Aeronautical Information Manual

Explanation of Changes

Effective: June 25, 2015

a. 1–1–7. Distance Measuring Equipment (DME)
   1–1–16. Inertial Reference Unit (IRU), Inertial Navigation System (INS), and Attitude Heading Reference System (AHRS)

This change relocates the information contained within subparagraph d from paragraph 1–1–7 to paragraph 1–1–16, as the latter was a more appropriate destination for the information contained therein.

b. 1–1–11. Microwave Landing System (MLS)
   5–1–9. International Flight Plan (FAA Form 7233–4)– IFR Flights (For Domestic or International Flights)

Appendix 3. Abbreviations/Acronyms
   Pilot/Controller Glossary (various places)

This change removes all references to Microwave Landing System (MLS).

c. 2–1–2. Visual Glideslope Indicators

This change adds verbiage to describe how the obstacle clearance area for a Visual Approach Slope Indicator (VASI) and/or Precision Approach Path Indicator (PAPI) may be changed. This change also instructs pilots to check notices to airmen (NOTAM) for information on VASI and/or PAPI clearance area changes.

d. 4–1–16. Safety Alert

In 2013, changes were incorporated into FAA Order 7110.65, Paragraph 2–1–6, Safety Alert, that removed the requirement to issue Decision Altitude (DA), Minimum Descent Altitude (MDA), or Decision Height (DH) in the event an aircraft exceeds the safety limits for a particular approach. This change reflects those requirements and provides symmetry amongst all guidance/procedures.

e. 4–3–3. Traffic Patterns

This change updates guidance regarding traffic pattern charting to bring forth more clarity.

f. 5–2–8. Instrument Departure Procedures (DP) – Obstacle Departure Procedures (ODP) and Standard Instrument Departures (SID)

This change provides guidance regarding diverse vector areas and their use in greater detail.

g. 5–4–8. Special Instrument Approach Procedures

This change includes information on NOTAMs for Special Instrument Approach Procedures.

h. 5–4–15. Simultaneous Parallel ILS/RNAV/GLS Approaches (Independent)

This change reflects updated charting revisions. FIG 5–4–20 is also updated to improve clarity of the depicted concepts.

i. 5–4–17. Simultaneous Converging Instrument Approaches

This change is updated to reflect the use of letter “V” in the approach title to indicate a simultaneous converging approach.

j. Pilot/Controller Glossary

Terms have been added, deleted, or modified within this glossary. Please refer to page PCG–1 for more details.

k. Entire publication.

Editorial/format changes were made where necessary. Revision bars were not used when changes are insignificant in nature.
# AIM Change 3

## Page Control Chart

### June 25, 2015

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**Chapter 3. Airspace**

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**Chapter 4. Air Traffic Control**

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Section 6. National Security and Interception Procedures

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Chapter 6. Emergency Procedures

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owner or operator must make arrangements with the repair station to have the test signal transmitted. This service is not provided by all radio repair stations. The aircraft owner or operator must determine which repair station in the local area provides this service. A representative of the repair station must make an entry into the aircraft logbook or other permanent record certifying to the radial accuracy and the date of transmission. The owner, operator or representative of the repair station may accomplish the necessary checks in the aircraft and make a logbook entry stating the results. It is necessary to verify which test radial is being transmitted and whether you should get a “to” or “from” indication.

f. Airborne and ground check points consist of certified radials that should be received at specific points on the airport surface or over specific landmarks while airborne in the immediate vicinity of the airport.

1. Should an error in excess of plus or minus 4 degrees be indicated through use of a ground check, or plus or minus 6 degrees using the airborne check, Instrument Flight Rules (IFR) flight must not be attempted without first correcting the source of the error.

CAUTION—
No correction other than the correction card figures supplied by the manufacturer should be applied in making these VOR receiver checks.

2. Locations of airborne check points, ground check points and VOTs are published in the A/FD.

3. If a dual system VOR (units independent of each other except for the antenna) is installed in the aircraft, one system may be checked against the other. Turn both systems to the same VOR ground facility and note the indicated bearing to that station. The maximum permissible variations between the two indicated bearings is 4 degrees.

1−1−5. Tactical Air Navigation (TACAN)

a. For reasons peculiar to military or naval operations (unusual siting conditions, the pitching and rolling of a naval vessel, etc.) the civil VOR/Distance Measuring Equipment (DME) system of air navigation was considered unsuitable for military or naval use. A new navigational system, TACAN, was therefore developed by the military and naval forces to more readily lend itself to military and naval requirements. As a result, the FAA has integrated TACAN facilities with the civil VOR/DME program. Although the theoretical, or technical principles of operation of TACAN equipment are quite different from those of VOR/DME facilities, the end result, as far as the navigating pilot is concerned, is the same. These integrated facilities are called VORTACs.

b. TACAN ground equipment consists of either a fixed or mobile transmitting unit. The airborne unit in conjunction with the ground unit reduces the transmitted signal to a visual presentation of both azimuth and distance information. TACAN is a pulse system and operates in the Ultrahigh Frequency (UHF) band of frequencies. Its use requires TACAN airborne equipment and does not operate through conventional VOR equipment.

1−1−6. VHF Omni−directional Range/Tactical Air Navigation (VORTAC)

a. A VORTAC is a facility consisting of two components, VOR and TACAN, which provides three individual services: VOR azimuth, TACAN azimuth and TACAN distance (DME) at one site. Although consisting of more than one component, incorporating more than one operating frequency, and using more than one antenna system, a VORTAC is considered to be a unified navigational aid. Both components of a VORTAC are envisioned as operating simultaneously and providing the three services at all times.

b. Transmitted signals of VOR and TACAN are each identified by three−letter code transmission and are interlocked so that pilots using VOR azimuth with TACAN distance can be assured that both signals being received are definitely from the same ground station. The frequency channels of the VOR and the TACAN at each VORTAC facility are “paired” in accordance with a national plan to simplify airborne operation.

1−1−7. Distance Measuring Equipment (DME)

a. In the operation of DME, paired pulses at a specific spacing are sent out from the aircraft (this is the interrogation) and are received at the ground station. The ground station (transponder) then transmits paired pulses back to the aircraft at the same pulse spacing but on a different frequency. The time
required for the round trip of this signal exchange is measured in the airborne DME unit and is translated into distance (nautical miles) from the aircraft to the ground station.

b. Operating on the line-of-sight principle, DME furnishes distance information with a very high degree of accuracy. Reliable signals may be received at distances up to 199 NM at line-of-sight altitude with an accuracy of better than 1/2 mile or 3 percent of the distance, whichever is greater. Distance information received from DME equipment is SLANT RANGE distance and not actual horizontal distance.

c. Operating frequency range of a DME according to ICAO Annex 10 is from 960 MHz to 1215 MHz. Aircraft equipped with TACAN equipment will receive distance information from a VORTAC automatically, while aircraft equipped with VOR must have a separate DME airborne unit.

d. VOR/DME, VORTAC, Instrument Landing System (ILS)/DME, and localizer (LOC)/DME navigation facilities established by the FAA provide course and distance information from collocated components under a frequency pairing plan. Aircraft receiving equipment which provides for automatic DME selection assures reception of azimuth and distance information from a common source when designated VOR/DME, VORTAC, ILS/DME, and LOC/DME are selected.

e. Due to the limited number of available frequencies, assignment of paired frequencies is required for certain military noncollocated VOR and TACAN facilities which serve the same area but which may be separated by distances up to a few miles.

f. VOR/DME, VORTAC, ILS/DME, and LOC/DME facilities are identified by synchronized identifications which are transmitted on a time share basis. The VOR or localizer portion of the facility is identified by a coded tone modulated at 1020 Hz or a combination of code and voice. The TACAN or DME is identified by a coded tone modulated at 1350 Hz. The DME or TACAN coded identification is transmitted one time for each three or four times that the VOR or localizer coded identification is transmitted. When either the VOR or the DME is inoperative, it is important to recognize which identifier is retained for the operative facility. A single coded identification with a repetition interval of approximately 30 seconds indicates that the DME is operative.

g. Aircraft equipment which provides for automatic DME selection assures reception of azimuth and distance information from a common source when designated VOR/DME, VORTAC and ILS/DME navigation facilities are selected. Pilots are cautioned to disregard any distance displays from automatically selected DME equipment when VOR or ILS facilities, which do not have the DME feature installed, are being used for position determination.

### 1–1–8. Navigational Aid (NAVAID) Service Volumes

a. Most air navigation radio aids which provide positive course guidance have a designated standard service volume (SSV). The SSV defines the reception limits of unrestricted NAVAIDs which are usable for random/unpublished route navigation.

b. A NAVAID will be classified as restricted if it does not conform to flight inspection signal strength and course quality standards throughout the published SSV. However, the NAVAID should not be considered usable at altitudes below that which could be flown while operating under random route IFR conditions (14 CFR Section 91.177), even though these altitudes may lie within the designated SSV. Service volume restrictions are first published in Notices to Airmen (NOTAMs) and then with the alphabetical listing of the NAVAIDs in the A/FD.

c. Standard Service Volume limitations do not apply to published IFR routes or procedures.

d. VOR/DME/TACAN Standard Service Volumes (SSV).

1. Standard service volumes (SSVs) are graphically shown in FIG 1–1–1, FIG 1–1–2, FIG 1–1–3, FIG 1–1–4, and FIG 1–1–5. The SSV of a station is indicated by using the class designator as a prefix to the station type designation.

**EXAMPLE—**
TVOR, LDME, and HVORTAC.
FIG 1–1–1
Standard High Altitude Service Volume
(See FIG 1–1–5 for altitudes below 1,000 feet).

FIG 1–1–2
Standard Low Altitude Service Volume
(See FIG 1–1–5 for altitudes below 1,000 feet).

NOTE: All elevations shown are with respect to the station’s site elevation (AGL). Coverage is not available in a cone of airspace directly above the facility.

FIG 1–1–3
Standard Terminal Service Volume
(See FIG 1–1–4 for altitudes below 1,000 feet).
2. Within 25 NM, the bottom of the T service volume is defined by the curve in FIG 1-1-4. Within 40 NM, the bottoms of the L and H service volumes are defined by the curve in FIG 1-1-5. (See TBL 1-1-1.)

e. Nondirectional Radio Beacon (NDB)

1. NDBs are classified according to their intended use.

2. The ranges of NDB service volumes are shown in TBL 1-1-2. The distances (radius) are the same at all altitudes.

### TBL 1-1-1

**VOR/DME/TACAN Standard Service Volumes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SSV Class Designator</th>
<th>Altitude and Range Boundaries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T (Terminal)</td>
<td>From 1,000 feet above ground level (AGL) up to and including 12,000 feet AGL at radial distances out to 25 NM.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L (Low Altitude)</td>
<td>From 1,000 feet AGL up to and including 18,000 feet AGL at radial distances out to 40 NM.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H (High Altitude)</td>
<td>From 1,000 feet AGL up to and including 14,500 feet AGL at radial distances out to 40 NM. From 14,500 AGL up to and including 60,000 feet at radial distances out to 100 NM. From 18,000 feet AGL up to and including 45,000 feet AGL at radial distances out to 130 NM.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TBL 1-1-2

**NDB Service Volumes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Distance (Radius)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compass Locator</td>
<td>15 NM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MH</td>
<td>25 NM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>50 NM*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HH</td>
<td>75 NM</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Service ranges of individual facilities may be less than 50 nautical miles (NM). Restrictions to service volumes are first published as a Notice to Airmen and then with the alphabetical listing of the NAVAID in the A/FD.*

### FIG 1-1-4

**Service Volume Lower Edge Terminal**

[Chart showing the service volume lower edge for T service volumes.]
1–1–9. Instrument Landing System (ILS)

a. General

1. The ILS is designed to provide an approach path for exact alignment and descent of an aircraft on final approach to a runway.

2. The ground equipment consists of two highly directional transmitting systems and, along the approach, three (or fewer) marker beacons. The directional transmitters are known as the localizer and glide slope transmitters.

3. The system may be divided functionally into three parts:
   
   (a) Guidance information: localizer, glide slope;

   (b) Range information: marker beacon, DME; and

   (c) Visual information: approach lights, touchdown and centerline lights, runway lights.

4. Precision radar, or compass locators located at the Outer Marker (OM) or Middle Marker (MM), may be substituted for marker beacons. DME, when specified in the procedure, may be substituted for the OM.

5. Where a complete ILS system is installed on each end of a runway; (i.e., the approach end of Runway 4 and the approach end of Runway 22) the ILS systems are not in service simultaneously.

b. Localizer

1. The localizer transmitter operates on one of 40 ILS channels within the frequency range of 108.10 to 111.95 MHz. Signals provide the pilot with course guidance to the runway centerline.

2. The approach course of the localizer is called the front course and is used with other functional parts, e.g., glide slope, marker beacons, etc. The localizer signal is transmitted at the far end of the runway. It is adjusted for a course width of (full scale fly–left to a full scale fly–right) of 700 feet at the runway threshold.

3. The course line along the extended centerline of a runway, in the opposite direction to the front course is called the back course.

CAUTION— Unless the aircraft’s ILS equipment includes reverse sensing capability, when flying inbound on the back course it is necessary to steer the aircraft in the direction opposite the needle deflection when making corrections from off–course to on–course. This “flying away from the needle” is also required when flying outbound on the front course of the localizer. Do not use back course signals for approach unless a back course approach procedure is published for that particular runway and the approach is authorized by ATC.
4. Identification is in International Morse Code and consists of a three–letter identifier preceded by the letter I (tí) transmitted on the localizer frequency.

**EXAMPLE–**

I−DIA

5. The localizer provides course guidance throughout the descent path to the runway threshold from a distance of 18 NM from the antenna between an altitude of 1,000 feet above the highest terrain along the course line and 4,500 feet above the elevation of the antenna site. Proper off–course indications are provided throughout the following angular areas of the operational service volume:

(a) To 10 degrees either side of the course along a radius of 18 NM from the antenna; and

(b) From 10 to 35 degrees either side of the course along a radius of 10 NM. (See FIG 1–1–6.)

6. Unreliable signals may be received outside these areas.

c. Localizer Type Directional Aid (LDA)

1. The LDA is of comparable use and accuracy to a localizer but is not part of a complete ILS. The LDA course usually provides a more precise approach course than the similar Simplified Directional Facility (SDF) installation, which may have a course width of 6 or 12 degrees.

2. The LDA is not aligned with the runway. Straight–in minimums may be published where alignment does not exceed 30 degrees between the course and runway. Circling minimums only are published where this alignment exceeds 30 degrees.

3. A very limited number of LDA approaches also incorporate a glideslope. These are annotated in the plan view of the instrument approach chart with a note, “LDA/Glideslope.” These procedures fall under a newly defined category of approaches called “Approach with Vertical Guidance (APV)” described in paragraph 5–4–5, Instrument Approach Procedure Charts, subparagraph a7(b), Approach with Vertical Guidance (APV). LDA minima for with and without glideslope is provided and annotated on the minima lines of the approach chart as S–LDA/GS and S–LDA. Because the final approach course is not aligned with the runway centerline, additional maneuvering will be required compared to an ILS approach.

d. Glide Slope/Glide Path

1. The UHF glide slope transmitter, operating on one of the 40 ILS channels within the frequency range 329.15 MHz, to 335.00 MHz radiates its signals in the direction of the localizer front course. The term “glide path” means that portion of the glide slope that intersects the localizer.

**CAUTION–**

False glide slope signals may exist in the area of the localizer back course approach which can cause the glide slope flag alarm to disappear and present unreliable glide slope information. Disregard all glide slope signal indications when making a localizer back course approach unless a glide slope is specified on the approach and landing chart.

2. The glide slope transmitter is located between 750 feet and 1,250 feet from the approach end of the runway (down the runway) and offset 250 to 650 feet from the runway centerline. It transmits a glide path beam 1.4 degrees wide (vertically). The signal provides descent information for navigation down to the lowest authorized decision height (DH) specified in the approved ILS approach procedure. The glidepath may not be suitable for navigation below the lowest authorized DH and any reference to glidepath indications below that height must be supplemented by visual reference to the runway environment. Glidepaths with no published DH are usable to runway threshold.

3. The glide path projection angle is normally adjusted to 3 degrees above horizontal so that it intersects the MM at about 200 feet and the OM at...
about 1,400 feet above the runway elevation. The glide slope is normally usable to the distance of 10 NM. However, at some locations, the glide slope has been certified for an extended service volume which exceeds 10 NM.

4. Pilots must be alert when approaching the glidespath interception. False courses and reverse sensing will occur at angles considerably greater than the published path.

5. Make every effort to remain on the indicated glide path.

**CAUTION** — *Avoid flying below the glide path to assure obstacle/terrain clearance is maintained.*

6. The published glide slope threshold crossing height (TCH) DOES NOT represent the height of the actual glide path on-course indication above the runway threshold. It is used as a reference for planning purposes which represents the height above the runway threshold that an aircraft’s glide slope antenna should be, if that aircraft remains on a trajectory formed by the four-mile-to-middle marker glidespath segment.

7. Pilots must be aware of the vertical height between the aircraft’s glide slope antenna and the main gear in the landing configuration and, at the DH, plan to adjust the descent angle accordingly if the published TCH indicates the wheel crossing height over the runway threshold may not be satisfactory. Tests indicate a comfortable wheel crossing height is approximately 20 to 30 feet, depending on the type of aircraft.

**NOTE**—
The TCH for a runway is established based on several factors including the largest aircraft category that normally uses the runway, how airport layout effects the glide slope antenna placement, and terrain. A higher than optimum TCH, with the same glide path angle, may cause the aircraft to touch down further from the threshold if the trajectory of the approach is maintained until the flare. Pilots should consider the effect of a high TCH on the runway available for stopping the aircraft.

e. Distance Measuring Equipment (DME)

1. When installed with the ILS and specified in the approach procedure, DME may be used:

   (a) In lieu of the OM;

   (b) As a back course (BC) final approach fix (FAF); and

   (c) To establish other fixes on the localizer course.

2. In some cases, DME from a separate facility may be used within Terminal Instrument Procedures (TERPS) limitations:

   (a) To provide ARC initial approach segments;

   (b) As a FAF for BC approaches; and

   (c) As a substitute for the OM.

f. Marker Beacon

1. ILS marker beacons have a rated power output of 3 watts or less and an antenna array designed to produce an elliptical pattern with dimensions, at 1,000 feet above the antenna, of approximately 2,400 feet in width and 4,200 feet in length. Airborne marker beacon receivers with a selective sensitivity feature should always be operated in the “low” sensitivity position for proper reception of ILS marker beacons.

2. Ordinarily, there are two marker beacons associated with an ILS, the OM and MM. Locations with a Category II ILS also have an Inner Marker (IM). When an aircraft passes over a marker, the pilot will receive the indications shown in TBL 1−1−3.

(a) The OM normally indicates a position at which an aircraft at the appropriate altitude on the localizer course will intercept the ILS glide path.

(b) The MM indicates a position approximately 3,500 feet from the landing threshold. This is also the position where an aircraft on the glide path will be at an altitude of approximately 200 feet above the elevation of the touchdown zone.

(c) The IM will indicate a point at which an aircraft is at a designated decision height (DH) on the glide path between the MM and landing threshold.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marker</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Light</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OM</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>BLUE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MM</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>AMBER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IM</td>
<td>● ●</td>
<td>WHITE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BC</td>
<td>● ●</td>
<td>WHITE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TBL 1−1−3**

**Marker Passage Indications**
3. A back course marker normally indicates the ILS back course final approach fix where approach descent is commenced.

g. Compass Locator

1. Compass locator transmitters are often situated at the MM and OM sites. The transmitters have a power of less than 25 watts, a range of at least 15 miles and operate between 190 and 535 kHz. At some locations, higher powered radio beacons, up to 400 watts, are used as OM compass locators. These generally carry Transcribed Weather Broadcast (TWEB) information.

2. Compass locators transmit two letter identification groups. The outer locator transmits the first two letters of the localizer identification group, and the middle locator transmits the last two letters of the localizer identification group.

h. ILS Frequency (See TBL 1–1–4.)

### Table 1–1–4

**Frequency Pairs Allocated for ILS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Localizer MHz</th>
<th>Glide Slope</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>108.10</td>
<td>334.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>108.15</td>
<td>334.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>108.3</td>
<td>333.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>108.5</td>
<td>329.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>108.55</td>
<td>329.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>108.7</td>
<td>330.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>108.75</td>
<td>330.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>108.9</td>
<td>329.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>109.1</td>
<td>331.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>109.15</td>
<td>331.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>109.3</td>
<td>332.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>109.35</td>
<td>331.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>109.5</td>
<td>332.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>109.55</td>
<td>332.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>109.7</td>
<td>333.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>109.75</td>
<td>333.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>109.8</td>
<td>333.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>109.9</td>
<td>333.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110.1</td>
<td>334.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110.15</td>
<td>334.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110.3</td>
<td>335.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110.35</td>
<td>334.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110.5</td>
<td>329.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110.55</td>
<td>329.45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

i. ILS Minimums

1. The lowest authorized ILS minimums, with all required ground and airborne systems components operative, are:

   a. **Category I.** Decision Height (DH) 200 feet and Runway Visual Range (RVR) 2,400 feet (with touchdown zone and centerline lighting, RVR 1,800 feet), or (with Autopilot or FD or HUD, RVR 1,800 feet);

   b. **Special Authorization Category I.** DH 150 feet and Runway Visual Range (RVR) 1,400 feet, HUD to DH;

   c. **Category II.** DH 100 feet and RVR 1,200 feet (with autoland or HUD to touchdown and noted on authorization, RVR 1,000 feet);

   d. **Special Authorization Category II with Reduced Lighting.** DH 100 feet and RVR 1,200 feet with autoland or HUD to touchdown and noted on authorization (touchdown zone, centerline lighting, and ALSF–2 are not required);

   e. **Category IIIa.** No DH or DH below 100 feet and RVR not less than 700 feet;

   f. **Category IIIb.** No DH or DH below 50 feet and RVR less than 700 feet but not less than 150 feet; and

   g. **Category IIIc.** No DH and no RVR limitation.

**NOTE:** Special authorization and equipment required for Categories II and III.
j. Inoperative ILS Components

1. Inoperative localizer. When the localizer fails, an ILS approach is not authorized.

2. Inoperative glide slope. When the glide slope fails, the ILS reverts to a non-precision localizer approach.

REFERENCE-
See the inoperative component table in the U.S. Government Terminal Procedures Publication (TPP), for adjustments to minimums due to inoperative airborne or ground system equipment.

k. ILS Course Distortion

1. All pilots should be aware that disturbances to ILS localizer and glide slope courses may occur when surface vehicles or aircraft are operated near the localizer or glide slope antennas. Most ILS installations are subject to signal interference by either surface vehicles, aircraft or both. ILS CRITICAL AREAS are established near each localizer and glide slope antenna.

2. ATC issues control instructions to avoid interfering operations within ILS critical areas at controlled airports during the hours the Airport Traffic Control Tower (ATCT) is in operation as follows:

(a) Weather Conditions. Less than ceiling 800 feet and/or visibility 2 miles.

(1) Localizer Critical Area. Except for aircraft that land, exit a runway, depart, or execute a missed approach, vehicles and aircraft are not authorized in or over the critical area when an arriving aircraft is inside the outer marker (OM) or the fix used in lieu of the OM. Additionally, when conditions are less than reported ceiling 200 feet or RVR less than 2,000 feet, do not authorize vehicles or aircraft operations in or over the area when an arriving aircraft is inside the MM, or in the absence of a MM, ½ mile final.

(2) Glide Slope Critical Area. Do not authorize vehicles or aircraft operations in or over the area when an arriving aircraft is inside the ILS outer marker (OM), or the fix used in lieu of the OM, unless the arriving aircraft has reported the runway in sight and is circling or side-stepping to land on another runway.

(b) Weather Conditions. At or above ceiling 800 feet and/or visibility 2 miles.

(1) No critical area protective action is provided under these conditions.

(2) A flight crew, under these conditions, should advise the tower that it will conduct an AUTOLAND or COUPLED approach.

EXAMPLE-
Denver Tower, United 1153, Request Autoland/Coupled Approach (runway)
ATC replies with:
United 1153, Denver Tower, Roger, Critical Areas not protected.

3. Aircraft holding below 5,000 feet between the outer marker and the airport may cause localizer signal variations for aircraft conducting the ILS approach. Accordingly, such holding is not authorized when weather or visibility conditions are less than ceiling 800 feet and/or visibility 2 miles.

4. Pilots are cautioned that vehicular traffic not subject to ATC may cause momentary deviation to ILS course or glide slope signals. Also, critical areas are not protected at uncontrolled airports or at airports with an operating control tower when weather or visibility conditions are above those requiring protective measures. Aircraft conducting coupled or autoland operations should be especially alert in monitoring automatic flight control systems. (See FIG 1–1–7.)

NOTE-
Unless otherwise coordinated through Flight Standards, ILS signals to Category I runways are not flight inspected below the point that is 100 feet less than the decision altitude (DA). Guidance signal anomalies may be encountered below this altitude.

1–1–10. Simplified Directional Facility (SDF)

a. The SDF provides a final approach course similar to that of the ILS localizer. It does not provide glide slope information. A clear understanding of the ILS localizer and the additional factors listed below completely describe the operational characteristics and use of the SDF.

b. The SDF transmits signals within the range of 108.10 to 111.95 MHz.

c. The approach techniques and procedures used in an SDF instrument approach are essentially the same as those employed in executing a standard localizer approach except the SDF course may not be
aligned with the runway and the course may be wider, resulting in less precision.

d. Usable off-course indications are limited to 35 degrees either side of the course centerline. Instrument indications received beyond 35 degrees should be disregarded.

e. The SDF antenna may be offset from the runway centerline. Because of this, the angle of convergence between the final approach course and the runway bearing should be determined by reference to the instrument approach procedure chart. This angle is generally not more than 3 degrees. However, it should be noted that inasmuch as the approach course originates at the antenna site, an approach which is continued beyond the runway threshold will lead the aircraft to the SDF offset position rather than along the runway centerline.

f. The SDF signal is fixed at either 6 degrees or 12 degrees as necessary to provide maximum flyability and optimum course quality.

g. Identification consists of a three-letter identifier transmitted in Morse Code on the SDF frequency. The appropriate instrument approach chart will indicate the identifier used at a particular airport.
FAA Instrument Landing Systems

**VHF LOCALIZER**
- Provide Horizontal Guidance
- 108.10 to 111.95 MHz radiates about 100 watts, horizontal polarization.
- Modulation frequencies 96 to 135 kHz. Modulation depth on course 20% for each frequency. Code identification (1020 Hz, 5%) and voice communication (modulated 50%) provided on same channel.

**ULS**
- (FAA INSTRUMENT LANDING SYSTEMS)
- STANDARD CHARACTERISTICS AND TERMINOLOGY
- ILS approach charts should be consulted to obtain variations of individual systems.

**MIDDLE MARKER**
- Indicates Approximate Decision Height Point Modulation 1300 Hz
- 95% Keying: 55 Alternate Dot and Dash
- Combinations/Minute
- Amber Light
- Point of intersection runway and glide slope extended.
- 3000' to 6000' from threshold

**OUTER MARKER**
- Provides Final Approach Fix For Nonprecision Approach Keying: Two dashed/second Modulation 400 Hz, 95% Blue Light
- Approximately 1.4° width (full scale limits)
- 0.7° (approx)
- 3° above horizontal (optimum)
- Course width varies; between 3° ~ 6° tailored to provide 700 ft at threshold (full scale limited)

**UH FLIGHT SLIPPER TRANSMITTER**
- Provides Vertical Guidance
- 329.3 to 335.0 MHz. Radiated about 5 watts. Horizontal polarization, modulation on path 4% for 90 Hz and 150 Hz. The standard glide slope angle is 3.0 degrees. It may be higher depending on local terrain.

**RATE OF DESCENT CHART**
- (feet per minute)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speed (Knots)</th>
<th>Angle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110</td>
<td>485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>130</td>
<td>464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>150</td>
<td>464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>160</td>
<td>464</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compass locators, rated at 25 watts output 190 to 535 KHz, are installed at many outer and some middle markers. A 400 Hz or a 1020 Hz tone, modulating the carrier about 95%, is keyed with the first two letters of the ILS identification on the outer marker and the last two letters on the middle locator. At some locations, simultaneous voice transmissions from the control tower are provided, with appropriate reduction in identification percentage.

* Figures marked with asterisk are typical. Actual figures vary with deviations in distances to markers, glide angles and localizer widths.
1–1–11. NAVAID Identifier Removal During Maintenance

During periods of routine or emergency maintenance, coded identification (or code and voice, where applicable) is removed from certain FAA NAVAIDs. Removal of identification serves as a warning to pilots that the facility is officially off the air for tune-up or repair and may be unreliable even though intermittent or constant signals are received.

**NOTE—**
During periods of maintenance VHF ranges may radiate a T–E–S–T code (— ● ● ● ● —).

**NOTE—**
Do NOT attempt to fly a procedure that is NOTAMed out of service even if the identification is present. In certain cases, the identification may be transmitted for short periods as part of the testing.

1–1–12. NAVAIDs with Voice

**a.** Voice equipped en route radio navigational aids are under the operational control of either a Flight Service Station (FSS) or an approach control facility. The voice communication is available on some facilities. Hazardous Inflight Weather Advisory Service (HIWAS) broadcast capability is available on selected VOR sites throughout the conterminous U.S. and does not provide two-way voice communication. The availability of two-way voice communication and HIWAS is indicated in the A/FD and aeronautical charts.

**b.** Unless otherwise noted on the chart, all radio navigation aids operate continuously except during shutdowns for maintenance. Hours of operation of facilities not operating continuously are annotated on charts and in the A/FD.

1–1–13. User Reports Requested on NAVAID or Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) Performance or Interference

**a.** Users of the National Airspace System (NAS) can render valuable assistance in the early correction of NAVAID malfunctions or GNSS problems and are encouraged to report their observations of undesirable performance. Although NAVAIDs are monitored by electronic detectors, adverse effects of electronic interference, new obstructions, or changes in terrain near the NAVAID can exist without detection by the ground monitors. Some of the characteristics of malfunction or deteriorating performance which should be reported are: erratic course or bearing indications; intermittent, or full, flag alarm; garbled, missing or obviously improper coded identification; poor quality communications reception; or, in the case of frequency interference, an audible hum or tone accompanying radio communications or NAVAID identification. GNSS problems are often characterized by navigation degradation or service loss indications.

**b.** Reporters should identify the NAVAID (for example, VOR) malfunction or GNSS problem, location of the aircraft (i.e., latitude, longitude or bearing/distance from a NAVAID), magnetic heading, altitude, date and time of the observation, type of aircraft (make/model/call sign), and description of the condition observed, and the type of receivers in use (i.e., make/model/software revision). For GNSS problems, if possible, please note the number of satellites being tracked at the time of the anomaly. Reports can be made in any of the following ways:

1. Immediately, by radio communication to the controlling Air Route Traffic Control Center (ARTCC), Control Tower, or FSS.

2. By telephone to the nearest FAA facility.


**c.** In aircraft that have more than one receiver, there are many combinations of possible interference between units. This can cause either erroneous navigation indications or, complete or partial blanking out of the communications. Pilots should be familiar enough with the radio installation of the particular airplanes they fly to recognize this type of interference.

1–1–14. LORAN

**NOTE—**
In accordance with the 2010 DHS Appropriations Act, the U.S. Coast Guard (USCG) terminated the transmission of all U.S. LORAN–C signals on 08 Feb 2010. The USCG also terminated the transmission of the Russian American signals on 01 Aug 2010, and the Canadian LORAN–C signals on 03 Aug 2010. For more information, visit [http://www.navcen.uscg.gov](http://www.navcen.uscg.gov). Operators should also note that TSO–C60b, AIRBORNE AREA NAVIGATION...


1−1−15. Inertial Reference Unit (IRU),
Inertial Navigation System (INS), and
Attitude Heading Reference System (AHRS)

a. IRUs are self−contained systems comprised of
gyros and accelerometers that provide aircraft
attitude (pitch, roll, and heading), position, and
velocity information in response to signals resulting
from inertial effects on system components. Once
aligned with a known position, IRUs continuously
calculate position and velocity. IRU position
accuracy decays with time. This degradation is
known as “drift.”

b. INSs combine the components of an IRU with
an internal navigation computer. By programming a
series of waypoints, these systems will navigate along
a predetermined track.

c. AHRSs are electronic devices that provide
attitude information to aircraft systems such as
weather radar and autopilot, but do not directly
compute position information.

d. Aircraft equipped with slaved compass systems
may be susceptible to heading errors caused by
exposure to magnetic field disturbances (flux fields)
found in materials that are commonly located on the
surface or buried under taxiways and ramps. These
materials generate a magnetic flux field that can be
sensed by the aircraft’s compass system flux detector
or “gate”, which can cause the aircraft’s system to
align with the material’s magnetic field rather than
the earth’s natural magnetic field. The system’s
erroneous heading may not self-correct. Prior to take
off pilots should be aware that a heading
misalignment may have occurred during taxi. Pilots
are encouraged to follow the manufacturer’s or other
appropriate procedures to correct possible heading
misalignment before take off is commenced.

1−1−16. Doppler Radar

Doppler Radar is a semiautomatic self−contained
dead reckoning navigation system (radar sensor plus
computer) which is not continuously dependent on
information derived from ground based or external
aids. The system employs radar signals to detect and
measure ground speed and drift angle, using the
aircraft compass system as its directional reference.

Doppler is less accurate than INS, however, and the
use of an external reference is required for periodic
updates if acceptable position accuracy is to be
achieved on long range flights.

1−1−17. Global Positioning System (GPS)

a. System Overview

1. System Description. The Global Positioning
System is a space−based radio navigation system
used to determine precise position anywhere in the
world. The 24 satellite constellation is designed to
ensure at least five satellites are always visible to a
user worldwide. A minimum of four satellites is
necessary for receivers to establish an accurate
dimensional position. The receiver uses data
from satellites above the mask angle (the lowest
angle above the horizon at which a receiver can use
a satellite). The Department of Defense (DOD) is
responsible for operating the GPS satellite constella-
tion and monitors the GPS satellites to ensure proper
operation. Each satellite’s orbital parameters (eph-
emeris data) are sent to each satellite for broadcast as
part of the data message embedded in the GPS signal.
The GPS coordinate system is the Cartesian
earth−centered, earth−fixed coordinates as specified
in the World Geodetic System 1984 (WGS−84).

2. System Availability and Reliability.

(a) The status of GPS satellites is broadcast as
part of the data message transmitted by the GPS
satellites. GPS status information is also available by
means of the U.S. Coast Guard navigation
information service: (703) 313−5907, Internet:
http://www.navcen.uscg.gov/. Additionally, satel-
lite status is available through the Notice to Airmen
(NOTAM) system.

(b) GNSS operational status depends on the
type of equipment being used. For GPS−only
equipment TSO−C129 or TSO−C196(), the opera-
tional status of non−precision approach capability for
flight planning purposes is provided through a
prediction program that is embedded in the receiver
or provided separately.

3. Receiver Autonomous Integrity Monitoring
(RAIM). RAIM is the capability of a GPS receiver to
perform integrity monitoring on itself by ensuring
available satellite signals meet the integrity require-
ments for a given phase of flight. Without RAIM, the
pilot has no assurance of the GPS position integrity.
RAIM provides immediate feedback to the pilot. This fault detection is critical for performance-based navigation (PBN)(see Paragraph 1−2−1, Performance-Based Navigation (PBN) and Area Navigation (RNAV), for an introduction to PBN), because delays of up to two hours can occur before an erroneous satellite transmission is detected and corrected by the satellite control segment.

(a) In order for RAIM to determine if a satellite is providing corrupted information, at least one satellite, in addition to those required for navigation, must be in view for the receiver to perform the RAIM function. RAIM requires a minimum of 5 satellites, or 4 satellites and barometric altimeter input (baro-aiding), to detect an integrity anomaly. Baro-aiding is a method of augmenting the GPS integrity solution by using a non-satellite input source in lieu of the fifth satellite. Some GPS receivers also have a RAIM capability, called fault detection and exclusion (FDE), that excludes a failed satellite from the position solution; GPS receivers capable of FDE require 6 satellites or 5 satellites with baro-aiding. This allows the GPS receiver to isolate the corrupt satellite signal, remove it from the position solution, and still provide an integrity-assured position. To ensure that baro-aiding is available, enter the current altimeter setting into the receiver as described in the operating manual. Do not use the GPS derived altitude due to the large GPS vertical errors that will make the integrity monitoring function invalid.

(b) There are generally two types of RAIM fault messages. The first type of message indicates that there are not enough satellites available to provide RAIM integrity monitoring. The GPS navigation solution may be acceptable, but the integrity of the solution cannot be determined. The second type indicates that the RAIM integrity monitor has detected a potential error and that there is an inconsistency in the navigation solution for the given phase of flight. Without RAIM capability, the pilot has no assurance of the accuracy of the GPS position.

4. Selective Availability. Selective Availability (SA) is a method by which the accuracy of GPS is intentionally degraded. This feature was designed to deny hostile use of precise GPS positioning data. SA was discontinued on May 1, 2000, but many GPS receivers are designed to assume that SA is still active. New receivers may take advantage of the discontinuance of SA based on the performance values in ICAO Annex 10.

b. Operational Use of GPS. U.S. civil operators may use approved GPS equipment in oceanic airspace, certain remote areas, the National Airspace System and other States as authorized (please consult the applicable Aeronautical Information Publication). Equipage other than GPS may be required for the desired operation. GPS navigation is used for both Visual Flight Rules (VFR) and Instrument Flight Rules (IFR) operations.

1. VFR Operations

(a) GPS navigation has become an asset to VFR pilots by providing increased navigational capabilities and enhanced situational awareness. Although GPS has provided many benefits to the VFR pilot, care must be exercised to ensure that system capabilities are not exceeded. VFR pilots should integrate GPS navigation with electronic navigation (when possible), as well as pilotage and dead reckoning.

(b) GPS receivers used for VFR navigation vary from fully integrated IFR/VFR installation used to support VFR operations to hand-held devices. Pilots must understand the limitations of the receivers prior to using in flight to avoid misusing navigation information. (See TBL 1−1−6.) Most receivers are not intuitive. The pilot must learn the various keystrokes, knob functions, and displays that are used in the operation of the receiver. Some manufacturers provide computer-based tutorials or simulations of their receivers that pilots can use to become familiar with operating the equipment.

(c) When using GPS for VFR operations, RAIM capability, database currency, and antenna location are critical areas of concern.

(1) RAIM Capability. VFR GPS panel mount receivers and hand-held units have no RAIM alerting capability. This prevents the pilot from being alerted to the loss of the required number of satellites in view, or the detection of a position error. Pilots should use a systematic cross-check with other navigation techniques to verify position. Be suspicious of the GPS position if a disagreement exists between the two positions.

(2) Database Currency. Check the currency of the database. Databases must be updated for
IFR operations and should be updated for all other operations. However, there is no requirement for databases to be updated for VFR navigation. It is not recommended to use a moving map with an outdated database in and around critical airspace. Pilots using an outdated database should verify waypoints using current aeronautical products; for example, Airport/Facility Directory, Sectional Chart, or En Route Chart.

(3) Antenna Location. The antenna location for GPS receivers used for IFR and VFR operations may differ. VFR antennae are typically placed for convenience more than performance, while IFR installations ensure a clear view is provided with the satellites. Antennae not providing a clear view have a greater opportunity to lose the satellite navigational signal. This is especially true in the case of hand-held GPS receivers. Typically, suction cups are used to place the GPS antennas on the inside of cockpit windows. While this method has great utility, the antenna location is limited to the cockpit or cabin which rarely provides a clear view of all available satellites. Consequently, signal losses may occur due to aircraft structure blocking satellite signals, causing a loss of navigation capability. These losses, coupled with a lack of RAIM capability, could present erroneous position and navigation information with no warning to the pilot. While the use of a hand-held GPS for VFR operations is not limited by regulation, modification of the aircraft, such as installing a panel- or yoke-mounted holder, is governed by 14 CFR Part 43. Consult with your mechanic to ensure compliance with the regulation and safe installation.

(d) Do not solely rely on GPS for VFR navigation. No design standard of accuracy or integrity is used for a VFR GPS receiver. VFR GPS receivers should be used in conjunction with other forms of navigation during VFR operations to ensure a correct route of flight is maintained. Minimize head-down time in the aircraft by being familiar with your GPS receiver’s operation and by keeping eyes outside scanning for traffic, terrain, and obstacles.

(e) VFR Waypoints

(1) VFR waypoints provide VFR pilots with a supplementary tool to assist with position awareness while navigating visually in aircraft equipped with area navigation receivers. VFR waypoints should be used as a tool to supplement current navigation procedures. The uses of VFR waypoints include providing navigational aids for pilots unfamiliar with an area, waypoint definition of existing reporting points, enhanced navigation in and around Class B and Class C airspace, and enhanced navigation around Special Use Airspace. VFR pilots should rely on appropriate and current aeronautical charts published specifically for visual navigation. If operating in a terminal area, pilots should take advantage of the Terminal Area Chart available for that area, if published. The use of VFR waypoints does not relieve the pilot of any responsibility to comply with the operational requirements of 14 CFR Part 91.

(2) VFR waypoint names (for computer-entry and flight plans) consist of five letters beginning with the letters “VP” and are retrievable from navigation databases. The VFR waypoint names are not intended to be pronounceable, and they are not for use in ATC communications. On VFR charts, stand-alone VFR waypoints will be portrayed using the same four-point star symbol used for IFR waypoints. VFR waypoints collocated with visual check points on the chart will be identified by small magenta flag symbols. VFR waypoints collocated with visual check points will be pronounceable based on the name of the visual check point and may be used for ATC communications. Each VFR waypoint name will appear in parentheses adjacent to the geographic location on the chart. Latitude/longitude data for all established VFR waypoints may be found in the appropriate regional Airport/Facility Directory (A/FD).

(3) VFR waypoints may not be used on IFR flight plans. VFR waypoints are not recognized by the IFR system and will be rejected for IFR routing purposes.

(4) Pilots may use the five-letter identifier as a waypoint in the route of flight section on a VFR flight plan. Pilots may use the VFR waypoints only when operating under VFR conditions. The point may represent an intended course change or describe the planned route of flight. This VFR filing would be similar to how a VOR would be used in a route of flight.

(5) VFR waypoints intended for use during flight should be loaded into the receiver while on the ground. Once airborne, pilots should avoid program-
ming routes or VFR waypoint chains into their receivers.

(6) Pilots should be vigilant to see and avoid other traffic when near VFR waypoints. With the increased use of GPS navigation and accuracy, expect increased traffic near VFR waypoints. Regardless of the class of airspace, monitor the available ATC frequency for traffic information on other aircraft operating in the vicinity. See Paragraph 7–5–2, VFR in Congested Areas, for more information.

2. IFR Use of GPS

(a) General Requirements. Authorization to conduct any GPS operation under IFR requires:

(1) GPS navigation equipment used for IFR operations must be approved in accordance with the requirements specified in Technical Standard Order (TSO) TSO–C129(), TSO–C196(), TSO–C145(), or TSO–C146(), and the installation must be done in accordance with Advisory Circular AC 20–138(), Airworthiness Approval of Positioning and Navigation Systems. Equipment approved in accordance with TSO–C115a does not meet the requirements of TSO–C129. Visual flight rules (VFR) and hand–held GPS systems are not authorized for IFR navigation, instrument approaches, or as a principal instrument flight reference.

(2) Aircraft using un-augmented GPS (TSO–C129() or TSO–C196()) for navigation under IFR must be equipped with an alternate approved and operational means of navigation suitably for navigating the proposed route of flight. (Examples of alternate navigation equipment include VOR or DME/DME/IRU capability). Active monitoring of alternative navigation equipment is not required when RAIM is available for integrity monitoring. Active monitoring of an alternate means of navigation is required when the GPS RAIM capability is lost.

(3) Procedures must be established for use in the event that the loss of RAIM capability is predicted to occur. In situations where RAIM is predicted to be unavailable, the flight must rely on other approved navigation equipment, re-route to where RAIM is available, delay departure, or cancel the flight.

(4) The GPS operation must be conducted in accordance with the FAA–approved aircraft flight manual (AFM) or flight manual supplement. Flight crew members must be thoroughly familiar with the particular GPS equipment installed in the aircraft, the receiver operation manual, and the AFM or flight manual supplement. Operation, receiver presentation and capabilities of GPS equipment vary. Due to these differences, operation of GPS receivers of different brands, or even models of the same brand, under IFR should not be attempted without thorough operational knowledge. Most receivers have a built–in simulator mode, which allows the pilot to become familiar with operation prior to attempting operation in the aircraft.

(5) Aircraft navigating by IFR–approved GPS are considered to be performance–based navigation (PBN) aircraft and have special equipment suffixes. File the appropriate equipment suffix in accordance with TBL 5–1–3 on the ATC flight plan. If GPS avionics become inoperative, the pilot should advise ATC and amend the equipment suffix.

(6) Prior to any GPS IFR operation, the pilot must review appropriate NOTAMs and aeronautical information. (See GPS NOTAMs/Aeronautical Information).

(b) Database Requirements. The onboard navigation data must be current and appropriate for the region of intended operation and should include the navigation aids, waypoints, and relevant coded terminal airspace procedures for the departure, arrival, and alternate airfields.

(1) Further database guidance for terminal and en route requirements may be found in AC 90-100(), U.S. Terminal and En Route Area Navigation (RNAV) Operations.

(2) Further database guidance on Required Navigation Performance (RNP) instrument approach operations, RNP terminal, and RNP en route requirements may be found in AC 90-105(), Approval Guidance for RNP Operations and Barometric Vertical Navigation in the U.S. National Airspace System.

(3) All approach procedures to be flown must be retrievable from the current airborne navigation database supplied by the equipment manufacturer or other FAA–approved source. The system must be able to retrieve the procedure by name from the aircraft navigation database, not just as a
manually entered series of waypoints. Manual entry of waypoints using latitude/longitude or place/bearing is not permitted for approach procedures.

(4) Prior to using a procedure or waypoint retrieved from the airborne navigation database, the pilot should verify the validity of the database. This verification should include the following preflight and inflight steps:

[a] Preflight:

[1] Determine the date of database issuance, and verify that the date/time of proposed use is before the expiration date/time.

[2] Verify that the database provider has not published a notice limiting the use of the specific waypoint or procedure.

[b] Inflight:

[1] Determine that the waypoints and transition names coincide with names found on the procedure chart. Do not use waypoints which do not exactly match the spelling shown on published procedure charts.

[2] Determine that the waypoints are logical in location, in the correct order, and their orientation to each other is as found on the procedure chart, both laterally and vertically.

NOTE—There is no specific requirement to check each waypoint latitude and longitude, type of waypoint and/or altitude constraint, only the general relationship of waypoints in the procedure, or the logic of an individual waypoint’s location.

[3] If the cursory check of procedure logic or individual waypoint location, specified in [b] above, indicates a potential error, do not use the retrieved procedure or waypoint until a verification of latitude and longitude, waypoint type, and altitude constraints indicate full conformity with the published data.

(5) Air carrier and commercial operators must meet the appropriate provisions of their approved operations specifications.

[a] During domestic operations for commerce or for hire, operators must have a second navigation system capable of reversion or contingency operations.

[b] Operators must have two independent navigation systems appropriate to the route to be flown, or one system that is suitable and a second, independent backup capability that allows the operator to proceed safely and land at a different airport, and the aircraft must have sufficient fuel (reference 14 CFR 121.349, 125.203, 129.17, and 135.165). These rules ensure the safety of the operation by preventing a single point of failure.

NOTE—An aircraft approved for multi-sensor navigation and equipped with a single navigation system must maintain an ability to navigate or proceed safely in the event that any one component of the navigation system fails, including the flight management system (FMS). Retaining a FMS-independent VOR capability would satisfy this requirement.

c] The requirements for a second system apply to the entire set of equipment needed to achieve the navigation capability, not just the individual components of the system such as the radio navigation receiver. For example, to use two RNAV systems (e.g., GPS and DME/DME/IRU) to comply with the requirements, the aircraft must be equipped with two independent radio navigation receivers and two independent navigation computers (e.g., flight management systems (FMS)). Alternatively, to comply with the requirements using a single RNAV system with an installed and operable VOR capability, the VOR capability must be independent of the FMS.

d] To satisfy the requirement for two independent navigation systems, if the primary navigation system is GPS–based, the second system must be independent of GPS (for example, VOR or DME/DME/IRU). This allows continued navigation in case of failure of the GPS or WAAS services. Recognizing that GPS interference and test events resulting in the loss of GPS services have become more common, the FAA requires operators conducting IFR operations under 14 CFR 121.349, 125.203, 129.17 and 135.65 to retain a non-GPS navigation capability consisting of either DME/DME, IRU, or VOR for en route and terminal operations, and VOR and ILS for final approach. Since this system is to be used as a reversionary capability, single equipage is sufficient.

3. Oceanic, Domestic, En Route, and Terminal Area Operations

(a) Conduct GPS IFR operations in oceanic areas only when approved avionics systems are
installed. TSO–C196() users and TSO–C129() GPS users authorized for Class A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, or C2 operations may use GPS in place of another approved means of long–range navigation, such as dual INS. (See TBL 1–1–5 and TBL 1–1–6.) Aircraft with a single installation GPS, meeting the above specifications, are authorized to operate on short oceanic routes requiring one means of long–range navigation (reference AC 20-138(), Appendix 1).

(b) Conduct GPS domestic, en route, and terminal IFR operations only when approved avionics systems are installed. Pilots may use GPS via TSO–C129() authorized for Class A1, B1, B3, C1, or C3 operations GPS via TSO-C196(); or GPS/WAAS with either TSO-C145() or TSO-C146(). When using TSO-C129() or TSO-C196() receivers, the avionics necessary to receive all of the ground–based facilities appropriate for the route to the destination airport and any required alternate airport must be installed and operational. Ground–based facilities necessary for these routes must be operational.

(1) GPS en route IFR operations may be conducted in Alaska outside the operational service volume of ground–based navigation aids when a TSO–C145() or TSO–C146() GPS/wide area augmentation system (WAAS) system is installed and operating. WAAS is the U.S. version of a satellite–based augmentation system (SBAS).

[a] In Alaska, aircraft may operate on GNSS Q–routes with GPS (TSO–C129() or TSO–C196()) equipment while the aircraft remains in Air Traffic Control (ATC) radar surveillance or with GPS/WAAS (TSO-C145() or TSO-C146()) which does not require ATC radar surveillance.

[b] In Alaska, aircraft may only operate on GNSS T–routes with GPS/WAAS (TSO-C145() or TSO-C146()) equipment.

(2) Ground–based navigation equipment is not required to be installed and operating for en route IFR operations when using GPS/WAAS navigation systems. All operators should ensure that an alternate means of navigation is available in the unlikely event the GPS/WAAS navigation system becomes inoperative.

(3) Q–routes and T–routes outside Alaska. Q–routes require system performance currently met by GPS, GPS/WAAS, or DME/DME/IRU RNAV systems that satisfy the criteria discussed in AC 90–100(), U.S. Terminal and En Route Area Navigation (RNAV) Operations. T–routes require GPS or GPS/WAAS equipment.

REFERENCE—AIM Paragraph 5–3–4 Airways and Route Systems

c) GPS IFR approach/departure operations can be conducted when approved avionics systems are installed and the following requirements are met:

(1) The aircraft is TSO–C145() or TSO–C146() or TSO–C196() or TSO–C129() in Class A1, B1, B3, C1, or C3; and

(2) The approach/departure must be retrievable from the current airborne navigation database in the navigation computer. The system must be able to retrieve the procedure by name from the aircraft navigation database. Manual entry of waypoints using latitude/longitude or place/bearing is not permitted for approach procedures.

(3) The authorization to fly instrument approaches/departures with GPS is limited to U.S. airspace.

(4) The use of GPS in any other airspace must be expressly authorized by the FAA Administrator.

(5) GPS instrument approach/departure operations outside the U.S. must be authorized by the appropriate sovereign authority.

4. Departures and Instrument Departure Procedures (DPs)

The GPS receiver must be set to terminal (± 1 NM) CDI sensitivity and the navigation routes contained in the database in order to fly published IFR charted departures and DPs. Terminal RAIM should be automatically provided by the receiver. (Terminal RAIM for departure may not be available unless the waypoints are part of the active flight plan rather than proceeding direct to the first destination.) Certain segments of a DP may require some manual intervention by the pilot, especially when radar vectored to a course or required to intercept a specific course to a waypoint. The database may not contain all of the transitions or departures from all runways and some GPS receivers do not contain DPs in the database. It is necessary that helicopter procedures be flown at 70 knots or less since helicopter departure procedures and missed approaches use a 20:1 obstacle clearance surface (OCS), which is double.
the fixed-wing OCS, and turning areas are based on this speed as well.

5. GPS Instrument Approach Procedures

(a) GPS overlay approaches are designated non-precision instrument approach procedures that pilots are authorized to fly using GPS avionics. Localizer (LOC), localizer type directional aid (LDA), and simplified directional facility (SDF) procedures are not authorized. Overlay procedures are identified by the “name of the procedure” and “or GPS” (e.g., VOR/DME or GPS RWY 15) in the title. Authorized procedures must be retrievable from a current onboard navigation database. The navigation database may also enhance position orientation by displaying a map containing information on conventional NAVAID approaches. This approach information should not be confused with a GPS overlay approach (see the receiver operating manual, AFM, or AFM Supplement for details on how to identify these approaches in the navigation database).

NOTE—Overlay approaches do not adhere to the design criteria described in Paragraph 5−4−5m, Area Navigation (RNAV) Instrument Approach Charts, for stand-alone GPS approaches. Overlay approach criteria is based on the design criteria used for ground-based NAVAID approaches.

(b) Stand-alone approach procedures specifically designed for GPS systems have replaced many of the original overlay approaches. All approaches that contain “GPS” in the title (e.g., “VOR or GPS RWY 24,” “GPS RWY 24,” or “RNAV (GPS) RWY 24”) can be flown using GPS. GPS-equipped aircraft do not need underlying ground-based NAVAIDs or associated aircraft avionics to fly the approach. Monitoring the underlying approach with ground-based NAVAIDs is suggested when able. Existing overlay approaches may be requested using the GPS title; for example, the VOR or GPS RWY 24 may be requested as “GPS RWY 24.” Some GPS procedures have a Terminal Arrival Area (TAA) with an underlining RNAV approach.

(c) For flight planning purposes, TSO-C129() and TSO-C196()—equipped users (GPS users) whose navigation systems have fault detection and exclusion (FDE) capability, who perform a preflight RAIM prediction for the approach integrity at the airport where the RNAV (GPS) approach will be flown, and have proper knowledge and any required training and/or approval to conduct a GPS-based IAP, may file based on a GPS–based IAP at either the destination or the alternate airport, but not at both locations. At the alternate airport, pilots may plan for:

1. Lateral navigation (LNAV) or circling minimum descent altitude (MDA);
2. LNAV/vertical navigation (LNAV/VNAV) DA, if equipped with and using approved barometric vertical navigation (baro-VNAV) equipment;
3. RNP 0.3 DA on an RNAV (RNP) IAP, if they are specifically authorized users using approved baro-VNAV equipment and the pilot has verified required navigation performance (RNP) availability through an approved prediction program.

(d) If the above conditions cannot be met, any required alternate airport must have an approved instrument approach procedure other than GPS–based that is anticipated to be operational and available at the estimated time of arrival, and which the aircraft is equipped to fly.

(e) Procedures for Accomplishing GPS Approaches

1. An RNAV (GPS) procedure may be associated with a Terminal Arrival Area (TAA). The basic design of the RNAV procedure is the “T” design or a modification of the “T” (See Paragraph 5-4-5d, Terminal Arrival Area (TAA), for complete information).
2. Pilots cleared by ATC for an RNAV (GPS) approach should fly the full approach from an Initial Approach Waypoint (IAWP) or feeder fix. Randomly joining an approach at an intermediate fix does not assure terrain clearance.
3. When an approach has been loaded in the navigation system, GPS receivers will give an “arm” annunciation 30 NM straight line distance from the airport/heliport reference point. Pilots should arm the approach mode at this time if not already armed (some receivers arm automatically). Without arming, the receiver will not change from en route CDI and RAIM sensitivity of ±5 NM either side of centerline to ±1 NM terminal sensitivity. Where the IAWP is inside this 30 mile point, a CDI sensitivity change will occur once the approach mode
is armed and the aircraft is inside 30 NM. Where the IAWP is beyond 30 NM from the airport/heliport reference point and the approach is armed, the CDI sensitivity will not change until the aircraft is within 30 miles of the airport/heliport reference point. Feeder route obstacle clearance is predicated on the receiver being in terminal (±1 NM) CDI sensitivity and RAiM within 30 NM of the airport/heliport reference point; therefore, the receiver should always be armed (if required) not later than the 30 NM annunciation.

(4) The pilot must be aware of what bank angle/turn rate the particular receiver uses to compute turn anticipation, and whether wind and airspeed are included in the receiver’s calculations. This information should be in the receiver operating manual. Over or under banking the turn onto the final approach course may significantly delay getting on course and may result in high descent rates to achieve the next segment altitude.

(5) When within 2 NM of the Final Approach Waypoint (FAWP) with the approach mode armed, the approach mode will switch to active, which results in RAiM and CDI changing to approach sensitivity. Beginning 2 NM prior to the FAWP, the full scale CDI sensitivity will smoothly change from ±1 NM to ±0.3 NM at the FAWP. As sensitivity changes from ±1 NM to ±0.3 NM approaching the FAWP, with the CDI not centered, the corresponding increase in CDI displacement may give the impression that the aircraft is moving further away from the intended course even though it is on an acceptable intercept heading. Referencing the digital track displacement information (cross track error), if it is available in the approach mode, may help the pilot remain position oriented in this situation. Being established on the final approach course prior to the beginning of the sensitivity change at 2 NM will help prevent problems in interpreting the CDI display during ramp down. Therefore, requesting or accepting vectors which will cause the aircraft to intercept the final approach course within 2 NM of the FAWP is not recommended.

(6) When receiving vectors to final, most receiver operating manuals suggest placing the receiver in the non-sequencing mode on the FAWP and manually setting the course. This provides an extended final approach course in cases where the aircraft is vectored onto the final approach course outside of any existing segment which is aligned with the runway. Assigned altitudes must be maintained until established on a published segment of the approach. Required altitudes at waypoints outside the FAWP or stepdown fixes must be considered. Calculating the distance to the FAWP may be required in order to descend at the proper location.

(7) Overriding an automatically selected sensitivity during an approach will cancel the approach mode annunciation. If the approach mode is not armed by 2 NM prior to the FAWP, the approach mode will not become active at 2 NM prior to the FAWP, and the equipment will flag. In these conditions, the RAiM and CDI sensitivity will not ramp down, and the pilot should not descend to MDA, but fly to the MAWP and execute a missed approach. The approach active annunciator and/or the receiver should be checked to ensure the approach mode is active prior to the FAWP.

(8) Do not attempt to fly an approach unless the procedure in the onboard database is current and identified as “GPS” on the approach chart. The navigation database may contain information about non–overlay approach procedures that enhances position orientation generally by providing a map, while flying these approaches using conventional NAVAIDs. This approach information should not be confused with a GPS overlay approach (see the receiver operating manual, AFM, or AFM Supplement for details on how to identify these procedures in the navigation database). Flying point to point on the approach does not assure compliance with the published approach procedure. The proper RAiM sensitivity will not be available and the CDI sensitivity will not automatically change to ±0.3 NM. Manually setting CDI sensitivity does not automatically change the RAiM sensitivity on some receivers. Some existing non–precision approach procedures cannot be coded for use with GPS and will not be available as overlays.

(9) Pilots should pay particular attention to the exact operation of their GPS receivers for performing holding patterns and in the case of overlay approaches, operations such as procedure turns. These procedures may require manual intervention by the pilot to stop the sequencing of waypoints by the receiver and to resume automatic GPS navigation sequencing once the maneuver is complete. The same waypoint may appear in the route of flight more than once consecutively (for example,
IAWP, FAWP, MAHWP on a procedure turn). Care must be exercised to ensure that the receiver is sequenced to the appropriate waypoint for the segment of the procedure being flown, especially if one or more fly-overs are skipped (for example, FAWP rather than IAWP if the procedure turn is not flown). The pilot may have to sequence past one or more fly-overs of the same waypoint in order to start GPS automatic sequencing at the proper place in the sequence of waypoints.

(10) Incorrect inputs into the GPS receiver are especially critical during approaches. In some cases, an incorrect entry can cause the receiver to leave the approach mode.

(11) A fix on an overlay approach identified by a DME fix will not be in the waypoint sequence on the GPS receiver unless there is a published name assigned to it. When a name is assigned, the along track distance (ATD) to the waypoint may be zero rather than the DME stated on the approach chart. The pilot should be alert for this on any overlay procedure where the original approach used DME.

(12) If a visual descent point (VDP) is published, it will not be included in the sequence of waypoints. Pilots are expected to use normal piloting techniques for beginning the visual descent, such as ATD.

(13) Unnamed stepdown fixes in the final approach segment may or may not be coded in the waypoint sequence of the aircraft’s navigation database and must be identified using ATD. Stepdown fixes in the final approach segment of RNAV (GPS) approaches are being named, in addition to being identified by ATD. However, GPS avionics may or may not accommodate waypoints between the FAF and MAP. Pilots must know the capabilities of their GPS equipment and continue to identify stepdown fixes using ATD when necessary.

(f) Missed Approach

(1) A GPS missed approach requires pilot action to sequence the receiver past the MAWP to the missed approach portion of the procedure. The pilot must be thoroughly familiar with the activation procedure for the particular GPS receiver installed in the aircraft and must initiate appropriate action after the MAWP. Activating the missed approach prior to the MAWP will cause CDI sensitivity to immediately change to terminal (±1NM) sensitivity and the receiver will continue to navigate to the MAWP. The receiver will not sequence past the MAWP. Turns should not begin prior to the MAWP. If the missed approach is not activated, the GPS receiver will display an extension of the inbound final approach course and the ATD will increase from the MAWP until it is manually sequenced after crossing the MAWP.

(2) Missed approach routings in which the first track is via a course rather than direct to the next waypoint require additional action by the pilot to set the course. Being familiar with all of the inputs required is especially critical during this phase of flight.

(g) GPS NOTAMs/Aeronautical Information

(1) GPS satellite outages are issued as GPS NOTAMs both domestically and internationally. However, the effect of an outage on the intended operation cannot be determined unless the pilot has a RAIM availability prediction program which allows excluding a satellite which is predicted to be out of service based on the NOTAM information.

(2) The terms UNRELIABLE and MAY NOT BE AVAILABLE are used in conjunction with GPS NOTAMs. Both UNRELIABLE and MAY NOT BE AVAILABLE are advisories to pilots indicating the expected level of service may not be available. UNRELIABLE does not mean there is a problem with GPS signal integrity. If GPS service is available, pilots may continue operations. If the LNAV or LNAV/VNAV service is available, pilots may use the displayed level of service to fly the approach. GPS operation may be NOTAMed UNRELIABLE or MAY NOT BE AVAILABLE due to testing or anomalies. (Pilots are encouraged to report GPS anomalies, including degraded operation and/or loss of service, as soon as possible, reference paragraph 1–1–13.) When GPS testing NOTAMS are published and testing is actually occurring, Air Traffic Control will advise pilots requesting or cleared for a GPS or RNAV (GPS) approach that GPS may not be available and request intentions. If pilots have reported GPS anomalies, Air Traffic Control will request the pilot’s intentions and/or clear the pilot for an alternate approach, if available and operational.
EXAMPLE—
The following is an example of a GPS testing NOTAM:

!GPS 06/001 ZAB NAV GPS (INCLUDING WAAS, GBAS, AND ADS-B) MAY NOT BE AVAILABLE WITHIN A 468NM RADIUS CENTERED AT 330702N1062540W (TCS 093044) FL400-UNL DECREASING IN AREA WITH A DECREASE IN ALTITUDE DEFINED AS:

425NM RADIUS AT FL250, 360NM RADIUS AT 10000FT, 354NM RADIUS AT 4000FT AGL, 327NM RADIUS AT 50FT AGL.  1406070300-1406071200.

(3) Civilian pilots may obtain GPS RAIM availability information for non–precision approach procedures by: using a manufacturer–supplied RAIM prediction tool; or using the generic tool at www.raimprediction.net. The FAA is developing a replacement prediction tool at www.sapt.faa.gov scheduled for transition in 2014. Pilots can also request GPS RAIM aeronautical information from a flight service station during preflight briefings. GPS RAIM aeronautical information can be obtained for a period of 3 hours (for example, if you are scheduled to arrive at 1215 hours, then the GPS RAIM information is available from 1100 to 1400 hours) or a 24–hour timeframe at a particular airport. FAA briefers will provide RAIM information for a period of 1 hour before to 1 hour after the ETA hour, unless a specific timeframe is requested by the pilot. If flying a published GPS departure, a RAIM prediction should also be requested for the departure airport.

(4) The military provides airfield specific GPS RAIM NOTAMs for non–precision approach procedures at military airfields. The RAIM outages are issued as M–series NOTAMs and may be obtained for up to 24 hours from the time of request.

(5) Receiver manufacturers and/or database suppliers may supply “NOTAM” type information concerning database errors. Pilots should check these sources, when available, to ensure that they have the most current information concerning their electronic database.

(h) Receiver Autonomous Integrity Monitoring (RAIM)

(1) RAIM outages may occur due to an insufficient number of satellites or due to unsuitable satellite geometry which causes the error in the position solution to become too large. Loss of satellite reception and RAIM warnings may occur due to aircraft dynamics (changes in pitch or bank angle). Antenna location on the aircraft, satellite position relative to the horizon, and aircraft attitude may affect reception of one or more satellites. Since the relative positions of the satellites are constantly changing, prior experience with the airport does not guarantee reception at all times, and RAIM availability should always be checked.

(2) If RAIM is not available, use another type of navigation and approach system, select another route or destination, or delay the trip until RAIM is predicted to be available on arrival. On longer flights, pilots should consider rechecking the RAIM prediction for the destination during the flight. This may provide an early indication that an unscheduled satellite outage has occurred since takeoff.

(3) If a RAIM failure/status annunciation occurs prior to the final approach waypoint (FAWP), the approach should not be completed since GPS no longer provides the required integrity. The receiver performs a RAIM prediction by 2 NM prior to the FAWP to ensure that RAIM is available as a condition for entering the approach mode. The pilot should ensure the receiver has sequenced from “Armed” to “Approach” prior to the FAWP (normally occurs 2 NM prior). Failure to sequence may be an indication of the detection of a satellite anomaly, failure to arm the receiver (if required), or other problems which preclude flying the approach.

(4) If the receiver does not sequence into the approach mode or a RAIM failure/status annunciation occurs prior to the FAWP, the pilot must not initiate the approach or descend, but instead proceed to the missed approach waypoint (MAWP) via the FAWP, perform a missed approach, and contact ATC as soon as practical. The GPS receiver may continue to operate after a RAIM flag/status annunciation appears, but the navigation information should be considered advisory only. Refer to the receiver operating manual for specific indications and instructions associated with loss of RAIM prior to the FAF.

(5) If the RAIM flag/status annunciation appears after the FAWP, the pilot should initiate a climb and execute the missed approach. The GPS receiver may continue to operate after a RAIM flag/status annunciation appears, but the navigation information should be considered advisory only. Refer to the receiver operating manual for operating mode information during a RAIM annunciation.
(i) Waypoints

(1) GPS receivers navigate from one defined point to another retrieved from the aircraft’s onboard navigational database. These points are waypoints (5-letter pronounceable name), existing VHF intersections, DME fixes with 5-letter pronounceable names and 3-letter NAVAID IDs. Each waypoint is a geographical location defined by a latitude/longitude geographic coordinate. These 5-letter waypoints, VHF intersections, 5-letter pronounceable DME fixes and 3-letter NAVAID IDs are published on various FAA aeronautical navigation products (IFR Enroute Charts, VFR Charts, Terminal Procedures Publications, etc.).

(2) A Computer Navigation Fix (CNF) is also a point defined by a latitude/longitude coordinate and is required to support Performance-Based Navigation (PBN) operations. The GPS receiver uses CNFs in conjunction with waypoints to navigate from point to point. However, CNFs are not recognized by ATC. ATC does not maintain CNFs in their database and they do not use CNFs for any air traffic control purpose. CNFs may or may not be charted on FAA aeronautical navigation products, are listed in the chart legends, and are for advisory purposes only. Pilots are not to use CNFs for point to point navigation (proceed direct), filing a flight plan, or in aircraft/ATC communications. CNFs that do appear on aeronautical charts allow pilots increased situational awareness by identifying points in the aircraft database route of flight with points on the aeronautical chart. CNFs are random five-letter identifiers, not pronounceable like waypoints and placed in parenthesis. Eventually, all CNFs will begin with the letters “CF” followed by three consonants (for example, CFWBG). This five-letter identifier will be found next to an “x” on enroute charts and possibly on an approach chart. On instrument approach procedures (charts) in the terminal procedures publication, CNFs may represent unnamed DME fixes, beginning and ending points of DME arcs, and sensor (ground-based signal i.e., VOR, NDB, ILS) final approach fixes on GPS overlay approaches. These CNFs provide the GPS with points on the procedure that allow the overlay approach to mirror the ground-based sensor approach. These points should only be used by the GPS system for navigation and should not be used by pilots for any other purpose on the approach. The CNF concept has not been adopted or recognized by the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO).

(3) GPS approaches use fly–over and fly–by waypoints to join route segments on an approach. Fly–by waypoints connect the two segments by allowing the aircraft to turn prior to the current waypoint in order to roll out on course to the next waypoint. This is known as turn anticipation and is compensated for in the airspace and terrain clearances. The MAWP and the missed approach holding waypoint (MAHWP) are normally the only two waypoints on the approach that are not fly–by waypoints. Fly–over waypoints are used when the aircraft must overfly the waypoint prior to starting a turn to the new course. The symbol for a fly–over waypoint is a circled waypoint. Some waypoints may have dual use; for example, as a fly–by waypoint when used as an IF for a NoPT route and as a fly-over waypoint when the same waypoint is also used as an IAF/IF hold-in-lieu of PT. When this occurs, the less restrictive (fly-by) symbology will be charted. Overlay approach charts and some early stand-alone GPS approach charts may not reflect this convention.

(4) Unnamed waypoints for each airport will be uniquely identified in the database. Although the identifier may be used at different airports (for example, RW36 will be the identifier at each airport with a runway 36), the actual point, at each airport, is defined by a specific latitude/longitude coordinate.

(5) The runway threshold waypoint, normally the MAWP, may have a five–letter identifier (for example, SNEEZ) or be coded as RW## (for example, RW36, RW36L). MAWPs located at the runway threshold are being changed to the RW## identifier, while MAWPs not located at the threshold will have a five–letter identifier. This may cause the approach chart to differ from the aircraft database until all changes are complete. The runway threshold waypoint is also used as the center of the Minimum Safe Altitude (MSA) on most GPS approaches.

(j) Position Orientation.

Pilots should pay particular attention to position orientation while using GPS. Distance and track information are provided to the next active waypoint, not to a fixed navigation aid. Receivers may sequence when the pilot is not flying along an active route, such as when being vectored or deviating for weather, due to the proximity to another waypoint in the route. This can be prevented by
placing the receiver in the non-sequencing mode. When the receiver is in the non-sequencing mode, bearing and distance are provided to the selected waypoint and the receiver will not sequence to the next waypoint in the route until placed back in the auto sequence mode or the pilot selects a different waypoint. The pilot may have to compute the ATD to stepdown fixes and other points on overlay approaches, due to the receiver showing ATD to the next waypoint rather than DME to the VOR or ILS ground station.

(k) Impact of Magnetic Variation on PBN Systems

(1) Differences may exist between PBN systems and the charted magnetic courses on ground–based NA V AID instrument flight procedures (IFP), enroute charts, approach charts, and Standard Instrument Departure/Standard Terminal Arrival (SID/STAR) charts. These differences are due to the magnetic variance used to calculate the magnetic course. Every leg of an instrument procedure is first computed along a desired ground track with reference to true north. A magnetic variation correction is then applied to the true course in order to calculate a magnetic course for publication. The type of procedure will determine what magnetic variation value is added to the true course. A ground–based NA V AID IFP applies the facility magnetic variation of record to the true course to get the charted magnetic course. Magnetic courses on PBN procedures are calculated two different ways. SID/STAR procedures use the airport magnetic variation of record, while IFR enroute charts use magnetic reference bearing. PBN systems make a correction to true north by adding a magnetic variation calculated with an algorithm based on aircraft position, or by adding the magnetic variation coded in their navigational database. This may result in the PBN system and the procedure designer using a different magnetic variation, which causes the magnetic course displayed by the PBN system and the magnetic course charted on the IFP plate to be different. It is important to understand, however, that PBN systems, (with the exception of VOR/DME RNAV equipment) navigate by reference to true north and display magnetic course only for pilot reference. As such, a properly functioning PBN system, containing a current and accurate navigational database, should fly the correct ground track for any loaded instrument procedure, despite differences in displayed magnetic course that may be attributed to magnetic variation application. Should significant differences between the approach chart and the PBN system avionics’ application of the navigation database arise, the published approach chart, supplemented by NOT-AMs, holds precedence.

(2) The course into a waypoint may not always be 180 degrees different from the course leaving the previous waypoint, due to the PBN system avionics’ computation of geodesic paths, distance between waypoints, and differences in magnetic variation application. Variations in distances may also occur since PBN system distance–to–waypoint values are ATDs computed to the next waypoint and the DME values published on underlying procedures are slant–range distances measured to the station. This difference increases with aircraft altitude and proximity to the NA V AID.

(l) GPS Familiarization

Pilots should practice GPS approaches in visual meteorological conditions (VMC) until thoroughly proficient with all aspects of their equipment (receiver and installation) prior to attempting flight in instrument meteorological conditions (IMC). Pilots should be proficient in the following areas:

(1) Using the receiver autonomous integrity monitoring (RAIM) prediction function;
(2) Inserting a DP into the flight plan, including setting terminal CDI sensitivity, if required, and the conditions under which terminal RAIM is available for departure;
(3) Programming the destination airport;
(4) Programming and flying the approaches (especially procedure turns and arcs);
(5) Changing to another approach after selecting an approach;
(6) Programming and flying “direct” missed approaches;
(7) Programming and flying “routed” missed approaches;
(8) Entering, flying, and exiting holding patterns, particularly on approaches with a second waypoint in the holding pattern;
(9) Programming and flying a “route” from a holding pattern;
(10) Programming and flying an approach with radar vectors to the intermediate segment;
(11) Indication of the actions required for RAIM failure both before and after the FAWP; and
(12) Programming a radial and distance from a VOR (often used in departure instructions).

**TBL 1–1–5**

GPS IFR Equipment Classes/Categories

| TSO–C129 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Equipment Class | RAIM | Int. Nav. Sys. to Prov. RAIM Equiv. | Oceanic | En Route | Terminal | Non–precision Approach Capable |
| Class A – GPS sensor and navigation capability. | | | | | |
| A1 | yes | yes | yes | yes | yes | yes |
| A2 | yes | yes | yes | yes | no |
| Class B – GPS sensor data to an integrated navigation system (i.e., FMS, multi–sensor navigation system, etc.). | | | | | |
| B1 | yes | yes | yes | yes | no | yes |
| B2 | yes | yes | yes | yes | no |
| B3 | yes | yes | yes | yes | no | yes |
| B4 | yes | yes | yes | yes | no |
| Class C – GPS sensor data to an integrated navigation system (as in Class B) which provides enhanced guidance to an autopilot, or flight director, to reduce flight tech. errors. Limited to 14 CFR Part 121 or equivalent criteria. | | | | | |
| C1 | yes | yes | yes | yes | yes |
| C2 | yes | yes | yes | yes | no |
| C3 | yes | yes | yes | yes | yes |
| C4 | yes | yes | yes | yes | no |

**TBL 1–1–6**

GPS Approval Required/Authorized Use

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<tr>
<th>Equipment Type1</th>
<th>Installation Approval Required</th>
<th>Operational Approval Required</th>
<th>IFR En Route2</th>
<th>IFR Terminal2</th>
<th>IFR Oceanic</th>
<th>Oceanic Remote</th>
<th>In Lieu of ADF and/or DME3</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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**NOTE—**

1To determine equipment approvals and limitations, refer to the AFM, AFM supplements, or pilot guides.
2Requires verification of data for correctness if database is expired.
3Requires current database or verification that the procedure has not been amended since the expiration of the database.
4VFR and hand–held GPS systems are not authorized for IFR navigation, instrument approaches, or as a primary instrument flight reference. During IFR operations they may be considered only an aid to situational awareness.
5Hand–held receivers require no approval. However, any aircraft modification to support the hand–held receiver; i.e., installation of an external antenna or a permanent mounting bracket, does require approval.
1−1−18. Wide Area Augmentation System (WAAS)

a. General

1. The FAA developed the WAAS to improve the accuracy, integrity and availability of GPS signals. WAAS will allow GPS to be used, as the aviation navigation system, from takeoff through approach when it is complete. WAAS is a critical component of the FAA’s strategic objective for a seamless satellite navigation system for civil aviation, improving capacity and safety.

2. The International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) has defined Standards and Recommended Practices (SARPs) for satellite-based augmentation systems (SBAS) such as WAAS. Japan, India, and Europe are building similar systems: EGNOS, the European Geostationary Navigation Overlay System; India’s GPS and Geo-Augmented Navigation (GAGAN) system; and Japan’s Multi-functional Transport Satellite (MT-SAT)-based Satellite Augmentation System (MSAS). The merging of these systems will create an expansive navigation capability similar to GPS, but with greater accuracy, availability, and integrity.

3. Unlike traditional ground-based navigation aids, WAAS will cover a more extensive service area. Precisely surveyed wide-area reference stations (WRS) are linked to form the U.S. WAAS network. Signals from the GPS satellites are monitored by these WRSs to determine satellite clock and ephemeris corrections and to model the propagation effects of the ionosphere. Each station in the network relays the data to a wide-area master station (WMS) where the correction information is computed. A correction message is prepared and uplinked to a geostationary earth orbit satellite (GEO) via a GEO uplink subsystem (GUS) which is located at the ground earth station (GES). The message is then broadcast on the same frequency as GPS (L1, 1575.42 MHz) to WAAS receivers within the broadcast coverage area of the WAAS GEO.

4. In addition to providing the correction signal, the WAAS GEO provides an additional pseudorange measurement to the aircraft receiver, improving the availability of GPS by providing, in effect, an additional GPS satellite in view. The integrity of GPS is improved through real-time monitoring, and the accuracy is improved by providing differential corrections to reduce errors. The performance improvement is sufficient to enable approach procedures with GPS/WAAS glide paths (vertical guidance).

5. The FAA has completed installation of 3 GEO satellite links, 38 WRSs, 3 WMSs, 6 GES, and the required terrestrial communications to support the WAAS network including 2 operational control centers. Prior to the commissioning of the WAAS for public use, the FAA conducted a series of test and validation activities. Future dual frequency operations are planned.

6. GNSS navigation, including GPS and WAAS, is referenced to the WGS–84 coordinate system. It should only be used where the Aeronautical Information Publications (including electronic data and aeronautical charts) conform to WGS–84 or equivalent. Other countries’ civil aviation authorities may impose additional limitations on the use of their SBAS systems.

b. Instrument Approach Capabilities

1. A class of approach procedures which provide vertical guidance, but which do not meet the ICAO Annex 10 requirements for precision approaches has been developed to support satellite navigation use for aviation applications worldwide. These procedures are not precision and are referred to as Approach with Vertical Guidance (APV), are defined in ICAO Annex 6, and include approaches such as the LNAV/VNAV and localizer performance with vertical guidance (LPV). These approaches provide vertical guidance, but do not meet the more stringent standards of a precision approach. Properly certified WAAS receivers will be able to fly to LPV minima and LNAV/VNAV minima, using a WAAS electronic glide path, which eliminates the errors that can be introduced by using Barometric altimetry.

2. LPV minima takes advantage of the high accuracy guidance and increased integrity provided by WAAS. This WAAS generated angular guidance allows the use of the same TERPS approach criteria used for ILS approaches. LPV minima may have a decision altitude as low as 200 feet height above touchdown with visibility minimums as low as 1/2 mile, when the terrain and airport infrastructure support the lowest minima. LPV minima is published on the RNAV (GPS) approach charts (see Paragraph 5–4–5, Instrument Approach Procedure Charts).
3. A different WAAS-based line of minima, called Localizer Performance (LP), is being added in locations where the terrain or obstructions do not allow publication of vertically guided LPV minima. LP takes advantage of the angular lateral guidance and smaller position errors provided by WAAS to provide a lateral only procedure similar to an ILS Localizer. LP procedures may provide lower minima than a LNAV procedure due to the narrower obstacle clearance surface.

NOTE—WAAAS receivers certified prior to TSO–C145b and TSO–C146b, even if they have LPV capability, do not contain LP capability unless the receiver has been upgraded. Receivers capable of flying LP procedures must contain a statement in the Aircraft Flight Manual (AFM), AFM Supplement, or Approved Supplemental Flight Manual stating that the receiver has LP capability, as well as the capability for the other WAAS and GPS approach procedure types.

4. WAAS provides a level of service that supports all phases of flight, including RNAV (GPS) approaches to LNAV, LP, LNAV/VNAV, and LPV lines of minima, within system coverage. Some locations close to the edge of the coverage may have a lower availability of vertical guidance.

c. General Requirements

1. WAAS avionics must be certified in accordance with Technical Standard Order (TSO) TSO–C145(), Airborne Navigation Sensors Using the (GPS) Augmented by the Wide Area Augmentation System (WAAS); or TSO–C146(), Stand–Alone Airborne Navigation Equipment Using the Global Positioning System (GPS) Augmented by the Wide Area Augmentation System (WAAS), and installed in accordance with Advisory Circular (AC) 20–138(), Airworthiness Approval of Positioning and Navigation Systems.

2. GPS/WAAS operation must be conducted in accordance with the FAA–approved aircraft flight manual (AFM) and flight manual supplements. Flight manual supplements will state the level of approach procedure that the receiver supports. IFR approved WAAS receivers support all GPS only operations as long as lateral capability at the appropriate level is functional. WAAS monitors both GPS and WAAS satellites and provides integrity.

3. GPS/WAAS equipment is inherently capable of supporting oceanic and remote operations if the operator obtains a fault detection and exclusion (FDE) prediction program.

4. Air carrier and commercial operators must meet the appropriate provisions of their approved operations specifications.

5. Prior to GPS/WAAS IFR operation, the pilot must review appropriate Notices to Airmen (NOTAMs) and aeronautical information. This information is available on request from a Flight Service Station. The FAA will provide NOTAMs to advise pilots of the status of the WAAS and level of service available.

(a) The term MAY NOT BE AVBL is used in conjunction with WAAS NOTAMs and indicates that due to ionospheric conditions, lateral guidance may still be available when vertical guidance is unavailable. Under certain conditions, both lateral and vertical guidance may be unavailable. This NOTAM language is an advisory to pilots indicating the expected level of WAAS service (LNAV/VNAV, LPV, LP) may not be available.

EXAMPLE–

/FDC FDC NAV WAAS VNAV/LPV/LP MINIMA MAY NOT BE AVBL 1306111330-1306141930EST

or

/FDC FDC NAV WAAS VNAV/LPV MINIMA NOT AVBL, WAAS LP MINIMA MAY NOT BE AVBL 1306021200-1306031200EST

WAAS MAY NOT BE AVBL NOTAMs are predictive in nature and published for flight planning purposes. Upon commencing an approach at locations NOTAMed WAAS MAY NOT BE AVBL, if the WAAS avionics indicate LNAV/VNAV or LPV service is available, then vertical guidance may be used to complete the approach using the displayed level of service. Should an outage occur during the approach, reversion to LNAV minima or an alternate instrument approach procedure may be required. When GPS testing NOTAMs are published and testing is actually occurring, Air Traffic Control will advise pilots requesting or cleared for a GPS or RNAV (GPS) approach that GPS may not be available and request intentions. If pilots have reported GPS anomalies, Air Traffic Control will request the pilot’s intentions and/or clear the pilot for an alternate approach, if available and operational.

(b) WAAS area-wide NOTAMs are originated when WAAS assets are out of service and impact the service area. Area–wide WAAS NOT AVAILABLE (AVBL) NOTAMs indicate loss or
malfunction of the WAAS system. In flight, Air Traffic Control will advise pilots requesting a GPS or RNAV (GPS) approach of WAAS NOT AVBL NOTAMs if not contained in the ATIS broadcast.

**EXAMPLE—**
For unscheduled loss of signal or service, an example NOTAM is: !FDC FDC NAV WAAS NOT AVBL 1311106000-1311191200EST.
For scheduled loss of signal or service, an example NOTAM is: !FDC FDC NAV WAAS NOT AVBL 1312041015-1312082000EST.

(e) Site–specific WAAS MAY NOT BE AVBL NOTAMs indicate an expected level of service; for example, LNAV/VNAV, LP, or LPV may not be available. Pilots must request site–specific WAAS NOTAMs during flight planning. In flight, Air Traffic Control will not advise pilots of WAAS MAY NOT BE AVBL NOTAMs.

**NOTE—**
Though currently unavailable, the FAA is updating its prediction tool software to provide this site-service in the future.

(d) Most of North America has redundant coverage by two or more geostationary satellites. One exception is the northern slope of Alaska. If there is a problem with the satellite providing coverage to this area, a NOTAM similar to the following example will be issued:

**EXAMPLE—**
!FDC 4/3060 (PAZA A0173/14) ZAN NAV WAAS SIGNAL MAY NOT BE AVBL NORTH OF LINE FROM 7000N15000W TO 6400N1640W. RMK WAAS USERS SHOULD CONFIRM RAIM AVAILABILITY FOR IFR OPERATIONS IN THIS AREA. T-ROUTES IN THIS SECTOR NOT AVBL. ANY REQUIRED ALTERNATE AIRPORT IN THIS AREA MUST HAVE AN APPROVED INSTRUMENT APPROACH PROCEDURE OTHER THAN GPS THAT IS ANTICIPATED TO BE OPERATIONAL AND AVAILABLE AT THE ESTIMATED TIME OF ARRIVAL AND WHICH THE AIRCRAFT IS EQUIPPED TO FLY. 1406030812-1406050812EST.

6. When GPS–testing NOTAMs are published and testing is actually occurring, Air Traffic Control will advise pilots requesting or cleared for a GPS or RNAV (GPS) approach that GPS may not be available and request intentions. If pilots have reported GPS anomalies, Air Traffic Control will request the pilot’s intentions and/or clear the pilot for an alternate approach, if available and operational.

**EXAMPLE—**
Here is an example of a GPS testing NOTAM:
!GPS 06/001 ZAB NAV GPS (INCLUDING WAAS, GBAS, AND ADS-B) MAY NOT BE AVAILABLE WITHIN A 468NM RADIUS CENTERED AT 330702N1062540W (TCS 093044) FL400-UNL DECREASING IN AREA WITH A DECREASE IN ALTITUDE DEFINED AS: 425NM RADIUS AT FL250, 360NM RADIUS AT 10000FT, 354NM RADIUS AT 4000FT AGL, 327NM RADIUS AT 50FT AGL. 1406070300-1406071200.

7. When the approach chart is annotated with the **W** symbol, site–specific WAAS MAY NOT BE AVBL NOTAMs or Air Traffic advisories are not provided for outages in WAAS LNAV/VNAV and LPV vertical service. Vertical outages may occur daily at these locations due to being close to the edge of WAAS system coverage. Use LNAV or circling minima for flight planning at these locations, whether as a destination or alternate. For flight operations at these locations, when the WAAS avionics indicate that LNAV/VNAV or LPV service is available, then the vertical guidance may be used to complete the approach using the displayed level of service. Should an outage occur during the procedure, reversion to LNAV minima may be required.

**NOTE—**
Area–wide WAAS NOT AVBL NOTAMs apply to all airports in the WAAS NOT AVBL area designated in the NOTAM, including approaches at airports where an approach chart is annotated with the **W** symbol.

8. GPS/WAAS was developed to be used within GEO coverage over North America without the need for other radio navigation equipment appropriate to the route of flight to be flown. Outside the WAAS coverage or in the event of a WAAS failure, GPS/WAAS equipment reverts to GPS–only operation and satisfies the requirements for basic GPS equipment. (See paragraph 1–1–17 for these requirements).

9. Unlike TSO–C129 avionics, which were certified as a supplement to other means of navigation, WAAS avionics are evaluated without reliance on other navigation systems. As such, installation of WAAS avionics does not require the aircraft to have other equipment appropriate to the route to be flown. (See paragraph 1–1–17d for more information on equipment requirements.)

**a** Pilots with WAAS receivers may flight plan to use any instrument approach procedure authorized for use with their WAAS avionics as the planned approach at a required alternate, with
the following restrictions. When using WAAS at an alternate airport, flight planning must be based on flying the RNAV (GPS) LNAV or circling minima line, or minima on a GPS approach procedure, or conventional approach procedure with “or GPS” in the title. Code of Federal Regulation (CFR) Part 91 non-precision weather requirements must be used for planning. Upon arrival at an alternate, when the WAAS navigation system indicates that LNAV/VNAV or LPV service is available, then vertical guidance may be used to complete the approach using the displayed level of service. The FAA has begun removing the ΔNA (Alternate Minimums Not Authorized) symbol from select RNAV (GPS) and GPS approach procedures so they may be used by approach approved WAAS receivers at alternate airports. Some approach procedures will still require the ΔNA for other reasons, such as no weather reporting, so it cannot be removed from all procedures. Since every procedure must be individually evaluated, removal of the ΔNA from RNAV (GPS) and GPS procedures will take some time.

**NOTE—** Properly trained and approved, as required, TSO-C145() and TSO-C146() equipped users (WAAS users) with and using approved baro-VNAV equipment may plan for LNAV/VNAV DA at an alternate airport. Specifically authorized WAAS users with and using approved baro-VNAV equipment may also plan for RNP 0.3 DA at the alternate airport as long as the pilot has verified RNP availability through an approved prediction program.

d. Flying Procedures with WAAS

1. WAAS receivers support all basic GPS approach functions and provide additional capabilities. One of the major improvements is the ability to generate glide path guidance, independent of ground equipment or barometric aiding. This eliminates several problems such as hot and cold temperature effects, incorrect altimeter setting, or lack of a local altimeter source. It also allows approach procedures to be built without the cost of installing ground stations at each airport or runway. Some approach certified receivers may only generate a glide path with performance similar to Baro−VNAV and are only approved to fly the LNAV/VNAV line of minima on the RNAV (GPS) approach charts. Receivers with additional capability (including faster update rates and smaller integrity limits) are approved to fly the LPV line of minima. The lateral integrity changes dramatically from the 0.3 NM (556 meter) limit for GPS, LNAV, and LNAV/VNAV approach mode, to 40 meters for LPV. It also provides vertical integrity monitoring, which bounds the vertical error to 50 meters for LNAV/VNAV and LPVs with minima of 250’ or above, and bounds the vertical error to 35 meters for LPVs with minima below 250’.

2. When an approach procedure is selected and active, the receiver will notify the pilot of the most accurate level of service supported by the combination of the WAAS signal, the receiver, and the selected approach, using the naming conventions on the minima lines of the selected approach procedure. For example, if an approach is published with LPV minima and the receiver is only certified for LNAV/VNAV, the equipment would indicate “LNAV/VNAV available,” even though the WAAS signal would support LPV. If flying an existing LNAV/VNAV procedure with no LPV minima, the receiver will notify the pilot “LNAV/VNAV available,” even though the WAAS signal supports LPV. If the signal does not support vertical guidance on procedures with LPV and/or LNAV/VNAV minima, the receiver announcement will read “LNAV available.” On lateral only procedures with LP and LNAV minima the receiver will indicate “LP available” or “LNAV available” based on the level of lateral service available. Once the level of service notification has been given, the receiver will operate in this mode for the duration of the approach procedure, unless that level of service becomes unavailable. The receiver cannot change back to a more accurate level of service until the next time an approach is activated.

**NOTE—** Receivers do not “fail down” to lower levels of service once the approach has been activated. If only the vertical off flag appears, the pilot may elect to use the LNAV minima if the rules under which the flight is operating allow changing the type of approach being flown after commencing the procedure. If the lateral integrity limit is exceeded on an LP approach, a missed approach will be necessary since there is no way to reset the lateral alarm limit while the approach is active.

3. Another additional feature of WAAS receivers is the ability to exclude a bad GPS signal and continue operating normally. This is normally accomplished by the WAAS correction information. Outside WAAS coverage or when WAAS is not available, it is accomplished through a receiver algorithm called FDE. In most cases this operation will be invisible to the pilot since the receiver will
continue to operate with other available satellites after excluding the “bad” signal. This capability increases the reliability of navigation.

4. Both lateral and vertical scaling for the LNAV/VNAV and LPV approach procedures are different than the linear scaling of basic GPS. When the complete published procedure is flown, ±1 NM linear scaling is provided until two (2) NM prior to the FAF, where the sensitivity increases to be similar to the angular scaling of an ILS. There are two differences in the WAAS scaling and ILS: 1) on long final approach segments, the initial scaling will be ±0.3 NM to achieve equivalent performance to GPS (and better than ILS, which is less sensitive far from the runway); 2) close to the runway threshold, the scaling changes to linear instead of continuing to become more sensitive. The width of the final approach course is tailored so that the total width is usually 700 feet at the runway threshold. Since the origin point of the lateral splay for the angular portion of the final is not fixed due to antenna placement like localizer, the splay angle can remain fixed, making a consistent width of final for aircraft being vectored onto the final approach course on different length runways. When the complete published procedure is not flown, and instead the aircraft needs to capture the extended final approach course similar to ILS, the vector to final (VTF) mode is used. Under VTF, the scaling is linear at ±NM until the point where the ILS angular splay reaches a width of ±1 NM regardless of the distance from the FAWP.

5. The WAAS scaling is also different than GPS TSO–C129() in the initial portion of the missed approach. Two differences occur here. First, the scaling abruptly changes from the approach scaling to the missed approach scaling, at approximately the departure end of the runway or when the pilot selects missed approach guidance rather than ramping as GPS does. Second, when the first leg of the missed approach is a Track to Fix (TF) leg aligned within 3 degrees of the inbound course, the receiver will change to 0.3 NM linear sensitivity until the turn initiation point for the first waypoint in the missed approach procedure, at which time it will abruptly change to terminal (±1 NM) sensitivity. This allows the elimination of close in obstacles in the early part of the missed approach that may otherwise cause the DA to be raised.

6. There are two ways to select the final approach segment of an instrument approach. Most receivers use menus where the pilot selects the airport, the runway, the specific approach procedure and finally the IAF, there is also a channel number selection method. The pilot enters a unique 5–digit number provided on the approach chart, and the receiver recalls the matching final approach segment from the aircraft database. A list of information including the available IAFs is displayed and the pilot selects the appropriate IAF. The pilot should confirm that the correct final approach segment was loaded by cross checking the Approach ID, which is also provided on the approach chart.

7. The Along–Track Distance (ATD) during the final approach segment of an LNAV procedure (with a minimum descent altitude) will be to the MAWP. On LNAV/VNAV and LPV approaches to a decision altitude, there is no missed approach waypoint so the along–track distance is displayed to a point normally located at the runway threshold. In most cases, the MAWP for the LNAV approach is located on the runway threshold at the centerline, so these distances will be the same. This distance will always vary slightly from any ILS DME that may be present, since the ILS DME is located further down the runway. Initiation of the missed approach on the LNAV/ VNAV and LPV approaches is still based on reaching the decision altitude without any of the items listed in 14 CFR Section 91.175 being visible, and must not be delayed while waiting for the ATD to reach zero. The WAAS receiver, unlike a GPS receiver, will automatically sequence past the MAWP if the missed approach procedure has been designed for RNAV. The pilot may also select missed approach prior to the MAWP; however, navigation will continue to the MAWP prior to waypoint sequencing taking place.

1–1–19. Ground Based Augmentation System (GBAS) Landing System (GLS)

a. General

1. The GLS provides precision navigation guidance for exact alignment and descent of aircraft on approach to a runway. It provides differential augmentation to the Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS).

NOTE–

GBAS is the ICAO term for Local Area Augmentation System (LAAS).
2. LAAS was developed as an “ILS look-alike” system from the pilot perspective. LAAS is based on GPS signals augmented by ground equipment and has been developed to provide GLS precision approaches similar to ILS at airfields.

3. GLS provides guidance similar to ILS approaches for the final approach segment; portions of the GLS approach prior to and after the final approach segment will be based on Area Navigation (RNAV) or Required Navigation Performance (RNP).

4. The equipment consists of a GBAS Ground Facility (GGF), four reference stations, a VHF Data Broadcast (VDB) uplink antenna, and an aircraft GBAS receiver.

b. Procedure

1. Pilots will select the five digit GBAS channel number of the associated approach within the Flight Management System (FMS) menu or manually select the five digits (system dependent). Selection of the GBAS channel number also tunes the VDB.

2. Following procedure selection, confirmation that the correct LAAS procedure is loaded can be accomplished by cross checking the charted Reference Path Indicator (RPI) or approach ID with the cockpit displayed RPI or audio identification of the RPI with Morse Code (for some systems).

3. The pilot will fly the GLS approach using the same techniques as an ILS, once selected and identified.

1–1–20. Precision Approach Systems other than ILS and GLS

a. General

Approval and use of precision approach systems other than ILS and GLS require the issuance of special instrument approach procedures.

b. Special Instrument Approach Procedure

1. Special instrument approach procedures must be issued to the aircraft operator if pilot training, aircraft equipment, and/or aircraft performance is different than published procedures. Special instrument approach procedures are not distributed for general public use. These procedures are issued to an aircraft operator when the conditions for operations approval are satisfied.

2. General aviation operators requesting approval for special procedures should contact the local Flight Standards District Office to obtain a letter of authorization. Air carrier operators requesting approval for use of special procedures should contact their Certificate Holding District Office for authorization through their Operations Specification.

c. Transponder Landing System (TLS)

1. The TLS is designed to provide approach guidance utilizing existing airborne ILS localizer, glide slope, and transponder equipment.

2. Ground equipment consists of a transponder interrogator, sensor arrays to detect lateral and vertical position, and ILS frequency transmitters. The TLS detects the aircraft’s position by interrogating its transponder. It then broadcasts ILS frequency signals to guide the aircraft along the desired approach path.

3. TLS instrument approach procedures are designated Special Instrument Approach Procedures. Special aircrew training is required. TLS ground equipment provides approach guidance for only one aircraft at a time. Even though the TLS signal is received using the ILS receiver, no fixed course or glideslope is generated. The concept of operation is very similar to an air traffic controller providing radar vectors, and just as with radar vectors, the guidance is valid only for the intended aircraft. The TLS ground equipment tracks one aircraft, based on its transponder code, and provides correction signals to course and glideslope based on the position of the tracked aircraft. Flying the TLS corrections computed for another aircraft will not provide guidance relative to the approach; therefore, aircrews must not use the TLS signal for navigation unless they have received approach clearance and completed the required coordination with the TLS ground equipment operator. Navigation fixes based on conventional NAVAIDs or GPS are provided in the special instrument approach procedure to allow aircrews to verify the TLS guidance.

d. Special Category I Differential GPS (SCAT–I DGPS)

1. The SCAT–I DGPS is designed to provide approach guidance by broadcasting differential correction to GPS.

2. SCAT–I DGPS procedures require aircraft equipment and pilot training.

3. Ground equipment consists of GPS receivers and a VHF digital radio transmitter. The SCAT–I
DGPS detects the position of GPS satellites relative to GPS receiver equipment and broadcasts differential corrections over the VHF digital radio.

4. Category I Ground Based Augmentation System (GBAS) will displace SCAT–I DGPS as the public use service.

REFERENCE:
Chapter 2. Aeronautical Lighting and Other Airport Visual Aids

Section 1. Airport Lighting Aids

2−1−1. Approach Light Systems (ALS)

a. ALS provide the basic means to transition from instrument flight to visual flight for landing. Operational requirements dictate the sophistication and configuration of the approach light system for a particular runway.

b. ALS are a configuration of signal lights starting at the landing threshold and extending into the approach area a distance of 2400−3000 feet for precision instrument runways and 1400−1500 feet for nonprecision instrument runways. Some systems include sequenced flashing lights which appear to the pilot as a ball of light traveling towards the runway at high speed (twice a second). (See FIG 2−1−1.)

2−1−2. Visual Glideslope Indicators

a. Visual Approach Slope Indicator (VASI)

1. VASI installations may consist of either 2, 4, 6, 12, or 16 light units arranged in bars referred to as near, middle, and far bars. Most VASI installations consist of 2 bars, near and far, and may consist of 2, 4, or 12 light units. Some VASIs consist of three bars, near, middle, and far, which provide an additional visual glide path to accommodate high cockpit aircraft. This installation may consist of either 6 or 16 light units. VASI installations consisting of 2, 4, or 6 light units are located on one side of the runway, usually the left. Where the installation consists of 12 or 16 light units, the units are located on both sides of the runway.

2. Two−bar VASI installations provide one visual glide path which is normally set at 3 degrees. Three−bar VASI installations provide two visual glide paths. The lower glide path is provided by the near and middle bars and is normally set at 3 degrees

while the upper glide path, provided by the middle and far bars, is normally $\frac{1}{4}$ degree higher. This higher glide path is intended for use only by high cockpit aircraft to provide a sufficient threshold crossing height. Although normal glide path angles are three degrees, angles at some locations may be as high as 4.5 degrees to give proper obstacle clearance. Pilots of high performance aircraft are cautioned that use of VASI angles in excess of 3.5 degrees may cause an increase in runway length required for landing and rollout.

3. The basic principle of the VASI is that of color differentiation between red and white. Each light unit projects a beam of light having a white segment in the upper part of the beam and red segment in the lower part of the beam. The light units are arranged so that the pilot using the VASIs during an approach will see the combination of lights shown below.

4. The VASI is a system of lights so arranged to provide visual descent guidance information during the approach to a runway. These lights are visible from 3−5 miles during the day and up to 20 miles or more at night. The visual glide path of the VASI provides safe obstruction clearance within plus or minus 10 degrees of the extended runway centerline and to 4 NM from the runway threshold. Descent, using the VASI, should not be initiated until the aircraft is visually aligned with the runway. Lateral course guidance is provided by the runway or runway lights. In certain circumstances, the safe obstruction clearance area may be reduced by narrowing the beam width or shortening the usable distance due to local limitations, or the VASI may be offset from the extended runway centerline. This will be noted in the Airport/ Facility Directory and/or applicable notices to airmen (NOTAM).
**NOTE**—
*Civil ALSF–2 may be operated as SSALR during favorable weather conditions.*
5. For 2–bar VASI (4 light units) see FIG 2–1–2.

![FIG 2–1–2](image)

2–Bar VASI

- Far Bar
- Near Bar

Below Glide Path
On Glide Path
Above Glide Path

abar = Red
- = White

6. For 3–bar VASI (6 light units) see FIG 2–1–3.

![FIG 2–1–3](image)

3–Bar VASI

- Far Bar
- Middle Bar
- Near Bar

Below Both Glide Paths
On Lower Glide Path
On Upper Glide Path
Above Both Glide Paths

7. For other VASI configurations see FIG 2–1–4.

![FIG 2–1–4](image)

VASI Variations

- 2 Bar
- 2 Light Units
- On Glide Path
- 2 Bar
- 12 Light Units
- On Glide Path
- 3 Bar
- 16 Light Units
- on Lower Glide Path
b. **Precision Approach Path Indicator (PAPI).**

The precision approach path indicator (PAPI) uses light units similar to the VASI but are installed in a single row of either two or four light units. These lights are visible from about 5 miles during the day and up to 20 miles at night. The visual glide path of the PAPI typically provides safe obstruction clearance within plus or minus 10 degrees of the extended runway centerline and to 4 SM from the runway threshold. Descent, using the PAPI, should not be initiated until the aircraft is visually aligned with the runway. The row of light units is normally installed on the left side of the runway and the glide path indications are as depicted. Lateral course guidance is provided by the runway or runway lights. In certain circumstances, the safe obstruction clearance area may be reduced by narrowing the beam width or shortening the usable distance due to local limitations, or the PAPI may be offset from the extended runway centerline. This will be noted in the Airport/Facility Directory and/or applicable NOTAMs. (See FIG 2–1–5.)

**FIG 2–1–5**

**Precision Approach Path Indicator (PAPI)**

![PAPI Diagram](image1)

**FIG 2–1–6**

**Tri–Color Visual Approach Slope Indicator**

![Tri–Color VASI Diagram](image2)

**c. Tri–color Systems.** Tri–color visual approach slope indicators normally consist of a single light unit projecting a three–color visual approach path into the final approach area of the runway upon which the indicator is installed. The below glide path indication is red, the above glide path indication is amber, and the on glide path indication is green. These types of indicators have a useful range of approximately one–half to one mile during the day and up to five miles at night depending upon the visibility conditions. (See FIG 2–1–6.)

**NOTE—**

1. Since the tri–color VASI consists of a single light source which could possibly be confused with other light sources, pilots should exercise care to properly locate and identify the light signal.
2. When the aircraft descends from green to red, the pilot may see a dark amber color during the transition from green to red.

*FIG 2–1–7*

Pulsating Visual Approach Slope Indicator

**NOTE—**

Since the PVASI consists of a single light source which could possibly be confused with other light sources, pilots should exercise care to properly locate and identify the light signal.

*FIG 2–1–8*

Alignment of Elements

**d. Pulsating Systems.** Pulsating visual approach slope indicators normally consist of a single light unit projecting a two-color visual approach path into the final approach area of the runway upon which the indicator is installed. The on glide path indication is a steady white light. The slightly below glide path indication is a steady red light. If the aircraft descends further below the glide path, the red light starts to pulsate. The above glide path indication is a pulsating white light. The pulsating rate increases as the aircraft gets further above or below the desired glide slope. The useful range of the system is about four miles during the day and up to ten miles at night. (See FIG 2–1–7.)

**e. Alignment of Elements Systems.** Alignment of elements systems are installed on some small general aviation airports and are a low-cost system consisting of painted plywood panels, normally black and white or fluorescent orange. Some of these systems are lighted for night use. The useful range of these systems is approximately three-quarter miles.
To use the system the pilot positions the aircraft so the elements are in alignment. The glide path indications are shown in FIG 2–1–8.

2–1–3. Runway End Identifier Lights (REIL)

REILs are installed at many airfields to provide rapid and positive identification of the approach end of a particular runway. The system consists of a pair of synchronized flashing lights located laterally on each side of the runway threshold. REILs may be either omnidirectional or unidirectional facing the approach area. They are effective for:

a. Identification of a runway surrounded by a preponderance of other lighting.

b. Identification of a runway which lacks contrast with surrounding terrain.

c. Identification of a runway during reduced visibility.

2–1–4. Runway Edge Light Systems

a. Runway edge lights are used to outline the edges of runways during periods of darkness or restricted visibility conditions. These light systems are classified according to the intensity or brightness they are capable of producing: they are the High Intensity Runway Lights (HIRL), Medium Intensity Runway Lights (MIRL), and the Low Intensity Runway Lights (LIRL). The HIRL and MIRL systems have variable intensity controls, whereas the LIRLs normally have one intensity setting.

b. The runway edge lights are white, except on instrument runways yellow replaces white on the last 2,000 feet or half the runway length, whichever is less, to form a caution zone for landings.

c. The lights marking the ends of the runway emit red light toward the runway to indicate the end of runway to a departing aircraft and emit green outward from the runway end to indicate the threshold to landing aircraft.

2–1–5. In–runway Lighting

a. Runway Centerline Lighting System (RCLS). Runway centerline lights are installed on some precision approach runways to facilitate landing under adverse visibility conditions. They are located along the runway centerline and are spaced at 50–foot intervals. When viewed from the landing threshold, the runway centerline lights are white until the last 3,000 feet of the runway. The white lights begin to alternate with red for the next 2,000 feet, and for the last 1,000 feet of the runway, all centerline lights are red.

b. Touchdown Zone Lights (TDZL). Touchdown zone lights are installed on some precision approach runways to indicate the touchdown zone when landing under adverse visibility conditions. They consist of two rows of transverse light bars disposed symmetrically about the runway centerline. The system consists of steady–burning white lights which start 100 feet beyond the landing threshold and extend to 3,000 feet beyond the landing threshold or to the midpoint of the runway, whichever is less.

c. Taxiway Centerline Lead–Off Lights. Taxiway centerline lead–off lights provide visual guidance to persons exiting the runway. They are color–coded to warn pilots and vehicle drivers that they are within the runway environment or instrument landing system (ILS) critical area, whichever is more restrictive. Alternate green and yellow lights are installed, beginning with green, from the runway centerline to one centerline light position beyond the runway holding position or ILS critical area holding position.

d. Taxiway Centerline Lead–On Lights. Taxiway centerline lead–on lights provide visual guidance to persons entering the runway. These “lead–on” lights are also color–coded with the same color pattern as lead–off lights to warn pilots and vehicle drivers that they are within the runway environment or instrument landing system (ILS) critical area, whichever is more conservative. The fixtures used for lead–on lights are bidirectional, i.e., one side emits light for the lead–on function while the other side emits light for the lead–off function. Any fixture that emits yellow light for the lead–off function must also emit yellow light for the lead–on function. (See FIG 2–1–14.)

e. Land and Hold Short Lights. Land and hold short lights are used to indicate the hold short point on certain runways which are approved for Land and Hold Short Operations (LAHSO). Land and hold short lights consist of a row of pulsing white lights installed across the runway at the hold short point. Where installed, the lights will be on anytime
LAHSO is in effect. These lights will be off when LAHSO is not in effect.

REFERENCE—
AIM, Pilot Responsibilities When Conducting Land and Hold Short Operations (LAHSO), Paragraph 4–3–11.

2–1–6. Runway Status Light (RWSL) System

a. Introduction.

RWSL is a fully automated system that provides runway status information to pilots and surface vehicle operators to clearly indicate when it is unsafe to enter, cross, takeoff from, or land on a runway. The RWSL system processes information from surveillance systems and activates Runway Entrance Lights (REL), Takeoff Hold Lights (THL), Runway Intersection Lights (RIL), and Final Approach Runway Occupancy Signal (FAROS) in accordance with the position and velocity of the detected surface traffic and approach traffic. REL, THL, and RIL are in-pavement light fixtures that are directly visible to pilots and surface vehicle operators. FAROS alerts arriving pilots that the approaching runway is occupied by flashing the Precision Approach Path Indicator (PAPI). FAROS may be implemented as an add-on to the RWSL system or implemented as a stand-alone system at airports without a RWSL system. RWSL is an independent safety enhancement that does not substitute for or convey an ATC clearance. Clearance to enter, cross, takeoff from, land on, or operate on a runway must still be received from ATC. Although ATC has limited control over the system, personnel do not directly use and may not be able to view light fixture activations and deactivations during the conduct of daily ATC operations.

b. Runway Entrance Lights (REL): The REL system is composed of flush mounted, in-pavement, unidirectional light fixtures that are parallel to and focused along the taxiway centerline and directed toward the pilot at the hold line. An array of REL lights include the first light at the hold line followed by a series of evenly spaced lights to the runway edge; one additional light at the runway centerline is in line with the last two lights before the runway edge (see FIG 2–1–9 and FIG 2–1–12). When activated, the red lights indicate that there is high speed traffic on the runway or there is an aircraft on final approach within the activation area.

1. REL Operating Characteristics – Departing Aircraft:

When a departing aircraft reaches a site adaptable speed of approximately 30 knots, all taxiway intersections with REL arrays along the runway ahead of the aircraft will illuminate (see FIG 2–1–9). As the aircraft approaches an REL equipped taxiway intersection, the lights at that intersection extinguish approximately 3 to 4 seconds before the aircraft reaches it. This allows controllers to apply “anticipated separation” to permit ATC to move traffic more expeditiously without compromising safety. After the aircraft is declared “airborne” by the system, all REL lights associated with this runway will extinguish.

2. REL Operating Characteristics – Arriving Aircraft:

When an aircraft on final approach is approximately 1 mile from the runway threshold, all sets of taxiway REL light arrays that intersect the runway illuminate. The distance is adjustable and can be configured for specific operations at particular airports. Lights extinguish at each equipped taxiway intersection approximately 3 to 4 seconds before the aircraft reaches it to apply anticipated separation until the aircraft has slowed to approximately 80 knots (site adjustable parameter). Below 80 knots, all arrays that are not within 30 seconds of the aircraft’s forward path are extinguished. Once the arriving aircraft slows to approximately 34 knots (site adjustable parameter), it is declared to be in a taxi state, and all lights extinguish.

3. What a pilot would observe: A pilot at or approaching the hold line to a runway will observe RELs illuminate and extinguish in reaction to an aircraft or vehicle operating on the runway, or an arriving aircraft operating less than 1 mile from the runway threshold.

4. When a pilot observes the red lights of the REL, that pilot will stop at the hold line or remain stopped. The pilot will then contact ATC for resolution if the clearance is in conflict with the lights. Should pilots note illuminated lights under circumstances when remaining clear of the runway is impractical for safety reasons (for example, aircraft is already on the runway), the crew should proceed according to their best judgment while understanding the illuminated lights indicate the runway is unsafe to
enter or cross. Contact ATC at the earliest possible opportunity.

\[ FIG \text{2–1–9} \]
**Runway Status Light System**

- **c.** Takeoff Hold Lights (THL): The THL system is composed of flush mounted, in-pavement, unidirectional light fixtures in a double longitudinal row aligned either side of the runway centerline lighting. Fixtures are focused toward the arrival end of the runway at the “line up and wait” point. THLs extend for 1,500 feet in front of the holding aircraft starting at a point 375 feet from the departure threshold (see FIG 2–1–9). Illuminated red lights provide a signal, to an aircraft in position for takeoff or rolling, that it is unsafe to takeoff because the runway is occupied or about to be occupied by another aircraft or ground vehicle. Two aircraft, or a surface vehicle and an aircraft, are required for the lights to illuminate. The departing aircraft must be in position for takeoff or beginning takeoff roll. Another aircraft or a surface vehicle must be on or about to cross the runway.

1. **THL Operating Characteristics – Departing Aircraft:**

   THLs will illuminate for an aircraft in position for departure or departing when there is another aircraft or vehicle on the runway or about to enter the runway (see FIG 2–1–9). Once that aircraft or vehicle exits the runway, the THLs extinguish. A pilot may notice lights extinguish prior to the downfield aircraft or vehicle being completely clear of the runway but still moving. Like RELs, THLs have an “anticipated separation” feature.

   **NOTE**—
   *When the THLs extinguish, this is not clearance to begin a takeoff roll. All takeoff clearances will be issued by ATC.*

2. **What a pilot would observe:** A pilot in position to depart from a runway, or has begun takeoff roll, will observe THLs illuminate in reaction to an aircraft or vehicle on the runway or entering or crossing it. Lights will extinguish when the runway is clear. A pilot may observe several cycles of illumination and extinguishing depending on the amount of crossing traffic.

3. **When a pilot observes the red light of the THLs, the pilot should safely stop if it’s feasible or remain stopped. The pilot must contact ATC for resolution if any clearance is in conflict with the lights. Should pilots note illuminated lights while in takeoff roll and under circumstances when stopping is impractical for safety reasons, the crew should
proceed according to their best judgment while understanding the illuminated lights indicate that continuing the takeoff is unsafe. Contact ATC at the earliest possible opportunity.

d. Runway Intersection Lights (RIL): The RIL system is composed of flush mounted, in-pavement, unidirectional light fixtures in a double longitudinal row aligned either side of the runway centerline lighting in the same manner as THLs. Their appearance to a pilot is similar to that of THLs. Fixtures are focused toward the arrival end of the runway, and they extend for 3,000 feet in front of an aircraft that is approaching an intersecting runway. They end at the Land and Hold Short Operation (LASHO) light bar or the hold short line for the intersecting runway.

1. RIL Operating Characteristics – Departing Aircraft:

RILs will illuminate for an aircraft departing or in position to depart when there is high speed traffic operating on the intersecting runway (see FIG 2−1−9). Note that there must be an aircraft or vehicle in a position to observe the RILs for them to illuminate. Once the conflicting traffic passes through the intersection, the RILs extinguish.

2. RIL Operating Characteristics – Arriving Aircraft:

RILs will illuminate for an aircraft that has landed and is rolling out when there is high speed traffic on the intersecting runway that is ±5 seconds of meeting at the intersection. Once the conflicting traffic passes through the intersection, the RILs extinguish.

3. What a pilot would observe: A pilot departing or arriving will observe RILs illuminate in reaction to the high speed traffic operation on the intersecting runway. The lights will extinguish when that traffic has passed through the runway intersection.

4. Whenever a pilot observes the red light of the RIL array, the pilot will stop before the LAHSO stop bar or the hold line for the intersecting runway. If a departing aircraft is already at high speed in the takeoff roll when the RILs illuminate, it may be impractical to stop for safety reasons. The crew should safely operate according to their best judgment while understanding the illuminated lights indicate that continuing the takeoff is unsafe. Contact ATC at the earliest possible opportunity.

e. The Final Approach Runway Occupancy Signal (FAROS) is communicated by flashing of the Precision Approach Path Indicator (PAPI) (see FIG 2-1-9). When activated, the light fixtures of the PAPI flash or pulse to indicate to the pilot on an approach that the runway is occupied and that it may be unsafe to land.

**NOTE**—
FAROS is an independent automatic alerting system that does not rely on ATC control or input.

1. FAROS Operating Characteristics:

If an aircraft or surface vehicle occupies a FAROS equipped runway, the PAPI(s) on that runway will flash. The glide path indication will not be affected, and the allotment of red and white PAPI lights observed by the pilot on approach will not change. The FAROS system will flash the PAPI when traffic enters the runway and there is an aircraft on approach and within 1.5 nautical miles of the landing threshold.

2. What a pilot would observe: A pilot on approach to the runway will observe the PAPI flash if there is traffic on the runway and will notice the PAPI ceases to flash when the traffic moves outside the hold short lines for the runway.

3. When a pilot observes a flashing PAPI at 500 feet above ground level (AGL), the contact height, the pilot must look for and acquire the traffic on the runway. At 300 feet AGL, the pilot must contact ATC for resolution if the FAROS indication is in conflict with the clearance. If the PAPI continues to flash, the pilot must execute an immediate “go around” and contact ATC at the earliest possible opportunity.

f. Pilot Actions:

1. When operating at airports with RWSL, pilots will operate with the transponder “On” when departing the gate or parking area until it is shutdown upon arrival at the gate or parking area. This ensures interaction with the FAA surveillance systems such as ASDE-X which provide information to the RWSL system.

2. Pilots must always inform the ATCT when they have either stopped, are verifying a landing clearance, or are executing a go-around due to RWSL or FAROS indication that are in conflict with ATC instructions. Pilots must request clarification of the taxi, takeoff, or landing clearance.
3. Never cross over illuminated red lights. Under normal circumstances, RWSL will confirm the pilot's taxi or takeoff clearance previously issued by ATC. If RWSL indicates that it is unsafe to takeoff from, land on, cross, or enter a runway, immediately notify ATC of the conflict and re-confirm the clearance.

4. Do not proceed when lights have extinguished without an ATC clearance. RWSL verifies an ATC clearance; it does not substitute for an ATC clearance.

5. Never land if PAPI continues to flash. Execute a go around and notify ATC.

g. ATC Control of RWSL System:

1. Controllers can set in-pavement lights to one of five (5) brightness levels to assure maximum conspicuity under all visibility and lighting conditions. REL, THL, and RIL subsystems may be independently set.

2. System lights can be disabled should RWSL operations impact the efficient movement of air traffic or contribute, in the opinion of the assigned ATC Manager, to unsafe operations. REL, THL, RIL, and FAROS light fixtures may be disabled separately. Disabling of the FAROS subsystem does not extinguish PAPI lights or impact its glide path function. Whenever the system or a component is disabled, a NOTAM must be issued, and the Automatic Terminal Information System (ATIS) must be updated.

2–1–7. Stand-Alone Final Approach Runway Occupancy Signal (FAROS)

a. Introduction:

The stand-alone FAROS system is a fully automated system that provides runway occupancy status to pilots on final approach to indicate whether it may be unsafe to land. When an aircraft or vehicle is detected on the runway, the Precision Approach Path Indicator (PAPI) light fixtures flash as a signal to indicate that the runway is occupied and that it may be unsafe to land. The stand-alone FAROS system is activated by localized or comprehensive sensors detecting aircraft or ground vehicles occupying activation zones.

The stand-alone FAROS system monitors specific areas of the runway, called activation zones, to determine the presence of aircraft or ground vehicles in the zone (see FIG 2–1–10). These activation zones are defined as areas on the runway that are frequently occupied by ground traffic during normal airport operations and could present a hazard to landing aircraft. Activation zones may include the full-length departure position, the midfield departure position, a frequently crossed intersection, or the entire runway.

Pilots can refer to the airport specific FAROS pilot information sheet for activation zone configuration.

![FIG 2–1–10](image)

FAROS Activation Zones

Clearance to land on a runway must be issued by Air Traffic Control (ATC). ATC personnel have limited control over the system and may not be able to view the FAROS signal.
EXAMPLE–
Low altitude alert Cessna Three Four Juliet, check your altitude immediately. And if the aircraft is not yet on final approach, the MVA (MEA/MIA/MOCA) in your area is six thousand.

2. Terminal Automated Radar Terminal System (ARTS) IIIA, Common ARTS (to include ARTS IIIIE and ARTS IIE) (CARTS), Micro En Route Automated Radar Tracking System (MEARTS), and Standard Terminal Automation Replacement System (STARS) facilities have an automated function which, if operating, alerts controllers when a tracked Mode C equipped aircraft under their control is below or is predicted to be below a predetermined minimum safe altitude. This function, called Minimum Safe Altitude Warning (MSAW), is designed solely as a controller aid in detecting potentially unsafe aircraft proximity to terrain/obstructions. The ARTS IIIA, CARTS, MEARTS, and STARS facility will, when MSAW is operating, provide MSAW monitoring for all aircraft with an operating Mode C altitude encoding transponder that are tracked by the system and are:

(a) Operating on an IFR flight plan; or
(b) Operating VFR and have requested MSAW monitoring.

3. Terminal AN/TPX–42A (number beacon decoder system) facilities have an automated function called Low Altitude Alert System (LAAS). Although not as sophisticated as MSAW, LAAS alerts the controller when a Mode C transponder equipped aircraft operating on an IFR flight plan is below a predetermined minimum safe altitude.

NOTE–
Pilots operating VFR may request MSAW or LAAS monitoring if their aircraft are equipped with Mode C transponders.

EXAMPLE–
Apache Three Three Papa request MSAW/LAAS.

b. Aircraft Conflict Alert.

1. Controllers will immediately issue an alert to the pilot of an aircraft under their control if they are aware of another aircraft which is not under their control, at an altitude which, in the controller’s judgment, places both aircraft in unsafe proximity to each other. With the alert, when feasible, the controller will offer the pilot the position of the traffic if time permits and an alternate course(s) of action. Any alternate course(s) of action the controller may recommend to the pilot will be predicated only on other traffic being worked by the controller.

EXAMPLE–
American Three, traffic alert, (position of traffic, if time permits), advise you turn right/left heading (degrees) and/or climb/descend to (altitude) immediately.

4–1–17. Radar Assistance to VFR Aircraft

a. Radar equipped FAA ATC facilities provide radar assistance and navigation service (vectors) to VFR aircraft provided the aircraft can communicate with the facility, are within radar coverage, and can be radar identified.

b. Pilots should clearly understand that authorization to proceed in accordance with such radar navigational assistance does not constitute authorization for the pilot to violate CFRs. In effect, assistance provided is on the basis that navigational guidance information issued is advisory in nature and the job of flying the aircraft safely, remains with the pilot.

c. In many cases, controllers will be unable to determine if flight into instrument conditions will result from their instructions. To avoid possible hazards resulting from being vectored into IFR conditions, pilots should keep controllers advised of the weather conditions in which they are operating and along the course ahead.

d. Radar navigation assistance (vectors) may be initiated by the controller when one of the following conditions exist:

1. The controller suggests the vector and the pilot concurs.
2. A special program has been established and vectoring service has been advertised.
3. In the controller’s judgment the vector is necessary for air safety.

e. Radar navigation assistance (vectors) and other radar derived information may be provided in response to pilot requests. Many factors, such as limitations of radar, volume of traffic, communications frequency, congestion, and controller workload could prevent the controller from providing it. Controllers have complete discretion for determining if they are able to provide the service in a particular case. Their decision not to provide the service in a particular case is not subject to question.
4–1–18. Terminal Radar Services for VFR Aircraft

a. Basic Radar Service:

1. In addition to the use of radar for the control of IFR aircraft, all commissioned radar facilities provide the following basic radar services for VFR aircraft:

   (a) Safety alerts.
   (b) Traffic advisories.
   (c) Limited radar vectoring (on a workload permitting basis).
   (d) Sequencing at locations where procedures have been established for this purpose and/or when covered by a Letter of Agreement.

NOTE—When the stage services were developed, two basic radar services (traffic advisories and limited vectoring) were identified as “Stage I.” This definition became unnecessary and the term “Stage I” was eliminated from use. The term “Stage II” has been eliminated in conjunction with the airspace reclassification, and sequencing services to locations with local procedures and/or letters of agreement to provide this service have been included in basic services to VFR aircraft. These basic services will still be provided by all terminal radar facilities whether they include Class B, Class C, Class D or Class E airspace. “Stage III” services have been replaced with “Class B” and “TRSA” service where applicable.

2. Vectoring service may be provided when requested by the pilot or with pilot concurrence when suggested by ATC.

3. Pilots of arriving aircraft should contact approach control on the publicized frequency and give their position, altitude, aircraft call sign, type aircraft, radar beacon code (if transponder equipped), destination, and request traffic information.

4. Approach control will issue wind and runway, except when the pilot states “have numbers” or this information is contained in the ATIS broadcast and the pilot states that the current ATIS information has been received. Traffic information is provided on a workload permitting basis. Approach control will specify the time or place at which the pilot is to contact the tower on local control frequency for further landing information. Radar service is automatically terminated and the aircraft need not be advised of termination when an arriving VFR aircraft receiving radar services to a tower–controlled airport where basic radar service is provided has landed, or to all other airports, is instructed to change to tower or advisory frequency. (See FAA Order JO 7110.65, Air Traffic Control, paragraph 5–1–13, Radar Service Termination.)

5. Sequencing for VFR aircraft is available at certain terminal locations (see locations listed in the Airport/Facility Directory). The purpose of the service is to adjust the flow of arriving VFR and IFR aircraft into the traffic pattern in a safe and orderly manner and to provide radar traffic information to departing VFR aircraft. Pilot participation is urged but is not mandatory. Traffic information is provided on a workload permitting basis. Standard radar separation between VFR or between VFR and IFR aircraft is not provided.

   (a) Pilots of arriving VFR aircraft should initiate radio contact on the publicized frequency with approach control when approximately 25 miles from the airport at which sequencing services are being provided. On initial contact by VFR aircraft, approach control will assume that sequencing service is requested. After radar contact is established, the pilot may use pilot navigation to enter the traffic pattern or, depending on traffic conditions, approach control may provide the pilot with routings or vectors necessary for proper sequencing with other participating VFR and IFR traffic en route to the airport. When a flight is positioned behind a preceding aircraft and the pilot reports having that aircraft in sight, the pilot will be instructed to follow the preceding aircraft. THE ATC INSTRUCTION TO FOLLOW THE PRECEDING AIRCRAFT DOES NOT AUTHORIZE THE PILOT TO COMPLY WITH ANY ATC CLEARANCE OR INSTRUCTION ISSUED TO THE PRECEDING AIRCRAFT. If other “nonparticipating” or “local” aircraft are in the traffic pattern, the tower will issue a landing sequence. If an arriving aircraft does not want radar service, the pilot should state “NEGATIVE RADAR SERVICE” or make a similar comment, on initial contact with approach control.

   (b) Pilots of departing VFR aircraft are encouraged to request radar traffic information by notifying ground control on initial contact with their request and proposed direction of flight.
Section 3. Airport Operations

4–3–1. General
Increased traffic congestion, aircraft in climb and descent attitudes, and pilot preoccupation with cockpit duties are some factors that increase the hazardous accident potential near the airport. The situation is further compounded when the weather is marginal, that is, just meeting VFR requirements. Pilots must be particularly alert when operating in the vicinity of an airport. This section defines some rules, practices, and procedures that pilots should be familiar with and adhere to for safe airport operations.

4–3–2. Airports with an Operating Control Tower

a. When operating at an airport where traffic control is being exercised by a control tower, pilots are required to maintain two−way radio contact with the tower while operating within the Class B, Class C, and Class D surface area unless the tower authorizes otherwise. Initial callup should be made about 15 miles from the airport. Unless there is a good reason to leave the tower frequency before exiting the Class B, Class C, and Class D surface areas, it is a good operating practice to remain on the tower frequency for the purpose of receiving traffic information. In the interest of reducing tower frequency congestion, pilots are reminded that it is not necessary to request permission to leave the tower frequency once outside of Class B, Class C, and Class D surface areas. Not all airports with an operating control tower will have Class D airspace. These airports do not have weather reporting which is a requirement for surface based controlled airspace, previously known as a control zone. The controlled airspace over these airports will normally begin at 700 feet or 1,200 feet above ground level and can be determined from the visual aeronautical charts. Pilots are expected to use good operating practices and communicate with the control tower as described in this section.

b. When necessary, the tower controller will issue clearances or other information for aircraft to generally follow the desired flight path (traffic patterns) when flying in Class B, Class C, and Class D surface areas and the proper taxi routes when operating on the ground. If not otherwise authorized or directed by the tower, pilots of fixed−wing aircraft approaching to land must circle the airport to the left. Pilots approaching to land in a helicopter must avoid the flow of fixed−wing traffic. However, in all instances, an appropriate clearance must be received from the tower before landing.

NOTE—This diagram is intended only to illustrate terminology used in identifying various components of a traffic pattern. It should not be used as a reference or guide on how to enter a traffic pattern.

FIG 4–3–1
Components of a Traffic Pattern

1. Upwind leg. A flight path parallel to the landing runway in the direction of landing.

2. Crosswind leg. A flight path at right angles to the landing runway off its takeoff end.

3. Downwind leg. A flight path parallel to the landing runway in the opposite direction of landing.

4. Base leg. A flight path at right angles to the landing runway off its approach end and extending from the downwind leg to the intersection of the extended runway centerline.

5. Final approach. A flight path in the direction of landing along the extended runway centerline from the base leg to the runway.

6. Departure leg. The flight path which begins after takeoff and continues straight ahead along the extended runway centerline. The departure climb continues until reaching a point at least 1/2 mile.
beyond the departure end of the runway and within 300 feet of the traffic pattern altitude.

d. Many towers are equipped with a tower radar display. The radar uses are intended to enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of the local control, or tower, position. They are not intended to provide radar services or benefits to pilots except as they may accrue through a more efficient tower operation. The four basic uses are:

1. To determine an aircraft’s exact location. This is accomplished by radar identifying the VFR aircraft through any of the techniques available to a radar position, such as having the aircraft squawk ident. Once identified, the aircraft’s position and spatial relationship to other aircraft can be quickly determined, and standard instructions regarding VFR operation in Class B, Class C, and Class D surface areas will be issued. Once initial radar identification of a VFR aircraft has been established and the appropriate instructions have been issued, radar monitoring may be discontinued; the reason being that the local controller’s primary means of surveillance in VFR conditions is visually scanning the airport and local area.

2. To provide radar traffic advisories. Radar traffic advisories may be provided to the extent that the local controller is able to monitor the radar display. Local control has primary control responsibilities to the aircraft operating on the runways, which will normally supersede radar monitoring duties.

3. To provide a direction or suggested heading. The local controller may provide pilots flying VFR with generalized instructions which will facilitate operations; e.g., “PROCEED SOUTH-WESTBOUND, ENTER A RIGHT DOWNWIND RUNWAY THREE ZERO,” or provide a suggested heading to establish radar identification or as an advisory aid to navigation; e.g., “SUGGESTED HEADING TWO TWO ZERO, FOR RADAR IDENTIFICATION.” In both cases, the instructions are advisory aids to the pilot flying VFR and are not radar vectors.

**NOTE—**Pilots have complete discretion regarding acceptance of the suggested headings or directions and have sole responsibility for seeing and avoiding other aircraft.

4. To provide information and instructions to aircraft operating within Class B, Class C, and Class D surface areas. In an example of this situation, the local controller would use the radar to advise a pilot on an extended downwind when to turn base leg.

**NOTE—**The above tower radar applications are intended to augment the standard functions of the local control position. There is no controller requirement to maintain constant radar identification. In fact, such a requirement could compromise the local controller’s ability to visually scan the airport and local area to meet FAA responsibilities to the aircraft operating on the runways and within the Class B, Class C, and Class D surface areas. Normally, pilots will not be advised of being in radar contact since that continued status cannot be guaranteed and since the purpose of the radar identification is not to establish a link for the provision of radar services.

e. A few of the radar equipped towers are authorized to use the radar to ensure separation between aircraft in specific situations, while still others may function as limited radar approach controls. The various radar uses are strictly a function of FAA operational need. The facilities may be indistinguishable to pilots since they are all referred to as tower and no publication lists the degree of radar use. **Therefore, when in communication with a tower controller who may have radar available, do not assume that constant radar monitoring and complete ATC radar services are being provided.**

4–3–3. Traffic Patterns

a. At most airports and military air bases, traffic pattern altitudes for propeller–driven aircraft generally extend from 600 feet to as high as 1,500 feet above the ground. Also, traffic pattern altitudes for military turbojet aircraft sometimes extend up to 2,500 feet above the ground. Therefore, pilots of en route aircraft should be constantly on the alert for other aircraft in traffic patterns and avoid these areas whenever possible. Traffic pattern altitudes should be maintained unless otherwise required by the applicable distance from cloud criteria (14 CFR Section 91.155). (See FIG 4–3–2 and FIG 4–3–3.) Unless otherwise indicated, all turns in the traffic pattern should be made to the left. On Sectional Aeronautical and VFR Terminal Area Charts, right traffic patterns are indicated at public-use and joint-use airports by the abbreviation “RP” (for Right Pattern), followed by the appropriate runway number(s), at the bottom of the airport data block.
EXAMPLE–
RP 9, 18, 22R

NOTE–
1. RP* indicates special conditions exist and refers pilots to the Airport/Facility Directory.
2. Right traffic patterns are not shown at airports with full-time control towers.

b. Wind conditions affect all airplanes in varying degrees. Figure 4-3-4 is an example of a chart used to determine the headwind, crosswind, and tailwind components based on wind direction and velocity relative to the runway. Pilots should refer to similar information provided by the aircraft manufacturer when determining these wind components.

**FIG 4-3-2**
Traffic Pattern Operations
Single Runway

EXAMPLE–
Key to traffic pattern operations

1. Enter pattern in level flight, abeam the midpoint of the runway, at pattern altitude. (1,000’ AGL is recommended pattern altitude unless established otherwise. . .)

2. Maintain pattern altitude until abeam approach end of the landing runway on downwind leg.

3. Complete turn to final at least 1/4 mile from the runway.

4. Continue straight ahead until beyond departure end of runway.

5. If remaining in the traffic pattern, commence turn to crosswind leg beyond the departure end of the runway within 300 feet of pattern altitude.

6. If departing the traffic pattern, continue straight out, or exit with a 45 degree turn (to the left when in a left-hand traffic pattern; to the right when in a right-hand traffic pattern) beyond the departure end of the runway, after reaching pattern altitude.
EXAMPLE—
Key to traffic pattern operations

1. Enter pattern in level flight, abeam the midpoint of the runway, at pattern altitude. (1,000’ AGL is recommended pattern altitude unless established otherwise.)

2. Maintain pattern altitude until abeam approach end of the landing runway on downwind leg.

3. Complete turn to final at least $\frac{1}{4}$ mile from the runway.

4. Continue straight ahead until beyond departure end of runway.

5. If remaining in the traffic pattern, commence turn to crosswind leg beyond the departure end of the runway within 300 feet of pattern altitude.

6. If departing the traffic pattern, continue straight out, or exit with a 45 degree turn (to the left when in a left-hand traffic pattern; to the right when in a right-hand traffic pattern) beyond the departure end of the runway, after reaching pattern altitude.

7. Do not overshoot final or continue on a track which will penetrate the final approach of the parallel runway.

8. Do not continue on a track which will penetrate the departure path of the parallel runway.
b. Although the traffic signal light offers the advantage that some control may be exercised over nonradio equipped aircraft, pilots should be cognizant of the disadvantages which are:

1. Pilots may not be looking at the control tower at the time a signal is directed toward their aircraft.

2. The directions transmitted by a light signal are very limited since only approval or disapproval of a pilot’s anticipated actions may be transmitted. No supplement or explanatory information may be transmitted except by the use of the “General Warning Signal” which advises the pilot to be on the alert.

c. Between sunset and sunrise, a pilot wishing to attract the attention of the control tower should turn on a landing light and taxi the aircraft into a position, clear of the active runway, so that light is visible to the tower. The landing light should remain on until appropriate signals are received from the tower.

d. Airport Traffic Control Tower Light Gun Signals. (See TBL 4–3–1.)

e. During daylight hours, acknowledge tower transmissions or light signals by moving the ailerons or rudder. At night, acknowledge by blinking the landing or navigation lights. If radio malfunction occurs after departing the parking area, watch the tower for light signals or monitor tower frequency.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Color and Type of Signal</th>
<th>Movement of Vehicles, Equipment and Personnel</th>
<th>Aircraft on the Ground</th>
<th>Aircraft in Flight</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Steady green</td>
<td>Cleared to cross, proceed or go</td>
<td>Cleared for takeoff</td>
<td>Cleared to land</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flashing green</td>
<td>Not applicable</td>
<td>Cleared for taxi</td>
<td>Return for landing (to be followed by steady green at the proper time)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steady red</td>
<td>STOP</td>
<td>STOP</td>
<td>Give way to other aircraft and continue circling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flashing red</td>
<td>Clear the taxiway/runway</td>
<td>Taxi clear of the runway in use</td>
<td>Airport unsafe, do not land</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flashing white</td>
<td>Return to starting point on airport</td>
<td>Return to starting point on airport</td>
<td>Not applicable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternating red and green</td>
<td>Exercise extreme caution</td>
<td>Exercise extreme caution</td>
<td>Exercise extreme caution</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4–3–14. Communications

a. Pilots of departing aircraft should communicate with the control tower on the appropriate ground control/clearance delivery frequency prior to starting engines to receive engine start time, taxi and/or clearance information. Unless otherwise advised by the tower, remain on that frequency during taxiing and runup, then change to local control frequency when ready to request takeoff clearance.

NOTE—Pilots are encouraged to monitor the local tower frequency as soon as practical consistent with other ATC requirements.

REFERENCE—AIM, Automatic Terminal Information Service (ATIS), Paragraph 4–1–13

b. The tower controller will consider that pilots of turbine-powered aircraft are ready for takeoff when they reach the runway or warm-up block unless advised otherwise.

c. The majority of ground control frequencies are in the 121.6–121.9 MHz bandwidth. Ground control frequencies are provided to eliminate frequency congestion on the tower (local control) frequency and are limited to communications between the tower and aircraft on the ground and between the tower and utility vehicles on the airport, provide a clear VHF channel for arriving and departing aircraft. They are used for issuance of taxi information, clearances, and other necessary contacts between the tower and aircraft or other vehicles operated on the airport. A pilot who has just landed should not change from the tower frequency to the ground control frequency until directed to do so by the controller. Normally, only one ground control frequency is assigned at an airport; however, at locations where the amount of traffic so warrants, a second ground control frequency and/or another frequency designated as a clearance delivery frequency, may be assigned.
d. A controller may omit the ground or local control frequency if the controller believes the pilot knows which frequency is in use. If the ground control frequency is in the 121 MHz bandwidth the controller may omit the numbers preceding the decimal point; e.g., 121.7, “CONTACT GROUND POINT SEVEN.” However, if any doubt exists as to what frequency is in use, the pilot should promptly request the controller to provide that information.

e. Controllers will normally avoid issuing a radio frequency change to helicopters, known to be single–piloted, which are hovering, air taxiing, or flying near the ground. At times, it may be necessary for pilots to alert ATC regarding single pilot operations to minimize delay of essential ATC communications. Whenever possible, ATC instructions will be relayed through the frequency being monitored until a frequency change can be accomplished. You must promptly advise ATC if you are unable to comply with a frequency change. Also, you should advise ATC if you must land to accomplish the frequency change unless it is clear the landing will have no impact on other air traffic; e.g., on a taxiway or in a helicopter operating area.

4–3–15. Gate Holding Due to Departure Delays

a. Pilots should contact ground control or clearance delivery prior to starting engines as gate hold procedures will be in effect whenever departure delays exceed or are anticipated to exceed 15 minutes. The sequence for departure will be maintained in accordance with initial call up unless modified by flow control restrictions. Pilots should monitor the ground control or clearance delivery frequency for engine startup advisories or new proposed start time if the delay changes.

b. The tower controller will consider that pilots of turbine–powered aircraft are ready for takeoff when they reach the runway or warm–up block unless advised otherwise.

4–3–16. VFR Flights in Terminal Areas

Use reasonable restraint in exercising the prerogative of VFR flight, especially in terminal areas. The weather minimums and distances from clouds are minimums. Giving yourself a greater margin in specific instances is just good judgment.

a. Approach Area. Conducting a VFR operation in a Class B, Class C, Class D, and Class E surface area when the official visibility is 3 or 4 miles is not prohibited, but good judgment would dictate that you keep out of the approach area.

b. Reduced Visibility. It has always been recognized that precipitation reduces forward visibility. Consequently, although again it may be perfectly legal to cancel your IFR flight plan at any time you can proceed VFR, it is good practice, when precipitation is occurring, to continue IFR operation into a terminal area until you are reasonably close to your destination.

c. Simulated Instrument Flights. In conducting simulated instrument flights, be sure that the weather is good enough to compensate for the restricted visibility of the safety pilot and your greater concentration on your flight instruments. Give yourself a little greater margin when your flight plan lies in or near a busy airway or close to an airport.

4–3–17. VFR Helicopter Operations at Controlled Airports

a. General.

1. The following ATC procedures and phraseologies recognize the unique capabilities of helicopters and were developed to improve service to all users. Helicopter design characteristics and user needs often require operations from movement areas and nonmovement areas within the airport boundary. In order for ATC to properly apply these procedures, it is essential that pilots familiarize themselves with the local operations and make it known to controllers when additional instructions are necessary.

2. Insofar as possible, helicopter operations will be instructed to avoid the flow of fixed–wing aircraft to minimize overall delays; however, there will be many situations where faster/larger helicopters may be integrated with fixed–wing aircraft for the benefit of all concerned. Examples would include IFR flights, avoidance of noise sensitive areas, or use of runways/taxiways to minimize the hazardous effects of rotor downwash in congested areas.

3. Because helicopter pilots are intimately familiar with the effects of rotor downwash, they are best qualified to determine if a given operation can be conducted safely. Accordingly, the pilot has the final authority with respect to the specific airspeed/altitude
Chapter 1. RNP 4 is addressed in Volume II, Part C; Chapter 1.

d. RNP 10 and RNP 4 Job Aids. Operators and authorities are encouraged to use the RNP 10 or RNP 4 Job Aids posted on the FAA Gulf of Mexico 50 NM Lateral Separation Initiative Web Page. For U.S. operators, one set of RNP 10 and RNP 4 Job Aids provides references to FAA documents. For international operators, a second set of Job Aids provide references to the ICAO PBN Manual. These Job Aids address the operational and airworthiness elements of aircraft and operator authorization and provide references to appropriate document paragraphs. The Job Aids provide a method for operators to develop and authorities to track the operator/aircraft program elements required for RNP 10 or RNP 4 authorization.

e. Qualification of Aircraft Equipped With a Single Long-Range Navigation System (S-LRNS) For RNP 10 Operations In GoMex CTA’s.

1. Background. S-LRNS operations in the Gulf of Mexico, the Caribbean Sea and the other designated areas have been conducted for at least 25 years. Provisions allowing aircraft equipage with a S-LRNS for operations in specified oceanic and off-shore areas are contained in the following sections of 14 Code of Federal Regulations (CFR): 91.511, 121.351, 125.203 and 135.165.

2. ICAO PBN Manual Reference. In reference to RNP 10 authorization, the ICAO PBN Manual, Volume II, Part B, Chapter 1, paragraph 1.3.6.2 states that: “A State authority may approve the use of a single LRNS in specific circumstances (e.g., North Atlantic MNPS and 14 CFR 121.351 (c) refer). An RNP 10 approval is still required.”

3. Policy Development. The FAA worked with the ICAO NACC Office (North American, Central American and Caribbean), State regulators and ATS providers in the GoMex and Caribbean areas to implement a policy for S-LRNS equipped aircraft to qualify for RNP 10 for GoMex operations. Allowing S-LRNS equipped aircraft to qualify for RNP 10 enables more operator aircraft to be authorized RNP 10, thereby creating a more uniform operating environment for the application of 50 NM lateral separation. The factors considered were: the shortness of the legs outside the range of ground navigation aids, the availability of radar and VHF coverage in a large portion of GoMex airspace and the absence of events attributed to S-LRNS in GoMex operations.

4. Document Revision. The following documents were revised or created to enable implementation of the S-LRNS/RNP 10 qualification policy:

   (a) FAA Order 8400.12
   (b) FAA Order 8900.1 (Flight Standards Information Management System (FSIMS))
   (c) Paragraph B054 of FAA Operations Specifications and Management Specifications (Class II Navigation Using Single Long-Range Navigation System)
   (d) LOA B054 (Class II Navigation Using Single Long-Range Navigation System (S-LRNS) Equipped Airplane Authorized RNP 10) (LOA’s are applicable to International General Aviation operators.)
   (e) FAA RNP 10 Job Aid with FAA Order 8400.12 references
   (f) RNP 10 Job Aid with ICAO PBN Manual references

5. S-LRNS/RNP 10 Authorization Limited To GoMex. At this time, S-LRNS qualification for RNP 10 only applies to GoMex operations. Any expansion of this provision will require assessment and agreement by the appropriate State authorities.

f. RNP 10 Time Limit for INS or IRU Only Equipped Aircraft. Operators should review their Airplane Flight Manual (AFM), AFM Supplement or other appropriate documents and/or contact the airplane or avionics manufacturer to determine the RNP 10 time limit applicable to their aircraft. They will then need to determine its effect, if any, on their operation. Unless otherwise approved, the basic RNP 10 time limit is 6.2 hours between position updates for aircraft on which Inertial Navigation Systems (INS) or Inertial Reference Units (IRU) provide the only source of long range navigation. Extended RNP 10 time limits of 10 hours and greater are already approved for many IRU systems. FAA Order 8400.12 contains provisions for extending RNP 10 time limits.
4–7–8. Flight Planning Requirements

Operators must make ICAO flight plan annotations in accordance with this paragraph and, if applicable, Paragraph 4–7–5, Provisions for Accommodation of NonRNP10 Aircraft (Aircraft Not Authorized RNP 10 or RNP 4).

a. ICAO Flight Plan Requirement. ICAO flight plans must be filed for operation on oceanic routes and areas in the Houston Oceanic CTA/FIR, the Gulf of Mexico portion of the Miami CTA/FIR, the Monterey CTA and Merida High CTA.

b. To inform ATC that they have obtained RNP 10 or RNP 4 authorization and are eligible for 50 NM lateral separation, operators must:

1. Annotate ICAO Flight Plan Item 10 (Equipment) with the letter “R” and

2. Annotate Item 18 (Other Information) with, as appropriate, “PBN/A1” (for RNP10) or “PBN/L1” (for RNP4).

NOTE—
1. See paragraph 4–7–8e. It provides recommended filing practices for domestic U.S. RNAV operations and filing with EUROCONTROL.
2. On the ICAO Flight Plan, the letter “R” in Item 10 indicates that the flight is authorized for PBN operations. Item 18 PBN/ indicates the types of PBN capabilities that are authorized.

c. 50 NM lateral separation will only be applied to operators/aircraft that annotate the ICAO flight plan in accordance with this policy. (See 4–7–8b.)

d. Operators that have not obtained RNP 10 or RNP 4 authorization must not annotate ICAO flight plan Item 18 (Other information) with “PBN/A1” or “PBN/L1”, but must follow the practices detailed in paragraph 4–7–5.

e. Recommendation for Filing to Show Domestic U.S. RNAV and Oceanic RNP Capabilities.

1. Explanation. The FAA program that allows operators to communicate their domestic U.S. RNAV capabilities to ATC. It is explained in paragraph 5–1–9b 8 items 18 (c) and 18 (d).

2. Recommendation. It is recommended that operators provide their PBN capability for oceanic operations by filing: “PBN/A1” (for RNP10) or “PBN/L1” (for RNP4). For domestic operations, operators should indicate their PBN capability per paragraph 5–1–9b 8 items 18 (c) and 18 (d).

3. Multiple NAV/ Entries. Operators should be aware that if they make multiple “NAV/” entries in a flight plan filed with EUROCONTROL, only the last “NAV/” entry will be forwarded to the next ATC facility. For example, if “NAV/RNVD1E2A1” and “NAV/RNP10” are entered, only “NAV/RNP10” will be forwarded. Multiple “NAV/” entries should, therefore, be consolidated following a single “NAV/” indicator.

4. Recommendation. Item 18 entries made in accordance with paragraph 4–7–8 e 2. above will limit the number of characters needed to show domestic U.S. RNAV and oceanic RNP capabilities and mitigate the chance that one or the other will not be forwarded for use by FAA domestic and oceanic automation systems.

f. Implementation of ICAO Doc 4444, Revised Appendix 2 (Flight Plan). ICAO Doc 4444, Amendment 1 revises Appendix 2 (Flight Plan). Specifically, Amendment 1 revises the flight plan annotations in Item 10 (Equipment) and Item 18 (Other Information) that show aircraft communications, navigation and surveillance capabilities. The new Appendix 2 flight plan annotations will be required on 15 November 2012. The following Websites provide information on implementation planning:


4–7–9. Pilot and Dispatcher Procedures:
Basic and In-flight Contingency Procedures

a. Basic Pilot Procedures. The RNP 10 and RNP 4 Job Aids contain references to pilot and, if applicable, dispatcher procedures contained in:

1. FAA Order 8400.12C (RNP 10), Appendix D (Training Programs and Operating Practices and Procedures)
2. FAA Order 8400.33 (RNP 4): Paragraph 9 (Operational Requirements) and Paragraph 10 (Training Programs, Operating Practices and Procedures)
### TBL 5–1–4
Aircraft COM, NAV, and Approach Equipment Qualifiers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSERT one letter as follows:</th>
<th></th>
<th>INSERT one or more of the following letters to indicate the COM/NAV/approach aid equipment available and serviceable:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| N if no COM/NAV/approach aid equipment for the route to be flown is carried, or the equipment is unserviceable, |   | **NOTE—** The capabilities described below comprise the following elements:  
  a. Presence of relevant serviceable equipment on board the aircraft.  
  b. Equipment and capabilities commensurate with flight crew qualifications.  
  c. Where applicable, authorization from the appropriate authority. |
| (OR) S if standard COM/NAV/approach aid equipment for the route to be flown is carried and serviceable (see Note 1), |   | **A** GBAS landing system | J6 CPDLC FANS 1/A SATCOM (MTSAT) |
| (AND/OR) |   | **B** LPV (APV with SBAS) | J7 CPDLC FANS 1/A SATCOM (Iridium) |
| |   | **C** LORAN C | L ILS |
| |   | **D** DME | M1 ATC RTF SATCOM (INMARSAT) |
| |   | **E1** FMC WPR ACARS | M2 ATC RTF (MTSAT) |
| |   | **E2** D-FIS ACARS | M3 ATC RTF (Iridium) |
| |   | **E3** PDC ACARS | O VOR |
| |   | **F** ADF | P1–P9 Reserved for RCP |
| |   | **G** (GNSS) – see Note 2 | R PBN approved - see Note 4 |
| |   | **H** Inertial navigation | T TACAN |
| |   | **I** HF RTF | U UHF RTF |
| |   | **J1** CPDLC ATN VDL Mode 2 – see Note 3 | V VHF RTF |
| |   | **J2** CPDLC FANS 1/A HFDL | W RVSM approved |
| |   | **J3** CPDLC FANS 1/A VDL Mode 4 | X MNPS approved |
| |   | **J4** CPDLC FANS 1/A VDL Mode 2 | Y VHF with 8.33 kHz channel spacing capability |
| |   | **J5** CPDLC FANS 1/A SATCOM (INMARSAT) | Z Other equipment carried or other capabilities - see Note 5 |

**NOTE—**
1. If the letter S is used, standard equipment is considered to be VHF RTF, VOR, and ILS within U.S. domestic airspace.
2. If the letter G is used, the types of external GNSS augmentation, if any, are specified in Item 18 following the indicator NAV/ and separated by a space.
3. See RTCA/EUROCAE Interoperability Requirements Standard For ATN Baseline 1 (ATN B1 INTEROP Standard – DO-280B/ED-110B) for data link services air traffic control clearance and information/air traffic control communications management/air traffic control microphone check.
4. If the letter R is used, the performance–based navigation levels that are authorized must be specified in Item 18 following the indicator PBN/. For further details, see Paragraph 5–1–9 b 8, Item 18 (c) and (d).
5. If the letter Z is used, specify in Item 18 the other equipment carried, preceded by COM/, DAT/, and/or NAV/, as appropriate.
6. Information on navigation capability is provided to ATC for clearance and routing purposes.
### Aircraft Surveillance Equipment, Including Designators for Transponder, ADS–B, ADS–C, and Capabilities

**INSERT** N if no surveillance equipment for the route to be flown is carried, or the equipment is unserviceable, **OR** **INSERT** one or more of the following descriptors, to a maximum of 20 characters, to describe the serviceable surveillance equipment and/or capabilities on board:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SSR Modes A and C</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A Transponder - Mode A (4 digits – 4096 codes)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C Transponder - Mode A (4 digits – 4096 codes) and Mode C</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SSR Mode S</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E Transponder - Mode S, including aircraft identification, pressure-altitude and extended squitter (ADS–B) capability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H Transponder - Mode S, including aircraft identification, pressure-altitude and enhanced surveillance capability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I Transponder - Mode S, including aircraft identification, but no pressure-altitude capability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L Transponder - Mode S, including aircraft identification, pressure-altitude, extended squitter (ADS–B) and enhanced surveillance capability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P Transponder - Mode S, including pressure-altitude, but no aircraft identification capability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S Transponder - Mode S, including both pressure-altitude and aircraft identification capability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X Transponder - Mode S with neither aircraft identification nor pressure-altitude capability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NOTE**– Enhanced surveillance capability is the ability of the aircraft to down-link aircraft derived data via a Mode S transponder.

**Followed by one or more of the following codes if the aircraft has ADS–B capability:**

| B1 | ADS–B with dedicated 1090 MHz ADS–B “out” capability |
| B2 | ADS–B with dedicated 1090 MHz ADS–B “out” and “in” capability |
| U1 | ADS–B “out” capability using UAT |
| U2 | ADS–B “out” and “in” capability using UAT |
| V1 | ADS–B “out” capability using VDL Mode 4 |
| V2 | ADS–B “out” and “in” capability using VDL Mode 4 |

**NOTE**– File no more than one code for each type of capability; for example, file B1 or B2, but not both.

**Followed by one or more of the following codes if the aircraft has ADS–C capability:**

| D1 | ADS–C with FANS 1/A capabilities |
| G1 | ADS–C with ATN capabilities |

**EXAMPLE**–

1. **SDGW/SB1U1** {VOR, ILS, VHF, DME, GNSS, RVSM, Mode S transponder, ADS–B 1090 Extended Squitter out, ADS–B UAT out}

2. **S/C** {VOR, ILS, VHF, Mode C transponder}
Departure Procedures

4. Obstacles that are located within 1 NM of the DER and penetrate the 40:1 OCS are referred to as “low, close-in obstacles.” The standard required obstacle clearance (ROC) of 48 feet per NM to clear these obstacles would require a climb gradient greater than 200 feet per NM for a very short distance, only until the aircraft was 200 feet above the DER. To eliminate publishing an excessive climb gradient, the obstacle AGL/MSL height and location relative to the DER is noted in the “Take-off Minimums and (OBSTACLE) Departure Procedures” section of a given Terminal Procedures Publication (TPP) booklet. The purpose of this note is to identify the obstacle(s) and alert the pilot to the height and location of the obstacle(s) so they can be avoided. This can be accomplished in a variety of ways, e.g., the pilot may be able to see the obstruction and maneuver around the obstacle(s) if necessary; early liftoff/climb performance may allow the aircraft to cross well above the obstacle(s); or if the obstacle(s) cannot be visually acquired during departure, preflight planning should take into account what turns or other maneuver may be necessary immediately after takeoff to avoid the obstruction(s).

5. Climb gradients greater than 200 FPNM are specified when required to support procedure design constraints, obstacle clearance, and/or airspace restrictions. Compliance with a climb gradient for these purposes is mandatory when the procedure is part of the ATC clearance, unless increased takeoff minimums are provided and weather conditions allow compliance with these minimums. Additionally, ATC required crossing restrictions may also require climb gradients greater than 200 FPNM. These climb gradients may be amended or canceled at ATC’s discretion. Multiple ATC climb gradients are permitted. An ATC climb gradient will not be used on an ODP.

EXAMPLE—
“Cross ALPHA intersection at or below 4000; maintain 6000.” The pilot climbs at least 200 FPNM to 6000. If 4000 is reached before ALPHA, the pilot levels off at 4000 until passing ALPHA; then immediately resumes at least 200 FPNM climb.

EXAMPLE—
“TAKEOFF MINIMUMS: RWY 27, Standard with a minimum climb of 280’ per NM to 2500, ATC climb of 310’ per NM to 4000 ft.” A climb of at least 280 FPNM is required to 2500 and is mandatory when the departure procedure is

NOTE—
ODPs are normally designed to terminate within these distance limitations, however, some ODPs will contain routes that may exceed 25/46 NM; these routes will ensure obstacle protection until reaching the end of the ODP.
Included in the ATC clearance. ATC requires a climb gradient of 310 FPNM to 4000, however, this ATC climb gradient may be amended or canceled.

6. Climb gradients may be specified only to an altitude/fix, above which the normal gradient applies.

**EXAMPLE**—
“Minimum climb 340 FPNM to ALPHΑ.” The pilot climbs at least 340 FPNM to ALPHΑ, then at least 200 FPNM to MIA.

7. Some DPs established solely for obstacle avoidance require a climb in visual conditions to cross the airport or an on-airport NAVAID in a specified direction, at or above a specified altitude. These procedures are called Visual Climb Over the Airport (VCOA).

**EXAMPLE**—
“Climb in visual conditions so as to cross the McElory Airport southbound, at or above 6000, then climb via Keemmling radial zero three three to Keemmling VOR-TAC.”

c. Who is responsible for obstacle clearance? DPs are designed so that adherence to the procedure by the pilot will ensure obstacle protection. Additionally:

1. Obstacle clearance responsibility also rests with the pilot when he/she chooses to climb in visual conditions in lieu of flying a DP and/or depart under increased takeoff minima rather than fly the climb gradient. Standard takeoff minima are one statute mile for aircraft having two engines or less and one-half statute mile for aircraft having more than two engines. Specified ceiling and visibility minima (VCOA or increased takeoff minima) will allow visual avoidance of obstacles until the pilot enters the standard obstacle protection area. Obstacle avoidance is not guaranteed if the pilot maneuvers farther from the airport than the specified visibility minimum prior to reaching the specified altitude. DPs may also contain what are called Low Close in Obstacles. These obstacles are less than 200 feet above the departure end of runway elevation and within one NM of the runway end, and do not require increased takeoff minima. These obstacles are identified on the SID chart or in the Takeoff Minimums and (Obstacle) Departure Procedures section of the U.S. Terminal Procedure booklet. These obstacles are especially critical to aircraft that do not lift off until close to the departure end of the runway or which climb at the minimum rate. Pilots should also consider drift following lift-off to ensure sufficient clearance from these obstacles. That segment of the procedure that requires the pilot to see and avoid obstacles ends when the aircraft crosses the specified point at the required altitude. In all cases continued obstacle clearance is based on having climbed a minimum of 200 feet per nautical mile to the specified point and then continuing to climb at least 200 foot per nautical mile during the departure until reaching the minimum enroute altitude, unless specified otherwise.

2. ATC may assume responsibility for obstacle clearance by vectoring the aircraft prior to reaching the minimum vectoring altitude by using a Diverse Vector Area (DVA). The DVA may be established below the Minimum Vectoring Altitude (MVA) or Minimum IFR Altitude (MIA) in a radar environment at the request of Air Traffic. This type of DP meets the TERPS criteria for diverse departures, obstacles, and terrain avoidance in which random radar vectors below the MVA/MIA may be issued to departing aircraft. The DVA has been assessed for departures which do not follow a specific ground track, but will remain within the specified area.

(a) The existence of a DVA will be noted in the Takeoff Minimums and Obstacle Departure Procedure section of the U.S. Terminal Procedures Publication (TPP). The Takeoff Departure procedure will be listed first, followed by any applicable DVA.

**EXAMPLE**—
**DIVERSE VECTOR AREA (RADAR VECTORS)**
AMDT 1 14289 (FAA)

- **Rwy 6R**, headings as assigned by ATC; requires minimum climb of 290’ per NM to 400.

(b) Pilots should be aware that Air Traffic facilities may utilize a climb gradient greater than the standard 200 FPNM in a DVA. This information will be identified in the DVA text for pilot evaluation against the aircraft’s available climb performance. Pilots should note that the DVA has been assessed for departures which do not follow a specific ground track. ATC may also vector an aircraft off a previously assigned DP. In all cases, the minimum 200 FPNM climb gradient is assumed unless a higher climb gradient is specified on the departure, and obstacle clearance is not provided by ATC until the controller begins to provide navigational guidance in the form of radar vectors.
NOTE—
As is always the case, when used by the controller during departure, the term “radar contact” should not be interpreted as relieving pilots of their responsibility to maintain appropriate terrain and obstruction clearance which may include flying the obstacle DP.

3. Pilots must preplan to determine if the aircraft can meet the climb gradient (expressed in feet per nautical mile) required by the departure procedure, and be aware that flying at a higher than anticipated ground speed increases the climb rate requirement in feet per minute. Higher than standard climb gradients are specified by a note on the departure procedure chart for graphic DPs, or in the Take−Off Minimums and (Obstacle) Departure Procedures section of the U.S. Terminal Procedures booklet for textual ODPs. The required climb gradient, or higher, must be maintained to the specified altitude or fix, then the standard climb gradient of 200 ft/NM can be resumed. A table for the conversion of climb gradient (feet per nautical mile) to climb rate (feet per minute), at a given ground speed, is included on the inside of the back cover of the U.S. Terminal Procedures booklets.

d. Where are DPs located? DPs will be listed by airport in the IFR Takeoff Minimums and (Obstacle) Departure Procedures Section, Section L, of the Terminal Procedures Publications (TPPs). If the DP is textual, it will be described in TPP Section L. SIDs and complex ODPs will be published graphically and named. The name will be listed by airport name and runway in Section L. Graphic ODPs will also have the term “(OBSTACLE)” printed in the charted procedure title, differentiating them from SIDs.

1. An ODP that has been developed solely for obstacle avoidance will be indicated with the symbol “T” on appropriate Instrument Approach Procedure (IAP) charts and DP charts for that airport. The “T” symbol will continue to refer users to TPP Section C. In the case of a graphic ODP, the TPP Section C will only contain the name of the ODP. Since there may be both a textual and a graphic DP, Section C should still be checked for additional information. The nonstandard takeoff minimums and minimum climb gradients found in TPP Section C also apply to charted DPs and radar vector departures unless different minimums are specified on the charted DP. Takeoff minimums and departure procedures apply to all runways unless otherwise specified. New graphic DPs will have all the information printed on the graphic depiction. As a general rule, ATC will only assign an ODP from a nontowered airport when compliance with the ODP is necessary for aircraft to aircraft separation. Pilots may use the ODP to help ensure separation from terrain and obstacles.

e. Responsibilities

1. Each pilot, prior to departing an airport on an IFR flight should:
   (a) Consider the type of terrain and other obstacles on or in the vicinity of the departure airport;
   (b) Determine whether an ODP is available;
   (c) Determine if obstacle avoidance can be maintained visually or if the ODP should be flown; and
   (d) Consider the effect of degraded climb performance and the actions to take in the event of an engine loss during the departure. Pilots should notify ATC as soon as possible of reduced climb capability in that circumstance.

NOTE—
Guidance concerning contingency procedures that address an engine failure on takeoff after \( V_1 \) speed on a large or turbine−powered transport category airplane may be found in AC 120−91, Airport Obstacle Analysis.

2. Pilots should not exceed a published speed restriction associated with a SID waypoint until passing that waypoint.

3. After an aircraft is established on an SID and subsequently vectored or cleared off of the SID or SID transition, pilots must consider the SID canceled, unless the controller adds “expect to resume SID;” pilots should then be prepared to rejoin the SID at a subsequent fix or procedure leg. ATC may also interrupt the vertical navigation of a SID and provide alternate altitude instructions while the aircraft remains established on the published lateral path. Aircraft may not be vectored off of an ODP or issued an altitude lower than a published altitude on an ODP until at or above the MVA/MIA, at which time the ODP is canceled.

4. Aircraft instructed to resume a procedure such as a DP or SID which contains speed and/or altitude restrictions, must be:
   (a) Issued/reissued all applicable restrictions, or
(b) Advised to comply with restrictions or resume published speed.

**EXAMPLE—**

“Resume the Solar One departure, comply with restrictions.”

“Proceed direct CIROS, resume the Solar One departure, comply with restrictions.”

5. A clearance for a SID which contains published altitude restrictions may be issued using the phraseology “climb via.” Climb via is an abbreviated clearance that requires compliance with the procedure lateral path, associated speed and altitude restrictions along the cleared route or procedure. Clearance to “climb via” authorizes the pilot to:

(a) When used in the IFR departure clearance, in a PDC, DCL or when cleared to a waypoint depicted on a SID, to join the procedure after departure or to resume the procedure.

(b) When vertical navigation is interrupted and an altitude is assigned to maintain which is not contained on the published procedure, to climb from that previously-assigned altitude at pilot’s discretion to the altitude depicted for the next waypoint.

(c) Once established on the depicted departure, to navigate laterally and climb to meet all published or assigned altitude and speed restrictions.

**NOTE—**

1. When otherwise cleared along a route or procedure that contains published speed restrictions, the pilot must comply with those speed restrictions independent of a climb via clearance.

2. ATC anticipates pilots will begin adjusting speed the minimum distance necessary prior to a published speed restriction so as to cross the waypoint/fix at the published speed. Once at the published speed ATC expects pilots will maintain the published speed until additional adjustment is required to comply with further published or ATC assigned speed restrictions or as required to ensure compliance with 14 CFR Section 91.117.

3. If ATC interrupts lateral/vertical navigation while an aircraft is flying a SID, ATC must ensure obstacle clearance. When issuing a “climb via” clearance to join or resume a procedure ATC must ensure obstacle clearance until the aircraft is established on the lateral and vertical path of the SID.

4. ATC will assign an altitude to cross if no altitude is depicted at a waypoint/fix or when otherwise necessary/required, for an aircraft on a direct route to a waypoint/fix where the SID will be joined or resumed.

5. SIDs will have a “top altitude;” the “top altitude” is the charted “maintain” altitude contained in the procedure description or assigned by ATC.

**REFERENCE—**

FAAJO 7110.65, Para 5-6-2, Methods PCG, Climb Via, Top Altitude

**EXAMPLE—**

1. **Lateral route clearance:**

   “Cleared Loop Six departure.”

**NOTE—**

The aircraft must comply with the SID lateral path, and any published speed restrictions.

2. **Routing with assigned altitude:**

   “Cleared Loop Six departure, climb and maintain four thousand.”

**NOTE—**

The aircraft must comply with the SID lateral path, and any published speed restriction while climbing unrestricted to four thousand.

3. (A pilot filed a flight plan to the Johnston Airport using the Scott One departure, Jonez transition, then Q-145. The pilot filed for FL350. The Scott One includes altitude restrictions, a top altitude and instructions to expect the filed altitude ten minutes after departure). Before departure ATC uses PDC, DCL or clearance delivery to issue the clearance:

   “Cleared to Johnston Airport, Scott One departure, Jonez transition, Q-OneForty-five. Climb via SID.”

**NOTE—**

In Example 3, the aircraft must comply with the Scott One departure lateral path and any published speed and altitude restrictions while climbing to the SID top altitude.

4. (Using the Example 3 flight plan, ATC determines the top altitude must be changed to FL180). The clearance will read:

   “Cleared to Johnston Airport, Scott One departure, Jonez transition, Q-One Forty-five, Climb via SID except maintain flight level one eight zero.”

**NOTE—**

In Example 4, the aircraft must comply with the Scott One departure lateral path and any published speed and altitude restrictions while climbing to FL180. The aircraft must stop climb at FL180 until issued further clearance by ATC.

5. (An aircraft was issued the Suzan Two departure, “climb via SID” in the IFR departure clearance. After departure ATC must change a waypoint crossing restriction). The clearance will be:

   “Climb via SID except cross Mkala at or above seven thousand.”

**NOTE—**

In Example 5, the aircraft will comply with the Suzan Two
departure lateral path and any published speed and altitude restrictions and climb so as to cross Mkala at or above 7,000; remainder of the departure must be flown as published.

6. (An aircraft was issued the Teddd One departure, “climb via SID” in the IFR departure clearance. An interim altitude of 10,000 was issued instead of the published top altitude of FL 230). After departure ATC is able to issue the published top altitude. The clearance will be:

“Climb via SID.”

NOTE–
In Example 6, the aircraft will track laterally and vertically on the Teddd One departure and initially climb to 10,000; Once re-issued the “climb via” clearance the interim altitude is canceled aircraft will continue climb to FL230 while complying with published restrictions.

7. (An aircraft was issued the Bbear Two departure, “climb via SID” in the IFR departure clearance. An interim altitude of 16,000 was issued instead of the published top altitude of FL 190). After departure, ATC is able to issue a top altitude of FL300 and still requires compliance with the published SID restrictions. The clearance will be:

“Climb via SID except maintain flight level three zero zero.”

NOTE–
In Example 7, the aircraft will track laterally and vertically on the Bbear Two departure and initially climb to 16,000; Once re-issued the “climb via” clearance the interim altitude is canceled and the aircraft will continue climb to FL300 while complying with published restrictions.

8. (An aircraft was issued the Bizee Two departure, “climb via SID.” After departure, ATC vectors the aircraft off of the SID, and then issues a direct routing to rejoin the SID at Rockr waypoint which does not have a published altitude restriction. ATC wants the aircraft to cross at or above 10,000). The clearance will read:

“Proceed direct Rockr, cross Rockr at or above one-zero thousand, climb via the Bizee Two departure.”

NOTE–
In Example 8, the aircraft will join the Bizee Two SID at Rockr at or above 10,000 and then comply with the published lateral path and any published speed or altitude restrictions while climbing to the SID top altitude.

9. (An aircraft was issued the Suzan Two departure, “climb via SID” in the IFR departure clearance. After departure ATC vectors the aircraft off of the SID, and then clears the aircraft to rejoin the SID at Dvine waypoint, which has a published crossing restriction). The clearance will read:

“Proceed direct Dvine, Climb via the Suzan Two departure.”

NOTE–
In Example 9, the aircraft will join the Suzan Two departure at Dvine, at the published altitude, and then comply with the published lateral path and any published speed or altitude restrictions.

6. Pilots cleared for vertical navigation using the phraseology “climb via” must inform ATC, upon initial contact, of the altitude leaving and any assigned restrictions not published on the procedure.

EXAMPLE–
1. (Cactus 711 is cleared to climb via the Laura Two departure. The Laura Two has a top altitude of FL190):

“Cactus Seven Eleven leaving two thousand, climbing via the Laura Two departure.”

2. (Cactus 711 is cleared to climb via the Laura Two departure, but ATC changed the top altitude to16,000):

“Cactus Seven Eleven leaving two thousand for one-six thousand, climbing via the Laura Two departure.”

7. If prior to or after takeoff an altitude restriction is issued by ATC, all previously issued “ATC” altitude restrictions are canceled including those published on a SID. Pilots must still comply with all speed restrictions and lateral path requirements published on the SID unless canceled by ATC.

EXAMPLE–
Prior to takeoff or after departure ATC issues an altitude change clearance to an aircraft cleared to climb via a SID but ATC no longer requires compliance with published altitude restrictions:

“Climb and maintain flight level two four zero.”

NOTE–
The published SID altitude restrictions are canceled: The aircraft should comply with the SID lateral path and begin an unrestricted climb to FL240. Compliance with published speed restrictions is still required unless specifically deleted by ATC.

8. Altitude restrictions published on an ODP are necessary for obstacle clearance and/or design constraints. Compliance with these restrictions is mandatory and CANNOT be lowered or cancelled by ATC.

f. RNAV Departure Procedures

All public RNAV SIDs and graphic ODPS are RNAV 1. These procedures generally start with an initial RNAV or heading leg near the departure end of runway (DER). In addition, these procedures require system performance currently met by GPS or DME/DME/IRU RNAV systems that satisfy the criteria
discussed in AC 90–100A, U.S. Terminal and En Route Area Navigation (RNAV) Operations. RNAV 1 procedures must maintain a total system error of not more than 1 NM for 95% of the total flight time.

REFERENCE—
AIM, Global Positioning System (GPS)
Paragraph 1–1–18l, Impact of magnetic Variation on RNAV Systems
segment of that IAP until the aircraft reaches the initial fix or navigation facility upon which the procedure turn is predicated.

**EXAMPLE**—
Cross Redding VOR at or above five thousand, cleared VOR runway three four approach.

or

Five miles from outer marker, turn right heading three three zero, maintain two thousand until established on the localizer, cleared ILS runway three six approach.

**NOTE**—
The altitude assigned will assure IFR obstruction clearance from the point at which the approach clearance is issued until established on a segment of a published route or IAP. If uncertain of the meaning of the clearance, immediately request clarification from ATC.

c. Several IAPs, using various navigation and approach aids may be authorized for an airport. ATC may advise that a particular approach procedure is being used, primarily to expedite traffic. If issued a clearance that specifies a particular approach procedure, notify ATC immediately if a different one is desired. In this event it may be necessary for ATC to withhold clearance for the different approach until such time as traffic conditions permit. However, a pilot involved in an emergency situation will be given priority. If the pilot is not familiar with the specific approach procedure, ATC should be advised and they will provide detailed information on the execution of the procedure.

**REFERENCE**—
AIM, Advance Information on Instrument Approach, Paragraph 5−4−4

d. The name of an instrument approach, as published, is used to identify the approach, even though a component of the approach aid, such as the glideslope on an Instrument Landing System, is inoperative or unreliable. The controller will use the name of the approach as published, but must advise the aircraft at the time an approach clearance is issued that the inoperative or unreliable approach aid component is unusable, except when the title of the published approach procedures otherwise allows, for example, ILS or LOC.

e. Except when being radar vectored to the final approach course, when cleared for a specifically prescribed IAP; i.e., “cleared ILS runway one niner approach” or when “cleared approach” i.e., execution of any procedure prescribed for the airport, pilots must execute the entire procedure commencing at an IAF or an associated feeder route as described on the IAP chart unless an appropriate new or revised ATC clearance is received, or the IFR flight plan is canceled.

f. Pilots planning flights to locations which are private airfields or which have instrument approach procedures based on private navigation aids should obtain approval from the owner. In addition, the pilot must be authorized by the FAA to fly special instrument approach procedures associated with private navigation aids (see paragraph 5−4−8). Owners of navigation aids that are not for public use may elect to turn off the signal for whatever reason they may have; e.g., maintenance, energy conservation, etc. Air traffic controllers are not required to question pilots to determine if they have permission to land at a private airfield or to use procedures based on privately owned navigation aids, and they may not know the status of the navigation aid. Controllers presume a pilot has obtained approval from the owner and the FAA for use of special instrument approach procedures and is aware of any details of the procedure if an IFR flight plan was filed to that airport.

g. Pilots should not rely on radar to identify a fix unless the fix is indicated as “RADAR” on the IAP. Pilots may request radar identification of an OM, but the controller may not be able to provide the service due either to workload or not having the fix on the video map.

h. If a missed approach is required, advise ATC and include the reason (unless initiated by ATC). Comply with the missed approach instructions for the instrument approach procedure being executed, unless otherwise directed by ATC.

**REFERENCE**—
AIM, Missed Approach, Paragraph 5−4−21
AIM, Missed Approach, Paragraph 5−5−5

**5−4−8. Special Instrument Approach Procedures**

Instrument Approach Procedure (IAP) charts reflect the criteria associated with the U.S. Standard for Terminal Instrument [Approach] Procedures (TERPs), which prescribes standardized methods for use in developing IAPs. Standard IAPs are published in the Federal Register (FR) in accordance with Title 14 of the Code of Federal Regulations, Part 97, and are available for use by appropriately qualified pilots operating properly equipped and airworthy aircraft in accordance with operating rules and
procedures acceptable to the FAA. Special IAPs are also developed using TERPS but are not given public notice in the FR. The FAA authorizes only certain individual pilots and/or pilots in individual organizations to use special IAPs, and may require additional crew training and/or aircraft equipment or performance, and may also require the use of landing aids, communications, or weather services not available for public use. Additionally, IAPs that service private use airports or heliports are generally special IAPs. FDC NOTAMs for Specials, FDC T-NOTAMs, may also be used to promulgate safety-of-flight information relating to Specials provided the location has a valid landing area identifier and is serviced by the United States NOTAM system. Pilots may access NOTAMs online or through an FAA Flight Service Station (FSS). FSS specialists will not automatically provide NOTAM information to pilots for special IAPs during telephone pre-flight briefings. Pilots who are authorized by the FAA to use special IAPs must specifically request FDC NOTAM information for the particular special IAP they plan to use.

5−4−9. Procedure Turn and Hold— in—lieu—of—PT

a. A procedure turn is the maneuver prescribed when it is necessary to reverse direction to establish the aircraft inbound on an intermediate or final approach course. The procedure turn or hold— in—lieu—of—PT is a required maneuver when it is depicted on the approach chart, unless cleared by ATC for a straight— in approach. Additionally, the procedure turn or hold— in—lieu—of—PT is not permitted when the symbol “No PT” is depicted on the initial segment being used, when a RADAR VECTOR to the final approach course is provided, or when conducting a timed approach from a holding fix. The altitude prescribed for the procedure turn is a minimum altitude until the aircraft is established on the inbound course. The maneuver must be completed within the distance specified in the profile view. For a hold— in—lieu— of—PT, the holding pattern direction must be flown as depicted and the specified leg length/timing must not be exceeded.

NOTE—
The pilot may elect to use the procedure turn or hold— in—lieu—of—PT when it is not required by the procedure, but must first receive an amended clearance from ATC. If the pilot is uncertain whether the ATC clearance intends for a procedure turn to be conducted or to allow for a straight— in approach, the pilot must immediately request clarification from ATC (14 CFR Section 91.123).

1. On U.S. Government charts, a barbed arrow indicates the maneuvering side of the outbound course on which the procedure turn is made. Headings are provided for course reversal using the 45 degree type procedure turn. However, the point at which the turn may be commenced and the type and rate of turn is left to the discretion of the pilot (limited by the charted remain within xx NM distance). Some of the options are the 45 degree procedure turn, the racetrack pattern, the teardrop procedure turn, or the 80 degree / 260 degree course reversal. Racetrack entries should be conducted on the maneuvering side where the majority of protected airspace resides. If an entry places the pilot on the non—maneuvering side of the PT, correction to intercept the outbound course ensures remaining within protected airspace. Some procedure turns are specified by procedural track. These turns must be flown exactly as depicted.

2. Descent to the procedure turn (PT) completion altitude from the PT fix altitude (when one has been published or assigned by ATC) must not begin until crossing over the PT fix or abeam and proceeding outbound. Some procedures contain a note in the chart profile view that says “Maintain (altitude) or above until established outbound for procedure turn” (See FIG 5−4−14). Newer procedures will simply depict an “at or above” altitude at the PT fix without a chart note (See FIG 5−4−15). Both are there to ensure required obstacle clearance is provided in the procedure turn entry zone (See FIG 5−4−16). Absence of a chart note or specified minimum altitude adjacent to the PT fix is an indication that descent to the procedure turn altitude can commence immediately upon crossing over the PT fix, regardless of the direction of flight. This is because the minimum altitudes in the PT entry zone and the PT maneuvering zone are the same.
airport or heliport in sight or, for a helicopter point−in−space approach, the prescribed visual reference with the surface is established. Also, if, at any time during the approach the controller considers that safe guidance for the remainder of the approach cannot be provided, the controller will terminate guidance and instruct the pilot to execute a missed approach. Similarly, guidance termination and missed approach will be effected upon pilot request and, for civil aircraft only, controllers may terminate guidance when the pilot reports the runway, airport/heliport or visual surface route (point−in−space approach) in sight or otherwise indicates that continued guidance is not required. Radar service is automatically terminated at the completion of a radar approach.

NOTE−
1. The published MDA for straight−in approaches will be issued to the pilot before beginning descent. When a surveillance approach will terminate in a circle−to−land maneuver, the pilot must furnish the aircraft approach category to the controller. The controller will then provide the pilot with the appropriate MDA.
2. ASR APPROACHES ARE NOT AVAILABLE WHEN AN ATC FACILITY IS USING CENRAP.
3. A NO−GYRO APPROACH is available to a pilot under radar control who experiences circumstances wherein the directional gyro or other stabilized compass is inoperative or inaccurate. When this occurs, the pilot should so advise ATC and request a No−Gyro vector or approach. Pilots of aircraft not equipped with a directional gyro or other stabilized compass who desire radar handling may also request a No−Gyro vector or approach. The pilot should make all turns at standard rate and should execute the turn immediately upon receipt of instructions. For example, “TURN RIGHT,” “STOP TURN.” When a surveillance or precision approach is made, the pilot will be advised after the aircraft has been turned onto final approach to make turns at half standard rate.

5−4−12. Radar Monitoring of Instrument Approaches

a. PAR facilities operated by the FAA and the military services at some joint−use (civil and military) and military installations monitor aircraft on instrument approaches and issue radar advisories to the pilot when weather is below VFR minimums (1,000 and 3), at night, or when requested by a pilot. This service is provided only when the PAR Final Approach Course coincides with the final approach of the navigational aid and only during the operational hours of the PAR. The radar advisories serve only as a secondary aid since the pilot has selected the navigational aid as the primary aid for the approach.

b. Prior to starting final approach, the pilot will be advised of the frequency on which the advisories will be transmitted. If, for any reason, radar advisories cannot be furnished, the pilot will be so advised.

c. Advisory information, derived from radar observations, includes information on:

1. Passing the final approach fix inbound (nonprecision approach) or passing the outer marker or fix used in lieu of the outer marker inbound (precision approach).

NOTE−
At this point, the pilot may be requested to report sighting the approach lights or the runway.

2. Trend advisories with respect to elevation and/or azimuth radar position and movement will be provided.

NOTE−
Whenever the aircraft nears the PAR safety limit, the pilot will be advised that the aircraft is well above or below the glidepath or well left or right of course. Glidepath information is given only to those aircraft executing a precision approach, such as ILS. Altitude information is not transmitted to aircraft executing other than precision approaches because the descent portions of these approaches generally do not coincide with the depicted PAR glidepath.
3. If, after repeated advisories, the aircraft proceeds outside the PAR safety limit or if a radical deviation is observed, the pilot will be advised to execute a missed approach unless the prescribed visual reference with the surface is established.

d. Radar service is automatically terminated upon completion of the approach.

5−4−13. ILS Approaches to Parallel Runways

a. ATC procedures permit ILS/RNAV/GLS instrument approach operations to dual or triple parallel runway configurations. ILS/RNAV/GLS approaches to parallel runways are grouped into three classes: Simultaneous Parallel Dependent Approaches; Simultaneous (Parallel) Independent Approaches; and Simultaneous Close Parallel PRM Approaches. (See FIG 5−4−18.) RNAV approach procedures that are approved for simultaneous operations require GPS as the sensor for position updating. VOR/DME, DME/DME and IRU RNAV updating is not authorized.

b. Parallel approach operations demand heightened pilot situational awareness. A thorough Approach Procedure Chart review should be conducted with, as a minimum, emphasis on the following approach chart information: name and number of the approach, localizer frequency, inbound localizer/azimuth course, glide slope intercept altitude, glideslope crossing altitude at the final approach fix, decision height, missed approach instructions, special notes/procedures, and the assigned runway location/proximity to adjacent runways. Pilots will be advised that simultaneous dependent approaches, simultaneous approaches, or simultaneous close parallel PRM approaches are in use. This information may be provided through the ATIS.

c. The close proximity of adjacent aircraft conducting simultaneous (parallel) independent approaches and simultaneous close parallel PRM approaches mandates strict pilot compliance with all ATC clearances. ATC assigned airspeeds, altitudes, and headings must be complied with in a timely manner. Autopilot coupled approaches require pilot knowledge of procedures necessary to comply with ATC instructions. Simultaneous (parallel) independent approaches and simultaneous close parallel PRM approaches necessitate precise approach course tracking to minimize final monitor controller intervention, and unwanted No Transgression Zone (NTZ) penetration. In the unlikely event of a breakout, ATC will not assign altitudes lower than the minimum vectoring altitude. Pilots should notify ATC immediately if there is a degradation of aircraft or navigation systems.

d. Strict radio discipline is mandatory during simultaneous (parallel) independent and simultaneous close parallel PRM approach operations. This includes an alert listening watch and the avoidance of lengthy, unnecessary radio transmissions. Attention must be given to proper call sign usage to prevent the inadvertent execution of clearances intended for another aircraft. Use of abbreviated call signs must be avoided to preclude confusion of aircraft with similar sounding call signs. Pilots must be alert to unusually long periods of silence or any unusual background sounds in their radio receiver. A stuck microphone may block the issuance of ATC instructions on the tower frequency by the final monitor controller during simultaneous (parallel) independent and simultaneous close parallel PRM approaches. In the case of PRM approaches, the use of a second frequency by the monitor controller mitigates the “stuck mike” or other blockage on the tower frequency.

REFERENCE—AIM, Chapter 4, Section 2, Radio Communications Phraseology and Techniques, gives additional communications information.

e. Use of Traffic Collision Avoidance Systems (TCAS) provides an additional element of safety to parallel approach operations. Pilots should follow recommended TCAS operating procedures presented in approved flight manuals, original equipment manufacturer recommendations, professional newsletters, and FAA publications.
Simultaneous Parallel Approaches
(Parallel Runways and Approach Courses and Offset Approach Courses between 2.5 and 3.0 degrees)

DEPENDENT PARALLEL APPROACHES
- Runway centerlines spaced between 2500' and 9000'
- STAGGERED Approaches
- Final Monitor Controller NOT required
  * less than 2500' when specifically authorized

INDEPENDENT PARALLEL APPROACHES

SIMULTANEOUS PARALLEL APPROACHES
- Runway centerlines spaced between 4800' and 9000'/9200' for airports above 5000'. (Duel and Triples)
- Final Monitor Controllers required

PRM APPROACHES (SIMULTANEOUS CLOSE PARALLEL)
- Runway centerlines spaced at least 3000' and less than 4300' (Duel and Triples)
- Final Monitor Controllers required
- Certain runway spacing requires PRM for NTZ monitoring
- Attention All User Page (AAUP) required

NO TRANSGRESSION ZONE
5–4–14. Parallel ILS Approaches (Dependent)
(See FIG 5–4–19.)

**FIG 5–4–19**
Simultaneous (Parallel) Dependent Approaches

*a.* Simultaneous (parallel) dependent approaches are an ATC procedure permitting approaches to airports having parallel runway centerlines separated by between 2,500 feet and 9,000 feet. Integral parts of a total system are ILS, radar, communications, ATC procedures, and required airborne equipment. RNAV equipment in the aircraft or GLS equipment on the ground and in the aircraft may replace the required airborne and ground based ILS equipment.

*b.* A simultaneous (parallel) dependent approach differs from a simultaneous (parallel) independent approach in that, the minimum distance between parallel runway centerlines is reduced; there is no requirement for radar monitoring or advisories; and a staggered separation of aircraft on the adjacent final course is required.

*c.* A minimum of 1.5 NM radar separation (diagonal) is required between successive aircraft on the adjacent final approach course when runway centerlines are at least 2,500 feet but no more than 4,300 feet apart. When runway centerlines are more than 4,300 feet but no more than 9,000 feet apart a minimum of 2 NM diagonal radar separation is provided. Aircraft on the same final approach course course within 10 NM of the runway end are provided a minimum of 3 NM radar separation, reduced to 2.5 NM in certain circumstances. In addition, a minimum of 1,000 feet vertical or a minimum of three miles radar separation is provided between aircraft during turn on to the parallel final approach course.

*d.* Whenever parallel approaches are in progress, pilots are informed by ATC or via the ATIS that approaches to both runways are in use. The charted IAP also notes which runways may be used simultaneously. In addition, the radar controller will have the interphone capability of communicating with the tower controller where separation responsibility has not been delegated to the tower.

**NOTE**–
ATC will specifically identify these operations as being dependent when advertised on the ATIS.

**EXAMPLE**–
Simultaneous dependent ILS runway 19R and 19L in progress.
e. At certain airports, simultaneous (parallel) dependent approaches are permitted to runways spaced less than 2500 feet apart. In this case, ATC will stagger aircraft on the parallel approaches with the leaders always arriving on the same runway. The trailing aircraft is permitted diagonal separation of not less than 1.5 NM, instead of the single runway separation normally utilized for runways spaced less than 2500 feet apart. For wake turbulence mitigation reasons: a) 1.5 NM spacing is only permitted when the leader is either in the large or small wake turbulence category, and b) all aircraft must descend on the glideslope from the altitude at which they were cleared for the approach during these operations. When 1.5 NM reduced separation is authorized, the IAP briefing strip which indicates that simultaneous operations require the use of vertical guidance and that the pilot should maintain last assigned altitude until intercepting the glideslope. No special pilot training is required to participate in these operations.

**NOTE—**
Either simultaneous dependent ILS approaches or SOIA LDA PRM and ILS PRM approaches may be conducted to these runways depending on weather conditions and traffic volume. Pilots should use caution so as not to confuse these operations. Use SOIA procedures only when the ATIS advertises PRM approaches are in use, refer to AIM paragraph 5-4-16. SFO is the only airport where both procedures are presently conducted.
5–4–15. Simultaneous (Parallel) Independent ILS/RNAV/GLS Approaches
(See FIG 5–4–20.)

**FIG 5–4–20**
Simultaneous (Parallel) Independent ILS/RNAV/GLS Approaches

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**a. System.** An approach system permitting simultaneous ILS/RNAV/GLS approaches to parallel runways with centerlines separated by 4,300 to 9,000 feet (9,200’ for airports above 5,000’) utilizing NTZ final monitor controllers. Simultaneous (parallel) independent approaches require NTZ radar monitoring to ensure separation between aircraft on the adjacent parallel approach course. Aircraft position is tracked by final monitor controllers who will issue instructions to aircraft observed deviating from the assigned final approach course. Staggered radar separation procedures are not utilized. Integral parts of a total system are ILS, radar, communications, ATC procedures, and required airborne equipment. A chart note identifies that the approach is authorized for simultaneous use. When simultaneous operations are in progress, it will be advertised on the ATIS. When advised that simultaneous approaches are in progress, pilots must advise approach control immediately of malfunctioning or inoperative receivers, or if a simultaneous approach is not desired.

**NOTE—**
ATC does not use the word independent or parallel when advertising these operations on the ATIS.

**EXAMPLE—**
Simultaneous ILS 24L and ILS 24R approaches in progress.

**b. Radar Services.** These services are provided for each simultaneous (parallel) independent approach.

1. During turn on to parallel final approach, aircraft will be provided 3 miles radar separation or a minimum of 1,000 feet vertical separation. The assigned altitude must be maintained until intercepting the glide path, unless cleared otherwise by ATC. Aircraft will not be vectored to intercept the final approach course at an angle greater than thirty degrees.
that, when a pilot receives breakout instructions, he/she assumes that a blundering aircraft is about to or has penetrated the NTZ and is heading toward his/her approach course. The pilot must initiate a breakout as soon as safety allows. While conducting PRM approaches, pilots must maintain an increased sense of awareness in order to immediately react to an ATC instruction (breakout) and maneuver as instructed by ATC, away from a blundering aircraft.

2. Communications. To help in avoiding communication problems caused by stuck microphones and two parties talking at the same time, two frequencies for each runway will be in use during ILS PRM and LDA PRM approach operations, the primary tower frequency and the PRM monitor frequency. The tower controller transmits and receive in a normal fashion on the primary frequency and also transmits on the PRM monitor frequency. The monitor controller’s transmissions override on both frequencies. The pilots flying the approach will listen to both frequencies but only transmit on the primary tower frequency. If the PRM monitor controller initiates a breakout and the primary frequency is blocked by another transmission, the breakout instruction will still be heard on the PRM monitor frequency.

NOTE—At some airports, the override capability may be on other than the tower frequency (KSFO overrides the final radar controller frequency). Pilots should carefully review the dual communications requirements on the AAUP prior to accepting a PRM approach.

3. Breakouts. The probability is extremely low that an aircraft will “blunder” from its assigned approach course and enter the NTZ, causing ATC to “breakout” the aircraft approaching on the adjacent ILS or LDA course. However, because of the close proximity of the final approach courses, it is essential that pilots follow the ATC breakout instructions precisely and expeditiously. The controller’s “breakout” instructions provide conflict resolution for the threatened aircraft, with the turn portion of the “breakout” being the single most important element in achieving maximum protection. A descending breakout will only be issued when it is the only controller option. In no case will the controller descend an aircraft below the MVA, which will provide at least 1,000 feet clearance above obstacles. The pilot is not expected to exceed 1,000 feet per minute rate of descent in the event a descending breakout is issued.

4. Hand-flown Breakouts. The use of the autopilot is encouraged while flying an ILS PRM or LDA PRM approach, but the autopilot must be disengaged in the rare event that a breakout is issued. Simulation studies of breakouts have shown that a hand-flown breakout can be initiated consistently faster than a breakout performed using the autopilot.

5. TCAS. The ATC breakout instruction is the primary means of conflict resolution. TCAS, if installed, provides another form of conflict resolution in the unlikely event other separation standards would fail. TCAS is not required to conduct a closely spaced approach.

The TCAS provides only vertical resolution of aircraft conflicts, while the ATC breakout instruction provides both vertical and horizontal guidance for conflict resolutions. Pilots should always immediately follow the TCAS Resolution Advisory (RA), whenever it is received. Should a TCAS RA be received before, during, or after an ATC breakout instruction is issued, the pilot should follow the RA, even if it conflicts with the climb/descent portion of the breakout maneuver. If following an RA requires deviating from an ATC clearance, the pilot must advise ATC as soon as practical. While following an RA, it is extremely important that the pilot also comply with the turn portion of the ATC breakout instruction unless the pilot determines safety to be factor. Adhering to these procedures assures the pilot that acceptable “breakout” separation margins will always be provided, even in the face of a normal procedural or system failure.

5-4-17. Simultaneous Converging Instrument Approaches

a. ATC may conduct instrument approaches simultaneously to converging runways; i.e., runways having an included angle from 15 to 100 degrees, at airports where a program has been specifically approved to do so.

b. The basic concept requires that dedicated, separate standard instrument approach procedures be developed for each converging runway included. These approaches can be identified by the letter “V” in the title; for example, “ILS V Rwy 17 (CONVERGING)”. Missed Approach Points must be at least 3 miles apart and missed approach procedures ensure that missed approach protected airspace does not overlap.
c. Other requirements are: radar availability, nonintersecting final approach courses, precision approach capability for each runway and, if runways intersect, controllers must be able to apply visual separation as well as intersecting runway separation criteria. Intersecting runways also require minimums of at least 700 foot ceilings and 2 miles visibility. Straight in approaches and landings must be made.

d. Whenever simultaneous converging approaches are in progress, aircraft will be informed by the controller as soon as feasible after initial contact or via ATIS. Additionally, the radar controller will have direct communications capability with the tower controller where separation responsibility has not been delegated to the tower.

5–4–18. RNP AR Instrument Approach Procedures

These procedures require authorization analogous to the special authorization required for Category II or III ILS procedures. Authorization required (AR) procedures are to be conducted by aircrews meeting special training requirements in aircraft that meet the specified performance and functional requirements.

a. Unique characteristics of RNP AR Approaches

1. RNP value. Each published line of minima has an associated RNP value. The indicated value defines the lateral and vertical performance requirements. A minimum RNP type is documented as part of the RNP AR authorization for each operator and may vary depending on aircraft configuration or operational procedures (e.g., GPS inoperative, use of flight director vice autopilot).

2. Curved path procedures. Some RNP approaches have a curved path, also called a radius-to-a-fix (RF) leg. Since not all aircraft have the capability to fly these arcs, pilots are responsible for knowing if they can conduct an RNP approach with an arc or not. Aircraft speeds, winds and bank angles have been taken into consideration in the development of the procedures.

3. RNP required for extraction or not. Where required, the missed approach procedure may use RNP values less than RNP−1. The reliability of the navigation system has to be very high in order to conduct these approaches. Operation on these procedures generally requires redundant equipment, as no single point of failure can cause loss of both approach and missed approach navigation.

4. Non-standard speeds or climb gradients. RNP AR approaches are developed based on standard approach speeds and a 200 ft/NM climb gradient in the missed approach. Any exceptions to these standards will be indicated on the approach procedure, and the operator should ensure they can comply with any published restrictions before conducting the operation.

5. Temperature Limits. For aircraft using barometric vertical navigation (without temperature compensation) to conduct the approach, low and high-temperature limits are identified on the procedure. Cold temperatures reduce the glidepath angle while high temperatures increase the glidepath angle. Aircraft using baro VNAV with temperature compensation or aircraft using an alternate means for vertical guidance (e.g., SBAS) may disregard the temperature restrictions. Operation on these procedures generally requires redundant equipment, as no single point of failure can cause loss of both approach and missed approach navigation.

6. Aircraft size. The achieved minimums may be dependent on aircraft size. Large aircraft may require higher minimums due to gear height and/or wingspan. Approach procedure charts will be annotated with applicable aircraft size restrictions.
c. Other Sources of Weather Information

1. Telephone Information Briefing Service (TIBS) (FSS); and in Alaska, Transcribed Weather Broadcast (TWEB) locations, and telephone access to the TWEB (TEL−TWEB) provide continuously updated recorded weather information for short or local flights. Separate paragraphs in this section give additional information regarding these services.

REFERENCE—
AIM, Telephone Information Briefing Service (TIBS), Paragraph 7−1−8.
AIM, Transcribed Weather Broadcast (TWEB) (Alaska Only), Paragraph 7−1−9.

2. Weather and aeronautical information are also available from numerous private industry sources on an individual or contract pay basis. Information on how to obtain this service should be available from local pilot organizations.

3. Pilots can access the Direct User Access Terminal System (DUATS) and Lockheed Martin Flight Services with a current medical certificate via the internet. Pilots can receive preflight weather data and file domestic VFR and IFR flight plans. The following are the contract DUATS vendors:

Computer Sciences Corporation (CSC)
Internet Access: http://www.duats.com
For customer service: (800) 345−3828

Data Transformation Corporation (DTC)
Internet Access: http://www.duat.com
For customer service: (800) 243−3828

Lockheed Martin Flight Services
Internet Access: http://www.1800wxbrief.com
For customer service: (866) 936−6826

d. Inflight weather information is available from any FSS within radio range. The common frequency for all FSSs is 122.2. Discrete frequencies for individual stations are listed in the A/FD.

1. Information on In-Flight Weather broadcasts.

REFERENCE—
AIM, Inflight Weather Broadcasts, Paragraph 7−1−10

2. En Route Flight Advisory Service (EFAS) is provided to serve the nonroutine weather needs of pilots in flight.

REFERENCE—
AIM, En Route Flight Advisory Service (EFAS), Paragraph 7−1−5 gives details on this service.

7−1−3. Use of Aviation Weather Products

a. Air carriers and operators certificated under the provisions of 14 CFR Part 119 are required to use the aeronautical weather information systems defined in the Operations Specifications issued to that certificate holder by the FAA. These systems may utilize basic FAA/National Weather Service (NWS) weather services, contractor− or operator−proprietary weather services and/or Enhanced Weather Information System (EWINS) when approved in the Operations Specifications. As an integral part of this system approval, the procedures for collecting, producing and disseminating aeronautical weather information, as well as the crew member and dispatcher training to support the use of system weather products, must be accepted or approved.

b. Operators not certificated under the provisions of 14 CFR Part 119 are encouraged to use FAA/NWS products through Flight Service Stations, Direct User Access Terminal System (DUATS), Lockheed Martin Flight Services, and/or Flight Information Services−Broadcast (FIS−B).

c. The suite of available aviation weather product types is expanding, with the development of new sensor systems, algorithms and forecast models. The FAA and NWS, supported by various weather research laboratories and corporations under contract to the Government, develop and implement new aviation weather product types. The FAA’s NextGen Aviation Weather Research Program (AWRP) facilitates collaboration between the NWS, the FAA, and various industry and research representatives. This collaboration ensures that user needs and technical readiness requirements are met before experimental products mature to operational application.

d. The AWRP manages the transfer of aviation weather R&D to operational use through technical review panels and conducting safety assessments to ensure that newly developed aviation weather products meet regulatory requirements and enhance safety.

e. The AWRP review and decision−making process applies criteria to weather products at various stages. The stages are composed of the following:

1. Sponsorship of user needs.
2. R & D and controlled testing.
3. Experimental application.
4. Operational application.

f. Pilots and operators should be aware that weather services provided by entities other than FAA, NWS or their contractors (such as the DUAT/DUATS and Lockheed Martin Flight Services) may not meet FAA/NWS quality control standards. Hence, operators and pilots contemplating using such services should request and/or review an appropriate description of services and provider disclosure. This should include, but is not limited to, the type of weather product (e.g., current weather or forecast weather), the currency of the product (i.e., product issue and valid times), and the relevance of the product. Pilots and operators should be cautious when using unfamiliar products, or products not supported by FAA/NWS technical specifications.

NOTE—When in doubt, consult with a FAA Flight Service Station Specialist.

g. In addition, pilots and operators should be aware there are weather services and products available from government organizations beyond the scope of the AWRP process mentioned earlier in this section. For example, governmental agencies such as the NWS and the Aviation Weather Center (AWC), or research organizations such as the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) display weather “model data” and “experimental” products which require training and/or expertise to properly interpret and use. These products are developmental prototypes that are subject to ongoing research and can change without notice. Therefore, some data on display by government organizations, or government data on display by independent organizations may be unsuitable for flight planning purposes. Operators and pilots contemplating using such services should request and/or review an appropriate description of services and provider disclosure. This should include, but is not limited to, the type of weather product (for example, current weather or forecast weather), the currency of the product (i.e., product issue and valid times), and the relevance of the product. Pilots and operators should be cautious when using unfamiliar weather products.

NOTE—When in doubt, consult with a FAA Flight Service Station Specialist.

h. With increased access to weather products via the public Internet, the aviation community has access to an overwhelming amount of weather information and data that support self-briefing. FAA AC 00-45 (current edition) describes the weather products distributed by the NWS. Pilots and operators using the public Internet to access weather from a third party vendor should request and/or review an appropriate description of services and provider disclosure. This should include, but is not limited to, the type of weather product (for example, current weather or forecast weather), the currency of the product (i.e., product issue and valid times), and the relevance of the product. Pilots and operators should be cautious when using unfamiliar weather products and when in doubt, consult with a Flight Service Specialist.

i. The development of new weather products, coupled with the termination of some legacy textual and graphical products may create confusion between regulatory requirements and the new products. All flight–related, aviation weather decisions must be based on all available pertinent weather products. As every flight is unique and the weather conditions for that flight vary hour by hour, day to day, multiple weather products may be necessary to meet aviation weather regulatory requirements. Many new weather products now have a Precautionary Use Statement that details the proper use or application of the specific product.

j. The FAA has identified three distinct types of weather information available to pilots and operators.

1. Observations. Raw weather data collected by some type of sensor suite including surface and airborne observations, radar, lightning, satellite imagery, and profilers.

2. Analysis. Enhanced depiction and/or interpretation of observed weather data.

3. Forecasts. Predictions of the development and/or movement of weather phenomena based on meteorological observations and various mathematical models.

k. Not all sources of aviation weather information are able to provide all three types of weather information. The FAA has determined that operators and pilots may utilize the following approved sources of aviation weather information:

1. Federal Government. The FAA and NWS collect raw weather data, analyze the observations,
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<tr>
<th>Abbreviation/Acronym</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
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<tr>
<td>LDA/PRM . . .</td>
<td>Localizer Type Directional Aid/Precision Runway Monitor</td>
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<tr>
<td>LGA . . . .  . . . .</td>
<td>LaGuardia Airport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIRL . . . . . . . .</td>
<td>Low Intensity Runway Lights</td>
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<td>RNP Parallel Approach Runway Transitions</td>
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<td>Reduced Vertical Separation Minimum</td>
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<td>Instrument flight minimum speed, utilized in complying with minimum limit speed requirements for instrument flight</td>
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<td>Vertical Navigation</td>
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<td>VNE ........</td>
<td>Never exceed speed</td>
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<tr>
<td>VNEI ........</td>
<td>Instrument flight never exceed speed, utilized instead of VNE for compliance with maximum limit speed requirements for instrument flight</td>
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<td>Very High Frequency Omni–directional Range</td>
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<td>VREF ........</td>
<td>The reference landing approach speed, usually about 1.3 times $V_{so}$ plus 50 percent of the wind gust speed in excess of the mean wind speed.</td>
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<td>VSO ........</td>
<td>The stalling speed or the minimum steady flight speed in the landing configuration at maximum weight.</td>
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<td>Vector to Final</td>
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<td>VY ........</td>
<td>Speed for best rate of climb</td>
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<td>Instrument climb speed, utilized instead of $V_y$ for compliance with the climb requirements for instrument flight</td>
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<td>Severe Weather Watch Bulletin</td>
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PILOT/CONTROLLER GLOSSARY

PURPOSE

a. This Glossary was compiled to promote a common understanding of the terms used in the Air Traffic Control system. It includes those terms which are intended for pilot/controller communications. Those terms most frequently used in pilot/controller communications are printed in bold italics. The definitions are primarily defined in an operational sense applicable to both users and operators of the National Airspace System. Use of the Glossary will preclude any misunderstandings concerning the system’s design, function, and purpose.

b. Because of the international nature of flying, terms used in the Lexicon, published by the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), are included when they differ from FAA definitions. These terms are followed by “[ICAO].” For the reader’s convenience, there are also cross references to related terms in other parts of the Glossary and to other documents, such as the Code of Federal Regulations (CFR) and the Aeronautical Information Manual (AIM).

c. This Glossary will be revised, as necessary, to maintain a common understanding of the system.

EXPLANATION OF CHANGES

d. Terms Added:
   COLLABORATIVE TRAJECTORY OPTIONS PROGRAM (CTOP)
   TRAJECTORY OPTIONS SET (TOS)

e. Terms Deleted:
   MICROWAVE LANDING SYSTEM (MLS)
   MLS CATEGORIES

f. Terms Modified:
   COURSE
   DECISION HEIGHT
   GLIDESLOPE
   PREARRANGED COORDINATION
   PREARRANGED COORDINATION PROCEDURES
   SIMULTANEOUS ILS APPROACHES

g. Editorial/format changes were made where necessary. Revision bars were not used due to the insignificant nature of the changes.
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aircraft are held short of the applicable runway holding position marking.

b. A pilot or controller may consider an aircraft, which is exiting or crossing a runway, to be clear of the runway when all parts of the aircraft are beyond the runway edge and there are no restrictions to its continued movement beyond the applicable runway holding position marking.

c. Pilots and controllers shall exercise good judgement to ensure that adequate separation exists between all aircraft on runways and taxiways at airports with inadequate runway edge lines or holding position markings.

CLEARANCE–
(See AIR TRAFFIC CLEARANCE.)

CLEARANCE LIMIT– The fix, point, or location to which an aircraft is cleared when issued an air traffic clearance.
(See ICAO term CLEARANCE LIMIT.)

CLEARANCE LIMIT [ICAO]– The point to which an aircraft is granted an air traffic control clearance.

CLEARANCE VOID IF NOT OFF BY (TIME)–
Used by ATC to advise an aircraft that the departure clearance is automatically canceled if takeoff is not made prior to a specified time. The pilot must obtain a new clearance or cancel his/her IFR flight plan if not off by the specified time.
(See ICAO term CLEARANCE VOID TIME.)

CLEARANCE VOID TIME [ICAO]– A time specified by an air traffic control unit at which a clearance ceases to be valid unless the aircraft concerned has already taken action to comply therewith.

CLEARED APPROACH– ATC authorization for an aircraft to execute any standard or special instrument approach procedure for that airport. Normally, an aircraft will be cleared for a specific instrument approach procedure.
(See CLEARED (Type of) APPROACH.)
(See INSTRUMENT APPROACH PROCEDURE.)
(Refer to 14 CFR Part 91.)
(Refer to AIM.)

CLEARED (Type of) APPROACH– ATC authorization for an aircraft to execute a specific instrument approach procedure to an airport; e.g., “Cleared ILS Runway Three Six Approach.”
(See APPROACH CLEARANCE.)
(See INSTRUMENT APPROACH PROCEDURE.)
(Refer to 14 CFR Part 91.)
(Refer to AIM.)

CLEARED AS FILED– Means the aircraft is cleared to proceed in accordance with the route of flight filed in the flight plan. This clearance does not include the altitude, DP, or DP Transition.
(See REQUEST FULL ROUTE CLEARANCE.)
(Refer to AIM.)

CLEAR FOR TAKEOFF– ATC authorization for an aircraft to depart. It is predicated on known traffic and known physical airport conditions.

CLEAR FOR THE OPTION– ATC authorization for an aircraft to make a touch-and-go, low approach, missed approach, stop and go, or full stop landing at the discretion of the pilot. It is normally used in training so that an instructor can evaluate a student’s performance under changing situations.
(See OPTION APPROACH.)
(Refer to AIM.)

CLEAR FOR TAKEOFF– ATC authorization for an aircraft to make intermediate stops at specified airports without refiling a flight plan while en route to the clearance limit.

CLEAR TO LAND– ATC authorization for an aircraft to land. It is predicated on known traffic and known physical airport conditions.

CLEARWAY– An area beyond the takeoff runway under the control of airport authorities within which terrain or fixed obstacles may not extend above specified limits. These areas may be required for certain turbine-powered operations and the size and upward slope of the clearway will differ depending on when the aircraft was certificated.
(Refer to 14 CFR Part 1.)

CLIMB TO VFR– ATC authorization for an aircraft to climb to VFR conditions within Class B, C, D, and E surface areas when the only weather limitation is restricted visibility. The aircraft must remain clear of clouds while climbing to VFR.
(See SPECIAL VFR CONDITIONS.)
(Refer to AIM.)

CLIMBOUT– That portion of flight operation between takeoff and the initial cruising altitude.
CLIMB VIA—An abbreviated ATC clearance that requires compliance with the procedure lateral path, associated speed restrictions, and altitude restrictions along the cleared route or procedure.

CLOSE PARALLEL RUNWAYS—Two parallel runways whose extended centerlines are separated by less than 4,300 feet and at least 3000 feet (750 feet for SOIA operations) that are authorized to conduct simultaneous independent approach operations. PRM and simultaneous close parallel appear in approach title. Dual communications, special pilot training, an Attention All Users Page (AAUP), NTZ monitoring by displays that have aural and visual alerting algorithms are required. A high update rate surveillance sensor is required for certain runway or approach course spacing.

CLOSED RUNWAY—A runway that is unusable for aircraft operations. Only the airport management/military operations office can close a runway.

CLOSED TRAFFIC—Successive operations involving takeoffs and landings or low approaches where the aircraft does not exit the traffic pattern.

CLOUD—A cloud is a visible accumulation of minute water droplets and/or ice particles in the atmosphere above the Earth’s surface. Cloud differs from ground fog, fog, or ice fog only in that the latter are, by definition, in contact with the Earth’s surface.

CLT—
(See CALCULATED LANDING TIME.)

CLUTTER—In radar operations, clutter refers to the reception and visual display of radar returns caused by precipitation, chaff, terrain, numerous aircraft targets, or other phenomena. Such returns may limit or preclude ATC from providing services based on radar.

(See CHAFF.)
(See GROUND CLUTTER.)
(See PRECIPITATION.)
(See TARGET.)
(See ICAO term RADAR CLUTTER.)

CMNPS—
(See CANADIAN MINIMUM NAVIGATION PERFORMANCE SPECIFICATION AIRSPACE.)

COASTAL FIX—A navigation aid or intersection where an aircraft transitions between the domestic route structure and the oceanic route structure.

CODES—The number assigned to a particular multiple pulse reply signal transmitted by a transponder.

(See DISCRETE CODE.)

COLLABORATIVE TRAJECTORY OPTIONS PROGRAM (CTOP)—CTOP is a traffic management program administered by the Air Traffic Control System Command Center (ATCSCC) that manages demand through constrained airspace, while considering operator preference with regard to both route and delay as defined in a Trajectory Options Set (TOS).

COMBINED CENTER-RAPCON—An air traffic facility which combines the functions of an ARTCC and a radar approach control facility.

(See AIR ROUTE TRAFFIC CONTROL CENTER.)
(See RADAR APPROACH CONTROL FACILITY.)

COMMON POINT—A significant point over which two or more aircraft will report passing or have reported passing before proceeding on the same or diverging tracks. To establish/maintain longitudinal separation, a controller may determine a common point not originally in the aircraft’s flight plan and then clear the aircraft to fly over the point.

(See SIGNIFICANT POINT.)

COMMON PORTION—
(See COMMON ROUTE.)

COMMON ROUTE—That segment of a North American Route between the inland navigation facility and the coastal fix.

OR

COMMON ROUTE—Typically the portion of a RNAV STAR between the en route transition end point and the runway transition start point; however, the common route may only consist of a single point that joins the en route and runway transitions.

COMMON TRAFFIC ADVISORY FREQUENCY (CTAF)—A frequency designed for the purpose of carrying out airport advisory practices while operating to or from an airport without an operating
control tower. The CTAF may be a UNICOM, Multicom, FSS, or tower frequency and is identified in appropriate aeronautical publications.

(See DESIGNATED COMMON TRAFFIC ADVISORY FREQUENCY (CTAF) AREA.)
(Refer to AC 90-42, Traffic Advisory Practices at Airports Without Operating Control Towers.)

COMPASS LOCATOR— A low power, low or medium frequency (L/MF) radio beacon installed at the site of the outer or middle marker of an instrument landing system (ILS). It can be used for navigation at distances of approximately 15 miles or as authorized in the approach procedure.

a. Outer Compass Locator (LOM)— A compass locator installed at the site of the outer marker of an instrument landing system.
   (See OUTER MARKER.)

b. Middle Compass Locator (LMM)— A compass locator installed at the site of the middle marker of an instrument landing system.
   (See MIDDLE MARKER.)
   (See ICAO term LOCATOR.)

COMPASS ROSE— A circle, graduated in degrees, printed on some charts or marked on the ground at an airport. It is used as a reference to either true or magnetic direction.

COMPLY WITH RESTRICTIONS— An ATC instruction that requires an aircraft being vectored back onto an arrival or departure procedure to comply with all altitude and/or speed restrictions depicted on the procedure. This term may be used in lieu of repeating each remaining restriction that appears on the procedure.

COMPOSITE FLIGHT PLAN— A flight plan which specifies VFR operation for one portion of flight and IFR for another portion. It is used primarily in military operations.
(Refer to AIM.)

COMPOSITE ROUTE SYSTEM— An organized oceanic route structure, incorporating reduced lateral spacing between routes, in which composite separation is authorized.

COMPOSITE SEPARATION— A method of separating aircraft in a composite route system where, by management of route and altitude assignments, a combination of half the lateral minimum specified for the area concerned and half the vertical minimum is applied.

COMPULSORY REPORTING POINTS— Reporting points which must be reported to ATC. They are designated on aeronautical charts by solid triangles or filed in a flight plan as fixes selected to define direct routes. These points are geographical locations which are defined by navigation aids/fixes. Pilots should discontinue position reporting over compulsory reporting points when informed by ATC that their aircraft is in “radar contact.”

CONFIDENCE MANEUVER— A confidence maneuver consists of one or more turns, a climb or descent, or other maneuver to determine if the pilot in command (PIC) is able to receive and comply with ATC instructions.

CONFLICT ALERT— A function of certain air traffic control automated systems designed to alert radar controllers to existing or pending situations between tracked targets (known IFR or VFR aircraft) that require his/her immediate attention/action.
   (See MODE C INTRUDER ALERT.)

CONFLICT RESOLUTION— The resolution of potential conflicts between aircraft that are radar identified and in communication with ATC by ensuring that radar targets do not touch. Pertinent traffic advisories shall be issued when this procedure is applied.
   Note: This procedure shall not be provided utilizing mosaic radar systems.

CONFORMANCE— The condition established when an aircraft’s actual position is within the conformance region constructed around that aircraft at its position, according to the trajectory associated with the aircraft’s Current Plan.

CONFORMANCE REGION— A volume, bounded laterally, vertically, and longitudinally, within which an aircraft must be at a given time in order to be in conformance with the Current Plan Trajectory for that aircraft. At a given time, the conformance region is determined by the simultaneous application of the lateral, vertical, and longitudinal conformance bounds for the aircraft at the position defined by time and aircraft’s trajectory.

CONSOLAN— A low frequency, long-distance NAV AID used principally for transoceanic navigations.
CONTACT—

a. Establish communication with (followed by the name of the facility and, if appropriate, the frequency to be used).

b. A flight condition wherein the pilot ascertains the attitude of his/her aircraft and navigates by visual reference to the surface.

(See CONTACT APPROACH.)
(See RADAR CONTACT.)

CONTACT APPROACH—An approach wherein an aircraft on an IFR flight plan, having an air traffic control authorization, operating clear of clouds with at least 1 mile flight visibility and a reasonable expectation of continuing to the destination airport in those conditions, may deviate from the instrument approach procedure and proceed to the destination airport by visual reference to the surface. This approach will only be authorized when requested by the pilot and the reported ground visibility at the destination airport is at least 1 statute mile.

(Refer to AIM.)

CONTAMINATED RUNWAY—A runway is considered contaminated whenever standing water, ice, snow, slush, frost in any form, heavy rubber, or other substances are present. A runway is contaminated with respect to rubber deposits or other friction-degrading substances when the average friction value for any 500-foot segment of the runway within the ALD fails below the recommended minimum friction level and the average friction value in the adjacent 500-foot segments falls below the maintenance planning friction level.

CONTERMINOUS U.S.—The 48 adjoining States and the District of Columbia.

CONTINENTAL UNITED STATES—The 49 States located on the continent of North America and the District of Columbia.

CONTINUE—When used as a control instruction should be followed by another word or words clarifying what is expected of the pilot. Example: “continue taxi,” “continue descent,” “continue inbound,” etc.

CONTROL AREA [ICAO]—A controlled airspace extending upwards from a specified limit above the earth.

CONTROL SECTOR—An airspace area of defined horizontal and vertical dimensions for which a controller or group of controllers has air traffic control responsibility, normally within an air traffic control center or an approach control facility. Sectors are established based on predominant traffic flows, altitude strata, and controller workload. Pilot-communications during operations within a sector are normally maintained on discrete frequencies assigned to the sector.

(See DISCRETE FREQUENCY.)

CONTROL SLASH—A radar beacon slash representing the actual position of the associated aircraft. Normally, the control slash is the one closest to the interrogating radar beacon site. When ARTCC radar is operating in narrowband (digitized) mode, the control slash is converted to a target symbol.

CONTROLLED AIRSPACE—An airspace of defined dimensions within which air traffic control service is provided to IFR flights and to VFR flights in accordance with the airspace classification.

a. Controlled airspace is a generic term that covers Class A, Class B, Class C, Class D, and Class E airspace.

b. Controlled airspace is also that airspace within which all aircraft operators are subject to certain pilot qualifications, operating rules, and equipment requirements in 14 CFR Part 91 (for specific operating requirements, please refer to 14 CFR Part 91). For IFR operations in any class of controlled airspace, a pilot must file an IFR flight plan and receive an appropriate ATC clearance. Each Class B, Class C, and Class D airspace area designated for an airport contains at least one primary airport around which the airspace is designated (for specific designations and descriptions of the airspace classes, please refer to 14 CFR Part 71).

c. Controlled airspace in the United States is designated as follows:

1. CLASS A—Generally, that airspace from 18,000 feet MSL up to and including FL 600, including the airspace overlying the waters within 12 nautical miles of the coast of the 48 contiguous States and Alaska. Unless otherwise authorized, all persons must operate their aircraft under IFR.

2. CLASS B—Generally, that airspace from the surface to 10,000 feet MSL surrounding the nation’s busiest airports in terms of airport operations or passenger enplanements. The configuration of each Class B airspace area is individually tailored and consists of a surface area and two or more layers
(some Class B airspaces areas resemble upside-down wedding cakes), and is designed to contain all published instrument procedures once an aircraft enters the airspace. An ATC clearance is required for all aircraft to operate in the area, and all aircraft that are so cleared receive separation services within the airspace. The cloud clearance requirement for VFR operations is “clear of clouds.”

3. CLASS C—Generally, that airspace from the surface to 4,000 feet above the airport elevation (charted in MSL) surrounding those airports that have an operational control tower, are serviced by a radar approach control, and that have a certain number of IFR operations or passenger enplanements. Although the configuration of each Class C area is individually tailored, the airspace usually consists of a surface area with a 5 nautical mile (NM) radius, a circle with a 10NM radius that extends no lower than 1,200 feet up to 4,000 feet above the airport elevation and an outer area that is not charted. Each person must establish two-way radio communications with the ATC facility providing air traffic services prior to entering the airspace and thereafter maintain those communications while within the airspace. VFR aircraft are only separated from IFR aircraft within the airspace. 

(See OUTER AREA.)

4. CLASS D—Generally, that airspace from the surface to 2,500 feet above the airport elevation (charted in MSL) surrounding those airports that have an operational control tower. The configuration of each Class D airspace area is individually tailored and when instrument procedures are published, the airspace will normally be designed to contain the procedures. Arrival extensions for instrument approach procedures may be Class D or Class E airspace. Unless otherwise authorized, each person must establish two-way radio communications with the ATC facility providing air traffic services prior to entering the airspace and thereafter maintain those communications while within the airspace. VFR aircraft are only separated from IFR aircraft within the airspace.

(See OUTER AREA.)

5. CLASS E—Generally, if the airspace is not Class A, Class B, Class C, or Class D, and it is controlled airspace, it is Class E airspace. Class E airspace extends upward from either the surface or a designated altitude to the overlying or adjacent controlled airspace. When designated as a surface area, the airspace will be configured to contain all instrument procedures. Also in this class are Federal airways, airspace beginning at either 700 or 1,200 feet AGL used to transition to/from the terminal or en route environment, en route domestic, and offshore airspace areas designated below 18,000 feet MSL. Unless designated at a lower altitude, Class E airspace begins at 14,500 MSL over the United States, including that airspace overlying the waters within 12 nautical miles of the coast of the 48 contiguous States and Alaska, up to, but not including 18,000 feet MSL, and the airspace above FL 600.

CONTROLLED AIRSPACE [ICAO]—An airspace of defined dimensions within which air traffic control service is provided to IFR flights and to VFR flights in accordance with the airspace classification.

Note: Controlled airspace is a generic term which covers ATS airspace Classes A, B, C, D, and E.

CONTROLLED TIME OF ARRIVAL—Arrival time assigned during a Traffic Management Program. This time may be modified due to adjustments or user options.

CONTROLLER—
(See AIR TRAFFIC CONTROL SPECIALIST.)

CONTROLLER [ICAO]—A person authorized to provide air traffic control services.

CONTROLLER PILOT DATA LINK COMMUNICATIONS (CPDLC)—A two-way digital communications system that conveys textual air traffic control messages between controllers and pilots using ground or satellite-based radio relay stations.

CONVECTIVE SIGMET—A weather advisory concerning convective weather significant to the safety of all aircraft. Convective SIGMETs are issued for tornadoes, lines of thunderstorms, embedded thunderstorms of any intensity level, areas of thunderstorms greater than or equal to VIP level 4 with an area coverage of $\frac{3}{10}$ (40%) or more, and hail $\frac{3}{4}$ inch or greater.

(See AIRMET.)
(See AWW.)
(See CWA.)
(See SIGMET.)
(Refer to AIM.)

CONVECTIVE SIGNIFICANT METEOROLOGICAL INFORMATION—
(See CONVECTIVE SIGMET.)

COORDINATES—The intersection of lines of reference, usually expressed in degrees/minutes/
seconds of latitude and longitude, used to determine position or location.

COORDINATION FIX– The fix in relation to which facilities will handoff, transfer control of an aircraft, or coordinate flight progress data. For terminal facilities, it may also serve as a clearance for arriving aircraft.

COPTER–
(See HELICOPTER.)

CORRECTION– An error has been made in the transmission and the correct version follows.

COUPLED APPROACH– An instrument approach performed by the aircraft autopilot, and/or visually depicted on the flight director, which is receiving position information and/or steering commands from onboard navigational equipment. In general, coupled non-precision approaches must be flown manually (autopilot disengaged) at altitudes lower than 50 feet AGL below the minimum descent altitude, and coupled precision approaches must be flown manually (autopilot disengaged) below 50 feet AGL unless authorized to conduct autoland operations. Coupled instrument approaches are commonly flown to the allowable IFR weather minima established by the operator or PIC, or flown VFR for training and safety.

COURSE–
\ a. The intended direction of flight in the horizontal plane measured in degrees from north.
\ b. The ILS localizer signal pattern usually specified as the front course or the back course.
(See BEARING.)
(See INSTRUMENT LANDING SYSTEM.)
(See RADIAL.)

CPDLC–
(See CONTROLLER PILOT DATA LINK COMMUNICATIONS.)

CPL [ICAO]–
(See ICAO term CURRENT FLIGHT PLAN.)

CRITICAL ENGINE– The engine which, upon failure, would most adversely affect the performance or handling qualities of an aircraft.

CROSS (FIX) AT (ALTITUDE)– Used by ATC when a specific altitude restriction at a specified fix is required. It does not prohibit the aircraft from crossing the fix at a higher altitude than specified; however, the higher altitude may not be one that will violate a succeeding altitude restriction or altitude assignment.
(See ALTITUDE RESTRICTION.)
(Refer to AIM.)

CROSS (FIX) AT OR ABOVE (ALTITUDE)– Used by ATC when an altitude restriction at a specified fix is required. It does not prohibit the aircraft from crossing the fix at a higher altitude than specified; however, the higher altitude may not be one that will violate a succeeding altitude restriction or altitude assignment.
(See ALTITUDE RESTRICTION.)
(See MINIMUM IFR ALTITUDES.)
(Refer to 14 CFR Part 91.)

CROSSWIND–
\ a. When used concerning the traffic pattern, the word means “crosswind leg.”
(See TRAFFIC PATTERN.)
\ b. When used concerning wind conditions, the word means a wind not parallel to the runway or the path of an aircraft.
(See CROSSWIND COMPONENT.)

CROSSWIND COMPONENT– The wind component measured in knots at 90 degrees to the longitudinal axis of the runway.

CRUISE– Used in an ATC clearance to authorize a pilot to conduct flight at any altitude from the minimum IFR altitude up to and including the altitude specified in the clearance. The pilot may level off at any intermediate altitude within this block of airspace. Climb/descent within the block is to be made at the discretion of the pilot. However, once the pilot starts descent and verbally reports leaving an altitude in the block, he/she may not return to that altitude without additional ATC clearance. Further, it is approval for the pilot to proceed to and make an approach at destination airport and can be used in conjunction with:
\ a. An airport clearance limit at locations with a standard/special instrument approach procedure. The CFRs require that if an instrument letdown to an airport is necessary, the pilot shall make the letdown in accordance with a standard/special instrument approach procedure for that airport, or
b. An airport clearance limit at locations that are within/below/outside controlled airspace and without a standard/special instrument approach procedure. Such a clearance is NOT AUTHORIZATION for the pilot to descend under IFR conditions below the applicable minimum IFR altitude nor does it imply that ATC is exercising control over aircraft in Class G airspace; however, it provides a means for the aircraft to proceed to destination airport, descend, and land in accordance with applicable CFRs governing VFR flight operations. Also, this provides search and rescue protection until such time as the IFR flight plan is closed.

(See INSTRUMENT APPROACH PROCEDURE.)

CRUISE CLIMB– A climb technique employed by aircraft, usually at a constant power setting, resulting in an increase of altitude as the aircraft weight decreases.

CRUISING ALTITUDE– An altitude or flight level maintained during en route level flight. This is a constant altitude and should not be confused with a cruise clearance.

(See ALTITUDE.)
(See ICAO term CRUISING LEVEL.)

CRUISING LEVEL–
(See CRUISING ALTITUDE.)

CRUISING LEVEL [ICAO]– A level maintained during a significant portion of a flight.

CT MESSAGE– An EDCT time generated by the ATCSCC to regulate traffic at arrival airports. Normally, a CT message is automatically transferred from the traffic management system computer to the NAS en route computer and appears as an EDCT. In the event of a communication failure between the traffic management system computer and the NAS, the CT message can be manually entered by the TMC at the en route facility.

CTA–
(See CONTROLLED TIME OF ARRIVAL.)
(See ICAO term CONTROL AREA.)

CTAF–
(See COMMON TRAFFIC ADVISORY FREQUENCY.)

CTAS–
(See CENTER TRACON AUTOMATION SYSTEM.)

CTOP–
(See COLLABORATIVE TRAJECTORY OPTIONS PROGRAM)

CTRD–
(See CERTIFIED TOWER RADAR DISPLAY.)

CURRENT FLIGHT PLAN [ICAO]– The flight plan, including changes, if any, brought about by subsequent clearances.

CURRENT PLAN– The ATC clearance the aircraft has received and is expected to fly.

CVFP APPROACH–
(See CHARTED VISUAL FLIGHT PROCEDURE APPROACH.)

CWA–
(See CENTER WEATHER ADVISORY and WEATHER ADVISORY.)
D-ATIS--
(See DIGITAL-AUTOMATIC TERMINAL INFORMATION SERVICE.)

DA [ICAO]--
(See ICAO Term DECISION ALTITUDE/DECISION HEIGHT.)

DAIR--
(See DIRECT ALTITUDE AND IDENTITY READOUT.)

DANGER AREA [ICAO]-- An airspace of defined dimensions within which activities dangerous to the flight of aircraft may exist at specified times.
  Note: The term "Danger Area" is not used in reference to areas within the United States or any of its possessions or territories.

DAS--
(See DELAY ASSIGNMENT.)

DATA BLOCK--
(See ALPHANUMERIC DISPLAY.)

DEAD RECKONING-- Dead reckoning, as applied to flying, is the navigation of an airplane solely by means of computations based on airspeed, course, heading, wind direction, and speed, groundspeed, and elapsed time.

DECISION ALTITUDE/DECISION HEIGHT [ICAO Annex 6] - A specified altitude or height (A/H) in the precision approach at which a missed approach must be initiated if the required visual reference to continue the approach has not been established.
  1. Decision altitude (DA) is referenced to mean sea level and decision height (DH) is referenced to the threshold elevation.
  2. Category II and III minima are expressed as a DH and not a DA. Minima is assessed by reference to a radio altimeter and not a barometric altimeter, which makes the minima a DH.
  3. The required visual reference means that section of the visual aids or of the approach area which should have been in view for sufficient time for the pilot to have made an assessment of the aircraft position and rate of change of position, in relation to the desired flight path.
  Decision altitude (DA) - A specified altitude (mean sea level (MSL)) on an instrument approach procedure (ILS, GLS, vertically guided RNAV) at which the pilot must decide whether to continue the approach or initiate an immediate missed approach if the pilot does not see the required visual references.

DECISION HEIGHT-- With respect to the operation of aircraft, means the height at which a decision must be made during an ILS or PAR instrument approach to either continue the approach or to execute a missed approach.
  (See ICAO term DECISION ALTITUDE/DECISION HEIGHT.)

DECODER-- The device used to decipher signals received from ATCRBS transponders to effect their display as select codes.
  (See CODES.)
  (See RADAR.)

DEFENSE AREA- Any airspace of the contiguous United States that is not an ADIZ in which the control of aircraft is required for reasons of national security.

DEFENSE VISUAL FLIGHT RULES-- Rules applicable to flights within an ADIZ conducted under the visual flight rules in 14 CFR Part 91.
  (See AIR DEFENSE IDENTIFICATION ZONE.)
  (Refer to 14 CFR Part 91.)
  (Refer to 14 CFR Part 99.)

DELAY ASSIGNMENT (DAS)-- Delays are distributed to aircraft based on the traffic management program parameters. The delay assignment is calculated in 15-minute increments and appears as a table in Traffic Flow Management System (TFMS).

DELAY INDEFINITE (REASON IF KNOWN) EXPECT FURTHER CLEARANCE (TIME)-- Used by ATC to inform a pilot when an accurate estimate of the delay time and the reason for the delay cannot immediately be determined; e.g., a disabled aircraft on the runway, terminal or center area saturation, weather below landing minimums, etc.
  (See EXPECT FURTHER CLEARANCE (TIME).)

DELAY TIME-- The amount of time that the arrival must lose to cross the meter fix at the assigned meter fix time. This is the difference between ACLT and VTA.
DEPARTURE CENTER– The ARTCC having jurisdiction for the airspace that generates a flight to the impacted airport.

DEPARTURE CONTROL– A function of an approach control facility providing air traffic control service for departing IFR and, under certain conditions, VFR aircraft.

(See APPROACH CONTROL FACILITY.)
(Refer to AIM.)

DEPARTURE SEQUENCING PROGRAM– A program designed to assist in achieving a specified interval over a common point for departures.

DEPARTURE TIME– The time an aircraft becomes airborne.

DESCEND VIA– An abbreviated ATC clearance that requires compliance with a published procedure lateral path and associated speed restrictions and provides a pilot-discretion descent to comply with published altitude restrictions.

DESCENT SPEED ADJUSTMENTS– Speed deceleration calculations made to determine an accurate VTA. These calculations start at the transition point and use arrival speed segments to the vertex.

DESIGNATED COMMON TRAFFIC ADVISORY FREQUENCY (CTAF) AREA– In Alaska, in addition to being designated for the purpose of carrying out airport advisory practices while operating to or from an airport without an operating airport traffic control tower, a CTAF may also be designated for the purpose of carrying out advisory practices for operations in and through areas with a high volume of VFR traffic.

DESIGNED COURSE–

a. True– A predetermined desired course direction to be followed (measured in degrees from true north).

b. Magnetic– A predetermined desired course direction to be followed (measured in degrees from local magnetic north).

DESIGNED TRACK– The planned or intended track between two waypoints. It is measured in degrees from either magnetic or true north. The instantaneous angle may change from point to point along the great circle track between waypoints.

DETRESFA (DISTRESS PHASE) [ICAO]– The code word used to designate an emergency phase wherein there is reasonable certainty that an aircraft and its occupants are threatened by grave and imminent danger or require immediate assistance.

DEViations–

a. A departure from a current clearance, such as an off course maneuver to avoid weather or turbulence.

b. Where specifically authorized in the CFRs and requested by the pilot, ATC may permit pilots to deviate from certain regulations.

DH–
(See DECISION HEIGHT.)

DH [ICAO]–
(See ICAO Term DECISION ALTITUDE/ DECISION HEIGHT.)

DIGITAL-AUTOMATIC TERMINAL INFORMATION SERVICE (D-ATIS)– The service provides text messages to aircraft, airlines, and other users outside the standard reception range of conventional ATIS via landline and data link communications to the cockpit. Also, the service provides a computer-synthesized voice message that can be transmitted to all aircraft within range of existing transmitters. The Terminal Data Link System (TDLS) D-ATIS application uses weather inputs from local automated weather sources or manually entered meteorological data together with preprogrammed menus to provide standard information to users. Airports with D-ATIS capability are listed in the Airport/Facility Directory.

DIGITAL TARGET– A computer-generated symbol representing an aircraft’s position, based on a primary return or radar beacon reply, shown on a digital display.

DIGITAL TERMINAL AUTOMATION SYSTEM (DTAS)– A system where digital radar and beacon data is presented on digital displays and the operational program monitors the system performance on a real-time basis.

DIGITIZED TARGET– A computer-generated indication shown on an analog radar display resulting from a primary radar return or a radar beacon reply.

DIRECT– Straight line flight between two navigational aids, fixes, points, or any combination thereof. When used by pilots in describing off-airway routes, points defining direct route segments become compulsory reporting points unless the aircraft is under radar contact.

DIRECT ALTITUDE AND IDENTITY READ-OUT– The DAIR System is a modification to the
GATE HOLD PROCEDURES—Procedures at selected airports to hold aircraft at the gate or other ground location whenever departure delays exceed or are anticipated to exceed 15 minutes. The sequence for departure will be maintained in accordance with initial call-up unless modified by flow control restrictions. Pilots should monitor the ground control/clearance delivery frequency for engine start/taxi advisories or new proposed start/taxi time if the delay changes.

GBT—
(See GROUND–BASED TRANSCEIVER.)

GCA—
(See GROUND CONTROLLED APPROACH.)

GDP—
(See GROUND DELAY PROGRAM.)

GENERAL AVIATION—That portion of civil aviation that does not include scheduled or unscheduled air carriers or commercial space operations.
(See ICAO term GENERAL AVIATION.)

GENERAL AVIATION [ICAO]—All civil aviation operations other than scheduled air services and nonscheduled air transport operations for remuneration or hire.

GEO MAP—The digitized map markings associated with the ASR-9 Radar System.

GLIDEPATH—
(See GLIDESLOPE.)

GLIDEPATH [ICAO]—A descent profile determined for vertical guidance during a final approach.

GLIDEPATH INTERCEPT ALTITUDE—
(See GLIDESLOPE INTERCEPT ALTITUDE.)

GLIDESLOPE—Provides vertical guidance for aircraft during approach and landing. The glideslope/glidpath is based on the following:

a. Electronic components emitting signals which provide vertical guidance by reference to airborne instruments during instrument approaches such as ILS or b. Visual ground aids, such as VASI, which provide vertical guidance for a VFR approach or for the visual portion of an instrument approach and landing.

c. PAR. Used by ATC to inform an aircraft making a PAR approach of its vertical position (elevation) relative to the descent profile.
(See ICAO term GLIDEPATH.)

GLIDESLOPE INTERCEPT ALTITUDE—The published minimum altitude to intercept the glideslope in the intermediate segment of an instrument approach. Government charts use the lightning bolt symbol to identify this intercept point. This intersection is called the Precise Final Approach fix (PFAF). ATC directs a higher altitude, the resultant intercept becomes the PFAF.
(See FINAL APPROACH FIX.)
(See SEGMENTS OF AN INSTRUMENT APPROACH PROCEDURE.)

GLOBAL NAVIGATION SATELLITE SYSTEM (GNSS) [ICAO]—GNSS refers collectively to the worldwide positioning, navigation, and timing determination capability available from one or more satellite constellation in conjunction with a network of ground stations.

GLOBAL NAVIGATION SATELLITE SYSTEM MINIMUM EN ROUTE IFR ALTITUDE (GNSS MEA)—The minimum en route IFR altitude on a published ATS route or route segment which assures acceptable Global Navigation Satellite System reception and meets obstacle clearance requirements.
(Refer to 14 CFR Part 91.)
(Refer to 14 CFR Part 95.)

GLOBAL POSITIONING SYSTEM (GPS)—GPS refers to the worldwide positioning, navigation and timing determination capability available from the U.S. satellite constellation. The service provided by GPS for civil use is defined in the GPS Standard Positioning System Performance Standard. GPS is composed of space, control, and user elements.

GNSS [ICAO]—
(See GLOBAL NAVIGATION SATELLITE SYSTEM.)
GNSS MEA–  
(See GLOBAL NAVIGATION SATELLITE SYSTEM MINIMUM EN ROUTE IFR ALTITUDE.)

GO AHEAD– Proceed with your message. Not to be used for any other purpose.

GO AROUND– Instructions for a pilot to abandon his/her approach to landing. Additional instructions may follow. Unless otherwise advised by ATC, a VFR aircraft or an aircraft conducting visual approach should overfly the runway while climbing to traffic pattern altitude and enter the traffic pattern via the crosswind leg. A pilot on an IFR flight plan making an instrument approach should execute the published missed approach procedure or proceed as instructed by ATC; e.g., “Go around” (additional instructions if required).

(See LOW APPROACH.)
(See MISSED APPROACH.)

GPD–  
(See GRAPHIC PLAN DISPLAY.)

GPS–  
(See GLOBAL POSITIONING SYSTEM.)

GRAPHIC PLAN DISPLAY (GPD)– A view available with URET that provides a graphic display of aircraft, traffic, and notification of predicted conflicts. Graphic routes for Current Plans and Trial Plans are displayed upon controller request.

(See USER REQUEST EVALUATION TOOL.)

GROSS NAVIGATION ERROR (GNE) – A lateral deviation from a cleared track, normally in excess of 25 Nautical Miles (NM). More stringent standards (for example, 10NM in some parts of the North Atlantic region) may be used in certain regions to support reductions in lateral separation.

GROUND–BASED TRANSCEIVER (GBT)– The ground–based transmitter/receiver (transceiver) receives automatic dependent surveillance–broadcast messages, which are forwarded to an air traffic control facility for processing and display with other radar targets on the plan position indicator (radar display).

(See AUTOMATIC DEPENDENT SURVEILLANCE–BROADCAST.)

GROUND CLUTTER– A pattern produced on the radar scope by ground returns which may degrade other radar returns in the affected area. The effect of ground clutter is minimized by the use of moving target indicator (MTI) circuits in the radar equipment resulting in a radar presentation which displays only targets which are in motion.

(See CLUTTER.)

GROUND COMMUNICATION OUTLET (GCO)– An unstaffed, remotely controlled, ground/ground communications facility. Pilots at uncontrolled airports may contact ATC and FSS via VHF to a telephone connection to obtain an instrument clearance or close a VFR or IFR flight plan. They may also get an updated weather briefing prior to takeoff. Pilots will use four “key clicks” on the VHF radio to contact the appropriate ATC facility or six “key clicks” to contact the FSS. The GCO system is intended to be used only on the ground.

GROUND CONTROLLED APPROACH– A radar approach system operated from the ground by air traffic control personnel transmitting instructions to the pilot by radio. The approach may be conducted with surveillance radar (ASR) only or with both surveillance and precision approach radar (PAR). Usage of the term “GCA” by pilots is discouraged except when referring to a GCA facility. Pilots should specifically request a “PAR” approach when a precision radar approach is desired or request an “ASR” or “surveillance” approach when a nonprecision radar approach is desired.

(See RADAR APPROACH.)

GROUND DELAY PROGRAM (GDP)– A traffic management process administered by the ATCC; when aircraft are held on the ground. The purpose of the program is to support the TM mission and limit airborne holding. It is a flexible program and may be implemented in various forms depending upon the needs of the AT system. Ground delay programs provide for equitable assignment of delays to all system users.

GROUND SPEED– The speed of an aircraft relative to the surface of the earth.

GROUND STOP (GS)– The GS is a process that requires aircraft that meet a specific criteria to remain on the ground. The criteria may be airport specific, airspace specific, or equipment specific; for example, all departures to San Francisco, or all departures entering Yorktown sector, or all Category I and II aircraft going to Charlotte. GSs normally occur with little or no warning.
M

MAA—
(See MAXIMUM AUTHORIZED ALTITUDE.)

MACH NUMBER— The ratio of true airspeed to the speed of sound; e.g., MACH .82, MACH 1.6.
(See AIRSPEED.)

MACH TECHNIQUE [ICAO]— Describes a control technique used by air traffic control whereby turbojet aircraft operating successively along suitable routes are cleared to maintain appropriate MACH numbers for a relevant portion of the en route phase of flight. The principle objective is to achieve improved utilization of the airspace and to ensure that separation between successive aircraft does not decrease below the established minima.

MAHWP—Missed Approach Holding Waypoint

MAINTAIN—

a. Concerning altitude/flight level, the term means to remain at the altitude/flight level specified. The phrase “climb and” or “descend and” normally precedes “maintain” and the altitude assignment; e.g., “descend and maintain 5,000.”

b. Concerning other ATC instructions, the term is used in its literal sense; e.g., maintain VFR.

MAINTENANCE PLANNING FRICTION LEVEL—The friction level specified in AC 150/5320-12, Measurement, Construction, and Maintenance of Skid Resistant Airport Pavement Surfaces, which represents the friction value below which the runway pavement surface remains acceptable for any category or class of aircraft operations but which is beginning to show signs of deterioration. This value will vary depending on the particular friction measurement equipment used.

MAKE SHORT APPROACH—Used by ATC to inform a pilot to alter his/her traffic pattern so as to make a short final approach.
(See TRAFFIC PATTERN.)

MAN PORTABLE AIR DEFENSE SYSTEMS (MANPADS)—MANPADS are lightweight, shoulder-launched, missile systems used to bring down aircraft and create mass casualties. The potential for MANPADS use against airborne aircraft is real and requires familiarity with the subject. Terrorists choose MANPADS because the weapons are low cost, highly mobile, require minimal set-up time, and are easy to use and maintain. Although the weapons have limited range, and their accuracy is affected by poor visibility and adverse weather, they can be fired from anywhere on land or from boats where there is unrestricted visibility to the target.

MANDATORY ALTITUDE—An altitude depicted on an instrument Approach Procedure Chart requiring the aircraft to maintain altitude at the depicted value.

MANPADS—
(See MAN PORTABLE AIR DEFENSE SYSTEMS.)

MAP—
(See MISSED APPROACH POINT.)

MARKER BEACON—An electronic navigation facility transmitting a 75 MHz vertical fan or boneshaped radiation pattern. Marker beacons are identified by their modulation frequency and keying code, and when received by compatible airborne equipment, indicate to the pilot, both aurally and visually, that he/she is passing over the facility.
(See INNER MARKER.)
(See MIDDLE MARKER.)
(See OUTER MARKER.)
(Refer to AIM.)

MARS—
(See MILITARY AUTHORITY ASSUMES RESPONSIBILITY FOR SEPARATION OF AIRCRAFT.)

MAWP—Missed Approach Waypoint

MAXIMUM AUTHORIZED ALTITUDE—A published altitude representing the maximum usable altitude or flight level for an airspace structure or route segment. It is the highest altitude on a Federal airway, jet route, area navigation low or high route, or other direct route for which an MEA is designated in 14 CFR Part 95 at which adequate reception of navigation aid signals is assured.

MAYDAY—The international radiotelephony distress signal. When repeated three times, it indicates
imminent and grave danger and that immediate assistance is requested.
(See PAN-PAN.)
(Refer to AIM.)

MCA–
(See MINIMUM CROSSING ALTITUDE.)

MDA–
(See MINIMUM DESCENT ALTITUDE.)

MEA–
(See MINIMUM EN ROUTE IFR ALTITUDE.)

MEARTS–
(See MICRO-EN ROUTE AUTOMATED RADAR TRACKING SYSTEM.)

METEOROLOGICAL IMPACT STATEMENT–An unscheduled planning forecast describing conditions expected to begin within 4 to 12 hours which may impact the flow of air traffic in a specific center’s (ARTCC) area.

METER FIX ARC–A semicircle, equidistant from a meter fix, usually in low altitude relatively close to the meter fix, used to help CTAS/HOST calculate a meter time, and determine appropriate sector meter list assignments for aircraft not on an established arrival route or assigned a meter fix.

METER FIX TIME/SLOT TIME–A calculated time to depart the meter fix in order to cross the vertex at the ACLT. This time reflects descent speed adjustment and any applicable time that must be absorbed prior to crossing the meter fix.

METER LIST–
(See ARRIVAL SECTOR ADVISORY LIST.)

METER LIST DISPLAY INTERVAL–A dynamic parameter which controls the number of minutes prior to the flight plan calculated time of arrival at the meter fix for each aircraft, at which time the TCLT is frozen and becomes an ACLT; i.e., the VTA is updated and consequently the TCLT modified as appropriate until frozen at which time updating is suspended and an ACLT is assigned. When frozen, the flight entry is inserted into the arrival sector’s meter list for display on the sector PVD/MDM. MLDI is used if filed true airspeed is less than or equal to freeze speed parameters (FSPD).

METERING–A method of time-regulating arrival traffic flow into a terminal area so as not to exceed a predetermined terminal acceptance rate.

METERING AIRPORTS–Airports adapted for metering and for which optimum flight paths are defined. A maximum of 15 airports may be adapted.

METERING FIX–A fix along an established route from over which aircraft will be metered prior to entering terminal airspace. Normally, this fix should be established at a distance from the airport which will facilitate a profile descent 10,000 feet above airport elevation (AAE) or above.

METERING POSITION(S)–Adapted PVDs/MDMs and associated “D” positions eligible for display of a metering position list. A maximum of four PVDs/MDMs may be adapted.

METERING POSITION LIST–An ordered list of data on arrivals for a selected metering airport displayed on a metering position PVD/MDM.

MFT–
(See METER FIX TIME/SLOT TIME.)

MHA–
(See MINIMUM HOLDING ALTITUDE.)

MIA–
(See MINIMUM IFR ALTITUDES.)

MICROBURST–A small downburst with outbursts of damaging winds extending 2.5 miles or less. In spite of its small horizontal scale, an intense microburst could induce wind speeds as high as 150 knots
(Refer to AIM.)

MICRO-EN ROUTE AUTOMATED RADAR TRACKING SYSTEM (ME ARTS)–An automated radar and radar beacon tracking system capable of employing both short-range (ASR) and long-range (ARSR) radars. This microcomputer driven system provides improved tracking, continuous data recording, and use of full digital radar displays.

MID RVR–
(See VISIBILITY.)

MIDDLE COMPASS LOCATOR–
(See COMPASS LOCATOR.)

MIDDLE MARKER–A marker beacon that defines a point along the glideslope of an ILS normally located at or near the point of decision height (ILS Category I). It is keyed to transmit alternate dots and dashes, with the alternate dots and dashes keyed at the rate of 95 dot/dash combinations per minute on a
1300 Hz tone, which is received aurally and visually by compatible airborne equipment.
(See INSTRUMENT LANDING SYSTEM.)
(See MARKER BEACON.)
(Refer to AIM.)

MILES-IN-TRAIL—A specified distance between aircraft, normally, in the same stratum associated with the same destination or route of flight.

MILITARY AUTHORITY ASSUMES RESPONSIBILITY FOR SEPARATION OF AIRCRAFT—A condition whereby the military services involved assume responsibility for separation between participating military aircraft in the ATC system. It is used only for required IFR operations which are specified in letters of agreement or other appropriate FAA or military documents.

MILITARY LANDING ZONE—A landing strip used exclusively by the military for training. A military landing zone does not carry a runway designation.

MILITARY OPERATIONS AREA—
(See SPECIAL USE AIRSPACE.)

MILITARY TRAINING ROUTES—Airspace of defined vertical and lateral dimensions established for the conduct of military flight training at airspeeds in excess of 250 knots IAS.
(See IFR MILITARY TRAINING ROUTES.)
(See VFR MILITARY TRAINING ROUTES.)

MINIMA—
(See MINIMUMS.)

MINIMUM CROSSING ALTITUDE—The lowest altitude at certain fixes at which an aircraft must cross when proceeding in the direction of a higher minimum en route IFR altitude (MEA).
(See MINIMUM EN ROUTE IFR ALTITUDE.)

MINIMUM DESCENT ALTITUDE—The lowest altitude, expressed in feet above mean sea level, to which descent is authorized on final approach or during circle-to-land maneuvering in execution of a standard instrument approach procedure where no electronic glideslope is provided.
(See NONPRECISION APPROACH PROCEDURE.)

MINIMUM EN ROUTE IFR ALTITUDE (MEA)—The lowest published altitude between radio fixes which assures acceptable navigational signal coverage and meets obstacle clearance requirements between those fixes. The MEA prescribed for a Federal airway or segment thereof, area navigation low or high route, or other direct route applies to the entire width of the airway, segment, or route.
(Refer to 14 CFR Part 91.)
(Refer to 14 CFR Part 95.)
(Refer to AIM.)

MINIMUM FRICTION LEVEL—The friction level specified in AC 150/5320-12, Measurement, Construction, and Maintenance of Skid Resistant Airport Pavement Surfaces, that represents the minimum recommended wet pavement surface friction value for any turbojet aircraft engaged in LAHSO. This value will vary with the particular friction measurement equipment used.

MINIMUM FUEL—Indicates that an aircraft’s fuel supply has reached a state where, upon reaching the destination, it can accept little or no delay. This is not an emergency situation but merely indicates an emergency situation is possible should any undue delay occur.
(Refer to AIM.)

MINIMUM HOLDING ALTITUDE—The lowest altitude prescribed for a holding pattern which assures navigational signal coverage, communications, and meets obstacle clearance requirements.

MINIMUM IFR ALTITUDES (MIA)—Minimum altitudes for IFR operations as prescribed in 14 CFR Part 91. These altitudes are published on aeronautical charts and prescribed in 14 CFR Part 95 for airways and routes, and in 14 CFR Part 97 for standard instrument approach procedures. If no applicable minimum altitude is prescribed in 14 CFR Part 95 or 14 CFR Part 97, the following minimum IFR altitude applies:

a. In designated mountainous areas, 2,000 feet above the highest obstacle within a horizontal distance of 4 nautical miles from the course to be flown; or

b. Other than mountainous areas, 1,000 feet above the highest obstacle within a horizontal distance of 4 nautical miles from the course to be flown; or
c. As otherwise authorized by the Administrator or assigned by ATC.
   (See MINIMUM CROSSING ALTITUDE.)
(See MINIMUM EN ROUTE IFR ALTITUDE.)
(See MINIMUM OBSTRUCTION CLEARANCE ALTITUDE.)
(See MINIMUM SAFE ALTITUDE.)
(See MINIMUM VECTORING ALTITUDE.)
(Refer to 14 CFR Part 91.)

MINIMUM NAVIGATION PERFORMANCE SPECIFICATION—A set of standards which require aircraft to have a minimum navigation performance capability in order to operate in MNPS designated airspace. In addition, aircraft must be certified by their State of Registry for MNPS operation.

MINIMUM NAVIGATION PERFORMANCE SPECIFICATION AIRSPACE—Designated airspace in which MNPS procedures are applied between MNPS certified and equipped aircraft. Under certain conditions, non-MNPS aircraft can operate in MNPSA. However, standard oceanic separation minima is provided between the non-MNPS aircraft and other traffic. Currently, the only designated MNPSA is described as follows:

a. Between FL 285 and FL 420;
b. Between latitudes 27ºC0095 and the North Pole;
c. In the east, the eastern boundaries of the CTAs Santa Maria Oceanic, Shanwick Oceanic, and Reykjavik;
d. In the west, the western boundaries of CTAs Reykjavik and Gander Oceanic and New York Oceanic excluding the area west of 60ºW and south of 38º30’N.

MINIMUM OBSTRUCTION CLEARANCE ALTITUDE (MOCA)—The lowest published altitude in effect between radio fixes on VOR airways, off-airway routes, or route segments which meets obstacle clearance requirements for the entire route segment and which assures acceptable navigational signal coverage only within 25 statute (22 nautical) miles of a VOR.
(Refer to 14 CFR Part 91.)
(Refer to 14 CFR Part 95.)

MINIMUM RECEPTION ALTITUDE—The lowest altitude at which an intersection can be determined.
(Refer to 14 CFR Part 95.)

MINIMUM SAFE ALTITUDE—

a. The minimum altitude specified in 14 CFR Part 91 for various aircraft operations.
b. Altitudes depicted on approach charts which provide at least 1,000 feet of obstacle clearance for emergency use within a specified distance from the navigation facility upon which a procedure is predicated. These altitudes will be identified as Minimum Sector Altitudes or Emergency Safe Altitudes and are established as follows:

1. Minimum Sector Altitudes. Altitudes depicted on approach charts which provide at least 1,000 feet of obstacle clearance within a 25-mile radius of the navigation facility upon which the procedure is predicated. Sectors depicted on approach charts must be at least 90 degrees in scope. These altitudes are for emergency use only and do not necessarily assure acceptable navigational signal coverage.
(See ICAO term Minimum Sector Altitude.)

2. Emergency Safe Altitudes. Altitudes depicted on approach charts which provide at least 1,000 feet of obstacle clearance in nonmountainous areas and 2,000 feet of obstacle clearance in designated mountainous areas within a 100-mile radius of the navigation facility upon which the procedure is predicated and normally used only in military procedures. These altitudes are identified on published procedures as “Emergency Safe Altitudes.”

MINIMUM SAFE ALTITUDE WARNING—A function of the ARTS III computer that aids the controller by alerting him/her when a tracked Mode C equipped aircraft is below or is predicted by the computer to go below a predetermined minimum safe altitude.
(Refer to AIM.)

MINIMUM SECTOR ALTITUDE [ICAO]—The lowest altitude which may be used under emergency conditions which will provide a minimum clearance of 300 m (1,000 feet) above all obstacles located in an area contained within a sector of a circle of 46 km (25 NM) radius centered on a radio aid to navigation.
MINIMUMS— Weather condition requirements established for a particular operation or type of operation; e.g., IFR takeoff or landing, alternate airport for IFR flight plans, VFR flight, etc.
(See IFR CONDITIONS.)
(See IFR TAKEOFF MINIMUMS AND DEPARTURE PROCEDURES.)
(See LANDING MINIMUMS.)
(See VFR CONDITIONS.)
(Refer to 14 CFR Part 91.)
(Refer to AIM.)

MINIMUM VECTORING ALTITUDE (MVA)—The lowest MSL altitude at which an IFR aircraft will be vectored by a radar controller, except as otherwise authorized for radar approaches, departures, and missed approaches. The altitude meets IFR obstacle clearance criteria. It may be lower than the published MEA along an airway or J-route segment. It may be utilized for radar vectoring only upon the controller’s determination that an adequate radar return is being received from the aircraft being controlled. Charts depicting minimum vectoring altitudes are normally available only to the controllers and not to pilots.
(Refer to AIM.)

MINUTES-IN-TRAIL—A specified interval between aircraft expressed in time. This method would more likely be utilized regardless of altitude.

MIS—
(See METEOROLOGICAL IMPACT STATEMENT.)

MISSED APPROACH—

a. A maneuver conducted by a pilot when an instrument approach cannot be completed to a landing. The route of flight and altitude are shown on instrument approach procedure charts. A pilot executing a missed approach prior to the Missed Approach Point (MAP) must continue along the final approach to the MAP.

b. A term used by the pilot to inform ATC that he/she is executing the missed approach.

c. At locations where ATC radar service is provided, the pilot should conform to radar vectors when provided by ATC in lieu of the published missed approach procedure.
(See MISSED APPROACH POINT.)
(Refer to AIM.)

MISSED APPROACH POINT—A point prescribed in each instrument approach procedure at which a missed approach procedure shall be executed if the required visual reference does not exist.
(See MISSED APPROACH.)
(See SEGMENTS OF AN INSTRUMENT APPROACH PROCEDURE.)

MISSED APPROACH PROCEDURE [ICAO—The procedure to be followed if the approach cannot be continued.
(See SEGMENTS OF AN INSTRUMENT APPROACH PROCEDURE.)

MLDI—
(See METER LIST DISPLAY INTERVAL.)

MM—
(See MIDDLE MARKER.)

MNPS—
(See MINIMUM NAVIGATION PERFORMANCE SPECIFICATION.)

MNPSA—
(See MINIMUM NAVIGATION PERFORMANCE SPECIFICATION AIRSPACE.)

MOA—
(See MILITARY OPERATIONS AREA.)

MOCA—
(See MINIMUM OBSTRUCTION CLEARANCE ALTITUDE.)

MODE—The letter or number assigned to a specific pulse spacing of radio signals transmitted or received by ground interrogator or airborne transponder components of the Air Traffic Control Radar Beacon System (ATCRBS). Mode A (military Mode 3) and Mode C (altitude reporting) are used in air traffic control.
(See INTERROGATOR.)
(See RADAR.)
(See TRANSPONDER.)
(See ICAO term MODE.)
(Refer to AIM.)

MODE (SSR MODE) [ICAO—The letter or number assigned to a specific pulse spacing of the interrogation signals transmitted by an interrogator. There are 4 modes, A, B, C and D specified in Annex 10, corresponding to four different interrogation pulse spacings.

MODE C INTRUDER ALERT—A function of certain air traffic control automated systems designed to alert radar controllers to existing or pending
situations between a tracked target (known IFR or VFR aircraft) and an untracked target (unknown IFR or VFR aircraft) that requires immediate attention/action.

(See CONFLICT ALERT.)

MONITOR-- (When used with communication transfer) listen on a specific frequency and stand by for instructions. Under normal circumstances do not establish communications.

MONITOR ALERT (MA)-- A function of the TFMS that provides traffic management personnel with a tool for predicting potential capacity problems in individual operational sectors. The MA is an indication that traffic management personnel need to analyze a particular sector for actual activity and to determine the required action(s), if any, needed to control the demand.

MONITOR ALERT PARAMETER (MAP)-- The number designated for use in monitor alert processing by the TFMS. The MAP is designated for each operational sector for increments of 15 minutes.

MOSAIC/MULTI-SENSOR MODE-- Accepts positional data from multiple radar or ADS-B sites. Targets are displayed from a single source within a radar sort box according to the hierarchy of the sources assigned.

MOVEMENT AREA-- The runways, taxiways, and other areas of an airport/heliport which are utilized for taxiing/ hover taxiing, air taxiing, takeoff, and landing of aircraft, exclusive of loading ramps and parking areas. At those airports/heliports with a tower, specific approval for entry onto the movement area must be obtained from ATC.

(See ICAO term MOVEMENT AREA.)

MOVEMENT AREA [ICAO]-- That part of an aerodrome to be used for the takeoff, landing and taxiing of aircraft, consisting of the maneuvering area and the apron(s).

MOVING TARGET INDICATOR-- An electronic device which will permit radar scope presentation only from targets which are in motion. A partial remedy for ground clutter.

MRA--

(See MINIMUM RECEPTION ALTITUDE.)

MSA--

(See MINIMUM SAFE ALTITUDE.)

MSAW--

(See MINIMUM SAFE ALTITUDE WARNING.)

MTI--

(See MOVING TARGET INDICATOR.)

MTR--

(See MILITARY TRAINING ROUTES.)

MULTICOM-- A mobile service not open to public correspondence used to provide communications essential to conduct the activities being performed by or directed from private aircraft.

MULTIPLE RUNWAYS-- The utilization of a dedicated arrival runway(s) for departures and a dedicated departure runway(s) for arrivals when feasible to reduce delays and enhance capacity.

MVA--

(See MINIMUM VECTORING ALTITUDE.)
P TIME—
(See PROPOSED DEPARTURE TIME.)

P-ACP—
(See PREARRANGED COORDINATION PROCEDURES.)

PAN-PAN—The international radio-telephony urgency signal. When repeated three times, indicates uncertainty or alert followed by the nature of the urgency.
(See MAYDAY.)
(Refer to AIM.)

PAR—
(See PRECISION APPROACH RADAR.)
PAR [ICAO]—
(See ICAO Term PRECISION APPROACH RADAR.)

PARALLEL ILS APPROACHES—Approaches to parallel runways by IFR aircraft which, when established inbound toward the airport on the adjacent final approach courses, are radar-separated by at least 2 miles.
(See FINAL APPROACH COURSE.)
(See SIMULTANEOUS ILS APPROACHES.)

PARALLEL OFFSET ROUTE—A parallel track to the left or right of the designated or established airway/route. Normally associated with Area Navigation (RNAV) operations.
(See AREA NAVIGATION.)

PARALLEL RUNWAYS—Two or more runways at the same airport whose centerlines are parallel. In addition to runway number, parallel runways are designated as L (left) and R (right) or, if three parallel runways exist, L (left), C (center), and R (right).

PBCT—
(See PROPOSED BOUNDARY CROSSING TIME.)

PBN
(See ICAO Term PERFORMANCE-BASED NAVIGATION.)

PDC—
(See PRE-DEPARTURE CLEARANCE.)

PERFORMANCE-BASED NAVIGATION (PBN) [ICAO]—Area navigation based on performance requirements for aircraft operating along an ATS route, on an instrument approach procedure or in a designated airspace.

Note: Performance requirements are expressed in navigation specifications (RNAV specification, RNP specification) in terms of accuracy, integrity, continuity, availability, and functionality needed for the proposed operation in the context of a particular airspace concept.

PERMANENT ECHO—Radar signals reflected from fixed objects on the earth’s surface; e.g., buildings, towers, terrain. Permanent echoes are distinguished from “ground clutter” by being definable locations rather than large areas. Under certain conditions they may be used to check radar alignment.

PHOTO RECONNAISSANCE—Military activity that requires locating individual photo targets and navigating to the targets at a preplanned angle and altitude. The activity normally requires a lateral route width of 16 NM and altitude range of 1,500 feet to 10,000 feet AGL.

PILOT BRIEFING—A service provided by the FSS to assist pilots in flight planning. Briefing items may include weather information, NOTAMS, military activities, flow control information, and other items as requested.
(Refer to AIM.)

PILOT IN COMMAND—The pilot responsible for the operation and safety of an aircraft during flight time.
(Refer to 14 CFR Part 91.)

PILOT WEATHER REPORT—A report of meteorological phenomena encountered by aircraft in flight.
(Refer to AIM.)

PILOT’S DISCRETION—When used in conjunction with altitude assignments, means that ATC has offered the pilot the option of starting climb or descent whenever he/she wishes and conducting the climb or descent at any rate he/she wishes. He/she may temporarily level off at any intermediate altitude. However, once he/she has vacated an altitude, he/she may not return to that altitude.
PIREP—  
(See PILOT WEATHER REPORT.)

PITCH POINT— A fix/waypoint that serves as a transition point from a departure procedure or the low altitude ground–based navigation structure into the high altitude waypoint system.

PLANS DISPLAY— A display available in URET that provides detailed flight plan and predicted conflict information in textual format for requested Current Plans and all Trial Plans.  
(See USER REQUEST EVALUATION TOOL.)

POFZ—  
(See PRECISION OBSTACLE FREE ZONE.)

POINT OUT—  
(See RADAR POINT OUT.)

POINT–TO–POINT (PTP)— A level of NRR service for aircraft that is based on traditional waypoints in their FMSs or RNAV equipage.

POLAR TRACK STRUCTURE— A system of organized routes between Iceland and Alaska which overlie Canadian MNPS Airspace.

POSITION REPORT— A report over a known location as transmitted by an aircraft to ATC.  
(Refer to AIM.)

POSITION SYMBOL— A computer-generated indication shown on a radar display to indicate the mode of tracking.

POSITIVE CONTROL— The separation of all air traffic within designated airspace by air traffic control.

PRACTICE INSTRUMENT APPROACH— An instrument approach procedure conducted by a VFR or an IFR aircraft for the purpose of pilot training or proficiency demonstrations.

PRE–DEPARTURE CLEARANCE— An application with the Terminal Data Link System (TDLS) that provides clearance information to subscribers, through a service provider, in text to the cockpit or gate printer.

PREARRANGED COORDINATION— A standard-ized procedure which permits an air traffic controller to enter the airspace assigned to another air traffic controller without verbal coordination. The procedures are defined in a facility directive which ensures approved separation between aircraft.

PREARRANGED COORDINATION PROCEDURES— A facility’s standardized procedure that describes the process by which one controller shall allow an aircraft to penetrate or transit another controller’s airspace in a manner that assu res approved separation without individual coordination for each aircraft.

PRECIPITATION— Any or all forms of water particles (rain, sleet, hail, or snow) that fall from the atmosphere and reach the surface.

PRECIPITATION RADAR WEATHER DESCRIPTIONS— Existing radar systems cannot detect turbulence. However, there is a direct correlation between the degree of turbulence and other weather features associated with thunderstorms and the weather radar precipitation intensity. Controllers will issue (where capable) precipitation intensity as observed by radar when using weather and radar processor (WARP) or NAS ground based digital radars with weather capabilities. When precipitation intensity information is not available, the intensity will be described as UNKNOWN. When intensity levels can be determined, they shall be described as:
  a. LIGHT (< 30 dBZ)
  b. MODERATE (30 to 40 dBZ)
  c. HEAVY (> 40 to 50 dBZ)
  d. EXTREME (> 50 dBZ)  
(Refer to AC 00–45, Aviation Weather Services.)

PRECISION APPROACH—  
(See PRECISION APPROACH PROCEDURE.)

PRECISION APPROACH PROCEDURE— A standard instrument approach procedure in which an electronic glideslope/or other type of glidespath is provided; e.g., ILS, PAR, and GLS.  
(See INSTRUMENT LANDING SYSTEM.)  
(See PRECISION APPROACH RADAR.)
point where the aircraft is established on the intermediate course or final approach course.  
(See ICAO term INITIAL APPROACH SEGMENT.)

b. Intermediate Approach– The segment between the intermediate fix or point and the final approach fix.  
(See ICAO term INTERMEDIATE APPROACH SEGMENT.)

c. Final Approach– The segment between the final approach fix or point and the runway, airport, or missed approach point.  
(See ICAO term FINAL APPROACH SEGMENT.)

d. Missed Approach– The segment between the missed approach point or the point of arrival at decision height and the missed approach fix at the prescribed altitude.  
(Refer to 14 CFR Part 97.)  
(See ICAO term MISSED APPROACH PROCEDURE.)

SEPARATION– In air traffic control, the spacing of aircraft to achieve their safe and orderly movement in flight and while landing and taking off.  
(See SEPARATION MINIMA.)  
(See ICAO term SEPARATION.)

SEPARATION [ICAO]– Spacing between aircraft, levels or tracks.

SEPARATION MINIMA– The minimum longitudinal, lateral, or vertical distances by which aircraft are spaced through the application of air traffic control procedures.  
(See SEPARATION.)

SERVICE– A generic term that designates functions or assistance available from or rendered by air traffic control. For example, Class C service would denote the ATC services provided within a Class C airspace area.

SEVERE WEATHER AVOIDANCE PLAN– An approved plan to minimize the affect of severe weather on traffic flows in impacted terminal and/or ARTCC areas. SWAP is normally implemented to provide the least disruption to the ATC system when flight through portions of airspace is difficult or impossible due to severe weather.

SEVERE WEATHER FORECAST ALERTS– Preliminary messages issued in order to alert users that a Severe Weather Watch Bulletin (WW) is being issued. These messages define areas of possible severe thunderstorms or tornado activity. The messages are unscheduled and issued as required by the Storm Prediction Center (SPC) at Norman, Oklahoma.  
(See AIRMET.)  
(See CONVective SIGMET.)  
(See CWA.)  
(See SIGMET.)

SFA–  
(See SINGLE FREQUENCY APPROACH.)

SFO–  
(See SIMULATED FLAMEOUT.)

SHF–  
(See SUPER HIGH FREQUENCY.)

SHORT RANGE CLEARANCE– A clearance issued to a departing IFR flight which authorizes IFR flight to a specific fix short of the destination while air traffic control facilities are coordinating and obtaining the complete clearance.

SHORT TAKEOFF AND LANDING AIRCRAFT– An aircraft which, at some weight within its approved operating weight, is capable of operating from a runway in compliance with the applicable STOL characteristics, airworthiness, operations, noise, and pollution standards.  
(See VERTICAL TAKEOFF AND LANDING AIRCRAFT.)

SIAP–  
(See STANDARD INSTRUMENT APPROACH PROCEDURE.)

SID–  
(See STANDARD INSTRUMENT DEPARTURE.)

SIDESTEP MANEUVER– A visual maneuver accomplished by a pilot at the completion of an instrument approach to permit a straight-in landing on a parallel runway not more than 1,200 feet to either side of the runway to which the instrument approach was conducted.  
(Refer to AIM.)

SIGMET– A weather advisory issued concerning weather significant to the safety of all aircraft.
SIGMET advisories cover severe and extreme turbulence, severe icing, and widespread dust or sandstorms that reduce visibility to less than 3 miles.

(See AIMET.)
(See AWW.)
(See CONVETIVE SIGMET.)
(See CWA.)
(See ICAO term SIGMET INFORMATION.)
(Refer to AIM.)

SIGMET INFORMATION [ICAO]— Information issued by a meteorological watch office concerning the occurrence or expected occurrence of specified en-route weather phenomena which may affect the safety of aircraft operations.

SIGNIFICANT METEOROLOGICAL INFORMATION—

(See SIGMET.)

SIGNIFICANT POINT— A point, whether a named intersection, a NAVAID, a fix derived from a NAVAID(s), or geographical coordinate expressed in degrees of latitude and longitude, which is established for the purpose of providing separation, as a reporting point, or to delineate a route of flight.

SIMPLIFIED DIRECTIONAL FACILITY— A NAVAID used for nonprecision instrument approaches. The final approach course is similar to that of an ILS localizer except that the SDF course may be offset from the runway, generally not more than 3 degrees, and the course may be wider than the localizer, resulting in a lower degree of accuracy.

(Refer to AIM.)

SIMULATED FLAMEOUT— A practice approach by a jet aircraft (normally military) at idle thrust to a runway. The approach may start at a runway (high key) and may continue on a relatively high and wide downwind leg with a continuous turn to final. It terminates in landing or low approach. The purpose of this approach is to simulate a flameout.

(See FLAMEOUT.)

SIMULTANEOUS CLOSE PARALLEL APPROACHES— A simultaneous, independent approach operation permitting ILS/RNAV/GLS approaches to airports having parallel runways separated by at least 3,000 feet and less than 4300 feet between centerlines. Aircraft are permitted to pass each other during these simultaneous operations. Integral parts of a total system are radar, NTZ monitoring with enhanced FMA color displays that include aural and visual alerts and predictive aircraft position software, communications override, ATC procedures, an Attention All Users Page (AAUP), PRM in the approach name, and appropriate ground based and airborne equipment. High update rate surveillance sensor required for certain runway or approach course separations.

SIMULTANEOUS (CONVERGING) DEPENDENT APPROACHES— An approach operation permitting ILS/RNAV/GLS approaches to runways or missed approach courses that intersect where required minimum spacing between the aircraft on each final approach course is required.

SIMULTANEOUS (CONVERGING) INDEPENDENT APPROACHES— An approach operation permitting ILS/RNAV/GLS approaches to non-parallel runways where approach procedure design maintains the required aircraft spacing throughout the approach and missed approach and hence the operations may be conducted independently.

SIMULTANEOUS ILS APPROACHES— An approach system permitting simultaneous ILS approaches to airports having parallel runways separated by at least 4,300 feet between centerlines. Integral parts of a total system are ILS, radar, communications, ATC procedures, and appropriate airborne equipment.

(See PARALLEL RUNWAYS.)
(Refer to AIM.)

SIMULTANEOUS OFFSET INSTRUMENT APPROACH (SOIA)— An instrument landing system comprised of an ILS PRM, RNAV PRM or GLS PRM approach to one runway and an offset LDA PRM with glideslope or an RNAV PRM or GLS PRM approach utilizing vertical guidance to another where parallel runway spaced less than 3,000 feet and at least 750 feet apart. The approach courses converge by 2.5 to 3 degrees. Simultaneous close parallel PRM approach procedures apply up to the point where the approach course separation becomes 3,000 feet, at the offset MAP. From the offset MAP to the runway threshold, visual separation by the aircraft conducting the offset approach is utilized.

(Refer to AIM)

SIMULTANEOUS (PARALLEL) DEPENDENT APPROACHES— An approach operation permitting ILS/RNAV/GLS approaches to adjacent parallel runways where prescribed diagonal spacing must be
maintained. Aircraft are not permitted to pass each other during simultaneous dependent operations. Integral parts of a total system ATC procedures, and appropriate airborne and ground based equipment.

SINGLE DIRECTION ROUTES—Preferred IFR Routes which are sometimes depicted on high altitude en route charts and which are normally flown in one direction only.
(See PREFERRED IFR ROUTES.)
(Refer to AIRPORT/FACILITY DIRECTORY.)

SINGLE FREQUENCY APPROACH—A service provided under a letter of agreement to military single-piloted turbojet aircraft which permits use of a single UHF frequency during approach for landing. Pilots will not normally be required to change frequency from the beginning of the approach to touchdown except that pilots conducting an en route descent are required to change frequency when control is transferred from the air route traffic control center to the terminal facility. The abbreviation “SFA” in the DOD FLIP IFR Supplement under “Communications” indicates this service is available at an aerodrome.

SINGLE-PILOTED AIRCRAFT—A military turbojet aircraft possessing one set of flight controls, tandem cockpits, or two sets of flight controls but operated by one pilot is considered single-piloted by ATC when determining the appropriate air traffic service to be applied.
(See SINGLE FREQUENCY APPROACH.)

SKYSPOTTER—A pilot who has received specialized training in observing and reporting inflight weather phenomena.

SLASH—A radar beacon reply displayed as an elongated target.

SLDI—
(See SECTOR LIST DROP INTERVAL.)

SLOT TIME—
(See METER FIX TIME/SLOT TIME.)

SLOW TAXI—To taxi a float plane at low power or low RPM.

SN—
(See SYSTEM STRATEGIC NAVIGATION.)

SPEAK SLOWER—Used in verbal communications as a request to reduce speech rate.

SPECIAL ACTIVITY AIRSPACE (SAA)—Any airspace with defined dimensions within the National Airspace System wherein limitations may be imposed upon aircraft operations. This airspace may be restricted areas, prohibited areas, military operations areas, air ATC assigned airspace, and any other designated airspace areas. The dimensions of this airspace are programmed into URET and can be designated as either active or inactive by screen entry. Aircraft trajectories are constantly tested against the dimensions of active areas and alerts issued to the applicable sectors when violations are predicted.
(See USER REQUEST EVALUATION TOOL.)

SPECIAL EMERGENCY—A condition of air piracy or other hostile act by a person(s) aboard an aircraft which threatens the safety of the aircraft or its passengers.

SPECIAL INSTRUMENT APPROACH PROCEDURE—
(See INSTRUMENT APPROACH PROCEDURE.)

SPECIAL USE AIRSPACE—Airspace of defined dimensions identified by an area on the surface of the earth wherein activities must be confined because of their nature and/or wherein limitations may be imposed upon aircraft operations that are not a part of those activities. Types of special use airspace are:

a. Alert Area—Airspace which may contain a high volume of pilot training activities or an unusual type of aerial activity, neither of which is hazardous to aircraft. Alert Areas are depicted on aeronautical charts for the information of nonparticipating pilots. All activities within an Alert Area are conducted in accordance with Federal Aviation Regulations, and pilots of participating aircraft as well as pilots transiting the area are equally responsible for collision avoidance.

b. Controlled Firing Area—Airspace wherein activities are conducted under conditions so controlled as to eliminate hazards to nonparticipating aircraft and to ensure the safety of persons and property on the ground.

c. Military Operations Area (MOA)—A MOA is airspace established outside of Class A airspace area to separate or segregate certain nonhazardous military activities from IFR traffic and to identify for VFR traffic where these activities are conducted.
(Refer to AIM.)

d. Prohibited Area—Airspace designated under 14 CFR Part 73 within which no person may operate
an aircraft without the permission of the using agency.

(Refer to AIM.)
(Refer to En Route Charts.)

e. Restricted Area—Airspace designated under 14 CFR Part 73, within which the flight of aircraft, while not wholly prohibited, is subject to restriction. Most restricted areas are designated joint use and IFR/VFR operations in the area may be authorized by the controlling ATC facility when it is not being utilized by the using agency. Restricted areas are depicted on en route charts. Where joint use is authorized, the name of the ATC controlling facility is also shown.

(Refer to 14 CFR Part 73.)
(Refer to AIM.)

f. Warning Area—A warning area is airspace of defined dimensions extending from 3 nautical miles outward from the coast of the United States, that contains activity that may be hazardous to nonparticipating aircraft. The purpose of such warning area is to warn nonparticipating pilots of the potential danger. A warning area may be located over domestic or international waters or both.

SPECIAL VFR CONDITIONS—Meteorological conditions that are less than those required for basic VFR flight in Class B, C, D, or E surface areas and in which some aircraft are permitted flight under visual flight rules.

(See SPECIAL VFR OPERATIONS.)
(Refer to 14 CFR Part 91.)

SPECIAL VFR FLIGHT [ICAO]—A VFR flight cleared by air traffic control to operate within Class B, C, D, and E surface areas in metrological conditions below VMC.

SPECIAL VFR OPERATIONS—Aircraft operating in accordance with clearances within Class B, C, D, and E surface areas in weather conditions less than the basic VFR weather minima. Such operations must be requested by the pilot and approved by ATC.

(See SPECIAL VFR CONDITIONS.)
(See ICAO term SPECIAL VFR FLIGHT.)

SPEED—
(See AIRSPEED.)
(See GROUND SPEED.)

SPEED ADJUSTMENT—An ATC procedure used to request pilots to adjust aircraft speed to a specific value for the purpose of providing desired spacing. Pilots are expected to maintain a speed of plus or minus 10 knots or 0.02 Mach number of the specified speed. Examples of speed adjustments are:

a. “Increase/reduce speed to Mach point (number).”

b. “Increase/reduce speed to (speed in knots)” or “Increase/reduce speed (number of knots) knots.”

SPEED BRAKES—Moveable aerodynamic devices on aircraft that reduce airspeed during descent and landing.

SPEED SEGMENTS—Portions of the arrival route between the transition point and the vertex along the optimum flight path for which speeds and altitudes are specified. There is one set of arrival speed segments adapted from each transition point to each vertex. Each set may contain up to six segments.

SQUAWK (Mode, Code, Function)—Activate specific modes/codes/functions on the aircraft transponder; e.g., “Squawk three/alpha, two one zero five, low.”

(See TRANSPONDER.)

STA—
(See SCHEDULED TIME OF ARRIVAL.)

STAGING/QUEUING—The placement, integration, and segregation of departure aircraft in designated movement areas of an airport by departure fix, EDCT, and/or restriction.

STAND BY—Means the controller or pilot must pause for a few seconds, usually to attend to other duties of a higher priority. Also means to wait as in “stand by for clearance.” The caller should reestablish contact if a delay is lengthy. “Stand by” is not an approval or denial.

STANDARD INSTRUMENT APPROACH PROCEDURE (SIAP)—
(See INSTRUMENT APPROACH PROCEDURE.)

STANDARD INSTRUMENT DEPARTURE (SID)—A preplanned instrument flight rule (IFR) air traffic control (ATC) departure procedure printed for pilot/controller use in graphic form to provide obstacle clearance and a transition from the terminal area to the appropriate en route structure. SIDs are primarily designed for system enhancement to expedite traffic flow and to reduce pilot/controller
radio frequency and also, for subscribers, in a text message via data link to the cockpit or to a gate printer. TDLS also provides Pre-departure Clearances (PDC), at selected airports, to subscribers, through a service provider, in text to the cockpit or to a gate printer. In addition, TDLS will emulate the Flight Data Input/Output (FDIO) information within the control tower.

TERMINAL RADAR SERVICE AREA– Airspace surrounding designated airports wherein ATC provides radar vectoring, sequencing, and separation on a full-time basis for all IFR and participating VFR aircraft. The AIM contains an explanation of TRSA. TRSAs are depicted on VFR aeronautical charts. Pilot participation is urged but is not mandatory.

TERMINAL VFR RADAR SERVICE– A national program instituted to extend the terminal radar services provided instrument flight rules (IFR) aircraft to visual flight rules (VFR) aircraft. The program is divided into four types service referred to as basic radar service, terminal radar service area (TRSA) service, Class B service and Class C service. The type of service provided at a particular location is contained in the Airport/Facility Directory.

a. Basic Radar Service– These services are provided for VFR aircraft by all commissioned terminal radar facilities. Basic radar service includes safety alerts, traffic advisories, limited radar vectoring when requested by the pilot, and sequencing at locations where procedures have been established for this purpose and/or when covered by a letter of agreement. The purpose of this service is to adjust the flow of arriving IFR and VFR aircraft into the traffic pattern in a safe and orderly manner and to provide traffic advisories to departing VFR aircraft.

b. TRSA Service– This service provides, in addition to basic radar service, sequencing of all IFR and participating VFR aircraft to the primary airport and separation between all participating VFR aircraft. The purpose of this service is to provide separation between all participating VFR aircraft and all IFR aircraft operating within the area defined as a TRSA.

c. Class C Service– This service provides, in addition to basic radar service, approved separation between IFR and VFR aircraft, and sequencing of VFR aircraft, and sequencing of VFR arrivals to the primary airport.

d. Class B Service– This service provides, in addition to basic radar service, approved separation of aircraft based on IFR, VFR, and/or weight, and sequencing of VFR arrivals to the primary airport(s).

   (See CONTROLLED AIRSPACE.)
   (See TERMINAL RADAR SERVICE AREA.)
   (Refer to AIM.)
   (Refer to AIRPORT/FACILITY DIRECTORY.)

TERMINAL-VERY HIGH FREQUENCY OMNI-DIRECTIONAL RANGE STATION– A very high frequency terminal omnirange station located on or near an airport and used as an approach aid.

   (See NAVIGATIONAL AID.)
   (See VOR.)

TERRAIN AWARENESS WARNING SYSTEM (TAWS)– An on-board, terrain proximity alerting system providing the aircrew ‘Low Altitude warnings’ to allow immediate pilot action.

TERRAIN FOLLOWING– The flight of a military aircraft maintaining a constant AGL altitude above the terrain or the highest obstruction. The altitude of the aircraft will constantly change with the varying terrain and/or obstruction.

TETRAHEDRON– A device normally located on uncontrolled airports and used as a landing direction indicator. The small end of a tetrahedron points in the direction of landing. At controlled airports, the tetrahedron, if installed, should be disregarded because tower instructions supersede the indicator.

   (See SEGMENTED CIRCLE.)
   (Refer to AIM.)

TF–

   (See TERRAIN FOLLOWING.)

THAT IS CORRECT– The understanding you have is right.

THREE-HOUR TARMAC RULE– Rule that relates to Department of Transportation (DOT) requirements placed on airlines when tarmac delays are anticipated to reach 3 hours.

360 OVERHEAD–

   (See OVERHEAD MANEUVER.)

THRESHOLD– The beginning of that portion of the runway usable for landing.

   (See AIRPORT LIGHTING.)
   (See DISPLACED THRESHOLD.)

THRESHOLD CROSSING HEIGHT– The theoretical height above the runway threshold at
which the aircraft’s glideslope antenna would be if
the aircraft maintains the trajectory established by the
mean ILS glideslope or the altitude at which the
calculated glidepath of an RNAV or GPS approaches.
(See GLIDESLOPE.)
(See THRESHOLD.)

THRESHOLD LIGHTS–
(See AIRPORT LIGHTING.)

TIBS–
(See TELEPHONE INFORMATION BRIEFING
SERVICE.)

TIE-IN FACILITY– The FSS primarily responsible
for providing FSS services, including telecommu-
ications services for landing facilities or
navigational aids located within the boundaries of a
flight plan area (FPA). Three-letter identifiers are
assigned to each FSS/FPA and are annotated as tie-in
facilities in A/FDs, the Alaska Supplement, the
Pacific Supplement, and FAA Order JO 7350.8,
Location Identifiers. Large consolidated FSS
facilities may have many tie-in facilities or FSS
sectors within one facility.
(See FLIGHT PLAN AREA.)
(See FLIGHT SERVICE STATION.)

TIME GROUP– Four digits representing the hour
and minutes from the Coordinated Universal Time
(UTC) clock. FAA uses UTC for all operations. The
term “ZULU” may be used to denote UTC. The word
“local” or the time zone equivalent shall be used to
denote local when local time is given during radio and
telephone communications. When written, a time
zone designator is used to indicate local time; e.g.
“0205M” (Mountain). The local time may be based
on the 24-hour clock system. The day begins at 0000
and ends at 2359.

TIS–B–
(See TRAFFIC INFORMATION
SERVICE–BROADCAST.)

TMA–
(See TRAFFIC MANAGEMENT ADVISOR.)

TMPA–
(See TRAFFIC MANAGEMENT PROGRAM
ALERT.)

TMU–
(See TRAFFIC MANAGEMENT UNIT.)

TODA–
(See TAKEOFF DISTANCE AVAILABLE.)
(See ICAO term TAKEOFF DISTANCE
AVAILABLE.)

TOI–
(See TRACK OF INTEREST.)

TOR ALTITUDE– In reference to SID published
altitude restrictions the charted “maintain” altitude
contained in the procedure description or assigned by
ATC.

TORA–
(See TAKEOFF RUN AVAILABLE.)
(See ICAO term TAKEOFF RUN AVAILABLE.)

TORCHING– The burning of fuel at the end of an
exhaust pipe or stack of a reciprocating aircraft
engine, the result of an excessive richness in the fuel
air mixture.

TOS–
(See TRAJECTORY OPTIONS SET)

TOTAL ESTIMATED ELAPSED TIME [ICAO]–
For IFR flights, the estimated time required from
take-off to arrive over that designated point, defined
by reference to navigation aids, from which it is
intended that an instrument approach procedure will
be commenced, or, if no navigation aid is associated
with the destination aerodrome, to arrive over the
destination aerodrome. For VFR flights, the
estimated time required from take-off to arrive over the
destination aerodrome.
(See ICAO term ESTIMATED ELAPSED TIME.)

TOUCH-AND-GO– An operation by an aircraft that
lands and departs on a runway without stopping or
exiting the runway.

TOUCH-AND-GO LANDING–
(See TOUCH-AND-GO.)

TOUCHDOWN–
 a. The point at which an aircraft first makes
contact with the landing surface.
 b. Concerning a precision radar approach (PAR),
it is the point where the glide path intercepts the
landing surface.
(See ICAO term TOUCHDOWN.)

TOUCHDOWN [ICAO]– The point where the
nominal glide path intercepts the runway.
Note: Touchdown as defined above is only a datum
and is not necessarily the actual point at which the
aircraft will touch the runway.
TOUCHDOWN RVR—
(See VISIBILITY.)

TOUCHDOWN ZONE— The first 3,000 feet of the runway beginning at the threshold. The area is used for determination of Touchdown Zone Elevation in the development of straight-in landing minimums for instrument approaches.
(See ICAO term TOUCHDOWN ZONE.)

TOUCHDOWN ZONE [ICAO]— The portion of a runway, beyond the threshold, where it is intended landing aircraft first contact the runway.

TOUCHDOWN ZONE ELEVATION— The highest elevation in the first 3,000 feet of the landing surface. TDZE is indicated on the instrument approach procedure chart when straight-in landing minimums are authorized.
(See TOUCHDOWN ZONE.)

TOUCHDOWN ZONE LIGHTING—
(See AIRPORT LIGHTING.)

TOWER— A terminal facility that uses air/ground communications, visual signaling, and other devices to provide ATC services to aircraft operating in the vicinity of an airport or on the movement area. Authorizes aircraft to land or takeoff at the airport controlled by the tower or to transit the Class D airspace area regardless of flight plan or weather conditions (IFR or VFR). A tower may also provide approach control services (radar or nonradar).
(See AIRPORT TRAFFIC CONTROL SERVICE.)
(See APPROACH CONTROL FACILITY.)
(See APPROACH CONTROL SERVICE.)
(See MOVEMENT AREA.)
(See TOWER EN ROUTE CONTROL SERVICE.)
(See ICAO term AERODROME CONTROL TOWER.)
(Refer to AIM.)

TOWER EN ROUTE CONTROL SERVICE— The control of IFR en route traffic within delegated airspace between two or more adjacent approach control facilities. This service is designed to expedite traffic and reduce control and pilot communication requirements.

TOWER TO TOWER—
(See TOWER EN ROUTE CONTROL SERVICE.)

TPX-42— A numeric beacon decoder equipment/system. It is designed to be added to terminal radar systems for beacon decoding. It provides rapid target identification, reinforcement of the primary radar target, and altitude information from Mode C.
(See AUTOMATED RADAR TERMINAL SYSTEMS.)
(See TRANSPODER.)

TRACEABLE PRESSURE STANDARD— The facility station pressure instrument, with certification/calibration traceable to the National Institute of Standards and Technology. Traceable pressure standards may be mercurial barometers, commissioned ASOS/AWSS or dual transducer AWOS, or portable pressure standards or DASI.

TRACK— The actual flight path of an aircraft over the surface of the earth.
(See COURSE.)
(See FLIGHT PATH.)
(See ROUTE.)
(See ICAO term TRACK.)

TRACK [ICAO]— The projection on the earth’s surface of the path of an aircraft, the direction of which path at any point is usually expressed in degrees from North (True, Magnetic, or Grid).

TRACK OF INTEREST (TOI)— Displayed data representing an airborne object that threatens or has the potential to threaten North America or National Security. Indicators may include, but are not limited to: noncompliance with air traffic control instructions or aviation regulations; extended loss of communications; unusual transmissions or unusual flight behavior; unauthorized intrusion into controlled airspace or an ADIZ; noncompliance with issued flight restrictions/security procedures; or unlawful interference with airborne flight crews, up to and including hijack. In certain circumstances, an object may become a TOI based on specific and credible intelligence pertaining to that particular aircraft/object, its passengers, or its cargo.

TRACK OF INTEREST RESOLUTION— A TOI will normally be considered resolved when: the aircraft/object is no longer airborne; the aircraft complies with air traffic control instructions, aviation regulations, and/or issued flight restrictions/security procedures; radio contact is re-established and authorized control of the aircraft is verified; the aircraft is intercepted and intent is verified to be nonthreatening/nonhostile; TOI was identified based...
on specific and credible intelligence that was later determined to be invalid or unreliable; or displayed data is identified and characterized as invalid.

TRAFFIC—

a. A term used by a controller to transfer radar identification of an aircraft to another controller for the purpose of coordinating separation action. Traffic is normally issued:
   1. In response to a handoff or point out,
   2. In anticipation of a handoff or point out, or
   3. In conjunction with a request for control of an aircraft.

b. A term used by ATC to refer to one or more aircraft.

TRAFFIC ADVISORIES—Advisories issued to alert pilots to other known or observed air traffic which may be in such proximity to the position or intended route of flight of their aircraft to warrant their attention. Such advisories may be based on:

a. Visual observation.

b. Observation of radar identified and nonidentified aircraft targets on an ATC radar display, or

c. Verbal reports from pilots or other facilities.

Note 1: The word “traffic” followed by additional information, if known, is used to provide such advisories; e.g., “Traffic, 2 o’clock, one zero miles, southbound, eight thousand.”

Note 2: Traffic advisory service will be provided to the extent possible depending on higher priority duties of the controller or other limitations; e.g., radar limitations, volume of traffic, frequency congestion, or controller workload. Radar/nonradar traffic advisories do not relieve the pilot of his/her responsibility to see and avoid other aircraft. Pilots are cautioned that there are many times when the controller is not able to give traffic advisories concerning all traffic in the aircraft’s proximity; in other words, when a pilot requests or is receiving traffic advisories, he/she should not assume that all traffic will be issued.

(Refer to AIM.)

TRAFFIC ALERT (aircraft call sign), TURN (left/right) IMMEDIATELY, (climb/descend) AND MAINTAIN (altitude).

(See SAFETY ALERT.)

TRAFFIC ALERT AND COLLISION AVOIDANCE SYSTEM—An airborne collision avoidance system based on radar beacon signals which operates independent of ground-based equipment. TCAS-I generates traffic advisories only. TCAS-II generates traffic advisories, and resolution (collision avoidance) advisories in the vertical plane.

TRAFFIC INFORMATION—

(See TRAFFIC ADVISORIES.)

TRAFFIC INFORMATION SERVICE—BROADCAST (TIS–B)—The broadcast of ATC derived traffic information to ADS–B equipped (1090ES or UAT) aircraft. The source of this traffic information is derived from ground–based air traffic surveillance sensors, typically from radar targets. TIS–B service will be available throughout the NAS where there are both adequate surveillance coverage (radar) and adequate broadcast coverage from ADS–B ground stations. Loss of TIS–B will occur when an aircraft enters an area not covered by the GBT network. If this occurs in an area with adequate surveillance coverage (radar), nearby aircraft that remain within the adequate broadcast coverage (ADS–B) area will view the first aircraft. TIS–B may continue when an aircraft enters an area with inadequate surveillance coverage (radar); nearby aircraft that remain within the adequate broadcast coverage (ADS–B) area will not view the first aircraft.

TRAFFIC IN SIGHT—Used by pilots to inform a controller that previously issued traffic is in sight.

(See NEGATIVE CONTACT.)

(See TRAFFIC ADVISORIES.)

TRAFFIC MANAGEMENT ADVISOR (TMA)—A computerized tool which assists Traffic Management Coordinators to efficiently schedule arrival traffic to a metered airport, by calculating meter fix times and delays then sending that information to the sector controllers.

TRAFFIC MANAGEMENT PROGRAM ALERT—A term used in a Notice to Airmen (NOTAM) issued in conjunction with a special traffic management program to alert pilots to the existence of the program and to refer them to either the Notices to Airmen publication or a special traffic management program advisory message for program details. The contraction TMPA is used in NOTAM text.

TRAFFIC MANAGEMENT UNIT—The entity in ARTCCs and designated terminals directly involved in the active management of facility traffic. Usually under the direct supervision of an assistant manager for traffic management.
TRAFFIC NO FACTOR— Indicates that the traffic described in a previously issued traffic advisory is no factor.

TRAFFIC NO LONGER OBSERVED— Indicates that the traffic described in a previously issued traffic advisory is no longer depicted on radar, but may still be a factor.

TRAFFIC PATTERN— The traffic flow that is prescribed for aircraft landing at, taxiing on, or taking off from an airport. The components of a typical traffic pattern are upwind leg, crosswind leg, downwind leg, base leg, and final approach.

a. Upwind Leg— A flight path parallel to the landing runway in the direction of landing.

b. Crosswind Leg— A flight path at right angles to the landing runway off its upwind end.

c. Downwind Leg— A flight path parallel to the landing runway in the direction opposite to landing. The downwind leg normally extends between the crosswind leg and the base leg.

d. Base Leg— A flight path at right angles to the landing runway off its approach end. The base leg normally extends from the downwind leg to the intersection of the extended runway centerline.

e. Final Approach. A flight path in the direction of landing along the extended runway centerline. The final approach normally extends from the base leg to the runway. An aircraft making a straight-in approach VFR is also considered to be on final approach.

(See STRAIGHT-IN APPROACH VFR.)
(See TAXI PATTERNS.)
(See ICAO term AERODROME TRAFFIC CIRCUIT.)
(Refer to 14 CFR Part 91.)
(Refer to AIM.)

TRAFFIC SITUATION DISPLAY (TSD)— TSD is a computer system that receives radar track data from all 20 CONUS ARTCCs, organizes this data into a mosaic display, and presents it on a computer screen. The display allows the traffic management coordinator multiple methods of selection and highlighting of individual aircraft or groups of aircraft. The user has the option of superimposing these aircraft positions over any number of background displays. These background options include ARTCC boundaries, any stratum of en route sector boundaries, fixes, airways, military and other special use airspace, airports, and geopolitical boundaries. By using the TSD, a coordinator can monitor any number of traffic situations or the entire systemwide traffic flows.

TRAJECTORY— A URET representation of the path an aircraft is predicted to fly based upon a Current Plan or Trial Plan.

(See USER REQUEST EVALUATION TOOL.)

TRAJECTORY MODELING— The automated process of calculating a trajectory.

TRAJECTORY OPTIONS SET (TOS)— A TOS is an electronic message, submitted by the operator, that is used by the Collaborative Trajectory Options Program (CTOP) to manage the airspace captured in the traffic management program. The TOS will allow the operator to express the route and delay trade-off options that they are willing to accept.

TRANSCRIBED WEATHER BROADCAST— A continuous recording of meteorological and aeronautical information that is broadcast on L/MF and VOR facilities for pilots. (Provided only in Alaska.)

(Refer to AIM.)

TRANSFER OF CONTROL— That action whereby the responsibility for the separation of an aircraft is transferred from one controller to another.

(See ICAO term TRANSFER OF CONTROL.)

TRANSFER OF CONTROL [ICAO]— Transfer of responsibility for providing air traffic control service.

TRANSFERRING CONTROLLER— A controller/facility transferring control of an aircraft to another controller/facility.

(See ICAO term TRANSFERRING UNIT/CONTROLLER.)

TRANSFERRING FACILITY— (See TRANSFERRING CONTROLLER.)

TRANSFERRING UNIT/CONTROLLER [ICAO]— Air traffic control unit/air traffic controller in the process of transferring the responsibility for providing air traffic control service to an aircraft to the next air traffic control unit/air traffic controller along the route of flight.

Note: See definition of accepting unit/controller.

TRANSITION—

a. The general term that describes the change from one phase of flight or flight condition to another; e.g., transition from en route flight to the approach or transition from instrument flight to visual flight.

b. A published procedure (DP Transition) used to connect the basic DP to one of several en route
airways/jet routes, or a published procedure (STAR Transition) used to connect one of several en route airways/jet routes to the basic STAR.

(Refer to DP/STAR Charts.)

TRANSITION POINT—A point at an adapted number of miles from the vertex at which an arrival aircraft would normally commence descent from its en route altitude. This is the first fix adapted on the arrival speed segments.

TRANSITION WAYPOINT—The waypoint that defines the beginning of a runway or en route transition on an RNAV SID or STAR.

TRANSITIONAL AIRSPACE—That portion of controlled airspace wherein aircraft change from one phase of flight or flight condition to another.

TRANSMISSOMETER—An apparatus used to determine visibility by measuring the transmission of light through the atmosphere. It is the measurement source for determining runway visual range (RVR) and runway visibility value (RVV).

(See VISIBILITY.)

TRANSMITTING IN THE BLIND—A transmission from one station to other stations in circumstances where two-way communication cannot be established, but where it is believed that the called stations may be able to receive the transmission.

TRANSPONDER—The airborne radar beacon receiver/transmitter portion of the Air Traffic Control Radar Beacon System (ATCRBS) which automatically receives radio signals from interrogators on the ground, and selectively replies with a specific reply pulse or pulse group only to those interrogations being received on the mode to which it is set to respond.

(See INTERROGATOR.)
(See ICAO term TRANSPONDER.)
(Refer to AIM.)

TRANSPONDER [ICAO]—A receiver/transmitter which will generate a reply signal upon proper interrogation; the interrogation and reply being on different frequencies.

TRANSPONDER CODES—
(See CODES.)

TRANSPONDER OBSERVED—Phraseology used to inform a VFR pilot the aircraft’s assigned beacon code and position have been observed. Specifically, this term conveys to a VFR pilot the transponder reply has been observed and its position correlated for transit through the designated area.

TRIAL PLAN—A proposed amendment which utilizes automation to analyze and display potential conflicts along the predicted trajectory of the selected aircraft.

TRSA—
(See TERMINAL RADAR SERVICE AREA.)

TSD—
(See TRAFFIC SITUATION DISPLAY.)

TURBOJET AIRCRAFT—An aircraft having a jet engine in which the energy of the jet operates a turbine which in turn operates the air compressor.

TURBOPROP AIRCRAFT—An aircraft having a jet engine in which the energy of the jet operates a turbine which drives the propeller.

TURN ANTICIPATION—(maneuver anticipation).

TVOR—
(See TERMINAL-VERY HIGH FREQUENCY OMNIDIRECTIONAL RANGE STATION.)

TWEB—
(See TRANSCRIBED WEATHER BROADCAST.)

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