



U.S. Department
of Transportation

**Federal Aviation
Administration**

AERONAUTICAL INFORMATION MANUAL

*Change 2
May 19, 2022*

**DO NOT DESTROY
BASIC DATED
JUNE 17, 2021**

Aeronautical Information Manual

Explanation of Changes

Effective: May 19, 2022

a. 1-1-13. USER REPORTS REQUESTED ON NAVAID OUTAGES

The current publication of the AIM contains a duplication of content in paragraph 1-1-13. This change deletes the duplicated section found in paragraph 1-1-13, subparagraph a.

b. 2-2-4. LED LIGHTING SYSTEMS

This change adds a new paragraph providing information and clarity in order to emphasize the importance of incorporating procedures—for the avoidance of obstacles marked with light-emitting diode (LED) obstruction lights during night vision goggles (NVG) operations—into manuals and/or standard operating procedures (SOP).

c. 5-4-5. INSTRUMENT APPROACH PROCEDURE (IAP) CHARTS

FAA Order 8260.46 is updated to reflect adding minimum safe altitudes (MSAs) to graphic departures. This AIM change reflects the new terminal instrument procedures (TERPS) guidance.

d. 7-1-2. FAA WEATHER SERVICES

This change adds a new table for SPECI issuance including snow-related intensity changes so flight crews can accurately assess holdover time limitations. TBL 7-1-1 in Chapter 7, Section 1, was

inserted and other tables in the chapter renumbered along with a new sentence to reference the table.

e. 7-1-12. ATC INFLIGHT WEATHER AVOIDANCE ASSISTANCE

This change adds the word “lateral” to this paragraph to align with FAA Order JO 7110.65 and the Aeronautical Information Publication (AIP).

f. 7-6-2. REPORTING RADIO/RADAR ALTIMETER ANOMALIES

This change adds a new paragraph to address the issue of radio frequency interference (RFI) in the C-band that could cause erroneous radio altimeter values and impact dependent system functions due to the deployment of 5G antennas.

g. Editorial Changes

Editorial changes include the replacement of filing code M2 for M3 in paragraph 5-1-6 and various tables in Appendix 4, correcting the spelling of Harrisburg International Airport in the title of FIG 5-4-12, and updating a hyperlink in subparagraph 4-7-1e.

h. Entire Publication

Additional editorial/format changes were made where necessary. Revision bars were not used because of the insignificant nature of these changes.

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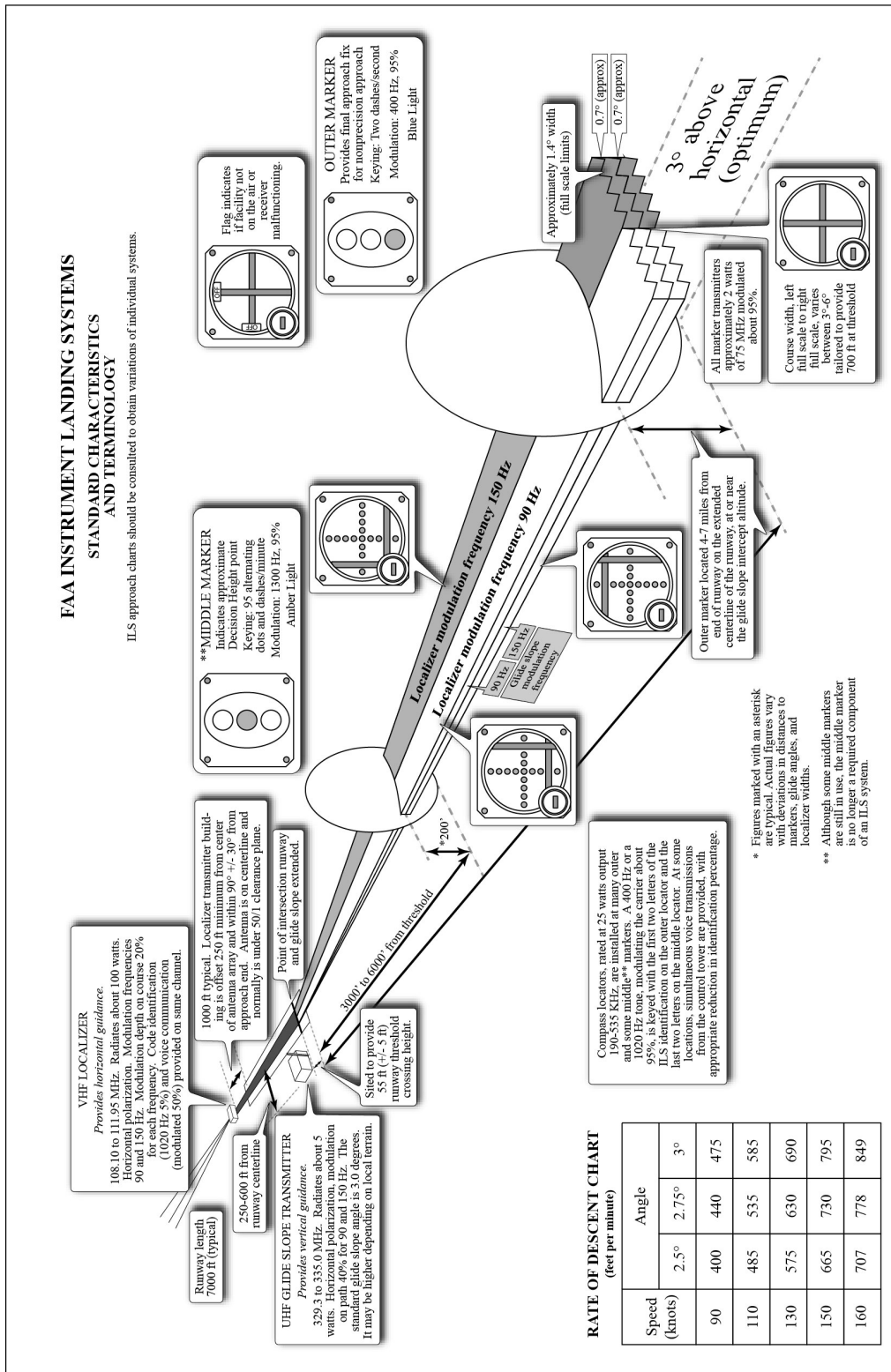
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FIG 1-1-8
FAA Instrument Landing Systems



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. Facilities with two-way voice communication available are indicated in the Chart Supplement U.S. 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 Chart Supplement U.S.

1-1-13. User Reports Requested on NAVAID Outages

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 avionics 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. For instance, pilots conducting operations in areas where there is GNSS interference may be unable to use GPS for navigation, and ADS-B may be unavailable for surveillance. Radio frequency interference may affect both navigation for the pilot and surveillance by the air traffic controller. Depending on the equipment and integration, either an advisory light or message may alert the pilot. Air traffic controllers monitoring ADS-B reports may stop receiving ADS-B position messages and associated aircraft tracks.

b. Malfunctioning, faulty, inappropriately installed, operated, or modified GPS re-radiator systems, intended to be used for aircraft maintenance activities, have resulted in unintentional disruption of aviation GPS receivers. This type of disruption could result in unflagged, erroneous position-information output to primary flight displays/indicators and to other aircraft and air traffic control systems. Since Receiver Autonomous Integrity Monitoring (RAIM) is only partially effective against this type of disruption (effectively a “signal spoofing”), the pilot may not be aware of any erroneous navigation indications; ATC may be the only means available to identify these disruptions and detect unexpected aircraft positions while monitoring aircraft for IFR separation.

c. Pilots encountering navigation error events should transition to another source of navigation and request amended clearances from ATC as necessary.

d. Pilots are encouraged to submit detailed reports of NAVAID or GPS anomaly as soon as practical. Pilot reports of navigation error events should contain the following information:

1. Date and time the anomaly was observed, and NAVAID ID (or GPS).

2. Location of the aircraft at the time the anomaly started and ended (e.g., latitude/longitude or bearing/distance from a reference point),

3. Heading, altitude, type of aircraft (make/model/call sign),

4. Type of avionics/receivers in use (e.g., make/model/software series or version),

5. Number of satellites being tracked, if applicable,

6. Description of the position/navigation/timing anomaly observed, and duration of the event,

7. Consequences/operational impact(s) of the NAVAID or GPS anomaly,

8. Actions taken to mitigate the anomaly and/or remedy provided by the ATC facility,

9. Post flight pilot/maintenance actions taken.

e. Pilots operating an aircraft in controlled airspace under IFR shall comply with CFR § 91.187 and promptly report as soon as practical to ATC any malfunctions of navigational equipment occurring in flight; pilots should submit initial reports:

1. Immediately, by radio to the controlling ATC facility or FSS.

2. By telephone to the nearest ATC facility controlling the airspace where the disruption was experienced.

3. Additionally, GPS problems should be reported, post flight, by Internet via the GPS Anomaly Reporting Form at http://www.faa.gov/air_traffic/nas/gps_reports/.

f. To minimize ATC workload, GPS anomalies associated with known testing NOTAMs should NOT be reported in-flight to ATC in detail; EXCEPT when:

1. GPS degradation is experienced outside the NOTAMed area,

2. Pilot observes any unexpected consequences (e.g., equipment failure, suspected spoofing, failure of unexpected aircraft systems, such as TAWS).

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>. Operators should also note that TSO-C60b, AIRBORNE AREA NAVIGATION EQUIPMENT USING LORAN-C INPUTS, has been canceled by the FAA.

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 three-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 constellation and monitors the GPS satellites to ensure proper operation. Each satellite's orbital parameters (ephemeris 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, satellite status is available through the Notice to Air Missions (NOTAM) system.

(b) GNSS operational status depends on the type of equipment being used. For GPS-only equipment TSO-C129 or TSO-C196(), the operational 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 requirements 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). Equipment 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, Chart Supplement U.S., 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 Chart Supplement U.S.

(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 programming 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 7-6-3, 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 suitable 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 Appendix 4, TBL 4-2, 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 (± 1 NM) 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) 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) Civilian pilots may obtain GPS RAIM availability information for nonprecision approach procedures by using a manufacturer-supplied RAIM prediction tool, or using the Service Availability Prediction Tool (SAPT) on the FAA en route and terminal RAIM prediction website. 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.

(3) The military provides airfield specific GPS RAIM NOTAMs for nonprecision 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.

(4) 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.

(5) 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.

(6) 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.

(7) 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 nor 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.

(8) 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.

(h) 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 missed approach waypoint (MAWP) will always be a fly-over waypoint. A holding waypoint will always be designed as a fly-over waypoint in the navigational database but may be charted as a fly-by event unless the holding waypoint is used for another purpose in the procedure and both events require the waypoint to be a fly-over event. 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. Since the waypoint can only be charted one way, when this situation occurs, the fly-by waypoint symbol will be charted in all uses of the waypoint.

(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.

(i) 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.

(j) Impact of Magnetic Variation on PBN Systems

(1) Differences may exist between PBN systems and the charted magnetic courses on ground-based NAVAID 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 NAVAID 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 NAVAID.

(k) 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
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	yes
B2	yes		yes	yes	yes	no
B3		yes	yes	yes	yes	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

Equipment Type¹	Installation Approval Required	Operational Approval Required	IFR En Route²	IFR Terminal²	IFR Approach³	Oceanic Remote	In Lieu of ADF and/or DME³
Hand held ⁴	X ⁵						
VFR Panel Mount ⁴	X						
IFR En Route and Terminal	X	X	X	X			X
IFR Oceanic/Remote	X	X	X	X		X	X
IFR En Route, Terminal, and Approach	X	X	X	X	X		X

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. India and Europe are building similar systems: EGNOS, the European Geostationary Navigation Overlay System; and India's GPS and Geo-Augmented Navigation (GAGAN) system. 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 $\frac{1}{2}$ 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—

WAAS 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 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 Air Missions (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 1311160600- 1311191200EST.

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

(c) 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 4/3406 (PAZA A0173/14) ZAN NAV WAAS SIGNAL MAY NOT BE AVBL NORTH OF LINE FROM 7000N150000W TO 6400N16400W. 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 1-1-17 d 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 **▲ NA** (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 **▲ NA** 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 **▲ NA** 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 if the receiver is certified for LPV and the signal supports LPV. If the signal does not support vertical guidance on procedures with LPV and/or LNAV/VNAV minima, the receiver annunciation 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 ± 1 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. A GBAS ground installation at an airport can provide localized, differential augmentation to the Global Positioning System (GPS) signal–in–space enabling an aircraft’s GLS precision approach capability. Through the GBAS service and the aircraft’s GLS installation a pilot may complete an instrument approach offering three–dimensional angular, lateral, and vertical guidance for exact alignment and descent to a runway. The operational benefits of a GLS approach are similar to the benefits of an ILS or LPV approach operation.

NOTE—

To remain consistent with international terminology, the FAA will use the term GBAS in place of the former term Local Area Augmentation System (LAAS).

b. An aircraft's GLS approach capability relies on the broadcast from a GBAS Ground Facility (GGF) installation. The GGF installation includes at least four ground reference stations near the airport's runway(s), a corrections processor, and a VHF Data Broadcast (VDB) uplink antenna. To use the GBAS GGF output and be eligible to conduct a GLS approach, the aircraft requires eligibility to conduct RNP approach (RNP APCH) operations and must meet the additional, specific airworthiness requirements for installation of a GBAS receiver intended to support GLS approach operations. When the aircraft achieves GLS approach eligibility, the aircraft's onboard navigation database may then contain published GLS instrument approach procedures.

c. During a GLS instrument approach procedure, the installation of an aircraft's GLS capability provides the pilot three-dimensional (3D) lateral and vertical navigation guidance much like an ILS instrument approach. GBAS corrections augment the GPS signal-in-space by offering position corrections, ensures the availability of enhanced integrity parameters, and then transmits the actual approach path definition over the VDB uplink antenna. A single GBAS ground station can support multiple GLS approaches to one or more runways.

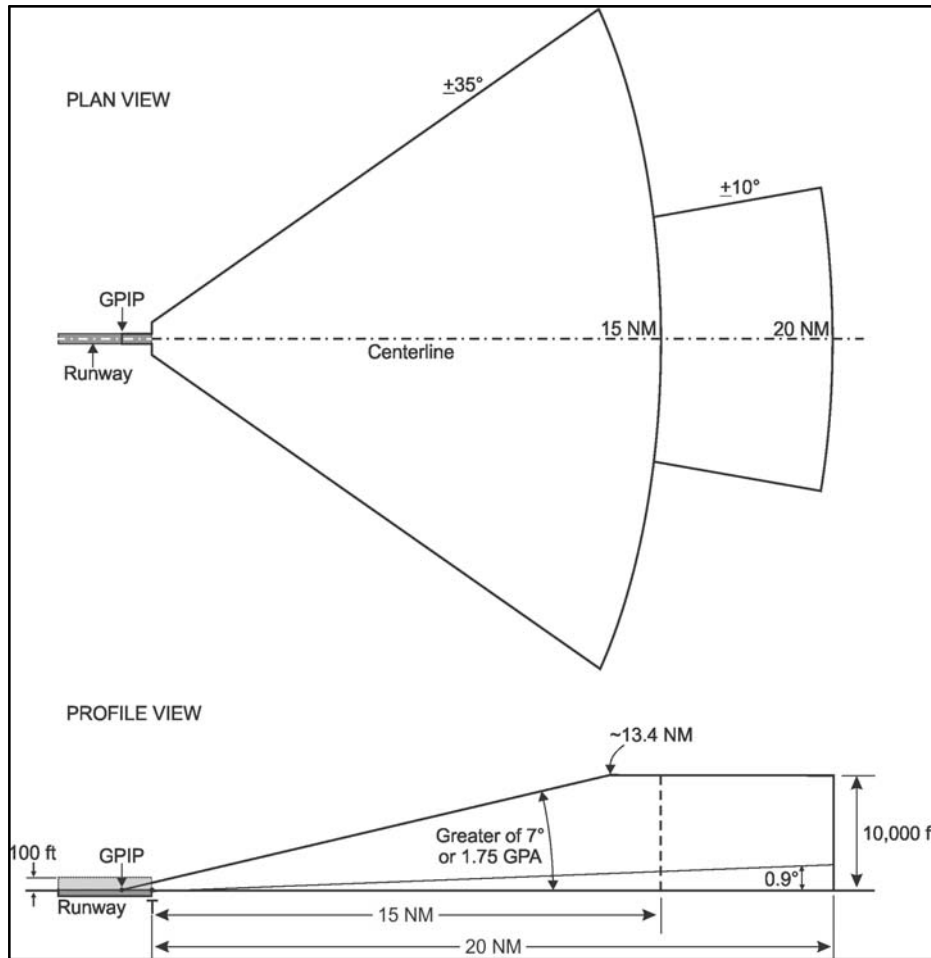
d. Through the GBAS ground station, a GLS approach offers a unique operational service volume distinct from the traditional ILS approach service volume (see FIG 1-1-9). However, despite the unique service volume, in the final approach

segment, a GLS approach provides precise 3D angular lateral and vertical guidance mimicking the precision guidance of an ILS approach.

e. Transitions to and segments of the published GLS instrument approach procedures may rely on use of RNAV 1 or RNP 1 prior to an IAF. Then, during the approach procedure, prior to the aircraft entering the GLS approach mode, a GLS approach procedure design uses the RNP APCH procedure design criteria to construct the procedural path (the criteria used to publish procedures titled "RNAV (GPS)" in the US). Thus, a GLS approach procedure may include paths requiring turns after the aircraft crosses the IAF, prior to the aircraft's flight guidance entering the GLS approach flight guidance mode. Likewise, the missed approach procedure for a GLS approach procedure relies exclusively on the same missed approach criteria supporting an RNP APCH.

f. When maneuvering the aircraft in compliance with an ATC clearance to intercept a GLS approach prior to the final approach segment (e.g. "being vectored"), the pilot should adhere to the clearance and ensure the aircraft intercepts the extended GLS final approach course within the specified service volume. Once on the GLS final approach course, the pilot should ensure the aircraft is in the GLS approach mode prior to reaching the procedure's glidepath intercept point. Once the aircraft is in the GLS flight guidance mode and captures the GLS glidepath, the pilot should fly the GLS final approach segment using the same pilot techniques they use to fly an ILS final approach or the final approach of an RNAV (GPS) approach flown to LPV minimums. See also the Instrument Procedures Handbook for more information on how to conduct a GLS instrument approach procedure.

**FIG 1-1-9
GLS Standard Approach Service Volume**



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 glidepath 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 glidepath 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-

AIM, Paragraph 5-4-7j, Instrument Approach Procedures.

Section 2. Air Navigation and Obstruction Lighting

2-2-1. Aeronautical Light Beacons

a. An aeronautical light beacon is a visual NAVAID displaying flashes of white and/or colored light to indicate the location of an airport, a heliport, a landmark, a certain point of a Federal airway in mountainous terrain, or an obstruction. The light used may be a rotating beacon or one or more flashing lights. The flashing lights may be supplemented by steady burning lights of lesser intensity.

b. The color or color combination displayed by a particular beacon and/or its auxiliary lights tell whether the beacon is indicating a landing place, landmark, point of the Federal airways, or an obstruction. Coded flashes of the auxiliary lights, if employed, further identify the beacon site.

2-2-2. Code Beacons and Course Lights

a. **Code Beacons.** The code beacon, which can be seen from all directions, is used to identify airports and landmarks. The code beacon flashes the three or four character airport identifier in International Morse Code six to eight times per minute. Green flashes are displayed for land airports while yellow flashes indicate water airports.

b. **Course Lights.** The course light, which can be seen clearly from only one direction, is used only with rotating beacons of the Federal Airway System: two course lights, back to back, direct coded flashing beams of light in either direction along the course of airway.

NOTE-

Airway beacons are remnants of the "lighted" airways which antedated the present electronically equipped federal airways system. Only a few of these beacons exist today to mark airway segments in remote mountain areas. Flashes in Morse code identify the beacon site.

2-2-3. Obstruction Lights

a. Obstructions are marked/lighted to warn airmen of their presence during daytime and nighttime conditions. They may be marked/lighted in any of the following combinations:

1. **Aviation Red Obstruction Lights.** Flashing aviation red beacons (20 to 40 flashes per minute) and steady burning aviation red lights during nighttime operation. Aviation orange and white paint is used for daytime marking.

2. **Medium Intensity Flashing White Obstruction Lights.** Medium intensity flashing white obstruction lights may be used during daytime and twilight with automatically selected reduced intensity for nighttime operation. When this system is used on structures 500 feet (153m) AGL or less in height, other methods of marking and lighting the structure may be omitted. Aviation orange and white paint is always required for daytime marking on structures exceeding 500 feet (153m) AGL. This system is not normally installed on structures less than 200 feet (61m) AGL.

3. **High Intensity White Obstruction Lights.** Flashing high intensity white lights during daytime with reduced intensity for twilight and nighttime operation. When this type system is used, the marking of structures with red obstruction lights and aviation orange and white paint may be omitted.

4. **Dual Lighting.** A combination of flashing aviation red beacons and steady burning aviation red lights for nighttime operation and flashing high intensity white lights for daytime operation. Aviation orange and white paint may be omitted.

5. **Catenary Lighting.** Lighted markers are available for increased night conspicuity of high-voltage (69KV or higher) transmission line catenary wires. Lighted markers provide conspicuity both day and night.

b. Medium intensity omnidirectional flashing white lighting system provides conspicuity both day and night on catenary support structures. The unique sequential/simultaneous flashing light system alerts pilots of the associated catenary wires.

c. High intensity flashing white lights are being used to identify some supporting structures of overhead transmission lines located across rivers, chasms, gorges, etc. These lights flash in a middle, top, lower light sequence at approximately 60 flashes per minute. The top light is normally installed near the top of the supporting structure, while the lower light indicates the approximate lower portion of the

wire span. The lights are beamed towards the companion structure and identify the area of the wire span.

d. High intensity flashing white lights are also employed to identify tall structures, such as chimneys and towers, as obstructions to air navigation. The lights provide a 360 degree coverage about the structure at 40 flashes per minute and consist of from one to seven levels of lights depending upon the height of the structure. Where more than one level is used the vertical banks flash simultaneously.

2-2-4. LED Lighting Systems

Certain light-emitting diode (LED) lighting systems

fall outside the combined visible and near-infrared spectrum of night vision goggles (NVGs) and thus will not be visible to a flightcrew using NVGs.

The FAA changed specifications for LED-based red obstruction lights to make them visible to pilots using certain NVG systems, however, other colors may not be visible.

It is recommended that air carriers/operators—including Part 91 operators—who use NVGs incorporate procedures into manuals and/or standard operating procedures (SOPs) requiring periodic, unaided scanning when operating at low altitudes and when performing a reconnaissance of landing areas.

Section 7. Operational Policy/Procedures for the Gulf of Mexico 50 NM Lateral Separation Initiative

4-7-1. Introduction and General Policies

a. Air traffic control (ATC) may apply 50 nautical mile (NM) lateral separation (i.e., lateral spacing) between airplanes authorized for Required Navigation Performance (RNP) 10 or RNP 4 operating in the Gulf of Mexico. 50 NM lateral separation may be applied in the following airspace:

1. Houston Oceanic Control Area (CTA)/Flight Information Region (FIR).

2. Gulf of Mexico portion of the Miami Oceanic CTA/FIR.

3. Monterrey CTA.

4. Merida High CTA within the Mexico FIR/UTA.

b. Within the Gulf of Mexico airspace described above, pairs of airplanes whose flight plans indicate approval for PBN and either RNP 10 or RNP 4 may be spaced by ATC at lateral intervals of 50 NM. ATC will space any airplane without RNP 10 or RNP 4 capability such that at least 90 NM lateral separation is maintained with other airplanes in the Miami Oceanic CTA, and at least 100 NM separation is maintained in the Houston, Monterrey, and Merida CTAs.

c. The reduced lateral separation allows more airplanes to fly on optimum routes/altitudes over the Gulf of Mexico.

d. 50 NM lateral separation is not applied on routes defined by ground navigation aids or on Gulf RNAV Routes Q100, Q102, or Q105.

e. Information useful for flight planning and operations over the Gulf of Mexico under this 50 NM lateral separation policy, as well as information on how to obtain RNP 10 or RNP 4 authorization, can be found in the West Atlantic Route System, Gulf of Mexico, and Caribbean Resource Guide for U.S. Operators located at:

<https://www.faa.gov/headquartersoffices/avs/wat-gomex-and-caribbean-resource-guide>

f. Pilots should use Strategic Lateral Offset Procedures (SLOP) in the course of regular

operations within the Gulf of Mexico CTAs. SLOP procedures and limitations are published in the U.S. Aeronautical Information Publication (AIP), ENR Section 7.1, General Procedures; Advisory Circular (AC) 91-70, Oceanic and Remote Continental Airspace Operations; and ICAO Document 4444, Procedures for Air Navigation Services – Air Traffic Management.

4-7-2. Accommodating Non-RNP 10 Aircraft

a. Operators not authorized for RNP 10 or RNP 4 may still file for any route and altitude within the Gulf of Mexico CTAs. However, clearance on the operator's preferred route and/or altitude will be provided as traffic allows for 90 or 100 NM lateral separation between the non-RNP 10 aircraft and any others. Priority will be given to RNP 10 or RNP 4 aircraft.

b. Operators of aircraft not authorized RNP 10 or RNP 4 must include the annotation "RMK/NON-RNP10" in Item 18 of their ATC flight plan.

c. Pilots of non-RNP 10 aircraft are to remind ATC of their RNP status; i.e., report "negative RNP 10" upon initial contact with ATC in each Gulf CTA.

d. Operators will likely benefit from the effort they invest to obtain RNP 10 or RNP 4 authorization, provided they are flying aircraft equipped to meet RNP 10 or RNP 4 standards.

4-7-3. Obtaining RNP 10 or RNP 4 Operational Authorization

a. For U.S. operators, AC 90-105, Approval Guidance for RNP Operations and Barometric Vertical Navigation in the U.S. National Airspace System and in Oceanic and Remote Continental Airspace, provides the aircraft and operator qualification criteria for RNP 10 or RNP 4 authorizations. FAA personnel at flight standards district offices (FSDO) and certificate management offices (CMO) will use the guidance contained in AC 90-105 to evaluate an operator's application for RNP 10 or RNP 4 authorization. Authorization to

conduct RNP operations in oceanic airspace is provided to all U.S. operators through issuance of Operations Specification (OpSpec), Management Specification (MSpec), or Letter of Authorization (LOA) B036, as applicable to the nature of the operation; for example, Part 121, Part 91, etc. Operators may wish to review FAA Order 8900.1, Flight Standards Information Management System, volume 3, chapter 18, section 4, to understand the specific criteria for issuing OpSpec, MSpec, and/or LOA B036.

b. The operator's RNP 10 or RNP 4 authorization should include any equipment requirements and RNP 10 time limits (if operating solely inertial-based navigation systems), which must be observed when conducting RNP operations. RNP 4 requires tighter navigation and track maintenance accuracy than RNP 10.

4-7-4. Authority for Operations with a Single Long-Range Navigation System

Operators may be authorized to take advantage of 50 NM lateral separation in the Gulf of Mexico CTAs when equipped with only a single long-range navigation system. RNP 10 with a single long-range navigation system is authorized via OpSpec, MSpec, or LOA B054. Operators should contact their FSDO or CMO to obtain information on the specific requirements for obtaining B054. Volume 3, chapter 18, section 4 of FAA Order 8900.1 provides the qualification criteria to be used by FAA aviation safety inspectors in issuing B054.

4-7-5. Flight Plan Requirements

a. In order for an operator with RNP 10 or RNP 4 authorization to obtain 50 NM lateral separation in the Gulf of Mexico CTAs, and therefore obtain

preferred routing available to RNP authorized aircraft, the international flight plan form (FAA 7233-4) must be annotated as follows:

1. Item 10a (Equipment) must include the letter "R."

2. Item 18 must include either "PBN/A1" for RNP 10 authorization or "PBN/L1" for RNP 4 authorization.

b. Indication of RNP 4 authorization implies the aircraft and pilots are also authorized RNP 10.

c. Chapter 5, section 1, of this manual includes information on all flight plan codes. RNP 10 has the same meaning and application as RNAV 10. They share the same code.

4-7-6. Contingency Procedures

Pilots operating under reduced lateral separation must be particularly familiar with, and prepared to rapidly implement, the standard contingency procedures specifically written for operations when outside ATC surveillance and direct VHF communications (for example, the oceanic environment). Specific procedures have been developed for weather deviations. Operators should ensure all flight crews operating in this type of environment have been provided the standard contingency procedures in a readily accessible format. The margin for error when operating at reduced separation mandates correct and expeditious application of the standard contingency procedures. These internationally accepted procedures are published in ICAO Document 4444, chapter 15. The procedures are also reprinted in the U.S. Aeronautical Information Publication (AIP), En Route (ENR) Section 7.3, Special Procedures for In-flight Contingencies in Oceanic Airspace; and AC 91-70.

number of people, an advisory may be sent. Additionally, there may be times when an advisory is not sent due to workload or the short length of time of the activity.

3. Route information is available on the website and in specific advisories. Some route information, subject to the 56-day publishing cycle, is located on the “OIS” under “Products,” Route Management Tool (RMT), and “What’s New” Playbook. The RMT and Playbook contain routings for use by Air Traffic and NAS operators when they are coordinated “real-time” and are then published in an ATCSCC advisory.

4. Route advisories are identified by the word “Route” in the header; the associated action is required (RQD), recommended (RMD), planned (PLN), or for your information (FYI). Operators are expected to file flight plans consistent with the Route RQD advisories.

5. Electronic System Impact Reports are on the intranet at <http://www.atcsc.faa.gov/ois/> under “System Impact Reports.” This page lists scheduled outages/events/projects that significantly impact the NAS; for example, runway closures, air shows, and construction projects. Information includes anticipated delays and traffic management initiatives (TMI) that may be implemented.

5-1-5. Flight Plan – VFR Flights

(See Appendix 4, FAA Form 7233-4 – International Flight Plan)

a. The requirements for the filing and activation of VFR flight plans can vary depending in which airspace the flight is operating. Pilots are responsible for activating flight plans with a Flight Service Station. Control tower personnel do not automatically activate VFR flight plans.

1. Within the continental U.S., a VFR flight plan is not normally required.

2. VFR flights (except for DOD and law enforcement flights) into an Air Defense Identification Zone (ADIZ) are required to file DVFR flight plans.

NOTE-

Detailed ADIZ procedures are found in Section 6, National

Security and Interception Procedures, of this chapter. (See 14 CFR Part 99).

3. Flights within the Washington, DC Special Flight Rules Area have additional requirements that must be met. Visit <http://www.faasafety.gov> for the required Special Awareness Training that must be completed before flight within this area.

4. VFR flight to an international destination requires a filed and activated flight plan.

NOTE-

ICAO flight plan guidance is published in ICAO Document 4444 PANS-ATM Appendix 2.

b. It is strongly recommended that a VFR flight plan be filed with a Flight Service Station or equivalent flight plan filing service. When filing, pilots must use FAA Form 7233-4, International Flight Plan or DD Form 1801. Only DOD users, and civilians who file stereo route flight plans, may use FAA Form 7233-1, Flight Plan. Pilots may take advantage of advances in technology by filing their flight plans using any available electronic means. Activating the flight plan will ensure that you receive VFR Search and Rescue services.

c. When a stopover flight is anticipated, it is recommended that a separate flight plan be filed for each leg of the flight.

d. Pilots are encouraged to activate their VFR flight plans with Flight Service by the most expeditious means possible. This may be via radio or other electronic means. VFR flight plan proposals are normally retained for two hours following the proposed time of departure.

e. Pilots may also activate a VFR flight plan by using an assumed departure time. This assumed departure time will cause the flight plan to become active at the designated time. This may negate the need for communication with a flight service station or flight plan filing service upon departure. It is the pilot’s responsibility to revise his actual departure time, time en route, or ETA with flight service.

NOTE-

Pilots are strongly advised to remain mindful when using an assumed departure time. If not updated, search and rescue activities will be based on the assumed departure time.

f. U.S. air traffic control towers do not routinely activate VFR flight plans. Foreign pilots especially must be mindful of the need to communicate directly

with a flight service station, or use an assumed departure time procedure clearly communicated with the flight plan filing service.

g. Although position reports are not required for VFR flight plans, periodic reports to FSSs along the route are good practice. Such contacts permit significant information to be passed to the transiting aircraft and also serve to check the progress of the flight should it be necessary for any reason to locate the aircraft.

h. Pilots flying VFR should fly an appropriate cruising altitude for their direction of flight.

i. When filing a VFR Flight plan, indicate the appropriate aircraft equipment capability as prescribed for an IFR flight plan.

REFERENCE—
AIM, Para 5-1-6, IFR Flights.

j. ATC radar history data can be useful in finding a downed or missing aircraft; therefore, surveillance equipment should be listed in Item 18. Pilots using commercial GPS tracking services are encouraged to note the specific service in Item 19 N/ (survival equip remarks) of FAA Form 7233-4 or DD Form 1801.

5-1-6. Flight Plan – IFR Flights

(See Appendix 4, FAA Form 7233-4 – International Flight Plan)

a. General

1. Use of FAA Form 7233-4 or DD Form 1801 is mandatory for:

(a) Assignment of RNAV SIDs and STARs or other PBN routing,

(b) All civilian IFR flights that will depart U.S. domestic airspace, and

(c) Domestic IFR flights except military/DOD and civilians who file stereo route flight plans.

(d) All military/DOD IFR flights that will depart U.S. controlled airspace.

2. Military/DOD flights using FAA Form 7233-1, or DD Form 175, may not be eligible for assignment of RNAV SIDs or STARs. Military flights desiring assignment of these procedures should file using FAA Form 7233-4 or DD 1801, as described in this section.

3. When filing an IFR flight plan using FAA Form 7233-4 or DD Form 1801, it is recommended that filers include all operable navigation, communication, and surveillance equipment capabilities by adding appropriate equipment qualifiers as shown in Appendix 4, FAA Form 7233-4, International Flight Plan.

4. ATC issues clearances based on aircraft capabilities filed in Items 10 and 18 of FAA Form 7233-4 or DD 1801. Operators should file all capabilities for which the aircraft and crew is certified, capable, and authorized. PBN/capability must be filed in Item 18, Other Information. When filing a capability, ATC expects filers to use that capability; for example, answer a SATVOICE call from ATC if code M1 or M3 is filed in Item 10a.

5. Prior to departure from within, or prior to entering controlled airspace, a pilot must submit a complete flight plan and receive an air traffic clearance, if weather conditions are below VFR minimums. IFR flight plans may be submitted to an FSS or flight plan filing service.

6. Pilots should file IFR flight plans at least 30 minutes prior to estimated time of departure to preclude possible delay in receiving a departure clearance from ATC.

7. In order to provide FAA traffic management units' strategic route planning capabilities, nonscheduled operators conducting IFR operations above FL 230 are requested to voluntarily file IFR flight plans at least 4 hours prior to estimated time of departure (ETD).

8. To minimize your delay in entering Class B, Class C, Class D, and Class E surface areas at destination when IFR weather conditions exist or are forecast at that airport, an IFR flight plan should be filed before departure. Otherwise, a 30-minute delay is not unusual in receiving an ATC clearance because of time spent in processing flight plan data.

9. Traffic saturation frequently prevents control personnel from accepting flight plans by radio. In such cases, the pilot is advised to contact a flight plan filing service for the purpose of filing the flight plan.

10. When requesting an IFR clearance, it is highly recommended that the departure airport be identified by stating the city name and state and/or the airport location identifier in order to clarify to ATC the exact location of the intended airport of departure.

When the altimeter setting(s) on which the approach is based is not available, the approach is not authorized. Baro-VNAV must be flown using the local altimeter setting only. Where no local altimeter is available, the LNAV/VNAV line will still be published for use by WAAS receivers with a note that Baro-VNAV is not authorized. When a local and at least one other altimeter setting source is authorized and the local altimeter is not available Baro-VNAV is not authorized; however, the LNAV/VNAV minima can still be used by WAAS receivers using the alternate altimeter setting source.

NOTE-

Barometric Vertical Navigation (baro-VNAV). An RNAV system function which uses barometric altitude information from the aircraft's altimeter to compute and present a vertical guidance path to the pilot. The specified vertical path is computed as a geometric path, typically computed between two waypoints or an angle based computation from a single waypoint. Further guidance may be found in Advisory Circular 90-105.

5. A pilot adhering to the altitudes, flight paths, and weather minimums depicted on the IAP chart or vectors and altitudes issued by the radar controller, is assured of terrain and obstruction clearance and runway or airport alignment during approach for landing.

6. IAPs are designed to provide an IFR descent from the en route environment to a point where a safe landing can be made. They are prescribed and approved by appropriate civil or military authority to ensure a safe descent during instrument flight conditions at a specific airport. It is important that pilots understand these procedures and their use prior to attempting to fly instrument approaches.

7. TERPS criteria are provided for the following types of instrument approach procedures:

(a) Precision Approach (PA). An instrument approach based on a navigation system that provides course and glidepath deviation information meeting the precision standards of ICAO Annex 10. For example, PAR, ILS, and GLS are precision approaches.

(b) Approach with Vertical Guidance (APV). An instrument approach based on a navigation system that is not required to meet the precision approach standards of ICAO Annex 10 but provides course and glidepath deviation information. For

example, Baro-VNAV, LDA with glidepath, LNAV/VNAV and LPV are APV approaches.

(c) Nonprecision Approach (NPA). An instrument approach based on a navigation system which provides course deviation information, but no glidepath deviation information. For example, VOR, NDB and LNAV. As noted in subparagraph k, Vertical Descent Angle (VDA) on Nonprecision Approaches, some approach procedures may provide a Vertical Descent Angle as an aid in flying a stabilized approach, without requiring its use in order to fly the procedure. This does not make the approach an APV procedure, since it must still be flown to an MDA and has not been evaluated with a glidepath.

b. The method used to depict prescribed altitudes on instrument approach charts differs according to techniques employed by different chart publishers. Prescribed altitudes may be depicted in four different configurations: minimum, maximum, mandatory, and recommended. The U.S. Government distributes charts produced by National Geospatial-Intelligence Agency (NGA) and FAA. Altitudes are depicted on these charts in the profile view with underscore, overscore, both or none to identify them as minimum, maximum, mandatory or recommended.

1. Minimum altitude will be depicted with the altitude value underscored. Aircraft are required to maintain altitude at or above the depicted value, e.g., 3000.

2. Maximum altitude will be depicted with the altitude value overscored. Aircraft are required to maintain altitude at or below the depicted value, e.g., 4000.

3. Mandatory altitude will be depicted with the altitude value both underscored and overscored. Aircraft are required to maintain altitude at the depicted value, e.g., 5000.

4. Recommended altitude will be depicted with no overscore or underscore. These altitudes are depicted for descent planning, e.g., 6000.

NOTE-

1. Pilots are cautioned to adhere to altitudes as prescribed because, in certain instances, they may be used as the basis for vertical separation of aircraft by ATC. When a depicted altitude is specified in the ATC clearance, that altitude becomes mandatory as defined above.

2. The ILS glide slope is intended to be intercepted at the published glide slope intercept altitude. This point marks the PFAF and is depicted by the "lightning bolt" symbol

on U.S. Government charts. Intercepting the glide slope at this altitude marks the beginning of the final approach segment and ensures required obstacle clearance during descent from the glide slope intercept altitude to the lowest published decision altitude for the approach. Interception and tracking of the glide slope prior to the published glide slope interception altitude does not necessarily ensure that minimum, maximum, and/or mandatory altitudes published for any preceding fixes will be complied with during the descent. If the pilot chooses to track the glide slope prior to the glide slope interception altitude, they remain responsible for complying with published altitudes for any preceding stepdown fixes encountered during the subsequent descent.

3. Approaches used for simultaneous (parallel) independent and simultaneous close parallel operations procedurally require descending on the glideslope from the altitude at which the approach clearance is issued (refer to 5-4-15 and 5-4-16). For simultaneous close parallel (PRM) approaches, the Attention All Users Page (AAUP) may publish a note which indicates that descending on the glideslope/glidepath meets all crossing restrictions. However, if no such note is published, and for simultaneous independent approaches (4300 and greater runway separation) where an AAUP is not published, pilots are cautioned to monitor their descent on the glideslope/path outside of the PFAF to ensure compliance with published crossing restrictions during simultaneous operations.

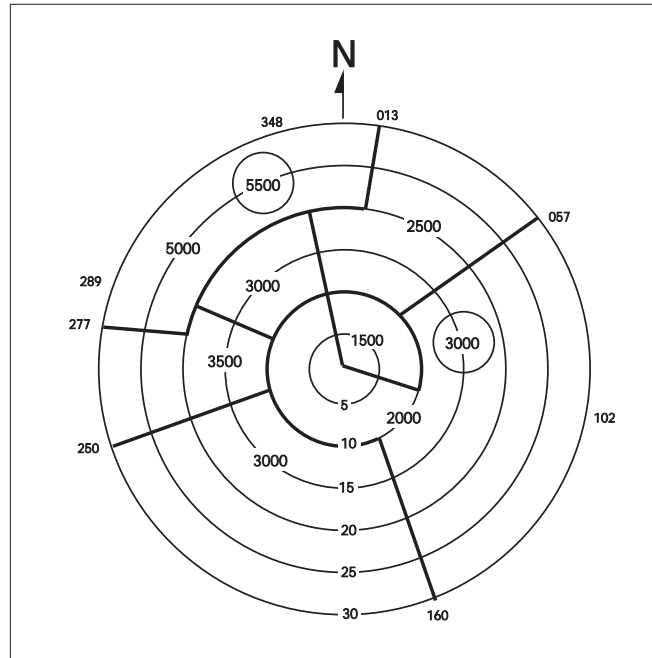
4. When parallel approach courses are less than 2500 feet apart and reduced in-trail spacing is authorized for simultaneous dependent operations, a chart note will indicate that simultaneous operations require use of vertical guidance and that the pilot should maintain last assigned altitude until established on glide slope. These approaches procedurally require utilization of the ILS glide slope for wake turbulence mitigation. Pilots should not confuse these simultaneous dependent operations with (SOIA) simultaneous close parallel PRM approaches, where PRM appears in the approach title.

5. Altitude restrictions depicted at stepdown fixes within the final approach segment are

applicable only when flying a Non-Precision Approach to a straight-in or circling line of minima identified as a MDA(H). Stepdown fix altitude restrictions within the final approach segment do not apply to pilots using Precision Approach (ILS) or Approach with Vertical Guidance (LPV, LNAV/VNAV) lines of minima identified as a DA(H), since obstacle clearance on these approaches are based on the aircraft following the applicable vertical guidance. Pilots are responsible for adherence to stepdown fix altitude restrictions when outside the final approach segment (i.e., initial or intermediate segment), regardless of which type of procedure the pilot is flying. (See FIG 5-4-1.)

c. The **Minimum Safe Altitudes (MSA)** is published for emergency use on IAP or departure procedure (DP) graphic charts. MSAs provide 1,000 feet of clearance over all obstacles, but do not necessarily assure acceptable navigation signal coverage. The MSA depiction on the plan view of an approach chart or on a DP graphic chart contains the identifier of the center point of the MSA, the applicable radius of the MSA, a depiction of the sector(s), and the minimum altitudes above mean sea level which provide obstacle clearance. For conventional navigation systems, the MSA is normally based on the primary omnidirectional facility on which the IAP or DP graphic chart is predicated, but may be based on the airport reference point (ARP) if no suitable facility is available. For RNAV approaches or DP graphic charts, the MSA is based on an RNAV waypoint. MSAs normally have a 25 NM radius; however, for conventional navigation systems, this radius may be expanded to 30 NM if necessary to encompass the airport landing surfaces. A single sector altitude is normally established, however when the MSA is based on a facility and it is necessary to obtain relief from obstacles, an MSA with up to four sectors may be established.

FIG 5-4-11
Minimum Vectoring Altitude Charts



e. Minimum Vectoring Altitudes (MVAs) are established for use by ATC when radar ATC is exercised. MVA charts are prepared by air traffic facilities at locations where there are numerous different minimum IFR altitudes. Each MVA chart has sectors large enough to accommodate vectoring of aircraft within the sector at the MVA. Each sector boundary is at least 3 miles from the obstruction determining the MVA. To avoid a large sector with an excessively high MVA due to an isolated prominent obstruction, the obstruction may be enclosed in a buffer area whose boundaries are at least 3 miles from the obstruction. This is done to facilitate vectoring around the obstruction. (See FIG 5-4-11.)

1. The minimum vectoring altitude in each sector provides 1,000 feet above the highest obstacle in nonmountainous areas and 2,000 feet above the highest obstacle in designated mountainous areas. Where lower MVAs are required in designated mountainous areas to achieve compatibility with terminal routes or to permit vectoring to an IAP, 1,000 feet of obstacle clearance may be authorized with the use of ATC surveillance. The minimum vectoring altitude will provide at least 300 feet above the floor of controlled airspace.

NOTE-

OROCA is a published altitude which provides 1,000 feet of terrain and obstruction clearance in the U.S. (2,000 feet of clearance in designated mountainous areas). These altitudes are not assessed for NAVAID signal coverage, air traffic control surveillance, or communications coverage, and are published for general situational awareness, flight planning and in-flight contingency use.

2. Because of differences in the areas considered for MVA, and those applied to other minimum altitudes, and the ability to isolate specific obstacles, some MVAs may be lower than the nonradar Minimum En Route Altitudes (MEAs), Minimum Obstruction Clearance Altitudes (MOCAs) or other minimum altitudes depicted on charts for a given location. While being radar vectored, IFR altitude assignments by ATC will be at or above MVA.

3. The MVA/MIA may be lower than the TAA minimum altitude. If ATC has assigned an altitude to an aircraft that is below the TAA minimum altitude, the aircraft will either be assigned an altitude to maintain until established on a segment of a published route or instrument approach procedure, or climbed to the TAA altitude.

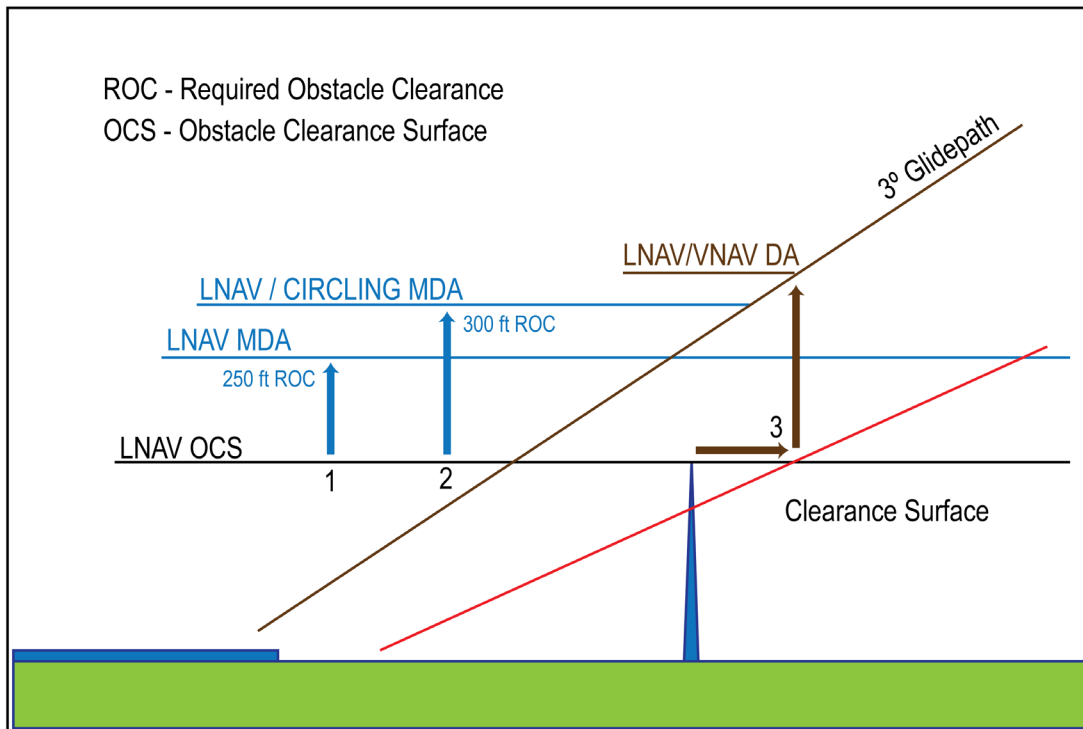
f. Circling. Circling minimums charted on an RNAV (GPS) approach chart may be lower than the LNAV/VNAV line of minima, but never lower than the LNAV line of minima (straight-in approach). Pilots may safely perform the circling maneuver at

the circling published line of minima if the approach and circling maneuver is properly performed according to aircraft category and operational limitations.

FIG 5-4-12
Example of LNAV and Circling Minima Lower Than LNAV/VNAV DA.
Harrisburg International RNAV (GPS) RWY 13

CATEGORY	A	B	C	D
LPV DA	558/24 250 (300 - 1/2)			
LNAV/VNAV DA	1572 - 5 1264 (1300 - 5)			
LNAV MDA	1180 / 24 872 (900 - 1/2)	1180 / 40 872 (900 - 3/4)	1180 / 2 872 (900 - 2)	1180 / 2 1/4 872 (900 - 2 1/4)
CIRCLING	1180 - 1 870 (900 - 1)	1180 - 1 1/4 870 (900 - 1 1/4)	1180 - 2 1/2 870 (900 - 2 1/2)	1180 - 2 3/4 870 (900 - 2 3/4)

FIG 5-4-13
Explanation of LNAV and/or Circling Minima Lower than LNAV/VNAV DA



g. FIG 5-4-13 provides a visual representation of an obstacle evaluation and calculation of LNAV MDA, Circling MDA, LNAV/VNAV DA.

controlling obstacle used to determine LNAV MDA can be different than the controlling obstacle used in determining ROC for circling MDA. Other factors may force a number larger than 250 ft to be added to the LNAV OCS. The number is rounded up to the next higher 20 foot increment.

Chapter 7. Safety of Flight

Section 1. Meteorology

7-1-1. National Weather Service Aviation Weather Service Program

a. Weather service to aviation is a joint effort of the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), the National Weather Service (NWS), the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA), Department of Defense, and various private sector aviation weather service providers. Requirements for all aviation weather products originate from the FAA, which is the Meteorological Authority for the U.S.

b. NWS meteorologists are assigned to all air route traffic control centers (ARTCC) as part of the Center Weather Service Units (CWSU) as well as the Air Traffic Control System Command Center (ATCSCC). These meteorologists provide specialized briefings as well as tailored forecasts to support the needs of the FAA and other users of the NAS.

c. Aviation Products

1. The NWS maintains an extensive surface, upper air, and radar weather observing program; and a nationwide aviation weather forecasting service.

2. Airport observations (METAR and SPECI) supported by the NWS are provided by automated observing systems.

3. Terminal Aerodrome Forecasts (TAF) are prepared by 123 NWS Weather Forecast Offices (WFOs) for over 700 airports. These forecasts are valid for 24 or 30 hours and amended as required.

4. Inflight aviation advisories (for example, Significant Meteorological Information (SIGMETs) and Airmen's Meteorological Information (AIRMETs)) are issued by three NWS Meteorological Watch Offices; the Aviation Weather Center (AWC) in Kansas City, MO, the Alaska Aviation Weather Unit (AAWU) in Anchorage, AK, and the WFO in Honolulu, HI. Both the AWC and the AAWU issue area forecasts (FA) for selected areas. In addition, NWS meteorologists assigned to most ARTCCs as part of the Center Weather Service Unit (CWSU) provide Center Weather Advisories (CWAs) and

gather weather information to support the needs of the FAA and other users of the system.

5. Several NWS National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) provide aviation specific weather forecasts, or select public forecasts which are of interest to pilots and operators.

(a) The Aviation Weather Center (AWC) displays a variety of domestic and international aviation forecast products over the Internet at aviationweather.gov.

(b) The NCEP Central Operations (NCO) is responsible for the operation of many numerical weather prediction models, including those which produce the many wind and temperature aloft forecasts.

(c) The Storm Prediction Center (SPC) issues tornado and severe weather watches along with other guidance forecasts.

(d) The National Hurricane Center (NHC) issues forecasts on tropical weather systems (for example, hurricanes).

(e) The Space Weather Prediction Center (SWPC) provides alerts, watches, warnings and forecasts for space weather events (for example, solar storms) affecting or expected to affect Earth's environment.

(f) The Weather Prediction Center (WPC) provides analysis and forecast products on a national scale including surface pressure and frontal analyses.

6. NOAA operates two Volcanic Ash Advisory Centers (VAAC) which issue forecasts of ash clouds following a volcanic eruption in their area of responsibility.

7. Details on the products provided by the above listed offices and centers is available in FAA Advisory Circular 00-45, Aviation Weather Services.

d. Weather element values may be expressed by using different measurement systems depending on several factors, such as whether the weather products will be used by the general public, aviation interests, international services, or a combination of these

users. FIG 7-1-1 provides conversion tables for the most used weather elements that will be encountered by pilots.

7-1-2. FAA Weather Services

a. The FAA provides the Flight Service program, which serves the weather needs of pilots through its flight service stations (FSS) (both government and contract via 1-800-WX-BRIEF) and via the Internet, through Leidos Flight Service.

b. The FAA maintains an extensive surface weather observing program. Airport observations (METAR and SPECI) in the U.S. are provided by automated observing systems. Various levels of human oversight of the METAR and SPECI reports and augmentation may be provided at select larger airports by either government or contract personnel qualified to report specified weather elements that cannot be detected by the automated observing system. The requirements to issue SPECI reports are detailed in TBL 7-1-1.

TBL 7-1-1

SPECI Issuance Table		
1	Wind Shift	Wind direction changes by 45° or more, in less than 15 minutes, and the wind speed is 10 kt or more throughout the wind shift.
2	Visibility	The surface visibility (as reported in the body of the report): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decreases to less than 3 sm, 2 sm, 1 sm, ½ sm, ¼ sm or the lowest standard instrument approach procedure (IAP) minimum.¹ • Increases to equal to or exceed 3 sm, 2 sm, 1 sm, ½ sm, ¼ sm or the lowest standard IAP minimum.¹ ¹ As published in the U.S. Terminal Procedures. If none published, use ½ sm.
3	RVR	The highest value from the designated RVR runway decreases to less than 2,400 ft during the preceding 10 minutes; or, if the RVR is below 2,400 ft, increases to equal to or exceed 2,400 ft during the preceding 10 minutes. U.S. military stations may not report a SPECI based on RVR.
4	Tornado, Funnel Cloud, or Waterspout	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is observed. • Disappears from sight or ends.
5	Thunderstorm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Begins (a SPECI is not required to report the beginning of a new thunderstorm if one is currently reported). • Ends.
6	Precipitation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hail begins or ends. • Freezing precipitation begins, ends, or changes intensity. • Ice pellets begin, end, or change intensity. • Snow begins, ends, or changes intensity.
7	Squalls	When a squall occurs. (Wind speed suddenly increases by at least 16 knots and is sustained at 22 knots or more for at least one minute.)

8	Ceiling	<p>The ceiling changes¹ through:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 3,000 ft. • 1,500 ft. • 1,000 ft. • 500 ft. • <i>The lowest standard IAP minimum.</i>² <p>¹ “Ceiling change” means that it forms, dissipates below, decreases to less than, or, if below, increases to equal or exceed the values listed.</p> <p>² As published in the U.S. Terminal Procedures. If none published, use 200 ft.</p>
9	Sky Condition	A layer of clouds or obscurations aloft is present below 1,000 ft and no layer aloft was reported below 1,000 ft in the preceding METAR or SPECI.
10	Volcanic Erup- tion	When an eruption is first noted.
11	Aircraft Mishap	<p>Upon notification of an aircraft mishap,¹ unless there has been an intervening observation.</p> <p>¹ “Aircraft mishap” is an inclusive term to denote the occurrence of an aircraft accident or incident.</p>
12	Miscellaneous	Any other meteorological situation designated by the responsible agency of which, in the opinion of the observer, is critical.

c. Other Sources of Weather Information

1. Weather and aeronautical information are available from numerous private industry sources on an individual or contract pay basis. Prior to every flight, pilots should gather all information vital to the nature of the flight. Pilots can receive a regulatory compliant briefing without contacting Flight Service. Pilots are encouraged to use automated resources and review AC 91–92, Pilot’s Guide to a Preflight Briefing, for more information.

2. Pilots can access Leidos Flight Services via the Internet at <http://www.1800wxbrief.com>. Pilots can receive preflight weather data and file VFR and IFR flight plans.

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, Leidos Flight Service, and/or Flight Information Services–Broadcast (FIS–B).

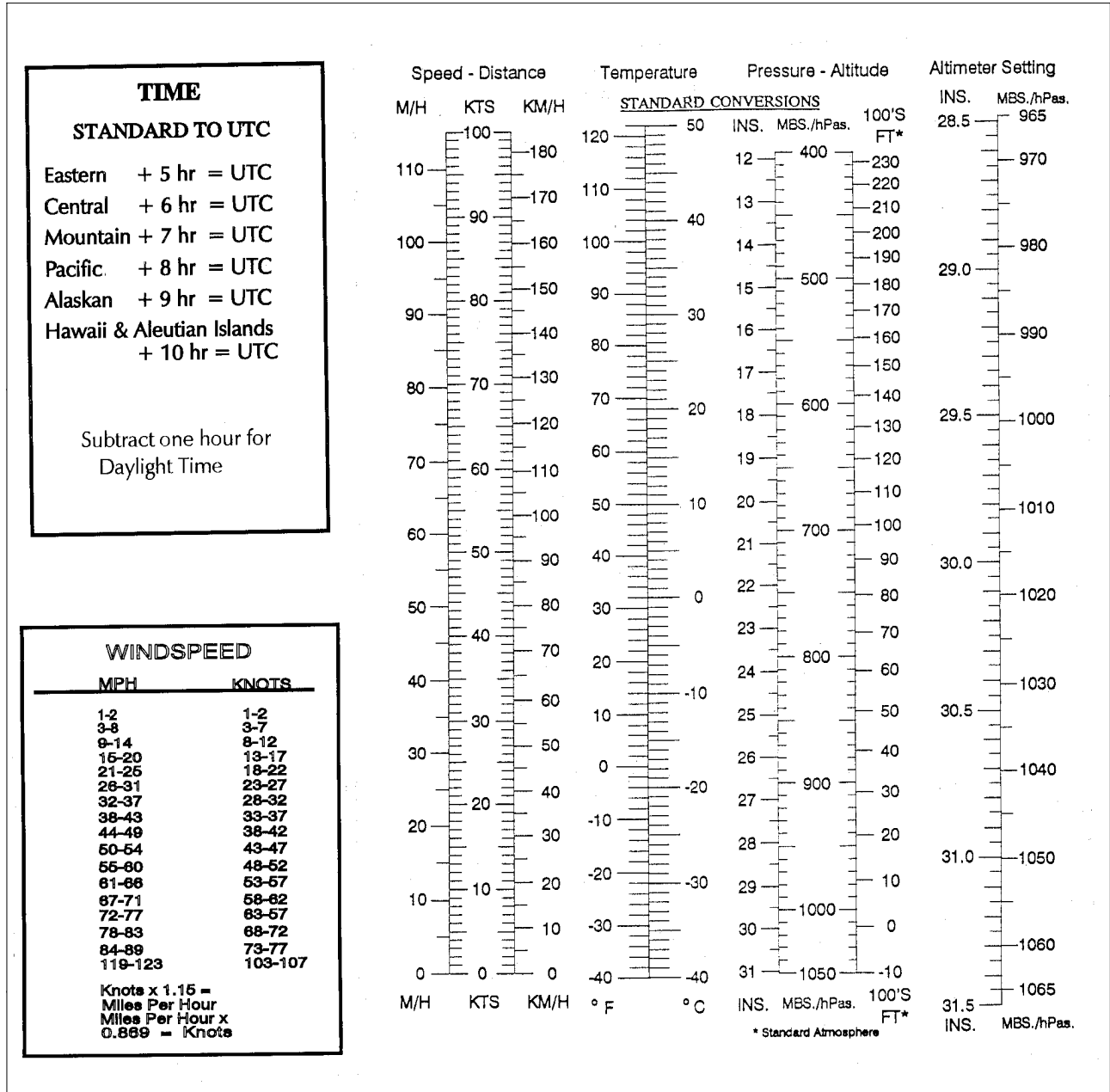
c. The suite of available aviation weather product types is expanding, with the development of new sensor systems, algorithms and forecast models. The FAA and NWS, supported by various weather research laboratories and corporations under contract to the Government, develop and implement new aviation 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.

FIG 7-1-1
Weather Elements Conversion Tables



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 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 (for example, current weather or forecast weather), the currency of the product (that is, 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, and produce forecasts. The FAA and NWS disseminate meteorological observations, analyses, and forecasts through a variety of systems. In addition, the Federal Government is the only approval authority for sources of weather observations; for example, contract towers and airport operators may be approved by the Federal Government to provide weather observations.

2. Enhanced Weather Information System (EWINS). An EWINS is an FAA authorized, proprietary system for tracking, evaluating, reporting, and forecasting the presence or lack of adverse weather phenomena. The FAA authorizes a certificate holder to use an EWINS to produce flight movement forecasts, adverse weather phenomena forecasts, and other meteorological advisories. For more detailed information regarding EWINS, see the Aviation Weather Services Advisory Circular 00-45 and the Flight Standards Information Management System 8900.1.

3. Commercial Weather Information Providers. In general, commercial providers produce proprietary weather products based on NWS/FAA products with formatting and layout modifications but no material changes to the weather information itself. This is also referred to as “repackaging.” In addition, commercial providers may produce analyses, forecasts, and other proprietary weather products that substantially alter the information contained in government-produced products. However, those proprietary weather products that substantially alter government-produced weather products or information, may only be approved for use by 14 CFR Part 121 and Part 135 certificate holders if the commercial provider is EWINS qualified.

NOTE—

Commercial weather information providers contracted by FAA to provide weather observations, analyses, and forecasts (e.g., contract towers) are included in the Federal Government category of approved sources by virtue of maintaining required technical and quality assurance standards under Federal Government oversight.

7-1-4. Graphical Forecasts for Aviation (GFA)

a. The GFA website is intended to provide the necessary aviation weather information to give users a complete picture of the weather that may affect flight in the continental United States (CONUS). The website includes observational data, forecasts, and warnings that can be viewed from 14 hours in the past to 15 hours in the future, including thunderstorms, clouds, flight category, precipitation, icing, turbulence, and wind. Hourly model data and forecasts, including information on clouds, flight category, precipitation, icing, turbulence, wind, and graphical output from the National Weather Service’s (NWS) National Digital Forecast Data (NDFD) are available. Wind, icing, and turbulence forecasts are available in 3,000 ft increments from the surface up to 30,000 ft MSL, and in 6,000 ft increments from 30,000 ft MSL to 48,000 ft MSL. Turbulence forecasts are also broken into low (below 18,000 ft MSL) and high (at or above 18,000 ft MSL) graphics. A maximum icing graphic and maximum wind velocity graphic (regardless of altitude) are also available. Built with modern geospatial information tools, users can pan and zoom to focus on areas of greatest interest. Target users are commercial and general aviation pilots, operators, briefers, and dispatchers.

b. Weather Products.

1. The Aviation Forecasts include gridded displays of various weather parameters as well as NWS textual weather observations, forecasts, and warnings. Icing, turbulence, and wind gridded products are three-dimensional. Other gridded products are two-dimensional and may represent a “composite” of a three-dimensional weather phenomenon or a surface weather variable, such as horizontal visibility. The following are examples of aviation forecasts depicted on the GFA:

- (a)** Terminal Aerodrome Forecast (TAF)
- (b)** Ceiling & Visibility (CIG/VIS)
- (c)** Clouds
- (d)** Precipitation / Weather (PCPN/WX)
- (e)** Thunderstorm (TS)
- (f)** Winds
- (g)** Turbulence
- (h)** Ice

2. Observations & Warnings (Obs/Warn).

The Obs/Warn option provides an option to display weather data for the current time and the previous 14 hours (rounded to the nearest hour). Users may advance through time using the arrow buttons or by clicking on the desired hour. Provided below are the Obs/Warn product tabs available on the GFA website:

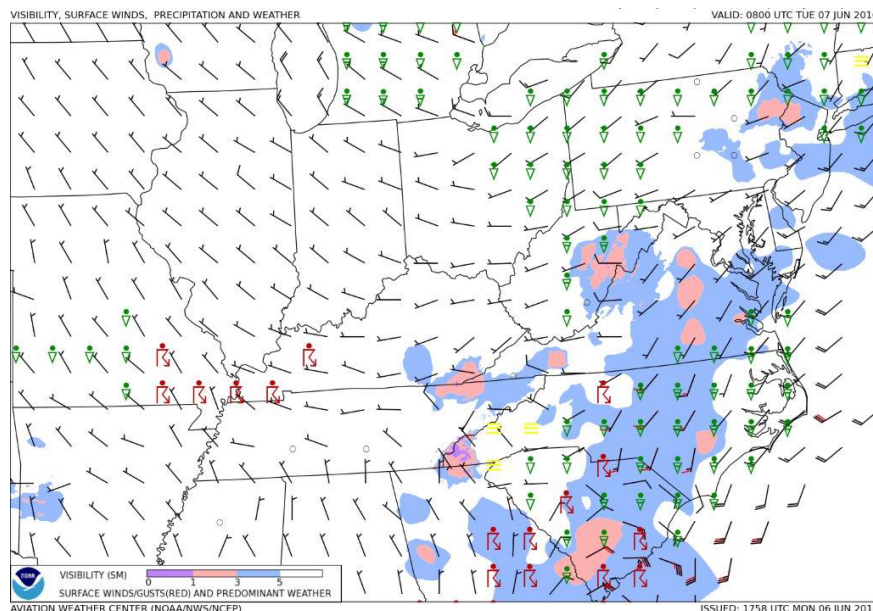
- (a) METAR
- (b) Precipitation/Weather (PCPN/WX)
- (c) Ceiling & Visibility (CIG/VIS)
- (d) Pilot Reports (PIREP)
- (e) Radar & Satellite (RAD/SAT)

3. The GFA will be continuously updated and available online at <http://aviationweather.gov/gfa>. Upon clicking the link above, select INFO on the top right corner of the map display. The next screen presents the option of selecting Overview, Products, and Tutorial. Simply select the tab of interest to explore the enhanced digital and graphical weather products designed to replace the legacy FA. Users

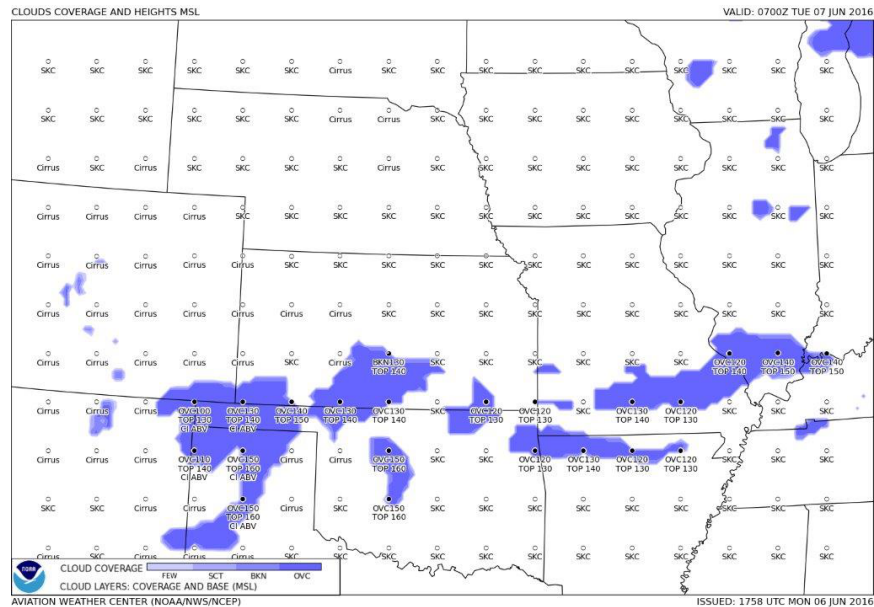
should also refer to AC 00-45, *Aviation Weather Services*, for more detailed information on the GFA.

4. **GFA Static Images.** Some users with limited internet connectivity may access static images via the Aviation Weather Center (AWC) at: <http://www.aviationweather.gov/gfa/plot>. There are two static graphical images available, titled *Aviation Cloud Forecast* and *Aviation Surface Forecast*. The Aviation Cloud Forecast provides cloud coverage, bases, layers, and tops with Airmet Sierra for mountain obscuration and Airmet Zulu for icing overlaid. The Aviation Surface Forecast provides visibility, weather phenomena, and winds (including wind gusts) with Airmet Sierra for instrument flight rules conditions and Airmet Tango for sustained surface winds of 30 knots or more overlaid. These images are presented on ten separate maps providing forecast views for the entire CONUS on one and nine regional views which provide more detail for the user. They are updated every 3 hours and provide forecast snapshots for 3, 6, 9, 12, 15, and 18 hours into the future. (See FIG 7-1-2 and FIG 7-1-3.)

FIG 7-1-2
Aviation Surface Forecast



**FIG 7-1-3
Aviation Cloud Forecast**



7-1-5. Preflight Briefing

a. Flight Service is one of the primary sources for obtaining preflight briefings and to file flight plans by phone or the Internet. Flight Service Specialists are qualified and certificated as Pilot Weather Briefers by the FAA. They are not authorized to make original forecasts, but are authorized to translate and interpret available forecasts and reports directly into terms describing the weather conditions which you can expect along your flight route and at your destination. Prior to every flight, pilots should gather all information vital to the nature of the flight. Pilots can receive a regulatory compliant briefing without contacting Flight Service. Pilots are encouraged to use automated resources and review AC 91-92, Pilot’s Guide to a Preflight Briefing, for more information. Pilots who prefer to contact Flight Service are encouraged to conduct a self-brief prior to calling. Conducting a self-brief before contacting Flight Service provides familiarity of meteorological and aeronautical conditions applicable to the route of flight and promotes a better understanding of weather information. Three basic types of preflight briefings (Standard, Abbreviated, and Outlook) are available to serve the pilot’s specific needs. Pilots should specify to the briefer the type of briefing they want, along with their appropriate background information.

This will enable the briefer to tailor the information to the pilot’s intended flight. The following paragraphs describe the types of briefings available and the information provided in each briefing.

REFERENCE-
AIM, Para 5-1-1, Preflight Preparation, for items that are required.

b. **Standard Briefing.** You should request a Standard Briefing any time you are planning a flight and you have not received a previous briefing or have not received preliminary information through online resources. International data may be inaccurate or incomplete. If you are planning a flight outside of U.S. controlled airspace, the briefer will advise you to check data as soon as practical after entering foreign airspace, unless you advise that you have the international cautionary advisory. The briefer will automatically provide the following information in the sequence listed, except as noted, when it is applicable to your proposed flight.

1. Adverse Conditions. Significant meteorological and/or aeronautical information that might influence the pilot to alter or cancel the proposed flight; for example, hazardous weather conditions, airport closures, air traffic delays, etc. Pilots should be especially alert for current or forecast weather that could reduce flight minimums below VFR or IFR conditions. Pilots should also be alert for any reported or forecast icing if the aircraft is not certified

for operating in icing conditions. Flying into areas of icing or weather below minimums could have disastrous results.

2. VFR Flight Not Recommended. When VFR flight is proposed and sky conditions or visibilities are present or forecast, surface or aloft, that, in the briefer's judgment, would make flight under VFR doubtful, the briefer will describe the conditions, describe the affected locations, and use the phrase "*VFR flight not recommended.*" This recommendation is advisory in nature. The final decision as to whether the flight can be conducted safely rests solely with the pilot. Upon receiving a "*VFR flight not recommended*" statement, the non-IFR rated pilot will need to make a "go or no go" decision. This decision should be based on weighing the current and forecast weather conditions against the pilot's experience and ratings. The aircraft's equipment, capabilities and limitations should also be considered.

NOTE-

Pilots flying into areas of minimal VFR weather could encounter unforecasted lowering conditions that place the aircraft outside the pilot's ratings and experience level. This could result in spatial disorientation and/or loss of control of the aircraft.

3. Synopsis. A brief statement describing the type, location and movement of weather systems and/or air masses which might affect the proposed flight.

NOTE-

These first 3 elements of a briefing may be combined in any order when the briefer believes it will help to more clearly describe conditions.

4. Current Conditions. Reported weather conditions applicable to the flight will be summarized from all available sources; e.g., METARs/ SPECIs, PIREPs, RAREPs. This element will be omitted if the proposed time of departure is beyond 2 hours, unless the information is specifically requested by the pilot.

5. En Route Forecast. Forecast en route conditions for the proposed route are summarized in logical order; i.e., departure/climbout, en route, and descent. (Heights are MSL, unless the contractions "AGL" or "CIG" are denoted indicating that heights are above ground.)

6. Destination Forecast. The destination forecast for the planned ETA. Any significant changes

within 1 hour before and after the planned arrival are included.

7. Winds Aloft. Forecast winds aloft will be provided using degrees of the compass. The briefer will interpolate wind directions and speeds between levels and stations as necessary to provide expected conditions at planned altitudes. (Heights are MSL.) Temperature information will be provided on request.

8. Notices to Air Missions (NOTAMs).

(a) Available NOTAM (D) information pertinent to the proposed flight, including special use airspace (SUA) NOTAMs for restricted areas, aerial refueling, and night vision goggles (NVG).

NOTE-

Other SUA NOTAMs (D), such as military operations area (MOA), military training route (MTR), and warning area NOTAMs, are considered "upon request" briefing items as indicated in paragraph 7-1-4b10(a).

(b) Prohibited Areas P-40, P-49, P-56, and the special flight rules area (SFRA) for Washington, DC.

(c) FSS briefers do not provide FDC NOTAM information for special instrument approach procedures unless specifically asked. Pilots authorized by the FAA to use special instrument approach procedures must specifically request FDC NOTAM information for these procedures.

NOTE-

1. *NOTAM information may be combined with current conditions when the briefer believes it is logical to do so.*

2. *Airway NOTAMs, procedural NOTAMs, and NOTAMs that are general in nature and not tied to a specific airport/facility (for example, flight advisories and restrictions, open duration special security instructions, and special flight rules areas) are briefed solely by pilot request. For complete flight information, pilots are urged to review the Domestic Notices and International Notices found in the External Links section of the Federal NOTAM System (FNS) NOTAM Search System and the Chart Supplement U.S. In addition to obtaining a briefing.*

9. ATC Delays. Any known ATC delays and flow control advisories which might affect the proposed flight.

10. Pilots may obtain the following from flight service station briefers upon request:

(a) Information on SUA and SUA-related airspace, except those listed in paragraph 7-1-4b8.

NOTE—

1. For the purpose of this paragraph, SUA and related airspace includes the following types of airspace: alert area, military operations area (MOA), warning area, and air traffic control assigned airspace (ATCAA). MTR data includes the following types of airspace: IFR training routes (IR), VFR training routes (VR), and slow training routes (SR).

2. Pilots are encouraged to request updated information from ATC facilities while in flight.

(b) A review of airway NOTAMs, procedural NOTAMs, and NOTAMs that are general in nature and not tied to a specific airport/facility (for example, flight advisories and restrictions, open duration special security instructions, and special flight rules areas), Domestic Notices and International Notices. Domestic Notices and International Notices are found in the External Links section of the Federal NOTAM System (FNS) NOTAM Search System.

(c) Approximate density altitude data.

(d) Information regarding such items as air traffic services and rules, customs/immigration procedures, ADIZ rules, search and rescue, etc.

(e) GPS RAIM availability for 1 hour before to 1 hour after ETA or a time specified by the pilot.

(f) Other assistance as required.

c. Abbreviated Briefing. Request an Abbreviated Briefing when you need information to supplement mass disseminated data, update a previous briefing, or when you need only one or two specific items. Provide the briefer with appropriate background information, the time you received the previous information, and/or the specific items needed. You should indicate the source of the information already received so that the briefer can limit the briefing to the information that you have not received, and/or appreciable changes in meteorological/aeronautical conditions since your previous briefing. To the extent possible, the briefer will provide the information in the sequence shown for a Standard Briefing. If you request only one or two specific items, the briefer will advise you if adverse conditions are present or forecast. (Adverse conditions contain both meteorological and/or aeronautical information.) Details on these conditions will be provided at your request. International data may be inaccurate or incomplete. If you are planning a flight outside of U.S. controlled airspace, the briefer will

advise you to check data as soon as practical after entering foreign airspace, unless you advise that you have the international cautionary advisory.

d. Outlook Briefing. You should request an Outlook Briefing whenever your proposed time of departure is six or more hours from the time of the briefing. The briefer will provide available forecast data applicable to the proposed flight. This type of briefing is provided for planning purposes only. You should obtain a Standard or Abbreviated Briefing prior to departure in order to obtain such items as adverse conditions, current conditions, updated forecasts, winds aloft and NOTAMs, etc.

e. When filing a flight plan only, you will be asked if you require the latest information on adverse conditions pertinent to the route of flight.

f. Inflight Briefing. You are encouraged to conduct a self-briefing using online resources or obtain your preflight briefing by telephone or in person (Alaska only) before departure. In those cases where you need to obtain a preflight briefing or an update to a previous briefing by radio, you should contact the nearest FSS to obtain this information. After communications have been established, advise the specialist of the type briefing you require and provide appropriate background information. You will be provided information as specified in the above paragraphs, depending on the type of briefing requested. En Route advisories tailored to the phase of flight that begins after climb-out and ends with descent to land are provided upon pilot request. Besides Flight Service, there are other resources available to the pilot in flight, including:

Automatic Dependent Surveillance–Broadcast (ADS–B). Free traffic, weather, and flight information are available on ADS–B In receivers that can receive data over 978 MHz (UAT) broadcasts. These services are available across the nation to aircraft owners who equip with ADS–B In, with further advances coming from airborne and runway traffic awareness. Even search-and-rescue operations benefit from accurate ADS–B tracking.

Flight Information Services–Broadcast (FIS–B). FIS–B is a free service; but is only available to aircraft that can receive data over 978 MHz (UAT). FIS–B automatically transmits a wide range of weather products with national and regional focus to all equipped aircraft. Having current weather and

aeronautical information in the cockpit helps pilots plan more safe and efficient flight paths, as well as make strategic decisions during flight to avoid potentially hazardous weather.

Pilots are encouraged to provide a continuous exchange of information on weather, winds, turbulence, flight visibility, icing, etc., between pilots and inflight specialists. Pilots should report good weather as well as bad, and confirm expected conditions as well as unexpected. Remember that weather conditions can change rapidly and that a “go or no go” decision, as mentioned in paragraph 7-1-4b2, should be assessed at all phases of flight.

g. Following any briefing, feel free to ask for any information that you or the briefer may have missed or are not understood. This way, the briefer is able to present the information in a logical sequence, and lessens the chance of important items being overlooked.

7-1-6. Inflight Aviation Weather Advisories

a. Background

1. Inflight Aviation Weather Advisories are forecasts to advise en route aircraft of development of potentially hazardous weather. Inflight aviation weather advisories in the conterminous U.S. are issued by the Aviation Weather Center (AWC) in Kansas City, MO, as well as 20 Center Weather Service Units (CWSU) associated with ARTCCs. AWC also issues advisories for portions of the Gulf of Mexico, Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, which are under the control of ARTCCs with Oceanic flight information regions (FIRs). The Weather Forecast Office (WFO) in Honolulu issues advisories for the Hawaiian Islands and a large portion of the Pacific Ocean. In Alaska, the Alaska Aviation Weather Unit (AAWU) issues inflight aviation weather advisories along with the Anchorage CWSU. All heights are referenced MSL, except in the case of ceilings (CIG) which indicate AGL.

2. There are four types of inflight aviation weather advisories: the SIGMET, the Convective SIGMET, the AIRMET (text or graphical product), and the Center Weather Advisory (CWA). All of these advisories use the same location identifiers (either

VORs, airports, or well-known geographic areas) to describe the hazardous weather areas.

3. The Severe Weather Watch Bulletins (WWs), (with associated Alert Messages) (AWW) supplements these Inflight Aviation Weather Advisories.

b. SIGMET (WS)/AIRMET (WA or G-AIRMET)

SIGMETs/AIRMET text (WA) products are issued corresponding to the Area Forecast (FA) areas described in FIG 7-1-4 and FIG 7-1-5. The maximum forecast period is 4 hours for SIGMETs and 6 hours for AIRMETs. The G-AIRMET is issued over the CONUS every 6 hours, valid at 3-hour increments through 12 hours with optional forecasts possible during the first 6 hours. The first 6 hours of the G-AIRMET correspond to the 6-hour period of the AIRMET. SIGMETs and AIRMETs are considered “widespread” because they must be either affecting or be forecasted to affect an area of at least 3,000 square miles at any one time. However, if the total area to be affected during the forecast period is very large, it could be that in actuality only a small portion of this total area would be affected at any one time.

1. SIGMETs/AIRMET (or G-AIRMET) for the conterminous U.S. (CONUS)

SIGMETs/AIRMET text products for the CONUS are issued corresponding to the areas in FIG 7-1-4. The maximum forecast period for a CONUS SIGMET is 4 hours and 6 hours for CONUS AIRMETs. The G-AIRMET is issued over the CONUS every 6 hours, valid at 3-hour increments through 12 hours with optional forecasts possible during the first 6 hours. The first 6 hours of the G-AIRMET correspond to the 6-hour period of the AIRMET. SIGMETs and AIRMETs are considered “widespread” because they must be either affecting or be forecasted to affect an area of at least 3,000 square miles at any one time. However, if the total area to be affected during the forecast period is very large, it could be that in actuality only a small portion of this total area would be affected at any one time. Only SIGMETs for the CONUS are for non-convective weather. The U.S. issues a special category of SIGMETs for convective weather called Convective SIGMETs.

2. SIGMETs/AIRMETs for Alaska

Alaska SIGMETs are valid for up to 4 hours, except for Volcanic Ash Cloud SIGMETs which are valid for up to 6 hours. Alaska AIRMETs are valid for up to 8 hours.

3. SIGMETs/AIRMETs for Hawaii and U.S. FIRs in the Gulf of Mexico, Caribbean, Western Atlantic and Eastern and Central Pacific Oceans

These SIGMETs are valid for up to 4 hours, except SIGMETs for Tropical Cyclones and Volcanic Ash Clouds, which are valid for up to 6 hours. AIRMETs are issued for the Hawaiian Islands and are valid for up to 6 hours. No AIRMETs are issued for U.S. FIRs in the the Gulf of Mexico, Caribbean, Western Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.

c. SIGMET

A SIGMET advises of weather that is potentially hazardous to all aircraft. SIGMETs are unscheduled products that are valid for 4 hours. However, SIGMETs associated with tropical cyclones and volcanic ash clouds are valid for 6 hours. Unscheduled updates and corrections are issued as necessary.

1. In the CONUS, SIGMETs are issued when the following phenomena occur or are expected to occur:

- (a) Severe icing not associated with thunderstorms.
- (b) Severe or extreme turbulence or clear air turbulence (CAT) not associated with thunderstorms.
- (c) Widespread dust storms or sandstorms lowering surface visibilities to below 3 miles.
- (d) Volcanic ash.

2. In Alaska and Hawaii, SIGMETs are also issued for:

- (a) Tornadoes.
- (b) Lines of thunderstorms.
- (c) Embedded thunderstorms.
- (d) Hail greater than or equal to $\frac{3}{4}$ inch in diameter.

3. SIGMETs are identified by an alphabetic designator from November through Yankee excluding Sierra and Tango. (Sierra, Tango, and Zulu are reserved for AIRMET text [WA] products; G-AIRMETS do not use the Sierra, Tango, or Zulu

designators.) The first issuance of a SIGMET will be labeled as UWS (Urgent Weather SIGMET). Subsequent issuances are at the forecaster's discretion. Issuance for the same phenomenon will be sequentially numbered, using the original designator until the phenomenon ends. For example, the first issuance in the Chicago (CHI) FA area for phenomenon moving from the Salt Lake City (SLC) FA area will be SIGMET Papa 3, if the previous two issuances, Papa 1 and Papa 2, had been in the SLC FA area. Note that no two different phenomena across the country can have the same alphabetic designator at the same time.

EXAMPLE–

Example of a SIGMET:

BOSR WS 050600

SIGMET ROMEO 2 VALID UNTIL 051000

ME NH VT

FROM CAR TO YSJ TO CON TO MPV TO CAR

OCNL SEV TURB BLW 080 EXP DUE TO STG NWLY FLOW. CONDS CONTG BYD 1000Z.

d. Convective SIGMET (WST)

1. Convective SIGMETs are issued in the conterminous U.S. for any of the following:

- (a) Severe thunderstorm due to:
 - (1) Surface winds greater than or equal to 50 knots.
 - (2) Hail at the surface greater than or equal to $\frac{3}{4}$ inches in diameter.
 - (3) Tornadoes.
- (b) Embedded thunderstorms.
- (c) A line of thunderstorms.
- (d) Thunderstorms producing precipitation greater than or equal to heavy precipitation affecting 40 percent or more of an area at least 3,000 square miles.

2. Any convective SIGMET implies severe or greater turbulence, severe icing, and low-level wind shear. A convective SIGMET may be issued for any convective situation that the forecaster feels is hazardous to all categories of aircraft.

3. Convective SIGMET bulletins are issued for the western (W), central (C), and eastern (E) United States. (Convective SIGMETs are not issued for Alaska or Hawaii.) The areas are separated at 87 and 107 degrees west longitude with sufficient overlap to cover most cases when the phenomenon crosses the

boundaries. Bulletins are issued hourly at H+55. Special bulletins are issued at any time as required and updated at H+55. If no criteria meeting convective SIGMET requirements are observed or forecasted, the message “CONVECTIVE SIGMET... NONE” will be issued for each area at H+55. Individual convective SIGMETs for each area (W, C, E) are numbered sequentially from number one each day, beginning at 00Z. A convective SIGMET for a continuing phenomenon will be reissued every hour at H+55 with a new number. The text of the bulletin consists of either an observation and a forecast or just a forecast. The forecast is valid for up to 2 hours.

EXAMPLE-
CONVECTIVE SIGMET 44C
VALID UNTIL 1455Z
AR TX OK
FROM 40NE ADM-40ESE MLC-10W TXK-50WNW
LFK-40ENE SJT-40NE ADM
AREA TS MOV FROM 26025KT. TOPS ABV FL450.
OUTLOOK VALID 061455-061855
FROM 60WSW OKC-MLC-40N TXK-40WSW
IGB-VUZ-MGM-HRV-60S BTR-40N
IAH-60SW SJT-40ENE LBB-60WSW OKC
WST ISSUANCES EXPD. REFER TO MOST RECENT
ACUS01 KWNS FROM STORM PREDICTION CENTER
FOR SYNOPSIS AND METEOROLOGICAL DETAILS

FIG 7-1-4
SIGMET and AIRMET Locations – Conterminous United States

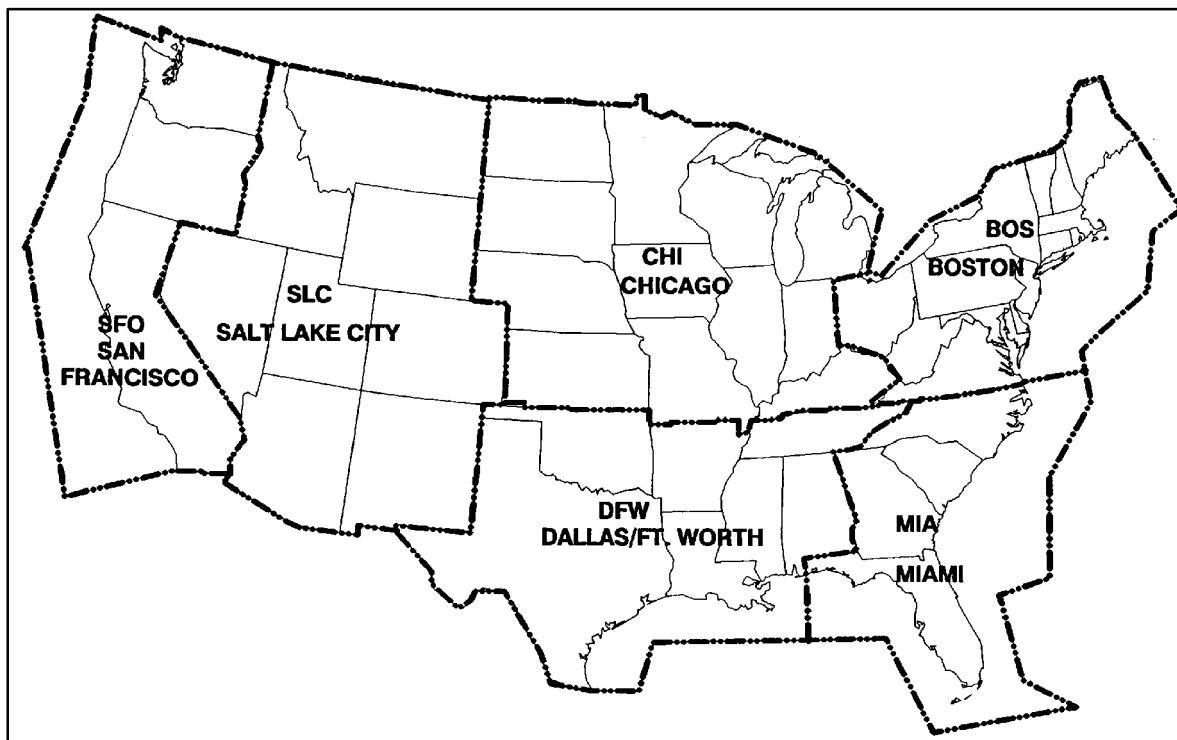
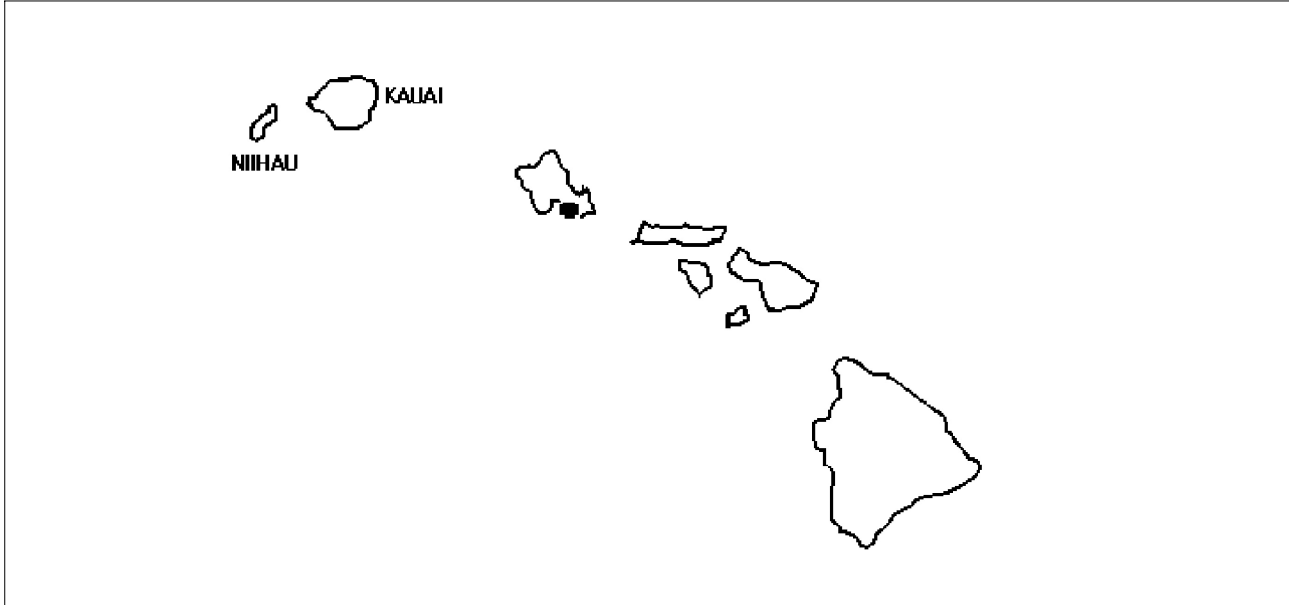


FIG 7-1-5
Hawaii Area Forecast Locations



e. SIGMET Outside the CONUS

1. Three NWS offices have been designated by ICAO as Meteorological Watch Offices (MWOs). These offices are responsible for issuing SIGMETs for designated areas outside the CONUS that include Alaska, Hawaii, portions of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, and the Gulf of Mexico.

2. The offices which issue international SIGMETs are:

- (a) The AWC in Kansas City, Missouri.
- (b) The AAWU in Anchorage, Alaska.
- (c) The WFO in Honolulu, Hawaii.

3. SIGMETs for outside the CONUS are issued for 6 hours for volcanic ash clouds, 6 hours for tropical cyclones (e.g. hurricanes and tropical storms), and 4 hours for all other events. Like the CONUS SIGMETs, SIGMETs for outside the CONUS are also identified by an alphabetic designator from Alpha through Mike and are numbered sequentially until that weather phenomenon ends. The criteria for an international SIGMET are:

- (a) Thunderstorms occurring in lines, embedded in clouds, or in large areas producing tornadoes or large hail.
- (b) Tropical cyclones.

(c) Severe icing.

(d) Severe or extreme turbulence.

(e) Dust storms and sandstorms lowering visibilities to less than 3 miles.

(f) Volcanic ash.

EXAMPLE-

Example of SIGMET Outside the U.S.:

WSNT06 KKCI 022014

SIGA0F

KZMA KZNY TJZS SIGMET FOXTROT 3 VALID 022015/030015 KKCI- MIAMI OCEANIC FIR NEW YORK OCEANIC FIR SAN JUAN FIR FRQ TS WI AREA BOUNDED BY 2711N6807W 2156N6654W 2220N7040W 2602N7208W 2711N6807W. TOPS TO FL470. MOV NE 15KT. WKN. BASED ON SAT AND LTG OBS. MOSHER

f. AIRMET

1. AIRMETs (WAs) are advisories of significant weather phenomena but describe conditions at intensities lower than those which require the issuance of SIGMETs. AIRMETs are intended for dissemination to all pilots in the preflight and en route phase of flight to enhance safety. AIRMET information is available in two formats: text bulletins (WA) and graphics (G-AIRMET). Both formats meet the criteria of paragraph 7-1-3i and are issued on a scheduled basis every 6 hours beginning at 0245 UTC. Unscheduled updates and corrections are issued as necessary. AIRMETs contain details about

IFR, extensive mountain obscuration, turbulence, strong surface winds, icing, and freezing levels.

2. There are three AIRMETs: Sierra, Tango, and Zulu. After the first issuance each day, scheduled or unscheduled bulletins are numbered sequentially for easier identification.

(a) AIRMET Sierra describes IFR conditions and/or extensive mountain obscurations.

(b) AIRMET Tango describes moderate turbulence, sustained surface winds of 30 knots or greater, and/or nonconvective low-level wind shear.

(c) AIRMET Zulu describes moderate icing and provides freezing level heights.

EXAMPLE-

Example of AIRMET Sierra issued for the Chicago FA area:

CHIS WA 131445
AIRMET SIERRA UPDT 2 FOR IFR AND MTN OBSCN
VALID UNTIL 132100.
AIRMET IFR...KY
FROM 20SSW HNN TO HMV TO 50ENE DYR TO 20SSW
HNN
CIG BLW 010/VIS BLW 3SM PCPN/BR/FG. CONDS
ENDG BY 18Z.

AIRMET IFR...MN LS
FROM INL TO 70W YQT TO 40ENE DLH TO
30WNW DLH TO 50SE GFK TO 20 ENE GFK TO
INL
CIG BLW 010/VIS BLW 3SM BR. CONDS ENDG 15-
18Z.

AIRMET IFR...KS
FROM 30N SLN TO 60E ICT TO 40S ICT TO 50W
LBL TO 30SSW GLD TO 30N SLN
CIG BLW 010/VIS BLW 3SM PCPN/BR/FG. CONDS
ENDG 15-18Z.

AIRMET MTN OBSCN...KY TN
FROM HNN TO HMV TO GQO TO LOZ TO HNN
MTN OBSC BY CLDS/PCPN/BR. CONDS CONTG
BYD 21Z THRU 03Z.

.....

EXAMPLE-

Example of AIRMET Tango issued for the Salt Lake City FA area:

SLCT WA 131445
AIRMET TANGO UPDT 2 FOR TURB VALID UNTIL
132100.
AIRMET TURB...MT
FROM 40NW HVR TO 50SE BIL TO 60E DLN TO
60SW YQL TO 40NW HVR

MOD TURB BLW 150. CONDS DVLPG 18-21Z.
CONDS CONTG BYD 21Z THRU 03Z.

AIRMET TURB...ID MT WY NV UT CO
FROM 100SE MLS TO 50SSW BFF TO 20SW BTY
TO 40SW BAM TO 100SE MLS
MOD TURB BTN FL310 AND FL410. CONDS
CONTG BYD 21Z ENDG 21-00Z.

AIRMET TURB...NV AZ NM CA AND CSTL WTRS
FROM 100WSW ENI TO 40W BTY TO 40S LAS TO
30ESE TBE TO INK TO ELP TO 50S TUS TO BZA
TO 20S MZB TO 150SW PYE TO 100WSW ENI
MOD TURB BTWN FL210 AND FL380. CONDS
CONTG BYD 21Z THRU 03Z.

....

EXAMPLE-

Example of AIRMET Zulu issued for the San Francisco FA area:

SFOZ WA 131445
AIRMET ZULU UPDT 2 FOR ICE AND FRZLVL VALID
UNTIL 132100.
NO SGFNT ICE EXP OUTSIDE OF CNVTV ACT.

FRZLVL....RANGING FROM SFC-105 ACRS AREA
MULT FRZLVL BLW 080 BOUNDED BY 40SE
YDC-60NNW GEG-60SW MLP-30WSW BKE-
20SW BAM-70W BAM-40SW YKM-40E HUH-
40SE YDC
SFC ALG 20NNW HUH-30SSE HUH-60S SEA
50NW LKV-60WNWOAL-30SW OAL
040 ALG 40W HUH-30W HUH-30NNW SEA-40N
PDX-20NNW DSD
080 ALG 160NW FOT-80SW ONP-50SSW EUG
40SSE OED-50SSE CZQ-60E EHF-40WSW LAS

....

3. **Graphical AIRMETs (G-AIRMETs)**, found on the Aviation Weather Center webpage at <http://aviationweather.gov>, are graphical forecasts of en-route weather hazards valid at discrete times no more than 3 hours apart for a period of up to 12 hours into the future (for example, 00, 03, 06, 09, and 12 hours). Additional forecasts may be inserted during the first 6 hours (for example, 01, 02, 04, and 05). 00 hour represents the initial conditions, and the subsequent graphics depict the area affected by the particular hazard at that valid time. Forecasts valid at 00 through 06 hours correspond to the text AIRMET bulletin. Forecasts valid at 06 through 12 hours correspond to the text bulletin outlook. G-AIRMET depicts the following en route aviation weather hazards:

- (a) Instrument flight rule conditions (ceiling < 1000' and/or surface visibility <3 miles)
- (b) Mountain obscuration
- (c) Icing
- (d) Freezing level
- (e) Turbulence
- (f) Low level wind shear (LLWS)
- (g) Strong surface winds

G-AIRMETs are snap shots at discrete time intervals as defined above. The text AIRMET is the result of the production of the G-AIRMET but provided in a time smear for a 6hr valid period. G-AIRMETs provide a higher forecast resolution than text AIRMET products. Since G-AIRMETs and text AIRMETs are created from the same forecast “production” process, there exists perfect consistency between the two. Using the two together will provide clarity of the area impacted by the weather hazard and improve situational awareness and decision making.

Interpolation of time periods between G-AIRMET valid times: Users must keep in mind when using the G-AIRMET that if a 00 hour forecast shows no significant weather and a 03 hour forecast shows hazardous weather, they must assume a change is occurring during the period between the two forecasts. It should be taken into consideration that the hazardous weather starts immediately after the 00 hour forecast unless there is a defined initiation or ending time for the hazardous weather. The same would apply after the 03 hour forecast. The user should assume the hazardous weather condition is occurring between the snap shots unless informed otherwise. For example, if a 00 hour forecast shows no hazard, a 03 hour forecast shows the presence of hazardous weather, and a 06 hour forecast shows no hazard, the user should assume the hazard exists from the 0001 hour to the 0559 hour time period.

EXAMPLE–

See FIG 7-1-6 for an example of the G-AIRMET graphical product.

g. Watch Notification Messages

The Storm Prediction Center (SPC) in Norman, OK, issues Watch Notification Messages to provide an area threat alert for forecast organized severe thunderstorms that may produce tornadoes, large

hail, and/or convective damaging winds within the CONUS. SPC issues three types of watch notification messages: Aviation Watch Notification Messages, Public Severe Thunderstorm Watch Notification Messages, and Public Tornado Watch Notification Messages.

It is important to note the difference between a Severe Thunderstorm (or Tornado) Watch and a Severe Thunderstorm (or Tornado) Warning. A watch means severe weather is possible during the next few hours, while a warning means that severe weather has been observed, or is expected within the hour. Only the SPC issues Severe Thunderstorm and Tornado Watches, while only NWS Weather Forecasts Offices issue Severe Thunderstorm and Tornado Warnings.

1. The Aviation Watch Notification Message.

The Aviation Watch Notification Message product is an approximation of the area of the Public Severe Thunderstorm Watch or Public Tornado Watch. The area may be defined as a rectangle or parallelogram using VOR navigational aides as coordinates.

The Aviation Watch Notification Message was formerly known as the Alert Severe Weather Watch Bulletin (AWW). The NWS no longer uses that title or acronym for this product. The NWS uses the acronym SAW for the Aviation Watch Notification Message, but retains AWW in the product header for processing by weather data systems.

EXAMPLE–

Example of an Aviation Watch Notification Message:

WWUS30 KWNS 271559

SAW2

SPC AWW 271559

WW 568 TORNADO AR LA MS 271605Z - 280000Z

AXIS..65 STATUTE MILES EAST AND WEST OF LINE..

45ESE HEZ/NATCHEZ MS/ - 50N TUP/TUPELO MS/

..AVIATION COORDS.. 55NM E/W /18WNW MCB - 60E

MEM/

HAIL SURFACE AND ALOFT..3 INCHES. WIND

GUSTS..70 KNOTS. MAX TOPS TO 550. MEAN STORM

MOTION VECTOR 26030.

LAT...LON 31369169 34998991 34998762 31368948

THIS IS AN APPROXIMATION TO THE WATCH AREA.

FOR A COMPLETE DEPICTION OF THE WATCH SEE

WOUS64 KWNS FOR WOU2.

2. Public Severe Thunderstorm Watch Notification Messages describe areas of expected severe thunderstorms. (Severe thunderstorm criteria are 1-inch hail or larger and/or wind gusts of 50 knots [58 mph] or greater). A Public Severe Thunderstorm Watch Notification Message contains the area

description and axis, the watch expiration time, a description of hail size and thunderstorm wind gusts expected, the definition of the watch, a call to action statement, a list of other valid watches, a brief discussion of meteorological reasoning and technical information for the aviation community.

3. Public Tornado Watch Notification Messages describe areas where the threat of tornadoes exists. A Public Tornado Watch Notification Message contains the area description and axis, watch expiration time, the term “damaging tornadoes,” a description of the largest hail size and strongest thunderstorm wind gusts expected, the definition of the watch, a call to action statement, a list of other valid watches, a brief discussion of meteorological reasoning and technical information for the aviation community. SPC may enhance a Public Tornado Watch Notification Message by using the words “THIS IS A PARTICULARLY DANGEROUS SITUATION” when there is a likelihood of multiple strong (damage of EF2 or EF3) or violent (damage of EF4 or EF5) tornadoes.

4. Public severe thunderstorm and tornado watch notification messages were formerly known as the Severe Weather Watch Bulletins (WW). The NWS no longer uses that title or acronym for this product but retains WW in the product header for processing by weather data systems.

EXAMPLE–

Example of a Public Tornado Watch Notification Message:

WWUS20 KWNS 050550

SEL2

SPC WW 051750

URGENT - IMMEDIATE BROADCAST REQUESTED

TORNADO WATCH NUMBER 243

NWS STORM PREDICTION CENTER NORMAN OK

1250 AM CDT MON MAY 5 2011

THE NWS STORM PREDICTION CENTER HAS ISSUED

A

*TORNADO WATCH FOR PORTIONS OF

WESTERN AND CENTRAL ARKANSAS

SOUTHERN MISSOURI

FAR EASTERN OKLAHOMA

*EFFECTIVE THIS MONDAY MORNING FROM 1250 AM UNTIL 600 AM CDT.

...THIS IS A PARTICULARLY DANGEROUS SITUATION...

*PRIMARY THREATS INCLUDE

NUMEROUS INTENSE TORNADOES LIKELY

NUMEROUS SIGNIFICANT DAMAGING WIND GUSTS

TO 80 MPH LIKELY

NUMEROUS VERY LARGE HAIL TO 4 INCHES IN DIAMETER LIKELY

THE TORNADO WATCH AREA IS APPROXIMATELY ALONG AND 100 STATUTE MILES EAST AND WEST OF A LINE FROM 15 MILES WEST NORTHWEST OF FORT LEONARD WOOD MISSOURI TO 45 MILES SOUTHWEST OF HOT SPRINGS ARKANSAS. FOR A COMPLETE DEPICTION OF THE WATCH SEE THE ASSOCIATED WATCH OUTLINE UPDATE (WOUS64 KWNS WOU2).

REMEMBER...A TORNADO WATCH MEANS CONDITIONS ARE FAVORABLE FOR TORNADOES AND SEVERE THUNDERSTORMS IN AND CLOSE TO THE WATCH AREA. PERSONS IN THESE AREAS SHOULD BE ON THE LOOKOUT FOR THREATENING WEATHER CONDITIONS AND LISTEN FOR LATER STATEMENTS AND POSSIBLE WARNINGS.

OTHER WATCH INFORMATION...THIS TORNADO WATCH REPLACES TORNADO WATCH NUMBER 237. WATCH NUMBER 237 WILL NOT BE IN EFFECT AFTER

1250 AM CDT. CONTINUE...WW 239...WW 240...WW 241...WW 242...

DISCUSSION...SRN MO SQUALL LINE EXPECTED TO CONTINUE EWD...WHERE LONG/HOOKED HODOGRAPHS SUGGEST THREAT FOR EMBEDDED SUPERCELLS/POSSIBLE TORNADOES. FARTHER S...MORE WIDELY SCATTERED

SUPERCELLS WITH A THREAT FOR TORNADOES WILL PERSIST IN VERY STRONGLY DEEP SHEARED/LCL ENVIRONMENT IN AR.

AVIATION...TORNADOES AND A FEW SEVERE THUNDERSTORMS WITH HAIL SURFACE AND ALOFT TO 4 INCHES. EXTREME TURBULENCE AND SURFACE WIND GUSTS TO 70 KNOTS. A FEW CUMULONIMBI WITH MAXIMUM TOPS TO 500. MEAN STORM MOTION VECTOR 26045.

5. Status reports are issued as needed to show progress of storms and to delineate areas no longer under the threat of severe storm activity. Cancellation bulletins are issued when it becomes evident that no severe weather will develop or that storms have subsided and are no longer severe.

h. Center Weather Advisories (CWAs)

1. CWAs are unscheduled inflight, flow control, air traffic, and air crew advisory. By nature of its short lead time, the CWA is not a flight planning product. It is generally a nowcast for conditions beginning within the next two hours. CWAs will be issued:

(a) As a supplement to an existing SIGMET, Convective SIGMET or AIRMET.

(b) When an Inflight Advisory has not been issued but observed or expected weather conditions meet SIGMET/AIRMET criteria based on current pilot reports and reinforced by other sources of information about existing meteorological conditions.

(c) When observed or developing weather conditions do not meet SIGMET, Convective SIGMET, or AIRMET criteria; e.g., in terms of intensity or area coverage, but current pilot reports or other weather information sources indicate that existing or anticipated meteorological phenomena will adversely affect the safe flow of air traffic within the ARTCC area of responsibility.

2. The following example is a CWA issued from the Kansas City, Missouri, ARTCC. The “3” after ZKC in the first line denotes this CWA has been issued for the third weather phenomena to occur for the day. The “301” in the second line denotes the phenomena number again (3) and the issuance number (01) for this phenomena. The CWA was issued at 2140Z and is valid until 2340Z.

EXAMPLE–

ZKC3 CWA 032140

ZKC CWA 301 VALID UNTIL 032340

ISOLD SVR TSTM over KCOU MOVG SWWD
10 KTS ETC.

7-1-7. Categorical Outlooks

a. Categorical outlook terms, describing general ceiling and visibility conditions for advanced planning purposes are used only in area forecasts and are defined as follows:

1. **LIFR (Low IFR).** Ceiling less than 500 feet and/or visibility less than 1 mile.

2. **IFR.** Ceiling 500 to less than 1,000 feet and/or visibility 1 to less than 3 miles.

3. **MVFR (Marginal VFR).** Ceiling 1,000 to 3,000 feet and/or visibility 3 to 5 miles inclusive.

4. **VFR.** Ceiling greater than 3,000 feet and visibility greater than 5 miles; includes sky clear.

b. The cause of LIFR, IFR, or MVFR is indicated by either ceiling or visibility restrictions or both. The contraction “CIG” and/or weather and obstruction to vision symbols are used. If winds or gusts of 25 knots

or greater are forecast for the outlook period, the word “WIND” is also included for all categories including VFR.

EXAMPLE–

1. *LIFR CIG–low IFR due to low ceiling.*

2. *IFR FG–IFR due to visibility restricted by fog.*

3. *MVFR CIG HZ FU–marginal VFR due to both ceiling and visibility restricted by haze and smoke.*

4. *IFR CIG RA WIND–IFR due to both low ceiling and visibility restricted by rain; wind expected to be 25 knots or greater.*

7-1-8. Inflight Weather Advisory Broadcasts

a. ARTCCs broadcast a Convective SIGMET, SIGMET, AIRMET, Urgent Pilot Report, or CWA alert once on all frequencies, except emergency frequencies, when any part of the area described is within 150 miles of the airspace under their jurisdiction. These broadcasts advise pilots of the availability of hazardous weather advisories and to contact the nearest Flight Service facility for additional details.

EXAMPLE–

1. *Attention all aircraft, SIGMET Delta Three, from Myton to Tuba City to Milford, severe turbulence and severe clear icing below one zero thousand feet. Expected to continue beyond zero three zero zero zulu.*

2. *Attention all aircraft, convective SIGMET Two Seven Eastern. From the vicinity of Elmira to Phillipsburg. Scattered embedded thunderstorms moving east at one zero knots. A few intense level five cells, maximum tops four five zero.*

3. *Attention all aircraft, Kansas City Center weather advisory one zero three. Numerous reports of moderate to severe icing from eight to niner thousand feet in a three zero mile radius of St. Louis. Light or negative icing reported from four thousand to one two thousand feet remainder of Kansas City Center area.*

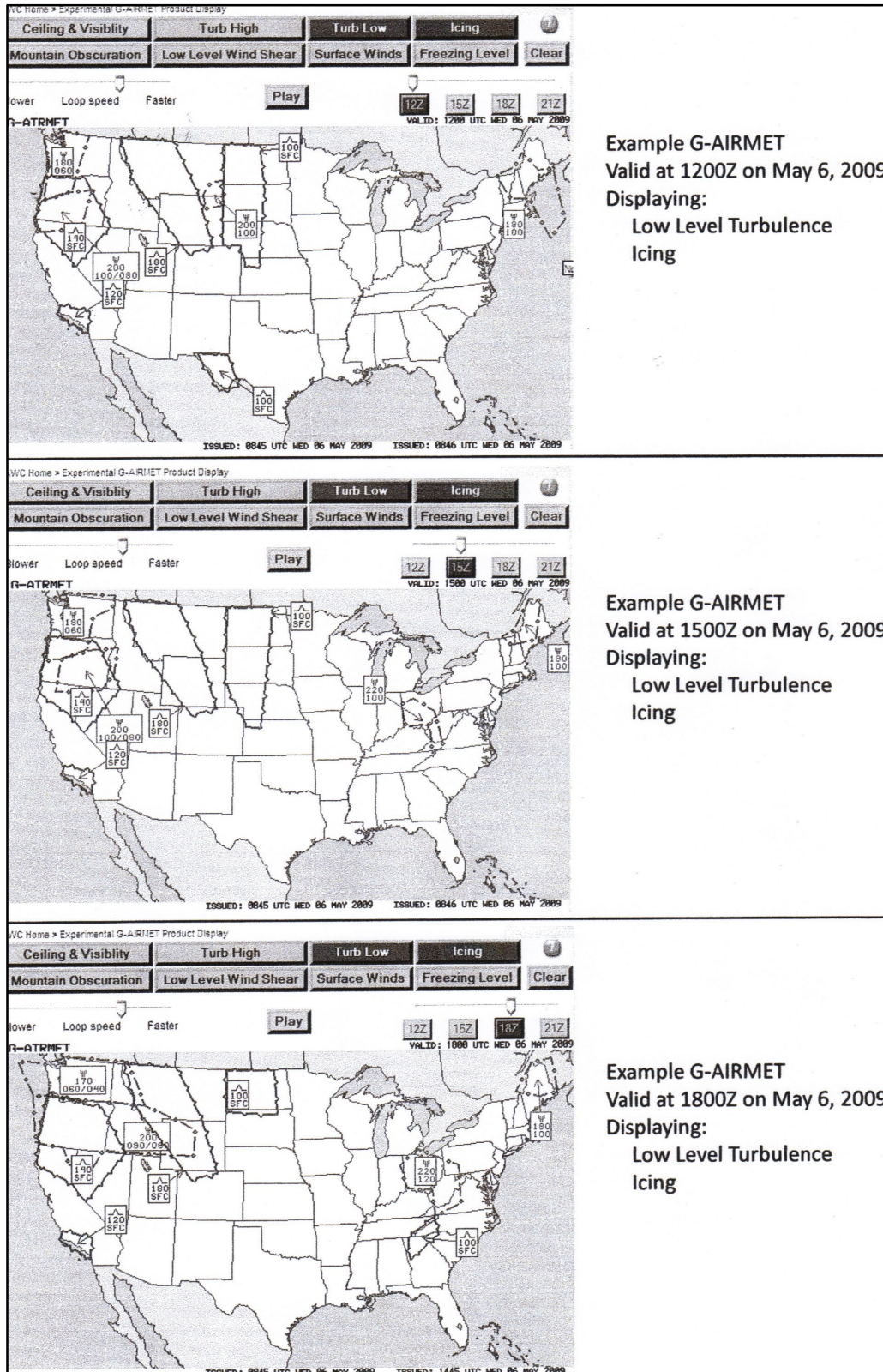
NOTE–

Terminal control facilities have the option to limit hazardous weather information broadcast as follows: Tower cab and approach control positions may opt to broadcast hazardous weather information alerts only when any part of the area described is within 50 miles of the airspace under their jurisdiction.

REFERENCE–

FAA Order JO 7110.65, Para 2-6-6, Hazardous Inflight Weather Advisory.

FIG 7-1-6
G-AIRMET Graphical Product



7-1-9. Flight Information Services (FIS)

FIS is a method of disseminating meteorological (MET) and aeronautical information (AI) to displays in the cockpit in order to enhance pilot situational awareness, provide decision support tools, and improve safety. FIS augments traditional pilot voice communication with Flight Service Stations (FSSs), ATC facilities, or Airline Operations Control Centers (AOCCs). FIS is not intended to replace traditional pilot and controller/flight service specialist/aircraft dispatcher preflight briefings or inflight voice communications. FIS, however, can provide textual and graphical information that can help abbreviate and improve the usefulness of such communications. FIS enhances pilot situational awareness and improves safety.

a. Data link Service Providers (DSPs). DSPs deploy and maintain airborne, ground-based, and, in some cases, space-based infrastructure that supports the transmission of AI/MET information over one or more physical links. A DSP may provide a free of charge or a for-fee service that permits end users to uplink and downlink AI/MET and other information. The following are examples of DSPs:

1. FAA FIS-B. A ground-based broadcast service provided through the ADS-B Universal Access Transceiver (UAT) network. The service provides users with a 978 MHz data link capability when operating within range and line-of-sight of a transmitting ground station. FIS-B enables users of properly equipped aircraft to receive and display a suite of broadcast weather and aeronautical information products.

2. Non-FAA FIS Systems. Several commercial vendors provide customers with FIS data over both the aeronautical spectrum and on other frequencies using a variety of data link protocols. Services available from these providers vary greatly and may include tier based subscriptions. Advancements in bandwidth technology permits preflight as well as inflight access to the same MET and AI information available on the ground. Pilots and operators using non-FAA FIS for MET and AI information should be knowledgeable regarding the weather services being provided as some commercial vendors may be repackaging NWS sourced weather, while other commercial vendors may alter the weather information to produce vendor-tailored or vendor-specific weather reports and forecasts.

b. Three Data Link Modes. There are three data link modes that may be used for transmitting AI and MET information to aircraft. The intended use of the AI and/or MET information will determine the most appropriate data link service.

1. Broadcast Mode: A one-way interaction in which AI and/or MET updates or changes applicable to a designated geographic area are continuously transmitted (or transmitted at repeated periodic intervals) to all aircraft capable of receiving the broadcast within the service volume defined by the system network architecture.

2. Contract/Demand Mode: A two-way interaction in which AI and/or MET information is transmitted to an aircraft in response to a specific request.

3. Contract/Update Mode: A two-way interaction that is an extension of the Demand Mode. Initial AI and/or MET report(s) are sent to an aircraft and subsequent updates or changes to the AI and/or MET information that meet the contract criteria are automatically or manually sent to an aircraft.

c. To ensure airman compliance with Federal Aviation Regulations, manufacturer's operating manuals should remind airmen to contact ATC controllers, FSS specialists, operator dispatchers, or airline operations control centers for general and mission critical aviation weather information and/or NAS status conditions (such as NOTAMs, Special Use Airspace status, and other government flight information). If FIS products are systemically modified (for example, are displayed as abbreviated plain text and/or graphical depictions), the modification process and limitations of the resultant product should be clearly described in the vendor's user guidance.

d. Operational Use of FIS. Regardless of the type of FIS system being used, several factors must be considered when using FIS:

1. Before using FIS for inflight operations, pilots and other flight crewmembers should become familiar with the operation of the FIS system to be used, the airborne equipment to be used, including its system architecture, airborne system components, coverage service volume and other limitations of the particular system, modes of operation and indications of various system failures. Users should also be familiar with the specific content and format of the services available from the FIS provider(s). Sources

of information that may provide this specific guidance include manufacturer's manuals, training programs, and reference guides.

2. FIS should not serve as the sole source of aviation weather and other operational information. ATC, FSSs, and, if applicable, AOCC VHF/HF voice remain as a redundant method of communicating aviation weather, NOTAMs, and other operational information to aircraft in flight. FIS augments these traditional ATC/FSS/AOCC services and, for some products, offers the advantage of being displayed as graphical information. By using FIS for orientation, the usefulness of information received from conventional means may be enhanced. For example, FIS may alert the pilot to specific areas of concern that will more accurately focus requests made to FSS or AOCC for inflight updates or similar queries made to ATC.

3. The airspace and aeronautical environment is constantly changing. These changes occur quickly and without warning. Critical operational decisions should be based on use of the most current and appropriate data available. When differences exist between FIS and information obtained by voice communication with ATC, FSS, and/or AOCC (if applicable), pilots are cautioned to use the most recent data from the most authoritative source.

4. FIS aviation weather products (for example, graphical ground-based radar precipitation depictions) are not appropriate for tactical (typical timeframe of less than 3 minutes) avoidance of severe weather such as negotiating a path through a weather hazard area. FIS supports strategic (typical timeframe of 20 minutes or more) weather decision-making such as route selection to avoid a weather hazard area in its entirety. The misuse of information beyond its applicability may place the pilot and aircraft in jeopardy. In addition, FIS should never be used in lieu of an individual preflight weather and flight planning briefing.

5. DSPs offer numerous MET and AI products with information that can be layered on top of each other. Pilots need to be aware that too much information can have a negative effect on their cognitive work load. Pilots need to manage the amount of information to a level that offers the most pertinent information to that specific flight without creating a cockpit distraction. Pilots may need to adjust the amount of information based on numerous

factors including, but not limited to, the phase of flight, single pilot operation, autopilot availability, class of airspace, and the weather conditions encountered.

6. FIS NOTAM products, including Temporary Flight Restriction (TFR) information, are advisory-use information and are intended for situational awareness purposes only. Cockpit displays of this information are not appropriate for tactical navigation – pilots should stay clear of any geographic area displayed as a TFR NOTAM. Pilots should contact FSSs and/or ATC while en route to obtain updated information and to verify the cockpit display of NOTAM information.

7. FIS supports better pilot decision-making by increasing situational awareness. Better decision-making is based on using information from a variety of sources. In addition to FIS, pilots should take advantage of other weather/NAS status sources, including, briefings from Flight Service Stations, data from other air traffic control facilities, airline operation control centers, pilot reports, as well as their own observations.

e. FAA's Flight Information Service–Broadcast (FIS–B).

1. FIS–B is a ground-based broadcast service provided through the FAA's Automatic Dependent Surveillance–Broadcast (ADS–B) Services Universal Access Transceiver (UAT) network. The service provides users with a 978 MHz data link capability when operating within range and line-of-sight of a transmitting ground station. FIS–B enables users of properly-equipped aircraft to receive and display a suite of broadcast weather and aeronautical information products.

2. TBL 7–1–2 lists the text and graphical products available through FIS–B and provided free-of-charge. Detailed information concerning FIS–B meteorological products can be found in Advisory Circular 00–45, Aviation Weather Services, and AC 00–63, Use of Cockpit Displays of Digital Weather and Aeronautical Information. Information on Special Use Airspace (SUA), Temporary Flight Restriction (TFR), and Notice to Air Missions (NOTAM) products can be found in Chapters 3, 4 and 5 of this manual.

3. Users of FIS–B should familiarize themselves with the operational characteristics and limitations of the system, including: system architec-

ture; service environment; product lifecycles; modes of operation; and indications of system failure.

NOTE—

The NOTAM–D and NOTAM–FDC products broadcast via FIS–B are limited to those issued or effective within the past 30 days. Except for TFRs, NOTAMs older than 30 days are not provided. The pilot in command is responsible for reviewing all necessary information prior to flight.

4. FIS–B products are updated and transmitted at specific intervals based primarily on product issuance criteria. Update intervals are defined as the rate at which the product data is available from the source for transmission. Transmission intervals are defined as the amount of time within which a new or updated product transmission must be completed and/or the rate or repetition interval at which the product is rebroadcast. Update and transmission intervals for each product are provided in TBL 7–1–2.

5. Where applicable, FIS–B products include a look–ahead range expressed in nautical miles (NM) for three service domains: Airport Surface; Terminal Airspace; and En Route/Gulf of Mexico (GOMEX). TBL 7–1–3 provides service domain availability and look–ahead ranging for each FIS–B product.

6. Prior to using this capability, users should familiarize themselves with the operation of FIS–B avionics by referencing the applicable User’s Guides. Guidance concerning the interpretation of information displayed should be obtained from the appropriate avionics manufacturer.

7. FIS–B malfunctions not attributed to aircraft system failures or covered by active NOTAM should be reported by radio or telephone to the nearest FSS facility, or by sending an email to the ADS–B help desk at adsb@faa.gov. Reports should include:

- (a) Condition observed;
- (b) Date and time of observation;

- (c) Altitude and location of observation;
- (d) Type and call sign of the aircraft; and
- (e) Type and software version of avionics system.

f. Non–FAA FIS Systems. Several commercial vendors also provide customers with FIS data over both the aeronautical spectrum and on other frequencies using a variety of data link protocols. In some cases, the vendors provide only the communications system that carries customer messages, such as the Aircraft Communications Addressing and Reporting System (ACARS) used by many air carrier and other operators.

1. Operators using non–FAA FIS data for inflight weather and other operational information should ensure that the products used conform to FAA/NWS standards. Specifically, aviation weather and NAS status information should meet the following criteria:

(a) The products should be either FAA/NWS “accepted” aviation weather reports or products, or based on FAA/NWS accepted aviation weather reports or products. If products are used which do not meet this criteria, they should be so identified. The operator must determine the applicability of such products to their particular flight operations.

(b) In the case of a weather product which is the result of the application of a process which alters the form, function or content of the base FAA/NWS accepted weather product(s), that process, and any limitations to the application of the resultant product, should be described in the vendor’s user guidance material. An example would be a NEXRAD radar composite/mosaic map, which has been modified by changing the scaling resolution. The methodology of assigning reflectivity values to the resultant image components should be described in the vendor’s guidance material to ensure that the user can accurately interpret the displayed data.

TBL 7-1-2
FIS-B Over UAT Product Update and Transmission Intervals

Product	Update Interval¹	Transmission Interval (95%)²	Basic Product
AIRMET	As Available	5 minutes	Yes
AWW/WW	As Available, then at 15 minute intervals for 1 hour	5 minutes	No
Ceiling	As Available	10 minutes	No
Convective SIGMET	As Available, then at 15 minute intervals for 1 hour	5 minutes	Yes
D-ATIS	As Available	1 minute	No
Echo Top	5 minutes	5 minutes	No
METAR/SPECI	1 minute (where available), As Available otherwise	5 minutes	Yes
MRMS NEXRAD (CONUS)	2 minutes	15 minutes	Yes
MRMS NEXRAD (Regional)	2 minutes	2.5 minutes	Yes
NOTAMs-D/FDC	As Available	10 minutes	Yes
NOTAMs-TFR	As Available	10 minutes	Yes
PIREP	As Available	10 minutes	Yes
SIGMET	As Available, then at 15 minute intervals for 1 hour	5 minutes	Yes
SUA Status	As Available	10 minutes	Yes
TAF/AMEND	6 Hours (±15 minutes)	10 minutes	Yes
Temperature Aloft	12 Hours (±15 minutes)	10 minutes	Yes
TWIP	As Available	1 minute	No
Winds aloft	12 Hours (±15 minutes)	10 minutes	Yes
Lightning strikes ³	5 minutes	5 minutes	Yes
Turbulence ³	1 minute	15 minutes	Yes
Icing, Forecast Potential (FIP) ³	60 minutes	15 minutes	Yes
Cloud tops ³	30 minutes	15 minutes	Yes
1 Minute AWOS ³	1 minute	10 minutes	No
Graphical-AIRMET ³	As Available	5 minutes	Yes
Center Weather Advisory (CWA) ³	As Available	10 minutes	Yes
Temporary Restricted Areas (TRA)	As Available	10 minutes	Yes
Temporary Military Operations Areas (TMOA)	As Available	10 minutes	Yes

¹ The Update Interval is the rate at which the product data is available from the source.

² The Transmission Interval is the amount of time within which a new or updated product transmission must be completed (95%) and the rate or repetition interval at which the product is rebroadcast (95%).

³ The transmission and update intervals for the expanded set of basic meteorological products may be adjusted based on FAA and vendor agreement on the final product formats and performance requirements.

NOTE–

1. Details concerning the content, format, and symbols of the various data link products provided should be obtained from the specific avionics manufacturer.

2. NOTAM–D and NOTAM–FDC products broadcast via FIS–B are limited to those issued or effective within the past 30 days.

**TBL 7–1–3
Product Parameters for Low/Medium/High Altitude Tier Radios**

Product	Surface Radios	Low Altitude Tier	Medium Altitude Tier	High Altitude Tier
CONUS NEXRAD	N/A	CONUS NEXRAD not provided	CONUS NEXRAD imagery	CONUS NEXRAD imagery
Winds & Temps Aloft	500 NM look-ahead range	500 NM look-ahead range	750 NM look-ahead range	1,000 NM look-ahead range
METAR	100 NM look-ahead range	250 NM look-ahead range	375 NM look-ahead range	CONUS: CONUS Class B & C airport METARs and 500 NM look-ahead range Outside of CONUS: 500 NM look-ahead range
TAF	100 NM look-ahead range	250 NM look-ahead range	375 NM look-ahead range	CONUS: CONUS Class B & C airport TAFs and 500 NM look-ahead range Outside of CONUS: 500 NM look-ahead range
AIRMET, SIGMET, PIREP, and SUA/SAA	100 NM look-ahead range. PIREP/SUA/SAA is N/A.	250 NM look-ahead range	375 NM look-ahead range	500 NM look-ahead range
Regional NEXRAD	150 NM look-ahead range	150 NM look-ahead range	200 NM look-ahead range	250 NM look-ahead range
NOTAMs D, FDC, and TFR	100 NM look-ahead range	100 NM look-ahead range	100 NM look-ahead range	100 NM look-ahead range

7–1–10. Weather Observing Programs

a. Manual Observations. With only a few exceptions, these reports are from airport locations staffed by FAA personnel who manually observe, perform calculations, and enter these observations into the (WMSCR) communication system. The format and coding of these observations are contained in paragraph 7–1–28, Key to Aviation Routine Weather Report (METAR) and Aerodrome Forecasts (TAF).

b. Automated Weather Observing System (AWOS).

1. Automated weather reporting systems are increasingly being installed at airports. These systems consist of various sensors, a processor, a computer-generated voice subsystem, and a transmitter to broadcast local, minute-by-minute weather data directly to the pilot.

NOTE–

When the barometric pressure exceeds 31.00 inches Hg., see AIM, Para 7–2–3, Altimeter Errors.

2. The AWOS observations will include the prefix “AUTO” to indicate that the data are derived from an automated system. Some AWOS locations will be augmented by certified observers who will

provide weather and obstruction to vision information in the remarks of the report when the reported visibility is less than 7 miles. These sites, along with the hours of augmentation, are to be published in the Chart Supplement U.S. Augmentation is identified in the observation as “OBSERVER WEATHER.” The AWOS wind speed, direction and gusts, temperature, dew point, and altimeter setting are exactly the same as for manual observations. The AWOS will also report density altitude when it exceeds the field elevation by more than 1,000 feet. The reported visibility is derived from a sensor near the touchdown of the primary instrument runway. The visibility sensor output is converted to a visibility value using a 10-minute harmonic average. The reported sky condition/ceiling is derived from the ceilometer located next to the visibility sensor. The AWOS algorithm integrates the last 30 minutes of ceilometer data to derive cloud layers and heights. This output may also differ from the observer sky condition in that the AWOS is totally dependent upon the cloud advection over the sensor site.

3. These real-time systems are operationally classified into nine basic levels:

(a) **AWOS–A** only reports altimeter setting;

NOTE–

Any other information is advisory only.

(b) **AWOS–AV** reports altimeter and visibility;

NOTE–

Any other information is advisory only.

(c) **AWOS–I** usually reports altimeter setting, wind data, temperature, dew point, and density altitude;

(d) **AWOS–2** provides the information provided by AWOS–1 plus visibility; and

(e) **AWOS–3** provides the information provided by AWOS–2 plus cloud/ceiling data.

(f) **AWOS–3P** provides reports the same as the AWOS 3 system, plus a precipitation identification sensor.

(g) **AWOS–3PT** reports the same as the AWOS 3P System, plus thunderstorm/lightning reporting capability.

(h) **AWOS–3T** reports the same as AWOS 3 system and includes a thunderstorm/lightning reporting capability.

(i) **AWOS–4** reports the same as the AWOS 3 system, plus precipitation occurrence, type and accumulation, freezing rain, thunderstorm, and runway surface sensors.

4. The information is transmitted over a discrete VHF radio frequency or the voice portion of a local NAVAID. AWOS transmissions on a discrete VHF radio frequency are engineered to be receivable to a maximum of 25 NM from the AWOS site and a maximum altitude of 10,000 feet AGL. At many locations, AWOS signals may be received on the surface of the airport, but local conditions may limit the maximum AWOS reception distance and/or altitude. The system transmits a 20 to 30 second weather message updated each minute. Pilots should monitor the designated frequency for the automated weather broadcast. A description of the broadcast is contained in subparagraph c. There is no two-way communication capability. Most AWOS sites also have a dial-up capability so that the minute-by-minute weather messages can be accessed via telephone.

5. AWOS information (system level, frequency, phone number, etc.) concerning specific locations is published, as the systems become operational, in the Chart Supplement U.S., and where applicable, on published Instrument Approach Procedures. Selected individual systems may be incorporated into nationwide data collection and dissemination networks in the future.

c. AWOS Broadcasts. Computer-generated voice is used in AWOS to automate the broadcast of the minute-by-minute weather observations. In addition, some systems are configured to permit the addition of an operator-generated voice message; e.g., weather remarks following the automated parameters. The phraseology used generally follows that used for other weather broadcasts. Following are explanations and examples of the exceptions.

1. Location and Time. The location/name and the phrase “AUTOMATED WEATHER OBSERVATION,” followed by the time are announced.

(a) If the airport’s specific location is included in the airport’s name, the airport’s name is announced.

EXAMPLE–

“Bremerton National Airport automated weather observation, one four five six zulu;”

“Ravenswood Jackson County Airport automated weather observation, one four five six zulu.”

(b) If the airport’s specific location is not included in the airport’s name, the location is announced followed by the airport’s name.

EXAMPLE–

“Sault Ste. Marie, Chippewa County International Airport automated weather observation;”

“Sandusky, Cowley Field automated weather observation.”

(c) The word “TEST” is added following “OBSERVATION” when the system is not in commissioned status.

EXAMPLE–

“Bremerton National Airport automated weather observation test, one four five six zulu.”

(d) The phrase “TEMPORARILY INOPERATIVE” is added when the system is inoperative.

EXAMPLE–

“Bremerton National Airport automated weather observing system temporarily inoperative.”

2. Visibility.

(a) The lowest reportable visibility value in AWOS is “less than $\frac{1}{4}$.” It is announced as “VISIBILITY LESS THAN ONE QUARTER.”

(b) A sensor for determining visibility is not included in some AWOS. In these systems, visibility is not announced. “VISIBILITY MISSING” is announced only if the system is configured with a visibility sensor and visibility information is not available.

3. Weather. In the future, some AWOSs are to be configured to determine the occurrence of precipitation. However, the type and intensity may not always be determined. In these systems, the word “PRECIPITATION” will be announced if precipitation is occurring, but the type and intensity are not determined.

4. Ceiling and Sky Cover.

(a) Ceiling is announced as either “CEILING” or “INDEFINITE CEILING.” With the exception of indefinite ceilings, all automated ceiling heights are measured.

EXAMPLE–

“Bremerton National Airport automated weather observation, one four five six zulu. Ceiling two thousand overcast;”

“Bremerton National Airport automated weather observation, one four five six zulu. Indefinite ceiling two hundred, sky obscured.”

(b) The word “Clear” is not used in AWOS due to limitations in the height ranges of the sensors. No clouds detected is announced as “NO CLOUDS BELOW XXX” or, in newer systems as “CLEAR BELOW XXX” (where XXX is the range limit of the sensor).

EXAMPLE–

“No clouds below one two thousand.”

“Clear below one two thousand.”

(c) A sensor for determining ceiling and sky cover is not included in some AWOS. In these systems, ceiling and sky cover are not announced. “SKY CONDITION MISSING” is announced only if the system is configured with a ceilometer and the ceiling and sky cover information is not available.

5. Remarks. If remarks are included in the observation, the word “REMARKS” is announced following the altimeter setting.

(a) Automated “Remarks.”

(1) Density Altitude.

(2) Variable Visibility.

(3) Variable Wind Direction.

(b) Manual Input Remarks. Manual input remarks are prefaced with the phrase “OBSERVER WEATHER.” As a general rule the manual remarks are limited to:

(1) Type and intensity of precipitation.

(2) Thunderstorms and direction; and

(3) Obstructions to vision when the visibility is 3 miles or less.

EXAMPLE–

“Remarks ... density altitude, two thousand five hundred ... visibility variable between one and two ... wind direction variable between two four zero and three one zero ... observed weather ... thunderstorm moderate rain showers and fog ... thunderstorm overhead.”

(c) If an automated parameter is “missing” and no manual input for that parameter is available, the parameter is announced as “MISSING.” For example, a report with the dew point “missing” and

no manual input available, would be announced as follows:

EXAMPLE-

“Ceiling one thousand overcast ... visibility three ... precipitation ... temperature three zero, dew point missing ... wind calm ... altimeter three zero zero one.”

(d) “REMARKS” are announced in the following order of priority:

- (1) Automated “REMARKS.”
 - [a] Density Altitude.
 - [b] Variable Visibility.
 - [c] Variable Wind Direction.
- (2) Manual Input “REMARKS.”
 - [a] Sky Condition.
 - [b] Visibility.
 - [c] Weather and Obstructions to Vision.
 - [d] Temperature.
 - [e] Dew Point.
 - [f] Wind; and
 - [g] Altimeter Setting.

EXAMPLE-

“Remarks ... density altitude, two thousand five hundred ... visibility variable between one and two ... wind direction variable between two four zero and three one zero ... observer ceiling estimated two thousand broken ... observer temperature two, dew point minus five.”

d. Automated Surface Observing System (ASOS)/Automated Weather Observing System (AWOS) The ASOS/AWOS is the primary surface weather observing system of the U.S. (See Key to Decode an ASOS/AWOS (METAR) Observation, FIG 7-1-7 and FIG 7-1-8.) The program to install and operate these systems throughout the U.S. is a joint effort of the NWS, the FAA and the Department of Defense. ASOS/AWOS is designed to support aviation operations and weather forecast activities. The ASOS/AWOS will provide continuous minute-by-minute observations and perform the basic observing functions necessary to generate an aviation routine weather report (METAR) and other aviation weather information. The information may be transmitted over a discrete VHF radio frequency or the voice portion of a local NAVAID. ASOS/AWOS transmissions on a discrete VHF radio frequency are engineered to be receivable to a maximum of 25 NM

from the ASOS/AWOS site and a maximum altitude of 10,000 feet AGL. At many locations, ASOS/AWOS signals may be received on the surface of the airport, but local conditions may limit the maximum reception distance and/or altitude. While the automated system and the human may differ in their methods of data collection and interpretation, both produce an observation quite similar in form and content. For the “objective” elements such as pressure, ambient temperature, dew point temperature, wind, and precipitation accumulation, both the automated system and the observer use a fixed location and time-averaging technique. The quantitative differences between the observer and the automated observation of these elements are negligible. For the “subjective” elements, however, observers use a fixed time, spatial averaging technique to describe the visual elements (sky condition, visibility and present weather), while the automated systems use a fixed location, time averaging technique. Although this is a fundamental change, the manual and automated techniques yield remarkably similar results within the limits of their respective capabilities.

1. System Description.

(a) The ASOS/AWOS at each airport location consists of four main components:

- (1) Individual weather sensors.
- (2) Data collection and processing units.
- (3) Peripherals and displays.

(b) The ASOS/AWOS sensors perform the basic function of data acquisition. They continuously sample and measure the ambient environment, derive raw sensor data and make them available to the collection and processing units.

2. Every ASOS/AWOS will contain the following basic set of sensors:

- (a) Cloud height indicator (one or possibly three).
- (b) Visibility sensor (one or possibly three).
- (c) Precipitation identification sensor.
- (d) Freezing rain sensor (at select sites).
- (e) Pressure sensors (two sensors at small airports; three sensors at large airports).
- (f) Ambient temperature/Dew point temperature sensor.

(g) Anemometer (wind direction and speed sensor).

(h) Rainfall accumulation sensor.

(i) Automated Lightning Detection and Reporting System (ALDARS) (excluding Alaska and Pacific Island sites).

3. The ASOS/AWOS data outlets include:

(a) Those necessary for on-site airport users.

(b) National communications networks.

(c) Computer-generated voice (available through FAA radio broadcast to pilots, and dial-in telephone line).

NOTE—

Wind direction broadcast over FAA radios is in reference to magnetic north.

4. An ASOS/AWOS report without human intervention will contain only that weather data

capable of being reported automatically. The modifier for this METAR report is “AUTO.” When an observer augments or backs-up an ASOS/AWOS site, the “AUTO” modifier disappears.

5. There are two types of automated stations, AO1 for automated weather reporting stations without a precipitation discriminator, and AO2 for automated stations with a precipitation discriminator. As appropriate, “AO1” and “AO2” must appear in remarks. (A precipitation discriminator can determine the difference between liquid and frozen/freezing precipitation).

NOTE—

To decode an ASOS/AWOS report, refer to FIG 7-1-7 and FIG 7-1-8.

REFERENCE—

A complete explanation of METAR terminology is located in AIM, Para 7-1-28, Key to Aerodrome Forecast (TAF) and Aviation Routine Weather Report (METAR).

FIG 7-1-7

Key to Decode an ASOS/AWOS (METAR) Observation (Front)

METAR KABC 121755Z AUTO 21016G24KT 180V240 1SM R11/P6000FT -RA BR BKN015 OVC025 06/04 A2990
 RMK A02 PK WND 20032/25 WSHFT 1715 VIS 3/4V1 1/2 VIS 3/4 RWY11 RAB07 CIG 013V017 CIG 017 RWY11 PRESFR
 SLP125 P0003 6009 T00640036 10066 21012 58033 TSNO \$

TYPE OF REPORT	METAR: hourly (scheduled report); SPECI: special (unscheduled) report.	METAR
STATION IDENTIFIER	Four alphabetic characters; ICAO location identifiers.	KABC
DATE/TIME	All dates and times in UTC using a 24-hour clock; two-digit date and four-digit time; always appended with <u>Z</u> to indicate UTC.	121755Z
REPORT MODIFIER	Fully automated report, no human intervention; removed when observer signed-on.	AUTO
WIND DIRECTION AND SPEED	Direction in tens of degrees from true north (first three digits); next two digits: speed in whole knots; as needed <u>G</u> usts (character) followed by maximum observed speed; always appended with <u>K</u> T to indicate knots; 0000KT for calm; if direction varies by 60° or more a <u>V</u> ariable wind direction group is reported.	21016G24KT 108V240
VISIBILITY	Prevailing visibility in statute miles and fractions (space between whole miles and fractions); always appended with <u>S</u> M to indicate statute miles.	1SM
RUNWAY VISUAL RANGE	10-minute RVR value in hundreds of feet; reported if prevailing visibility is ≤ one mile or RVR ≤6000 feet; always appended with <u>FT</u> to indicate feet; value prefixed with <u>M</u> or <u>P</u> to indicate value is lower or higher than the reportable RVR value.	R11/P6000FT
WEATHER PHENOMENA	RA: liquid precipitation that does not freeze; SN: frozen precipitation other than hail; UP: precipitation of unknown type; intensity prefixed to precipitation: light (-), moderate (no sign), heavy (+); FG: fog; FZFG: freezing fog (temperature below 0°C); BR: mist; HZ: haze; SQ: squall; maximum of three groups reported; augmented by observer: FC (funnel cloud/tornado/waterspout); TS(thunderstorm); GR (hail); GS (small hail; <1/4 inch); FZRA (intensity; freezing rain); VA (volcanic ash).	-RA BR
SKY CONDITION	Cloud amount and height: CLR (no clouds detected below 12000 feet); FEW (few); SCT (scattered); BKN (broken); OVC (overcast); followed by 3-digit height in hundreds of feet; or vertical visibility (<u>V</u> V) followed by height for indefinite ceiling.	BKN015 OVC025
TEMPERATURE/DEW POINT	Each is reported in whole degrees Celsius using two digits; values are separated by a solidus; sub-zero values are prefixed with an <u>M</u> (minus).	06/04
ALTIMETER	Altimeter always prefixed with an <u>A</u> indicating inches of mercury; reported using four digits: tens, units, tenths, and hundredths.	A2990

FIG 7-1-8

Key to Decode an ASOS/AWOS (METAR) Observation (Back)

REMARKS IDENTIFIER: RMK	RMK
TORNADIC ACTIVITY: Augmented; report should include TORNADO, FUNNEL CLOUD, or WATERSPOUT, time begin/end, location, movement; e.g., TORNADO B25 N MOV E.	
TYPE OF AUTOMATED STATION: AO2; automated station with precipitation discriminator.	AO2
PEAK WIND: PK WND dddfff(f)/(hh)mm; direction in tens of degrees, speed in whole knots, and time.	PK WND 20032/25
WIND SHIFT: WSHFT (hh)mm	WSHFT 1715
TOWER OR SURFACE VISIBILITY: TWR VIS vvvvv: visibility reported by tower personnel, e.g., TWR VIS 2; SFC VIS vvvvv: visibility reported by ASOS, e.g., SFC VIS 2.	
VARIABLE PREVAILING VISIBILITY: VIS v _n v _n v _n v _n v _n V _v V _x V _x V _x V _x ; reported if prevailing visibility is <3 miles and variable.	VIS 3/4V1 1/2
VISIBILITY AT SECOND LOCATION: VIS vvvvv [LOC]; reported if different than the reported prevailing visibility in body of report.	VIS 3/4 RWY11
LIGHTNING: [FREQ] LTG [LOC]; when detected the frequency and location is reported, e.g., FRQ LTG NE.	
BEGINNING AND ENDING OF PRECIPITATION AND THUNDERSTORMS: w'w'B(hh)mmE(hh)mm	RAB07
VIRGA: Augmented; precipitation not reaching the ground, e.g., VIRGA.	
VARIABLE CEILING HEIGHT: CIG h _n h _n Vh _x h _x h _x ; reported if ceiling in body of report is <3000 feet and variable.	CIG 013V017
CEILING HEIGHT AT SECOND LOCATION: CIG hhh [LOC]; Ceiling height reported if secondary ceilmeter site is different than the ceiling height in the body of the report.	CIG 017 RWY11
PRESSURE RISING OR FALLING RAPIDLY: PRESRR or PRESFR; pressure rising or falling rapidly at time of observation.	PRESFR
SEA-LEVEL PRESSURE: SLPppp; tens, units, and tenths of SLP in hPa.	SLPI25
HOURLY PRECIPITATION AMOUNT: Prrrr; in .01 inches since last METAR; a trace is P0000.	P0003
3- AND 6-HOUR PRECIPITATION AMOUNT: 6RRRR; precipitation amount in .01 inches for past 6 hours reported in 00, 06, 12, and 18 UTC observations and for past 3 hours in 03, 09, 15, and 21 UTC observations; a trace is 60000.	60009
24-HOUR PRECIPITATION AMOUNT: 7R ₂₄ R ₂₄ R ₂₄ ; precipitation amount in .01 inches for past 24 hours reported in 12 UTC observation, e.g., 70015.	
HOURLY TEMPERATURE AND DEW POINT: T _s T _a T _a T _s T _a T _a T _s T _a ; tenth of degree Celsius; s _n : 1 if temperature below 0° C and 0 if temperature 0° C or higher.	T00640036
6-HOUR MAXIMUM TEMPERATURE: 1s _n T _x T _x T _x ; tenth of degree Celsius; 00, 06, 12, 18 UTC; s _n : 1 if temperature below 0° C and 0 if temperature 0° C or higher.	10066
6-HOUR MINIMUM TEMPERATURE: 2s _n T _n T _n T _n ; tenth of degree Celsius; 00, 06, 12, 18 UTC; s _n : 1 if temperature below 0° C and 0 if temperature 0° C or higher.	21012
24-HOUR MAXIMUM AND MINIMUM TEMPERATURE: 4s _n T _x T _x T _x T _n T _n T _n ; tenth of degree Celsius; reported at midnight local standard time; 1 if temperature below 0° C and 0 if temperature 0° C or higher, e.g., 400461006.	
PRESSURE TENDENCY: 5app; the character (a) and change in pressure (ppp; tenths of hPa) the past 3 hours.	58033
SENSOR STATUS INDICATORS: RVRNO: RVR missing; PWINO: precipitation identifier information not available; PNO: precipitation amount not available; FZRANO: freezing rain information not available; TSNO: thunderstorm information not available; VISNO [LOC]: visibility at secondary location not available, e.g., VISNO RWY06; CHINO [LOC]: (cloud-height-indicator) sky condition at secondary location not available, e.g., CHINO RWY06.	TSNO
MAINTENANCE CHECK INDICATOR: Maintenance needed on the system. If an element or phenomena does not occur, is missing, or cannot be observed, the corresponding group and space are omitted (body and/or remarks) from that particular report, except for Sea-Level Pressure (SLPppp). SLPNO shall be reported in a METAR when the SLP is not available.	\$

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e. TBL 7-1-4 contains a comparison of weather observing programs and the elements reported.

f. **Service Standards.** During 1995, a government/industry team worked to comprehensively reassess the requirements for surface observations at the nation’s airports. That work resulted in agreement on a set of service standards, and the FAA and NWS ASOS sites to which the standards would apply. The term “Service Standards” refers to the level of detail in weather observation. The service standards consist of four different levels of service (A, B, C, and D) as described below. Specific observational elements included in each service level are listed in TBL 7-1-5.

1. **Service Level D** defines the minimum acceptable level of service. It is a completely automated service in which the ASOS/AWOS observation will constitute the entire observation, i.e., no additional weather information is added by a human observer. This service is referred to as a stand alone D site.

2. **Service Level C** is a service in which the human observer, usually an air traffic controller, augments or adds information to the automated observation. Service Level C also includes backup of ASOS/AWOS elements in the event of an ASOS/AWOS malfunction or an unrepresentative ASOS/AWOS report. In backup, the human observer

inserts the correct or missing value for the automated ASOS/AWOS elements. This service is provided by air traffic controllers under the Limited Aviation Weather Reporting Station (LAWRS) process, FSS and NWS observers, and, at selected sites, Non-Federal Observation Program observers.

Two categories of airports require detail beyond Service Level C in order to enhance air traffic control efficiency and increase system capacity. Services at these airports are typically provided by contract weather observers, NWS observers, and, at some locations, FSS observers.

3. **Service Level B** is a service in which weather observations consist of all elements provided under Service Level C, plus augmentation of additional data beyond the capability of the ASOS/AWOS. This category of airports includes smaller hubs or special airports in other ways that have worse than average bad weather operations for thunderstorms and/or freezing/frozen precipitation, and/or that are remote airports.

4. **Service Level A**, the highest and most demanding category, includes all the data reported in Service Standard B, plus additional requirements as specified. Service Level A covers major aviation hubs and/or high volume traffic airports with average or worse weather.

TBL 7-1-4
Weather Observing Programs

Element Reported Type	Wind	Visibility	Temperature Dew Point	Altimeter	Density Altimeter	Cloud/Ceiling	Precipitation Identification	Thunderstorm/ Lightning	Precipitation Occurrence	Rainfall Accumulation	Runway Surface Condition	Freezing Rain Occurrence	Remarks
ASOS	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X		X	X
AWOS-A				X									
AWOS-A/V		X		X									
AWOS-1	X		X	X	X								
AWOS-2	X	X	X	X	X								
AWOS-3	X	X	X	X	X	X							
AWOS-3P	X	X	X	X	X	X	X						
AWOS-3T	X	X	X	X	X	X		X					
AWOS-3P/T	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X					
AWOS-4	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Manual	X	X	X	X		X	X						X

REFERENCE- FAA Order JO 7900.5, Surface Weather Observing, for element reporting.

TBL 7-1-5

SERVICE LEVEL A	
Service Level A consists of all the elements of Service Levels B, C and D plus the elements listed to the right, if observed.	10 minute longline RVR at precedented sites or additional visibility increments of 1/8, 1/16 and 0 Sector visibility Variable sky condition Cloud layers above 12,000 feet and cloud types Widespread dust, sand and other obscurations Volcanic eruptions
SERVICE LEVEL B	
Service Level B consists of all the elements of Service Levels C and D plus the elements listed to the right, if observed.	Longline RVR at precedented sites (may be instantaneous readout) Freezing drizzle versus freezing rain Ice pellets Snow depth & snow increasing rapidly remarks Thunderstorm and lightning location remarks Observed significant weather not at the station remarks
SERVICE LEVEL C	
Service Level C consists of all the elements of Service Level D plus augmentation and backup by a human observer or an air traffic control specialist on location nearby. Backup consists of inserting the correct value if the system malfunctions or is unrepresentative. Augmentation consists of adding the elements listed to the right, if observed. During hours that the observing facility is closed, the site reverts to Service Level D.	Thunderstorms Tornadoes Hail Virga Volcanic ash Tower visibility Operationally significant remarks as deemed appropriate by the observer
SERVICE LEVEL D	
This level of service consists of an ASOS or AWOS continually measuring the atmosphere at a point near the runway. The ASOS or AWOS senses and measures the weather parameters listed to the right.	Wind Visibility Precipitation/Obstruction to vision Cloud height Sky cover Temperature Dew point Altimeter

7-1-11. Weather Radar Services

a. The National Weather Service operates a network of radar sites for detecting coverage, intensity, and movement of precipitation. The network is supplemented by FAA and DOD radar sites in the western sections of the country. Local warning radar sites augment the network by operating on an as needed basis to support warning and forecast programs.

b. Scheduled radar observations are taken hourly and transmitted in alpha-numeric format on weather telecommunications circuits for flight planning purposes. Under certain conditions, special radar reports are issued in addition to the hourly

transmittals. Data contained in the reports are also collected by the National Center for Environmental Prediction and used to prepare national radar summary charts for dissemination on facsimile circuits.

c. A clear radar display (no echoes) does not mean that there is no significant weather within the coverage of the radar site. Clouds and fog are not detected by the radar. However, when echoes are present, turbulence can be implied by the intensity of the precipitation, and icing is implied by the presence of the precipitation at temperatures at or below zero degrees Celsius. Used in conjunction with other weather products, radar provides invaluable information for weather avoidance and flight planning.

FIG 7-1-9
NEXRAD Coverage

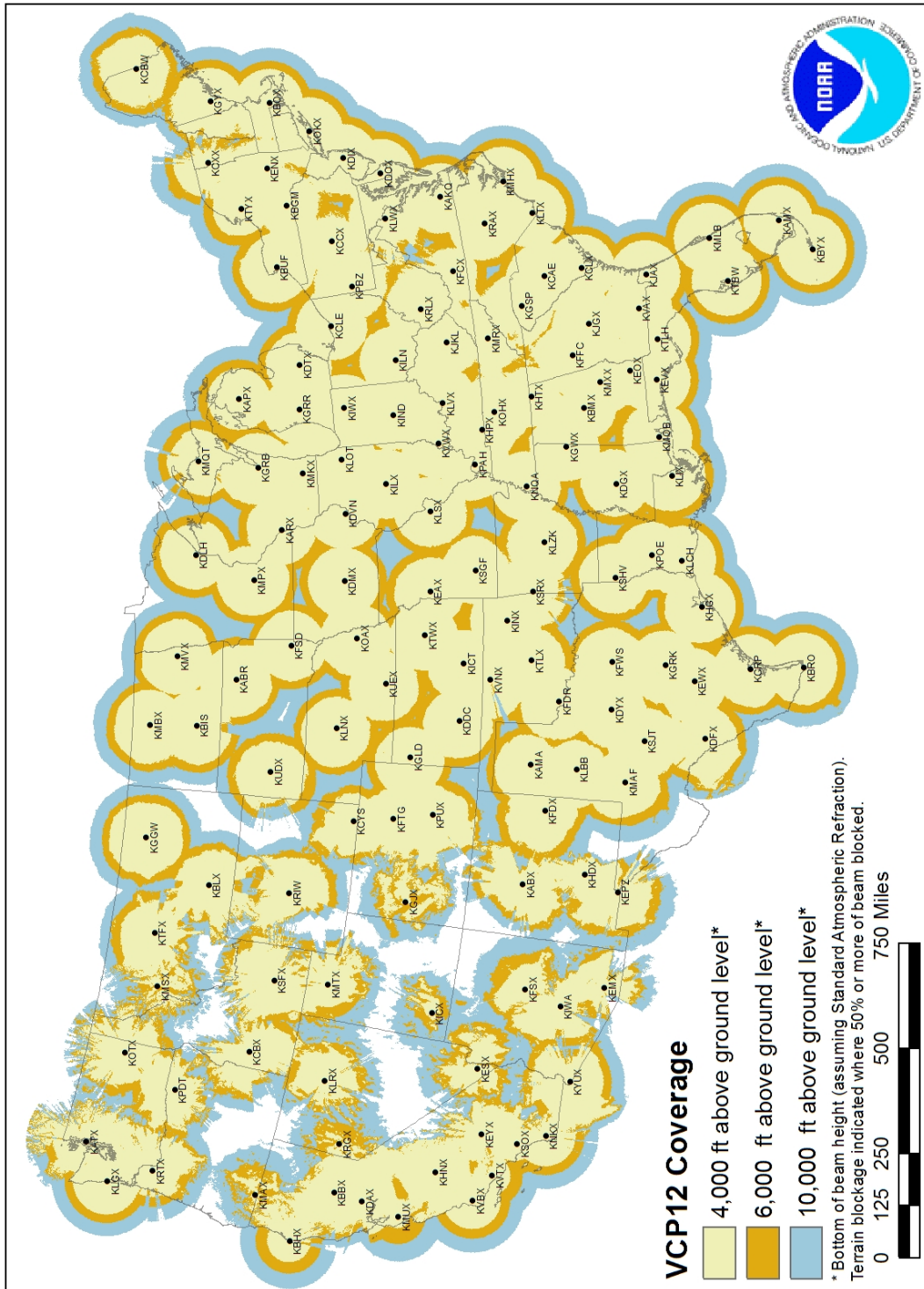


FIG 7-1-10
NEXRAD Coverage

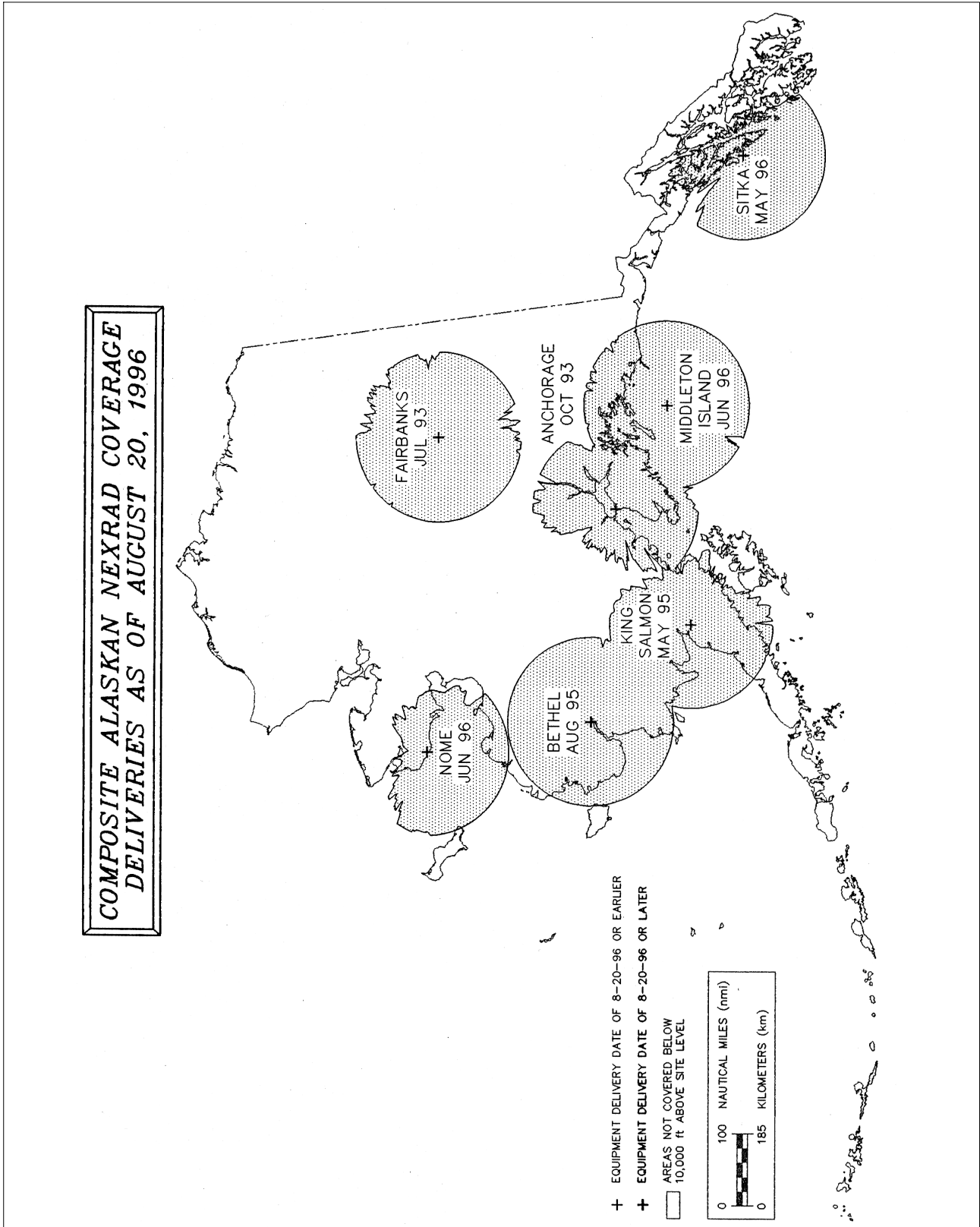
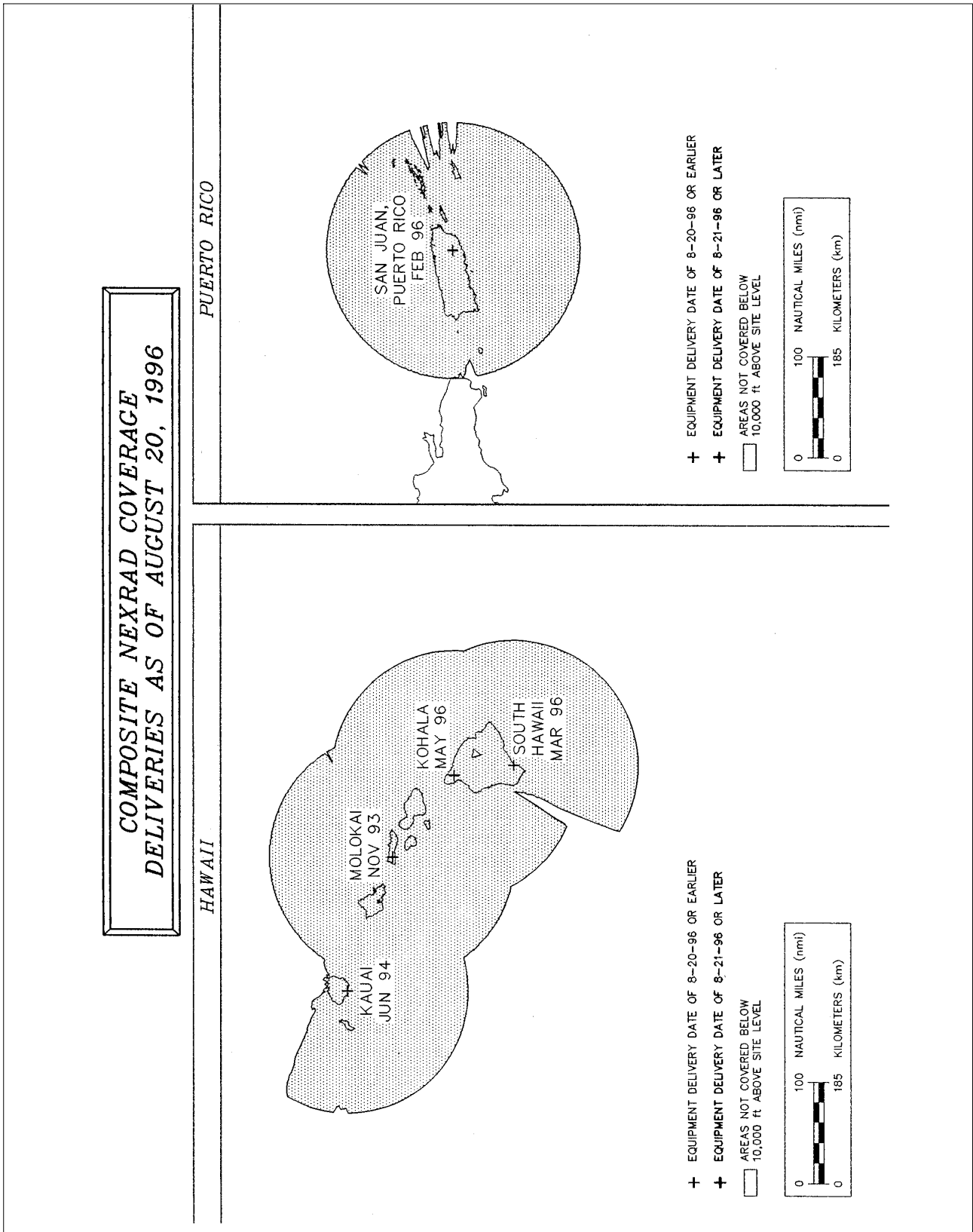


FIG 7-1-11
NEXRAD Coverage



d. All En Route Flight Advisory Service facilities and FSSs have equipment to directly access the radar displays from the individual weather radar sites. Specialists at these locations are trained to interpret the display for pilot briefing and inflight advisory services. The Center Weather Service Units located in ARTCCs also have access to weather radar displays and provide support to all air traffic facilities within their center's area.

e. Additional information on weather radar products and services can be found in AC 00-45, Aviation Weather Services.

REFERENCE-

Pilot/Controller Glossary Term- Precipitation Radar Weather Descriptions.

AIM, Para 7-1-26, Thunderstorms.

Chart Supplement U.S., Charts, NWS Upper Air Observing Stations and Weather Network for the location of specific radar sites.

7-1-12. ATC Inflight Weather Avoidance Assistance

a. ATC Radar Weather Display.

1. ATC radars are able to display areas of precipitation by sending out a beam of radio energy that is reflected back to the radar antenna when it strikes an object or moisture which may be in the form of rain drops, hail, or snow. The larger the object is, or the more dense its reflective surface, the stronger the return will be presented. Radar weather processors indicate the intensity of reflective returns in terms of decibels (dBZ). ATC systems cannot detect the presence or absence of clouds. The ATC systems can often determine the intensity of a precipitation area, but the specific character of that area (snow, rain, hail, VIRGA, etc.) cannot be determined. For this reason, ATC refers to all weather areas displayed on ATC radar scopes as "precipitation."

2. All ATC facilities using radar weather processors with the ability to determine precipitation intensity, will describe the intensity to pilots as:

- (a) "LIGHT" (< 26 dBZ)
- (b) "MODERATE" (26 to 40 dBZ)
- (c) "HEAVY" (> 40 to 50 dBZ)
- (d) "EXTREME" (> 50 dBZ)

NOTE-

En route ATC radar's Weather and Radar Processor (WARP) does not display light precipitation intensity.

3. ATC facilities that, due to equipment limitations, cannot display the intensity levels of precipitation, will describe the location of the precipitation area by geographic position, or position relative to the aircraft. Since the intensity level is not available, the controller will state "INTENSITY UNKNOWN."

4. ARTCC facilities normally use a Weather and Radar Processor (WARP) to display a mosaic of data obtained from multiple NEXRAD sites. There is a time delay between actual conditions and those displayed to the controller. For example, the precipitation data on the ARTCC controller's display could be up to 6 minutes old. When the WARP is not available, a second system, the narrowband Air Route Surveillance Radar (ARSR) can display two distinct levels of precipitation intensity that will be described to pilots as "MODERATE" (30 to 40 dBZ) and "HEAVY TO EXTREME" (> 40 dBZ). The WARP processor is only used in ARTCC facilities.

5. *ATC radar is not able to detect turbulence.* Generally, turbulence can be expected to occur as the rate of rainfall or intensity of precipitation increases. Turbulence associated with greater rates of rainfall/precipitation will normally be more severe than any associated with lesser rates of rainfall/precipitation. Turbulence should be expected to occur near convective activity, even in clear air. Thunderstorms are a form of convective activity that imply severe or greater turbulence. Operation within 20 miles of thunderstorms should be approached with great caution, as the severity of turbulence can be markedly greater than the precipitation intensity might indicate.

b. Weather Avoidance Assistance.

1. To the extent possible, controllers will issue pertinent information on weather or chaff areas and assist pilots in avoiding such areas when requested. Pilots should respond to a weather advisory by either acknowledging the advisory or by acknowledging the advisory and requesting an alternative course of action as follows:

(a) Request to deviate off course by stating a heading or degrees, direction of deviation, and approximate number of miles. In this case, when the requested deviation is approved, navigation is at the pilot's prerogative, but must maintain the altitude assigned, and remain within the lateral restrictions issued by ATC.

(b) An approval for lateral deviation authorizes the pilot to maneuver left or right within the lateral limits specified in the clearance.

NOTE—

1. *It is often necessary for ATC to restrict the amount of lateral deviation (“twenty degrees right,” “up to fifteen degrees left,” “up to ten degrees left or right of course”).*

2. *The term “when able, proceed direct,” in an ATC weather deviation clearance, refers to the pilot’s ability to remain clear of the weather when returning to course/route.*

(c) Request a new route to avoid the affected area.

(d) Request a change of altitude.

(e) Request radar vectors around the affected areas.

2. For obvious reasons of safety, an IFR pilot must not deviate from the course or altitude or flight level without a proper ATC clearance. When weather conditions encountered are so severe that an immediate deviation is determined to be necessary and time will not permit approval by ATC, the pilot’s emergency authority may be exercised.

3. When the pilot requests clearance for a route deviation or for an ATC radar vector, the controller must evaluate the air traffic picture in the affected area, and coordinate with other controllers (if ATC jurisdictional boundaries may be crossed) before replying to the request.

4. It should be remembered that the controller’s primary function is to provide safe separation between aircraft. Any additional service, such as weather avoidance assistance, can only be provided to the extent that it does not derogate the primary function. It’s also worth noting that the separation workload is generally greater than normal when weather disrupts the usual flow of traffic. ATC radar limitations and frequency congestion may also be a factor in limiting the controller’s capability to provide additional service.

5. It is very important, therefore, that the request for deviation or radar vector be forwarded to ATC as far in advance as possible. Delay in submitting it may delay or even preclude ATC approval or require that additional restrictions be placed on the clearance. Insofar as possible the following information should

be furnished to ATC when requesting clearance to detour around weather activity:

(a) Proposed point where detour will commence.

(b) Proposed route and extent of detour (direction and distance).

(c) Point where original route will be resumed.

(d) Flight conditions (IFR or VFR).

(e) Any further deviation that may become necessary as the flight progresses.

(f) Advise if the aircraft is equipped with functioning airborne radar.

6. To a large degree, the assistance that might be rendered by ATC will depend upon the weather information available to controllers. Due to the extremely transitory nature of severe weather situations, the controller’s weather information may be of only limited value if based on weather observed on radar only. Frequent updates by pilots giving specific information as to the area affected, altitudes, intensity and nature of the severe weather can be of considerable value. Such reports are relayed by radio or phone to other pilots and controllers and also receive widespread teletypewriter dissemination.

7. Obtaining IFR clearance or an ATC radar vector to circumnavigate severe weather can often be accommodated more readily in the en route areas away from terminals because there is usually less congestion and, therefore, offer greater freedom of action. In terminal areas, the problem is more acute because of traffic density, ATC coordination requirements, complex departure and arrival routes, adjacent airports, etc. As a consequence, controllers are less likely to be able to accommodate all requests for weather detours in a terminal area or be in a position to volunteer such routing to the pilot. Nevertheless, pilots should not hesitate to advise controllers of any observed severe weather and should specifically advise controllers if they desire circumnavigation of observed weather.

7-1-13. Runway Visual Range (RVR)

There are currently two configurations of RVR in the NAS commonly identified as Taskers and New Generation RVR. The Taskers are the existing configuration which uses transmissometer

technology. The New Generation RVRs were deployed in November 1994 and use forward scatter technology. The New Generation RVRs are currently being deployed in the NAS to replace the existing Taskers.

a. RVR values are measured by transmissometers mounted on 14-foot towers along the runway. A full RVR system consists of:

1. Transmissometer projector and related items.
2. Transmissometer receiver (detector) and related items.
3. Analog recorder.
4. Signal data converter and related items.
5. Remote digital or remote display programmer.

b. The transmissometer projector and receiver are mounted on towers 250 feet apart. A known intensity of light is emitted from the projector and is measured by the receiver. Any obscuring matter such as rain, snow, dust, fog, haze or smoke reduces the light intensity arriving at the receiver. The resultant intensity measurement is then converted to an RVR value by the signal data converter. These values are displayed by readout equipment in the associated air traffic facility and updated approximately once every minute for controller issuance to pilots.

c. The signal data converter receives information on the high intensity runway edge light setting in use (step 3, 4, or 5); transmission values from the transmissometer and the sensing of day or night conditions. From the three data sources, the system will compute appropriate RVR values.

d. An RVR transmissometer established on a 250 foot baseline provides digital readouts to a minimum of 600 feet, which are displayed in 200 foot increments to 3,000 feet and in 500 foot increments from 3,000 feet to a maximum value of 6,000 feet.

e. RVR values for Category IIIa operations extend down to 700 feet RVR; however, only 600 and 800 feet are reportable RVR increments. The 800 RVR reportable value covers a range of 701 feet to 900 feet and is therefore a valid minimum indication of Category IIIa operations.

f. Approach categories with the corresponding minimum RVR values. (See TBL 7-1-6.)

TBL 7-1-6

Approach Category/Minimum RVR Table

Category	Visibility (RVR)
Nonprecision	2,400 feet
Category I	1,800 feet*
Category II	1,000 feet
Category IIIa	700 feet
Category IIIb	150 feet
Category IIIc	0 feet

* 1,400 feet with special equipment and authorization

g. Ten minute maximum and minimum RVR values for the designated RVR runway are reported in the body of the aviation weather report when the prevailing visibility is less than one mile and/or the RVR is 6,000 feet or less. ATCTs report RVR when the prevailing visibility is 1 mile or less and/or the RVR is 6,000 feet or less.

h. Details on the requirements for the operational use of RVR are contained in FAA AC 97-1, Runway Visual Range (RVR). Pilots are responsible for compliance with minimums prescribed for their class of operations in the appropriate CFRs and/or operations specifications.

i. RVR values are also measured by forward scatter meters mounted on 14-foot frangible fiberglass poles. A full RVR system consists of:

1. Forward scatter meter with a transmitter, receiver and associated items.
2. A runway light intensity monitor (RLIM).
3. An ambient light sensor (ALS).
4. A data processor unit (DPU).
5. Controller display (CD).

j. The forward scatter meter is mounted on a 14-foot frangible pole. Infrared light is emitted from the transmitter and received by the receiver. Any obscuring matter such as rain, snow, dust, fog, haze or smoke increases the amount of scattered light reaching the receiver. The resulting measurement along with inputs from the runway light intensity monitor and the ambient light sensor are forwarded to the DPU which calculates the proper RVR value. The RVR values are displayed locally and remotely on controller displays.

k. The runway light intensity monitors both the runway edge and centerline light step settings (steps 1

through 5). Centerline light step settings are used for CAT IIb operations. Edge Light step settings are used for CAT I, II, and IIIa operations.

I. New Generation RVRs can measure and display RVR values down to the lowest limits of Category IIb operations (150 feet RVR). RVR values are displayed in 100-foot increments and are reported as follows:

1. 100-foot increments for products below 800 feet.
2. 200-foot increments for products between 800 feet and 3,000 feet.
3. 500-foot increments for products between 3,000 feet and 6,500 feet.
4. 25-meter increments for products below 150 meters.
5. 50-meter increments for products between 150 meters and 800 meters.
6. 100-meter increments for products between 800 meters and 1,200 meters.
7. 200-meter increments for products between 1,200 meters and 2,000 meters.

7-1-14. Reporting of Cloud Heights

a. Ceiling, by definition in the CFRs and as used in aviation weather reports and forecasts, is the height above ground (or water) level of the lowest layer of clouds or obscuring phenomenon that is reported as “broken,” “overcast,” or “obscuration,” e.g., an aerodrome forecast (TAF) which reads “BKN030” refers to height above ground level. An area forecast which reads “BKN030” indicates that the height is above mean sea level.

REFERENCE-

AIM, Paragraph 7-1-28, Key to Aerodrome Forecast (TAF) and Aviation Routine Weather Report (METAR), defines “broken,” “overcast,” and “obscuration.”

b. Pilots usually report height values above MSL, since they determine heights by the altimeter. This is taken in account when disseminating and otherwise applying information received from pilots. (“Ceiling” heights are always above ground level.) In reports disseminated as PIREPs, height references are given the same as received from pilots, that is, above MSL.

c. In area forecasts or inflight advisories, ceilings are denoted by the contraction “CIG” when used with sky cover symbols as in “LWRG TO CIG OVC005,” or the contraction “AGL” after, the forecast cloud height value. When the cloud base is given in height above MSL, it is so indicated by the contraction “MSL” or “ASL” following the height value. The heights of clouds tops, freezing level, icing, and turbulence are always given in heights above ASL or MSL.

7-1-15. Reporting Prevailing Visibility

a. Surface (horizontal) visibility is reported in METAR reports in terms of statute miles and increments thereof; e.g., $\frac{1}{16}$, $\frac{1}{8}$, $\frac{3}{16}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{5}{16}$, $\frac{3}{8}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{5}{8}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{7}{8}$, 1, $1\frac{1}{8}$, etc. (Visibility reported by an unaugmented automated site is reported differently than in a manual report, i.e., ASOS/AWOS: 0, $\frac{1}{16}$, $\frac{1}{8}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, 1, $1\frac{1}{4}$, $1\frac{1}{2}$, $1\frac{3}{4}$, 2, $2\frac{1}{2}$, 3, 4, 5, etc., AWOS: $M\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, 1, $1\frac{1}{4}$, $1\frac{1}{2}$, $1\frac{3}{4}$, 2, $2\frac{1}{2}$, 3, 4, 5, etc.) Visibility is determined through the ability to see and identify preselected and prominent objects at a known distance from the usual point of observation. Visibilities which are determined to be less than 7 miles, identify the obscuring atmospheric condition; e.g., fog, haze, smoke, etc., or combinations thereof.

b. Prevailing visibility is the greatest visibility equaled or exceeded throughout at least one half of the horizon circle, not necessarily contiguous. Segments of the horizon circle which may have a significantly different visibility may be reported in the remarks section of the weather report; i.e., the southeastern quadrant of the horizon circle may be determined to be 2 miles in mist while the remaining quadrants are determined to be 3 miles in mist.

c. When the prevailing visibility at the usual point of observation, or at the tower level, is less than 4 miles, certificated tower personnel will take visibility observations in addition to those taken at the usual point of observation. The lower of these two values will be used as the prevailing visibility for aircraft operations.

7-1-16. Estimating Intensity of Rain and Ice Pellets

a. Rain

1. Light. From scattered drops that, regardless of duration, do not completely wet an exposed surface

up to a condition where individual drops are easily seen.

2. Moderate. Individual drops are not clearly identifiable; spray is observable just above pavements and other hard surfaces.

3. Heavy. Rain seemingly falls in sheets; individual drops are not identifiable; heavy spray to height of several inches is observed over hard surfaces.

b. Ice Pellets

1. Light. Scattered pellets that do not completely cover an exposed surface regardless of duration. Visibility is not affected.

2. Moderate. Slow accumulation on ground. Visibility reduced by ice pellets to less than 7 statute miles.

3. Heavy. Rapid accumulation on ground. Visibility reduced by ice pellets to less than 3 statute miles.

7-1-17. Estimating Intensity of Snow or Drizzle (Based on Visibility)

a. Light. Visibility more than $\frac{1}{2}$ statute mile.

b. Moderate. Visibility from more than $\frac{1}{4}$ statute mile to $\frac{1}{2}$ statute mile.

c. Heavy. Visibility $\frac{1}{4}$ statute mile or less.

7-1-18. Pilot Weather Reports (PIREPs)

a. FAA air traffic facilities are required to solicit PIREPs when the following conditions are reported or forecast: ceilings at or below 5,000 feet; visibility at or below 5 miles (surface or aloft); thunderstorms and related phenomena; icing of light degree or greater; turbulence of moderate degree or greater; wind shear and reported or forecast volcanic ash clouds.

b. Pilots are urged to cooperate and promptly volunteer reports of these conditions and other atmospheric data such as: cloud bases, tops and layers; flight visibility; precipitation; visibility restrictions such as haze, smoke and dust; wind at altitude; and temperature aloft.

c. PIREPs should be given to the ground facility with which communications are established; i.e.,

FSS, ARTCC, or terminal ATC. One of the primary duties of the Inflight position is to serve as a collection point for the exchange of PIREPs with en route aircraft.

d. If pilots are not able to make PIREPs by radio, reporting upon landing of the inflight conditions encountered to the nearest FSS or Weather Forecast Office will be helpful. Some of the uses made of the reports are:

1. The ATCT uses the reports to expedite the flow of air traffic in the vicinity of the field and for hazardous weather avoidance procedures.

2. The FSS uses the reports to brief other pilots, to provide inflight advisories, and weather avoidance information to en route aircraft.

3. The ARTCC uses the reports to expedite the flow of en route traffic, to determine most favorable altitudes, and to issue hazardous weather information within the center's area.

4. The NWS uses the reports to verify or amend conditions contained in aviation forecast and advisories. In some cases, pilot reports of hazardous conditions are the triggering mechanism for the issuance of advisories. They also use the reports for pilot weather briefings.

5. The NWS, other government organizations, the military, and private industry groups use PIREPs for research activities in the study of meteorological phenomena.

6. All air traffic facilities and the NWS forward the reports received from pilots into the weather distribution system to assure the information is made available to all pilots and other interested parties.

e. The FAA, NWS, and other organizations that enter PIREPs into the weather reporting system use the format listed in TBL 7-1-7. Items 1 through 6 are included in all transmitted PIREPs along with one or more of items 7 through 13. Although the PIREP should be as complete and concise as possible, pilots should not be overly concerned with strict format or phraseology. The important thing is that the information is relayed so other pilots may benefit from your observation. If a portion of the report needs clarification, the ground station will request the information. Completed PIREPs will be transmitted to weather circuits as in the following examples:

EXAMPLE-

1. KCMH UA /OV APE 230010/TM 1516/FL085/TP BE20/SK BKN065/WX FV03SM HZ FU/TA 20/TB LGT

NOTE-

1. One zero miles southwest of Appleton VOR; time 1516 UTC; altitude eight thousand five hundred; aircraft type BE200; bases of the broken cloud layer is six thousand five hundred; flight visibility 3 miles with haze and smoke; air temperature 20 degrees Celsius; light turbulence.

EXAMPLE-

2. KCRW UV /OV KBKW 360015-KCRW/TM 1815/FL120//TP BE99/SK IMC/WX RA/TA M08 /WV

290030/TB LGT-MDT/IC LGT RIME/RM MDT MXD ICG DURC KROA NWBND FL080-100 1750Z

NOTE-

2. From 15 miles north of Beckley VOR to Charleston VOR; time 1815 UTC; altitude 12,000 feet; type aircraft, BE-99; in clouds; rain; temperature minus 8 Celsius; wind 290 degrees magnetic at 30 knots; light to moderate turbulence; light rime icing during climb northwestbound from Roanoke, VA, between 8,000 and 10,000 feet at 1750 UTC.

f. For more detailed information on PIREPS, users can refer to the current version of AC 00-45, Aviation Weather Services.

**TBL 7-1-7
PIREP Element Code Chart**

	PIREP ELEMENT	PIREP CODE	CONTENTS
1.	3-letter station identifier	XXX	Nearest weather reporting location to the reported phenomenon
2.	Report type	UA or UUA	Routine or Urgent PIREP
3.	Location	/OV	In relation to a VOR
4.	Time	/TM	Coordinated Universal Time
5.	Altitude	/FL	Essential for turbulence and icing reports
6.	Type Aircraft	/TP	Essential for turbulence and icing reports
7.	Sky cover	/SK	Cloud height and coverage (sky clear, few, scattered, broken, or overcast)
8.	Weather	/WX	Flight visibility, precipitation, restrictions to visibility, etc.
9.	Temperature	/TA	Degrees Celsius
10.	Wind	/WV	Direction in degrees magnetic north and speed in knots
11.	Turbulence	/TB	See AIM paragraph 7-1-21
12.	Icing	/IC	See AIM paragraph 7-1-19
13.	Remarks	/RM	For reporting elements not included or to clarify previously reported items

7-1-19. PIREPs Relating to Airframe Icing

a. The effects of ice on aircraft are cumulative-thrust is reduced, drag increases, lift lessens, and weight increases. The results are an increase in stall speed and a deterioration of aircraft performance. In extreme cases, 2 to 3 inches of ice can form on the leading edge of the airfoil in less than 5 minutes. It takes but 1/2 inch of ice to reduce the lifting power of some aircraft by 50 percent and increases the frictional drag by an equal percentage.

b. A pilot can expect icing when flying in visible precipitation, such as rain or cloud droplets, and the temperature is between +02 and -10 degrees Celsius. When icing is detected, a pilot should do one of two

things, particularly if the aircraft is not equipped with deicing equipment; get out of the area of precipitation; or go to an altitude where the temperature is above freezing. This “warmer” altitude may not always be a lower altitude. Proper preflight action includes obtaining information on the freezing level and the above freezing levels in precipitation areas. Report icing to ATC, and if operating IFR, request new routing or altitude if icing will be a hazard. Be sure to give the type of aircraft to ATC when reporting icing. The following describes how to report icing conditions.

1. **Trace.** Ice becomes noticeable. The rate of accumulation is slightly greater than the rate of

sublimation. A representative accretion rate for reference purposes is less than ¼ inch (6 mm) per hour on the outer wing. The pilot should consider exiting the icing conditions before they become worse.

2. Light. The rate of ice accumulation requires occasional cycling of manual deicing systems to minimize ice accretions on the airframe. A representative accretion rate for reference purposes is ¼ inch to 1 inch (0.6 to 2.5 cm) per hour on the unprotected part of the outer wing. The pilot should consider exiting the icing condition.

3. Moderate. The rate of ice accumulation requires frequent cycling of manual deicing systems to minimize ice accretions on the airframe. A representative accretion rate for reference purposes is 1 to 3 inches (2.5 to 7.5 cm) per hour on the unprotected part of the outer wing. The pilot should consider exiting the icing condition as soon as possible.

4. Severe. The rate of ice accumulation is such that ice protection systems fail to remove the accumulation of ice and ice accumulates in locations not normally prone to icing, such as areas aft of protected surfaces and any other areas identified by the manufacturer. A representative accretion rate for

reference purposes is more than 3 inches (7.5 cm) per hour on the unprotected part of the outer wing. By regulation, immediate exit is required.

NOTE–

Severe icing is aircraft dependent, as are the other categories of icing intensity. Severe icing may occur at any ice accumulation rate when the icing rate or ice accumulations exceed the tolerance of the aircraft.

EXAMPLE–

Pilot report: give aircraft identification, location, time (UTC), intensity of type, altitude/FL, aircraft type, indicated air speed (IAS), and outside air temperature (OAT).

NOTE–

- 1. Rime ice.** *Rough, milky, opaque ice formed by the instantaneous freezing of small supercooled water droplets.*
- 2. Clear ice.** *A glossy, clear, or translucent ice formed by the relatively slow freezing of large supercooled water droplets.*
- 3.** *The OAT should be requested by the FSS or ATC if not included in the PIREP.*

7–1–20. Definitions of Inflight Icing Terms

See TBL 7–1–8, Icing Types, and TBL 7–1–9, Icing Conditions. ■

TBL 7-1-8
Icing Types

Clear Ice	See Glaze Ice.
Glaze Ice	Ice, sometimes clear and smooth, but usually containing some air pockets, which results in a lumpy translucent appearance. Glaze ice results from supercooled drops/droplets striking a surface but not freezing rapidly on contact. Glaze ice is denser, harder, and sometimes more transparent than rime ice. Factors, which favor glaze formation, are those that favor slow dissipation of the heat of fusion (i.e., slight supercooling and rapid accretion). With larger accretions, the ice shape typically includes “horns” protruding from unprotected leading edge surfaces. It is the ice shape, rather than the clarity or color of the ice, which is most likely to be accurately assessed from the cockpit. The terms “clear” and “glaze” have been used for essentially the same type of ice accretion, although some reserve “clear” for thinner accretions which lack horns and conform to the airfoil.
Intercycle Ice	Ice which accumulates on a protected surface between actuation cycles of a deicing system.
Known or Observed or Detected Ice Accretion	Actual ice observed visually to be on the aircraft by the flight crew or identified by on-board sensors.
Mixed Ice	Simultaneous appearance or a combination of rime and glaze ice characteristics. Since the clarity, color, and shape of the ice will be a mixture of rime and glaze characteristics, accurate identification of mixed ice from the cockpit may be difficult.
Residual Ice	Ice which remains on a protected surface immediately after the actuation of a deicing system.
Rime Ice	A rough, milky, opaque ice formed by the rapid freezing of supercooled drops/droplets after they strike the aircraft. The rapid freezing results in air being trapped, giving the ice its opaque appearance and making it porous and brittle. Rime ice typically accretes along the stagnation line of an airfoil and is more regular in shape and conformal to the airfoil than glaze ice. It is the ice shape, rather than the clarity or color of the ice, which is most likely to be accurately assessed from the cockpit.
Runback Ice	Ice which forms from the freezing or refreezing of water leaving protected surfaces and running back to unprotected surfaces.
<i>Note— Ice types are difficult for the pilot to discern and have uncertain effects on an airplane in flight. Ice type definitions will be included in the AIM for use in the “Remarks” section of the PIREP and for use in forecasting.</i>	

TBL 7-1-9
Icing Conditions

Appendix C Icing Conditions	Appendix C (14 CFR, Part 25 and 29) is the certification icing condition standard for approving ice protection provisions on aircraft. The conditions are specified in terms of altitude, temperature, liquid water content (LWC), representative droplet size (mean effective drop diameter [MED]), and cloud horizontal extent.
Forecast Icing Conditions	Environmental conditions expected by a National Weather Service or an FAA-approved weather provider to be conducive to the formation of inflight icing on aircraft.
Freezing Drizzle (FZDZ)	Drizzle is precipitation at ground level or aloft in the form of liquid water drops which have diameters less than 0.5 mm and greater than 0.05 mm. Freezing drizzle is drizzle that exists at air temperatures less than 0°C (supercooled), remains in liquid form, and freezes upon contact with objects on the surface or airborne.
Freezing Precipitation	Freezing precipitation is freezing rain or freezing drizzle falling through or outside of visible cloud.
Freezing Rain (FZRA)	Rain is precipitation at ground level or aloft in the form of liquid water drops which have diameters greater than 0.5 mm. Freezing rain is rain that exists at air temperatures less than 0°C (supercooled), remains in liquid form, and freezes upon contact with objects on the ground or in the air.
Icing in Cloud	Icing occurring within visible cloud. Cloud droplets (diameter < 0.05 mm) will be present; freezing drizzle and/or freezing rain may or may not be present.
Icing in Precipitation	Icing occurring from an encounter with freezing precipitation, that is, supercooled drops with diameters exceeding 0.05 mm, within or outside of visible cloud.
Known Icing Conditions	Atmospheric conditions in which the formation of ice is observed or detected in flight. <i>Note—</i> <i>Because of the variability in space and time of atmospheric conditions, the existence of a report of observed icing does not assure the presence or intensity of icing conditions at a later time, nor can a report of no icing assure the absence of icing conditions at a later time.</i>
Potential Icing Conditions	Atmospheric icing conditions that are typically defined by airframe manufacturers relative to temperature and visible moisture that may result in aircraft ice accretion on the ground or in flight. The potential icing conditions are typically defined in the Airplane Flight Manual or in the Airplane Operation Manual.
Supercooled Drizzle Drops (SCDD)	Synonymous with freezing drizzle aloft.
Supercooled Drops or /Droplets	Water drops/droplets which remain unfrozen at temperatures below 0°C. Supercooled drops are found in clouds, freezing drizzle, and freezing rain in the atmosphere. These drops may impinge and freeze after contact on aircraft surfaces.
Supercooled Large Drops (SLD)	Liquid droplets with diameters greater than 0.05 mm at temperatures less than 0°C, i.e., freezing rain or freezing drizzle.

7-1-21. PIREPs Relating to Turbulence

a. When encountering turbulence, pilots are urgently requested to report such conditions to ATC as soon as practicable. PIREPs relating to turbulence should state:

1. Aircraft location.
2. Time of occurrence in UTC.
3. Turbulence intensity.
4. Whether the turbulence occurred in or near clouds.

5. Aircraft altitude or flight level.

6. Type of aircraft.

7. Duration of turbulence.

EXAMPLE-

1. *Over Omaha, 1232Z, moderate turbulence in clouds at Flight Level three one zero, Boeing 707.*

2. *From five zero miles south of Albuquerque to three zero miles north of Phoenix, 1250Z, occasional moderate chop at Flight Level three three zero, DC8.*

b. Duration and classification of intensity should be made using TBL 7-1-10.

TBL 7-1-10

Turbulence Reporting Criteria Table

Intensity	Aircraft Reaction	Reaction Inside Aircraft	Reporting Term-Definition
Light	Turbulence that momentarily causes slight, erratic changes in altitude and/or attitude (pitch, roll, yaw). Report as Light Turbulence ; ¹ or Turbulence that causes slight, rapid and somewhat rhythmic bumpiness without appreciable changes in altitude or attitude. Report as Light Chop .	Occupants may feel a slight strain against seat belts or shoulder straps. Unsecured objects may be displaced slightly. Food service may be conducted and little or no difficulty is encountered in walking.	Occasional-Less than 1/3 of the time. Intermittent-1/3 to 2/3. Continuous-More than 2/3.
Moderate	Turbulence that is similar to Light Turbulence but of greater intensity. Changes in altitude and/or attitude occur but the aircraft remains in positive control at all times. It usually causes variations in indicated airspeed. Report as Moderate Turbulence ; ¹ or Turbulence that is similar to Light Chop but of greater intensity. It causes rapid bumps or jolts without appreciable changes in aircraft altitude or attitude. Report as Moderate Chop . ¹	Occupants feel definite strains against seat belts or shoulder straps. Unsecured objects are dislodged. Food service and walking are difficult.	<p style="text-align: center;">NOTE</p> <p>1. Pilots should report location(s), time (UTC), intensity, whether in or near clouds, altitude, type of aircraft and, when applicable, duration of turbulence.</p> <p>2. Duration may be based on time between two locations or over a single location. All locations should be readily identifiable.</p>
Severe	Turbulence that causes large, abrupt changes in altitude and/or attitude. It usually causes large variations in indicated airspeed. Aircraft may be momentarily out of control. Report as Severe Turbulence . ¹	Occupants are forced violently against seat belts or shoulder straps. Unsecured objects are tossed about. Food Service and walking are impossible.	
Extreme	Turbulence in which the aircraft is violently tossed about and is practically impossible to control. It may cause structural damage. Report as Extreme Turbulence . ¹		<p style="text-align: center;">EXAMPLES:</p> <p>a. Over Omaha. 1232Z, Moderate Turbulence, in cloud, Flight Level 310, B707.</p> <p>b. From 50 miles south of Albuquerque to 30 miles north of Phoenix, 1210Z to 1250Z, occasional Moderate Chop, Flight Level 330, DC8.</p>
<p>¹ High level turbulence (normally above 15,000 feet ASL) not associated with cumuliform cloudiness, including thunderstorms, should be reported as CAT (clear air turbulence) preceded by the appropriate intensity, or light or moderate chop.</p>			

7-1-22. Wind Shear PIREPs

a. Because unexpected changes in wind speed and direction can be hazardous to aircraft operations at low altitudes on approach to and departing from airports, pilots are urged to promptly volunteer reports to controllers of wind shear conditions they encounter. An advance warning of this information will assist other pilots in avoiding or coping with a wind shear on approach or departure.

b. When describing conditions, use of the terms “negative” or “positive” wind shear should be avoided. PIREPs of “negative wind shear on final,” intended to describe loss of airspeed and lift, have been interpreted to mean that no wind shear was encountered. The recommended method for wind shear reporting is to state the loss or gain of airspeed and the altitudes at which it was encountered.

EXAMPLE-

1. *Denver Tower, Cessna 1234 encountered wind shear, loss of 20 knots at 400.*

2. *Tulsa Tower, American 721 encountered wind shear on final, gained 25 knots between 600 and 400 feet followed by loss of 40 knots between 400 feet and surface.*

1. Pilots who are not able to report wind shear in these specific terms are encouraged to make reports in terms of the effect upon their aircraft.

EXAMPLE-

Miami Tower, Gulfstream 403 Charlie encountered an abrupt wind shear at 800 feet on final, max thrust required.

2. Pilots using Inertial Navigation Systems (INSs) should report the wind and altitude both above and below the shear level.

c. Wind Shear Escape

1. Pilots should report to ATC when they are performing a wind shear escape maneuver. This report should be made as soon as practicable, but not until aircraft safety and control is assured, which may not be satisfied until the aircraft is clear of the wind shear or microburst. ATC should provide safety alerts and traffic advisories, as appropriate.

EXAMPLE-

“Denver Tower, United 1154, wind shear escape.”

2. Once the pilot initiates a wind shear escape maneuver, ATC is not responsible for providing approved separation between the aircraft and any other aircraft, airspace, terrain, or obstacle until the

pilot reports that the escape procedure is complete and approved separation has been re-established. Pilots should advise ATC that they are resuming the previously assigned clearance or should request an alternate clearance.

EXAMPLE-

“Denver Tower, United 1154, wind shear escape complete, resuming last assigned heading/(name) DP/clearance.”

or

“Denver Tower, United 1154, wind shear escape complete, request further instructions.”

7-1-23. Clear Air Turbulence (CAT) PIREPs

CAT has become a very serious operational factor to flight operations at all levels and especially to jet traffic flying in excess of 15,000 feet. The best available information on this phenomenon must come from pilots via the PIREP reporting procedures. All pilots encountering CAT conditions are urgently requested to report time, location, and intensity (light, moderate, severe, or extreme) of the element to the FAA facility with which they are maintaining radio contact. If time and conditions permit, elements should be reported according to the standards for other PIREPs and position reports.

REFERENCE-

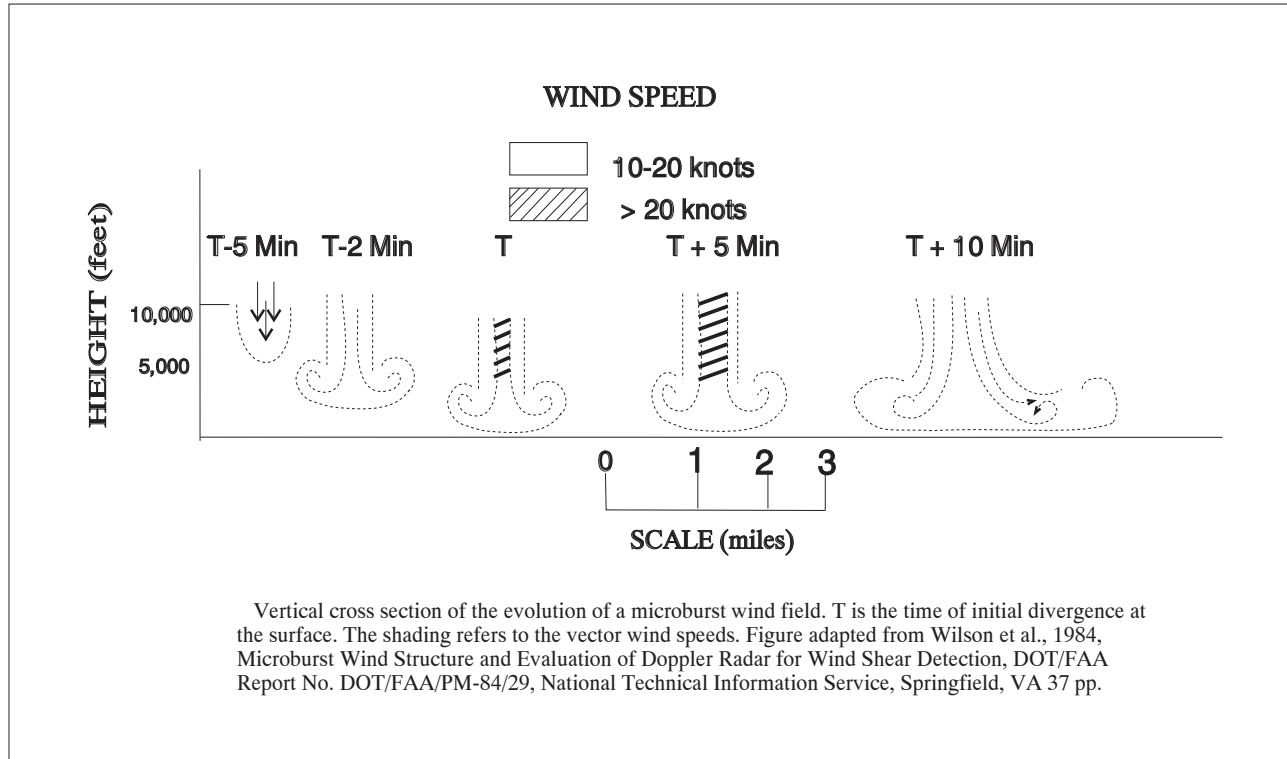
AIM, Para 7-1-21, PIREPs Relating to Turbulence.

7-1-24. Microbursts

a. Relatively recent meteorological studies have confirmed the existence of microburst phenomenon. Microbursts are small scale intense downdrafts which, on reaching the surface, spread outward in all directions from the downdraft center. This causes the presence of both vertical and horizontal wind shears that can be extremely hazardous to all types and categories of aircraft, especially at low altitudes. Due to their small size, short life span, and the fact that they can occur over areas without surface precipitation, microbursts are not easily detectable using conventional weather radar or wind shear alert systems.

b. Parent clouds producing microburst activity can be any of the low or middle layer convective cloud types. Note, however, that microbursts commonly occur within the heavy rain portion of thunderstorms, and in much weaker, benign appearing convective cells that have little or no precipitation reaching the ground.

FIG 7-1-12
Evolution of a Microburst



c. The life cycle of a microburst as it descends in a convective rain shaft is seen in FIG 7-1-12. An important consideration for pilots is the fact that the microburst intensifies for about 5 minutes after it strikes the ground.

d. Characteristics of microbursts include:

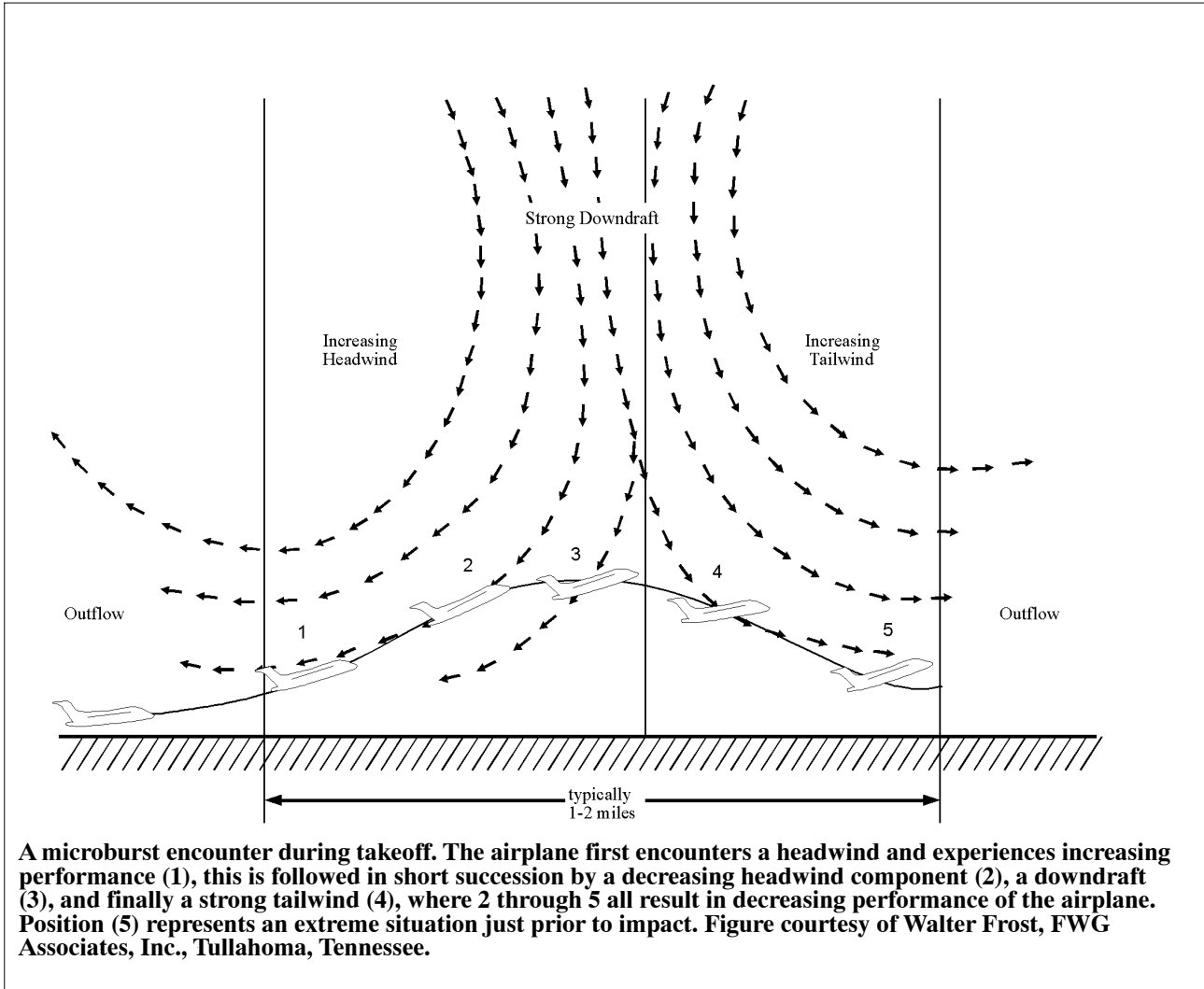
1. Size. The microburst downdraft is typically less than 1 mile in diameter as it descends from the cloud base to about 1,000–3,000 feet above the ground. In the transition zone near the ground, the downdraft changes to a horizontal outflow that can extend to approximately 2 1/2 miles in diameter.

2. Intensity. The downdrafts can be as strong as 6,000 feet per minute. Horizontal winds near the surface can be as strong as 45 knots resulting in a 90 knot shear (headwind to tailwind change for a traversing aircraft) across the microburst. These strong horizontal winds occur within a few hundred feet of the ground.

3. Visual Signs. Microbursts can be found almost anywhere that there is convective activity. They may be embedded in heavy rain associated with a thunderstorm or in light rain in benign appearing virga. When there is little or no precipitation at the surface accompanying the microburst, a ring of blowing dust may be the only visual clue of its existence.

4. Duration. An individual microburst will seldom last longer than 15 minutes from the time it strikes the ground until dissipation. The horizontal winds continue to increase during the first 5 minutes with the maximum intensity winds lasting approximately 2–4 minutes. Sometimes microbursts are concentrated into a line structure, and under these conditions, activity may continue for as long as an hour. Once microburst activity starts, multiple microbursts in the same general area are not uncommon and should be expected.

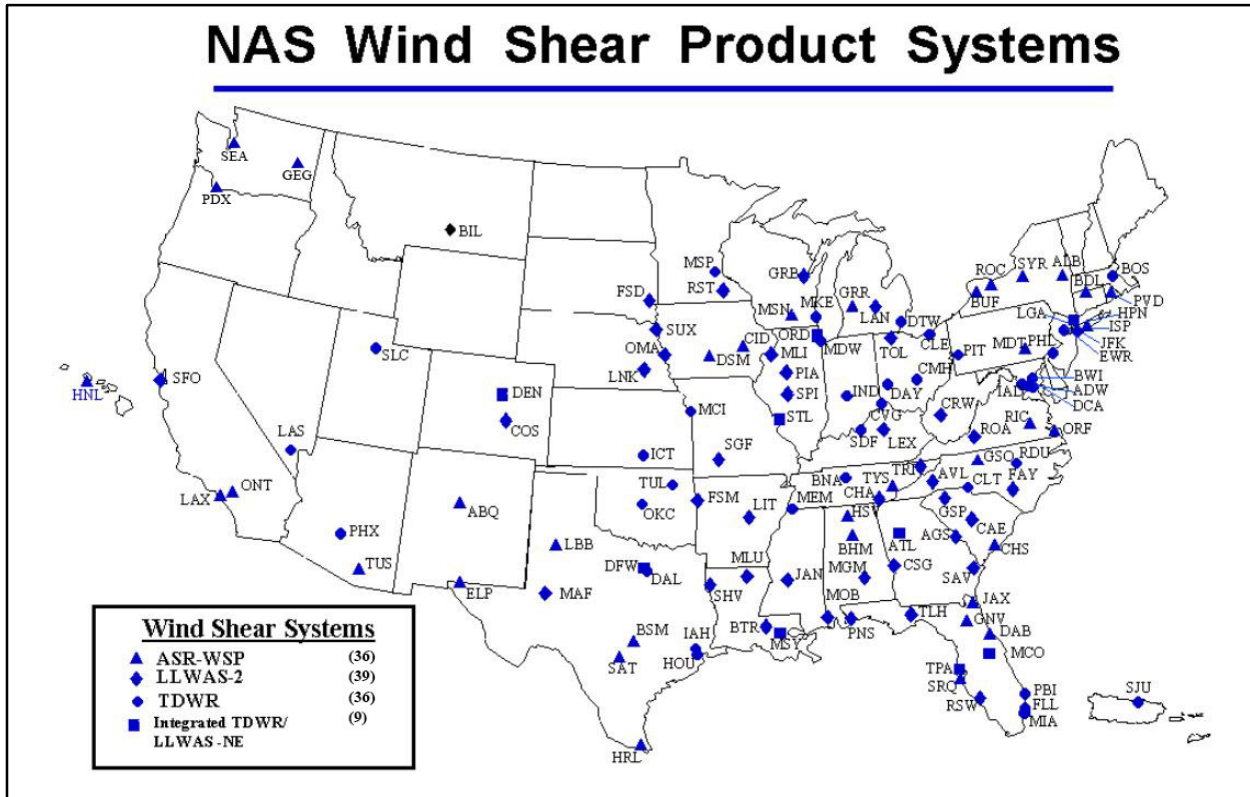
**FIG 7-1-13
Microburst Encounter During Takeoff**



e. Microburst wind shear may create a severe hazard for aircraft within 1,000 feet of the ground, particularly during the approach to landing and landing and take-off phases. The impact of a microburst on aircraft which have the unfortunate

experience of penetrating one is characterized in FIG 7-1-13. The aircraft may encounter a headwind (performance increasing) followed by a downdraft and tailwind (both performance decreasing), possibly resulting in terrain impact.

FIG 7-1-14
NAS Wind Shear Product Systems



f. Detection of Microbursts, Wind Shear and Gust Fronts.

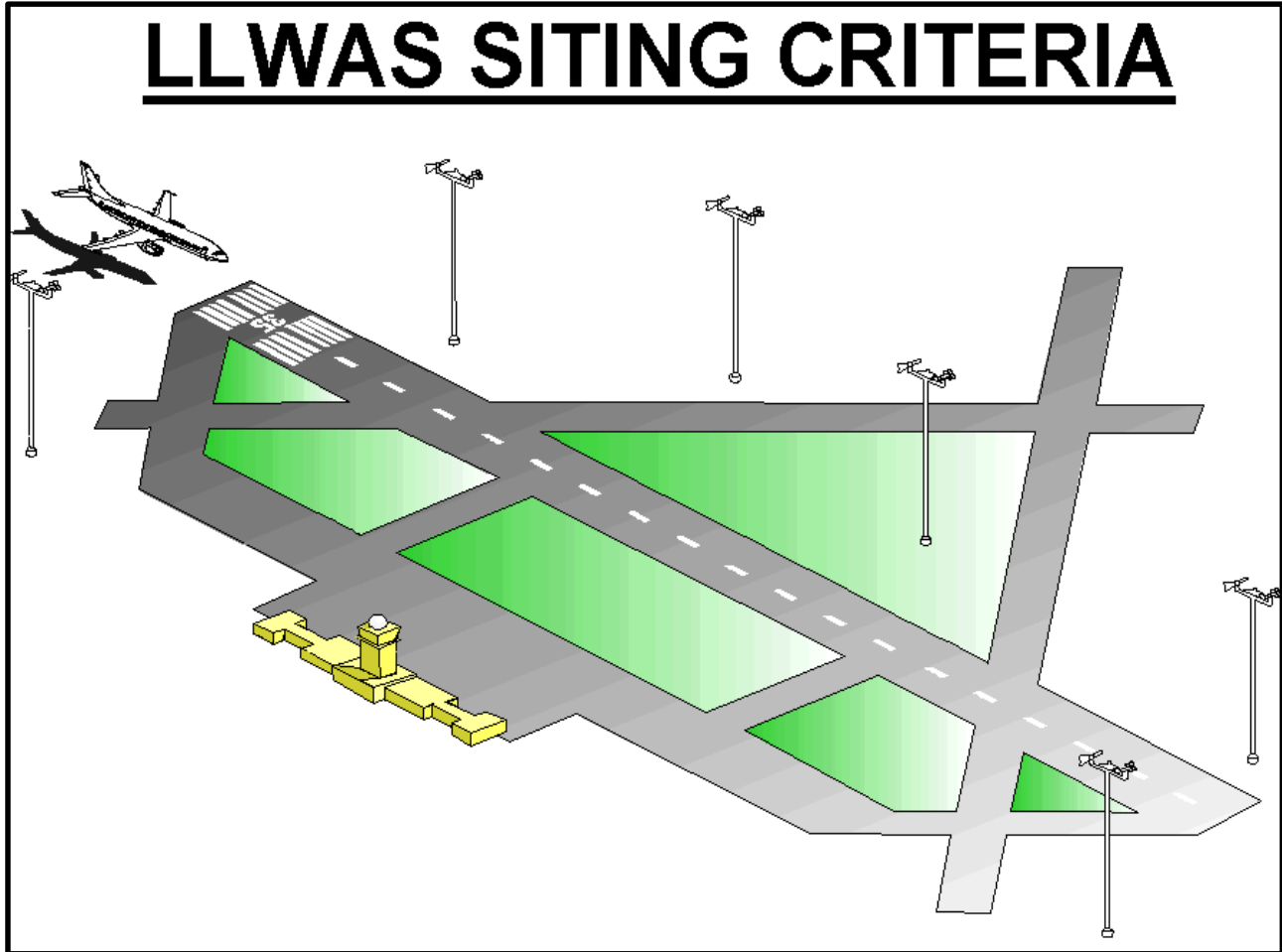
1. FAA’s Integrated Wind Shear Detection Plan.

(a) The FAA currently employs an integrated plan for wind shear detection that will significantly improve both the safety and capacity of the majority of the airports currently served by the air carriers. This plan integrates several programs, such as the Integrated Terminal Weather System (ITWS), Terminal Doppler Weather Radar (TDWR), Weather Systems Processor (WSP), and Low Level Wind Shear Alert Systems (LLWAS) into a single strategic

concept that significantly improves the aviation weather information in the terminal area. (See FIG 7-1-14.)

(b) The wind shear/microburst information and warnings are displayed on the ribbon display terminals (RBDT) located in the tower cabs. They are identical (and standardized) in the LLWAS, TDWR and WSP systems, and so designed that the controller does not need to interpret the data, but simply read the displayed information to the pilot. The RBDTs are constantly monitored by the controller to ensure the rapid and timely dissemination of any hazardous event(s) to the pilot.

FIG 7-1-15
LLWAS Siting Criteria

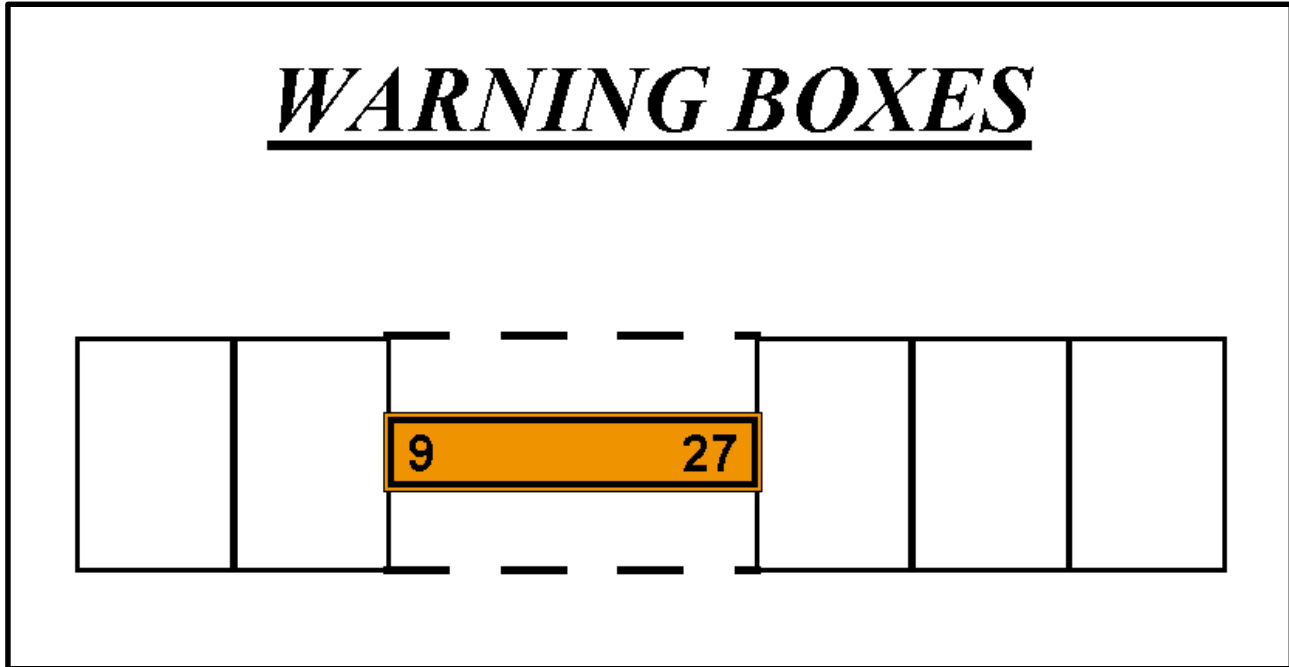


(c) The early detection of a wind shear/micro-burst event, and the subsequent warning(s) issued to an aircraft on approach or departure, will alert the pilot/crew to the potential of, and to be prepared for, a situation that could become very dangerous! Without these warnings, the aircraft may NOT be able to climb out of, or safely transition, the event, resulting in a catastrophe. The air carriers, working with the FAA, have developed specialized training programs using their simulators to train and prepare their pilots on the demanding aircraft procedures required to escape these very dangerous wind shear and/or microburst encounters.

2. Low Level Wind Shear Alert System (LLWAS).

(a) The LLWAS provides wind data and software processes to detect the presence of hazardous wind shear and microbursts in the vicinity of an airport. Wind sensors, mounted on poles sometimes as high as 150 feet, are (ideally) located 2,000 – 3,500 feet, but not more than 5,000 feet, from the centerline of the runway. (See FIG 7-1-15.)

FIG 7-1-16
Warning Boxes



(b) LLWAS was fielded in 1988 at 110 airports across the nation. Many of these systems have been replaced by new TDWR and WSP technology. While all legacy LLWAS systems will eventually be phased out, 39 airports will be upgraded to LLWAS-NE (Network Expansion) system. The new LLWAS-NE systems not only provide the controller with wind shear warnings and alerts, including wind shear/microburst detection at the airport wind sensor location, but also provide the location of the hazards relative to the airport runway(s). It also has the flexibility and capability to grow with the airport as new runways are built. As many as 32 sensors, strategically located around the airport and in relationship to its runway configuration, can be accommodated by the LLWAS-NE network.

3. Terminal Doppler Weather Radar (TDWR).

(a) TDWRs have been deployed at 45 locations across the U.S. Optimum locations for TDWRs are 8 to 12 miles off of the airport proper, and designed to look at the airspace around and over the airport to detect microbursts, gust fronts, wind shifts, and precipitation intensities. TDWR products advise the controller of wind shear and microburst events

impacting all runways and the areas $\frac{1}{2}$ mile on either side of the extended centerline of the runways out to 3 miles on final approach and 2 miles out on departure. (FIG 7-1-16 is a theoretical view of the warning boxes, including the runway, that the software uses in determining the location(s) of wind shear or microbursts). These warnings are displayed (as depicted in the examples in subparagraph 5) on the RBDT.

(b) It is very important to understand what TDWR does NOT DO:

- (1) It **DOES NOT** warn of wind shear outside of the alert boxes (on the arrival and departure ends of the runways);
- (2) It **DOES NOT** detect wind shear that is NOT a microburst or a gust front;
- (3) It **DOES NOT** detect gusty or cross wind conditions; and
- (4) It **DOES NOT** detect turbulence.

However, research and development is continuing on these systems. Future improvements may include such areas as storm motion (movement), improved gust front detection, storm growth and decay, microburst prediction, and turbulence detection.

(c) TDWR also provides a geographical situation display (GSD) for supervisors and traffic management specialists for planning purposes. The GSD displays (in color) 6 levels of weather (precipitation), gust fronts and predicted storm movement(s). This data is used by the tower supervisor(s), traffic management specialists and controllers to plan for runway changes and arrival/departure route changes in order to both reduce aircraft delays and increase airport capacity.

4. Weather Systems Processor (WSP).

(a) The WSP provides the controller, supervisor, traffic management specialist, and ultimately the pilot, with the same products as the terminal doppler weather radar (TDWR) at a fraction of the cost of a TDWR. This is accomplished by utilizing new technologies to access the weather channel capabilities of the existing ASR-9 radar located on or near the airport, thus eliminating the requirements for a separate radar location, land acquisition, support facilities and the associated communication landlines and expenses.

(b) The WSP utilizes the same RBDT display as the TDWR and LLWAS, and, just like TDWR, also has a GSD for planning purposes by supervisors, traffic management specialists and controllers. The WSP GSD emulates the TDWR display, i.e., it also depicts 6 levels of precipitation, gust fronts and predicted storm movement, and like the TDWR GSD, is used to plan for runway changes and arrival/departure route changes in order to reduce aircraft delays and to increase airport capacity.

(c) This system is installed at 34 airports across the nation, substantially increasing the safety of flying.

5. Operational aspects of LLWAS, TDWR and WSP.

To demonstrate how this data is used by both the controller and the pilot, 3 ribbon display examples and their explanations are presented:

(a) MICROBURST ALERTS

EXAMPLE-

This is what the controller sees on his/her ribbon display in the tower cab.

27A MBA 35K- 2MF 250 20

NOTE-

(See FIG 7-1-17 to see how the TDWR/WSP determines the microburst location).

This is what the controller will say when issuing the alert.

PHRASEOLOGY-

RUNWAY 27 ARRIVAL, MICROBURST ALERT, 35 KT LOSS 2 MILE FINAL, THRESHOLD WIND 250 AT 20.

In plain language, the controller is telling the pilot that on approach to runway 27, there is a microburst alert on the approach lane to the runway, and to anticipate or expect a 35 knot loss of airspeed at approximately 2 miles out on final approach (where it will first encounter the phenomena). With that information, the aircrew is forewarned, and should be prepared to apply wind shear/microburst escape procedures should they decide to continue the approach. Additionally, the surface winds at the airport for landing runway 27 are reported as 250 degrees at 20 knots.

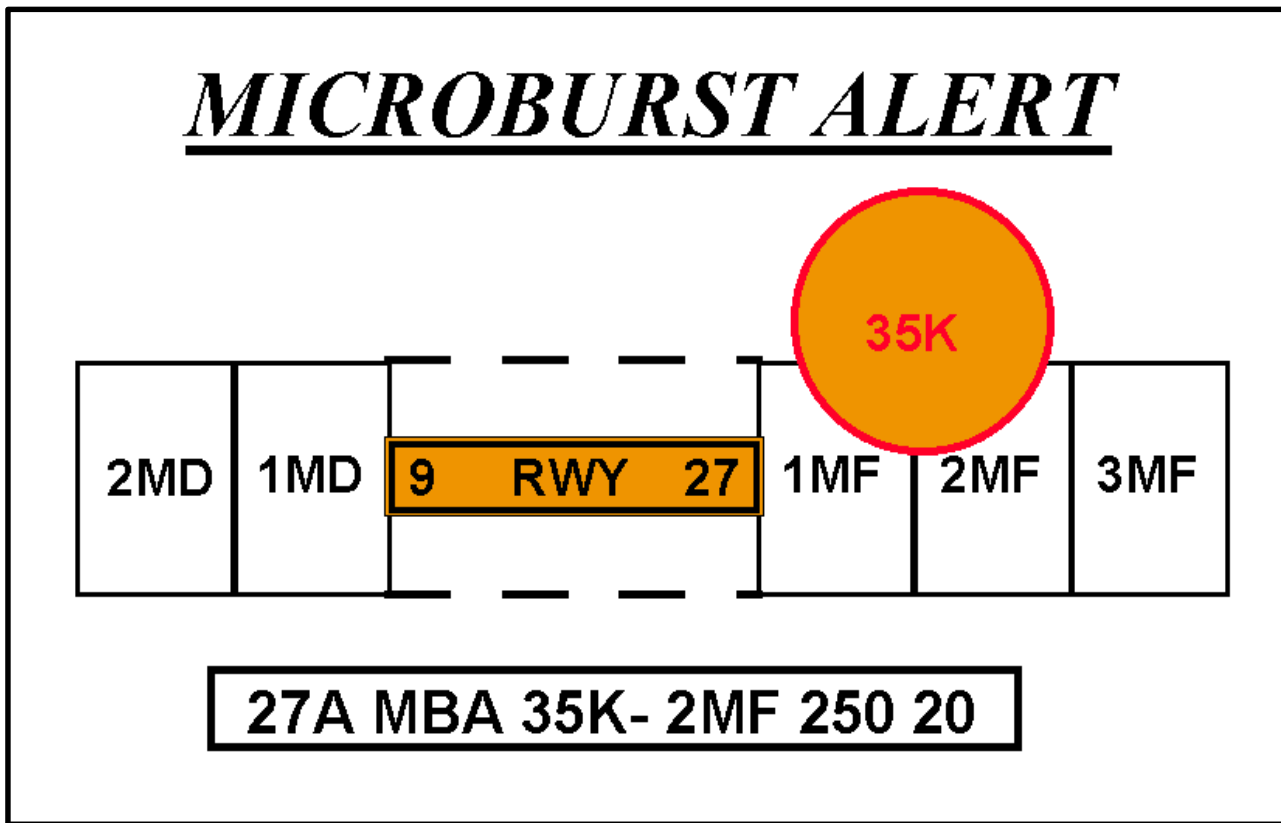
NOTE-

Threshold wind is at pilot's request or as deemed appropriate by the controller.

REFERENCE-

FAA Order JO 7110.65, Para 3-1-8b2(a), Air Traffic Control, Low Level Wind Shear/Microburst Advisories.

FIG 7-1-17
Microburst Alert



(b) WIND SHEAR ALERTS

EXAMPLE-

This is what the controller sees on his/her ribbon display in the tower cab.

27A WSA 20K- 3MF 200 15

NOTE-

(See FIG 7-1-18 to see how the TDWR/WSP determines the wind shear location).

This is what the controller will say when issuing the alert.

PHRASEOLOGY-

RUNWAY 27 ARRIVAL, WIND SHEAR ALERT, 20 KT LOSS 3 MILE FINAL, THRESHOLD WIND 200 AT 15.

In plain language, the controller is advising the aircraft arriving on runway 27 that at about 3 miles out they can expect to encounter a wind shear condition that will decrease their airspeed by 20 knots and possibly encounter turbulence. Additionally, the airport surface winds for landing runway 27 are reported as 200 degrees at 15 knots.

NOTE-

Threshold wind is at pilot's request or as deemed appropriate by the controller.

REFERENCE-

FAA Order JO 7110.65, Air Traffic Control, Low Level Wind Shear/Microburst Advisories, Paragraph 3-1-8b2(a).

FIG 7-1-18
Weak Microburst Alert

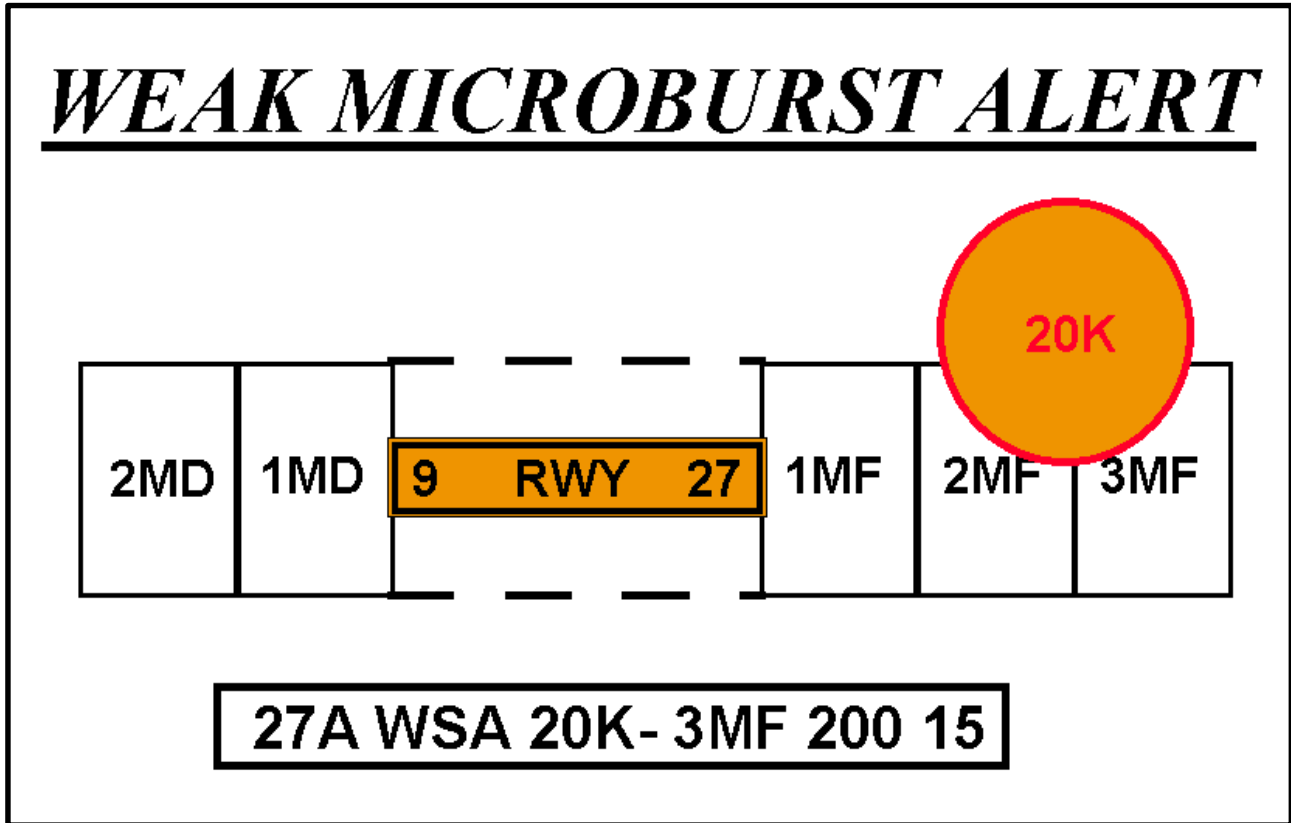
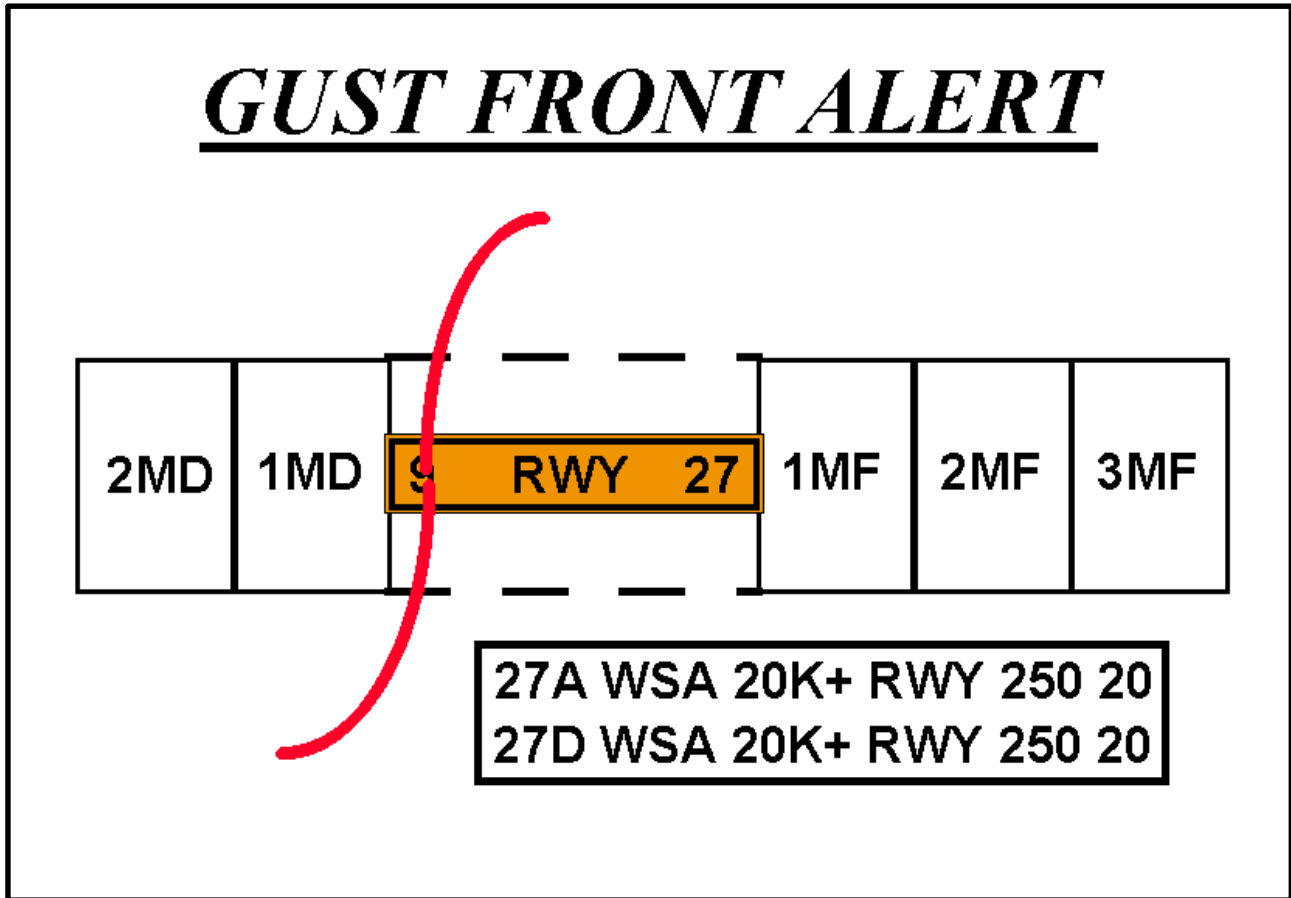


FIG 7-1-19
Gust Front Alert



(c) MULTIPLE WIND SHEAR ALERTS

EXAMPLE-

This is what the controller sees on his/her ribbon display in the tower cab.

27A WSA 20K+ RWY 250 20
27D WSA 20K+ RWY 250 20

NOTE-

(See FIG 7-1-19 to see how the TDWR/WSP determines the gust front/wind shear location.)

This is what the controller will say when issuing the alert.

PHRASEOLOGY-

MULTIPLE WIND SHEAR ALERTS. RUNWAY 27 ARRIVAL, WIND SHEAR ALERT, 20 KT GAIN ON RUNWAY; RUNWAY 27 DEPARTURE, WIND SHEAR ALERT, 20 KT GAIN ON RUNWAY, WIND 250 AT 20.

EXAMPLE-

In this example, the controller is advising arriving and departing aircraft that they could encounter a wind shear

condition right on the runway due to a gust front (significant change of wind direction) with the possibility of a 20 knot gain in airspeed associated with the gust front. Additionally, the airport surface winds (for the runway in use) are reported as 250 degrees at 20 knots.

REFERENCE-

FAA Order 7110.65, Air Traffic Control, Low Level Wind Shear/Microburst Advisories, Paragraph 3-1-8b2(d).

6. The Terminal Weather Information for Pilots System (TWIP).

(a) With the increase in the quantity and quality of terminal weather information available through TDWR, the next step is to provide this information directly to pilots rather than relying on voice communications from ATC. The National Airspace System has long been in need of a means of delivering terminal weather information to the cockpit more efficiently in terms of both speed and accuracy to enhance pilot awareness of weather hazards and reduce air traffic controller workload. With the TWIP capability, terminal weather information, both alphanumerically and graphically,

is now available directly to the cockpit at 43 airports in the U.S. NAS. (See FIG 7-1-20.)

TBL 7-1-11
TWIP-Equipped Airports

FIG 7-1-20
TWIP Image of Convective Weather at MCO International

WEATHER SITUATION	TWIP TEXT MESSAGE
	<p>MCO 1800 TERMINAL WEATHER -STORM(S) 3NM N-E MOD PRECIP 4NM NE HVY PRECIP MOVG W AT 15KT .EXPECTED MOD PRECIP BEGIN 1805</p>
	<p>MCO 1810 TERMINAL WEATHER *MODERATE PRECIP BEGAN 1805 -STORM(S) ARPT ALQDS MOD PRECIP 1NM N-E HVY PRECIP MOVG W AT 15KT .EXPECTED HVY PRECIP BEGIN 1815</p>

(b) TWIP products are generated using weather data from the TDWR or the Integrated Terminal Weather System (ITWS). These products can then be accessed by pilots using the Aircraft Communications Addressing and Reporting System (ACARS) data link services. Airline dispatchers can also access this database and send messages to specific aircraft whenever wind shear activity begins or ends at an airport.

(c) TWIP products include descriptions and character graphics of microburst alerts, wind shear alerts, significant precipitation, convective activity within 30 NM surrounding the terminal area, and expected weather that will impact airport operations. During inclement weather, i.e., whenever a predetermined level of precipitation or wind shear is detected within 15 miles of the terminal area, TWIP products are updated once each minute for text messages and once every five minutes for character graphic messages. During good weather (below the predetermined precipitation or wind shear parameters) each message is updated every 10 minutes. These products are intended to improve the situational awareness of the pilot/flight crew, and to aid in flight planning prior to arriving or departing the terminal area. It is important to understand that, in the context of TWIP, the predetermined levels for inclement versus good weather has nothing to do with the criteria for VFR/MVFR/IFR/LIFR; it only deals with precipitation, wind shears and microbursts.

Airport	Identifier
Andrews AFB, MD	KADW
Hartsfield-Jackson Atlanta Intl Airport	KATL
Nashville Intl Airport	KBNA
Logan Intl Airport	KBOS
Baltimore/Washington Intl Airport	KBWI
Hopkins Intl Airport	KCLE
Charlotte/Douglas Intl Airport	KCLT
Port Columbus Intl Airport	KCMH
Cincinnati/Northern Kentucky Intl Airport	KCVG
Dallas Love Field Airport	KDAL
James M. Cox Intl Airport	KDAY
Ronald Reagan Washington National Airport	KDCA
Denver Intl Airport	KDEN
Dallas-Fort Worth Intl Airport	KDFW
Detroit Metro Wayne County Airport	KDTW
Newark Liberty Intl Airport	KEWR
Fort Lauderdale-Hollywood Intl Airport	KFLL
William P. Hobby Airport	KHOU
Washington Dulles Intl Airport	KIAD
George Bush Intercontinental Airport	KIAH
Wichita Mid-Continent Airport	KICT
Indianapolis Intl Airport	KIND
John F. Kennedy Intl Airport	KJFK
LaGuardia Airport	KLGA
Kansas City Intl Airport	KMCI
Orlando Intl Airport	KMCO
Midway Intl Airport	KMDW
Memphis Intl Airport	KMEM
Miami Intl Airport	KMIA
General Mitchell Intl Airport	KMKE
Minneapolis St. Paul Intl Airport	KMSP
Louis Armstrong New Orleans Intl Airport	KMSY
Will Rogers World Airport	KOKC
O'Hare Intl Airport	KORD
Palm Beach Intl Airport	KPBI

Airport	Identifier
Philadelphia Intl Airport	KPHL
Pittsburgh Intl Airport	KPIT
Raleigh–Durham Intl Airport	KRDU
Louisville Intl Airport	KSDF
Salt Lake City Intl Airport	KSLC
Lambert–St. Louis Intl Airport	KSTL
Tampa Intl Airport	KTPA
Tulsa Intl Airport	KTUL

7–1–25. PIREPs Relating to Volcanic Ash Activity

a. Volcanic eruptions which send ash into the upper atmosphere occur somewhere around the world several times each year. Flying into a volcanic ash cloud can be extremely dangerous. At least two B747s have lost all power in all four engines after such an encounter. Regardless of the type aircraft, some damage is almost certain to ensue after an encounter with a volcanic ash cloud. Additionally, studies have shown that volcanic eruptions are the only significant source of large quantities of sulphur dioxide (SO₂) gas at jet-cruising altitudes. Therefore, the detection and subsequent reporting of SO₂ is of significant importance. Although SO₂ is colorless, its presence in the atmosphere should be suspected when a sulphur-like or rotten egg odor is present throughout the cabin.

b. While some volcanoes in the U.S. are monitored, many in remote areas are not. These unmonitored volcanoes may erupt without prior warning to the aviation community. A pilot observing a volcanic eruption who has not had previous notification of it may be the only witness to the eruption. Pilots are strongly encouraged to transmit a PIREP regarding volcanic eruptions and any observed volcanic ash clouds or detection of sulphur dioxide (SO₂) gas associated with volcanic activity.

c. Pilots should submit PIREPs regarding volcanic activity using the Volcanic Activity Reporting (VAR) form as illustrated in Appendix 2. If a VAR form is not immediately available, relay enough information to identify the position and type of volcanic activity.

d. Pilots should verbally transmit the data required in items 1 through 8 of the VAR as soon as possible.

The data required in items 9 through 16 of the VAR should be relayed after landing if possible.

7–1–26. Thunderstorms

a. Turbulence, hail, rain, snow, lightning, sustained updrafts and downdrafts, icing conditions—all are present in thunderstorms. While there is some evidence that maximum turbulence exists at the middle level of a thunderstorm, recent studies show little variation of turbulence intensity with altitude.

b. There is no useful correlation between the external visual appearance of thunderstorms and the severity or amount of turbulence or hail within them. The visible thunderstorm cloud is only a portion of a turbulent system whose updrafts and downdrafts often extend far beyond the visible storm cloud. Severe turbulence can be expected up to 20 miles from severe thunderstorms. This distance decreases to about 10 miles in less severe storms.

c. Weather radar, airborne or ground based, will normally reflect the areas of moderate to heavy precipitation (radar does not detect turbulence). The frequency and severity of turbulence generally increases with the radar reflectivity which is closely associated with the areas of highest liquid water content of the storm. **NO FLIGHT PATH THROUGH AN AREA OF STRONG OR VERY STRONG RADAR ECHOES SEPARATED BY 20–30 MILES OR LESS MAY BE CONSIDERED FREE OF SEVERE TURBULENCE.**

d. Turbulence beneath a thunderstorm should not be minimized. This is especially true when the relative humidity is low in any layer between the surface and 15,000 feet. Then the lower altitudes may be characterized by strong out flowing winds and severe turbulence.

e. The probability of lightning strikes occurring to aircraft is greatest when operating at altitudes where temperatures are between minus 5 degrees Celsius and plus 5 degrees Celsius. Lightning can strike aircraft flying in the clear in the vicinity of a thunderstorm.

f. METAR reports do not include a descriptor for severe thunderstorms. However, by understanding severe thunderstorm criteria, i.e., 50 knot winds or 3/4 inch hail, the information is available in the report to know that one is occurring.

g. Current weather radar systems are able to objectively determine precipitation intensity. These precipitation intensity areas are described as “light,” “moderate,” “heavy,” and “extreme.”

REFERENCE–

Pilot/Controller Glossary– Precipitation Radar Weather Descriptions

EXAMPLE–

1. Alert provided by an ATC facility to an aircraft: (aircraft identification) *EXTREME* precipitation between ten o’clock and two o’clock, one five miles. Precipitation area is two five miles in diameter.

2. Alert provided by an FSS: (aircraft identification) *EXTREME* precipitation two zero miles west of Atlanta V–O–R, two five miles wide, moving east at two zero knots, tops flight level three niner zero.

7–1–27. Thunderstorm Flying

a. Thunderstorm Avoidance. Never regard any thunderstorm lightly, even when radar echoes are of light intensity. Avoiding thunderstorms is the best policy. Following are some Do’s and Don’ts of thunderstorm avoidance:

1. Don’t land or takeoff in the face of an approaching thunderstorm. A sudden gust front of low level turbulence could cause loss of control.

2. Don’t attempt to fly under a thunderstorm even if you can see through to the other side. Turbulence and wind shear under the storm could be hazardous.

3. Don’t attempt to fly under the anvil of a thunderstorm. There is a potential for severe and extreme clear air turbulence.

4. Don’t fly without airborne radar into a cloud mass containing scattered embedded thunderstorms. Scattered thunderstorms not embedded usually can be visually circumnavigated.

5. Don’t trust the visual appearance to be a reliable indicator of the turbulence inside a thunderstorm.

6. Don’t assume that ATC will offer radar navigation guidance or deviations around thunderstorms.

7. Don’t use data-linked weather next generation weather radar (NEXRAD) mosaic imagery as the sole means for negotiating a path through a thunderstorm area (tactical maneuvering).

8. Do remember that the data–linked NEXRAD mosaic imagery shows where the weather was, not where the weather is. The weather conditions depicted may be 15 to 20 minutes older than indicated on the display.

9. Do listen to chatter on the ATC frequency for Pilot Weather Reports (PIREP) and other aircraft requesting to deviate or divert.

10. Do ask ATC for radar navigation guidance or to approve deviations around thunderstorms, if needed.

11. Do use data-linked weather NEXRAD mosaic imagery (for example, Flight Information Service–Broadcast (FIS-B)) for route selection to avoid thunderstorms entirely (strategic maneuvering).

12. Do advise ATC, when switched to another controller, that you are deviating for thunderstorms before accepting to rejoin the original route.

13. Do ensure that after an authorized weather deviation, before accepting to rejoin the original route, that the route of flight is clear of thunderstorms.

14. Do avoid by at least 20 miles any thunderstorm identified as severe or giving an intense radar echo. This is especially true under the anvil of a large cumulonimbus.

15. Do circumnavigate the entire area if the area has 6/10 thunderstorm coverage.

16. Do remember that vivid and frequent lightning indicates the probability of a severe thunderstorm.

17. Do regard as extremely hazardous any thunderstorm with tops 35,000 feet or higher whether the top is visually sighted or determined by radar.

18. Do give a PIREP for the flight conditions.

19. Do divert and wait out the thunderstorms on the ground if unable to navigate around an area of thunderstorms.

20. Do contact Flight Service for assistance in avoiding thunderstorms. Flight Service specialists have NEXRAD mosaic radar imagery and NEXRAD single site radar with unique features such as base and composite reflectivity, echo tops, and VAD wind profiles.

b. If you cannot avoid penetrating a thunderstorm, following are some Do’s before entering the storm:

1. Tighten your safety belt, put on your shoulder harness (if installed), if and secure all loose objects.

2. Plan and hold the course to take the aircraft through the storm in a minimum time.

3. To avoid the most critical icing, establish a penetration altitude below the freezing level or above the level of -15°C.

4. Verify that pitot heat is on and turn on carburetor heat or jet engine anti-ice. Icing can be rapid at any altitude and cause almost instantaneous power failure and/or loss of airspeed indication.

5. Establish power settings for turbulence penetration airspeed recommended in the aircraft manual.

6. Turn up cockpit lights to highest intensity to lessen temporary blindness from lightning.

7. If using automatic pilot, disengage Altitude Hold Mode and Speed Hold Mode. The automatic altitude and speed controls will increase maneuvers of the aircraft thus increasing structural stress.

8. If using airborne radar, tilt the antenna up and down occasionally. This will permit the detection of other thunderstorm activity at altitudes other than the one being flown.

- c. Following are some Do's and Don'ts during the thunderstorm penetration:

1. Do keep your eyes on your instruments. Looking outside the cockpit can increase danger of temporary blindness from lightning.

2. Don't change power settings; maintain settings for the recommended turbulence penetration airspeed.

3. Do maintain constant attitude. Allow the altitude and airspeed to fluctuate.

4. Don't turn back once you are in the thunderstorm. A straight course through the storm most likely will get the aircraft out of the hazards most quickly. In addition, turning maneuvers increase stress on the aircraft.

7-1-28. Key to Aerodrome Forecast (TAF) and Aviation Routine Weather Report (METAR)

FIG 7-1-21

Key to Aerodrome Forecast (TAF) and Aviation Routine Weather Report (METAR) (Front)



Key to Aerodrome Forecast (TAF) and Aviation Routine Weather Report (METAR) (Front)



TAF	KPIT 091730Z 0918/1024 15005KT 5SM HZ FEW020 WS010/31022KT FM091930 30015G25KT 3SM SHRA OVC015 TEMPO 0920/0922 1/2SM +TSRA OVC008CB FM100100 27008KT 5SM SHRA BKN020 OVC040 PROB30 1004/1007 1SM -RA BR FM101015 18005KT 6SM -SHRA OVC020 BECMG 1013/1015 P6SM NSW SKC
NOTE: Users are cautioned to confirm <i>DATE</i> and <i>TIME</i> of the TAF. For example FM100000 is 0000Z on the 10th . Do not confuse with 1000Z!	
METAR	KPIT 091955Z COR 22015G25KT 3/4SM R28L/2600FT TSRA OVC010CB 18/16 A2992 RMK SLP045 T01820159

Forecast	Explanation	Report
TAF	Message type: <u>TAF</u> -routine or <u>TAF AMD</u> -amended forecast, <u>METAR</u> -hourly, <u>SPECI</u> -special or <u>TESTM</u> -non-commissioned ASOS report	METAR
KPIT	ICAO location indicator	KPIT
091730Z	Issuance time: ALL times in UTC “Z”, 2-digit date, 4-digit time	091955Z
0918/1024	Valid period, either 24 hours or 30 hours. The first two digits of EACH four digit number indicate the date of the valid period, the final two digits indicate the time (valid from 18Z on the 9 th to 24Z on the 10 th). In U.S. METAR: <u>COR</u> rected ob; or <u>AUTOM</u> ated ob for automated report with no human intervention; omitted when observer logs on.	COR
15005KT	Wind: 3 digit true-north direction, nearest 10 degrees (or <u>VaRiAbLe</u>); next 2-3 digits for speed and unit, <u>KT</u> (KMH or MPS); as needed, <u>G</u> ust and maximum speed; 00000KT for calm; for METAR, if direction varies 60 degrees or more, <u>Variability</u> appended, e.g., 180V260	22015G25KT
5SM	Prevailing visibility; in U.S., Statute <u>Miles</u> & fractions; above 6 miles in TAF <u>Plus6SM</u> . (Or, 4-digit minimum visibility in meters and as required, lowest value with direction)	3/4SM
	Runway Visual Range: <u>R</u> ; 2-digit runway designator <u>L</u> eft, <u>C</u> enter, or <u>R</u> ight as needed; “ <u>L</u> ”, Minus or Plus in U.S., 4-digit value, <u>F</u> eeT in U.S., (usually meters elsewhere); 4-digit value <u>V</u> ariability 4-digit value (and tendency <u>D</u> own, <u>U</u> p or <u>N</u> o change)	R28L/2600FT
HZ	Significant present, forecast and recent weather: see table (on back)	TSRA
FEW020	Cloud amount, height and type: <u>Sky Clear</u> 0/8, <u>FEW</u> >0/8-2/8, <u>Sc</u> attered 3/8-4/8, <u>Br</u> oken 5/8-7/8, <u>O</u> vercast 8/8; 3-digit height in hundreds of ft; <u>T</u> owering <u>C</u> umulus or <u>C</u> umuloni <u>m</u> Bus in <u>METAR</u> ; in <u>TAF</u> , only <u>CB</u> . <u>V</u> ertical <u>V</u> isibility for obscured sky and height “VV004”. More than 1 layer may be reported or forecast. In automated <u>METAR</u> reports only, <u>C</u> lea <u>R</u> for “clear below 12,000 feet”	OVC 010CB
	Temperature: degrees Celsius; first 2 digits, temperature “ <u>L</u> ” last 2 digits, dew-point temperature; <u>M</u> inus for below zero, e.g., M06	18/16
	Altimeter setting: indicator and 4 digits; in U.S., <u>A</u> -inches and hundredths; (<u>Q</u> -hectoPascals, e.g., Q1013)	A2992
WS010/31022KT	In U.S. <u>TAF</u> , non-convective low-level (<u>≤</u> 2,000 ft) <u>W</u> ind <u>S</u> hear; 3-digit height (hundreds of ft); “ <u>L</u> ”; 3-digit wind direction and 2-3 digit wind speed above the indicated height, and unit, <u>KT</u>	

FIG 7-1-22

Key to Aerodrome Forecast (TAF) and Aviation Routine Weather Report (METAR) (Back)



Key to Aerodrome Forecast (TAF) and Aviation Routine Weather Report (METAR) (Back)



	In METAR , <u>ReMarK</u> indicator & remarks. For example: <u>Sea- Level Pressure</u> in hectoPascals & tenths, as shown: 1004.5 hPa; <u>Temp/dew-point</u> in tenths °C, as shown: temp. 18.2°C, dew-point 15.9°C	RMK SLP045 T01820159
FM091930	<u>From</u> : changes are expected at: 2-digit date, 2-digit hour, and 2-digit minute beginning time: indicates significant change. Each FM starts on a new line, indented 5 spaces	
TEMPO 0920/0922	<u>TEMPO</u> rary: changes expected for <1 hour and in total, < half of the period between the 2-digit date and 2-digit hour beginning, and 2-digit date and 2-digit hour ending time	
PROB30 1004/1007	<u>PROB</u> ability and 2-digit percent (30 or 40): probable condition in the period between the 2-digit date & 2-digit hour beginning time, and the 2-digit date and 2-digit hour ending time	
BECMG 1013/1015	<u>BECM</u> inG: change expected in the period between the 2-digit date and 2-digit hour beginning time, and the 2-digit date and 2-digit hour ending time	

Table of Significant Present, Forecast and Recent Weather - Grouped in categories and used in the order listed below; or as needed in TAF, <u>No Significant Weather</u>.			
Qualifiers			
Intensity or Proximity			
“-” = Light		No sign = Moderate	“+” = Heavy
“VC” = Vicinity, but not at aerodrome. In the US METAR, 5 to 10 SM from the point of observation. In the US TAF, 5 to 10 SM from the center of the runway complex. Elsewhere, within 8000m.			
Descriptor			
BC – Patches	BL – Blowing	DR – Drifting	FZ – Freezing
MI – Shallow	PR – Partial	SH – Showers	TS – Thunderstorm
Weather Phenomena			
Precipitation			
DZ – Drizzle	GR – Hail	GS – Small Hail/Snow Pellets	
IC – Ice Crystals	PL – Ice Pellets	RA – Rain	SG – Snow Grains
SN – Snow	UP – Unknown Precipitation in automated observations		
Obscuration			
BR – Mist (≥5/8SM)	DU – Widespread Dust	FG – Fog (<5/8SM)	FU – Smoke
HZ – Haze	PY – Spray	SA – Sand	VA – Volcanic Ash
Other			
DS – Dust Storm	FC – Funnel Cloud	+FC – Tornado or Waterspout	
PO – Well developed dust or sand whirls		SQ – Squall	SS – Sandstorm
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Explanations in parentheses “()” indicate different worldwide practices. - Ceiling is not specified; defined as the lowest broken or overcast layer, or the vertical visibility. - NWS TAFs exclude BECMG groups and temperature forecasts, NWS TAFS do not use PROB in the first 9 hours of a TAF; NWS METARs exclude trend forecasts. US Military TAFs include Turbulence and Icing groups. 			

7-1-29. International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) Weather Formats

The U.S. uses the ICAO world standard for aviation weather reporting and forecasting. The World Meteorological Organization's (WMO) publication No. 782 "Aerodrome Reports and Forecasts" contains the base METAR and TAF code as adopted by the WMO member countries.

a. Although the METAR code is adopted worldwide, each country is allowed to make modifications or exceptions to the code for use in their particular country, e.g., the U.S. will continue to use statute miles for visibility, feet for RVR values, knots for wind speed, and inches of mercury for altimetry. However, temperature and dew point will be reported in degrees Celsius. The U.S. reports prevailing visibility rather than lowest sector visibility. The elements in the body of a METAR report are separated with a space. The only exceptions are RVR, temperature, and dew point which are separated with a solidus (/). When an element does not occur, or cannot be observed, the preceding space and that element are omitted from that particular report. A METAR report contains the following sequence of elements in the following order:

1. Type of report.
2. ICAO Station Identifier.
3. Date and time of report.
4. Modifier (as required).
5. Wind.
6. Visibility.
7. Runway Visual Range (RVR).
8. Weather phenomena.
9. Sky conditions.
10. Temperature/dew point group.
11. Altimeter.
12. Remarks (RMK).

b. The following paragraphs describe the elements in a METAR report.

1. **Type of report.** There are two types of report:

(a) Aviation Routine Weather Report (METAR); and

(b) Nonroutine (Special) Aviation Weather Report (SPECI).

The type of report (METAR or SPECI) will always appear as the lead element of the report.

2. **ICAO Station Identifier.** The METAR code uses ICAO 4-letter station identifiers. In the contiguous 48 States, the 3-letter domestic station identifier is prefixed with a "K;" i.e., the domestic identifier for Seattle is SEA while the ICAO identifier is KSEA. Elsewhere, the first two letters of the ICAO identifier indicate what region of the world and country (or state) the station is in. For Alaska, all station identifiers start with "PA;" for Hawaii, all station identifiers start with "PH." Canadian station identifiers start with "CU," "CW," "CY," and "CZ." Mexican station identifiers start with "MM." The identifier for the western Caribbean is "M" followed by the individual country's letter; i.e., Cuba is "MU;" Dominican Republic "MD;" the Bahamas "MY." The identifier for the eastern Caribbean is "T" followed by the individual country's letter; i.e., Puerto Rico is "TJ." For a complete worldwide listing see ICAO Document 7910, Location Indicators.

3. **Date and Time of Report.** The date and time the observation is taken are transmitted as a six-digit date/time group appended with Z to denote Coordinated Universal Time (UTC). The first two digits are the date followed with two digits for hour and two digits for minutes.

EXAMPLE-

172345Z (the 17th day of the month at 2345Z)

4. **Modifier (As Required).** "AUTO" identifies a METAR/SPECI report as an automated weather report with no human intervention. If "AUTO" is shown in the body of the report, the type of sensor equipment used at the station will be encoded in the remarks section of the report. The absence of "AUTO" indicates that a report was made manually by an observer or that an automated report had human augmentation/backup. The modifier "COR" indicates a corrected report that is sent out to replace an earlier report with an error.

NOTE-

There are two types of automated stations, AO1 for automated weather reporting stations without a precipitation discriminator, and AO2 for automated stations with a precipitation discriminator. (A precipitation discriminator can determine the difference between liquid and frozen/freezing precipitation). This information appears in the remarks section of an automated report.

5. Wind. The wind is reported as a five digit group (six digits if speed is over 99 knots). The first three digits are the direction the wind is blowing from, in tens of degrees referenced to true north, or “VRB” if the direction is variable. The next two digits is the wind speed in knots, or if over 99 knots, the next three digits. If the wind is gusty, it is reported as a “G” after the speed followed by the highest gust reported. The abbreviation “KT” is appended to denote the use of knots for wind speed.

EXAMPLE–

13008KT – wind from 130 degrees at 8 knots

08032G45KT – wind from 080 degrees at 32 knots with gusts to 45 knots

VRB04KT – wind variable in direction at 4 knots

00000KT – wind calm

210103G130KT – wind from 210 degrees at 103 knots with gusts to 130 knots

If the wind direction is variable by 60 degrees or more and the speed is greater than 6 knots, a variable group consisting of the extremes of the wind direction separated by a “v” will follow the prevailing wind group.

32012G22KT 280V350

(a) Peak Wind. Whenever the peak wind exceeds 25 knots “PK WND” will be included in Remarks, e.g., PK WND 28045/1955 “Peak wind two eight zero at four five occurred at one niner five five.” If the hour can be inferred from the report time, only the minutes will be appended, e.g., PK WND 34050/38 “Peak wind three four zero at five zero occurred at three eight past the hour.”

(b) Wind shift. Whenever a wind shift occurs, “WSHFT” will be included in remarks followed by the time the wind shift began, e.g., WSHFT 30 FROPA “Wind shift at three zero due to frontal passage.”

6. Visibility. Prevailing visibility is reported in statute miles with “SM” appended to it.

EXAMPLE–

7SM – seven statute miles

15SM – fifteen statute miles

1/2SM – one-half statute mile

(a) Tower/surface visibility. If either visibility (tower or surface) is below four statute miles,

the lesser of the two will be reported in the body of the report; the greater will be reported in remarks.

(b) Automated visibility. ASOS/AWOS visibility stations will show visibility 10 or greater than 10 miles as “10SM.” AWOS visibility stations will show visibility less than 1/4 statute mile as “M^{1/4}SM” and visibility 10 or greater than 10 miles as “10SM.”

NOTE–

Automated sites that are augmented by human observer to meet service level requirements can report 0, 1/16 SM, and 1/8 SM visibility increments.

(c) Variable visibility. Variable visibility is shown in remarks (when rapid increase or decrease by 1/2 statute mile or more and the average prevailing visibility is less than three miles) e.g., VIS 1V2 “visibility variable between one and two.”

(d) Sector visibility. Sector visibility is shown in remarks when it differs from the prevailing visibility, and either the prevailing or sector visibility is less than three miles.

EXAMPLE–

VIS N2 – visibility north two

7. Runway Visual Range (When Reported). “R” identifies the group followed by the runway heading (and parallel runway designator, if needed) “/” and the visual range in feet (meters in other countries) followed with “FT” (feet is not spoken).

(a) Variability Values. When RVR varies (by more than on reportable value), the lowest and highest values are shown with “V” between them.

(b) Maximum/Minimum Range. “P” indicates an observed RVR is above the maximum value for this system (spoken as “more than”). “M” indicates an observed RVR is below the minimum value which can be determined by the system (spoken as “less than”).

EXAMPLE–

R32L/1200FT – runway three two left R–V–R one thousand two hundred.

R27R/M1000V4000FT – runway two seven right R–V–R variable from less than one thousand to four thousand.

8. Weather Phenomena. The weather as reported in the METAR code represents a significant change in the way weather is currently reported. In METAR, weather is reported in the format:

Intensity/Proximity/Descriptor/Precipitation/Obstruction to visibility/Other

NOTE-

The “/” above and in the following descriptions (except as the separator between the temperature and dew point) are for separation purposes in this publication and do not appear in the actual METARs.

(a) **Intensity** applies only to the first type of precipitation reported. A “-” denotes light, no symbol denotes moderate, and a “+” denotes heavy.

(b) **Proximity** applies to and reported only for weather occurring in the vicinity of the airport (between 5 and 10 miles of the point(s) of observation). It is denoted by the letters “VC.” (Intensity and “VC” will not appear together in the weather group).

(c) **Descriptor.** These eight descriptors apply to the precipitation or obstructions to visibility:

- TS thunderstorm
- DR low drifting
- SH showers
- MI shallow
- FZ freezing
- BC patches
- BL blowing
- PR partial

NOTE-

Although “TS” and “SH” are used with precipitation and may be preceded with an intensity symbol, the intensity still applies to the precipitation, **not** the descriptor.

(d) **Precipitation.** There are nine types of precipitation in the METAR code:

- RA rain
- DZ drizzle
- SN snow
- GR hail (1/4” or greater)
- GS small hail/snow pellets
- PL ice pellets
- SG snow grains
- IC ice crystals (diamond dust)
- UP unknown precipitation
(automated stations only)

(e) **Obstructions to visibility.** There are eight types of obscuration phenomena in the METAR code (obscurations are any phenomena in the atmosphere, other than precipitation, that reduce horizontal visibility):

- FG fog (vsby less than 5/8 mile)
- HZ haze
- FU smoke
- PY spray
- BR mist (vsby 5/8 – 6 miles)
- SA sand
- DU dust
- VA volcanic ash

NOTE-

Fog (FG) is observed or forecast only when the visibility is less than five-eighths of mile, otherwise mist (BR) is observed or forecast.

(f) **Other.** There are five categories of other weather phenomena which are reported when they occur:

- SQ squall
- SS sandstorm
- DS duststorm
- PO dust/sand whirls
- FC funnel cloud
- +FC tornado/waterspout

Examples:

- TSRA thunderstorm with moderate rain
- +SN heavy snow
- RA FG light rain and fog
- BRHZ mist and haze
(visibility 5/8 mile or greater)
- FZDZ freezing drizzle
- VCSH rain shower in the vicinity
- +SHRASNPL .. heavy rain showers, snow, ice pellets (intensity indicator refers to the predominant rain)

9. Sky Condition. The sky condition as reported in METAR represents a significant change from the way sky condition is currently reported. In METAR, sky condition is reported in the format:

Amount/Height/(Type) or Indefinite Ceiling/Height

(a) **Amount.** The amount of sky cover is reported in eighths of sky cover, using the contractions:

SKC clear (no clouds)
FEW >0 to $\frac{2}{8}$
SCT scattered ($\frac{3}{8}$ s to $\frac{4}{8}$ s of clouds)
BKN broken ($\frac{5}{8}$ s to $\frac{7}{8}$ s of clouds)
OVC overcast ($\frac{8}{8}$ s clouds)
CB Cumulonimbus when present
TCU Towering cumulus when present

NOTE–

1. “SKC” will be reported at manual stations. “CLR” will be used at automated stations when no clouds below 12,000 feet are reported.

2. A ceiling layer is not designated in the METAR code. For aviation purposes, the ceiling is the lowest broken or overcast layer, or vertical visibility into an obscuration. Also there is no provision for reporting thin layers in the METAR code. When clouds are thin, that layer must be reported as if it were opaque.

(b) **Height.** Cloud bases are reported with three digits in hundreds of feet above ground level (AGL). (Clouds above 12,000 feet cannot be reported by an automated station).

(c) **(Type).** If Towering Cumulus Clouds (TCU) or Cumulonimbus Clouds (CB) are present, they are reported after the height which represents their base.

EXAMPLE–

(Reported as) SCT025TCU BKN080 BKN250 (spoken as) “TWO THOUSAND FIVE HUNDRED SCATTERED TOWERING CUMULUS, CEILING EIGHT THOUSAND BROKEN, TWO FIVE THOUSAND BROKEN.”

(Reported as) SCT008 OVC012CB (spoken as) “EIGHT HUNDRED SCATTERED CEILING ONE THOUSAND TWO HUNDRED OVERCAST CUMULONIMBUS CLOUDS.”

(d) **Vertical Visibility (indefinite ceiling height).** The height into an indefinite ceiling is preceded by “VV” and followed by three digits indicating the vertical visibility in hundreds of feet. This layer indicates total obscuration.

EXAMPLE–

$\frac{1}{8}$ SM FG VV006 – visibility one eighth, fog, indefinite ceiling six hundred.

(e) **Obscurations** are reported when the sky is partially obscured by a ground-based phenomena by indicating the amount of obscuration as FEW, SCT, BKN followed by three zeros (000). In remarks, the obscuring phenomenon precedes the amount of obscuration and three zeros.

EXAMPLE–

BKN000 (in body) “sky partially obscured”
 FU BKN000 (in remarks) “smoke obscuring five–to seven–eighths of the sky”

(f) When sky conditions include a layer aloft, other than clouds, such as smoke or haze the type of phenomena, sky cover and height are shown in remarks.

EXAMPLE–

BKN020 (in body) “ceiling two thousand broken”
 RMK FU BKN020 “broken layer of smoke aloft, based at two thousand”

(g) **Variable ceiling.** When a ceiling is below three thousand and is variable, the remark “CIG” will be shown followed with the lowest and highest ceiling heights separated by a “V.”

EXAMPLE–

CIG 005V010 “ceiling variable between five hundred and one thousand”

(h) **Second site sensor.** When an automated station uses meteorological discontinuity sensors, remarks will be shown to identify site specific sky conditions which differ and are lower than conditions reported in the body.

EXAMPLE–

CIG 020 RY11 “ceiling two thousand at runway one one”

(i) **Variable cloud layer.** When a layer is varying in sky cover, remarks will show the variability range. If there is more than one cloud layer, the variable layer will be identified by including the layer height.

EXAMPLE–

SCT V BKN “scattered layer variable to broken”
 BKN025 V OVC “broken layer at two thousand five hundred variable to overcast”

(j) Significant clouds. When significant clouds are observed, they are shown in remarks, along with the specified information as shown below:

(1) Cumulonimbus (CB), or Cumulonimbus Mammatus (CBMAM), distance (if known), direction from the station, and direction of movement, if known. If the clouds are beyond 10 miles from the airport, DSNT will indicate distance.

EXAMPLE-

CB W MOVE “cumulonimbus west moving east”
CBMAM DSNT S “cumulonimbus mammatus distant south”

(2) Towering Cumulus (TCU), location, (if known), or direction from the station.

EXAMPLE-

TCU OHD “towering cumulus overhead”
TCU W “towering cumulus west”

(3) Altocumulus Castellanus (ACC), Stratocumulus Standing Lenticular (SCSL), Altocumulus Standing Lenticular (ACSL), Cirrocumulus Standing Lenticular (CCSL) or rotor clouds, describing the clouds (if needed) and the direction from the station.

EXAMPLE-

ACC W “altocumulus castellanus west”
ACSL SW-S “standing lenticular altocumulus southwest through south”
APRNT ROTOR CLD S “apparent rotor cloud south”
CCSL OVR MTE “standing lenticular cirrocumulus over the mountains east”

10. Temperature/Dew Point. Temperature and dew point are reported in two, two-digit groups in degrees Celsius, separated by a solidus (“/”). Temperatures below zero are prefixed with an “M.” If the temperature is available but the dew point is missing, the temperature is shown followed by a solidus. If the temperature is missing, the group is omitted from the report.

EXAMPLE-

15/08 “temperature one five, dew point 8”
00/M02 “temperature zero, dew point minus 2”

M05/ “temperature minus five, dew point missing”

11. Altimeter. Altimeter settings are reported in a four-digit format in inches of mercury prefixed with an “A” to denote the units of pressure.

EXAMPLE-

A2995 – “Altimeter two niner niner five”

12. Remarks. Remarks will be included in all observations, when appropriate. The contraction “RMK” denotes the start of the remarks section of a METAR report.

Except for precipitation, phenomena located within 5 statute miles of the point of observation will be reported as at the station. Phenomena between 5 and 10 statute miles will be reported in the vicinity, “VC.” Precipitation not occurring at the point of observation but within 10 statute miles is also reported as in the vicinity, “VC.” Phenomena beyond 10 statute miles will be shown as distant, “DSNT.” Distances are in statute miles except for automated lightning remarks which are in nautical miles. Movement of clouds or weather will be indicated by the direction toward which the phenomena is moving.

(a) There are two categories of remarks:

- (1)** Automated, manual, and plain language.
- (2)** Additive and automated maintenance data.

(b) Automated, Manual, and Plain Language. This group of remarks may be generated from either manual or automated weather reporting stations and generally elaborate on parameters reported in the body of the report. (Plain language remarks are only provided by manual stations).

- (1)** Volcanic eruptions.
- (2)** Tornado, Funnel Cloud, Waterspout.
- (3)** Station Type (AO1 or AO2).
- (4)** PK WND.
- (5)** WSHFT (FROPA).
- (6)** TWR VIS or SFC VIS.
- (7)** VRB VIS.
- (8)** Sector VIS.
- (9)** VIS @ 2nd Site.

(10) **Lightning.** When lightning is observed at a manual location, the frequency and location is reported.

When cloud-to-ground lightning is detected by an automated lightning detection system, such as ALDARS:

[a] Within 5 nautical miles (NM) of the Airport Reference Point (ARP), it will be reported as “TS” in the body of the report with no remark;

[b] Between 5 and 10 NM of the ARP, it will be reported as “VCTS” in the body of the report with no remark;

[c] Beyond 10 but less than 30 NM of the ARP, it will be reported in remarks as “DSNT” followed by the direction from the ARP.

EXAMPLE-

LTG DSNT W or LTG DSNT ALQDS

- (11) Beginning/Ending of Precipitation/TSTMS.
- (12) TSTM Location MVMT.
- (13) Hailstone Size (GR).
- (14) Virga.
- (15) VRB CIG (height).
- (16) Obscuration.
- (17) VRB Sky Condition.
- (18) Significant Cloud Types.
- (19) Ceiling Height 2nd Location.
- (20) PRESFR PRESRR.
- (21) Sea-Level Pressure.
- (22) ACFT Mishap (not transmitted).
- (23) NOSPECI.
- (24) SNINCR.
- (25) Other SIG Info.

(c) Additive and Automated Maintenance Data.

- (1) Hourly Precipitation.
- (2) 3- and 6-Hour Precipitation Amount.
- (3) 24-Hour Precipitation.
- (4) Snow Depth on Ground.

(5) Water Equivalent of Snow.

(6) Cloud Type.

(7) Duration of Sunshine.

(8) Hourly Temperature/Dew Point (Tenths).

(9) 6-Hour Maximum Temperature.

(10) 6-Hour Minimum Temperature.

(11) 24-Hour Maximum/Minimum Temperature.

(12) Pressure Tendency.

(13) Sensor Status.

PWINO

FZRANO

TSNO

RVRNO

PNO

VISNO

Examples of METAR reports and explanation:

METAR KBNA 281250Z 33018KT 290V360
1/2SM R31/2700FT SN BLSN FG VV008 00/M03
A2991 RMK RAE42SNB42

METAR aviation routine weather report

KBNA Nashville, TN

281250Z date 28th, time 1250 UTC

(no modifier) . . This is a manually generated report, due to the absence of “AUTO” and “AO1 or AO2” in remarks

33018KT wind three three zero at one eight

290V360 wind variable between two nine zero and three six zero

1/2SM visibility one half

R31/2700FT . . . Runway three one RVR two thousand seven hundred

SN moderate snow

BLSN FG visibility obscured by blowing snow and fog

VV008 indefinite ceiling eight hundred

00/M03 temperature zero, dew point minus three

A2991 altimeter two niner niner one

RMK remarks

RAE42 rain ended at four two
SNB42 snow began at four two

TS W MOV E thunderstorm west moving east

METAR KSFO 041453Z AUTO VRB02KT 3SM
 BR CLR 15/12 A3012 RMK AO2

METAR aviation routine weather report
KSFO San Francisco, CA
041453Z date 4th, time 1453 UTC
AUTO fully automated; no human intervention
VRB02KT wind variable at two
3SM visibility three
BR visibility obscured by mist
CLR no clouds below one two thousand
15/12 temperature one five, dew point one two
A3012 altimeter three zero one two
RMK remarks
AO2 this automated station has a weather discriminator (for precipitation)

SPECI KCVG 152224Z 28024G36KT 3/4SM
 +TSRA BKN008 OVC020CB 28/23 A3000 RMK
 TSRAB24 TS W MOV E

SPECI (nonroutine) aviation special weather report
KCVG Cincinnati, OH
152228Z date 15th, time 2228 UTC
(no modifier) . . This is a manually generated report due to the absence of “AUTO” and “AO1 or AO2” in remarks
28024G36KT wind two eight zero at two four gusts three six
3/4SM visibility three fourths
+TSRA thunderstorms, heavy rain
BKN008 ceiling eight hundred broken
OVC020CB two thousand overcast cumulonimbus clouds
28/23 temperature two eight, dew point two three
A3000 altimeter three zero zero zero
RMK remarks
TSRAB24 thunderstorm and rain began at two four

c. Aerodrome Forecast (TAF). A concise statement of the expected meteorological conditions at an airport during a specified period. At most locations, TAFs have a 24 hour forecast period. However, TAFs for some locations have a 30 hour forecast period. These forecast periods may be shorter in the case of an amended TAF. TAFs use the same codes as METAR weather reports. They are scheduled four times daily for 24-hour periods beginning at 0000Z, 0600Z, 1200Z, and 1800Z.

Forecast times in the TAF are depicted in two ways. The first is a 6-digit number to indicate a specific point in time, consisting of a two-digit date, two-digit hour, and two-digit minute (such as issuance time or FM). The second is a pair of four-digit numbers separated by a “/” to indicate a beginning and end for a period of time. In this case, each four-digit pair consists of a two-digit date and a two-digit hour.

TAFs are issued in the following format:

TYPE OF REPORT/ICAO STATION IDENTIFIER/
 DATE AND TIME OF ORIGIN/VALID PERIOD
 DATE AND TIME/FORECAST METEOROLOGICAL
 CONDITIONS

NOTE-

The “/” above and in the following descriptions are for separation purposes in this publication and do not appear in the actual TAFs.

TAF KORD 051130Z 0512/0618 14008KT 5SM BR
 BKN030
 TEMPO 0513/0516 1 1/2SM BR
 FM051600 16010KT P6SM SKC
 FM052300 20013G20KT 4SM SHRA OVC020
 PROB40 0600/0606 2SM TSRA OVC008CB
 BECMG 0606/0608 21015KT P6SM NSW
 SCT040

TAF format observed in the above example:

TAF = type of report

KORD = ICAO station identifier

051130Z = date and time of origin (issuance time)

0512/0618 = valid period date and times

14008KT 5SM BR BKN030 = forecast meteorological conditions

Explanation of TAF elements:

1. Type of Report. There are two types of TAF issuances, a routine forecast issuance (TAF) and an amended forecast (TAF AMD). An amended TAF is issued when the current TAF no longer adequately describes the on-going weather or the forecaster feels the TAF is not representative of the current or expected weather. Corrected (COR) or delayed (RTD) TAFs are identified only in the communications header which precedes the actual forecasts.

2. ICAO Station Identifier. The TAF code uses ICAO 4-letter location identifiers as described in the METAR section.

3. Date and Time of Origin. This element is the date and time the forecast is actually prepared. The format is a two-digit date and four-digit time followed, without a space, by the letter “Z.”

4. Valid Period Date and Time. The UTC valid period of the forecast consists of two four-digit sets, separated by a “/”. The first four-digit set is a two-digit date followed by the two-digit beginning hour, and the second four-digit set is a two-digit date followed by the two-digit ending hour. Although most airports have a 24-hour TAF, a select number of airports have a 30-hour TAF. In the case of an amended forecast, or a forecast which is corrected or delayed, the valid period may be for less than 24 hours. Where an airport or terminal operates on a part-time basis (less than 24 hours/day), the TAFs issued for those locations will have the abbreviated statement “AMD NOT SKED” added to the end of the forecasts. The time observations are scheduled to end and/or resume will be indicated by expanding the AMD NOT SKED statement. Expanded statements will include:

(a) Observation ending time (AFT DDHH-mm; for example, AFT 120200)

(b) Scheduled observations resumption time (TIL DDHHmm; for example, TIL 171200Z) or

(c) Period of observation unavailability (DDHH/DDHH); for example, 2502/2512).

5. Forecast Meteorological Conditions. This is the body of the TAF. The basic format is:

WIND/VISIBILITY/WEATHER/SKY CONDITION/OPTIONAL DATA (WIND SHEAR)

The wind, visibility, and sky condition elements are always included in the initial time group of the forecast. Weather is included only if significant to

aviation. If a significant, lasting change in any of the elements is expected during the valid period, a new time period with the changes is included. It should be noted that with the exception of a “FM” group the new time period will include only those elements which are expected to change, i.e., if a lowering of the visibility is expected but the wind is expected to remain the same, the new time period reflecting the lower visibility would not include a forecast wind. The forecast wind would remain the same as in the previous time period. Any temporary conditions expected during a specific time period are included with that time period. The following describes the elements in the above format.

(a) **Wind.** This five (or six) digit group includes the expected wind direction (first 3 digits) and speed (last 2 digits or 3 digits if 100 knots or greater). The contraction “KT” follows to denote the units of wind speed. Wind gusts are noted by the letter “G” appended to the wind speed followed by the highest expected gust. A variable wind direction is noted by “VRB” where the three digit direction usually appears. A calm wind (3 knots or less) is forecast as “0000KT.”

EXAMPLE–

18010KT wind one eight zero at one zero (wind is blowing from 180).

35012G20KT wind three five zero at one two gust two zero.

(b) **Visibility.** The expected prevailing visibility up to and including 6 miles is forecast in statute miles, including fractions of miles, followed by “SM” to note the units of measure. Expected visibilities greater than 6 miles are forecast as P6SM (plus six statute miles).

EXAMPLE–

$\frac{1}{2}$ SM – visibility one-half

4SM – visibility four

P6SM – visibility more than six

(c) **Weather Phenomena.** The expected weather phenomena is coded in TAF reports using the same format, qualifiers, and phenomena contractions as METAR reports (except UP). Obscurations to vision will be forecast whenever the prevailing visibility is forecast to be 6 statute miles or less. If no significant weather is expected to occur during a specific time period in the forecast, the weather phenomena group is omitted for that time period. If, after a time period in which significant weather phenomena has been forecast, a change to a forecast

of no significant weather phenomena occurs, the contraction NSW (No Significant Weather) will appear as the weather group in the new time period. (NSW is included only in TEMPO groups).

NOTE-

It is very important that pilots understand that NSW only refers to weather phenomena, i.e., rain, snow, drizzle, etc. Omitted conditions, such as sky conditions, visibility, winds, etc., are carried over from the previous time group.

(d) Sky Condition. TAF sky condition forecasts use the METAR format described in the METAR section. Cumulonimbus clouds (CB) are the only cloud type forecast in TAFs. When clear skies are forecast, the contraction “SKC” will always be used. The contraction “CLR” is never used in the TAF. When the sky is obscured due to a surface-based phenomenon, vertical visibility (VV) into the obscuration is forecast. The format for vertical visibility is “VV” followed by a three-digit height in hundreds of feet.

NOTE-

As in METAR, ceiling layers are not designated in the TAF code. For aviation purposes, the ceiling is the lowest broken or overcast layer or vertical visibility into a complete obscuration.

- SKC** “sky clear”
- SCT005 BKN025CB** . “five hundred scattered, ceiling two thousand five hundred broken cumulonimbus clouds”
- VV008** “indefinite ceiling eight hundred”

(e) Optional Data (Wind Shear). Wind shear is the forecast of nonconvective low level winds (up to 2,000 feet). The forecast includes the letters “WS” followed by the height of the wind shear, the wind direction and wind speed at the indicated height and the ending letters “KT” (knots). Height is given in hundreds of feet (AGL) up to and including 2,000 feet. Wind shear is encoded with the contraction “WS,” followed by a three-digit height, slant character “/,” and winds at the height indicated in the same format as surface winds. The wind shear element is omitted if not expected to occur.

WS010/18040KT – “LOW LEVEL WIND SHEAR AT ONE THOUSAND, WIND ONE EIGHT ZERO AT FOUR ZERO”

d. Probability Forecast. The probability or chance of thunderstorms or other precipitation events

occurring, along with associated weather conditions (wind, visibility, and sky conditions). The PROB30 group is used when the occurrence of thunderstorms or precipitation is 30–39% and the PROB40 group is used when the occurrence of thunderstorms or precipitation is 40–49%. This is followed by two four-digit groups separated by a “/”, giving the beginning date and hour, and the ending date and hour of the time period during which the thunderstorms or precipitation are expected.

NOTE-

NWS does not use PROB 40 in the TAF. However U.S. Military generated TAFS may include PROB40. PROB30 will not be shown during the first nine hours of a NWS forecast.

EXAMPLE-

- PROB40 2221/2302 1/2SM +TSRA** “chance between 2100Z and 0200Z of visibility one-half statute mile in thunderstorms and heavy rain.”
- PROB30 3010/3014 1SM RASN** . “chance between 1000Z and 1400Z of visibility one statute mile in mixed rain and snow.”

e. Forecast Change Indicators. The following change indicators are used when either a rapid, gradual, or temporary change is expected in some or all of the forecast meteorological conditions. Each change indicator marks a time group within the TAF report.

1. From (FM) group. The FM group is used when a rapid change, usually occurring in less than one hour, in prevailing conditions is expected. Typically, a rapid change of prevailing conditions to more or less a completely new set of prevailing conditions is associated with a synoptic feature passing through the terminal area (cold or warm frontal passage). Appended to the “FM” indicator is the six-digit date, hour, and minute the change is expected to begin and continues until the next change group or until the end of the current forecast. A “FM” group will mark the beginning of a new line in a TAF report (indented 5 spaces). Each “FM” group contains all the required elements—wind, visibility, weather, and sky condition. Weather will be omitted in “FM” groups when it is not significant to aviation. FM groups will not include the contraction NSW.

EXAMPLE-

FM210100 14010KT P6SM SKC – “after 0100Z on the 21st, wind one four zero at one zero, visibility more than six, sky clear.”

2. Becoming (BECMG) group. The BECMG group is used when a gradual change in conditions is expected over a longer time period, usually two hours. The time period when the change is expected is two four-digit groups separated by a “/”, with the beginning date and hour, and ending date and hour of the change period which follows the BECMG indicator. The gradual change will occur at an unspecified time within this time period. Only the changing forecast meteorological conditions are included in BECMG groups. The omitted conditions are carried over from the previous time group.

NOTE-

The NWS does not use BECMG in the TAF.

EXAMPLE-

OVC012 BECMG 0114/0116 BKN020 – “ceiling one thousand two hundred overcast. Then a gradual change to ceiling two thousand broken between 1400Z on the 1st and 1600Z on the 1st.”

3. Temporary (TEMPO) group. The TEMPO group is used for any conditions in wind, visibility, weather, or sky condition which are expected to last for generally less than an hour at a time (occasional), and are expected to occur during less than half the time period. The TEMPO indicator is followed by two four-digit groups separated by a “/”. The first four digit group gives the beginning date and hour, and the second four digit group gives the ending date and hour of the time period during which the temporary conditions are expected. Only the changing forecast meteorological conditions are included in TEMPO groups. The omitted conditions are carried over from the previous time group.

EXAMPLE-

1. SCT030 TEMPO 0519/0523 BKN030 – “three thousand scattered with occasional ceilings three thousand broken between 1900Z on the 5th and 2300Z on the 5th.”

2. 4SM HZ TEMPO 1900/1906 2SM BR HZ – “visibility four in haze with occasional visibility two in mist and haze between 0000Z on the 19th and 0600Z on the 19th.”

Section 6. Potential Flight Hazards

7-6-1. Accident Cause Factors

a. The 10 most frequent cause factors for general aviation accidents that involve the pilot-in-command are:

1. Inadequate preflight preparation and/or planning.
2. Failure to obtain and/or maintain flying speed.
3. Failure to maintain direction control.
4. Improper level off.
5. Failure to see and avoid objects or obstructions.
6. Mismanagement of fuel.
7. Improper inflight decisions or planning.
8. Misjudgment of distance and speed.
9. Selection of unsuitable terrain.
10. Improper operation of flight controls.

b. This list remains relatively stable and points out the need for continued refresher training to establish a higher level of flight proficiency for all pilots. A part of the FAA's continuing effort to promote increased aviation safety is the Aviation Safety Program. For information on Aviation Safety Program activities contact your nearest Flight Standards District Office.

c. **Alertness.** Be alert at all times, especially when the weather is good. Most pilots pay attention to business when they are operating in full IFR weather conditions, but strangely, air collisions almost invariably have occurred under ideal weather conditions. Unlimited visibility appears to encourage a sense of security which is not at all justified. Considerable information of value may be obtained by listening to advisories being issued in the terminal area, even though controller workload may prevent a pilot from obtaining individual service.

d. **Giving Way.** If you think another aircraft is too close to you, give way instead of waiting for the other pilot to respect the right-of-way to which you may be entitled. It is a lot safer to pursue the right-of-way angle after you have completed your flight.

7-6-2. Reporting Radio/Radar Altimeter Anomalies

a. Background.

1. The radio altimeter (also known as radar altimeter or RADALT) is a safety-critical aircraft system used to determine an aircraft's height above terrain. It is the only sensor onboard the aircraft capable of providing a direct measurement of the clearance height above the terrain and obstacles. Information from radio altimeters is essential for flight operations as a main enabler of several safety-critical functions and systems on the aircraft. The receiver on the radio altimeter is highly accurate because it is extremely sensitive, making it susceptible to radio frequency interference (RFI). RFI in the C-band portion of the spectrum could impact the functions of the radio altimeter during any phase of flight—most critically during takeoff, approach, and landing phases. This could pose a serious risk to flight safety.

2. Installed radio altimeters normally supply critical height data to a wide range of automated safety systems, navigation systems, and cockpit displays. Harmful RFI affecting the radio altimeter can cause these safety and navigation systems to operate in unexpected ways and display erroneous information to the pilot. RFI can interrupt, or significantly degrade, radio altimeter functions—precluding radio altimeter-based terrain alerts and low-visibility approach and landing operations. Systems of concern include Terrain Awareness Warning Systems (TAWS), Enhanced Ground Proximity Warning Systems (EGPWS), and Traffic Collision Avoidance Systems (TCAS), to name a few. Pilots of radio altimeter equipped aircraft should become familiar with the radio altimeter's interdependence with the other aircraft systems and expected failure modes and indications that may be associated with harmful interference.

b. **Actions.** Recognizing interference/anomalies in the radio altimeter can be difficult, as it may present as inoperative or erroneous data. Pilots need to monitor their automation, as well as their radio altimeters for discrepancies, and be prepared to take action. Pilots encountering radio altimeter interference/anomalies should transition to procedures that

do not require the radio altimeter, and inform Air Traffic Control (ATC).

c. Inflight Reporting. Pilots should report any radio altimeter anomaly to ATC as soon as practical.

d. Post Flight Reporting.

1. Pilots are encouraged to submit detailed reports of radio altimeter interference/anomalies post flight as soon as practical, by internet via the Radio Altimeter Anomaly Reporting Form at https://www.faa.gov/air_traffic/nas/RADALT_reports/.

2. The post flight pilot reports of radio altimeter anomalies should contain as much of the following information as applicable:

- (a) Date and time the anomaly was observed;
- (b) Location of the aircraft at the time the anomaly started and ended (e.g., latitude, longitude or bearing/distance from a reference point or navigational aid);
- (c) Magnetic heading;
- (d) Altitude (MSL/AGL);
- (e) Aircraft Type (make/model);
- (f) Flight Number or Aircraft Registration Number;
- (g) Meteorological conditions;
- (h) Type of radio altimeter in use (e.g., make/model/software series or version), if known;
- (i) Event overview;
- (j) Consequences/operational impact (e.g., impacted equipment, actions taken to mitigate the disruption and/or remedy provided by ATC, required post flight pilot and maintenance actions).

7-6-3. VFR in Congested Areas

A high percentage of near midair collisions occur below 8,000 feet AGL and within 30 miles of an airport. When operating VFR in these highly congested areas, whether you intend to land at an airport within the area or are just flying through, it is recommended that extra vigilance be maintained and that you monitor an appropriate control frequency. Normally the appropriate frequency is an approach control frequency. By such monitoring action you can

“get the picture” of the traffic in your area. When the approach controller has radar, radar traffic advisories may be given to VFR pilots upon request.

REFERENCE-

AIM, Para 4-1-15, Radar Traffic Information Service.

7-6-4. Obstructions To Flight

a. General. Many structures exist that could significantly affect the safety of your flight when operating below 500 feet AGL, and particularly below 200 feet AGL. While 14 CFR Part 91.119 allows flight below 500 AGL when over sparsely populated areas or open water, such operations are very dangerous. At and below 200 feet AGL there are numerous power lines, antenna towers, etc., that are not marked and lighted as obstructions and; therefore, may not be seen in time to avoid a collision. Notices to Air Missions (NOTAMs) are issued on those lighted structures experiencing temporary light outages. However, some time may pass before the FAA is notified of these outages, and the NOTAM issued, thus pilot vigilance is imperative.

b. Antenna Towers. Extreme caution should be exercised when flying less than 2,000 feet AGL because of numerous skeletal structures, such as radio and television antenna towers, that exceed 1,000 feet AGL with some extending higher than 2,000 feet AGL. Most skeletal structures are supported by guy wires which are very difficult to see in good weather and can be invisible at dusk or during periods of reduced visibility. These wires can extend about 1,500 feet horizontally from a structure; therefore, all skeletal structures should be avoided horizontally by at least 2,000 feet. Additionally, new towers may not be on your current chart because the information was not received prior to the printing of the chart.

c. Overhead Wires. Overhead transmission and utility lines often span approaches to runways, natural flyways such as lakes, rivers, gorges, and canyons, and cross other landmarks pilots frequently follow such as highways, railroad tracks, etc. As with antenna towers, these high voltage/power lines or the supporting structures of these lines may not always be readily visible and the wires may be virtually impossible to see under certain conditions. In some locations, the supporting structures of overhead transmission lines are equipped with unique sequence flashing white strobe light systems to indicate that there are wires between the structures. However, many power lines do not require notice to the FAA

and, therefore, are not marked and/or lighted. Many of those that do require notice do not exceed 200 feet AGL or meet the Obstruction Standard of 14 CFR Part 77 and, therefore, are not marked and/or lighted. All pilots are cautioned to remain extremely vigilant for these power lines or their supporting structures when following natural flyways or during the approach and landing phase. This is particularly important for seaplane and/or float equipped aircraft when landing on, or departing from, unfamiliar lakes or rivers.

d. Other Objects/Structures. There are other objects or structures that could adversely affect your flight such as construction cranes near an airport, newly constructed buildings, new towers, etc. Many of these structures do not meet charting requirements or may not yet be charted because of the charting cycle. Some structures do not require obstruction marking and/or lighting and some may not be marked and lighted even though the FAA recommended it.

7-6-5. Avoid Flight Beneath Unmanned Balloons

a. The majority of unmanned free balloons currently being operated have, extending below them, either a suspension device to which the payload or instrument package is attached, or a trailing wire antenna, or both. In many instances these balloon subsystems may be invisible to the pilot until the aircraft is close to the balloon, thereby creating a potentially dangerous situation. Therefore, good judgment on the part of the pilot dictates that aircraft should remain well clear of all unmanned free balloons and flight below them should be avoided at all times.

b. Pilots are urged to report any unmanned free balloons sighted to the nearest FAA ground facility with which communication is established. Such information will assist FAA ATC facilities to identify and flight follow unmanned free balloons operating in the airspace.

7-6-6. Unmanned Aircraft Systems

a. Unmanned Aircraft Systems (UAS), formerly referred to as “Unmanned Aerial Vehicles” (UAVs) or “drones,” are having an increasing operational presence in the NAS. Once the exclusive domain of the military, UAS are now being operated by various

entities. Although these aircraft are “unmanned,” UAS are flown by a remotely located pilot and crew. Physical and performance characteristics of unmanned aircraft (UA) vary greatly and unlike model aircraft that typically operate lower than 400 feet AGL, UA may be found operating at virtually any altitude and any speed. Sizes of UA can be as small as several pounds to as large as a commercial transport aircraft. UAS come in various categories including airplane, rotorcraft, powered-lift (tilt-rotor), and lighter-than-air. Propulsion systems of UAS include a broad range of alternatives from piston powered and turbojet engines to battery and solar-powered electric motors.

b. To ensure segregation of UAS operations from other aircraft, the military typically conducts UAS operations within restricted or other special use airspace. However, UAS operations are now being approved in the NAS outside of special use airspace through the use of FAA-issued Certificates of Waiver or Authorization (COA) or through the issuance of a special airworthiness certificate. COA and special airworthiness approvals authorize UAS flight operations to be contained within specific geographic boundaries and altitudes, usually require coordination with an ATC facility, and typically require the issuance of a NOTAM describing the operation to be conducted. UAS approvals also require observers to provide “see-and-avoid” capability to the UAS crew and to provide the necessary compliance with 14 CFR Section 91.113. For UAS operations approved at or above FL180, UAS operate under the same requirements as that of manned aircraft (i.e., flights are operated under instrument flight rules, are in communication with ATC, and are appropriately equipped).

c. UAS operations may be approved at either controlled or uncontrolled airports and are typically disseminated by NOTAM. In all cases, approved UAS operations must comply with all applicable regulations and/or special provisions specified in the COA or in the operating limitations of the special airworthiness certificate. At uncontrolled airports, UAS operations are advised to operate well clear of all known manned aircraft operations. Pilots of manned aircraft are advised to follow normal operating procedures and are urged to monitor the CTAF for any potential UAS activity. At controlled airports, local ATC procedures may be in place to handle UAS operations and should not require any

special procedures from manned aircraft entering or departing the traffic pattern or operating in the vicinity of the airport.

d. In addition to approved UAS operations described above, a recently approved agreement between the FAA and the Department of Defense authorizes small UAS operations wholly contained within Class G airspace, and in no instance, greater than 1200 feet AGL over military owned or leased property. These operations do not require any special authorization as long as the UA remains within the lateral boundaries of the military installation as well as other provisions including the issuance of a NOTAM. Unlike special use airspace, these areas may not be depicted on an aeronautical chart.

e. There are several factors a pilot should consider regarding UAS activity in an effort to reduce potential flight hazards. Pilots are urged to exercise increased vigilance when operating in the vicinity of restricted or other special use airspace, military operations areas, and any military installation. Areas with a preponderance of UAS activity are typically noted on sectional charts advising pilots of this activity. Since the size of a UA can be very small, they may be difficult to see and track. If a UA is encountered during flight, as with manned aircraft, never assume that the pilot or crew of the UAS can see you, maintain increased vigilance with the UA and always be prepared for evasive action if necessary. Always check NOTAMs for potential UAS activity along the intended route of flight and exercise increased vigilance in areas specified in the NOTAM.

7-6-7. Mountain Flying

a. Your first experience of flying over mountainous terrain (particularly if most of your flight time has been over the flatlands of the Midwest) could be a *never-to-be-forgotten nightmare* if proper planning is not done and if you are not aware of the potential hazards awaiting. Those familiar section lines are not present in the mountains; those flat, level fields for forced landings are practically nonexistent; abrupt changes in wind direction and velocity occur; severe updrafts and downdrafts are common, particularly near or above abrupt changes of terrain such as cliffs or rugged areas; even the clouds look different and can build up with startling rapidity. Mountain flying need not be hazardous if you follow the recommendations below.

b. File a Flight Plan. Plan your route to avoid topography which would prevent a safe forced landing. The route should be over populated areas and well known mountain passes. Sufficient altitude should be maintained to permit gliding to a safe landing in the event of engine failure.

c. Don't fly a light aircraft when the winds aloft, at your proposed altitude, exceed 35 miles per hour. Expect the winds to be of much greater velocity over mountain passes than reported a few miles from them. Approach mountain passes with as much altitude as possible. Downdrafts of from 1,500 to 2,000 feet per minute are not uncommon on the leeward side.

d. Don't fly near or above abrupt changes in terrain. Severe turbulence can be expected, especially in high wind conditions.

e. Understand Mountain Obscuration. The term Mountain Obscuration (MTOS) is used to describe a visibility condition that is distinguished from IFR because ceilings, by definition, are described as "above ground level" (AGL). In mountainous terrain clouds can form at altitudes significantly higher than the weather reporting station and at the same time nearby mountaintops may be obscured by low visibility. In these areas the ground level can also vary greatly over a small area. Beware if operating VFR-on-top. You could be operating closer to the terrain than you think because the tops of mountains are hidden in a cloud deck below. MTOS areas are identified daily on The Aviation Weather Center located at: <http://www.aviationweather.gov>.

f. Some canyons run into a dead end. Don't fly so far up a canyon that you get trapped. ALWAYS BE ABLE TO MAKE A 180 DEGREE TURN!

g. VFR flight operations may be conducted at night in mountainous terrain with the application of sound judgment and common sense. Proper pre-flight planning, giving ample consideration to winds and weather, knowledge of the terrain and pilot experience in mountain flying are prerequisites for safety of flight. Continuous visual contact with the surface and obstructions is a major concern and flight operations under an overcast or in the vicinity of clouds should be approached with extreme caution.

h. When landing at a high altitude field, the same indicated airspeed should be used as at low elevation fields. *Remember:* that due to the less dense air at altitude, this same indicated airspeed actually results

in higher true airspeed, a faster landing speed, and more important, a longer landing distance. During gusty wind conditions which often prevail at high altitude fields, a power approach and power landing is recommended. Additionally, due to the faster groundspeed, your takeoff distance will increase considerably over that required at low altitudes.

i. Effects of Density Altitude. Performance figures in the aircraft owner's handbook for length of takeoff run, horsepower, rate of climb, etc., are generally based on standard atmosphere conditions (59 degrees Fahrenheit (15 degrees Celsius), pressure 29.92 inches of mercury) at sea level. However, inexperienced pilots, as well as experienced pilots, may run into trouble when they encounter an altogether different set of conditions. This is particularly true in hot weather and at higher elevations. Aircraft operations at altitudes above sea level and at higher than standard temperatures are commonplace in mountainous areas. Such operations quite often result in a drastic reduction of aircraft performance capabilities because of the changing air density. Density altitude is a measure of air density. It is not to be confused with pressure altitude, true altitude, or absolute altitude. It is not to be used as a height reference, but as a determining criteria in the performance capability of an aircraft. Air density decreases with altitude. As air density decreases, density altitude increases. The further effects of high temperature and high humidity are cumulative, resulting in an increasing high density altitude condition. High density altitude reduces all aircraft performance parameters. To the pilot, this means that the normal horsepower output is reduced, propeller efficiency is reduced, and a higher true airspeed is required to sustain the aircraft throughout its operating parameters. It means an increase in runway length requirements for takeoff and landings, and decreased rate of climb. An average small airplane, for example, requiring 1,000 feet for takeoff at sea level under standard atmospheric conditions will require a takeoff run of approximately 2,000 feet at an operational altitude of 5,000 feet.

NOTE-

A turbo-charged aircraft engine provides a slight advantage in that it provides sea level horsepower up to a specified altitude above sea level.

1. Density Altitude Advisories. At airports with elevations of 2,000 feet and higher, control towers and FSSs will broadcast the advisory "Check

Density Altitude" when the temperature reaches a predetermined level. These advisories will be broadcast on appropriate tower frequencies or, where available, ATIS. FSSs will broadcast these advisories as a part of Local Airport Advisory.

2. These advisories are provided by air traffic facilities, as a reminder to pilots that high temperatures and high field elevations will cause significant changes in aircraft characteristics. The pilot retains the responsibility to compute density altitude, when appropriate, as a part of preflight duties.

NOTE-

All FSSs will compute the current density altitude upon request.

j. Mountain Wave. Many pilots go all their lives without understanding what a mountain wave is. Quite a few have lost their lives because of this lack of understanding. One need not be a licensed meteorologist to understand the mountain wave phenomenon.

1. Mountain waves occur when air is being blown over a mountain range or even the ridge of a sharp bluff area. As the air hits the upwind side of the range, it starts to climb, thus creating what is generally a smooth updraft which turns into a turbulent downdraft as the air passes the crest of the ridge. From this point, for many miles downwind, there will be a series of downdrafts and updrafts. Satellite photos of the Rockies have shown mountain waves extending as far as 700 miles downwind of the range. Along the east coast area, such photos of the Appalachian chain have picked up the mountain wave phenomenon over a hundred miles eastward. All it takes to form a mountain wave is wind blowing across the range at 15 knots or better at an intersection angle of not less than 30 degrees.

2. Pilots from flatland areas should understand a few things about mountain waves in order to stay out of trouble. When approaching a mountain range from the upwind side (generally the west), there will usually be a smooth updraft; therefore, it is not quite as dangerous an area as the lee of the range. From the leeward side, it is always a good idea to add an extra thousand feet or so of altitude because downdrafts can exceed the climb capability of the aircraft. Never expect an updraft when approaching a mountain chain from the leeward. Always be prepared to cope with a downdraft and turbulence.

3. When approaching a mountain ridge from the downwind side, it is recommended that the ridge be approached at approximately a 45 degree angle to the horizontal direction of the ridge. This permits a safer retreat from the ridge with less stress on the aircraft should severe turbulence and downdraft be experienced. If severe turbulence is encountered, simultaneously reduce power and adjust pitch until aircraft approaches maneuvering speed, then adjust power and trim to maintain maneuvering speed and fly away from the turbulent area.

7-6-8. Use of Runway Half-way Signs at Unimproved Airports

When installed, runway half-way signs provide the pilot with a reference point to judge takeoff acceleration trends. Assuming that the runway length is appropriate for takeoff (considering runway condition and slope, elevation, aircraft weight, wind, and temperature), typical takeoff acceleration should allow the airplane to reach 70 percent of lift-off airspeed by the midpoint of the runway. The “rule of thumb” is that should airplane acceleration not allow the airspeed to reach this value by the midpoint, the takeoff should be aborted, as it may not be possible to liftoff in the remaining runway.

Several points are important when considering using this “rule of thumb”:

a. Airspeed indicators in small airplanes are not required to be evaluated at speeds below stalling, and may not be usable at 70 percent of liftoff airspeed.

b. This “rule of thumb” is based on a uniform surface condition. Puddles, soft spots, areas of tall and/or wet grass, loose gravel, etc., may impede acceleration or even cause deceleration. Even if the airplane achieves 70 percent of liftoff airspeed by the midpoint, the condition of the remainder of the runway may not allow further acceleration. The entire length of the runway should be inspected prior to takeoff to ensure a usable surface.

c. This “rule of thumb” applies only to runway required for actual liftoff. In the event that obstacles affect the takeoff climb path, appropriate distance must be available after liftoff to accelerate to best angle of climb speed and to clear the obstacles. This will, in effect, require the airplane to accelerate to a higher speed by midpoint, particularly if the obstacles are close to the end of the runway. In addition, this

technique does not take into account the effects of upslope or tailwinds on takeoff performance. These factors will also require greater acceleration than normal and, under some circumstances, prevent takeoff entirely.

d. Use of this “rule of thumb” does not alleviate the pilot’s responsibility to comply with applicable Federal Aviation Regulations, the limitations and performance data provided in the FAA approved Airplane Flight Manual (AFM), or, in the absence of an FAA approved AFM, other data provided by the aircraft manufacturer.

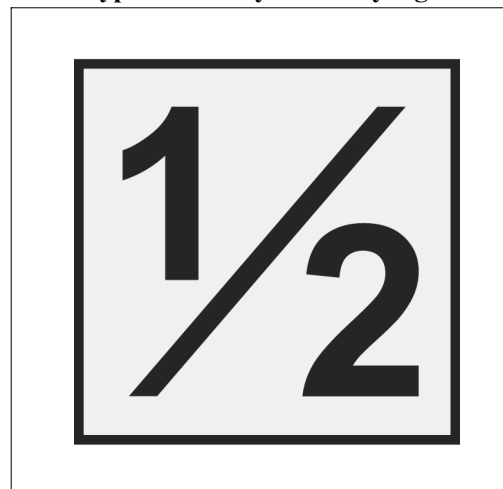
In addition to their use during takeoff, runway half-way signs offer the pilot increased awareness of his or her position along the runway during landing operations.

NOTE-

No FAA standard exists for the appearance of the runway half-way sign. FIG 7-6-1 shows a graphical depiction of a typical runway half-way sign.

FIG 7-6-1

Typical Runway Half-way Sign



7-6-9. Seaplane Safety

a. Acquiring a seaplane class rating affords access to many areas not available to landplane pilots. Adding a seaplane class rating to your pilot certificate can be relatively uncomplicated and inexpensive. However, more effort is required to become a safe, efficient, competent “bush” pilot. The natural hazards of the backwoods have given way to modern man-made hazards. Except for the far north, the available bodies of water are no longer the exclusive domain of the airman. Seaplane pilots must be vigilant for hazards such as electric power lines,

power, sail and rowboats, rafts, mooring lines, water skiers, swimmers, etc.

b. Seaplane pilots must have a thorough understanding of the right-of-way rules as they apply to aircraft versus other vessels. Seaplane pilots are expected to know and adhere to both the U.S. Coast Guard’s (USCG) Navigation Rules, International–Inland, and 14 CFR Section 91.115, Right–of–Way Rules; Water Operations. The navigation rules of the road are a set of collision avoidance rules as they apply to aircraft on the water. A seaplane is considered a vessel when on the water for the purposes of these collision avoidance rules. In general, a seaplane on the water must keep well clear of all vessels and avoid impeding their navigation. The CFR requires, in part, that aircraft operating on the water “. . . shall, insofar as possible, keep clear of all vessels and avoid impeding their navigation, and shall give way to any vessel or other aircraft that is given the right–of–way” This means that a seaplane should avoid boats and commercial shipping when on the water. If on a collision course, the seaplane should slow, stop, or maneuver to the right, away from the bow of the oncoming vessel. Also, while on the surface with an engine running, an aircraft must give way to all nonpowered vessels. Since a seaplane in the water may not be as maneuverable as one in the air, the aircraft on the water has right-of-way over one in the air, and one taking off has right-of-way over one landing. A seaplane is exempt from the USCG safety equipment requirements, including the requirements for Personal Flotation Devices (PFD). Requiring seaplanes on the water to comply with USCG equipment requirements in addition to the FAA equipment requirements would be an unnecessary burden on seaplane owners and operators.

c. Unless they are under Federal jurisdiction, navigable bodies of water are under the jurisdiction of the state, or in a few cases, privately owned. Unless they are specifically restricted, aircraft have as much right to operate on these bodies of water as other vessels. To avoid problems, check with Federal or local officials in advance of operating on unfamiliar waters. In addition to the agencies listed in TBL 7–6–1, the nearest Flight Standards District Office can usually offer some practical suggestions as well as regulatory information. If you land on a restricted body of water because of an inflight emergency, or in ignorance of the restrictions you

have violated, report as quickly as practical to the nearest local official having jurisdiction and explain your situation.

d. When operating a seaplane over or into remote areas, appropriate attention should be given to survival gear. Minimum kits are recommended for summer and winter, and are required by law for flight into sparsely settled areas of Canada and Alaska. Alaska State Department of Transportation and Canadian Ministry of Transport officials can provide specific information on survival gear requirements. The kit should be assembled in one container and be easily reachable and preferably floatable.

TBL 7–6–1

Jurisdictions Controlling Navigable Bodies of Water

Authority to Consult For Use of a Body of Water		
Location	Authority	Contact
Wilderness Area	U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service	Local forest ranger
National Forest	USDA Forest Service	Local forest ranger
National Park	U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service	Local park ranger
Indian Reservation	USDI, Bureau of Indian Affairs	Local Bureau office
State Park	State government or state forestry or park service	Local state aviation office for further information
Canadian National and Provincial Parks	Supervised and restricted on an individual basis from province to province and by different departments of the Canadian government; consult Canadian Flight Information Manual and/or Water Aerodrome Supplement	Park Superintendent in an emergency

e. The FAA recommends that each seaplane owner or operator provide flotation gear for occupants any time a seaplane operates on or near water. 14 CFR Section 91.205(b)(12) requires approved flotation gear for aircraft operated for hire over water and beyond power-off gliding distance from shore. FAA-approved gear differs from that required for

navigable waterways under USCG rules. FAA-approved life vests are inflatable designs as compared to the USCG's noninflatable PFD's that may consist of solid, bulky material. Such USCG PFDs are impractical for seaplanes and other aircraft because they may block passage through the relatively narrow exits available to pilots and passengers. Life vests approved under Technical Standard Order (TSO) TSO-C13E contain fully inflatable compartments. The wearer inflates the compartments (AFTER exiting the aircraft) primarily by independent CO2 cartridges, with an oral inflation tube as a backup. The flotation gear also contains a water-activated, self-illuminating signal light. The fact that pilots and passengers can easily don and wear inflatable life vests (when not inflated) provides maximum effectiveness and allows for unrestricted movement. It is imperative that passengers are briefed on the location and proper use of available PFDs prior to leaving the dock.

f. The FAA recommends that seaplane owners and operators obtain Advisory Circular (AC) 91-69, Seaplane Safety for 14 CFR Part 91 Operations, free from the U.S. Department of Transportation, Subsequent Distribution Office, SVC-121.23, Ardmore East Business Center, 3341 Q 75th Avenue, Landover, MD 20785; fax: (301) 386-5394. The USCG Navigation Rules International-Inland (COMDTINST 16672.2B) is available for a fee from the Government Publishing Office by facsimile request to (202) 512-2250, and can be ordered using Mastercard or Visa.

■ 7-6-10. Flight Operations in Volcanic Ash

a. Severe volcanic eruptions which send ash and sulphur dioxide (SO₂) gas into the upper atmosphere occur somewhere around the world several times each year. Flying into a volcanic ash cloud can be exceedingly dangerous. A B747-200 lost all four engines after such an encounter and a B747-400 had the same nearly catastrophic experience. Piston-powered aircraft are less likely to lose power but severe damage is almost certain to ensue after an encounter with a volcanic ash cloud which is only a few hours old.

b. Most important is to avoid any encounter with volcanic ash. The ash plume may not be visible, especially in instrument conditions or at night; and even if visible, it is difficult to distinguish visually

between an ash cloud and an ordinary weather cloud. Volcanic ash clouds are not displayed on airborne or ATC radar. The pilot must rely on reports from air traffic controllers and other pilots to determine the location of the ash cloud and use that information to remain well clear of the area. Additionally, the presence of a sulphur-like odor throughout the cabin may indicate the presence of SO₂ emitted by volcanic activity, but may or may not indicate the presence of volcanic ash. Every attempt should be made to remain on the upwind side of the volcano.

c. It is recommended that pilots encountering an ash cloud should immediately reduce thrust to idle (altitude permitting), and reverse course in order to escape from the cloud. Ash clouds may extend for hundreds of miles and pilots should not attempt to fly through or climb out of the cloud. In addition, the following procedures are recommended:

1. Disengage the autothrottle if engaged. This will prevent the autothrottle from increasing engine thrust;

2. Turn on continuous ignition;

3. Turn on all accessory airbleeds including all air conditioning packs, nacelles, and wing anti-ice. This will provide an additional engine stall margin by reducing engine pressure.

d. The following has been reported by flightcrews who have experienced encounters with volcanic dust clouds:

1. Smoke or dust appearing in the cockpit.

2. An acrid odor similar to electrical smoke.

3. Multiple engine malfunctions, such as compressor stalls, increasing EGT, torching from tailpipe, and flameouts.

4. At night, St. Elmo's fire or other static discharges accompanied by a bright orange glow in the engine inlets.

5. A fire warning in the forward cargo area.

e. It may become necessary to shut down and then restart engines to prevent exceeding EGT limits. Volcanic ash may block the pitot system and result in unreliable airspeed indications.

f. If you see a volcanic eruption and have not been previously notified of it, you may have been the first person to observe it. In this case, immediately contact ATC and alert them to the existence of the eruption.

If possible, use the Volcanic Activity Reporting form (VAR) depicted in Appendix 2 of this manual. Items 1 through 8 of the VAR should be transmitted immediately. The information requested in items 9 through 16 should be passed after landing. If a VAR form is not immediately available, relay enough information to identify the position and nature of the volcanic activity. Do not become unnecessarily alarmed if there is merely steam or very low-level eruptions of ash.

g. When landing at airports where volcanic ash has been deposited on the runway, be aware that even a thin layer of dry ash can be detrimental to braking action. Wet ash on the runway may also reduce effectiveness of braking. It is recommended that reverse thrust be limited to minimum practical to reduce the possibility of reduced visibility and engine ingestion of airborne ash.

h. When departing from airports where volcanic ash has been deposited, it is recommended that pilots avoid operating in visible airborne ash. Allow ash to settle before initiating takeoff roll. It is also recommended that flap extension be delayed until initiating the before takeoff checklist and that a rolling takeoff be executed to avoid blowing ash back into the air.

7-6-11. Emergency Airborne Inspection of Other Aircraft

a. Providing airborne assistance to another aircraft may involve flying in very close proximity to that aircraft. Most pilots receive little, if any, formal training or instruction in this type of flying activity. Close proximity flying without sufficient time to plan (i.e., in an emergency situation), coupled with the stress involved in a perceived emergency can be hazardous.

b. The pilot in the best position to assess the situation should take the responsibility of coordinating the airborne intercept and inspection, and take into account the unique flight characteristics and differences of the category(s) of aircraft involved.

c. Some of the safety considerations are:

1. Area, direction and speed of the intercept;
2. Aerodynamic effects (i.e., rotorcraft down-wash);

3. Minimum safe separation distances;
 4. Communications requirements, lost communications procedures, coordination with ATC;
 5. Suitability of diverting the distressed aircraft to the nearest safe airport; and
 6. Emergency actions to terminate the intercept.
- d.** Close proximity, inflight inspection of another aircraft is uniquely hazardous. The pilot-in-command of the aircraft experiencing the problem/emergency must not relinquish control of the situation and/or jeopardize the safety of their aircraft. The maneuver must be accomplished with minimum risk to both aircraft.

7-6-12. Precipitation Static

a. Precipitation static is caused by aircraft in flight coming in contact with uncharged particles. These particles can be rain, snow, fog, sleet, hail, volcanic ash, dust; any solid or liquid particles. When the aircraft strikes these neutral particles the positive element of the particle is reflected away from the aircraft and the negative particle adheres to the skin of the aircraft. In a very short period of time a substantial negative charge will develop on the skin of the aircraft. If the aircraft is not equipped with static dischargers, or has an ineffective static discharger system, when a sufficient negative voltage level is reached, the aircraft may go into "CORONA." That is, it will discharge the static electricity from the extremities of the aircraft, such as the wing tips, horizontal stabilizer, vertical stabilizer, antenna, propeller tips, etc. This discharge of static electricity is what you will hear in your headphones and is what we call P-static.

b. A review of pilot reports often shows different symptoms with each problem that is encountered. The following list of problems is a summary of many pilot reports from many different aircraft. Each problem was caused by P-static:

1. Complete loss of VHF communications.
2. Erroneous magnetic compass readings (30 percent in error).
3. High pitched squeal on audio.
4. Motor boat sound on audio.
5. Loss of all avionics in clouds.

6. VLF navigation system inoperative most of the time.

7. Erratic instrument readouts.

8. Weak transmissions and poor receptivity of radios.

9. “St. Elmo’s Fire” on windshield.

c. Each of these symptoms is caused by one general problem on the airframe. This problem is the inability of the accumulated charge to flow easily to the wing tips and tail of the airframe, and properly discharge to the airstream.

d. Static dischargers work on the principal of creating a relatively easy path for discharging negative charges that develop on the aircraft by using a discharger with fine metal points, carbon coated rods, or carbon wicks rather than wait until a large charge is developed and discharged off the trailing edges of the aircraft that will interfere with avionics equipment. This process offers approximately 50 decibels (dB) static noise reduction which is adequate in most cases to be below the threshold of noise that would cause interference in avionics equipment.

e. It is important to remember that precipitation static problems can only be corrected with the proper number of quality static dischargers, properly installed on a properly bonded aircraft. P-static is indeed a problem in the all weather operation of the aircraft, but there are effective ways to combat it. All possible methods of reducing the effects of P-static should be considered so as to provide the best possible performance in the flight environment.

f. A wide variety of discharger designs is available on the commercial market. The inclusion of well-designed dischargers may be expected to improve airframe noise in P-static conditions by as much as 50 dB. Essentially, the discharger provides a path by which accumulated charge may leave the airframe quietly. This is generally accomplished by providing a group of tiny corona points to permit onset of corona-current flow at a low aircraft potential. Additionally, aerodynamic design of dischargers to permit corona to occur at the lowest possible atmospheric pressure also lowers the corona threshold. In addition to permitting a low-potential discharge, the discharger will minimize the radiation of radio frequency (RF) energy which accompanies

the corona discharge, in order to minimize effects of RF components at communications and navigation frequencies on avionics performance. These effects are reduced through resistive attachment of the corona point(s) to the airframe, preserving direct current connection but attenuating the higher-frequency components of the discharge.

g. Each manufacturer of static dischargers offers information concerning appropriate discharger location on specific airframes. Such locations emphasize the trailing outboard surfaces of wings and horizontal tail surfaces, plus the tip of the vertical stabilizer, where charge tends to accumulate on the airframe. Sufficient dischargers must be provided to allow for current-carrying capacity which will maintain airframe potential below the corona threshold of the trailing edges.

h. In order to achieve full performance of avionic equipment, the static discharge system will require periodic maintenance. A pilot knowledgeable of P-static causes and effects is an important element in assuring optimum performance by early recognition of these types of problems.

7-6-13. Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation (Laser) Operations and Reporting Illumination of Aircraft

a. Lasers have many applications. Of concern to users of the National Airspace System are those laser events that may affect pilots, e.g., outdoor laser light shows or demonstrations for entertainment and advertisements at special events and theme parks. Generally, the beams from these events appear as bright blue-green in color; however, they may be red, yellow, or white. However, some laser systems produce light which is invisible to the human eye.

b. FAA regulations prohibit the disruption of aviation activity by any person on the ground or in the air. The FAA and the Food and Drug Administration (the Federal agency that has the responsibility to enforce compliance with Federal requirements for laser systems and laser light show products) are working together to ensure that operators of these devices do not pose a hazard to aircraft operators.

c. Pilots should be aware that illumination from these laser operations are able to create temporary vision impairment miles from the actual location. In addition, these operations can produce permanent eye damage. Pilots should make themselves aware of

where these activities are being conducted and avoid these areas if possible.

d. Recent and increasing incidents of unauthorized illumination of aircraft by lasers, as well as the proliferation and increasing sophistication of laser devices available to the general public, dictates that the FAA, in coordination with other government agencies, take action to safeguard flights from these unauthorized illuminations.

e. Pilots should report laser illumination activity to the controlling Air Traffic Control facilities, Federal Contract Towers or Flight Service Stations as soon as possible after the event. The following information should be included:

1. UTC Date and Time of Event.
2. Call Sign or Aircraft Registration Number.
3. Type Aircraft.
4. Nearest Major City.
5. Altitude.
6. Location of Event (Latitude/Longitude and/or Fixed Radial Distance (FRD)).
7. Brief Description of the Event and any other Pertinent Information.

f. Pilots are also encouraged to complete the Laser Beam Exposure Questionnaire located on the FAA Laser Safety Initiative website at <http://www.faa.gov/about/initiatives/lasers/> and submit electronically per the directions on the questionnaire, as soon as possible after landing.

g. When a laser event is reported to an air traffic facility, a general caution warning will be broadcasted on all appropriate frequencies every five minutes for 20 minutes and broadcasted on the ATIS for one hour following the report.

PHRASEOLOGY–

UNAUTHORIZED LASER ILLUMINATION EVENT, (UTC time), (location), (altitude), (color), (direction).

EXAMPLE–

“Unauthorized laser illumination event, at 0100z, 8 mile final runway 18R at 3,000 feet, green laser from the southwest.”

REFERENCE–

FAA Order JO 7110.65, Para 10–2–14, *Unauthorized Laser Illumination of Aircraft*.

FAA Order JO 7210.3, Para 2–1–27, *Reporting Unauthorized Laser Illumination of Aircraft*.

h. When these activities become known to the FAA, Notices to Air Missions (NOTAMs) are issued to inform the aviation community of the events. Pilots should consult NOTAMs or the Special Notices section of the Chart Supplement U.S. for information regarding these activities.

7–6–14. Flying in Flat Light, Brown Out Conditions, and White Out Conditions

a. Flat Light. Flat light is an optical illusion, also known as “**sector or partial white out.**” It is not as severe as “white out” but the condition causes pilots to lose their depth-of-field and contrast in vision. Flat light conditions are usually accompanied by overcast skies inhibiting any visual clues. Such conditions can occur anywhere in the world, primarily in snow covered areas but can occur in dust, sand, mud flats, or on glassy water. Flat light can completely obscure features of the terrain, creating an inability to distinguish distances and closure rates. As a result of this reflected light, it can give pilots the illusion that they are ascending or descending when they may actually be flying level. However, with good judgment and proper training and planning, it is possible to safely operate an aircraft in flat light conditions.

b. Brown Out. A brownout (or *brown-out*) is an in-flight visibility restriction due to dust or sand in the air. In a brownout, the pilot cannot see nearby objects which provide the outside visual references necessary to control the aircraft near the ground. This can cause spatial disorientation and loss of situational awareness leading to an accident.

1. The following factors will affect the probability and severity of brownout: rotor disk loading, rotor configuration, soil composition, wind, approach speed, and approach angle.

2. The brownout phenomenon causes accidents during helicopter landing and take-off operations in dust, fine dirt, sand, or arid desert terrain. Intense, blinding dust clouds stirred up by the helicopter rotor downwash during near-ground flight causes significant flight safety risks from aircraft and ground obstacle collisions, and dynamic rollover due to sloped and uneven terrain.

3. This is a dangerous phenomenon experienced by many helicopters when making landing approaches in dusty environments, whereby sand or dust particles become swept up in the rotor outwash and

obscure the pilot's vision of the terrain. This is particularly dangerous because the pilot needs those visual cues from their surroundings in order to make a safe landing.

4. Blowing sand and dust can cause an illusion of a tilted horizon. A pilot not using the flight instruments for reference may instinctively try to level the aircraft with respect to the false horizon, resulting in an accident. Helicopter rotor wash also causes sand to blow around outside the cockpit windows, possibly leading the pilot to experience an illusion where the helicopter appears to be turning when it is actually in a level hover. This can also cause the pilot to make incorrect control inputs which can quickly lead to disaster when hovering near the ground. In night landings, aircraft lighting can enhance the visual illusions by illuminating the brownout cloud.

c. White Out. As defined in meteorological terms, white out occurs when a person becomes engulfed in a uniformly white glow. The glow is a result of being surrounded by blowing snow, dust, sand, mud or water. There are no shadows, no horizon or clouds and all depth-of-field and orientation are lost. A white out situation is severe in that there are no visual references. Flying is not recommended in any white out situation. Flat light conditions can lead to a white out environment quite rapidly, and both atmospheric conditions are insidious; they sneak up on you as your visual references slowly begin to disappear. White out has been the cause of several aviation accidents.

d. Self Induced White Out. This effect typically occurs when a helicopter takes off or lands on a snow-covered area. The rotor down wash picks up particles and re-circulates them through the rotor down wash. The effect can vary in intensity depending upon the amount of light on the surface. This can happen on the sunniest, brightest day with good contrast everywhere. However, when it happens, there can be a complete loss of visual clues. If the pilot has not prepared for this immediate loss of visibility, the results can be disastrous. Good planning does not prevent one from encountering flat light or white out conditions.

e. Never take off in a white out situation.

1. Realize that in flat light conditions it may be possible to depart but not to return to that site. During

takeoff, make sure you have a reference point. Do not lose sight of it until you have a departure reference point in view. Be prepared to return to the takeoff reference if the departure reference does not come into view.

2. Flat light is common to snow skiers. One way to compensate for the lack of visual contrast and depth-of-field loss is by wearing amber tinted lenses (also known as blue blockers). Special note of caution: Eyewear is not ideal for every pilot. Take into consideration personal factors – age, light sensitivity, and ambient lighting conditions.

3. So what should a pilot do when all visual references are lost?

(a) Trust the cockpit instruments.

(b) Execute a 180 degree turnaround and start looking for outside references.

(c) Above all – fly the aircraft.

f. Landing in Low Light Conditions. When landing in a low light condition – use extreme caution. Look for intermediate reference points, in addition to checkpoints along each leg of the route for course confirmation and timing. The lower the ambient light becomes, the more reference points a pilot should use.

g. Airport Landings.

1. Look for features around the airport or approach path that can be used in determining depth perception. Buildings, towers, vehicles or other aircraft serve well for this measurement. Use something that will provide you with a sense of height above the ground, in addition to orienting you to the runway.

2. Be cautious of snowdrifts and snow banks – anything that can distinguish the edge of the runway. Look for subtle changes in snow texture or shading to identify ridges or changes in snow depth.

h. Off-Airport Landings.

1. In the event of an off-airport landing, pilots have used a number of different visual cues to gain reference. Use whatever you must to create the contrast you need. Natural references seem to work best (trees, rocks, snow ribs, etc.)

(a) Over flight.

(b) Use of markers.

- (c) Weighted flags.
- (d) Smoke bombs.
- (e) Any colored rags.
- (f) Dye markers.
- (g) Kool-aid.
- (h) Trees or tree branches.

2. It is difficult to determine the depth of snow in areas that are level. Dropping items from the aircraft to use as reference points should be used as a visual aid only and not as a primary landing reference. Unless your marker is biodegradable, be sure to retrieve it after landing. Never put yourself in a position where no visual references exist.

3. Abort landing if blowing snow obscures your reference. Make your decisions early. Don't assume you can pick up a lost reference point when you get closer.

4. Exercise extreme caution when flying from sunlight into shade. Physical awareness may tell you that you are flying straight but you may actually be in a spiral dive with centrifugal force pressing against you. Having no visual references enhances this illusion. Just because you have a good visual reference does not mean that it's safe to continue. There may be snow-covered terrain not visible in the direction that you are traveling. Getting caught in a no visual reference situation can be fatal.

i. Flying Around a Lake.

1. When flying along lakeshores, use them as a reference point. Even if you can see the other side, realize that your depth perception may be poor. It is easy to fly into the surface. If you must cross the lake, check the altimeter frequently and maintain a safe altitude while you still have a good reference. Don't descend below that altitude.

2. The same rules apply to seemingly flat areas of snow. If you don't have good references, avoid going there.

j. Other Traffic. Be on the look out for other traffic in the area. Other aircraft may be using your same reference point. Chances are greater of colliding with someone traveling in the same direction as you, than someone flying in the opposite direction.

k. Ceilings. Low ceilings have caught many pilots off guard. Clouds do not always form parallel to the surface, or at the same altitude. Pilots may try to compensate for this by flying with a slight bank and thus creating a descending turn.

l. Glaciers. Be conscious of your altitude when flying over glaciers. The glaciers may be rising faster than you are climbing.

7-6-15. Operations in Ground Icing Conditions

a. The presence of aircraft airframe icing during takeoff, typically caused by improper or no deicing of the aircraft being accomplished prior to flight has contributed to many recent accidents in turbine aircraft. The General Aviation Joint Steering Committee (GAJSC) is the primary vehicle for government-industry cooperation, communication, and coordination on GA accident mitigation. The Turbine Aircraft Operations Subgroup (TAOS) works to mitigate accidents in turbine accident aviation. While there is sufficient information and guidance currently available regarding the effects of icing on aircraft and methods for deicing, the TAOS has developed a list of recommended actions to further assist pilots and operators in this area.

While the efforts of the TAOS specifically focus on turbine aircraft, it is recognized that their recommendations are applicable to and can be adapted for the pilot of a small, piston powered aircraft too.

b. The following recommendations are offered:

1. Ensure that your aircraft's lift-generating surfaces are COMPLETELY free of contamination before flight through a tactile (hands on) check of the critical surfaces when feasible. Even when otherwise permitted, operators should avoid smooth or polished frost on lift-generating surfaces as an acceptable preflight condition.

2. Review and refresh your cold weather standard operating procedures.

3. Review and be familiar with the Airplane Flight Manual (AFM) limitations and procedures necessary to deal with icing conditions prior to flight, as well as in flight.

4. Protect your aircraft while on the ground, if possible, from sleet and freezing rain by taking advantage of aircraft hangars.

5. Take full advantage of the opportunities available at airports for deicing. Do not refuse deicing services simply because of cost.

6. Always consider canceling or delaying a flight if weather conditions do not support a safe operation.

c. If you haven't already developed a set of Standard Operating Procedures for cold weather operations, they should include:

1. Procedures based on information that is applicable to the aircraft operated, such as AFM limitations and procedures;

2. Concise and easy to understand guidance that outlines best operational practices;

3. A systematic procedure for recognizing, evaluating and addressing the associated icing risk, and offer clear guidance to mitigate this risk;

4. An aid (such as a checklist or reference cards) that is readily available during normal day-to-day aircraft operations.

d. There are several sources for guidance relating to airframe icing, including:

1. <http://aircrafticing.grc.nasa.gov/index.html>

2. <http://www.ibac.org/is-bao/isbao.htm>

3. http://www.natasafety1st.org/bus_deice.htm

4. Advisory Circular (AC) 91-74, Pilot Guide, Flight in Icing Conditions.

5. AC 135-17, Pilot Guide Small Aircraft Ground Deicing.

6. AC 135-9, FAR Part 135 Icing Limitations.

7. AC 120-60, Ground Deicing and Anti-icing Program.

8. AC 135-16, Ground Deicing and Anti-icing Training and Checking.

The FAA Approved Deicing Program Updates is published annually as a Flight Standards Information Bulletin for Air Transportation and contains detailed information on deicing and anti-icing procedures and holdover times. It may be accessed at the following website by selecting the current year's information bulletins:

http://www.faa.gov/library/manuals/examiners_inspectors/8400/fsat

7-6-16. Avoid Flight in the Vicinity of Exhaust Plumes (Smoke Stacks and Cooling Towers)

a. Flight Hazards Exist Around Exhaust Plumes. Exhaust plumes are defined as visible or invisible emissions from power plants, industrial production facilities, or other industrial systems that release large amounts of vertically directed unstable gases (effluent). High temperature exhaust plumes can cause significant air disturbances such as turbulence and vertical shear. Other identified potential hazards include, but are not necessarily limited to: reduced visibility, oxygen depletion, engine particulate contamination, exposure to gaseous oxides, and/or icing. Results of encountering a plume may include airframe damage, aircraft upset, and/or engine damage/failure. These hazards are most critical during low altitude flight in calm and cold air, especially in and around approach and departure corridors or airport traffic areas.

Whether plumes are visible or invisible, the total extent of their turbulent affect is difficult to predict. Some studies do predict that the significant turbulent effects of an exhaust plume can extend to heights of over 1,000 feet above the height of the top of the stack or cooling tower. Any effects will be more pronounced in calm stable air where the plume is very hot and the surrounding area is still and cold. Fortunately, studies also predict that any amount of crosswind will help to dissipate the effects. However, the size of the tower or stack is not a good indicator of the predicted effect the plume may produce. The major effects are related to the heat or size of the plume effluent, the ambient air temperature, and the wind speed affecting the plume. Smaller aircraft can expect to feel an effect at a higher altitude than heavier aircraft.

b. When able, a pilot should steer clear of exhaust plumes by flying on the upwind side of smokestacks or cooling towers. When a plume is visible via smoke or a condensation cloud, remain clear and realize a plume may have both visible and invisible characteristics. Exhaust stacks without visible plumes may still be in full operation, and airspace in the vicinity should be treated with caution. As with mountain wave turbulence or clear air turbulence, an invisible plume may be encountered unexpectedly. Cooling towers, power plant stacks,

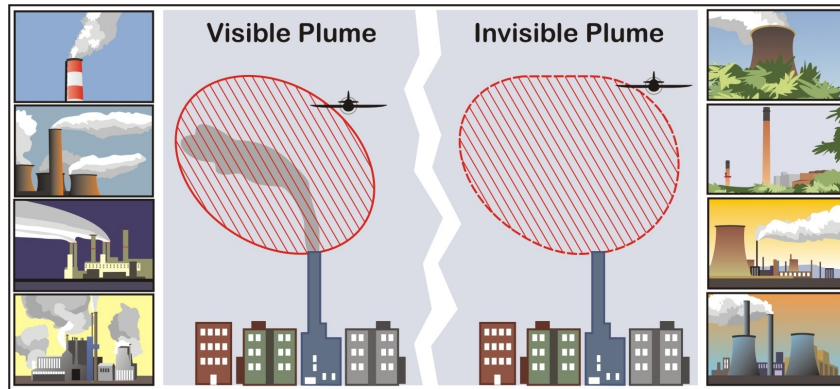
exhaust fans, and other similar structures are depicted in FIG 7-6-2.

Pilots are encouraged to exercise caution when flying in the vicinity of exhaust plumes. Pilots are also encouraged to reference the Chart Supplement U.S. where amplifying notes may caution pilots and identify the location of structure(s) emitting exhaust plumes.

The best available information on this phenomenon

must come from pilots via the PIREP reporting procedures. All pilots encountering hazardous plume conditions are urgently requested to report time, location, and intensity (light, moderate, severe, or extreme) of the element to the FAA facility with which they are maintaining radio contact. If time and conditions permit, elements should be reported according to the standards for other PIREPs and position reports (AIM paragraph 7-1-21, PIREPS Relating to Turbulence).

FIG 7-6-2
Plumes



7-6-17. Space Launch and Reentry Area

Locations where commercial space launch and/or reentry operations occur. Hazardous operations occur in space launch and reentry areas, and for pilot awareness, a rocket-shaped symbol is used to depict them on sectional aeronautical charts. These locations may have vertical launches from launch pads, horizontal launches from runways, and/or reentering vehicles coming back to land. Because of the wide range of hazards associated with space launch and reentry areas, pilots are expected to check NOTAMs for the specific area prior to flight to determine the location and lateral boundaries of the associated hazard area, and the active time. NOTAMs may include terms such as “rocket launch activity,” “space launch,” or “space reentry,” depending upon the type of operation. Space launch and reentry areas

are not established for amateur rocket operations conducted per 14 CFR Part 101.

FIG 7-6-3
Space Launch and Reentry Area Depicted on a Sectional Chart



(c) Transponder Capabilities (Item 10b)

- For domestic flights, it is not necessary to indicate Mode S capability. It is acceptable to simply file one of the following codes in TBL 4–8.

TBL 4–8**Mode C**

Capability	Item 10b
Transponder with no Mode C	A
Transponder with Mode C	C

- International flights must file in accordance with relevant AIPs and regional supplements. Include one of the Mode S codes in TBL 4–9, if appropriate.

NOTE–

File only one transponder code.

TBL 4–9**Mode S**

Capability	Aircraft ID	Altitude Encoding	Item 10b
Mode S Transponder	No	No	X
Mode S Transponder	No	Yes	P
Mode S Transponder	Yes	No	I
Mode S Transponder	Yes	Yes	S
Mode S Transponder with Extended Squitter	Yes	Yes	E
Enhanced Mode S Transponder	Yes	Yes	H
Enhanced Mode S Transponder with Extended Squitter	Yes	Yes	L

(d) ADS–B Capabilities (Item 10b, Item 18 SUR/ and Item 18 CODE/)

- Indicate ADS–B capability as shown in TBL 4–10. The accompanying entry in Item 18 indicates that the equipment is compliant with 14 CFR §91.227. Some ADS–B equipment used in other countries is based on an earlier standard and does not meet U.S. requirements.
- Do not file an ADS–B code for “in” capability only. There is currently no way to indicate that an aircraft has “in” capability but no “out” capability.
- For aircraft with ADS–B “out” on one frequency and “in” on another, include only the ADS–B “out” code. For example, B1 or U1, (See TBL 4–10).

TBL 4–10**ADS–B Capabilities**

Capability	Item 10b	Item 18 SUR/
1090 ES Out Capability	B1	260B
1090 ES Out and In Capability	B2	260B
UAT Out Capability	U1	282B
UAT Out and In Capability	U2	282B

(e) Voice Communication Capabilities (Item 10a)

The FAA does not require indication of voice communication capabilities in a flight plan for domestic flights, but it is permissible. For flights outside the domestic United States, all relevant capabilities must be indicated as follows (See TBL 4–11):

**TBL 4–11
Voice Communication Capabilities**

Capability	Item 10a
VHF Radio	V
UHF Radio	U
HF Radio	H
VHF Radio (8.33 kHz Spacing)	Y
ATC SATVOICE (INMARSAT)	M1
ATC SATVOICE (Iridium)	M3

(f) Approach Aid Capabilities (Item 10a).

The FAA does not require filing of approach aid capability in order to request a specific type of approach, however any of the codes indicated in TBL 4–12 in 10a are permissible.

- International flights may be required to indicate approach capability, based on instructions from relevant service providers.

**TBL 4–12
Approach Aid Capabilities**

Capability	Item 10a
ILS	L
MLS	K
LPV Approach (APV with SBAS) (WAAS)	B
GBAS Landing System (LAAS)	A

6. Performance–Based Navigation Routes (Item 10a, Item 18 PBN/, Item 18 NAV/)– When planning to fly routes that require PBN capability, file the appropriate capability as shown in TBL 4–13.

TBL 4-16

**Filing for 30 NM Lateral, 30 NM Longitudinal, and 50 NM Longitudinal Oceanic Separation
in Anchorage, Oakland, and New York Oceanic CTAs**

Dimension of Separation	Separation Minima	ADS-C Surveillance Requirements	Comm. Requirement	PBN Requirement	Flight Plan Entries			
					ADS-C in Item 10b	CPDLC in Item 10a	PBN in Item 18 PBN/ (also File 'R' in Item 10a)	PBN in Item 18 NAV/
Longitudinal	50 NM	Position report at least every 27 minutes (at least every 32 minutes if both aircraft are approved for RNP-4 operations)	CPDLC	RNP10	D1	J5 and/or J7	A1	N/A
Longitudinal	30 NM	ADS-C position report at least every 10 minutes	CPDLC	RNP4	D1	J5 and/or J7	L1	N/A
Lateral	30 NM	ADS-C-based lateral deviation event contract with 5NM lateral deviation from planned routing set as threshold for triggering ADS report of lateral deviation event	CPDLC	RNP4	D1	J5 and/or J7	L1	N/A

TBL 4-17

Filing for Reduced Oceanic Separation when RSP/RCP Required on March 29, 2018

Dimension of Separation	Separation Minima	RSP Requirement	RCP Requirement	PBN Requirement	Flight Plan Entries				
					RSP in Item 18 SUR/	RCP in Item 10a	CDPLC in Item 10a	PBN in Item 18 PBN/ (also File 'R' in Item 10a)	PBN in Item 18 NAV/
Lateral	55.5 km 30 NM	180	240	RNP 2 or RNP4	RSP180	P2	J5 and/ or J7	L1	
Performance-based Longitudinal	5 Minutes	180	240	RNAV 10 (RNP10) RNP4, or RNP2	RSP180	P2	J5 and/ or J7	A1 or L1	RNP2(See Note)
Performance-based Longitudinal	55.5 km 30 NM	180	240	RNP4 or RNP2	RSP180	P2	J5 and/ or J7	L1	RNP2(See Note)
Performance-based Longitudinal	93 km 50 NM	180	240	RNAV 10 (RNP10) or RNP4,	RSP180	P2	J5 and/ or J7	A1 or L1	

NOTE-

Filing of RNP2 alone is not supported in FAA controlled airspace; PBN/L1 (for RNP4) must be filed to obtain the indicated separation.

10. Date of Flight (Item 18 DOF/)

Flights planned more than 23 hours after the time the flight plan is filed, must include the date of flight in DOF/ expressed in a six-digit format YYMMDD, where YY equals the year (Y), MM equals the month, and DD equals the day.

NOTE-

FAA ATC systems will not accept flight plans more than 23 hours prior to their proposed departure time. FAA Flight Service and commercial flight planning services generally accept flight plans earlier and forward to ATC at an appropriate time, typically 2 to 4 hours before the flight.

EXAMPLE-

DOF/171130

11. Reasons for Special Handling (Item 18 STS/)

(a) Indicate the applicable Special Handling in Item 18 STS/ as shown in TBL 4-18.

NOTE-

Priority for a flight is not automatically granted based on filing one of these codes but is based on documented procedures. In some cases, additional information may also be required in remarks; follow all such instructions as well.

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:

ADAPTED ROUTES
AIRSPACE RESERVATION
DEBRIS RESPONSE AREA (DRA)
EMBEDDED ROUTE TEXT
HOT SPOT
MOVING AIRSPACE RESERVATION
MOVING ALTITUDE RESERVATION
STATIONARY AIRSPACE RESERVATION

e. Terms Deleted:

PREFERENTIAL ROUTES

f. Terms Modified:

ALTITUDE RESERVATION (ALTRV)
CLEARANCE VOID IF NOT OFF BY (TIME)
MINIMUM SAFE ALTITUDE (MSA)
OCEANIC ERROR REPORT
PRECISION APPROACH RADAR
PREFERRED IFR ROUTES
STATIONARY ALTITUDE RESERVATION (STATIONARY ALTRV)

g. Editorial/format changes were made where necessary. Revision bars were not used due to the insignificant nature of the changes.

A

AAR–

(See AIRPORT ARRIVAL RATE.)

(See ADAPTED ROUTES.)

ABBREVIATED IFR FLIGHT PLANS– An authorization by ATC requiring pilots to submit only that information needed for the purpose of ATC. It includes only a small portion of the usual IFR flight plan information. In certain instances, this may be only aircraft identification, location, and pilot request. Other information may be requested if needed by ATC for separation/control purposes. It is frequently used by aircraft which are airborne and desire an instrument approach or by aircraft which are on the ground and desire a climb to VFR-on-top.

(See VFR-ON-TOP.)

(Refer to AIM.)

ABEAM– An aircraft is “abeam” a fix, point, or object when that fix, point, or object is approximately 90 degrees to the right or left of the aircraft track. Abeam indicates a general position rather than a precise point.

ABORT– To terminate a preplanned aircraft maneuver; e.g., an aborted takeoff.

ABRR–

(See AIRBORNE REROUTE)

ACC [ICAO]–

(See ICAO term AREA CONTROL CENTER.)

ACCELERATE-STOP DISTANCE AVAILABLE– The runway plus stopway length declared available and suitable for the acceleration and deceleration of an airplane aborting a takeoff.

ACCELERATE-STOP DISTANCE AVAILABLE [ICAO]– The length of the take-off run available plus the length of the stopway if provided.

ACDO–

(See AIR CARRIER DISTRICT OFFICE.)

ACKNOWLEDGE– Let me know that you have received and understood this message.

ACL–

(See AIRCRAFT LIST.)

ACLS–

(See AUTOMATIC CARRIER LANDING SYSTEM.)

ACROBATIC FLIGHT– An intentional maneuver involving an abrupt change in an aircraft’s attitude, an abnormal attitude, or abnormal acceleration not necessary for normal flight.

(See ICAO term ACROBATIC FLIGHT.)

(Refer to 14 CFR Part 91.)

ACROBATIC FLIGHT [ICAO]– Maneuvers intentionally performed by an aircraft involving an abrupt change in its attitude, an abnormal attitude, or an abnormal variation in speed.

ACTIVE RUNWAY–

(See RUNWAY IN USE/ACTIVE RUNWAY/DUTY RUNWAY.)

ACTUAL NAVIGATION PERFORMANCE (ANP)–

(See REQUIRED NAVIGATION PERFORMANCE.)

ADAPTED ROUTES– Departure and/or arrival routes that are adapted in ARTCC ERAM computers to accomplish inter/intrafacility controller coordination and to ensure that flight data is posted at the proper control positions. Adapted routes are automatically applied to flight plans where appropriate. When the workload or traffic situation permits, controllers may provide radar vectors or assign requested routes to minimize circuitous routing. Adapted routes are usually confined to one ARTCC’s area and are referred to by the following names or abbreviations:

a. Adapted Arrival Route (AAR). A specific arrival route from an appropriate en route point to an airport or terminal area. It may be included in a Standard Terminal Arrival (STAR) or a Preferred IFR Route.

b. Adapted Departure Route (ADR). A specific departure route from an airport or terminal area to an en route point where there is no further need for flow control. It may be included in an Instrument Departure Procedure (DP) or a Preferred IFR Route.

c. Adapted Departure and Arrival Route (ADAR). A route between two terminals which are within or

immediately adjacent to one ARTCC's area. ADARs are similar to Preferred IFR Routes and may share components, but they are not synonymous.

(See PREFERRED IFR ROUTES.)

ADAR-

(See ADAPTED ROUTES.)

ADDITIONAL SERVICES- Advisory information provided by ATC which includes but is not limited to the following:

a. Traffic advisories.

b. Vectors, when requested by the pilot, to assist aircraft receiving traffic advisories to avoid observed traffic.

c. Altitude deviation information of 300 feet or more from an assigned altitude as observed on a verified (reading correctly) automatic altitude readout (Mode C).

d. Advisories that traffic is no longer a factor.

e. Weather and chaff information.

f. Weather assistance.

g. Bird activity information.

h. Holding pattern surveillance. Additional services are provided to the extent possible contingent only upon the controller's capability to fit them into the performance of higher priority duties and on the basis of limitations of the radar, volume of traffic, frequency congestion, and controller workload. The controller has complete discretion for determining if he/she is able to provide or continue to provide a service in a particular case. The controller's reason not to provide or continue to provide a service in a particular case is not subject to question by the pilot and need not be made known to him/her.

(See TRAFFIC ADVISORIES.)

(Refer to AIM.)

ADF-

(See AUTOMATIC DIRECTION FINDER.)

ADIZ-

(See AIR DEFENSE IDENTIFICATION ZONE.)

ADLY-

(See ARRIVAL DELAY.)

ADMINISTRATOR- The Federal Aviation Administrator or any person to whom he/she has delegated his/her authority in the matter concerned.

ADR-

(See ADAPTED ROUTES.)

(See AIRPORT DEPARTURE RATE.)

ADS [ICAO]-

(See ICAO term AUTOMATIC DEPENDENT SURVEILLANCE.)

ADS-B-

(See AUTOMATIC DEPENDENT SURVEILLANCE-BROADCAST.)

ADS-C-

(See AUTOMATIC DEPENDENT SURVEILLANCE-CONTRACT.)

ADVISE INTENTIONS- Tell me what you plan to do.

ADVISORY- Advice and information provided to assist pilots in the safe conduct of flight and aircraft movement.

(See ADVISORY SERVICE.)

ADVISORY FREQUENCY- The appropriate frequency to be used for Airport Advisory Service.

(See LOCAL AIRPORT ADVISORY.)

(See UNICOM.)

(Refer to ADVISORY CIRCULAR NO. 90-66.)

(Refer to AIM.)

ADVISORY SERVICE- Advice and information provided by a facility to assist pilots in the safe conduct of flight and aircraft movement.

(See ADDITIONAL SERVICES.)

(See LOCAL AIRPORT ADVISORY.)

(See RADAR ADVISORY.)

(See SAFETY ALERT.)

(See TRAFFIC ADVISORIES.)

(Refer to AIM.)

ADW-

(See ARRIVAL DEPARTURE WINDOW)

AERIAL REFUELING- A procedure used by the military to transfer fuel from one aircraft to another during flight.

(Refer to VFR/IFR Wall Planning Charts.)

AERODROME- A defined area on land or water (including any buildings, installations and equipment) intended to be used either wholly or in part for the arrival, departure, and movement of aircraft.

AERODROME BEACON [ICAO]- Aeronautical beacon used to indicate the location of an aerodrome from the air.

AERODROME CONTROL SERVICE [ICAO]– Air traffic control service for aerodrome traffic.

AERODROME CONTROL TOWER [ICAO]– A unit established to provide air traffic control service to aerodrome traffic.

AERODROME ELEVATION [ICAO]– The elevation of the highest point of the landing area.

AERODROME TRAFFIC CIRCUIT [ICAO]– The specified path to be flown by aircraft operating in the vicinity of an aerodrome.

AERONAUTICAL BEACON– A visual NAVAID displaying flashes of white and/or colored light to indicate the location of an airport, a heliport, a landmark, a certain point of a Federal airway in mountainous terrain, or an obstruction.

(See AIRPORT ROTATING BEACON.)

(Refer to AIM.)

AERONAUTICAL CHART– A map used in air navigation containing all or part of the following: topographic features, hazards and obstructions, navigation aids, navigation routes, designated airspace, and airports. Commonly used aeronautical charts are:

a. Sectional Aeronautical Charts (1:500,000)– Designed for visual navigation of slow or medium speed aircraft. Topographic information on these charts features the portrayal of relief and a judicious selection of visual check points for VFR flight. Aeronautical information includes visual and radio aids to navigation, airports, controlled airspace, permanent special use airspace (SUA), obstructions, and related data.

b. VFR Terminal Area Charts (1:250,000)– Depict Class B airspace which provides for the control or segregation of all the aircraft within Class B airspace. The chart depicts topographic information and aeronautical information which includes visual and radio aids to navigation, airports, controlled airspace, permanent SUA, obstructions, and related data.

c. En Route Low Altitude Charts– Provide aeronautical information for en route instrument navigation (IFR) in the low altitude stratum. Information includes the portrayal of airways, limits of controlled airspace, position identification and frequencies of radio aids, selected airports, minimum en route and minimum obstruction clearance altitudes, airway distances, reporting points, perma-

nent SUA, and related data. Area charts, which are a part of this series, furnish terminal data at a larger scale in congested areas.

d. En Route High Altitude Charts– Provide aeronautical information for en route instrument navigation (IFR) in the high altitude stratum. Information includes the portrayal of jet routes, identification and frequencies of radio aids, selected airports, distances, time zones, special use airspace, and related information.

e. Instrument Approach Procedure (IAP) Charts– Portray the aeronautical data which is required to execute an instrument approach to an airport. These charts depict the procedures, including all related data, and the airport diagram. Each procedure is designated for use with a specific type of electronic navigation system including NDB, TACAN, VOR, ILS RNAV and GLS. These charts are identified by the type of navigational aid(s)/equipment required to provide final approach guidance.

f. Instrument Departure Procedure (DP) Charts– Designed to expedite clearance delivery and to facilitate transition between takeoff and en route operations. Each DP is presented as a separate chart and may serve a single airport or more than one airport in a given geographical location.

g. Standard Terminal Arrival (STAR) Charts– Designed to expedite air traffic control arrival procedures and to facilitate transition between en route and instrument approach operations. Each STAR procedure is presented as a separate chart and may serve a single airport or more than one airport in a given geographical location.

h. Airport Taxi Charts– Designed to expedite the efficient and safe flow of ground traffic at an airport. These charts are identified by the official airport name; e.g., Ronald Reagan Washington National Airport.

(See ICAO term AERONAUTICAL CHART.)

AERONAUTICAL CHART [ICAO]– A representation of a portion of the earth, its culture and relief, specifically designated to meet the requirements of air navigation.

AERONAUTICAL INFORMATION MANUAL (AIM)– A primary FAA publication whose purpose is to instruct airmen about operating in the National Airspace System of the U.S. It provides basic flight information, ATC Procedures and general instructional information concerning health, medical facts,

factors affecting flight safety, accident and hazard reporting, and types of aeronautical charts and their use.

AERONAUTICAL INFORMATION PUBLICATION (AIP) [ICAO]– A publication issued by or with the authority of a State and containing aeronautical information of a lasting character essential to air navigation.

(See CHART SUPPLEMENT U.S.)

AERONAUTICAL INFORMATION SERVICES (AIS)– A facility in Silver Spring, MD, established by FAA to operate a central aeronautical information service for the collection, validation, and dissemination of aeronautical data in support of the activities of government, industry, and the aviation community. The information is published in the National Flight Data Digest.

(See NATIONAL FLIGHT DATA DIGEST.)

AFFIRMATIVE– Yes.

AFIS–

(See AUTOMATIC FLIGHT INFORMATION SERVICE – ALASKA FSSs ONLY.)

AFP–

(See AIRSPACE FLOW PROGRAM.)

AHA–

(See AIRCRAFT HAZARD AREA.)

AIM–

(See AERONAUTICAL INFORMATION MANUAL.)

AIP [ICAO]–

(See ICAO term AERONAUTICAL INFORMATION PUBLICATION.)

AIR CARRIER DISTRICT OFFICE– An FAA field office serving an assigned geographical area, staffed with Flight Standards personnel serving the aviation industry and the general public on matters related to the certification and operation of scheduled air carriers and other large aircraft operations.

AIR DEFENSE EMERGENCY– A military emergency condition declared by a designated authority. This condition exists when an attack upon the continental U.S., Alaska, Canada, or U.S. installations in Greenland by hostile aircraft or missiles is considered probable, is imminent, or is taking place.

(Refer to AIM.)

AIR DEFENSE IDENTIFICATION ZONE (ADIZ)– An area of airspace over land or water in which the ready identification, location, and control of all aircraft (except for Department of Defense and law enforcement aircraft) is required in the interest of national security.

Note: ADIZ locations and operating and flight plan requirements for civil aircraft operations are specified in 14 CFR Part 99.

(Refer to AIM.)

AIR NAVIGATION FACILITY– Any facility used in, available for use in, or designed for use in, aid of air navigation, including landing areas, lights, any apparatus or equipment for disseminating weather information, for signaling, for radio-directional finding, or for radio or other electrical communication, and any other structure or mechanism having a similar purpose for guiding or controlling flight in the air or the landing and takeoff of aircraft.

(See NAVIGATIONAL AID.)

AIR ROUTE SURVEILLANCE RADAR– Air route traffic control center (ARTCC) radar used primarily to detect and display an aircraft's position while en route between terminal areas. The ARSR enables controllers to provide radar air traffic control service when aircraft are within the ARSR coverage. In some instances, ARSR may enable an ARTCC to provide terminal radar services similar to but usually more limited than those provided by a radar approach control.

AIR ROUTE TRAFFIC CONTROL CENTER (ARTCC)– A facility established to provide air traffic control service to aircraft operating on IFR flight plans within controlled airspace and principally during the en route phase of flight. When equipment capabilities and controller workload permit, certain advisory/assistance services may be provided to VFR aircraft.

(See EN ROUTE AIR TRAFFIC CONTROL SERVICES.)

(Refer to AIM.)

AIR TAXI– Used to describe a helicopter/VTOL aircraft movement conducted above the surface but normally not above 100 feet AGL. The aircraft may proceed either via hover taxi or flight at speeds more than 20 knots. The pilot is solely responsible for selecting a safe airspeed/altitude for the operation being conducted.

(See HOVER TAXI.)

(Refer to AIM.)

AIR TRAFFIC– Aircraft operating in the air or on an airport surface, exclusive of loading ramps and parking areas.

(See ICAO term AIR TRAFFIC.)

AIR TRAFFIC [ICAO]– All aircraft in flight or operating on the maneuvering area of an aerodrome.

AIR TRAFFIC CLEARANCE– An authorization by air traffic control for the purpose of preventing collision between known aircraft, for an aircraft to proceed under specified traffic conditions within controlled airspace. The pilot-in-command of an aircraft may not deviate from the provisions of a visual flight rules (VFR) or instrument flight rules (IFR) air traffic clearance except in an emergency or unless an amended clearance has been obtained. Additionally, the pilot may request a different clearance from that which has been issued by air traffic control (ATC) if information available to the pilot makes another course of action more practicable or if aircraft equipment limitations or company procedures forbid compliance with the clearance issued. Pilots may also request clarification or amendment, as appropriate, any time a clearance is not fully understood, or considered unacceptable because of safety of flight. Controllers should, in such instances and to the extent of operational practicality and safety, honor the pilot's request. 14 CFR Part 91.3(a) states: "The pilot in command of an aircraft is directly responsible for, and is the final authority as to, the operation of that aircraft." **THE PILOT IS RESPONSIBLE TO REQUEST AN AMENDED CLEARANCE** if ATC issues a clearance that would cause a pilot to deviate from a rule or regulation, or in the pilot's opinion, would place the aircraft in jeopardy.

(See ATC INSTRUCTIONS.)

(See ICAO term AIR TRAFFIC CONTROL CLEARANCE.)

AIR TRAFFIC CONTROL– A service operated by appropriate authority to promote the safe, orderly and expeditious flow of air traffic.

(See ICAO term AIR TRAFFIC CONTROL SERVICE.)

AIR TRAFFIC CONTROL CLEARANCE [ICAO]– Authorization for an aircraft to proceed under conditions specified by an air traffic control unit.

Note 1: For convenience, the term air traffic control clearance is frequently abbreviated to clearance when used in appropriate contexts.

Note 2: The abbreviated term clearance may be prefixed by the words taxi, takeoff, departure, en route, approach or landing to indicate the particular portion of flight to which the air traffic control clearance relates.

AIR TRAFFIC CONTROL SERVICE–

(See AIR TRAFFIC CONTROL.)

AIR TRAFFIC CONTROL SERVICE [ICAO]– A service provided for the purpose of:

a. Preventing collisions:

1. Between aircraft; and

2. On the maneuvering area between aircraft and obstructions.

b. Expediting and maintaining an orderly flow of air traffic.

AIR TRAFFIC CONTROL SPECIALIST– A person authorized to provide air traffic control service.

(See AIR TRAFFIC CONTROL.)

(See FLIGHT SERVICE STATION.)

(See ICAO term CONTROLLER.)

AIR TRAFFIC CONTROL SYSTEM COMMAND CENTER (ATCSCC)– An Air Traffic Tactical Operations facility responsible for monitoring and managing the flow of air traffic throughout the NAS, producing a safe, orderly, and expeditious flow of traffic while minimizing delays. The following functions are located at the ATCSCC:

a. Central Altitude Reservation Function (CARF). Responsible for coordinating, planning, and approving special user requirements under the Altitude Reservation (ALTRV) concept.

(See ALTITUDE RESERVATION.)

b. Airport Reservation Office (ARO). Monitors the operation and allocation of reservations for unscheduled operations at airports designated by the Administrator as High Density Airports. These airports are generally known as slot controlled airports. The ARO allocates reservations on a first

come, first served basis determined by the time the request is received at the ARO.

(Refer to 14 CFR Part 93.)

(See CHART SUPPLEMENT U.S.)

c. U.S. Notice to Air Missions (NOTAM) Office. Responsible for collecting, maintaining, and distributing NOTAMs for the U.S. civilian and military, as well as international aviation communities.

(See NOTICE TO AIR MISSIONS.)

d. Weather Unit. Monitor all aspects of weather for the U.S. that might affect aviation including cloud cover, visibility, winds, precipitation, thunderstorms, icing, turbulence, and more. Provide forecasts based on observations and on discussions with meteorologists from various National Weather Service offices, FAA facilities, airlines, and private weather services.

e. Air Traffic Organization (ATO) Space Operations and Unmanned Aircraft System (UAS); the Office of Primary Responsibility (OPR) for all space and upper class E tactical operations in the National Airspace System (NAS).

AIR TRAFFIC SERVICE– A generic term meaning:

- a. Flight Information Service.**
- b. Alerting Service.**
- c. Air Traffic Advisory Service.**
- d. Air Traffic Control Service:**
 - 1. Area Control Service,**
 - 2. Approach Control Service, or**
 - 3. Airport Control Service.**

AIR TRAFFIC SERVICE (ATS) ROUTES – The term “ATS Route” is a generic term that includes “VOR Federal airways,” “colored Federal airways,” “jet routes,” and “RNAV routes.” The term “ATS route” does not replace these more familiar route names, but serves only as an overall title when listing the types of routes that comprise the United States route structure.

AIRBORNE– An aircraft is considered airborne when all parts of the aircraft are off the ground.

AIRBORNE DELAY– Amount of delay to be encountered in airborne holding.

AIRBORNE REROUTE (ABRR)– A capability within the Traffic Flow Management System used for the timely development and implementation of tactical reroutes for airborne aircraft. This capability

defines a set of aircraft-specific reroutes that address a certain traffic flow problem and then electronically transmits them to En Route Automation Modernization (ERAM) for execution by the appropriate sector controllers.

AIRCRAFT– Device(s) that are used or intended to be used for flight in the air, and when used in air traffic control terminology, may include the flight crew.

(See ICAO term AIRCRAFT.)

AIRCRAFT [ICAO]– Any machine that can derive support in the atmosphere from the reactions of the air other than the reactions of the air against the earth’s surface.

AIRCRAFT APPROACH CATEGORY– A grouping of aircraft based on a speed of 1.3 times the stall speed in the landing configuration at maximum gross landing weight. An aircraft must fit in only one category. If it is necessary to maneuver at speeds in excess of the upper limit of a speed range for a category, the minimums for the category for that speed must be used. For example, an aircraft which falls in Category A, but is circling to land at a speed in excess of 91 knots, must use the approach Category B minimums when circling to land. The categories are as follows:

- a. Category A–** Speed less than 91 knots.
 - b. Category B–** Speed 91 knots or more but less than 121 knots.
 - c. Category C–** Speed 121 knots or more but less than 141 knots.
 - d. Category D–** Speed 141 knots or more but less than 166 knots.
 - e. Category E–** Speed 166 knots or more.
- (Refer to 14 CFR Part 97.)

AIRCRAFT CLASSES– For the purposes of Wake Turbulence Separation Minima, ATC classifies aircraft as Super, Heavy, Large, and Small as follows:

- a. Super.** The Airbus A-380-800 (A388) and the Antonov An-225 (A225) are classified as super.
- b. Heavy–** Aircraft capable of takeoff weights of 300,000 pounds or more whether or not they are operating at this weight during a particular phase of flight.
- c. Large–** Aircraft of more than 41,000 pounds, maximum certificated takeoff weight, up to but not including 300,000 pounds.

d. Small– Aircraft of 41,000 pounds or less maximum certificated takeoff weight.

(Refer to AIM.)

AIRCRAFT CONFLICT– Predicted conflict, within EDST of two aircraft, or between aircraft and airspace. A Red alert is used for conflicts when the predicted minimum separation is 5 nautical miles or less. A Yellow alert is used when the predicted minimum separation is between 5 and approximately 12 nautical miles. A Blue alert is used for conflicts between an aircraft and predefined airspace.

(See EN ROUTE DECISION SUPPORT TOOL.)

AIRCRAFT LIST (ACL)– A view available with EDST that lists aircraft currently in or predicted to be in a particular sector's airspace. The view contains textual flight data information in line format and may be sorted into various orders based on the specific needs of the sector team.

(See EN ROUTE DECISION SUPPORT TOOL.)

AIRCRAFT SURGE LAUNCH AND RECOVERY– Procedures used at USAF bases to provide increased launch and recovery rates in instrument flight rules conditions. ASLAR is based on:

a. Reduced separation between aircraft which is based on time or distance. Standard arrival separation applies between participants including multiple flights until the DRAG point. The DRAG point is a published location on an ASLAR approach where aircraft landing second in a formation slows to a predetermined airspeed. The DRAG point is the reference point at which MARSAs applies as expanding elements effect separation within a flight or between subsequent participating flights.

b. ASLAR procedures shall be covered in a Letter of Agreement between the responsible USAF military ATC facility and the concerned Federal Aviation Administration facility. Initial Approach Fix spacing requirements are normally addressed as a minimum.

AIRCRAFT HAZARD AREA (AHA)– Used by ATC to segregate air traffic from a launch vehicle, reentry vehicle, amateur rocket, jettisoned stages, hardware, or falling debris generated by failures associated with any of these activities. An AHA is designated via NOTAM as either a TFR or stationary

ALTRV. Unless otherwise specified, the vertical limits of an AHA are from the surface to unlimited.

(See CONTINGENCY HAZARD AREA.)

(See REFINED HAZARD AREA.)

(See TRANSITIONAL HAZARD AREA.)

AIRCRAFT WAKE TURBULENCE CATEGORIES– For the purpose of Wake Turbulence Recategorization (RECAT) Separation Minima, ATC groups aircraft into categories ranging from Category A through Category I, dependent upon the version of RECAT that is applied. Specific category assignments vary and are listed in the RECAT Orders.

AIRMEN'S METEOROLOGICAL INFORMATION (AIRMET)– In-flight weather advisories issued only to amend the Aviation Surface Forecast, Aviation Cloud Forecast, or area forecast concerning weather phenomena which are of operational interest to all aircraft and potentially hazardous to aircraft having limited capability because of lack of equipment, instrumentation, or pilot qualifications. AIRMETs concern weather of less severity than that covered by SIGMETs or Convective SIGMETs. AIRMETs cover moderate icing, moderate turbulence, sustained winds of 30 knots or more at the surface, widespread areas of ceilings less than 1,000 feet and/or visibility less than 3 miles, and extensive mountain obscurement.

(See CONVECTIVE SIGMET.)

(See CWA.)

(See SAW.)

(See SIGMET.)

(Refer to AIM.)

AIRPORT– An area on land or water that is used or intended to be used for the landing and takeoff of aircraft and includes its buildings and facilities, if any.

AIRPORT ADVISORY AREA– The area within ten miles of an airport without a control tower or where the tower is not in operation, and on which a Flight Service Station is located.

(See LOCAL AIRPORT ADVISORY.)

(Refer to AIM.)

AIRPORT ARRIVAL RATE (AAR)– A dynamic input parameter specifying the number of arriving aircraft which an airport or airspace can accept from the ARTCC per hour. The AAR is used to calculate the desired interval between successive arrival aircraft.

AIRPORT DEPARTURE RATE (ADR)– A dynamic parameter specifying the number of aircraft which can depart an airport and the airspace can accept per hour.

AIRPORT ELEVATION– The highest point of an airport’s usable runways measured in feet from mean sea level.

(See TOUCHDOWN ZONE ELEVATION.)

(See ICAO term AERODROME ELEVATION.)

AIRPORT LIGHTING– Various lighting aids that may be installed on an airport. Types of airport lighting include:

a. Approach Light System (ALS)– An airport lighting facility which provides visual guidance to landing aircraft by radiating light beams in a directional pattern by which the pilot aligns the aircraft with the extended centerline of the runway on his/her final approach for landing. Condenser-Discharge Sequential Flashing Lights/Sequenced Flashing Lights may be installed in conjunction with the ALS at some airports. Types of Approach Light Systems are:

1. ALSF-1– Approach Light System with Sequenced Flashing Lights in ILS Cat-I configuration.

2. ALSF-2– Approach Light System with Sequenced Flashing Lights in ILS Cat-II configuration. The ALSF-2 may operate as an SSALR when weather conditions permit.

3. SSALF– Simplified Short Approach Light System with Sequenced Flashing Lights.

4. SSALR– Simplified Short Approach Light System with Runway Alignment Indicator Lights.

5. MALSF– Medium Intensity Approach Light System with Sequenced Flashing Lights.

6. MALSR– Medium Intensity Approach Light System with Runway Alignment Indicator Lights.

7. RLLS– Runway Lead-in Light System Consists of one or more series of flashing lights installed at or near ground level that provides positive visual guidance along an approach path, either curving or straight, where special problems exist with hazardous terrain, obstructions, or noise abatement procedures.

8. RAIL– Runway Alignment Indicator Lights– Sequenced Flashing Lights which are installed only in combination with other light systems.

9. ODALS– Omnidirectional Approach Lighting System consists of seven omnidirectional flashing lights located in the approach area of a nonprecision runway. Five lights are located on the runway centerline extended with the first light located 300 feet from the threshold and extending at equal intervals up to 1,500 feet from the threshold. The other two lights are located, one on each side of the runway threshold, at a lateral distance of 40 feet from the runway edge, or 75 feet from the runway edge when installed on a runway equipped with a VASI.

(Refer to FAA Order JO 6850.2, VISUAL GUIDANCE LIGHTING SYSTEMS.)

b. Runway Lights/Runway Edge Lights– Lights having a prescribed angle of emission used to define the lateral limits of a runway. Runway lights are uniformly spaced at intervals of approximately 200 feet, and the intensity may be controlled or preset.

c. Touchdown Zone Lighting– Two rows of transverse light bars located symmetrically about the runway centerline normally at 100 foot intervals. The basic system extends 3,000 feet along the runway.

d. Runway Centerline Lighting– Flush centerline lights spaced at 50-foot intervals beginning 75 feet from the landing threshold and extending to within 75 feet of the opposite end of the runway.

e. Threshold Lights– Fixed green lights arranged symmetrically left and right of the runway centerline, identifying the runway threshold.

f. Runway End Identifier Lights (REIL)– Two synchronized flashing lights, one on each side of the runway threshold, which provide rapid and positive identification of the approach end of a particular runway.

g. Visual Approach Slope Indicator (VASI)– An airport lighting facility providing vertical visual approach slope guidance to aircraft during approach to landing by radiating a directional pattern of high intensity red and white focused light beams which indicate to the pilot that he/she is “on path” if he/she sees red/white, “above path” if white/white, and “below path” if red/red. Some airports serving large aircraft have three-bar VASIs which provide two visual glide paths to the same runway.

h. Precision Approach Path Indicator (PAPI)– An airport lighting facility, similar to VASI, providing vertical approach slope guidance to aircraft during approach to landing. PAPIs consist of a single row of either two or four lights, normally installed on the left

side of the runway, and have an effective visual range of about 5 miles during the day and up to 20 miles at night. PAPIs radiate a directional pattern of high intensity red and white focused light beams which indicate that the pilot is “on path” if the pilot sees an equal number of white lights and red lights, with white to the left of the red; “above path” if the pilot sees more white than red lights; and “below path” if the pilot sees more red than white lights.

i. Boundary Lights– Lights defining the perimeter of an airport or landing area.

(Refer to AIM.)

AIRPORT MARKING AIDS– Markings used on runway and taxiway surfaces to identify a specific runway, a runway threshold, a centerline, a hold line, etc. A runway should be marked in accordance with its present usage such as:

- a. Visual.**
- b. Nonprecision instrument.**
- c. Precision instrument.**

(Refer to AIM.)

AIRPORT REFERENCE POINT (ARP)– The approximate geometric center of all usable runway surfaces.

AIRPORT RESERVATION OFFICE– Office responsible for monitoring the operation of slot controlled airports. It receives and processes requests for unscheduled operations at slot controlled airports.

AIRPORT ROTATING BEACON– A visual NAVAID operated at many airports. At civil airports, alternating white and green flashes indicate the location of the airport. At military airports, the beacons flash alternately white and green, but are differentiated from civil beacons by dualpeaked (two quick) white flashes between the green flashes.

(See INSTRUMENT FLIGHT RULES.)

(See SPECIAL VFR OPERATIONS.)

(See ICAO term AERODROME BEACON.)

(Refer to AIM.)

AIRPORT SURFACE DETECTION EQUIPMENT (ASDE)– Surveillance equipment specifically designed to detect aircraft, vehicular traffic, and other objects, on the surface of an airport, and to present the image on a tower display. Used to augment visual observation by tower personnel of aircraft and/or vehicular movements on runways and taxiways. There are three ASDE systems deployed in the NAS:

a. ASDE-3– a Surface Movement Radar.

b. ASDE-X– a system that uses an X-band Surface Movement Radar, multilateration, and ADS-B.

c. Airport Surface Surveillance Capability (ASSC)– A system that uses Surface Movement Radar, multilateration, and ADS-B.

AIRPORT SURVEILLANCE RADAR– Approach control radar used to detect and display an aircraft’s position in the terminal area. ASR provides range and azimuth information but does not provide elevation data. Coverage of the ASR can extend up to 60 miles.

AIRPORT TAXI CHARTS–

(See AERONAUTICAL CHART.)

AIRPORT TRAFFIC CONTROL SERVICE– A service provided by a control tower for aircraft operating on the movement area and in the vicinity of an airport.

(See MOVEMENT AREA.)

(See TOWER.)

(See ICAO term AERODROME CONTROL SERVICE.)

AIRPORT TRAFFIC CONTROL TOWER–

(See TOWER.)

AIRSPACE CONFLICT– Predicted conflict of an aircraft and active Special Activity Airspace (SAA).

AIRSPACE FLOW PROGRAM (AFP)– AFP is a Traffic Management (TM) process administered by the Air Traffic Control System Command Center (ATCSCC) where aircraft are assigned an Expect Departure Clearance Time (EDCT) in order to manage capacity and demand for a specific area of the National Airspace System (NAS). The purpose of the program is to mitigate the effects of en route constraints. It is a flexible program and may be implemented in various forms depending upon the needs of the air traffic system.

AIRSPACE HIERARCHY– Within the airspace classes, there is a hierarchy and, in the event of an overlap of airspace: Class A preempts Class B, Class B preempts Class C, Class C preempts Class D, Class D preempts Class E, and Class E preempts Class G.

AIRSPEED– The speed of an aircraft relative to its surrounding air mass. The unqualified term “airspeed” means one of the following:

a. Indicated Airspeed– The speed shown on the aircraft airspeed indicator. This is the speed used in

pilot/controller communications under the general term “airspeed.”

(Refer to 14 CFR Part 1.)

b. True Airspeed– The airspeed of an aircraft relative to undisturbed air. Used primarily in flight planning and en route portion of flight. When used in pilot/controller communications, it is referred to as “true airspeed” and not shortened to “airspeed.”

AIRSPACE RESERVATION– The term used in oceanic ATC for airspace utilization under prescribed conditions normally employed for the mass movement of aircraft or other special user requirements which cannot otherwise be accomplished. Airspace reservations must be classified as either “moving” or “stationary.”

(See MOVING AIRSPACE RESERVATION)

(See STATIONARY AIRSPACE RESERVATION.)

(See ALTITUDE RESERVATION.)

AIRSTART– The starting of an aircraft engine while the aircraft is airborne, preceded by engine shutdown during training flights or by actual engine failure.

AIRWAY– A Class E airspace area established in the form of a corridor, the centerline of which is defined by radio navigational aids.

(See FEDERAL AIRWAYS.)

(See ICAO term AIRWAY.)

(Refer to 14 CFR Part 71.)

(Refer to AIM.)

AIRWAY [ICAO]– A control area or portion thereof established in the form of corridor equipped with radio navigational aids.

AIRWAY BEACON– Used to mark airway segments in remote mountain areas. The light flashes Morse Code to identify the beacon site.

(Refer to AIM.)

AIS–

(See AERONAUTICAL INFORMATION SERVICES.)

AIT–

(See AUTOMATED INFORMATION TRANSFER.)

ALERFA (Alert Phase) [ICAO]– A situation wherein apprehension exists as to the safety of an aircraft and its occupants.

ALERT– A notification to a position that there is an aircraft-to-aircraft or aircraft-to-airspace

conflict, as detected by Automated Problem Detection (APD).

ALERT AREA–

(See SPECIAL USE AIRSPACE.)

ALERT NOTICE (ALNOT)– A request originated by a flight service station (FSS) or an air route traffic control center (ARTCC) for an extensive communication search for overdue, unreported, or missing aircraft.

ALERTING SERVICE– A service provided to notify appropriate organizations regarding aircraft in need of search and rescue aid and assist such organizations as required.

ALNOT–

(See ALERT NOTICE.)

ALONG-TRACK DISTANCE (ATD)– The horizontal distance between the aircraft’s current position and a fix measured by an area navigation system that is not subject to slant range errors.

ALPHANUMERIC DISPLAY– Letters and numerals used to show identification, altitude, beacon code, and other information concerning a target on a radar display.

(See AUTOMATED RADAR TERMINAL SYSTEMS.)

ALTERNATE AERODROME [ICAO]– An aerodrome to which an aircraft may proceed when it becomes either impossible or inadvisable to proceed to or to land at the aerodrome of intended landing.

Note: The aerodrome from which a flight departs may also be an en-route or a destination alternate aerodrome for the flight.

ALTERNATE AIRPORT– An airport at which an aircraft may land if a landing at the intended airport becomes inadvisable.

(See ICAO term ALTERNATE AERODROME.)

ALTIMETER SETTING– The barometric pressure reading used to adjust a pressure altimeter for variations in existing atmospheric pressure or to the standard altimeter setting (29.92).

(Refer to 14 CFR Part 91.)

(Refer to AIM.)

ALTITUDE– The height of a level, point, or object measured in feet Above Ground Level (AGL) or from Mean Sea Level (MSL).

(See FLIGHT LEVEL.)

a. MSL Altitude– Altitude expressed in feet measured from mean sea level.

b. AGL Altitude– Altitude expressed in feet measured above ground level.

c. Indicated Altitude– The altitude as shown by an altimeter. On a pressure or barometric altimeter it is altitude as shown uncorrected for instrument error and uncompensated for variation from standard atmospheric conditions.

(See ICAO term **ALTITUDE**.)

ALTITUDE [ICAO]– The vertical distance of a level, a point or an object considered as a point, measured from mean sea level (MSL).

ALTITUDE READOUT– An aircraft’s altitude, transmitted via the Mode C transponder feature, that is visually displayed in 100-foot increments on a radar scope having readout capability.

(See **ALPHANUMERIC DISPLAY**.)

(See **AUTOMATED RADAR TERMINAL SYSTEMS**.)

(Refer to **AIM**.)

ALTITUDE RESERVATION (ALTRV)– Airspace utilization under prescribed conditions normally employed for the mass movement of aircraft or other special user requirements which cannot otherwise be accomplished. ALTRVs are approved by the appropriate FAA facility. ALTRVs must be classified as either “moving” or “stationary.”

(See **MOVING ALTITUDE RESERVATION**.)

(See **STATIONARY ALTITUDE RESERVATION**.)

(See **AIR TRAFFIC CONTROL SYSTEM COMMAND CENTER**.)

ALTITUDE RESTRICTION– An altitude or altitudes, stated in the order flown, which are to be maintained until reaching a specific point or time. Altitude restrictions may be issued by ATC due to traffic, terrain, or other airspace considerations.

ALTITUDE RESTRICTIONS ARE CANCELED– Adherence to previously imposed altitude restrictions is no longer required during a climb or descent.

ALTRV–

(See **ALTITUDE RESERVATION**.)

AMVER–

(See **AUTOMATED MUTUAL-ASSISTANCE VESSEL RESCUE SYSTEM**.)

APB–

(See **AUTOMATED PROBLEM DETECTION BOUNDARY**.)

APD–

(See **AUTOMATED PROBLEM DETECTION**.)

APDIA–

(See **AUTOMATED PROBLEM DETECTION INHIBITED AREA**.)

APPROACH CLEARANCE– Authorization by ATC for a pilot to conduct an instrument approach. The type of instrument approach for which a clearance and other pertinent information is provided in the approach clearance when required.

(See **CLEARED APPROACH**.)

(See **INSTRUMENT APPROACH PROCEDURE**.)

(Refer to **AIM**.)

(Refer to 14 CFR Part 91.)

APPROACH CONTROL FACILITY– A terminal ATC facility that provides approach control service in a terminal area.

(See **APPROACH CONTROL SERVICE**.)

(See **RADAR APPROACH CONTROL FACILITY**.)

APPROACH CONTROL SERVICE– Air traffic control service provided by an approach control facility for arriving and departing VFR/IFR aircraft and, on occasion, en route aircraft. At some airports not served by an approach control facility, the ARTCC provides limited approach control service.

(See ICAO term **APPROACH CONTROL SERVICE**.)

(Refer to **AIM**.)

APPROACH CONTROL SERVICE [ICAO]– Air traffic control service for arriving or departing controlled flights.

APPROACH GATE– An imaginary point used within ATC as a basis for vectoring aircraft to the final approach course. The gate will be established along the final approach course 1 mile from the final approach fix on the side away from the airport and will be no closer than 5 miles from the landing threshold.

APPROACH/DEPARTURE HOLD AREA– The locations on taxiways in the approach or departure areas of a runway designated to protect landing or departing aircraft. These locations are identified by signs and markings.

APPROACH LIGHT SYSTEM–

(See **AIRPORT LIGHTING**.)

APPROACH SEQUENCE– The order in which aircraft are positioned while on approach or awaiting approach clearance.

(See LANDING SEQUENCE.)

(See ICAO term APPROACH SEQUENCE.)

APPROACH SEQUENCE [ICAO]– The order in which two or more aircraft are cleared to approach to land at the aerodrome.

APPROACH SPEED– The recommended speed contained in aircraft manuals used by pilots when making an approach to landing. This speed will vary for different segments of an approach as well as for aircraft weight and configuration.

APPROACH WITH VERTICAL GUIDANCE (APV)– A term used to describe RNAV approach procedures that provide lateral and vertical guidance but do not meet the requirements to be considered a precision approach.

APPROPRIATE ATS AUTHORITY [ICAO]– The relevant authority designated by the State responsible for providing air traffic services in the airspace concerned. In the United States, the “appropriate ATS authority” is the Program Director for Air Traffic Planning and Procedures, ATP-1.

APPROPRIATE AUTHORITY–

- a. Regarding flight over the high seas: the relevant authority is the State of Registry.
- b. Regarding flight over other than the high seas: the relevant authority is the State having sovereignty over the territory being overflown.

APPROPRIATE OBSTACLE CLEARANCE MINIMUM ALTITUDE– Any of the following:

(See MINIMUM EN ROUTE IFR ALTITUDE.)

(See MINIMUM IFR ALTITUDE.)

(See MINIMUM OBSTRUCTION CLEARANCE ALTITUDE.)

(See MINIMUM VECTORING ALTITUDE.)

APPROPRIATE TERRAIN CLEARANCE MINIMUM ALTITUDE– Any of the following:

(See MINIMUM EN ROUTE IFR ALTITUDE.)

(See MINIMUM IFR ALTITUDE.)

(See MINIMUM OBSTRUCTION CLEARANCE ALTITUDE.)

(See MINIMUM VECTORING ALTITUDE.)

APRON– A defined area on an airport or heliport intended to accommodate aircraft for purposes of

loading or unloading passengers or cargo, refueling, parking, or maintenance. With regard to seaplanes, a ramp is used for access to the apron from the water.

(See ICAO term APRON.)

APRON [ICAO]– A defined area, on a land aerodrome, intended to accommodate aircraft for purposes of loading or unloading passengers, mail or cargo, refueling, parking or maintenance.

ARC– The track over the ground of an aircraft flying at a constant distance from a navigational aid by reference to distance measuring equipment (DME).

AREA CONTROL CENTER [ICAO]– An air traffic control facility primarily responsible for ATC services being provided IFR aircraft during the en route phase of flight. The U.S. equivalent facility is an air route traffic control center (ARTCC).

AREA NAVIGATION (RNAV)– A method of navigation which permits aircraft operation on any desired flight path within the coverage of ground– or space–based navigation aids or within the limits of the capability of self-contained aids, or a combination of these.

Note: Area navigation includes performance–based navigation as well as other operations that do not meet the definition of performance–based navigation.

AREA NAVIGATION (RNAV) APPROACH CONFIGURATION:

a. **STANDARD T**– An RNAV approach whose design allows direct flight to any one of three initial approach fixes (IAF) and eliminates the need for procedure turns. The standard design is to align the procedure on the extended centerline with the missed approach point (MAP) at the runway threshold, the final approach fix (FAF), and the initial approach/intermediate fix (IAF/IF). The other two IAFs will be established perpendicular to the IF.

b. **MODIFIED T**– An RNAV approach design for single or multiple runways where terrain or operational constraints do not allow for the standard T. The “T” may be modified by increasing or decreasing the angle from the corner IAF(s) to the IF or by eliminating one or both corner IAFs.

c. **STANDARD I**– An RNAV approach design for a single runway with both corner IAFs eliminated. Course reversal or radar vectoring may be required at busy terminals with multiple runways.

d. TERMINAL ARRIVAL AREA (TAA)– The TAA is controlled airspace established in conjunction with the Standard or Modified T and I RNAV approach configurations. In the standard TAA, there are three areas: straight-in, left base, and right base. The arc boundaries of the three areas of the TAA are published portions of the approach and allow aircraft to transition from the en route structure direct to the nearest IAF. TAAs will also eliminate or reduce feeder routes, departure extensions, and procedure turns or course reversal.

1. STRAIGHT-IN AREA– A 30 NM arc centered on the IF bounded by a straight line extending through the IF perpendicular to the intermediate course.

2. LEFT BASE AREA– A 30 NM arc centered on the right corner IAF. The area shares a boundary with the straight-in area except that it extends out for 30 NM from the IAF and is bounded on the other side by a line extending from the IF through the FAF to the arc.

3. RIGHT BASE AREA– A 30 NM arc centered on the left corner IAF. The area shares a boundary with the straight-in area except that it extends out for 30 NM from the IAF and is bounded on the other side by a line extending from the IF through the FAF to the arc.

AREA NAVIGATION (RNAV) GLOBAL POSITIONING SYSTEM (GPS) PRECISION RUNWAY MONITORING (PRM) APPROACH– A GPS approach, which requires vertical guidance, used in lieu of another type of PRM approach to conduct approaches to parallel runways whose extended centerlines are separated by less than 4,300 feet and at least 3,000 feet, where simultaneous close parallel approaches are permitted. Also used in lieu of an ILS PRM and/or LDA PRM approach to conduct Simultaneous Offset Instrument Approach (SOIA) operations.

ARMY AVIATION FLIGHT INFORMATION BULLETIN– A bulletin that provides air operation data covering Army, National Guard, and Army Reserve aviation activities.

ARO–
(See AIRPORT RESERVATION OFFICE.)

ARRESTING SYSTEM– A safety device consisting of two major components, namely, engaging or

catching devices and energy absorption devices for the purpose of arresting both tailhook and/or nontailhook-equipped aircraft. It is used to prevent aircraft from overrunning runways when the aircraft cannot be stopped after landing or during aborted takeoff. Arresting systems have various names; e.g., arresting gear, hook device, wire barrier cable.

(See ABORT.)

(Refer to AIM.)

ARRIVAL CENTER– The ARTCC having jurisdiction for the impacted airport.

ARRIVAL DELAY– A parameter which specifies a period of time in which no aircraft will be metered for arrival at the specified airport.

ARRIVAL/DEPARTURE WINDOW (ADW)– A depiction presented on an air traffic control display, used by the controller to prevent possible conflicts between arrivals to, and departures from, a runway. The ADW identifies that point on the final approach course by which a departing aircraft must have begun takeoff.

ARRIVAL SECTOR (En Route)– An operational control sector containing one or more meter fixes on or near the TRACON boundary.

ARRIVAL TIME– The time an aircraft touches down on arrival.

ARSR–
(See AIR ROUTE SURVEILLANCE RADAR.)

ARTCC–
(See AIR ROUTE TRAFFIC CONTROL CENTER.)

ASDA–
(See ACCELERATE-STOP DISTANCE AVAILABLE.)

ASDA [ICAO]–
(See ICAO Term ACCELERATE-STOP DISTANCE AVAILABLE.)

ASDE–
(See AIRPORT SURFACE DETECTION EQUIPMENT.)

ASLAR–
(See AIRCRAFT SURGE LAUNCH AND RECOVERY.)

ASR–
(See AIRPORT SURVEILLANCE RADAR.)

ASR APPROACH–

(See SURVEILLANCE APPROACH.)

ASSOCIATED– A radar target displaying a data block with flight identification and altitude information.

(See UNASSOCIATED.)

ATC–

(See AIR TRAFFIC CONTROL.)

ATC ADVISES– Used to prefix a message of noncontrol information when it is relayed to an aircraft by other than an air traffic controller.

(See ADVISORY.)

ATC ASSIGNED AIRSPACE– Airspace of defined vertical/lateral limits, assigned by ATC, for the purpose of providing air traffic segregation between the specified activities being conducted within the assigned airspace and other IFR air traffic.

(See SPECIAL USE AIRSPACE.)

ATC CLEARANCE–

(See AIR TRAFFIC CLEARANCE.)

ATC CLEARS– Used to prefix an ATC clearance when it is relayed to an aircraft by other than an air traffic controller.

ATC INSTRUCTIONS– Directives issued by air traffic control for the purpose of requiring a pilot to take specific actions; e.g., “Turn left heading two five zero,” “Go around,” “Clear the runway.”

(Refer to 14 CFR Part 91.)

ATC PREFERRED ROUTE NOTIFICATION– EDST notification to the appropriate controller of the need to determine if an ATC preferred route needs to be applied, based on destination airport.

(See ROUTE ACTION NOTIFICATION.)

(See EN ROUTE DECISION SUPPORT TOOL.)

ATC PREFERRED ROUTES– Preferred routes that are not automatically applied by Host.

ATC REQUESTS– Used to prefix an ATC request when it is relayed to an aircraft by other than an air traffic controller.

ATC SECURITY SERVICES– Communications and security tracking provided by an ATC facility in support of the DHS, the DOD, or other Federal security elements in the interest of national security. Such security services are only applicable within

designated areas. ATC security services do not include ATC basic radar services or flight following.

ATC SECURITY SERVICES POSITION– The position responsible for providing ATC security services as defined. This position does not provide ATC, IFR separation, or VFR flight following services, but is responsible for providing security services in an area comprising airspace assigned to one or more ATC operating sectors. This position may be combined with control positions.

ATC SECURITY TRACKING– The continuous tracking of aircraft movement by an ATC facility in support of the DHS, the DOD, or other security elements for national security using radar (i.e., radar tracking) or other means (e.g., manual tracking) without providing basic radar services (including traffic advisories) or other ATC services not defined in this section.

ATS SURVEILLANCE SERVICE [ICAO]– A term used to indicate a service provided directly by means of an ATS surveillance system.

ATC SURVEILLANCE SOURCE– Used by ATC for establishing identification, control and separation using a target depicted on an air traffic control facility’s video display that has met the relevant safety standards for operational use and received from one, or a combination, of the following surveillance sources:

- a. Radar (See RADAR.)
- b. ADS-B (See AUTOMATIC DEPENDENT SURVEILLANCE–BROADCAST.)
- c. WAM (See WIDE AREA MULTILATERATION.)
 - (See INTERROGATOR.)
 - (See TRANSPONDER.)
 - (See ICAO term RADAR.)
 - (Refer to AIM.)

ATS SURVEILLANCE SYSTEM [ICAO]– A generic term meaning variously, ADS-B, PSR, SSR or any comparable ground-based system that enables the identification of aircraft.

Note: A comparable ground-based system is one that has been demonstrated, by comparative assessment or other methodology, to have a level of safety and performance equal to or better than monopulse SSR.

ATCAA–

(See ATC ASSIGNED AIRSPACE.)

ATCRBS–

(See RADAR.)

ATCSCC–

(See AIR TRAFFIC CONTROL SYSTEM
COMMAND CENTER.)

ATCT–

(See TOWER.)

ATD–

(See ALONG–TRACK DISTANCE.)

ATIS–

(See AUTOMATIC TERMINAL INFORMATION
SERVICE.)

ATIS [ICAO]–

(See ICAO Term AUTOMATIC TERMINAL
INFORMATION SERVICE.)

ATPA–

(See AUTOMATED TERMINAL PROXIMITY
ALERT.)

ATS ROUTE [ICAO]– A specified route designed for channeling the flow of traffic as necessary for the provision of air traffic services.

Note: The term “ATS Route” is used to mean variously, airway, advisory route, controlled or uncontrolled route, arrival or departure, etc.

ATTENTION ALL USERS PAGE (AAUP)– The AAUP provides the pilot with additional information relative to conducting a specific operation, for example, PRM approaches and RNAV departures.

AUTOLAND APPROACH–An autoland system aids by providing control of aircraft systems during a precision instrument approach to at least decision altitude and possibly all the way to touchdown, as well as in some cases, through the landing rollout. The autoland system is a sub-system of the autopilot system from which control surface management occurs. The aircraft autopilot sends instructions to the autoland system and monitors the autoland system performance and integrity during its execution.

AUTOMATED EMERGENCY DESCENT–

(See EMERGENCY DESCENT MODE.)

AUTOMATED INFORMATION TRANSFER (AIT)– A precoordinated process, specifically defined in facility directives, during which a transfer of altitude control and/or radar identification is accomplished without verbal coordination between controllers using information communicated in a full data block.

AUTOMATED MUTUAL-ASSISTANCE VESSEL RESCUE SYSTEM– A facility which can deliver, in a matter of minutes, a surface picture (SURPIC) of vessels in the area of a potential or actual search and rescue incident, including their predicted positions and their characteristics.

(See FAA Order JO 7110.65, Para 10–6–4,
INFLIGHT CONTINGENCIES.)

AUTOMATED PROBLEM DETECTION (APD)– An Automation Processing capability that compares trajectories in order to predict conflicts.

AUTOMATED PROBLEM DETECTION BOUNDARY (APB)– The adapted distance beyond a facilities boundary defining the airspace within which EDST performs conflict detection.

(See EN ROUTE DECISION SUPPORT TOOL.)

AUTOMATED PROBLEM DETECTION INHIBITED AREA (APDIA)– Airspace surrounding a terminal area within which APD is inhibited for all flights within that airspace.

AUTOMATED TERMINAL PROXIMITY ALERT (ATPA)– Monitors the separation of aircraft on the Final Approach Course (FAC), displaying a graphical notification (cone and/or mileage) when a potential loss of separation is detected. The warning cone (Yellow) will display at 45 seconds and the alert cone (Red) will display at 24 seconds prior to predicted loss of separation. Current distance between two aircraft on final will be displayed in line 3 of the full data block of the trailing aircraft in corresponding colors.

AUTOMATED WEATHER SYSTEM– Any of the automated weather sensor platforms that collect weather data at airports and disseminate the weather information via radio and/or landline. The systems currently consist of the Automated Surface Observing System (ASOS) and Automated Weather Observation System (AWOS).

AUTOMATED UNICOM– Provides completely automated weather, radio check capability and airport advisory information on an Automated UNICOM system. These systems offer a variety of features, typically selectable by microphone clicks, on the UNICOM frequency. Availability will be published in the Chart Supplement U.S. and approach charts.

AUTOMATIC ALTITUDE REPORT–

(See ALTITUDE READOUT.)

AUTOMATIC ALTITUDE REPORTING– That function of a transponder which responds to Mode C interrogations by transmitting the aircraft’s altitude in 100-foot increments.

AUTOMATIC CARRIER LANDING SYSTEM– U.S. Navy final approach equipment consisting of precision tracking radar coupled to a computer data link to provide continuous information to the aircraft, monitoring capability to the pilot, and a backup approach system.

AUTOMATIC DEPENDENT SURVEILLANCE (ADS) [ICAO]– A surveillance technique in which aircraft automatically provide, via a data link, data derived from on-board navigation and position fixing systems, including aircraft identification, four dimensional position and additional data as appropriate.

AUTOMATIC DEPENDENT SURVEILLANCE-BROADCAST (ADS-B)– A surveillance system in which an aircraft or vehicle to be detected is fitted with cooperative equipment in the form of a data link transmitter. The aircraft or vehicle periodically broadcasts its GNSS-derived position and other required information such as identity and velocity, which is then received by a ground-based or space-based receiver for processing and display at an air traffic control facility, as well as by suitably equipped aircraft.

(See AUTOMATIC DEPENDENT SURVEILLANCE-BROADCAST IN.)

(See AUTOMATIC DEPENDENT SURVEILLANCE-BROADCAST OUT.)

(See COOPERATIVE SURVEILLANCE.)

(See GLOBAL POSITIONING SYSTEM.)

(See SPACE-BASED ADS-B.)

AUTOMATIC DEPENDENT SURVEILLANCE-BROADCAST IN (ADS-B In)– Aircraft avionics capable of receiving ADS-B Out transmissions directly from other aircraft, as well as traffic or weather information transmitted from ground stations.

(See AUTOMATIC DEPENDENT SURVEILLANCE-BROADCAST OUT.)

(See AUTOMATIC DEPENDENT SURVEILLANCE-REBROADCAST.)

(See FLIGHT INFORMATION SERVICE-BROADCAST.)

(See TRAFFIC INFORMATION SERVICE-BROADCAST.)

AUTOMATIC DEPENDENT SURVEILLANCE-BROADCAST OUT (ADS-B Out)– The transmitter onboard an aircraft or ground vehicle that periodically broadcasts its GNSS-derived position along with other required information, such as identity, altitude, and velocity.

(See AUTOMATIC DEPENDENT SURVEILLANCE-BROADCAST.)

(See AUTOMATIC DEPENDENT SURVEILLANCE-BROADCAST IN.)

AUTOMATIC DEPENDENT SURVEILLANCE-CONTRACT (ADS-C)– A data link position reporting system, controlled by a ground station, that establishes contracts with an aircraft’s avionics that occur automatically whenever specific events occur, or specific time intervals are reached.

AUTOMATIC DEPENDENT SURVEILLANCE-REBROADCAST (ADS-R)– A datalink translation function of the ADS-B ground system required to accommodate the two separate operating frequencies (978 MHz and 1090 MHz). The ADS-B system receives the ADS-B messages transmitted on one frequency and ADS-R translates and reformats the information for rebroadcast and use on the other frequency. This allows ADS-B In equipped aircraft to see nearby ADS-B Out traffic regardless of the operating link of the other aircraft. Aircraft operating on the same ADS-B frequency exchange information directly and do not require the ADS-R translation function.

AUTOMATIC DIRECTION FINDER– An aircraft radio navigation system which senses and indicates the direction to a L/MF nondirectional radio beacon (NDB) ground transmitter. Direction is indicated to the pilot as a magnetic bearing or as a relative bearing to the longitudinal axis of the aircraft depending on the type of indicator installed in the aircraft. In certain applications, such as military, ADF operations may be based on airborne and ground transmitters in the VHF/UHF frequency spectrum.

(See BEARING.)

(See NONDIRECTIONAL BEACON.)

AUTOMATIC FLIGHT INFORMATION SERVICE (AFIS) – ALASKA FSSs ONLY– The continuous broadcast of recorded non-control information at airports in Alaska where a FSS provides local airport advisory service. The AFIS broadcast automates the repetitive transmission of essential but routine information such as weather, wind, altimeter, favored runway, braking action,

airport NOTAMs, and other applicable information. The information is continuously broadcast over a discrete VHF radio frequency (usually the ASOS/AWOS frequency).

AUTOMATIC TERMINAL INFORMATION SERVICE– The continuous broadcast of recorded noncontrol information in selected terminal areas. Its purpose is to improve controller effectiveness and to relieve frequency congestion by automating the repetitive transmission of essential but routine information; e.g., “Los Angeles information Alfa. One three zero zero Coordinated Universal Time. Weather, measured ceiling two thousand overcast, visibility three, haze, smoke, temperature seven one, dew point five seven, wind two five zero at five, altimeter two niner niner six. I-L-S Runway Two Five Left approach in use, Runway Two Five Right closed, advise you have Alfa.”

(See ICAO term **AUTOMATIC TERMINAL INFORMATION SERVICE**.)

(Refer to AIM.)

AUTOMATIC TERMINAL INFORMATION SERVICE [ICAO]– The provision of current, routine information to arriving and departing aircraft by means of continuous and repetitive broadcasts throughout the day or a specified portion of the day.

AUTOROTATION– A rotorcraft flight condition in which the lifting rotor is driven entirely by action of the air when the rotorcraft is in motion.

a. Autorotative Landing/Touchdown Autorotation. Used by a pilot to indicate that the landing will be made without applying power to the rotor.

b. Low Level Autorotation. Commences at an altitude well below the traffic pattern, usually below

100 feet AGL and is used primarily for tactical military training.

c. 180 degrees Autorotation. Initiated from a downwind heading and is commenced well inside the normal traffic pattern. “Go around” may not be possible during the latter part of this maneuver.

AVAILABLE LANDING DISTANCE (ALD)– The portion of a runway available for landing and roll-out for aircraft cleared for LAHSO. This distance is measured from the landing threshold to the hold-short point.

AVIATION WATCH NOTIFICATION MESSAGE– The Storm Prediction Center (SPC) issues Aviation Watch Notification Messages (SAW) to provide an area threat alert for the aviation meteorology community to forecast organized severe thunderstorms that may produce tornadoes, large hail, and/or convective damaging winds as indicated in Public Watch Notification Messages within the Continental U.S. A SAW message provides a description of the type of watch issued by SPC, a valid time, an approximation of the area in a watch, and primary hazard(s).

AVIATION WEATHER SERVICE– A service provided by the National Weather Service (NWS) and FAA which collects and disseminates pertinent weather information for pilots, aircraft operators, and ATC. Available aviation weather reports and forecasts are displayed at each NWS office and FAA FSS.

(See **TRANSCRIBED WEATHER BROADCAST**.)

(See **WEATHER ADVISORY**.)

(Refer to AIM.)

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 judgment 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 release is automatically canceled if takeoff is not made prior to a specified time. The expiration of a clearance void time does not cancel the departure clearance or IFR flight plan. It withdraws the pilot's authority to depart IFR until a new departure release/release time has been issued by ATC. Pilots who choose to depart VFR after their clearance void time has expired should not depart using the previously assigned IFR transponder code.

(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.)

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

CLEARED 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. Pilots should advise ATC if they decide to remain on the runway, of any delay in their stop and go, delay clearing the runway, or are unable to comply with the instruction(s).

(See OPTION APPROACH.)

(Refer to AIM.)

CLEARED THROUGH- ATC authorization for an aircraft to make intermediate stops at specified airports without refiling a flight plan while en route to the clearance limit.

CLEARED 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) for which ATC is 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 LOOP CLEARANCE– A vector or reroute clearance that includes a return to route point and updates ERAM to accurately reflect the anticipated route (e.g., a QU route pick that anticipates length of vector and includes the next fix that ties into the route of flight.)

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.)

COA–

(See CERTIFICATE OF WAIVER OR AUTHORIZATION.)

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.)

COLD TEMPERATURE CORRECTION– A correction in feet, based on height above airport and temperature, that is added to the aircraft's indicated altitude to offset the effect of cold temperature on true altitude.

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.)

D

D-ATIS-

(See DIGITAL-AUTOMATIC TERMINAL INFORMATION SERVICE.)

D-ATIS [ICAO]-

(See ICAO Term DATA LINK 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.)

DATA LINK AUTOMATIC TERMINAL INFORMATION SERVICE (D-ATIS) [ICAO]- The provision of ATIS via data link.

DCT-

(See DELAY COUNTDOWN TIMER.)

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.

DEBRIS RESPONSE AREA (DRA)- Used by ATC. Areas of airspace that may be activated in response to unplanned falling debris in the NAS.

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 (DH)- 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 ATRBS 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 COUNTDOWN TIMER (DCT)– The display of the delay that must be absorbed by a flight prior to crossing a Meter Reference Element (MRE) to meet the TBFM Scheduled Time of Arrival (STA). It is calculated by taking the difference between the frozen STA and the Estimated Time of Arrival (ETA).

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)**.)

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.

DEPARTURE VIEWER– A capability within the Traffic Flow Management System (TFMS) that provides combined displays for monitoring departure by fixes and departure airports. Traffic management personnel can customize the displays by selecting the departure airports and fixes of interest. The information displayed is the demand for the resource (fix or departure airport) in time bins with the flight list and a flight history for one flight at a time. From the display, flights can be selected for route amendment, one or more at a time, and the Route Amendment Dialogue (RAD) screen automatically opens for easy route selection and execution. Reroute options are based on Coded Departure Route (CDR) database and Trajectory Options Set (TOS) (when available).

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.

DESIRED 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).

DESIRED 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 Chart Supplement U.S.

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.

DIRECTLY BEHIND– An aircraft is considered to be operating directly behind when it is following the actual flight path of the lead aircraft over the surface of the earth except when applying wake turbulence separation criteria.

DISCRETE BEACON CODE–
(See **DISCRETE CODE**.)

DISCRETE CODE– As used in the Air Traffic Control Radar Beacon System (ATCRBS), any one of the 4096 selectable Mode 3/A aircraft transponder codes except those ending in zero zero; e.g., discrete codes: 0010, 1201, 2317, 7777; nondiscrete codes: 0100, 1200, 7700. Nondiscrete codes are normally reserved for radar facilities that are not equipped with

discrete decoding capability and for other purposes such as emergencies (7700), VFR aircraft (1200), etc.
(See **RADAR**.)
(Refer to **AIM**.)

DISCRETE FREQUENCY– A separate radio frequency for use in direct pilot-controller communications in air traffic control which reduces frequency congestion by controlling the number of aircraft operating on a particular frequency at one time. Discrete frequencies are normally designated for each control sector in en route/terminal ATC facilities. Discrete frequencies are listed in the Chart Supplement U.S. and the DOD FLIP IFR En Route Supplement.
(See **CONTROL SECTOR**.)

DISPLACED THRESHOLD– A threshold that is located at a point on the runway other than the designated beginning of the runway.
(See **THRESHOLD**.)
(Refer to **AIM**.)

DISTANCE MEASURING EQUIPMENT (DME)– Equipment (airborne and ground) used to measure, in nautical miles, the slant range distance of an aircraft from the DME navigational aid.
(See **TACAN**.)
(See **VORTAC**.)

DISTRESS– A condition of being threatened by serious and/or imminent danger and of requiring immediate assistance.

DIVE BRAKES–
(See **SPEED BRAKES**.)

DIVERSE VECTOR AREA– In a radar environment, that area in which a prescribed departure route is not required as the only suitable route to avoid obstacles. The area in which random radar vectors below the MVA/MIA, established in accordance with the TERPS criteria for diverse departures, obstacles and terrain avoidance, may be issued to departing aircraft.

DIVERSION (DVRSN)– Flights that are required to land at other than their original destination for reasons beyond the control of the pilot/company, e.g. periods of significant weather.

DME–
(See **DISTANCE MEASURING EQUIPMENT**.)

DME FIX– A geographical position determined by reference to a navigational aid which provides distance and azimuth information. It is defined by a specific distance in nautical miles and a radial, azimuth, or course (i.e., localizer) in degrees magnetic from that aid.

(See **DISTANCE MEASURING EQUIPMENT**.)

(See **FIX**.)

DME SEPARATION– Spacing of aircraft in terms of distances (nautical miles) determined by reference to distance measuring equipment (DME).

(See **DISTANCE MEASURING EQUIPMENT**.)

DOD FLIP– Department of Defense Flight Information Publications used for flight planning, en route, and terminal operations. FLIP is produced by the National Geospatial–Intelligence Agency (NGA) for world-wide use. United States Government Flight Information Publications (en route charts and instrument approach procedure charts) are incorporated in DOD FLIP for use in the National Airspace System (NAS).

DOMESTIC AIRSPACE– Airspace which overlies the continental land mass of the United States plus Hawaii and U.S. possessions. Domestic airspace extends to 12 miles offshore.

DOMESTIC NOTICE– A special notice or notice containing graphics or plain language text pertaining to almost every aspect of aviation, such as military training areas, large scale sporting events, air show information, Special Traffic Management Programs (STMPs), and airport–specific information. These notices are applicable to operations within the United States and can be found on the Domestic Notices website.

DOWNBURST– A strong downdraft which induces an outburst of damaging winds on or near the ground. Damaging winds, either straight or curved, are highly divergent. The sizes of downbursts vary from 1/2 mile or less to more than 10 miles. An intense downburst often causes widespread damage. Damaging winds, lasting 5 to 30 minutes, could reach speeds as high as 120 knots.

DOWNWIND LEG–

(See **TRAFFIC PATTERN**.)

DP–

(See **INSTRUMENT DEPARTURE PROCEDURE**.)

DRA–

(See **DEBRIS RESPONSE AREA**.)

DRAG CHUTE– A parachute device installed on certain aircraft which is deployed on landing roll to assist in deceleration of the aircraft.

DROP ZONE– Any pre-determined area upon which parachutists or objects land after making an intentional parachute jump or drop.

(Refer to 14 CFR §105.3, Definitions)

DSP–

(See **DEPARTURE SEQUENCING PROGRAM**.)

DTAS–

(See **DIGITAL TERMINAL AUTOMATION SYSTEM**.)

DUE REGARD– A phase of flight wherein an aircraft commander of a State-operated aircraft assumes responsibility to separate his/her aircraft from all other aircraft.

(See also FAA Order JO 7110.65, Para 1–2–1, **WORD MEANINGS**.)

DUTY RUNWAY–

(See **RUNWAY IN USE/ACTIVE RUNWAY/DUTY RUNWAY**.)

DVA–

(See **DIVERSE VECTOR AREA**.)

DVFR–

(See **DEFENSE VISUAL FLIGHT RULES**.)

DVFR FLIGHT PLAN– A flight plan filed for a VFR aircraft which intends to operate in airspace within which the ready identification, location, and control of aircraft are required in the interest of national security.

DVRSN–

(See **DIVERSION**.)

DYNAMIC– Continuous review, evaluation, and change to meet demands.

DYNAMIC RESTRICTIONS– Those restrictions imposed by the local facility on an “as needed” basis to manage unpredictable fluctuations in traffic demands.

E

EAS–

(See EN ROUTE AUTOMATION SYSTEM.)

EDCT–

(See EXPECT DEPARTURE CLEARANCE TIME.)

EDST–

(See EN ROUTE DECISION SUPPORT TOOL)

EFC–

(See EXPECT FURTHER CLEARANCE (TIME).)

ELT–

(See EMERGENCY LOCATOR TRANSMITTER.)

EMBEDDED ROUTE TEXT– An EDST notification that an ADR/ADAR/AAR has been applied to the flight plan. Within the route field, sub-fields consisting of an adapted route or an embedded change in the route are color-coded in cyan with cyan brackets around the sub-field.

(See EN ROUTE DECISION SUPPORT TOOL.)

EMERGENCY– A distress or an urgency condition.

EMERGENCY AUTOLAND SYSTEM– This system, if activated, will determine an optimal airport, plot a course, broadcast the aircraft's intentions, fly to the airport, land, and (depending on the model) shut down the engines. Though the system will broadcast the aircraft's intentions, the controller should assume that transmissions to the aircraft will not be acknowledged.

EMERGENCY DESCENT MODE– This automated system senses conditions conducive to hypoxia (cabin depressurization). If an aircraft is equipped and the system is activated, it is designed to turn the aircraft up to 90 degrees, then descend to a lower altitude and level off, giving the pilot(s) time to recover.

EMERGENCY LOCATOR TRANSMITTER (ELT)– A radio transmitter attached to the aircraft structure which operates from its own power source on 121.5 MHz and 243.0 MHz. It aids in locating downed aircraft by radiating a downward sweeping audio tone, 2-4 times per second. It is designed to function without human action after an accident.

(Refer to 14 CFR Part 91.)

(Refer to AIM.)

E-MSAW–

(See EN ROUTE MINIMUM SAFE ALTITUDE WARNING.)

ENHANCED FLIGHT VISION SYSTEM (EFVS)– An EFVS is an installed aircraft system which uses an electronic means to provide a display of the forward external scene topography (the natural or man-made features of a place or region especially in a way to show their relative positions and elevation) through the use of imaging sensors, including but not limited to forward-looking infrared, millimeter wave radiometry, millimeter wave radar, or low-light level image intensification. An EFVS includes the display element, sensors, computers and power supplies, indications, and controls. An operator's authorization to conduct an EFVS operation may have provisions which allow pilots to conduct IAPs when the reported weather is below minimums prescribed on the IAP to be flown.

EN ROUTE AIR TRAFFIC CONTROL SERVICES– Air traffic control service provided aircraft on IFR flight plans, generally by centers, when these aircraft are operating between departure and destination terminal areas. When equipment, capabilities, and controller workload permit, certain advisory/assistance services may be provided to VFR aircraft.

(See AIR ROUTE TRAFFIC CONTROL CENTER.)

(Refer to AIM.)

EN ROUTE AUTOMATION SYSTEM (EAS)– The complex integrated environment consisting of situation display systems, surveillance systems and flight data processing, remote devices, decision support tools, and the related communications equipment that form the heart of the automated IFR air traffic control system. It interfaces with automated terminal systems and is used in the control of en route IFR aircraft.

(Refer to AIM.)

EN ROUTE CHARTS–

(See AERONAUTICAL CHART.)

EN ROUTE DECISION SUPPORT TOOL (EDST)– An automated tool provided at each Radar Associate position in selected En Route facilities. This tool utilizes flight and radar data to determine present and

future trajectories for all active and proposal aircraft and provides enhanced automated flight data management.

EN ROUTE DESCENT– Descent from the en route cruising altitude which takes place along the route of flight.

EN ROUTE HIGH ALTITUDE CHARTS–
(See AERONAUTICAL CHART.)

EN ROUTE LOW ALTITUDE CHARTS–
(See AERONAUTICAL CHART.)

EN ROUTE MINIMUM SAFE ALTITUDE WARNING (E-MSAW)– A function of the EAS that aids the controller by providing an alert when a tracked aircraft is below or predicted by the computer to go below a predetermined minimum IFR altitude (MIA).

EN ROUTE TRANSITION–
(See SEGMENTS OF A SID/STAR.)

EN ROUTE TRANSITION WAYPOINT
(See SEGMENTS OF A SID/STAR.)

EST–
(See ESTIMATED.)

ESTABLISHED– To be stable or fixed at an altitude or on a course, route, route segment, heading, instrument approach or departure procedure, etc.

ESTABLISHED ON RNP (EoR) CONCEPT– A system of authorized instrument approaches, ATC procedures, surveillance, and communication requirements that allow aircraft operations to be safely conducted with approved reduced separation criteria once aircraft are established on a PBN segment of a published instrument flight procedure.

ESTIMATED (EST)–When used in NOTAMs “EST” is a contraction that is used by the issuing authority only when the condition is expected to return to service prior to the expiration time. Using “EST” lets the user know that this NOTAM has the possibility of returning to service earlier than the expiration time. Any NOTAM which includes an “EST” will be auto-expired at the designated expiration time.

ESTIMATED ELAPSED TIME [ICAO]– The estimated time required to proceed from one significant point to another.

(See ICAO Term TOTAL ESTIMATED ELAPSED TIME.)

ESTIMATED OFF-BLOCK TIME [ICAO]– The estimated time at which the aircraft will commence movement associated with departure.

ESTIMATED POSITION ERROR (EPE)–
(See Required Navigation Performance)

ESTIMATED TIME OF ARRIVAL– The time the flight is estimated to arrive at the gate (scheduled operators) or the actual runway on times for nonscheduled operators.

ESTIMATED TIME EN ROUTE– The estimated flying time from departure point to destination (lift-off to touchdown).

ETA–
(See ESTIMATED TIME OF ARRIVAL.)

ETE–
(See ESTIMATED TIME EN ROUTE.)

EXECUTE MISSED APPROACH– Instructions issued to a pilot making an instrument approach which means continue inbound to the missed approach point and execute the missed approach procedure as described on the Instrument Approach Procedure Chart or as previously assigned by ATC. The pilot may climb immediately to the altitude specified in the missed approach procedure upon making a missed approach. No turns should be initiated prior to reaching the missed approach point. When conducting an ASR or PAR approach, execute the assigned missed approach procedure immediately upon receiving instructions to “execute missed approach.”

(Refer to AIM.)

EXPECT (ALTITUDE) AT (TIME) or (FIX)– Used under certain conditions to provide a pilot with an altitude to be used in the event of two-way communications failure. It also provides altitude information to assist the pilot in planning.

(Refer to AIM.)

EXPECT DEPARTURE CLEARANCE TIME (EDCT)– The runway release time assigned to an aircraft in a traffic management program and shown on the flight progress strip as an EDCT.

(See GROUND DELAY PROGRAM.)

EXPECT FURTHER CLEARANCE (TIME)– The time a pilot can expect to receive clearance beyond a clearance limit.

EXPECT FURTHER CLEARANCE VIA (AIRWAYS, ROUTES OR FIXES)– Used to inform a

pilot of the routing he/she can expect if any part of the route beyond a short range clearance limit differs from that filed.

EXPEDITE– Used by ATC when prompt compliance is required to avoid the development of an

imminent situation. Expedite climb/descent normally indicates to a pilot that the approximate best rate of climb/descent should be used without requiring an exceptional change in aircraft handling characteristics.

H

HAA–

(See HEIGHT ABOVE AIRPORT.)

HAL–

(See HEIGHT ABOVE LANDING.)

HANDOFF– An action taken to transfer the radar identification of an aircraft from one controller to another if the aircraft will enter the receiving controller’s airspace and radio communications with the aircraft will be transferred.

HAT–

(See HEIGHT ABOVE TOUCHDOWN.)

HAVE NUMBERS– Used by pilots to inform ATC that they have received runway, wind, and altimeter information only.

HAZARDOUS WEATHER INFORMATION– Summary of significant meteorological information (SIGMET/WS), convective significant meteorological information (convective SIGMET/WST), urgent pilot weather reports (urgent PIREP/UUA), center weather advisories (CWA), airmen’s meteorological information (AIRMET/WA) and any other weather such as isolated thunderstorms that are rapidly developing and increasing in intensity, or low ceilings and visibilities that are becoming widespread which is considered significant and are not included in a current hazardous weather advisory.

HEAVY (AIRCRAFT)–

(See AIRCRAFT CLASSES.)

HEIGHT ABOVE AIRPORT (HAA)– The height of the Minimum Descent Altitude above the published airport elevation. This is published in conjunction with circling minimums.

(See MINIMUM DESCENT ALTITUDE.)

HEIGHT ABOVE LANDING (HAL)– The height above a designated helicopter landing area used for helicopter instrument approach procedures.

(Refer to 14 CFR Part 97.)

HEIGHT ABOVE TOUCHDOWN (HAT)– The height of the Decision Height or Minimum Descent Altitude above the highest runway elevation in the touchdown zone (first 3,000 feet of the runway). HAT

is published on instrument approach charts in conjunction with all straight-in minimums.

(See DECISION HEIGHT.)

(See MINIMUM DESCENT ALTITUDE.)

HELICOPTER– A heavier-than-air aircraft supported in flight chiefly by the reactions of the air on one or more power-driven rotors on substantially vertical axes.

HELIPAD– A small, designated area, usually with a prepared surface, on a heliport, airport, landing/take-off area, apron/ramp, or movement area used for takeoff, landing, or parking of helicopters.

HELIPORT– An area of land, water, or structure used or intended to be used for the landing and takeoff of helicopters and includes its buildings and facilities if any.

HELIPORT REFERENCE POINT (HRP)– The geographic center of a heliport.

HERTZ– The standard radio equivalent of frequency in cycles per second of an electromagnetic wave. Kiloherz (kHz) is a frequency of one thousand cycles per second. Megahertz (MHz) is a frequency of one million cycles per second.

HF–

(See HIGH FREQUENCY.)

HF COMMUNICATIONS–

(See HIGH FREQUENCY COMMUNICATIONS.)

HIGH FREQUENCY– The frequency band between 3 and 30 MHz.

(See HIGH FREQUENCY COMMUNICATIONS.)

HIGH FREQUENCY COMMUNICATIONS– High radio frequencies (HF) between 3 and 30 MHz used for air-to-ground voice communication in overseas operations.

HIGH SPEED EXIT–

(See HIGH SPEED TAXIWAY.)

HIGH SPEED TAXIWAY– A long radius taxiway designed and provided with lighting or marking to define the path of aircraft, traveling at high speed (up to 60 knots), from the runway center to a point on the center of a taxiway. Also referred to as long radius exit or turn-off taxiway. The high speed taxiway is

designed to expedite aircraft turning off the runway after landing, thus reducing runway occupancy time.

HIGH SPEED TURNOFF–

(See HIGH SPEED TAXIWAY.)

HIGH UPDATE RATE SURVEILLANCE– A surveillance system that provides a sensor update rate of less than 4.8 seconds.

HOLD FOR RELEASE– Used by ATC to delay an aircraft for traffic management reasons; i.e., weather, traffic volume, etc. Hold for release instructions (including departure delay information) are used to inform a pilot or a controller (either directly or through an authorized relay) that an IFR departure clearance is not valid until a release time or additional instructions have been received.

(See ICAO term HOLDING POINT.)

HOLD-IN-LIEU OF PROCEDURE TURN– A hold-in-lieu of procedure turn shall be established over a final or intermediate fix when an approach can be made from a properly aligned holding pattern. The hold-in-lieu of procedure turn permits the pilot to align with the final or intermediate segment of the approach and/or descend in the holding pattern to an altitude that will permit a normal descent to the final approach fix altitude. The hold-in-lieu of procedure turn is a required maneuver (the same as a procedure turn) unless the aircraft is being radar vectored to the final approach course, when “NoPT” is shown on the approach chart, or when the pilot requests or the controller advises the pilot to make a “straight-in” approach.

HOLD PROCEDURE– A predetermined maneuver which keeps aircraft within a specified airspace while awaiting further clearance from air traffic control. Also used during ground operations to keep aircraft within a specified area or at a specified point while awaiting further clearance from air traffic control.

(See HOLDING FIX.)

(Refer to AIM.)

HOLDING FIX– A specified fix identifiable to a pilot by NAVAIDs or visual reference to the ground used as a reference point in establishing and maintaining the position of an aircraft while holding.

(See FIX.)

(See VISUAL HOLDING.)

(Refer to AIM.)

HOLDING POINT [ICAO]– A specified location, identified by visual or other means, in the vicinity of which the position of an aircraft in flight is maintained in accordance with air traffic control clearances.

HOLDING PROCEDURE–

(See HOLD PROCEDURE.)

HOLD-SHORT POINT– A point on the runway beyond which a landing aircraft with a LAHSO clearance is not authorized to proceed. This point may be located prior to an intersecting runway, taxiway, predetermined point, or approach/departure flight path.

HOLD-SHORT POSITION LIGHTS– Flashing in-pavement white lights located at specified hold-short points.

HOLD-SHORT POSITION MARKING– The painted runway marking located at the hold-short point on all LAHSO runways.

HOLD-SHORT POSITION SIGNS– Red and white holding position signs located alongside the hold-short point.

HOMING– Flight toward a NAVAID, without correcting for wind, by adjusting the aircraft heading to maintain a relative bearing of zero degrees.

(See BEARING.)

(See ICAO term HOMING.)

HOMING [ICAO]– The procedure of using the direction-finding equipment of one radio station with the emission of another radio station, where at least one of the stations is mobile, and whereby the mobile station proceeds continuously towards the other station.

HOT SPOT– A location on an airport movement area with a history of potential risk of collision or runway incursion, and where heightened attention by pilots/drivers is necessary.

HOVER CHECK– Used to describe when a helicopter/VTOL aircraft requires a stabilized hover to conduct a performance/power check prior to hover taxi, air taxi, or takeoff. Altitude of the hover will vary based on the purpose of the check.

HOVER TAXI– Used to describe a helicopter/VTOL aircraft movement conducted above the surface and in ground effect at airspeeds less than approximately 20 knots. The actual height may vary, and some helicopters may require hover taxi above 25 feet AGL

to reduce ground effect turbulence or provide clearance for cargo slingloads.

(See AIR TAXI.)

(See HOVER CHECK.)

(Refer to AIM.)

HOW DO YOU HEAR ME?– A question relating to the quality of the transmission or to determine how well the transmission is being received.

HZ–

(See HERTZ.)

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 (MCA)– 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 (MDA)– 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 between the radio fixes defining 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 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 (MRA)– The lowest altitude at which an intersection can be determined.

(Refer to 14 CFR Part 95.)

MINIMUM SAFE ALTITUDE (MSA)–

a. The Minimum Safe Altitude (MSA) specified in 14 CFR Part 91 for various aircraft operations.

b. Altitudes depicted on approach charts or departure procedure (DP) graphic charts which provide at least 1,000 feet of obstacle clearance for emergency use. These altitudes will be identified as Minimum Safe Altitudes or Emergency Safe Altitudes and are established as follows:

1. Minimum Safe Altitude (MSA). Altitudes depicted on approach charts or on a DP graphic chart which provide at least 1,000 feet of obstacle clearance within a 25-mile radius of the navigation facility, waypoint, or airport reference point upon which the MSA is predicated. MSAs are for emergency use only and do not necessarily assure acceptable navigational signal coverage.

(See ICAO term Minimum Sector Altitude.)

2. Emergency Safe Altitude (ESA). 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 or waypoint used as the ESA center. These altitudes are normally used only in military procedures and are identified on published procedures as “Emergency Safe Altitudes.”

MINIMUM SAFE ALTITUDE WARNING (MSAW)– A function of the EAS and STARS 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 (MAP)– 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.

MISSED APPROACH SEGMENT–

(See SEGMENTS OF AN INSTRUMENT APPROACH PROCEDURE.)

MM–

(See MIDDLE MARKER.)

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.)

MODEL AIRCRAFT– An unmanned aircraft that is: (1) capable of sustained flight in the atmosphere; (2)

flown within visual line of sight of the person operating the aircraft; and (3) flown for hobby or recreational purposes.

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.

MOUNTAIN WAVE– Mountain waves occur when air is being blown over a mountain range or even the ridge of a sharp bluff area. As the air hits the upwind side of the range, it starts to climb, thus creating what is generally a smooth updraft which turns into a turbulent downdraft as the air passes the crest of the ridge. Mountain waves can cause significant fluctuations in airspeed and altitude with or without associated turbulence.

(Refer to AIM.)

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 AIRSPACE RESERVATION– The term used in oceanic ATC for airspace that encompasses

oceanic activities and advances with the mission progress; i.e., the reservation moves with the aircraft or flight.

(See MOVING ALTITUDE RESERVATION.)

MOVING ALTITUDE RESERVATION– An altitude reservation which encompasses en route activities and advances with the mission progress; i.e., the reservation moves with the aircraft or flight.

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.)

MRE–

(See METER REFERENCE ELEMENT.)

MRP

(See METER REFERENCE POINT LIST.)

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.)

O

OBSTACLE– An existing object, object of natural growth, or terrain at a fixed geographical location or which may be expected at a fixed location within a prescribed area with reference to which vertical clearance is or must be provided during flight operation.

OBSTACLE DEPARTURE PROCEDURE (ODP)– A preplanned instrument flight rule (IFR) departure procedure printed for pilot use in textual or graphic form to provide obstruction clearance via the least onerous route from the terminal area to the appropriate en route structure. ODPs are recommended for obstruction clearance and may be flown without ATC clearance unless an alternate departure procedure (SID or radar vector) has been specifically assigned by ATC.

(See IFR TAKEOFF MINIMUMS AND DEPARTURE PROCEDURES.)

(See STANDARD INSTRUMENT DEPARTURES.)

(Refer to AIM.)

OBSTACLE FREE ZONE– The OFZ is a three-dimensional volume of airspace which protects the transition of aircraft to and from the runway. The OFZ clearing standard precludes taxiing and parked airplanes and object penetrations, except for frangible NAVAID locations that are fixed by function. Additionally, vehicles, equipment, and personnel may be authorized by air traffic control to enter the area using the provisions of FAA Order JO 7110.65, paragraph 3–1–5, Vehicles/Equipment/Personnel Near/On Runways. The runway OFZ and when applicable, the inner-approach OFZ, and the inner-transitional OFZ, comprise the OFZ.

a. Runway OFZ. The runway OFZ is a defined volume of airspace centered above the runway. The runway OFZ is the airspace above a surface whose elevation at any point is the same as the elevation of the nearest point on the runway centerline. The runway OFZ extends 200 feet beyond each end of the runway. The width is as follows:

1. For runways serving large airplanes, the greater of:

(a) 400 feet, or

(b) 180 feet, plus the wingspan of the most demanding airplane, plus 20 feet per 1,000 feet of airport elevation.

2. For runways serving only small airplanes:

(a) 300 feet for precision instrument runways.

(b) 250 feet for other runways serving small airplanes with approach speeds of 50 knots, or more.

(c) 120 feet for other runways serving small airplanes with approach speeds of less than 50 knots.

b. Inner-approach OFZ. The inner-approach OFZ is a defined volume of airspace centered on the approach area. The inner-approach OFZ applies only to runways with an approach lighting system. The inner-approach OFZ begins 200 feet from the runway threshold at the same elevation as the runway threshold and extends 200 feet beyond the last light unit in the approach lighting system. The width of the inner-approach OFZ is the same as the runway OFZ and rises at a slope of 50 (horizontal) to 1 (vertical) from the beginning.

c. Inner-transitional OFZ. The inner transitional surface OFZ is a defined volume of airspace along the sides of the runway and inner-approach OFZ and applies only to precision instrument runways. The inner-transitional surface OFZ slopes 3 (horizontal) to 1 (vertical) out from the edges of the runway OFZ and inner-approach OFZ to a height of 150 feet above the established airport elevation.

(Refer to AC 150/5300-13, Chapter 3.)

(Refer to FAA Order JO 7110.65, Para 3–1–5, Vehicles/Equipment/Personnel Near/On Runways.)

OBSTRUCTION– Any object/obstacle exceeding the obstruction standards specified by 14 CFR Part 77, Subpart C.

OBSTRUCTION LIGHT– A light or one of a group of lights, usually red or white, frequently mounted on a surface structure or natural terrain to warn pilots of the presence of an obstruction.

OCEANIC AIRSPACE– Airspace over the oceans of the world, considered international airspace, where oceanic separation and procedures per the International Civil Aviation Organization are applied. Responsibility for the provisions of air traffic control

service in this airspace is delegated to various countries, based generally upon geographic proximity and the availability of the required resources.

OCEANIC ERROR REPORT– A report filed when ATC observes an Oceanic Error as defined by FAA Order JO 7210.632, Air Traffic Organization Occurrence Reporting.

OCEANIC PUBLISHED ROUTE– A route established in international airspace and charted or described in flight information publications, such as Route Charts, DOD En route Charts, Chart Supplements, NOTAMs, and Track Messages.

OCEANIC TRANSITION ROUTE– An ATS route established for the purpose of transitioning aircraft to/from an organized track system.

ODP–
(See **OBSTACLE DEPARTURE PROCEDURE**.)

OFF COURSE– A term used to describe a situation where an aircraft has reported a position fix or is observed on radar at a point not on the ATC-approved route of flight.

OFF-ROUTE OBSTRUCTION CLEARANCE ALTITUDE (OROCA)– A published altitude which provides terrain and obstruction clearance with a 1,000 foot buffer in non-mountainous areas and a 2,000 foot buffer in designated mountainous areas within the United States, and a 3,000 foot buffer outside the US ADIZ. These altitudes are not assessed for NAVAID signal coverage, air traffic control surveillance, or communications coverage, and are published for general situational awareness, flight planning, and in-flight contingency use.

OFF-ROUTE VECTOR– A vector by ATC which takes an aircraft off a previously assigned route. Altitudes assigned by ATC during such vectors provide required obstacle clearance.

OFFSET PARALLEL RUNWAYS– Staggered runways having centerlines which are parallel.

OFFSHORE/CONTROL AIRSPACE AREA– That portion of airspace between the U.S. 12 NM limit and the oceanic CTA/FIR boundary within which air traffic control is exercised. These areas are established to provide air traffic control services. Offshore/Control Airspace Areas may be classified as either Class A airspace or Class E airspace.

OFT–
(See **OUTER FIX TIME**.)

OM–
(See **OUTER MARKER**.)

ON COURSE–

a. Used to indicate that an aircraft is established on the route centerline.

b. Used by ATC to advise a pilot making a radar approach that his/her aircraft is lined up on the final approach course.

(See **ON-COURSE INDICATION**.)

ON-COURSE INDICATION– An indication on an instrument, which provides the pilot a visual means of determining that the aircraft is located on the centerline of a given navigational track, or an indication on a radar scope that an aircraft is on a given track.

ONE-MINUTE WEATHER– The most recent one minute updated weather broadcast received by a pilot from an uncontrolled airport ASOS/AWOS.

ONER–
(See **OCEANIC NAVIGATIONAL ERROR REPORT**.)

OPEN LOOP CLEARANCE– Provides a lateral vector solution that does not include a return to route point.

OPERATIONAL–
(See **DUE REGARD**.)

OPERATIONS SPECIFICATIONS [ICAO]– The authorizations, conditions and limitations associated with the air operator certificate and subject to the conditions in the operations manual.

OPPOSITE DIRECTION AIRCRAFT– Aircraft are operating in opposite directions when:

a. They are following the same track in reciprocal directions; or

b. Their tracks are parallel and the aircraft are flying in reciprocal directions; or

c. Their tracks intersect at an angle of more than 135°.

OPTION APPROACH– An approach requested and conducted by a pilot which will result in either a touch-and-go, missed approach, low approach, stop-and-go, or full stop landing. Pilots should advise ATC if they decide to remain on the runway, of any

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 (< 26 dBZ)
 - b. MODERATE (26 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 glidepath is provided; e.g., ILS, PAR, and GLS.

(See INSTRUMENT LANDING SYSTEM.)

(See PRECISION APPROACH RADAR.)

PRECISION APPROACH RADAR– Radar equipment in some ATC facilities operated by the FAA and/or the military services at joint-use civil/military locations and separate military installations to detect and display azimuth, elevation, and range of aircraft on the final approach course to a runway. This equipment may be used to monitor certain non-radar approaches, but is primarily used to conduct a precision instrument approach (PAR) wherein the controller issues guidance instructions to the pilot based on the aircraft's position in relation to the final approach course (azimuth), the glidepath (elevation), and the distance (range) from the touchdown point on the runway as displayed on the radar scope.

(See GLIDEPATH.)

(See PAR.)

(See ICAO term PRECISION APPROACH RADAR.)

(Refer to AIM.)

PRECISION APPROACH RADAR [ICAO]– Primary radar equipment used to determine the position of an aircraft during final approach, in terms of lateral and vertical deviations relative to a nominal approach path, and in range relative to touchdown.

PRECISION OBSTACLE FREE ZONE (POFZ)– An 800 foot wide by 200 foot long area centered on the runway centerline adjacent to the threshold designed to protect aircraft flying precision approaches from ground vehicles and other aircraft when ceiling is less than 250 feet or visibility is less than 3/4 statute mile (or runway visual range below 4,000 feet.)

PRECISION RUNWAY MONITOR (PRM) SYSTEM– Provides air traffic controllers monitoring the NTZ during simultaneous close parallel PRM approaches with precision, high update rate secondary surveillance data. The high update rate surveillance sensor component of the PRM system is only required for specific runway or approach course separation. The high resolution color monitoring display, Final Monitor Aid (FMA) of the PRM system, or other FMA with the same capability, presents NTZ surveillance track data to controllers along with detailed maps depicting approaches and no transgression zone and is required for all simultaneous close parallel PRM NTZ monitoring operations.

(Refer to AIM)

PREDICTIVE WIND SHEAR ALERT SYSTEM (PWS)– A self-contained system used on board some aircraft to alert the flight crew to the presence of a potential wind shear. PWS systems typically monitor 3 miles ahead and 25 degrees left and right of the aircraft's heading at or below 1200' AGL. Departing flights may receive a wind shear alert after they start the takeoff roll and may elect to abort the takeoff. Aircraft on approach receiving an alert may elect to go around or perform a wind shear escape maneuver.

PREFERRED IFR ROUTES– Routes established between busier airports to increase system efficiency and capacity. They normally extend through one or more ARTCC areas and are designed to achieve balanced traffic flows among high density terminals. IFR clearances are issued on the basis of these routes except when severe weather avoidance procedures or other factors dictate otherwise. Preferred IFR Routes are listed in the Chart Supplement U.S., and are also available at https://www.fly.faa.gov/rmt/nfdc_preferred_routes_database.jsp. If a flight is planned to or

from an area having such routes but the departure or arrival point is not listed in the Chart Supplement U.S., pilots may use that part of a Preferred IFR Route which is appropriate for the departure or arrival point that is listed. Preferred IFR Routes may be defined by DPs, SIDs, or STARs; NAVAIDs, Waypoints, etc.; high or low altitude airways; or any combinations thereof. Because they often share elements with adapted routes, pilots' use of preferred IFR routes can minimize flight plan route amendments.

(See ADAPTED ROUTES.)

(See CENTER'S AREA.)

(See INSTRUMENT APPROACH PROCEDURE.)

(See INSTRUMENT DEPARTURE PROCEDURE.)

(See STANDARD TERMINAL ARRIVAL.)

(Refer to CHART SUPPLEMENT U.S.)

PRE-FLIGHT PILOT BRIEFING–

(See PILOT BRIEFING.)

PREVAILING VISIBILITY–

(See VISIBILITY.)

PRIMARY RADAR TARGET– An analog or digital target, exclusive of a secondary radar target, presented on a radar display.

PRM–

(See AREA NAVIGATION (RNAV) GLOBAL POSITIONING SYSTEM (GPS) PRECISION RUNWAY MONITORING (PRM) APPROACH.)

(See PRM APPROACH.)

(See PRECISION RUNWAY MONITOR SYSTEM.)

PRM APPROACH– An instrument approach procedure titled ILS PRM, RNAV PRM, LDA PRM, or GLS PRM conducted to parallel runways separated by less than 4,300 feet and at least 3,000 feet where independent closely spaced approaches are permitted. Use of an enhanced display with alerting, a No Transgression Zone (NTZ), secondary monitor frequency, pilot PRM training, and publication of an Attention All Users Page are required for all PRM approaches. Depending on the runway spacing, the approach courses may be parallel or one approach course must be offset. PRM procedures are also used to conduct Simultaneous Offset Instrument Approach (SOIA) operations. In SOIA, one straight-in ILS PRM, RNAV PRM, GLS PRM, and one offset LDA PRM, RNAV PRM or GLS PRM approach are utilized. PRM procedures

are terminated and a visual segment begins at the offset approach missed approach point where the minimum distance between the approach courses is 3000 feet. Runway spacing can be as close as 750 feet.

(Refer to AIM.)

PROCEDURAL CONTROL [ICAO]– Term used to indicate that information derived from an ATS surveillance system is not required for the provision of air traffic control service.

PROCEDURAL SEPARATION [ICAO]– The separation used when providing procedural control.

PROCEDURE TURN– The maneuver prescribed when it is necessary to reverse direction to establish an aircraft on the intermediate approach segment or final approach course. The outbound course, direction of turn, distance within which the turn must be completed, and minimum altitude are specified in the procedure. However, unless otherwise restricted, the point at which the turn may be commenced and the type and rate of turn are left to the discretion of the pilot.

(See ICAO term PROCEDURE TURN.)

PROCEDURE TURN [ICAO]– A maneuver in which a turn is made away from a designated track followed by a turn in the opposite direction to permit the aircraft to intercept and proceed along the reciprocal of the designated track.

Note 1: Procedure turns are designated “left” or “right” according to the direction of the initial turn.

Note 2: Procedure turns may be designated as being made either in level flight or while descending, according to the circumstances of each individual approach procedure.

PROCEDURE TURN INBOUND– That point of a procedure turn maneuver where course reversal has been completed and an aircraft is established inbound on the intermediate approach segment or final approach course. A report of “procedure turn inbound” is normally used by ATC as a position report for separation purposes.

(See FINAL APPROACH COURSE.)

(See PROCEDURE TURN.)

(See SEGMENTS OF AN INSTRUMENT APPROACH PROCEDURE.)

PROFILE DESCENT– An uninterrupted descent (except where level flight is required for speed adjustment; e.g., 250 knots at 10,000 feet MSL) from cruising altitude/level to interception of a glideslope

or to a minimum altitude specified for the initial or intermediate approach segment of a nonprecision instrument approach. The profile descent normally terminates at the approach gate or where the glideslope or other appropriate minimum altitude is intercepted.

PROGRESS REPORT-

(See POSITION REPORT.)

PROGRESSIVE TAXI- Precise taxi instructions given to a pilot unfamiliar with the airport or issued in stages as the aircraft proceeds along the taxi route.

PROHIBITED AREA-

(See SPECIAL USE AIRSPACE.)

(See ICAO term PROHIBITED AREA.)

PROHIBITED AREA [ICAO]- An airspace of defined dimensions, above the land areas or territorial waters of a State, within which the flight of aircraft is prohibited.

PROMINENT OBSTACLE- An obstacle that meets one or more of the following conditions:

a. An obstacle which stands out beyond the adjacent surface of surrounding terrain and immediately projects a noticeable hazard to aircraft in flight.

b. An obstacle, not characterized as low and close in, whose height is no less than 300 feet above the departure end of takeoff runway (DER) elevation, is within 10 NM from the DER, and that penetrates that airport/heliport's diverse departure obstacle clearance surface (OCS).

c. An obstacle beyond 10 NM from an airport/heliport that requires an obstacle departure procedure (ODP) to ensure obstacle avoidance.

(See OBSTACLE.)

(See OBSTRUCTION.)

PROPELLER (PROP) WASH (PROP BLAST)- The disturbed mass of air generated by the motion of a propeller.

PROPOSED BOUNDARY CROSSING TIME- Each center has a PBCT parameter for each internal

airport. Proposed internal flight plans are transmitted to the adjacent center if the flight time along the proposed route from the departure airport to the center boundary is less than or equal to the value of PBCT or if airport adaptation specifies transmission regardless of PBCT.

PROPOSED DEPARTURE TIME- The time that the aircraft expects to become airborne.

PROTECTED AIRSPACE- The airspace on either side of an oceanic route/track that is equal to one-half the lateral separation minimum except where reduction of protected airspace has been authorized.

PROTECTED SEGMENT- The protected segment is a segment on the amended TFM route that is to be inhibited from automatic adapted route alteration by ERAM.

PT-

(See PROCEDURE TURN.)

PTP-

(See POINT-TO-POINT.)

PTS-

(See POLAR TRACK STRUCTURE.)

PUBLISHED INSTRUMENT APPROACH PROCEDURE VISUAL SEGMENT- A segment on an IAP chart annotated as "Fly Visual to Airport" or "Fly Visual." A dashed arrow will indicate the visual flight path on the profile and plan view with an associated note on the approximate heading and distance. The visual segment should be flown as a dead reckoning course while maintaining visual conditions.

PUBLISHED ROUTE- A route for which an IFR altitude has been established and published; e.g., Federal Airways, Jet Routes, Area Navigation Routes, Specified Direct Routes.

PWS-

(See PREDICTIVE WIND SHEAR ALERT SYSTEM.)

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 meteorological 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.

SPOOFING– Denotes emissions of GNSS-like signals that may be acquired and tracked in combination with or instead of the intended signals

by civil receivers. The onset of spoofing effects can be instantaneous or delayed, and effects can persist after the spoofing has ended. Spoofing can result in false and potentially confusing, or hazardously misleading, position, navigation, and/or date/time information in addition to loss of GNSS use.

SPEED ADVISORY– Speed advisories that are generated within Time-Based Flow Management to assist controllers to meet the Scheduled Time of Arrival (STA) at the meter fix/meter arc. See also Ground-Based Interval Management–Spacing (GIM–S) Speed Advisory.

SQUAWK (Mode, Code, Function)– Used by ATC to instruct a pilot to activate the aircraft transponder and ADS–B Out with altitude reporting enabled, or (military) to activate only specific modes, codes, or functions. Examples: “Squawk five seven zero seven;” “Squawk three/alpha, two one zero five.”

(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 workload. ATC clearance must always be received prior to flying a SID.

(See IFR TAKEOFF MINIMUMS AND DEPARTURE PROCEDURES.)

(See OBSTACLE DEPARTURE PROCEDURE.)

(Refer to AIM.)

STANDARD RATE TURN– A turn of three degrees per second.

STANDARD TERMINAL ARRIVAL (STAR)– A preplanned instrument flight rule (IFR) air traffic control arrival procedure published for pilot use in graphic and/or textual form. STARs provide transition from the en route structure to an outer fix or an instrument approach fix/arrival waypoint in the terminal area.

STANDARD TERMINAL ARRIVAL CHARTS–
(See AERONAUTICAL CHART.)

STANDARD TERMINAL AUTOMATION REPLACEMENT SYSTEM (STARS)–
(See DTAS.)

STAR–
(See STANDARD TERMINAL ARRIVAL.)

STATE AIRCRAFT– Aircraft used in military, customs and police service, in the exclusive service of any government or of any political subdivision thereof, including the government of any state, territory, or possession of the United States or the District of Columbia, but not including any government-owned aircraft engaged in carrying persons or property for commercial purposes.

STATIC RESTRICTIONS– Those restrictions that are usually not subject to change, fixed, in place, and/or published.

STATIONARY AIRSPACE RESERVATION– The term used in oceanic ATC for airspace that encompasses activities in a fixed volume of airspace to be occupied for a specified time period. Stationary Airspace Reservations may include activities such as special tests of weapons systems or equipment; certain U.S. Navy carrier, fleet, and anti-submarine operations; rocket, missile, and drone operations; and certain aerial refueling or similar operations.
(See STATIONARY ALTITUDE RESERVATION.)

STATIONARY ALTITUDE RESERVATION (STATIONARY ALTRV)– An altitude reservation which encompasses activities in a fixed volume of airspace to be occupied for a specified time period. Stationary ALTRVs may include activities such as special tests of weapons systems or equipment; certain U.S. Navy carrier, fleet, and anti-submarine operations; rocket, missile, and drone operations; and certain aerial refueling or similar operations.

STEP TAXI– To taxi a float plane at full power or high RPM.

STEP TURN– A maneuver used to put a float plane in a planing configuration prior to entering an active sea lane for takeoff. The STEP TURN maneuver should only be used upon pilot request.

STEPDOWN FIX– A fix permitting additional descent within a segment of an instrument approach procedure by identifying a point at which a controlling obstacle has been safely overflown.

STEREO ROUTE– A routinely used route of flight established by users and ARTCCs identified by a coded name; e.g., ALPHA 2. These routes minimize flight plan handling and communications.

STNR ALT RESERVATION– An abbreviation for Stationary Altitude Reservation commonly used in NOTAMs.

(See STATIONARY ALTITUDE RESERVATION.)

STOL AIRCRAFT–
(See SHORT TAKEOFF AND LANDING AIRCRAFT.)

STOP ALTITUDE SQUAWK– Used by ATC to instruct a pilot to turn off the automatic altitude reporting feature of the aircraft transponder and ADS-B Out. It is issued when a verbally reported altitude varies by 300 feet or more from the automatic altitude report.

(See ALTITUDE READOUT.)

(See TRANSPONDER.)

STOP AND GO– A procedure wherein an aircraft will land, make a complete stop on the runway, and then commence a takeoff from that point.

(See LOW APPROACH.)

(See OPTION APPROACH.)

STOP BURST–
(See STOP STREAM.)

STOP BUZZER–
(See STOP STREAM.)

STOP SQUAWK (Mode or Code)– Used by ATC to instruct a pilot to stop transponder and ADS-B transmissions, or to turn off only specified functions of the aircraft transponder (military).

(See STOP ALTITUDE SQUAWK.)

(See TRANSPONDER.)

STOP STREAM– Used by ATC to request a pilot to suspend electronic attack activity.

(See JAMMING.)

STOPOVER FLIGHT PLAN– A flight plan format which permits in a single submission the filing of a sequence of flight plans through interim full-stop destinations to a final destination.

STOPWAY– An area beyond the takeoff runway no less wide than the runway and centered upon the extended centerline of the runway, able to support the airplane during an aborted takeoff, without causing structural damage to the airplane, and designated by the airport authorities for use in decelerating the airplane during an aborted takeoff.

STRAIGHT-IN APPROACH IFR– An instrument approach wherein final approach is begun without first having executed a procedure turn, not necessarily completed with a straight-in landing or made to straight-in landing minimums.

(See **LANDING MINIMUMS**.)

(See **STRAIGHT-IN APPROACH VFR**.)

(See **STRAIGHT-IN LANDING**.)

STRAIGHT-IN APPROACH VFR– Entry into the traffic pattern by interception of the extended runway centerline (final approach course) without executing any other portion of the traffic pattern.

(See **TRAFFIC PATTERN**.)

STRAIGHT-IN LANDING– A landing made on a runway aligned within 30° of the final approach course following completion of an instrument approach.

(See **STRAIGHT-IN APPROACH IFR**.)

STRAIGHT-IN LANDING MINIMUMS–

(See **LANDING MINIMUMS**.)

STRAIGHT-IN MINIMUMS–

(See **STRAIGHT-IN LANDING MINIMUMS**.)

STRATEGIC PLANNING– Planning whereby solutions are sought to resolve potential conflicts.

sUAS–

(See **SMALL UNMANNED AIRCRAFT SYSTEM**.)

SUBSTITUTE ROUTE– A route assigned to pilots when any part of an airway or route is unusable because of NAVAID status. These routes consist of:

a. Substitute routes which are shown on U.S. Government charts.

b. Routes defined by ATC as specific NAVAID radials or courses.

c. Routes defined by ATC as direct to or between NAVAIDs.

SUNSET AND SUNRISE– The mean solar times of sunset and sunrise as published in the Nautical Almanac, converted to local standard time for the locality concerned. Within Alaska, the end of evening civil twilight and the beginning of morning civil twilight, as defined for each locality.

SUPPLEMENTAL WEATHER SERVICE LOCATION– Airport facilities staffed with contract personnel who take weather observations and provide current local weather to pilots via telephone or radio. (All other services are provided by the parent FSS.)

SUPPS– Refers to ICAO Document 7030 Regional Supplementary Procedures. SUPPS contain procedures for each ICAO Region which are unique to that Region and are not covered in the worldwide provisions identified in the ICAO Air Navigation Plan. Procedures contained in Chapter 8 are based in part on those published in SUPPS.

SURFACE AREA– The airspace contained by the lateral boundary of the Class B, C, D, or E airspace designated for an airport that begins at the surface and extends upward.

SURFACE METERING PROGRAM– A capability within Terminal Flight Data Manager that provides the user with the ability to tactically manage surface traffic flows through adjusting desired minimum and maximum departure queue lengths to balance surface demand with capacity. When a demand/capacity imbalance for a surface resource is predicted, a metering procedure is recommended.

SURFACE VIEWER– A capability within the Traffic Flow Management System that provides situational awareness for a user–selected airport. The Surface Viewer displays a top–down view of an airport depicting runways, taxiways, gate areas, ramps, and buildings. The display also includes icons representing aircraft and vehicles currently on the surface, with identifying information. In addition, the display includes current airport configuration information such as departure/arrival runways and airport departure/arrival rates.

SURPIC– A description of surface vessels in the area of a Search and Rescue incident including their predicted positions and their characteristics.

(Refer to FAA Order JO 7110.65, Para 10–6–4, **INFLIGHT CONTINGENCIES**.)

SURVEILLANCE APPROACH– An instrument approach wherein the air traffic controller issues instructions, for pilot compliance, based on aircraft position in relation to the final approach course (azimuth), and the distance (range) from the end of the runway as displayed on the controller’s radar scope. The controller will provide recommended altitudes on final approach if requested by the pilot.

(Refer to AIM.)

SUSPICIOUS UAS– Suspicious UAS operations may include operating without authorization, loitering in the vicinity of sensitive locations, (e.g., national security, law enforcement facilities, and critical infrastructure), or disrupting normal air traffic operations resulting in runway changes, ground stops, pilot evasive action, etc. The report of a UAS operation alone does not constitute suspicious activity. Development of a comprehensive list of

suspicious activities is not possible due to the vast number of situations that could be considered suspicious. ATC must exercise sound judgment when identifying situations that could constitute or indicate a suspicious activity.

SWAP–

(See SEVERE WEATHER AVOIDANCE PLAN.)

SWSL–

(See SUPPLEMENTAL WEATHER SERVICE LOCATION.)

SYSTEM STRATEGIC NAVIGATION– Military activity accomplished by navigating along a preplanned route using internal aircraft systems to maintain a desired track. This activity normally requires a lateral route width of 10 NM and altitude range of 1,000 feet to 6,000 feet AGL with some route segments that permit terrain following.

T

TACAN–

(See TACTICAL AIR NAVIGATION.)

TACAN-ONLY AIRCRAFT– An aircraft, normally military, possessing TACAN with DME but no VOR navigational system capability. Clearances must specify TACAN or VORTAC fixes and approaches.

TACTICAL AIR NAVIGATION (TACAN)– An ultra-high frequency electronic rho-theta air navigation aid which provides suitably equipped aircraft a continuous indication of bearing and distance to the TACAN station.

(See VORTAC.)

(Refer to AIM.)

TAILWIND– Any wind more than 90 degrees to the longitudinal axis of the runway. The magnetic direction of the runway shall be used as the basis for determining the longitudinal axis.

TAKEOFF AREA–

(See LANDING AREA.)

TAKEOFF DISTANCE AVAILABLE (TODA)– The takeoff run available plus the length of any remaining runway or clearway beyond the far end of the takeoff run available.

(See ICAO term TAKEOFF DISTANCE AVAILABLE.)

TAKEOFF DISTANCE AVAILABLE [ICAO]– The length of the takeoff run available plus the length of the clearway, if provided.

TAKEOFF HOLD LIGHTS (THL)– The THL system is composed of in-pavement lighting in a double, longitudinal row of lights aligned either side of the runway centerline. The lights are focused toward the arrival end of the runway at the “line up and wait” point, and they extend for 1,500 feet in front of the holding aircraft. Illuminated red lights indicate 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 an aircraft or vehicle.

TAKEOFF ROLL – The process whereby an aircraft is aligned with the runway centerline and the aircraft is moving with the intent to take off. For helicopters,

this pertains to the act of becoming airborne after departing a takeoff area.

TAKEOFF RUN AVAILABLE (TORA) – The runway length declared available and suitable for the ground run of an airplane taking off.

(See ICAO term TAKEOFF RUN AVAILABLE.)

TAKEOFF RUN AVAILABLE [ICAO]– The length of runway declared available and suitable for the ground run of an aeroplane take-off.

TARGET– The indication shown on a display resulting from a primary radar return, a radar beacon reply, or an ADS–B report. The specific target symbol presented to ATC may vary based on the surveillance source and automation platform.

(See ASSOCIATED.)

(See DIGITAL TARGET.)

(See DIGITIZED RADAR TARGET.)

(See FUSED TARGET.)

(See PRIMARY RADAR TARGET.)

(See RADAR.)

(See SECONDARY RADAR TARGET.)

(See ICAO term TARGET.)

(See UNASSOCIATED.)

TARGET [ICAO]– In radar:

a. Generally, any discrete object which reflects or retransmits energy back to the radar equipment.

b. Specifically, an object of radar search or surveillance.

TARGET RESOLUTION– A process to ensure that correlated radar targets do not touch. Target resolution must be applied as follows:

a. Between the edges of two primary targets or the edges of the ASR-9/11 primary target symbol.

b. Between the end of the beacon control slash and the edge of a primary target.

c. Between the ends of two beacon control slashes.

Note 1: Mandatory traffic advisories and safety alerts must be issued when this procedure is used.

Note 2: This procedure must not be used when utilizing mosaic radar systems or multi-sensor mode.

TARGET SYMBOL–

(See TARGET.)

(See ICAO term TARGET.)

TARMAC DELAY– The holding of an aircraft on the ground either before departure or after landing with no opportunity for its passengers to deplane.

TARMAC DELAY AIRCRAFT– An aircraft whose pilot-in-command has requested to taxi to the ramp, gate, or alternate deplaning area to comply with the Three-hour Tarmac Rule.

TARMAC DELAY REQUEST– A request by the pilot-in-command to taxi to the ramp, gate, or alternate deplaning location to comply with the Three-hour Tarmac Rule.

TAS–

(See **TERMINAL AUTOMATION SYSTEMS**.)

TAWS–

(See **TERRAIN AWARENESS WARNING SYSTEM**.)

TAXI– The movement of an airplane under its own power on the surface of an airport (14 CFR Section 135.100 [Note]). Also, it describes the surface movement of helicopters equipped with wheels.

(See **AIR TAXI**.)

(See **HOVER TAXI**.)

(Refer to 14 CFR Section 135.100.)

(Refer to **AIM**.)

TAXI PATTERNS– Patterns established to illustrate the desired flow of ground traffic for the different runways or airport areas available for use.

TBM–

(See **TIME-BASED MANAGEMENT**.)

TBO–

(See **TRAJECTORY-BASED OPERATIONS**.)

TCAS–

(See **TRAFFIC ALERT AND COLLISION AVOIDANCE SYSTEM**.)

TCH–

(See **THRESHOLD CROSSING HEIGHT**.)

TDLS–

(See **TERMINAL DATA LINK SYSTEM**.)

TDZE–

(See **TOUCHDOWN ZONE ELEVATION**.)

TEMPORARY FLIGHT RESTRICTION (TFR)– A TFR is a regulatory action issued by the FAA via the U.S. NOTAM System, under the authority of United States Code, Title 49. TFRs are issued within the

sovereign airspace of the United States and its territories to restrict certain aircraft from operating within a defined area on a temporary basis to protect persons or property in the air or on the ground. While not all inclusive, TFRs may be issued for disaster or hazard situations such as: toxic gas leaks or spills, fumes from flammable agents, aircraft accident/incident sites, aviation or ground resources engaged in wildfire suppression, or aircraft relief activities following a disaster. TFRs may also be issued in support of VIP movements, for reasons of national security; or when determined necessary for the management of air traffic in the vicinity of aerial demonstrations or major sporting events. NAS users or other interested parties should contact a FSS for TFR information. Additionally, TFR information can be found in automated briefings, NOTAM publications, and on the internet at <http://www.faa.gov>. The FAA also distributes TFR information to aviation user groups for further dissemination.

TERMINAL AREA– A general term used to describe airspace in which approach control service or airport traffic control service is provided.

TERMINAL AREA FACILITY– A facility providing air traffic control service for arriving and departing IFR, VFR, Special VFR, and on occasion en route aircraft.

(See **APPROACH CONTROL FACILITY**.)

(See **TOWER**.)

TERMINAL AUTOMATION SYSTEMS (TAS)– TAS is used to identify the numerous automated tracking systems including STARS and MEARTS.

TERMINAL DATA LINK SYSTEM (TDLS)– A system that provides Digital Automatic Terminal Information Service (D-ATIS) both on a specified 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 FLIGHT DATA MANAGER (TFDM)– An integrated tower flight data automation system to provide improved airport surface and terminal airspace management. TFDM enhances traffic flow management data integration with Time-Based Flow Management (TBFM) and Traffic

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