Skid resistance of aerodrome pavements

Date
August 2020

File ref
D19/173561
Audience

This advisory circular (AC) applies to:

- aerodrome owners/operators
- consultants engaged to act on behalf of the aerodrome owner/operator
- aircraft operators
- the Civil Aviation Safety Authority (CASA).

Purpose

This AC provides advice regarding the skid resistance requirements of aerodrome pavements, including the measurement and management of surface macrotexture and wet friction values.

For further information

For further information, contact CASA (e-mail aerodromes_regs@casa.gov.au or telephone 131 757).

Status

This version of the AC is approved by the Manager, Flight Standards Branch.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Version</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>v1.0</td>
<td>August 2020</td>
<td>Initial release of this AC.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Unless specified otherwise, all subregulations, regulations, divisions, subparts and parts referenced in this AC are references to the Civil Aviation Safety Regulations 1998 (CASR).
1 Reference material

1.1 Acronyms

The acronyms and abbreviations used in this AC are listed in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AC</td>
<td>advisory circular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AIP</td>
<td>aerodrome information publication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATI</td>
<td>aerodrome technical inspection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAR</td>
<td>Civil Aviation Regulations 1988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CASA</td>
<td>Civil Aviation Safety Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CASR</td>
<td>Civil Aviation Safety Regulations 1998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFME</td>
<td>continuous friction measuring equipment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DGA</td>
<td>dense graded asphalt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAA</td>
<td>Federal Aviation Administration (of the USA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOTAM</td>
<td>notice to airmen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OGFC</td>
<td>open graded friction course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICAO</td>
<td>International Civil Aviation Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NASA</td>
<td>National Aeronautics and Space Administration (of the USA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSV</td>
<td>polished stone vale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RET</td>
<td>rapid exit taxiway</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMA</td>
<td>stone mastic asphalt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.2 Definitions

Terms that have specific meaning within this AC are defined in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>continuous friction-measuring equipment</td>
<td>Internationally recognised devices specifically designed to measure pavement surface friction using a controlled slip tyre.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>friction</td>
<td>The resistance that one surface (a tyre) encounters when moving over another (a pavement).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>macrotexture</td>
<td>The average depth of surface texture with a wavelength in the range 0.5 mm to 5 mm, generally associated with the composition of the surface materials.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>microtexture</td>
<td>The average depth of surface texture with a wavelength below 0.5 mm,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Term</td>
<td>Definition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skid resistance</td>
<td>The ability of the surface to avoid skidding or hydroplaning of an aircraft during wet weather, provided by a combination of friction and surface texture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>surface texture</td>
<td>The micro- and macro-sized deviations in the surface that determine the physical interaction between two objects, such as a tyre and a pavement surface.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wet friction</td>
<td>The friction that remains available to an aircraft or vehicle tyre when the surface is wetted with a controlled (1 mm deep) film of water.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 1.3 References

**Regulations**


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Document</th>
<th>Title</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Part 139 of CASR</td>
<td>Aerodromes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part 139 MOS</td>
<td>Part 139 (Aerodromes) Manual of Standards 2019</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**International Civil Aviation Organization documents**

International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) documents are available for purchase from [http://store1.icao.int/](http://store1.icao.int/)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Document</th>
<th>Title</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ICAO Doc 9157</td>
<td>Aerodrome Design Manual Part 1 Runways</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICAO Doc 9137</td>
<td>Airport Services Manual Part 2 - Pavement Surface Conditions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Advisory material**


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Document</th>
<th>Title</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
2 Introduction

2.1 Aerodrome operator obligations

2.1.1 The Part 139 Manual of Standards (MOS) requires the operator of a certified aerodrome to provide and maintain paved runway surfaces in a condition:
- that meets the required surface friction characteristics
- free of irregularities that may adversely affect the safe take-off and landing of aircraft
- that meets the surface gradient requirements to allow effective drainage to occur.

2.1.2 The surface of a paved runway should be evaluated when constructed or resurfaced to determine that the surface friction and texture characteristics achieve the minimum standards required.

2.1.3 In order to avoid falling below the minimum friction levels required, runway surface friction characteristics should be measured periodically. In the event the friction is found to be below the minimum friction value, the aerodrome operator should:
- request the issue of a NOTAM specifying the portion of runway that is below the minimum friction levels
- initiate corrective maintenance action without delay.

2.2 The importance of skid resistance

2.2.1 Depending on the type of aircraft and the operating conditions, aircraft generally land at 150-250 km/hr or more. Once landed, the aircraft operator typically applies the wheel and/or air brakes to reduce the speed of the aircraft within the available runway length. Alternatively, before reaching the runway end and to improve efficacy, aircraft operators may brake hard to exit at a taxiway. The ability for the wheel brakes to effectively decelerate the aircraft depends on friction between the aircraft tyres and the runway surface.

2.2.2 The friction provided to the aircraft tyres by the runway surface, is commonly referred to as skid resistance. Aircraft skid resistance is generally provided by the runways surface friction and surface texture.

2.2.3 Procedures to land aircraft in conditions of cross winds that are at the maximum permitted values also depend upon adequate skid resistance to readily gain control and align the aircraft when it initially touches down on the runway surface.

2.2.4 In addition to landing, the occurrence of aborted take-off also relies upon skid resistance. The runway surface must have sufficient skid resistance to bring an aircraft to rest should braking be required before the aircraft reaches the critical take-off (or decision) speed.
2.3 Surface friction and surface texture

2.3.1 Runway surface friction is directly relevant to the braking action that will be available to an aircraft decelerating after touching down, or after a decision to reject a take-off. In the context of pavements and aircraft tyres, the factors that affect the friction between the two include:

- tyre material
- temperature of the tyre
- temperature of the pavement surface
- speed of travel
- pavement surface characteristics
- pavement surface contamination.

2.3.2 The pavement surface can become contaminated through an accumulation of pollutants which may also impact runway surface friction levels. Contaminants that may be found on the surface of a runway include:

- rubber deposits from landing aircraft tyres
- mud, dust, sand and lose stone
- pavement treatments
- excess paint marking the runway
- spills or other foreign materials
- rain, snow, slush and hail.

2.3.3 As these may inhibit skid resistance the aerodrome operator is responsible for the removal of contaminants to minimise their accumulation on the runway surface.

2.3.4 The friction available to an aircraft tyre is complex and is affected by the pavement surface material that is in contact with the tyre. Runway pavement surfaces are generally constructed either of:

- sprayed seal
- asphalt
- concrete.

2.3.5 For sprayed seals, the aircraft tyre is intended to run on the cover aggregate, which is usually fully crushed hard rock. However, in some locations sprayed seals are sometimes constructed with rounded natural gravel and this is likely to result in reduced surface friction. Sprayed seals are also subject to flushing when the bitumen rises above the cover aggregate. In flushed seals the aircraft tyres ride on the bituminous binder which has significantly less friction to offer than the cover aggregate.

2.3.6 Asphalt is a mixture of coarse and fine aggregate and bituminous binder. The aircraft tyres contact an agglomerate of materials which changes significantly over its life. Shortly after construction the upper-most surface aggregate is covered by a thin film of bituminous binder. Over time the binder stiffens and wears, exposing more of the aggregate particles, increasing the friction available.

2.3.7 Concrete is also an agglomerate, consisting of sand, coarse aggregate and cement. The aggregate is generally covered with cement paste, which comprises the sand and
cement. Aircraft tyres generally run on the paste, which takes much longer to erode from the surface than bituminous binder takes, meaning that aircraft continue to run on the paste for many years.

2.3.8 There are currently no concrete runways in Australia. Although many runways have concrete pavement ends, the main portion of all Australian runways has either a sprayed seal surface or an asphalt surface. For both sprayed seals and asphalt, the surface friction available is substantially provided by the coarse aggregate particles.

2.3.9 The characteristics of aggregate that affect the level of friction available to aircraft are complex and include both the rock minerology as well as the size and shape of the aggregate particles. The mineralogy affects the chemical interactions between the surface and the tyre, while the shape and size of the aggregate affects the physical interactions between the tyre and the surface.

2.3.10 In addition to the size and shape of each aggregate particle, the overall composition of the surface also affects the friction available via the surface texture. Surface texture is also complex but for the purposes of aircraft skid resistance, includes:

- microtexture: wavelengths less than 0.5 mm (Figure 1)
- macrotexture: wavelengths 0.5 mm to 5 mm (Figure 1)
- megatexture: wavelengths 5 mm to 50 mm
- roughness: wavelengths greater than 50 mm.

![Figure 1. Macro-texture and Macro-texture.](image)

2.3.11 Megatexture and roughness do not directly impact aircraft skid resistance; however, microtexture and macrotexture do. The microtexture affects the physical interaction between the tyre and the surface, by giving some texture for the tyre to bend around and grip to. In contrast, the macrotexture has less influence on friction, and has a significant impact on skid resistance by providing a path for surface water to escape between the tyre and the pavement surface.

2.3.12 Microtexture is a function of the aggregate particles and any coating of the particles by the bituminous binder. The macrotexture is primarily determined by the surface composition, rather than the individual aggregates. Both the aggregate microtexture and surface macrotexture change over the life of a pavement surface.
2.4 Wet and dry skid resistance

2.4.1 The actual friction associated with a particular runway surface does not change in the wet because friction is inherent to the surface characteristics. However, the friction that is available to the aircraft tyre can be reduced by the presence of water on the surface. That is, the available (or effective) friction is reduced by water, even though the actual friction is not affected.

2.4.2 In practice, appropriately designed, constructed and maintained runways have adequate friction when they are dry. It is only in wet conditions, when the moisture on the surface inhibits the friction that is available to the aircraft tyre, that friction may be an issue. This is because surface moisture prevents the tyre contacting the pavement surface, which reduces the physical interaction, as well as the chemical interaction, between the tyre and the pavement surface. In the worst case this may result in the tyre riding on top of a film of water—a severe phenomenon known as aquaplaning.

2.4.3 Aquaplaning results in superheating of the tyre, potentially leading to a tyre deflation, as well as loss of directional control and effective deceleration. To minimise the risk of aquaplaning, the surface moisture must be provided with escape paths to allow it to egress from the tyre-pavement contact footprint. These escape paths are provided by natural or artificial surface texture:

- natural surface texture is provided in the form of macrotexture in the pavement surface, and microtexture of the aggregate surface
- artificial texture is provided either by runway surface groove cutting, or by the tread pattern in the tyre.

2.5 Runways, taxiways and aprons

2.5.1 Aquaplaning and the inhibition of surface friction by moisture is generally only a practical issue at high speeds and high rates of aircraft deceleration associated with aircraft landings and aborted take-off operations. Aircraft skid resistance is therefore generally not a practical issue for the slower movement of aircraft on taxiways and apron areas. The only exception is where rapid exit taxiways (RETs) are provided. Due to the high aircraft speeds and heavy braking expected to occur RETs should be considered part of the runway from the perspective of aircraft skid resistance.

2.5.2 The Part 139 MOS also require stopways to have surface characteristics that meet or exceed the level of friction of the runway they are associated with.
3 **Means of Compliance**

3.1 **General approaches to achieve compliance**

3.1.1 The Part 139 MOS requires aerodrome operators to achieve compliance through one of three approaches:

a. an average surface macrotexture over the full length and width of the runway:
   i. of not less than 1.0 mm preferably
   ii. and where this cannot be achieved, not less than 0.625 mm.
b. wet friction measured by an International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) approved continuous friction measurement equipment (CFME). The recorded friction values that apply to each type of CFME for an operational runway should be:
   i. not less than the minimum value associated with that CFME
   ii. preferably not less than the maintenance planning values
   iii. preferably not less than the design objective levels for new surfaces.
c. a grooved surface for the full length and width of the runway, noting that an alternate means of compliance is available for the final 100m at each runway end. The grooves should either be perpendicular to the runway centreline, or if this is not physically possible, parallel to non-perpendicular transverse joints.

3.1.2 Macro and micro texture are both vital constituents for wet surface friction [ICAO Doc 9157 Part3] and the available level of microtexture cannot be readily assessed by visual inspection. Therefore, operators of runways not used for international operations should also use safety management principles to assess the risk of not completing friction testing by CFME process at intervals commensurate with the level of aircraft traffic that occurs. Rubber contamination and unsuitable, or polished aggregate, can significantly reduce the level of surface friction provided despite the provision of runway surface grooves.

3.1.3 Aerodromes that have scheduled international air transport operations are required by the Part 139 MOS to meet the CFME measure friction values, regardless of whether they:
   – are grooved or not
   – exceed the surface texture requirements or not.

3.1.4 Aerodrome operators providing runways for scheduled international air transport operations need to schedule CFME testing at frequencies that achieve the requirements of the Part 139 MOS, paragraph 6.09 (5).

3.1.5 The means of compliance are described below.

3.2 **Surface Macrotexture**

3.2.1 Surface macrotexture is an indicator of the ability for surface moisture to escape from between the aircraft tyre and the pavement surface. It acts in a similar manner to tyre
tread patterns and the higher the macrotexture the less the friction will be reduced by the presence of moisture, and the better the aircraft skid resistance.

3.2.2 Macrotexture is the primary means of Part 139 MOS skid resistance compliance for runway with sprayed seal surfaces (Figure 2), as well as types of asphalt with high natural texture. These airports generally do not support international aircraft operations, and many are located in regional areas, meaning CFME survey are not mandatory and are unlikely to be cost effective on regular basis.

![Figure 2. Typical sprayed seal runway surface.](image)

3.2.3 Airports in Australia generally use dense graded asphalt (DGA) for runway surfacing (Figure 3). DGA is designed to maximise the packing between the aggregate particles and result in a surface macrotexture of 0.4 - 0.6 mm, regardless of the maximum aggregate particle size.

3.2.4 In contrast, open graded friction course (OGFC) and stone mastic asphalt (SMA) have naturally high surface texture. OGFC, which is also known as popcorn mix, has a high air void content, allowing water to drain internally through the asphalt layer. This provides high aircraft skid resistance, but significantly reduces the life of the surface.

3.2.5 In contrast, the voids in SMA are filled with additional bituminous binder, making the surface impermeable, but still providing a surface macrotexture generally in the range 1.1 - 1.7 mm (Figure 4). Importantly, the larger the maximum aggregate size, the higher the macrotexture of the SMA, with 14 mm sized mixtures being demonstrated to consistently exceed 1.0 mm.

3.2.6 Sprayed seals also have naturally high surface texture, as long as 7 mm or 10 mm nominal aggregate sizes are used.
3.2.7 The internationally established test for surface macrotexture is known as the sand patch test. A known volume of fine sand, with a controlled particle size gradation, is poured onto the surface and smoothed into a circle until the surface texture is filled by sand (Figure 5). The diameter of the surface is measured and related to the surface macrotexture.
3.2.8 Alternate methods of surface macrotexture measurement are also available, including a volumetric grease patch test. The grease patch test is like the sand patch test but uses a known volume of grease instead of sand. The grease must be removed from the runway surface. Grease is harder to clean from the surface compared to sand, which tends to be dispersed by the wind over time.

3.2.9 Each sand patch test provides one single surface macrotexture depth, so it is easy to interpret. However, all surfaces have variable macrotexture due to the natural variability associated with aggregates, asphalt production, and surface construction. Furthermore, joints and the start of each paving run will have different macrotexture as will any areas contaminated by asphalt inadvertently stuck to the surface during works, which is usually concentrated around the transverse joins between work periods. When the measurements for selecting test locations are completed in accordance with the Part 139 MOS, the selection process should subsequently identify test sites that are visually typical of the runway surface within the vicinity of the measured test locations.

3.2.10 The Part 139 MOS refers to the 'average' surface texture. In this context, the term 'average' refers to the area within the sand patch test area, which is generally 200 - 400 mm in diameter. It is not appropriate to perform ten sand patch tests along a runway and average them when they are significantly different. For example, five results in the wheel paths with a macrotexture of 0.6 mm should not be averaged with five results from near the edges of the runway with a macrotexture of 2.0 mm, to obtain an average macro-texture of 1.3 mm and conclude compliance. The five results from the wheel paths, with a macro-texture of 0.6 mm are concerning, regardless of the average of all test results exceeding 1.0 mm. If 90% of the results exceed 1.0 mm, indicating compliance with the preferred intent of the Part 139 MOS, then as long as the other results were not less than 0.625 mm, which is the minimum allowed by the Part 139 MOS, this would be acceptable.
3.3 **Wet Runway Friction**

3.3.1 Wet runway friction measured by CFME, is a more direct measure of the friction available to an aircraft landing or taking-off in wet conditions. In recent years, several types of CFME have proven to be reliable, accurate, and consistent in a variety of extensive test programmes, which included a range of pavement conditions and test speeds.

3.3.2 Wet friction is generally used as the means of demonstrating compliance of asphalt sealed runway surfaces. It is also commonly used as a tool for planning maintenance activities and to verify ongoing compliance.

3.3.3 The Part 139 MOS mandates wet friction testing for runways with scheduled international air transport operations. Where wet friction testing is not mandated the aerodrome operators’ safety management processes should be used to identify the need to complete wet friction testing.

3.3.4 The Part 139 MOS details three friction levels for each of the seven models of CFME. The friction levels are all based on testing friction immediately behind the application of the 1 mm deep film of water to the surface and there are different levels of friction for 65 km/hr and 95 km/hr test speeds.

3.3.5 The CFME models, test speeds and friction levels are all based on ICAO guidance, which in turn, is based on research performed in the USA by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) for the recovery of returning space shuttles.

3.3.6 Two test speeds are intended to highlight the relative contribution of the microtexture (65 km/hr) and macrotexture (95 km/hr) to the measured level of wet friction. The three values of friction are known as:

- minimum (the minimum value below which the runway may be slippery when wet should be made available and corrective action initiated)
- maintenance planning (the value below which some form of intervention should be planned to ensure that the friction does not continue to fall below the minimum value)
- design objective (establishes the minimum friction level for a new constructed or resurfaced runway surface).

3.3.7 All of the CFME models are considered to be valid. Whilst the Griptester (Figure 6) is most commonly used in Australia, alternate devices should not be resisted. Far more important for ongoing friction management is using the same type of CFME, preferably the same unit and towing vehicle, in order to minimise differences between tests, allowing trends in the friction levels to be investigated over time.
3.3.8 The Part 139 MOS does not explicitly state how or where to operate the CFME when undertaking a wet friction survey of a runway. The USA (FAA 2016) and New Zealand (CAA 2015) guidance both require CFME surveys to include:

- testing of the surface when otherwise dry, so that only the intended (1 mm thick film) water is present at the time of the test.
- longitudinal runs 3 m and 6 m from the runway centreline, on both sides of the runway. This may be reduced to 3 m only, for runways servicing only narrow-bodied aircraft and may be changed to 4 m and 8 m where the dominant aircraft wheel paths are further apart.
- both directions along the runway.
- both 65 km/hr and 95 km/hr test speeds.

3.3.9 ICAO documents may also be used for determining appropriate methodology.

3.3.10 All CFME devices measure friction continuously and generally record the average for every 10 m length along the runway. The results contain significant scatter (Figure 7) and the results are typically averaged for each 100 m section along the runway length or using a 100 m rolling average. Results are also commonly averaged over the thirds of the runway length, intended to identify differences between the touch down zones and the middle third of the runway length where aircraft are generally free rolling.
3.3.11 The mass of data in different formats complicates the interpretation of CFME survey results. The average values for each 100 m section of the runway are generally considered to be the most informative. An example of combined results is shown in Figure 8 (for 65 km/hr) and in Figure 9 (for 95 km/hr).

![Figure 7. Example 10 m averaged CFME results along a runway.](image)

![Figure 8. Example combined 100 m average CFME results at 65 km/hr.](image)

![Figure 9. Example combined 100 m average CFME results at 95 km/hr.](image)
3.3.12 It is clear from Figure 8 and Figure 9 that the last 100 m of the example runway had significantly higher friction than the rest of the runway. This reflects the lower (than target) speed of the CFME in those areas as the towing vehicle gets up to speed and then slows down again before running off the sealed portion of the runway pavement. Because of this complication, guidance in the USA (FAA 2016) advises not testing the first and last 150-300 m of the runway. While the test equipment and method cannot achieve usable results for the start and finish of the test runs, these sections of the runway surface must achieve the texture requirements of the Part 139 MOS and be maintained to prevent the build-up of contaminants.

3.3.13 Results should be recorded and maintained. Not only can the friction values measured by the CFME be used as guidelines for evaluating the pavement surface friction deterioration and current maintenance needs, by comparing historical data the friction deterioration rate of the pavement can be forecasted, and preventative maintenance can be scheduled.

3.4 Surface grooves

3.4.1 Only concrete and DGA runway surfaces can be grooved. Sprayed seal, OGFC and SMA should not be grooved. The grooves provide ‘artificial’ surface texture by providing shallow channels through which surface moisture can escape from between the runway surface and the aircraft tyre. The additional texture depth combined with the required transverse surface slopes provide the overall pavement surface drainage.

3.4.2 The Part 139 MOS requires that grooves be perpendicular to the runway centreline, and if not physically possible, parallel to transverse joints that are not perpendicular to the centreline. Traditionally, grooves were all square and were 6 mm deep, 6 mm wide and spaced 38 mm from centre-to-centre (Figure 10). Given the grooves are 6 mm wide, the 38 mm spacing results in 32 mm of surface between groove edges.

Figure 10. Typical square grooves in a DGA surface.
3.4.3 In recent years, trapezoidal grooves have also been developed. Trapezoidal grooves are still 6 mm deep and the flat bottom of the groove is still 6 mm wide; however, the side walls are chamfered at 45° to the vertical, meaning the top of the groove is around 12 mm wide (Figure 11). To provide the same volumetric density of grooves and area of pavement surface in contact with an aircraft tyre, trapezoidal grooves are spaced 57 mm, centre-to-centre, or 45 mm of surface between groove edges. The two types of grooves are compared in Figure 12, noting the use of imperial units and metric rounding.

![Figure 11. Typical trapezoidal grooves in DGA surface.](image)

3.4.4 Trapezoidal grooves have been shown to provide better wet friction and surface visibility in rain. They also exhibit better resistance to groove closure and edge breakage. Both trapezoidal and traditional square grooves satisfy the requirements of the Part 139 MOS and the choice is generally made based on preference and economics.

3.4.5 Grooving is the simplest means of compliance to interpret because the surface is either grooved or it is not. However, the risk of groove closure means that grooving is delayed after surfacing, typically by 4-8 weeks. During this period, the surface is often used...
without grooves as it is unlikely to be lower than the maintenance planning wet friction values.

3.4.6 Where the En Route Supplement Australia (ERSA) publishes that a runway has a grooved surface, it is essential for a NOTAM to be published to advise the surface is not grooved. This applies when any portion of a runway has been overlayed or patched and the groove cutting process has not been completed. A NOTAM is not required when the omission of grooves applies only to the portion of a runway detailed in paragraph 6.09 (4) of the Part 139 MOS and the conditions of that paragraph are met. Reinstatement of the grooved surface is recommended following all repairs to the runway surface, unless the finished texture of the repaired surface can be demonstrated to meet the required macro texture depth.

3.4.7 As explained in chapter 4.4 of this AC, grooves can close, particularly under slow moving and turning aircraft traffic. This commonly occurs at runway ends where no parallel taxiway is provided, meaning the aircraft back-track down the runway and turn around in a node prior to take-off. To avoid this distress, many airports choose not to groove the turning node, which means the last 60-80 m at each end of the runway length is not grooved. Although the Part 139 MOS makes some provision for this one of the other means of compliance must still be achieved. However, for DGA surfaces, surface texture is unlikely to be satisfied and as explained above wet friction testing is not reliable in the last 100 m at each end of the runway. Where the standards for a runway surface have not been achieved, an approval against the Part 139 MOS must be sought from CASA. At the delegate's discretion approvals and exemptions are assessed and granted on a case by case basis.
4 Management of aircraft skid resistance

4.1 General

4.1.1 Along with pavement cleanliness, aircraft skid resistance must be maintained throughout the life of the pavement. This requires both ongoing monitoring to detect potential issues, and intervention when required. The provision of a surface that reduces the risk of issues arising through the life of the pavement surface reduces maintenance burden.

4.1.2 The management of aircraft skid resistance provided by a runway depends on the means of compliance adopted by the aerodrome owner/operator. That is, the means of compliance that was selected at the time of construction is the logical means of ongoing compliance. However, that is not necessarily always the most appropriate approach and in the case of international aerodromes, ongoing wet friction measurement is mandated.

4.1.3 Aerodrome operators that do not provide runways for scheduled international air transport operations may be required to operate the aerodrome in accordance with a safety management system, or statement. The risk of not completing ongoing wet friction measurement of runway surfaces should be assessed using the implemented safety management processes.

4.2 Surface texture management

4.2.1 This chapter considers surface texture management for these highly textured surface types. Surface texture management is most applicable to sprayed seal and highly textured asphalt surfaces, such as SMA. Once surface texture is established at the time of construction or resurfacing, and where suitable aggregate is used, it is unlikely to be significantly adversely affected over the life of the surface. Furthermore, when surface texture is compromised, it is likely to be confined to the aircraft wheel paths which is likely to be easily identified by visual inspection.

4.2.2 The most common distresses expected to impact surface texture are:

− flushing of sprayed seals (Figure 13)
− loss of aggregate in sprayed seals
− collapse of surface texture in SMA or OGFC
− isolated bleeding of asphalt (Figure 14).
4.2.3 Visual inspection at the time of the aerodrome technical inspection (ATI) is likely to identify any potential issue for sprayed seal and highly textured asphalt surfaces, such as SMA. Subsequent testing of any potential issue is readily available and economical to perform.

4.2.4 The Part 139 MOS requires that surface texture verification be performed after resurfacing, after preservation treatment or otherwise not less than ten years between tests. As surface texture is the means of compliance most commonly associated with sprayed seals, and because runway sprayed seals have an 8-10 year life expectancy, it is likely that surface texture testing will only be required as part of each periodic
resurfacing, or when an issue is identified with the potential to adversely affect surface texture.

4.2.5 When a surface texture issue is identified, testing should be performed in the area of concern as well as in areas that are visually more consistent with expectations. For example, where the wheel paths are flushed, testing should be performed in the wheel paths and outside of them. Noting that the texture depth must not be determined by averaging the results of samples taken from the flushed and non-flushed areas.

4.2.6 Once an issue is confirmed by surface macrotexture testing, treatments can be determined to reinstate the surface texture, which is likely to include removal of excess bituminous binder with water cutting or blasting devices, or complete resurfacing.

4.3 Wet friction management

4.3.1 Wet friction management is the most likely means of demonstrating compliance and safe operating conditions for runways with an asphalt surface. This will commonly include grooved international aerodrome runways and un-grooved DGA runways but may also include un-grooved runways with a highly textured surface.

4.3.2 Non-international airports with grooved runways should also use wet friction testing to plan rubber contamination removal. In other cases, airports with surface texture issues, such as flushed wheel paths in sprayed sealed surfaces, may use wet friction surveys to quantify the issue and to confirm it has been resolved after an intervention treatment.

4.3.3 When using wet friction to address specific issues, the testing should be concluded in the area of concern, most likely the wheel paths, and outside of the affected area. The visually identifiable location of the distress must be given priority over the standard 3 m and 6 m offsets from the runway centreline for testing.

4.3.4 One significant benefit of wet friction is the ability to track trends in the friction values over time, particularly when the same CFME model and device is used to measure the wet friction periodically and allowing some prediction of the time and extent of the surface over which rubber removal will be required. Tracking trends in wet friction is challenging due to the influence of:

- CFME model and specific device
- the amount of wear of the CMFE test tyre
- the angle of connection to the tow vehicle, determined by the height of the tow hitch
- the operating speed of the tow vehicle
- the temperature of the CFME test tyre and the pavement surface
- the roughness of the runway surface.

4.3.5 In general, asphalt surface increase in wet friction during the first weeks and months after surfacing, as the bituminous binder hardens and the film of binder on the surface of the uppermost coarse aggregate particles is worn off by wind, rain and aircraft tyres. However, the rate of wet friction gain is not consistent and depends upon the surface, the raw materials in the surface and the prevailing weather conditions (Figure 15). Grooving has been shown to increase wet friction values by 5-15% (Figure 16).
4.3.6 After the first 6-12 months of new surface age, the wet friction value is expected to stabilise and the seasonal fluctuations, due to temperature, dominates the measure values. As the surface ages and the mastic erodes with age, the surface macro-texture increases slowly and the wet friction, particularly at 95 km/hr, also increases.

4.3.7 Like surface texture testing, the Part 139 MOS requires that wet friction measurement be performed after resurfacing, after preservation treatment, when a potential issue is identified, or at least every ten years. Again, asphalt surfaces are expected to last 10-15 years, meaning testing might only be required once between surface replacement. However, issues that affect wet friction values are less readily visually identified during an ATI than surface macro-texture issues, meaning more frequent testing is
appropriate. Furthermore, for international aerodromes, the Part 139 MOS requires continuous achievement of minimum wet friction values and the higher frequency of aircraft operations increases the rate of rubber contamination build-up. Therefore, more frequency wet friction testing is appropriate.

4.3.8 Further investigation and/or intervention should be prompted by wet friction results below the maintenance planning values. The 100 m long section average values are most appropriate for this purpose because they filter out the noise associated with testing, but still identify the touch down zones differently to the rest of the runway length. The process of investigation and/or intervention will depend on the magnitude, extent and location of the concerning results. Notification should be given to aerodrome users when the friction level is less than the minimum required by the Part 139 MOS.

4.3.9 Publishing a NOTAM advising aircraft operators that the runway is potentially slippery when wet is essential to inform aircraft operators when a significant portion of the runway is below the minimum friction value at either of the test speeds. Significant portion typically means an area of 25% or more in any third of a runway (with the runway subdivided into thirds along its length).

4.3.10 Where a runway surface has the potential to be slippery when wet, direct communication with air transport operators is also recommended to enable pilots to make informed decisions for their intended operating procedures.

4.3.11 For runways where the trends in wet friction have been monitored over time, the consistence of any given result with the overall trends and predicted time to interventions should also be considered.

4.3.12 Once the cause, location and extent of low wet friction values is determined, an intervention can be planned accordingly. This is most likely to include:

− rubber removal from the asphalt surface in the touch down zones
− removal of flushed bitumen from the wheel paths with spray sealed runway surfaces.

4.3.13 There are no mandatory provisions that address competency for personnel engaged in the operation of CFME or reporting on the outcome of completed tests. Aerodrome operators should however ensure that persons carrying out these functions have gained the appropriate competence or experience to undertake those functions.

4.4 Management of surface grooves

4.4.1 Groove management is only applicable to aerodromes that have a grooved DGA runway surface. The simplicity of grooves is that they generally either exist, or they do not, making management relatively simple. Furthermore, visual inspection is generally sufficient to determine whether the effectiveness of the grooves has been compromised.

4.4.2 Grooves can be adversely affected by:
rubber contamination (generally, only in the touch down zones. The rubber cumulates on the sides and the floor of the grooves and will eventually completely fill the grooves if not removed periodically (Figure 17))

- closure (most common in slow moving and heavy braking areas, such as turning nodes and RETs, and the grooves are most susceptible to closure in the first year after surfacing, while the asphalt is still green (Figure 18)).

- Erosion (as the asphalt surface erodes with age, the remaining depth of grooves is reduced and in severely eroded surface, the groove depth can be reduced significantly (Figure 19)).

- Replacement (usually by an ungrooved asphalt patch provided to address some other form of distress).

Figure 17. Example rubber contamination of a grooved runway.

Figure 18. Example of closed runway grooves.
Rubber contamination is readily identified by visual inspection but the effect on aircraft skid resistance is appropriately determined by a wet friction test. Generally, a surface looks severely contaminated by rubber before the wet friction falls below the minimum values. Once the extent of intervention is determined, well established chemical, abrasive or water blasting methods to remove the rubber can be used.

Groove closure is not readily treatable because the grooves cannot be re-sawn, meaning that removal and replacement of the surface, and reinstatement of the grooves, is the only viable treatment. However, groove closure is rarely severe and extensive enough to significantly impact aircraft skid resistance, which is best determined by a wet friction survey.

Surface erosion is primarily weather, and age related, meaning that it will likely occur over the full runway surface area. However, a surface that is eroded enough to compromise the groove depth, is likely to have developed more than 1.0 mm surface texture and this is likely to provide more than adequate wet friction if micro friction levels are also suitable. Sand patch testing and CFME surveys will confirm whether an alternate means of compliance has been satisfied.

When considering the effect of compromised grooves on the aircraft skid resistance provided by a runway, the extent of groove compromise is generally isolated to the wheel paths, or the touch down zone of areas of patches. Whether a significant intervention is justified will depend on the severity of the compromise, as well as the extent.