN measured wet in the transverse direction.
TPW	is pavement corresponding to wet DTNs.
CTL	is chalk test measured in the longitudinal direction and recorded as
	a wear coefficient in 10 ⁻⁴ in/ft.
CTT	is chalk test measured in the transverse direction and recorded as a wear coefficient in 10-4 in/ft

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APPENDIX D DERIVATION OF SAMPLE VARIABILITY

Due to the small sample size, the test variability cannot be expressed as a single value but must be expressed as a range of values. A brief derivation and discussion of how this range is determined is presented for clarity.

Assuming that the variability is constant between sample cells, the variability for each cell of two samples can be computed by the following:

 $S_i = (X_1 - \overline{X})^2 + (X_2 - \overline{X})^2$ where S_i is the variance within a cell X_1 , X_2 are cell data values. \overline{X} is cell mean

This equation may be arranged and expressed in terms of the range by the following:

Since $\overline{X} = (X_1 + X_2)/2$ Then $S_i = [(X_1 - X_2)/2]^2 + [(X_2 - X_1)/2]^2$ rearranging and collecting like terms yields $S_i = (X_1 - X_2)^2/2$

Once the cell variance is known, the overall population variance can be estimated by determining the mean of the cell variances, or

 $\sigma^2 = (\Sigma S_i)/n$

As the number of cells times the estimated variance is distributed as a multiple of a Chi Square distribution, namely

 $\mathbf{n} \cdot \sigma^2 \sim \sigma^2 \cdot \chi^2_{\mathbf{n},\alpha}$

where n is number of cells

 σ^2 is estimated variance

 σ^2 is population variance

 $\chi^2_{n,\alpha}$ is Chi Square distribution at n degrees of freedom and α confidence level.

A confidence interval may be determined for the population variance. This interval is given by the relationship

 $(n \cdot \sigma^2)/\chi^2_{n,\alpha} \leq \sigma^2 \leq (n \cdot \sigma^2)/\chi^2_{n,1-\alpha}$



APPENDIX E FREQUENCY HISTOGRAMS OF COLLECTED DATA

STATES,

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FIGURE E-1. 32 km/h (20 m1/h) DRY MU METER TESTS



FREQUENCY BAR CHART

FIGURE E-2. 64 km/h (40 m1/h) DRY MU METER TESTS



FIGURE E-3. 96 km/h (60 m1/h) DRY MU METER TESTS

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FIGURE E-4. 32 km/h (20 m1/h) WET MU METER TESTS

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FIGURE E-5. 64 km/h (40'm1/h) WET MU METER TESTS



FREQUENCY BAR CHART

FIGURE E-6. 96 km/h (60'm1/h) WET MU METER TESTS



FREQUENCY BAR CHART

FIGURE E-7. AVERAGE TEXTURE DEPTH MEASURED BY THE SAND PATCH PROCEDURE EXPRESSED IN 10-4 fm

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FREQUENCY BAR CHART

FIGURE E-8. AVERAGE TEXTURE DEPTH MEASURED BY THE SILICONE PUTTY PROCEDURE EXPRESSED IN 10-4 1n



FREQUENCY BAR CHART

FIGURE E-9. RAW DRAG TEST NUMBERS MEASURED DRY IN THE LONGITUDINAL DIRECTION



FIGURE E-10. RAW DRAG TEST NUMBERS MEASURED DRY IN THE TRANSVERSE DIRECTION





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FIGURE E-11. RAW DRAG TEST NUMBERS MEASURED WET IN THE LONGITUDINAL DIRECTION



FIGURE E-12. RAW DRAG TEST NUMBERS MEASURED WET IN THE TRANSVERSE DIRECTION

FREQUENCY BAR CHART

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FIGURE E-13. CHALK WEAR COEFFICIENT MEASURED IN THE LONGITUDINAL DIRECTION EXPRESSED IN 10⁻⁴ in/ft

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FREQUENCY BAR CHART

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FIGURE E-14. CHALK WEAR COEFFICIENT MEASURED IN THE TRANSVERSE DIRECTION EXPRESSED IN 10⁻⁴ 1n/ft

APPENDIX F COMPARISON PLOTS OF PREDICTED VERSUS MEASURED FRICTION VALUES

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FIGURE F-1. MW40 PREDICTED BY REGRESSION MODEL EQUATION 5 COMPARED WITH MEASURED MW40 VALUES



FIGURE F-2. MW40 PREDICTED BY REGRESSION MODEL EQUATION 6 COMPARED WITH MEASURED MW40 VALUES

KX SCOLLER ROOM



FIGURE F-3. SLOPE PREDICTED BY REGRESSION MODEL EQUATION 7 COMPARED WITH MEASURED SLOPE VALUES

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FIGURE F-4. SLOPE PREDICTED BY REGRESSION MODEL EQUATION 8 COMPARED WITH MEASURED SLOPE VALUES







FIGURE F-6. INTERCEPT PREDICTED BY REGRESSION MODEL EQUATION 10 COMPARED WITH MEASURED INTERCEPT VALUES


FIGURE F-7. INTERCEPT PREDICTED BY REGRESSION MODEL EQUATION 11 COMPARED WITH MEASURED INTERCEPT VALUES



FIGURE F-8. INTERCEPT PREDICTED BY REGRESSION MODEL EQUATION 12 COMPARED WITH MEASURED INTERCEPT VALUES



FIGURE F-9. C_{mac} PREDICTED BY REGRESSION MODEL EQUATION 21 COMPARED WITH C_{mac} VALUES







FIGURE F-11. MW40 PREDICTED BY REGRESSION MODEL EQUATION 23 COMPARED WITH MEASURED MW40 VALUES

PLOT OF P1×MW40 SYMBO

SYMBOL USED IS *



FIGURE F-12. MW40 PREDICTED BY REGRESSION MODEL EQUATION 24 COMPARED WITH MEASURED MW40 VALUES



FIGURE F-13. MW40 PREDICTED BY REGRESSION MODEL EQUATION 25 COMPARED WITH MEASURED MW40 VALUES



FIGURE F-14. MW40 PREDICTED BY REGRESSION MODEL EQUATION 26 COMPARED WITH MEASURED MW40 VALUES



