



U.S. Department
of Transportation

**Federal Aviation
Administration**

AERONAUTICAL INFORMATION MANUAL

*Change 2
March 7, 2013*

**DO NOT DESTROY
CHANGE 1 DATED**

JULY 26, 2012

Aeronautical Information Manual

Explanation of Changes

Effective: March 7, 2013

a. Comments/Corrections.

This change updates the postal address, and adds an email address, for submitting comments and corrections in support of the AIM publication.

b. 1-1-14. User Reports on NAVAID Performance

This change updates guidance to specifically address the Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS).

c. 1-1-19. Global Positioning System (GPS)

This change describes the requirements for two independent navigation systems. It also clarifies the application of different Technical Standard Orders and updates the guidance for standalone GPS approaches. In addition, this change clarifies the term UNRELIABLE as used in conjunction with GPS notices to airmen. Document references have also been updated throughout the paragraph where applicable.

d. 5-2-7. Departure Control

This change incorporates verification of the assigned area navigation (RNAV) standard instrument departure (SID) to pilots prior to departure into the Aeronautical Information Manual and other Air Traffic publications.

e. 5-3-4. Airways and Route Systems

This change adds guidance for using “T-Routes” and “Q-Routes.” Document references have also been updated throughout the paragraph where applicable.

f. 5-4-5. Instrument Approach Procedure Charts

This change updates guidance regarding the Ground Based Augmentation System (GBAS) and updates document references where applicable.

g. Entire publication.

Editorial/format changes were made where necessary, to include recent organization name changes. Revision bars were not used when changes are insignificant in nature.

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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.

1–1–13. NAVAIDs with Voice

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

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

1–1–14. User Reports Requested on NAVAID or Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) Performance or Interference

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

b. Reporters should identify the NAVAID (for example, VOR) malfunction or GNSS problem,

location of the aircraft (i.e., latitude, longitude or bearing/distance from a NAVAID), altitude, date and time of the observation, type of aircraft and description of the condition observed, and the type of receivers in use (i.e., make/model/software revision). Reports can be made in any of the following ways:

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

2. By telephone to the nearest FAA facility.

3. By FAA Form 8740–5, Safety Improvement Report, a postage–paid card designed for this purpose. These cards may be obtained at FAA FSSs, Flight Standards District Offices, and General Aviation Fixed Base Operations.

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

1–1–15. 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.

1–1–16. VHF Direction Finder

a. The VHF Direction Finder (VHF/DF) is one of the common systems that helps pilots without their being aware of its operation. It is a ground–based radio receiver used by the operator of the ground station. FAA facilities that provide VHF/DF service are identified in the A/FD.

b. The equipment consists of a directional antenna system and a VHF radio receiver.

c. The VHF/DF receiver display indicates the magnetic direction of the aircraft from the ground station each time the aircraft transmits.

d. DF equipment is of particular value in locating lost aircraft and in helping to identify aircraft on radar.

REFERENCE—

AIM, Direction Finding Instrument Approach Procedure, Paragraph 6-2-3

1-1-17. 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.

1-1-18. 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.

1-1-19. Global Positioning System (GPS)

a. System Overview

1. System Description. The Global Positioning System is a satellite-based radio navigation system, which broadcasts a signal that is used by receivers to determine precise position anywhere in the world. The receiver tracks multiple satellites and determines a pseudorange measurement that is then used to determine the user location. A minimum of four satellites is necessary to establish an accurate three-dimensional position. The Department of Defense (DOD) is responsible for operating the GPS satellite constellation and monitors the GPS satellites to ensure proper operation. Every 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 Airmen (NOTAM) system.

(b) The operational status of GNSS operations depends upon the type of equipment being used. For GPS-only equipment TSO-C129a, the operational status of nonprecision 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). When GNSS equipment is not using integrity information from WAAS or LAAS, the GPS navigation receiver using RAIM provides GPS signal integrity monitoring. RAIM is necessary since delays of up to two hours can occur before an erroneous satellite transmission can be detected and corrected by the satellite control segment. The RAIM function is also referred to as fault detection. Another capability, fault exclusion, refers to the ability of the receiver to exclude a failed satellite from the position solution and is provided by some GPS receivers and by WAAS receivers.

4. The GPS receiver verifies the integrity (usability) of the signals received from the GPS constellation through receiver autonomous integrity monitoring (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; thus, RAIM needs a minimum of 5 satellites in view, or 4 satellites and a barometric altimeter (baro-aiding) to detect an integrity anomaly. [Baro-aiding satisfies the RAIM requirement in lieu of a fifth satellite.] For receivers capable of doing so, RAIM needs 6 satellites in view (or 5 satellites with baro-aiding) to isolate the corrupt satellite signal and remove it from the navigation solution. Baro-aiding is a method of augmenting the GPS integrity solution by using a nonsatellite input source. GPS derived altitude should not be relied upon to determine aircraft altitude since the vertical error can be quite large and no integrity is provided. To ensure that baro-aiding is available, the current altimeter setting must be entered into the receiver as described in the operating manual.

5. RAIM messages vary somewhat between receivers; however, generally there are two types. One type indicates that there are not enough satellites available to provide RAIM integrity monitoring and another type indicates that the RAIM integrity monitor has detected a potential error that exceeds the limit for the current phase of flight. Without RAIM capability, the pilot has no assurance of the accuracy of the GPS position.

6. Selective Availability. Selective Availability (SA) is a method by which the accuracy of GPS is intentionally degraded. This feature is 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, and do not need to be designed to operate outside of that performance.

7. The GPS constellation of 24 satellites is designed so that a minimum of five is always observable by a user anywhere on earth. The receiver uses data from a minimum of four satellites above the mask angle (the lowest angle above the horizon at which it can use a satellite).

8. The DOD declared initial operational capability (IOC) of the U.S. GPS on December 8, 1993. The FAA has granted approval for U.S. civil operators to use properly certified GPS equipment as a primary means of navigation in oceanic airspace and certain remote areas. Properly certified GPS equipment may be used as a supplemental means of IFR navigation for domestic en route, terminal operations, and certain instrument approach procedures (IAPs). This approval permits the use of GPS in a manner that is consistent with current navigation requirements as well as approved air carrier operations specifications.

b. VFR Use of GPS

1. GPS navigation has become a great asset to VFR pilots, providing increased navigation capability and enhanced situational awareness, while reducing operating costs due to greater ease in flying direct routes. While GPS has many benefits to the VFR pilot, care must be exercised to ensure that system capabilities are not exceeded.

2. Types of receivers used for GPS navigation under VFR are varied, from a full IFR installation being used to support a VFR flight, to a VFR only installation (in either a VFR or IFR capable aircraft) to a hand-held receiver. The limitations of each type of receiver installation or use must be understood by the pilot to avoid misusing navigation information. (See TBL 1-1-6.) In all cases, VFR pilots should never rely solely on one system of navigation. GPS navigation must be integrated with other forms of electronic navigation (when possible), as well as pilotage and dead reckoning. Only through the integration of these techniques can the VFR pilot ensure accuracy in navigation.

3. Some critical concerns in VFR use of GPS include RAIM capability, database currency and antenna location.

(a) RAIM Capability. Many VFR GPS receivers and all hand-held units have no RAIM alerting capability. Loss of the required number of satellites in view, or the detection of a position error, cannot be displayed to the pilot by such receivers. In receivers with no RAIM capability, no alert would be provided to the pilot that the navigation solution had deteriorated, and an undetected navigation error could occur. A systematic cross-check with other navigation techniques would identify this failure, and prevent a serious deviation. See subparagraphs a4 and a5 for more information on RAIM.

(b) Database Currency

(1) In many receivers, an up-datable database is used for navigation fixes, airports, and instrument procedures. These databases must be maintained to the current update for IFR operation, but no such requirement exists for VFR use.

(2) However, in many cases, the database drives a moving map display which indicates Special Use Airspace and the various classes of airspace, in addition to other operational information. Without a current database the moving map display may be outdated and offer erroneous information to VFR pilots wishing to fly around critical airspace areas, such as a Restricted Area or a Class B airspace segment. Numerous pilots have ventured into airspace they were trying to avoid by using an outdated database. If you don't have a current database in the receiver, disregard the moving map display for critical navigation decisions.

(3) In addition, waypoints are added, removed, relocated, or re-named as required to meet operational needs. When using GPS to navigate relative to a named fix, a current database must be used to properly locate a named waypoint. Without the update, it is the pilot's responsibility to verify the waypoint location referencing to an official current source, such as the Airport/Facility Directory, Sectional Chart, or En Route Chart.

(c) Antenna Location

(1) In many VFR installations of GPS receivers, antenna location is more a matter of convenience than performance. In IFR installations, care is exercised to ensure that an adequate clear view is provided for the antenna to see satellites. If an alternate location is used, some portion of the aircraft may block the view of the antenna, causing a greater opportunity to lose navigation signal.

(2) This is especially true in the case of hand-helds. The use of hand-held receivers for VFR operations is a growing trend, especially among rental pilots. 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 only and is rarely optimized to provide a clear view of available satellites. Consequently, signal losses may occur in certain situations of aircraft-satellite geometry, causing a loss of navigation signal. These losses,

coupled with a lack of RAIM capability, could present erroneous position and navigation information with no warning to the pilot.

(3) 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 a safe installation.

4. As a result of these and other concerns, here are some tips for using GPS for VFR operations:

(a) Always check to see if your unit has RAIM capability. If no RAIM capability exists, be suspicious of your GPS position when any disagreement exists with the position derived from other radio navigation systems, pilotage, or dead reckoning.

(b) Check the currency of the database, if any. If expired, update the database using the current revision. If an update of an expired database is not possible, disregard any moving map display of airspace for critical navigation decisions. Be aware that named waypoints may no longer exist or may have been relocated since the database expired. At a minimum, the waypoints planned to be used should be checked against a current official source, such as the Airport/Facility Directory, or a Sectional Aeronautical Chart.

(c) While hand-helds can provide excellent navigation capability to VFR pilots, be prepared for intermittent loss of navigation signal, possibly with no RAIM warning to the pilot. If mounting the receiver in the aircraft, be sure to comply with 14 CFR Part 43.

(d) Plan flights carefully before taking off. If you wish to navigate to user-defined waypoints, enter them before flight, not on-the-fly. Verify your planned flight against a current source, such as a current sectional chart. There have been cases in which one pilot used waypoints created by another pilot that were not where the pilot flying was expecting. This generally resulted in a navigation error. Minimize head-down time in the aircraft and keep a sharp lookout for traffic, terrain, and obstacles. Just a few minutes of preparation and planning on the ground will make a great difference in the air.

(e) Another way to minimize head-down time is to become very familiar with your receiver's

operation. Most receivers are not intuitive. The pilot must take the time to 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. Take the time to learn about your particular unit before you try to use it in flight.

5. In summary, be careful not to rely on GPS to solve all your VFR navigational problems. Unless an IFR receiver is installed in accordance with IFR requirements, no standard of accuracy or integrity has been assured. While the practicality of GPS is compelling, the fact remains that only the pilot can navigate the aircraft, and GPS is just one of the pilot's tools to do the job.

c. VFR Waypoints

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

2. VFR waypoint names (for computer-entry and flight plans) consist of five letters beginning with the letters "VP" and are retrievable from navigation databases. The VFR waypoint names are not intended to be pronounceable, and they are not for use in ATC communications. On VFR charts, stand-alone VFR waypoints will be portrayed using the same four-point star symbol used for IFR waypoints. VFR waypoints collocated with visual check points on the chart will be identified by small magenta flag symbols. VFR waypoints collocated with visual check points will be pronounceable based on the name of the visual check point and may be used for ATC communications. Each VFR waypoint name

will appear in parentheses adjacent to the geographic location on the chart. Latitude/longitude data for all established VFR waypoints may be found in the appropriate regional Airport/Facility Directory (A/FD).

3. VFR waypoints must not be used to plan flights under IFR. VFR waypoints will not be recognized by the IFR system and will be rejected for IFR routing purposes.

4. When filing VFR flight plans, pilots may use the five letter identifier as a waypoint in the route of flight section if there is an intended course change at that point or if used to describe the planned route of flight. This VFR filing would be similar to how a VOR would be used in a route of flight. Pilots must use the VFR waypoints only when operating under VFR conditions.

5. Any VFR waypoints intended for use during a flight should be loaded into the receiver while on the ground and prior to departure. Once airborne, pilots should avoid programming routes or VFR waypoint chains into their receivers.

6. Pilots should be especially vigilant for other traffic while operating near VFR waypoints. The same effort to see and avoid other aircraft near VFR waypoints will be necessary, as was the case with VORs and NDBs in the past. In fact, the increased accuracy of navigation through the use of GPS will demand even greater vigilance, as off-course deviations among different pilots and receivers will be less. When operating near a VFR waypoint, use whatever ATC services are available, even if outside a class of airspace where communications are required. Regardless of the class of airspace, monitor the available ATC frequency closely for information on other aircraft operating in the vicinity. It is also a good idea to turn on your landing light(s) when operating near a VFR waypoint to make your aircraft more conspicuous to other pilots, especially when visibility is reduced. See paragraph 7-5-2, VFR in Congested Areas, for more information.

d. General Requirements

1. Authorization to conduct any GPS operation under IFR requires that:

(a) GPS navigation equipment used must be approved in accordance with the requirements specified in Technical Standard Order (TSO) TSO-C129 (as revised), TSO-C196 (as revised),

TSO-C145 (as revised), or TSO-C146 (as revised), 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. During IFR operations they may be considered only as an aid to situational awareness.

(b) Aircraft using GPS (TSO-C129 (as revised) or TSO-C196 (as revised)) navigation equipment under IFR must be equipped with an approved and operational alternate means of navigation appropriate to the flight. Active monitoring of alternative navigation equipment is not required if the GPS receiver uses RAIM for integrity monitoring. Active monitoring of an alternate means of navigation is required when the RAIM capability of the GPS equipment is lost.

(c) Procedures must be established for use in the event that the loss of RAIM capability is predicted to occur. In situations where this is encountered, the flight must rely on other approved equipment, delay departure, or cancel the flight.

(d) 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. Unlike ILS and VOR, the basic operation, receiver presentation to the pilot and some capabilities of the equipment can vary greatly. Due to these differences, operation of different brands, or even models of the same brand of GPS receiver, under IFR should not be attempted without thorough study of the operation of that particular receiver and installation. Most receivers have a built-in simulator mode which will allow the pilot to become familiar with operation prior to attempting operation in the aircraft. Using the equipment in flight under VFR conditions prior to attempting IFR operation will allow further familiarization.

(e) Aircraft navigating by IFR approved GPS are considered to be area navigation (RNAV) aircraft and have special equipment suffixes. File the appropriate equipment suffix in accordance with

TBL 5-1-2, on the ATC flight plan. If GPS avionics become inoperative, the pilot should advise ATC and amend the equipment suffix.

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

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

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

(2) 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 FMS 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.

(3) 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.

(4) 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.

e. Use of GPS for IFR Oceanic, Domestic En Route, Terminal Area, and Approach Operations

1. GPS IFR operations in oceanic areas can be conducted as soon as the proper avionics systems are installed, provided all general requirements are met. A GPS installation with TSO-C129 (as revised) authorization in class A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, or C2 or TSO-C196 (as revised) may be used to replace one of the other approved means of long-range navigation, such as dual INS. (See TBL 1-1-5 and TBL 1-1-6.) A single TSO-C129 GPS installation meeting the certification requirements in AC 20-138C, Appendix 1 may be used on oceanic routes as the only means of long range navigation. TSO-C196 (as revised) equipment is inherently capable of supporting oceanic operation if the operator obtains a Fault Detection and Exclusion (FDE) Prediction Program as outlined in AC 20-138C, Appendix 1. A single GPS/WAAS receiver (TSO-C145 (as revised) or TSO-C146 (as revised)) is inherently capable of supporting oceanic operation if the operator obtains a FDE Prediction Program as outlined in AC 20-138C, Appendix 1.

2. GPS (TSO-C129 (as revised) or TSO-C196 (as revised)) domestic en route and terminal IFR operations can be conducted as soon as proper avionics systems are installed, provided all general requirements are met. For required backup navigation, the avionics necessary to receive all of the

ground-based facilities appropriate for the flight to the destination airport and any required alternate airport must be installed and operational. Ground-based facilities necessary for en route and terminal operations must also be in service.

(a) A single GPS/WAAS receiver (TSO-C145 (as revised) or TSO-C146 (as revised)) may also be used for these domestic en route and terminal IFR operations. Though not required, operators may consider retaining backup navigation equipment in their aircraft to guard against potential outages or interference.

(b) In Alaska, GPS en route IFR RNAV operations may be conducted outside the operational service volume of ground-based navigation aids when a GPS/WAAS (TSO-C145 (as revised) or TSO-C146 (as revised)) system is installed and operating. Ground-based navigation equipment is not required to be installed and operating. Though not required, operators may consider retaining backup navigation equipment in their aircraft to guard against potential outages or interference.

(1) Aircraft may operate on GNSS Q-routes with GPS (TSO-C129 (as revised) or TSO-C196 (as revised)) or GPS/WAAS equipment while the aircraft remains in Air Traffic Control radar surveillance.

(2) Aircraft may operate on GNSS T-routes with GPS/WAAS (TSO-C145 (as revised) or TSO-C146 (as revised)) equipment.

3. Authorization to fly approaches under IFR using GPS or GPS/WAAS avionics systems requires that a pilot use avionics with:

(a) GPS, TSO-C129, (as revised) authorization in class A1, B1, B3, C1, or C3;

(b) GPS, TSO-C196 (as revised) authorization; or

(c) GPS/WAAS, TSO-C145 (as revised) or TSO-C146 (as revised) authorization.

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	Nonprecision 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 Type ¹	Installation Approval Required	Operational Approval Required	IFR En Route ²	IFR Terminal ²	IFR Approach ³	Oceanic Remote	In Lieu of ADF and/or DME ³
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.

4. As the production of stand-alone GPS approaches has progressed, many of the original overlay approaches have been replaced with stand-alone procedures specifically designed for use

by GPS systems. A GPS approach overlay allows pilots to use GPS avionics under IFR for flying designated nonprecision instrument approach procedures, except LOC, LDA, and simplified

directional facility (SDF) procedures. These procedures are identified by the name of the procedure and “or GPS” (for example, VOR/DME or GPS RWY15). Other previous types of overlays have either been converted to this format or replaced with stand-alone procedures. Only approaches contained in the current onboard navigation database are authorized. The navigation database may contain information about non-overlay approach procedures that is intended to be used to enhance 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 approaches in the navigation database.)

f. General Database Requirements

1. 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.

(a) 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.

(b) 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.

(c) 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.

(d) 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:

(1) Preflight:

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

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

(2) Inflight:

[a] 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.

[b] Determine that the waypoints are generally logical in location, in the correct order, and that 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.

[c] 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.

g. GPS Approach Procedures

As the production of stand-alone GPS approaches has progressed, many of the original overlay approaches have been replaced with stand-alone procedures specifically designed for use by GPS systems. The title of the remaining GPS overlay procedures has been revised on the approach chart to “or GPS” (e.g., VOR or GPS RWY 24). Therefore, all the approaches that can be used by GPS now contain “GPS” in the title (e.g., “VOR or GPS RWY 24,” “GPS RWY 24,” or “RNAV (GPS) RWY 24”). During these GPS approaches, underlying ground-based NAVAIDs are not required to be operational and associated aircraft avionics need not be installed, operational, turned on or monitored (monitoring of the underlying approach is suggested when equipment is available and functional). Existing overlay approaches may be requested using the GPS title,

such as “GPS RWY 24” for the VOR or GPS RWY 24.

NOTE—

Any required alternate airport 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.

h. GPS NOTAMs/Aeronautical Information

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

2. The term UNRELIABLE is used in conjunction with GPS NOTAMs. The term UNRELIABLE is an advisory to pilots indicating the expected level of service may not be available. UNRELIABLE does not mean there is a problem with GPS signal integrity. If GPS service is available, pilots may continue operations. If the LNAV or LNAV/VNAV service is available, pilots may use the displayed level of service to fly the approach. GPS operation may be NOTAMed UNRELIABLE due to testing or anomalies. (Pilots are encouraged to report GPS anomalies, including degraded operation and/or loss of service, as soon as possible, reference paragraph 1–1–14.) Air Traffic Control will advise pilots requesting a GPS or RNAV (GPS) approach of GPS UNRELIABLE for:

(a) NOTAMs not contained in the ATIS broadcast.

(b) Pilot reports of GPS anomalies received within the preceding 15 minutes.

3. Civilian pilots may obtain GPS RAIM availability information for nonprecision approach procedures by specifically requesting GPS 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 time frame 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 time frame is

requested by the pilot. If flying a published GPS departure, a RAIM prediction should also be requested for the departure airport.

4. The military provides airfield specific GPS RAIM NOTAMs for 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.

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

i. Receiver Autonomous Integrity Monitoring (RAIM)

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

2. If RAIM is not available, another type of navigation and approach system must be used, another destination selected, or the trip delayed 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 early indications that an unscheduled satellite outage has occurred since takeoff.

3. If a RAIM failure/status annunciation occurs prior to the final approach waypoint (FAWP), the approach should not be completed since GPS may no longer provide the required accuracy. The receiver performs a RAIM prediction by 2 NM prior to the FAWP to ensure that RAIM is available at the FAWP as a condition for entering the approach mode. **The pilot should ensure that 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 completing the approach.

4. If the receiver does not sequence into the approach mode or a RAIM failure/status annunciation occurs prior to the FAWP, the pilot should not descend to Minimum Descent Altitude (MDA), but should proceed to the missed approach waypoint (MAWP) via the FAWP, perform a missed approach, and contact ATC as soon as practical. Refer to the receiver operating manual for specific indications and instructions associated with loss of RAIM prior to the FAF.

5. If a RAIM failure occurs after the FAWP, the receiver is allowed to continue operating without an annunciation for up to 5 minutes to allow completion of the approach (see receiver operating manual). **If the RAIM flag/status annunciation appears after the FAWP, the missed approach should be executed immediately.**

j. Waypoints

1. GPS approaches make use of both fly-over and fly-by waypoints. Fly-by waypoints are used when an aircraft should begin a turn to the next course prior to reaching the waypoint separating the two route segments. This is known as turn anticipation and is compensated for in the airspace and terrain clearances. Approach waypoints, except for the MAWP and the missed approach holding waypoint (MAHWP), are normally fly-by waypoints. Fly-over waypoints are used when the aircraft must fly over the point prior to starting a turn. New approach charts depict fly-over waypoints as a circled waypoint symbol. Overlay approach charts and some early stand alone GPS approach charts may not reflect this convention.

2. Since GPS receivers are basically “To-To” navigators, they must always be navigating to a defined point. On overlay approaches, if no pronounceable five-character name is published for an approach waypoint or fix, it was given a database identifier consisting of letters and numbers. These points will appear in the list of waypoints in the approach procedure database, but may not appear on the approach chart. A point used for the purpose of defining the navigation track for an airborne computer system (i.e., GPS or FMS) is called a Computer Navigation Fix (CNF). CNFs include

unnamed DME fixes, beginning and ending points of DME arcs and sensor final approach fixes (FAFs) on some GPS overlay approaches. To aid in the approach chart/database correlation process, the FAA has begun a program to assign five-letter names to CNFs and to chart CNFs on various FAA Aeronautical Navigation Products (AeroNav Products). These CNFs are not to be used for any air traffic control (ATC) application, such as holding for which the fix has not already been assessed. CNFs will be charted to distinguish them from conventional reporting points, fixes, intersections, and waypoints. The CNF name will be enclosed in parenthesis, e.g., (CFBCD), and the name will be placed next to the CNF it defines. If the CNF is not at an existing point defined by means such as crossing radials or radial/DME, the point will be indicated by an “X.” The CNF name will not be used in filing a flight plan or in aircraft/ATC communications. Use current phraseology, e.g., facility name, radial, distance, to describe these fixes.

3. Unnamed waypoints in the database will be uniquely identified for each airport but may be repeated for another airport (e.g., RW36 will be used at each airport with a runway 36 but will be at the same location for all approaches at a given airport).

4. The runway threshold waypoint, which is normally the MAWP, may have a five letter identifier (e.g., SNEEZ) or be coded as RW## (e.g., RW36, RW36L). Those thresholds which are coded as five letter identifiers are being changed to the RW## designation. This may cause the approach chart and database to differ 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. MAWPs not located at the threshold will have a five letter identifier.

k. Position Orientation

As with most RNAV systems, 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 nonsequencing mode. When the receiver is in the nonsequencing 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. On overlay approaches, the pilot may have to compute the along-track distance to stepdown fixes and other points due to the receiver showing along-track distance to the next waypoint rather than DME to the VOR or ILS ground station.

l. Conventional Versus GPS Navigation Data

There may be slight differences between the course information portrayed on navigational charts and a GPS navigation display when flying authorized GPS instrument procedures or along an airway. All magnetic tracks defined by any conventional navigation aids are determined by the application of the station magnetic variation. In contrast, GPS RNAV systems may use an algorithm, which applies the local magnetic variation and may produce small differences in the displayed course. However, both methods of navigation should produce the same desired ground track when using approved, IFR navigation system. Should significant differences between the approach chart and the GPS avionics' application of the navigation database arise, the published approach chart, supplemented by NOT-AMs, holds precedence.

Due to the GPS avionics' computation of great circle courses, and the variations in magnetic variation, the bearing to the next waypoint and the course from the last waypoint (if available) may not be exactly 180° apart when long distances are involved. Variations in distances will occur since GPS distance-to-waypoint values are along-track distances (ATD) 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.

m. 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.

n. Flying GPS Approaches

1. Determining which area of the TAA the aircraft will enter when flying a "T" with a TAA must be accomplished using the bearing and distance to the IF(IAF). This is most critical when entering the TAA in the vicinity of the extended runway centerline and determining whether you will be entering the right or left base area. Once inside the TAA, all sectors and stepdowns are based on the bearing and distance to the IAF for that area, which the aircraft should be proceeding direct to at that time, unless on vectors. (See FIG 5-4-3 and FIG 5-4-4.)

2. Pilots should fly the full approach from an Initial Approach Waypoint (IAWP) or feeder fix unless specifically cleared otherwise. Randomly joining an approach at an intermediate fix does not assure terrain clearance.

3. When an approach has been loaded in the flight plan, 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 it has not already been 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, CDI sensitivity will not change until the aircraft is within 30 miles of the airport/heliport reference point even if the approach is armed earlier. 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 FAWP with the approach mode armed, the approach mode will switch to active, which results in RAIM changing to approach sensitivity and a change in CDI 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 nonsequencing 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 on-board database is current and identified as "GPS" on the approach chart. The navigation database may contain information about nonoverlay approach procedures that is intended to be used to enhance 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 nonprecision 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 (e.g., IAWP, FAWP, MAHPW 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 (e.g., 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 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 will 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, since most GPS avionics do not accommodate waypoints between the FAF and MAP, even when the waypoint is named, the waypoints for these stepdown fixes may not appear in the sequence of waypoints in the navigation database. Pilots must continue to identify these stepdown fixes using ATD.

o. 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 ($\pm 1\text{NM}$) 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.

p. GPS Familiarization

Pilots should practice GPS approaches under visual meteorological conditions (VMC) until thoroughly proficient with all aspects of their equipment (receiver and installation) prior to attempting flight by IFR in instrument meteorological conditions (IMC). Some of the areas which the pilot should practice are:

- 1.** Utilizing 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 (some receivers are not DP or STAR capable);
- 3.** Programming the destination airport;
- 4.** Programming and flying the overlay 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 overlay 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).

1-1-20. Wide Area Augmentation System (WAAS)

a. General

1. The FAA developed the Wide Area Augmentation System (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 Category I precision approach when it is complete. WAAS is a critical component of the FAA's strategic objective for a seamless satellite navigation system for civil aviation, improving capacity and safety.

2. The International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) has defined Standards and Recommended Practices (SARPs) for satellite-based augmentation systems (SBAS) such as WAAS. Japan and Europe are building similar systems that are planned to be interoperable with WAAS: EGNOS, the European Geostationary Navigation Overlay System, and MSAS, the Japan Multifunctional Transport Satellite (MTSAT) Satellite-based Augmentation System. The merging of these systems will create a worldwide seamless 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 ground 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 satellite (GEO) via a ground uplink station (GUS). 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 25 WRSs, 2 WMSs, 4 GUSs, and the required terrestrial communications to support the WAAS

network. Prior to the commissioning of the WAAS for public use, the FAA has been conducting a series of test and validation activities. Enhancements to the initial phase of WAAS will include additional master and reference stations, communication satellites, and transmission frequencies as needed.

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 new 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 new procedures called Approach with Vertical Guidance (APV), are defined in ICAO Annex 6, and include approaches such as the LNAV/VNAV procedures presently being flown with barometric vertical navigation (Baro-VNAV). 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 these LNAV/VNAV procedures using a WAAS electronic glide path, which eliminates the errors that can be introduced by using Barometric altimetry.

2. A new type of APV approach procedure, in addition to LNAV/VNAV, is being implemented to take 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. The resulting approach procedure minima, titled LPV (localizer performance with vertical guidance), 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 new nonprecision WAAS approach, called Localizer Performance (LP) is being added in locations where the terrain or obstructions do not

allow publication of vertically guided LPV procedures. This new approach 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 Flight Manual 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-C145a, Airborne Navigation Sensors Using the (GPS) Augmented by the Wide Area Augmentation System (WAAS); or TSO-C146a, Stand-Alone Airborne Navigation Equipment Using the Global Positioning System (GPS) Augmented by the Wide Area Augmentation System (WAAS), and installed in accordance with Advisory Circular (AC) 20-130A, Airworthiness Approval of Navigation or Flight Management Systems Integrating Multiple Navigation Sensors, or AC 20-138A, Airworthiness Approval of Global Positioning System (GPS) Navigation Equipment for Use as a VFR and IFR Navigation System.

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

3. GPS/WAAS equipment is inherently capable of supporting oceanic and remote operations if the

operator obtains a fault detection and exclusion (FDE) prediction program.

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

5. Prior to GPS/WAAS IFR operation, the pilot must review appropriate Notices to Airmen (NOT-AMs) 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 UNRELIABLE is used in conjunction with GPS and WAAS NOTAMs. The term UNRELIABLE is an advisory to pilots indicating the expected level of WAAS service (LNAV/VNAV, LPV) may not be available; e.g., **!BOS BOS WAAS LPV AND LNAV/VNAV MNM UNREL WEF 0305231700 – 0305231815**. WAAS UNRELIABLE NOTAMs are predictive in nature and published for flight planning purposes. Upon commencing an approach at locations NOTAMED WAAS UNRELIABLE, 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 may be required.

(1) Area-wide WAAS UNAVAILABLE 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 UNAVAILABLE NOTAMs if not contained in the ATIS broadcast.

(2) Site-specific WAAS UNRELIABLE NOTAMs indicate an expected level of service, e.g., LNAV/VNAV 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 UNRELIABLE NOTAMs.

(3) When the approach chart is annotated with the **W** symbol, site-specific WAAS UNRELIABLE 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 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 UNAVAILABLE NOTAMs apply to all airports in the WAAS UNAVAILABLE area designated in the NOTAM, including approaches at airports where an approach chart is annotated with the **W** symbol.*

6. GPS/WAAS was developed to be used within SBAS GEO coverage (WAAS or other interoperable system) without the need for other radio navigation equipment appropriate to the route of flight to be flown. Outside the SBAS 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.

7. 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.

(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 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 nonprecision 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.

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 announcement will read “LNAV available.” On lateral only procedures with LP and LNAV minima the receiver will indicate “LP available” or “LNAV available” based on the level of lateral service available. Once

the level of service notification has been given, the receiver will operate in this mode for the duration of the approach procedure, unless that level of service becomes unavailable. The receiver cannot change back to a more accurate level of service until the next time an approach is activated.

NOTE—

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

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

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

extended final approach course similar to ILS, the vector to final (VTF) mode is used. Under VTF the scaling is linear at ± 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 requests 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 cause the DA to be raised.

6. A new method has been added for selecting the final approach segment of an instrument approach. Along with the current method used by most receivers using 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 until the ATD reaches 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.

1-1-21. Ground Based Augmentation System (GBAS) Landing System (GLS)

a. General

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

NOTE-

GBAS is the ICAO term for Local Area Augmentation System (LAAS).

2. LAAS was developed as an “ILS look-alike” system from the pilot perspective. LAAS is based on GPS signals augmented by ground equipment and has been developed to provide GLS precision approaches similar to ILS at airfields.

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

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

b. Procedure

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

2. Following procedure selection, confirmation that the correct LAAS procedure is loaded can be accomplished by cross checking the charted Reference Path Indicator (RPI) or approach ID with

the cockpit displayed RPI or audio identification of the RPI with Morse Code (for some systems).

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

1-1-22. Precision Approach Systems other than ILS, GLS, and MLS

a. General

Approval and use of precision approach systems other than ILS, GLS and MLS 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.

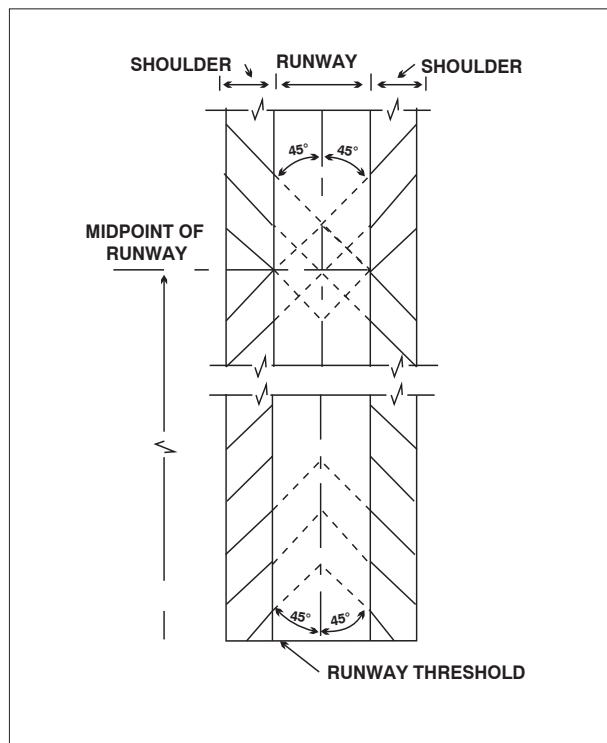
3. Ground equipment consists of GPS receivers and a VHF digital radio transmitter. The SCAT-I DGPS detects the position of GPS satellites relative to GPS receiver equipment and broadcasts differential corrections over the VHF digital radio.

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

REFERENCE-

AIM, Para 5-4-7, Instrument Approach Procedures.

FIG 2-3-5
Runway Shoulder Markings



2-3-4. Taxiway Markings

a. General. All taxiways should have centerline markings and runway holding position markings whenever they intersect a runway. Taxiway edge markings are present whenever there is a need to separate the taxiway from a pavement that is not intended for aircraft use or to delineate the edge of the taxiway. Taxiways may also have shoulder markings and holding position markings for Instrument Landing System/Microwave Landing System (ILS/MLS) critical areas, and taxiway/taxiway intersection markings.

REFERENCE-

AIM, Holding Position Markings, Paragraph 2-3-5

b. Taxiway Centerline.

1. Normal Centerline. The taxiway centerline is a single continuous yellow line, 6 inches (15 cm) to 12 inches (30 cm) in width. This provides a visual cue to permit taxiing along a designated path. Ideally, the aircraft should be kept centered over this line during taxi. However, being centered on the taxiway centerline does not guarantee wingtip clearance with other aircraft or other objects.

2. Enhanced Centerline. At some airports, mostly the larger commercial service airports, an enhanced taxiway centerline will be used. The enhanced taxiway centerline marking consists of a parallel line of yellow dashes on either side of the normal taxiway centerline. The taxiway centerlines are enhanced for a maximum of 150 feet prior to a runway holding position marking. The purpose of this enhancement is to warn the pilot that he/she is approaching a runway holding position marking and should prepare to stop unless he/she has been cleared onto or across the runway by ATC. (See FIG 2-3-8.)

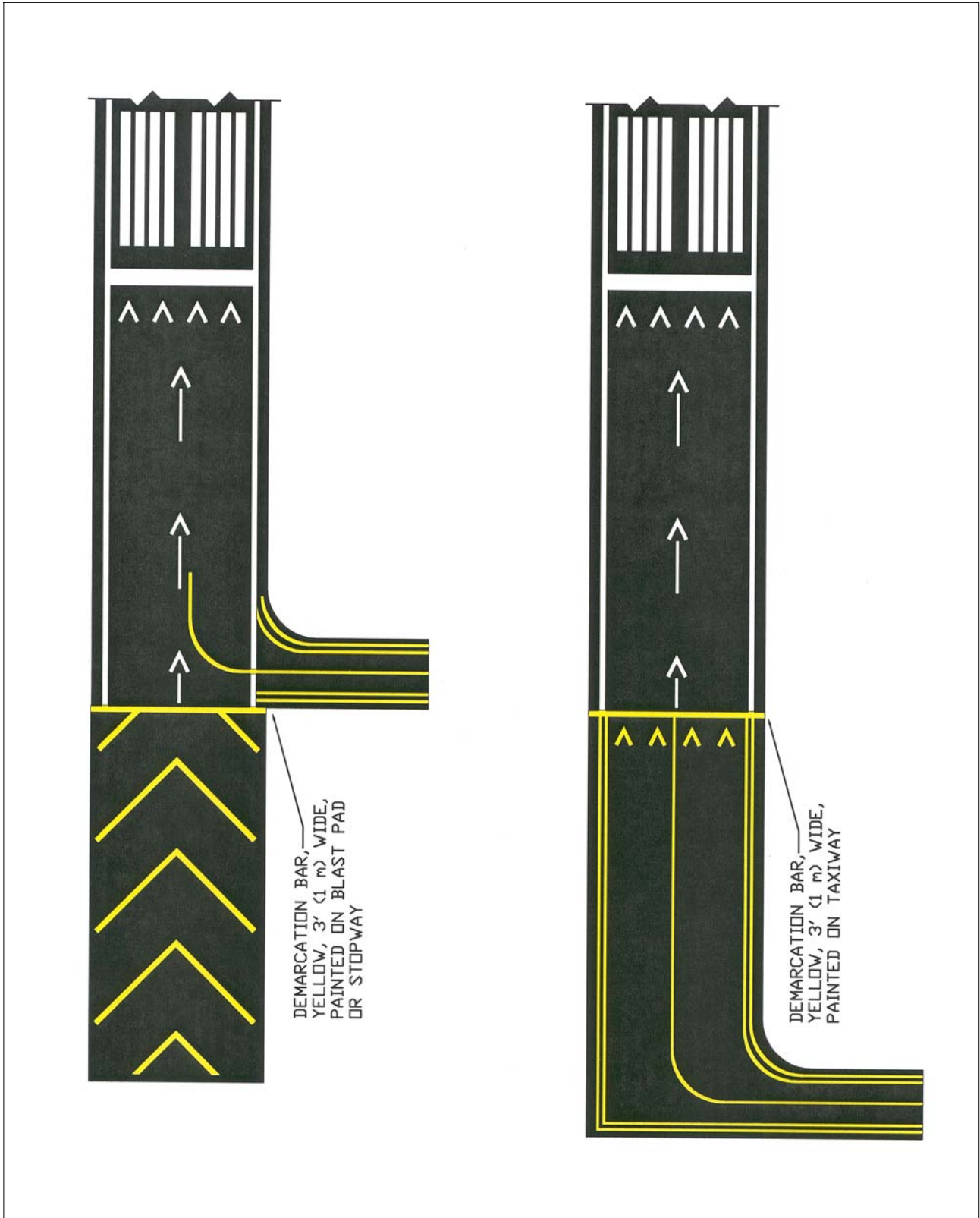
c. Taxiway Edge Markings. Taxiway edge markings are used to define the edge of the taxiway. They are primarily used when the taxiway edge does not correspond with the edge of the pavement. There are two types of markings depending upon whether the aircraft is supposed to cross the taxiway edge:

1. Continuous Markings. These consist of a continuous double yellow line, with each line being at least 6 inches (15 cm) in width spaced 6 inches (15 cm) apart. They are used to define the taxiway edge from the shoulder or some other abutting paved surface not intended for use by aircraft.

2. Dashed Markings. These markings are used when there is an operational need to define the edge of a taxiway or taxilane on a paved surface where the adjoining pavement to the taxiway edge is intended for use by aircraft, e.g., an apron. Dashed taxiway edge markings consist of a broken double yellow line, with each line being at least 6 inches (15 cm) in width, spaced 6 inches (15 cm) apart (edge to edge). These lines are 15 feet (4.5 m) in length with 25 foot (7.5 m) gaps. (See FIG 2-3-9.)

d. Taxi Shoulder Markings. Taxiways, holding bays, and aprons are sometimes provided with paved shoulders to prevent blast and water erosion. Although shoulders may have the appearance of full strength pavement they are not intended for use by aircraft, and may be unable to support an aircraft. Usually the taxiway edge marking will define this area. Where conditions exist such as islands or taxiway curves that may cause confusion as to which side of the edge stripe is for use by aircraft, taxiway shoulder markings may be used to indicate the pavement is unusable. Taxiway shoulder markings are yellow. (See FIG 2-3-10.)

FIG 2-3-6
Markings for Blast Pad or Stopway or Taxiway Preceding a Displaced Threshold



Section 2. Controlled Airspace

3-2-1. General

a. Controlled Airspace. A generic term that covers the different classification of airspace (Class A, Class B, Class C, Class D, and Class E airspace) and defined dimensions within which air traffic control service is provided to IFR flights and to VFR flights in accordance with the airspace classification. (See FIG 3-2-1.)

b. IFR Requirements. IFR operations in any class of controlled airspace requires that a pilot must file an IFR flight plan and receive an appropriate ATC clearance.

c. IFR Separation. Standard IFR separation is provided to all aircraft operating under IFR in controlled airspace.

d. VFR Requirements. It is the responsibility of the pilot to ensure that ATC clearance or radio communication requirements are met prior to entry

into Class B, Class C, or Class D airspace. The pilot retains this responsibility when receiving ATC radar advisories. (See 14 CFR Part 91.)

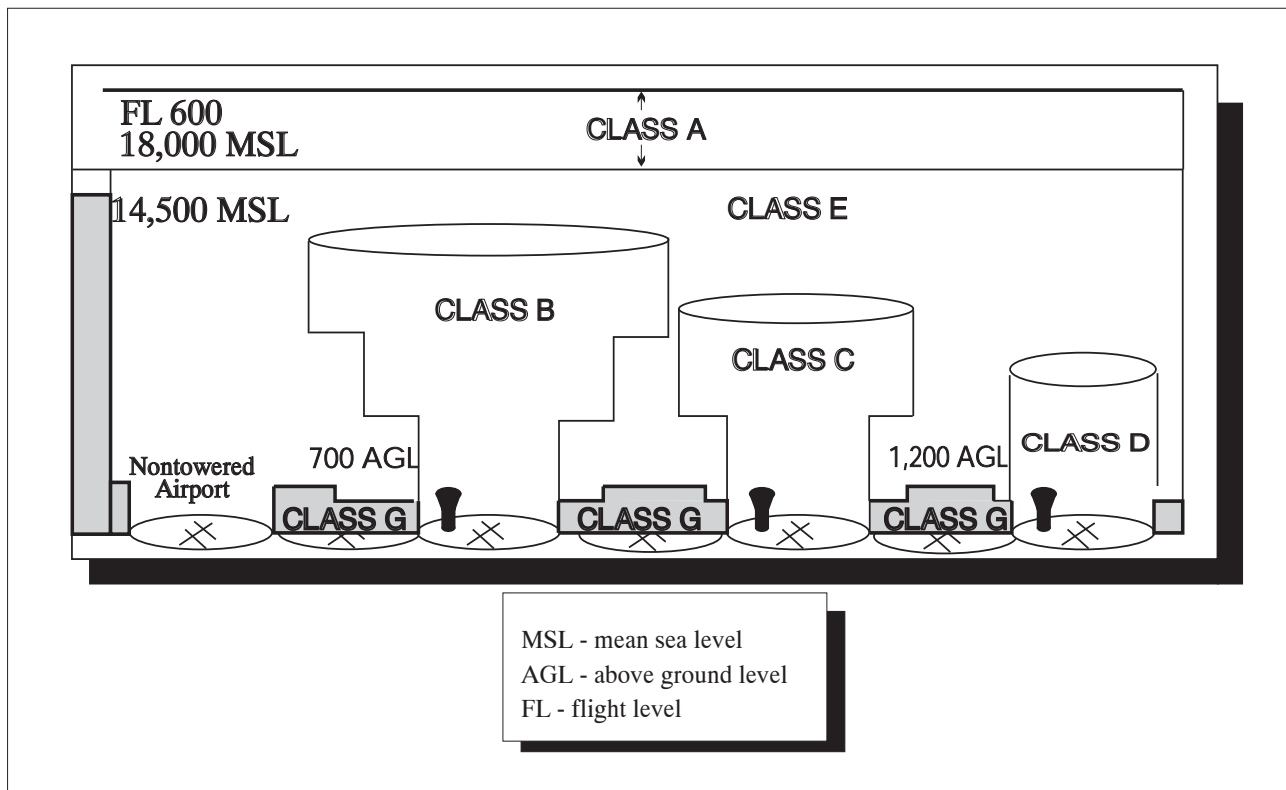
e. Traffic Advisories. Traffic advisories will be provided to all aircraft as the controller's work situation permits.

f. Safety Alerts. Safety Alerts are mandatory services and are provided to ALL aircraft. There are two types of Safety Alerts:

1. Terrain/Obstruction Alert. A Terrain/Obstruction Alert is issued when, in the controller's judgment, an aircraft's altitude places it in unsafe proximity to terrain and/or obstructions; and

2. Aircraft Conflict/Mode C Intruder Alert. An Aircraft Conflict/Mode C Intruder Alert is issued if the controller observes another aircraft which places it in an unsafe proximity. When feasible, the controller will offer the pilot an alternative course of action.

FIG 3-2-1
Airspace Classes



g. Ultralight Vehicles. No person may operate an ultralight vehicle within Class A, Class B, Class C, or Class D airspace or within the lateral boundaries of the surface area of Class E airspace designated for an airport unless that person has prior authorization from the ATC facility having jurisdiction over that airspace. (See 14 CFR Part 103.)

h. Unmanned Free Balloons. Unless otherwise authorized by ATC, no person may operate an unmanned free balloon below 2,000 feet above the surface within the lateral boundaries of Class B, Class C, Class D, or Class E airspace designated for an airport. (See 14 CFR Part 101.)

i. Parachute Jumps. No person may make a parachute jump, and no pilot-in-command may allow a parachute jump to be made from that aircraft, in or into Class A, Class B, Class C, or Class D airspace without, or in violation of, the terms of an ATC authorization issued by the ATC facility having jurisdiction over the airspace. (See 14 CFR Part 105.)

3-2-2. Class A Airspace

a. Definition. Generally, that airspace from 18,000 feet MSL up to and including FL 600, including the airspace overlying the waters within 12 nautical miles off the coast of the 48 contiguous States and Alaska; and designated international airspace beyond 12 nautical miles off the coast of the 48 contiguous States and Alaska within areas of domestic radio navigational signal or ATC radar coverage, and within which domestic procedures are applied.

b. Operating Rules and Pilot/Equipment Requirements. Unless otherwise authorized, all persons must operate their aircraft under IFR. (See 14 CFR Section 71.33 and 14 CFR Section 91.167 through 14 CFR Section 91.193.)

c. Charts. Class A airspace is not specifically charted.

3-2-3. Class B Airspace

a. Definition. Generally, that airspace from the surface to 10,000 feet MSL surrounding the nation's busiest airports in terms of IFR operations or passenger enplanements. The configuration of each Class B airspace area is individually tailored and

consists of a surface area and two or more layers (some Class B airspace areas resemble upside-down wedding cakes), and is designed to contain all published instrument procedures once an aircraft enters the airspace. An ATC clearance is required for all aircraft to operate in the area, and all aircraft that are so cleared receive separation services within the airspace. The cloud clearance requirement for VFR operations is "clear of clouds."

b. Operating Rules and Pilot/Equipment Requirements for VFR Operations. Regardless of weather conditions, an ATC clearance is required prior to operating within Class B airspace. Pilots should not request a clearance to operate within Class B airspace unless the requirements of 14 CFR Section 91.215 and 14 CFR Section 91.131 are met. Included among these requirements are:

1. Unless otherwise authorized by ATC, aircraft must be equipped with an operable two-way radio capable of communicating with ATC on appropriate frequencies for that Class B airspace.

2. No person may take off or land a civil aircraft at the following primary airports within Class B airspace unless the pilot-in-command holds at least a private pilot certificate:

- (a) Andrews Air Force Base, MD
- (b) Atlanta Hartsfield Airport, GA
- (c) Boston Logan Airport, MA
- (d) Chicago O'Hare Intl. Airport, IL
- (e) Dallas/Fort Worth Intl. Airport, TX
- (f) Los Angeles Intl. Airport, CA
- (g) Miami Intl. Airport, FL
- (h) Newark Intl. Airport, NJ
- (i) New York Kennedy Airport, NY
- (j) New York La Guardia Airport, NY
- (k) Ronald Reagan Washington National Airport, DC
- (l) San Francisco Intl. Airport, CA

3. No person may take off or land a civil aircraft at an airport within Class B airspace or operate a civil aircraft within Class B airspace unless:

(a) The pilot-in-command holds at least a private pilot certificate; or

Data Center (FDC) NOTAMs, Pointer NOTAMs, and Military NOTAMs.

1. NOTAM (D) information is disseminated for all navigational facilities that are part of the National Airspace System (NAS), all public use airports, seaplane bases, and heliports listed in the Airport/Facility Directory (A/FD). The complete file of all NOTAM (D) information is maintained in a computer database at the Weather Message Switching Center (WMSC), located in Atlanta, Georgia. This category of information is distributed automatically via Service A telecommunications system. Air traffic facilities, primarily FSSs, with Service A capability have access to the entire WMSC database of NOTAMs. These NOTAMs remain available via Service A for the duration of their validity or until published. Once published, the NOTAM data is deleted from the system. NOTAM (D) information includes such data as taxiway closures, personnel and equipment near or crossing runways, and airport lighting aids that do not affect instrument approach criteria, such as VASI.

All NOTAM Ds must have one of the following keywords as the first part of the text after the location identifier:

Keyword	Definition
RWY <i>Example</i>	Runway ABC XX/XXX ABC <u>RWY</u> 3/21 CLSD
TWY <i>Example</i>	Taxiway ABC XX/XXX ABC <u>TWY</u> F LGTS OTS
RAMP <i>Example</i>	Ramp ABC XX/XXX ABC <u>RAMP</u> TERMINAL EAST SIDE CONSTRUCTION
APRON <i>Example</i>	Apron ABC XX/XXX ABC <u>APRON</u> SW TWY C NEAR HANGARS CLSD
AD <i>Example</i>	Aerodrome ABC XX/XXX ABC <u>AD</u> ABN OTS
OBST <i>Example</i>	Obstruction ABC XX/XXX ABC <u>OBST</u> TOWER 283 (246 AGL) 2.2 S LGTS OTS (ASR 1065881) TIL 1003282300
NAV <i>Example</i>	Navigation ABC XX/XXX ABC <u>NAV</u> VOR OTS
COM <i>Example</i>	Communications ABC XX/XXX ABC <u>COM</u> ATIS OTS
SVC <i>Example</i>	Services XX/XXX ABC <u>SVC</u> JET FUEL UNAVBL TIL 1003291600

Keyword	Definition
AIRSPACE .. <i>Example</i>	Airspace ABC XX/XXX ABC <u>AIRSPACE</u> AIRSHOW ACFT 5000/BLW 5 NMR AIRPORT AVOIDANCE ADZD TIL 1003152200
U	Unverified Aeronautical Information <i>(for use only where authorized by Letter of Agreement)*</i>
O	Other Aeronautical Information**

* **Unverified Aeronautical Information** can be movement area or other information received that meets NOTAM criteria and has not been confirmed by the Airport Manager (AMGR) or their designee. If Flight Service is unable to contact airport management, Flight Service must forward (U) NOTAM information to the United States NOTAM System (USNS). Subsequent to USNS distribution of a (U) NOTAM, Flight Service will inform airport management of the action taken as soon as practical. Any such NOTAM will be prefaced with “(U)” as the keyword and followed by the appropriate keyword contraction, following the location identifier.

** **Other Aeronautical Information** is that which is received from any authorized source that may be beneficial to aircraft operations and does not meet defined NOTAM criteria. Any such NOTAM will be prefaced with “(O)” as the keyword following the location identifier.

2. FDC NOTAMs

(a) On those occasions when it becomes necessary to disseminate information which is regulatory in nature, the National Flight Data Center (NFDC), in Washington, DC, will issue an FDC NOTAM. FDC NOTAMs contain such things as amendments to published IAPs and other current aeronautical charts. They are also used to advertise temporary flight restrictions caused by such things as natural disasters or large-scale public events that may generate a congestion of air traffic over a site.

(b) FDC NOTAMs are transmitted via Service A only once and are kept on file at the FSS until published or canceled. FSSs are responsible for maintaining a file of current, unpublished FDC NOTAMs concerning conditions within 400 miles of their facilities. FDC information concerning conditions that are more than 400 miles from the FSS, or that is already published, is given to a pilot only on request.

NOTE-

1. *DUATS vendors will provide FDC NOTAMs only upon site-specific requests using a location identifier.*

2. *NOTAM data may not always be current due to the changeable nature of national airspace system components, delays inherent in processing information, and occasional temporary outages of the U.S. NOTAM system. While en route, pilots should contact FSSs and obtain updated information for their route of flight and destination.*

3. Pointer NOTAMs. NOTAMs issued by a flight service station to highlight or point out another NOTAM, such as an FDC or NOTAM (D) NOTAM. This type of NOTAM will assist users in cross-referencing important information that may not be found under an airport or NAVAID identifier. Keywords in pointer NOTAMs must match the keywords in the NOTAM that is being pointed out. The keyword in pointer NOTAMs related to Temporary Flight Restrictions (TFR) must be AIRSPACE.

4. Special Use Airspace (SUA) NOTAMs. SUA NOTAMs are issued when Special Use Airspace will be active outside the published schedule times and when required by the published schedule. Pilots and other users are still responsible to check published schedule times for Special Use Airspace as well as any NOTAMs for that airspace.

5. Military NOTAMs. NOTAMs pertaining to U.S. Air Force, Army, Marine, and Navy navigational aids/airports that are part of the NAS.

c. An integral part of the NOTAM System is the Notices to Airmen Publication (NTAP) published every four weeks. Data is included in this publication to reduce congestion on the telecommunications circuits and, therefore, is not available via Service A. Once published, the information is not provided during pilot weather briefings unless specifically requested by the pilot. This publication contains two sections.

1. The first section consists of notices that meet the criteria for NOTAM (D) and are expected to remain in effect for an extended period and FDC NOTAMs that are current at the time of publication. Occasionally, unique information is included in this section when it will contribute to flight safety.

2. The second section contains special notices that are either too long or concern a wide or

unspecified geographic area and are not suitable for inclusion in the first section. The content of these notices vary widely and there are no specific criteria for their inclusion, other than their enhancement of flight safety.

3. The number of the last FDC NOTAM included in the publication is noted on the first page to aid the user in updating the listing with any FDC NOTAMs which may have been issued between the cut-off date and the date the publication is received. All information contained will be carried until the information expires, is canceled, or in the case of permanent conditions, is published in other publications, such as the A/FD.

4. All new notices entered, excluding FDC NOTAMs, will be published only if the information is expected to remain in effect for at least 7 days after the effective date of the publication.

d. NOTAM information is not available from a Supplemental Weather Service Locations (SWSL).

TBL 5-1-1
NOTAM CONTRACTIONS

	A
AADC	Approach and Departure Control
ABV	Above
A/C	Approach Control
ACCUM	Accumulate
ACFT	Aircraft
ACR	Air Carrier
ACTV/ACTVT	Active/Activate
ADF	Automatic Direction Finder
ADJ	Adjacent
ADZ/ADZD	Advise/Advised
AFD	Airport/Facility Directory
ALS	Approach Light System
ALTM	Altimeter
ALTN/ALTNLY	Alternate/Alternately
ALSTG	Altimeter Setting
AMDT	Amendment
APCH	Approach
APL	Airport Lights
ARFF	Aircraft Rescue & Fire Fighting
ARPT	Airport
ARSR	Air Route Surveillance Radar
ASDE	Airport Surface Detection Equipment
ASOS	Automated Surface Observing System
ASPH	Asphalt
ASR	Airport Surveillance Radar
ATC	Air Traffic Control
ATCT	Airport Traffic Control Tower
ATIS	Automated Terminal Information Service
AVBL	Available

4. Expect Departure Clearance Time (EDCT). The EDCT is the runway release time assigned to an aircraft included in traffic management programs. Aircraft are expected to depart no earlier than 5 minutes before, and no later than 5 minutes after the EDCT.

b. If practical, pilots departing uncontrolled airports should obtain IFR clearances prior to becoming airborne when two-way communications with the controlling ATC facility is available.

5-2-7. Departure Control

a. Departure Control is an approach control function responsible for ensuring separation between departures. So as to expedite the handling of departures, Departure Control may suggest a takeoff direction other than that which may normally have been used under VFR handling. Many times it is preferred to offer the pilot a runway that will require the fewest turns after takeoff to place the pilot on course or selected departure route as quickly as possible. At many locations particular attention is paid to the use of preferential runways for local noise abatement programs, and route departures away from congested areas.

b. Departure Control utilizing radar will normally clear aircraft out of the terminal area using DPs via radio navigation aids.

1. When a departure is to be vectored immediately following takeoff, the pilot will be advised prior to takeoff of the initial heading to be flown but may not be advised of the purpose of the heading.

2. At some airports when a departure will fly an RNAV SID that begins at the runway, ATC may advise aircraft of the initial fix/waypoint on the RNAV route. The purpose of the advisory is to remind pilots to verify the correct procedure is programmed in the FMS before takeoff. Pilots must immediately advise ATC if a different RNAV SID is entered in the aircraft's FMC. When this advisory is absent, pilots are still required to fly the assigned SID as published.

EXAMPLE-

Delta 345 RNAV to MPASS, Runway26L, cleared for takeoff.

NOTE-

1. *The SID transition is not restated as it is contained in the ATC clearance.*

2. *Aircraft cleared via RNAV SIDs designed to begin with a vector to the initial waypoint are assigned a heading before departure.*

3. Pilots operating in a radar environment are expected to associate departure headings or an RNAV departure advisory with vectors or the flight path to their planned route or flight. When given a vector taking the aircraft off a previously assigned nonradar route, the pilot will be advised briefly what the vector is to achieve. Thereafter, radar service will be provided until the aircraft has been reestablished "on-course" using an appropriate navigation aid and the pilot has been advised of the aircraft's position or a handoff is made to another radar controller with further surveillance capabilities.

c. Controllers will inform pilots of the departure control frequencies and, if appropriate, the transponder code before takeoff. Pilots must ensure their transponder is adjusted to the "on" or normal operating position as soon as practical and remain on during all operations unless otherwise requested to change to "standby" by ATC. Pilots should not change to the departure control frequency until requested. Controllers may omit the departure control frequency if a DP has or will be assigned and the departure control frequency is published on the DP.

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

Instrument departure procedures are preplanned instrument flight rule (IFR) procedures which provide obstruction clearance from the terminal area to the appropriate en route structure. There are two types of DPs, Obstacle Departure Procedures (ODPs), printed either textually or graphically, and Standard Instrument Departures (SIDs), always printed graphically. All DPs, either textual or graphic may be designed using either conventional or RNAV criteria. RNAV procedures will have RNAV printed in the title, e.g., SHEAD TWO DEPARTURE (RNAV). ODPs 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. Graphic ODPs will have (OBSTACLE) printed in the procedure title, e.g., GEYSR THREE

DEPARTURE (OBSTACLE), or, CROWN ONE DEPARTURE (RNAV) (OBSTACLE). Standard Instrument Departures are air traffic control (ATC) procedures printed for pilot/controller use in graphic form to provide obstruction clearance and a transition from the terminal area to the appropriate en route structure. SIDs are primarily designed for system enhancement and to reduce pilot/controller workload. ATC clearance must be received prior to flying a SID. All DPs provide the pilot with a way to depart the airport and transition to the en route structure safely. Pilots operating under 14 CFR Part 91 are strongly encouraged to file and fly a DP at night, during marginal Visual Meteorological Conditions (VMC) and Instrument Meteorological Conditions (IMC), when one is available. The following paragraphs will provide an overview of the DP program, why DPs are developed, what criteria are used, where to find them, how they are to be flown, and finally pilot and ATC responsibilities.

a. Why are DPs necessary? The primary reason is to provide obstacle clearance protection information to pilots. A secondary reason, at busier airports, is to increase efficiency and reduce communications and departure delays through the use of SIDs. When an instrument approach is initially developed for an airport, the need for DPs is assessed. The procedure designer conducts an obstacle analysis to support departure operations. If an aircraft may turn in any direction from a runway within the limits of the assessment area (see paragraph 5-2-8b3) and remain clear of obstacles, that runway passes what is called a diverse departure assessment and no ODP will be published. A SID may be published if needed for air traffic control purposes. However, if an obstacle penetrates what is called the 40:1 obstacle identification surface, then the procedure designer chooses whether to:

1. Establish a steeper than normal climb gradient; or
2. Establish a steeper than normal climb gradient with an alternative that increases takeoff minima to allow the pilot to visually remain clear of the obstacle(s); or
3. Design and publish a specific departure route; or
4. A combination or all of the above.

b. What criteria is used to provide obstruction clearance during departure?

1. Unless specified otherwise, required obstacle clearance for all departures, including diverse, is based on the pilot crossing the departure end of the runway at least 35 feet above the departure end of runway elevation, climbing to 400 feet above the departure end of runway elevation before making the initial turn, and maintaining a minimum climb gradient of 200 feet per nautical mile (FPNM), unless required to level off by a crossing restriction, until the minimum IFR altitude. A greater climb gradient may be specified in the DP to clear obstacles or to achieve an ATC crossing restriction. If an initial turn higher than 400 feet above the departure end of runway elevation is specified in the DP, the turn should be commenced at the higher altitude. If a turn is specified at a fix, the turn must be made at that fix. Fixes may have minimum and/or maximum crossing altitudes that must be adhered to prior to passing the fix. In rare instances, obstacles that exist on the extended runway centerline may make an “early turn” more desirable than proceeding straight ahead. In these cases, the published departure instructions will include the language “turn left(right) as soon as practicable.” These departures will also include a ceiling and visibility minimum of at least 300 and 1. Pilots encountering one of these DPs should preplan the climb out to gain altitude and begin the turn as quickly as possible within the bounds of safe operating practices and operating limitations. This type of departure procedure is being phased out.

NOTE-

“Practical” or “feasible” may exist in some existing departure text instead of “practicable.”

2. ODPs and SIDs assume normal aircraft performance, and that all engines are operating. Development of contingency procedures, required to cover the case of an engine failure or other emergency in flight that may occur after liftoff, is the responsibility of the operator. (More detailed information on this subject is available in Advisory Circular AC 120-91, Airport Obstacle Analysis, and in the “Departure Procedures” section of chapter 2 in the Instrument Procedures Handbook, FAA-H-8261-1.)

3. The 40:1 obstacle identification surface (OIS) begins at the departure end of runway (DER) and slopes upward at 152 FPNM until reaching the minimum IFR altitude or entering the en route struc-

ture. This assessment area is limited to 25 NM from the airport in nonmountainous areas and 46 NM in designated mountainous areas. Beyond this distance, the pilot is responsible for obstacle clearance if not operating on a published route, if below (having not reached) the MEA or MOCA of a published route, or an ATC assigned altitude. See FIG 5-2-1. (Ref 14

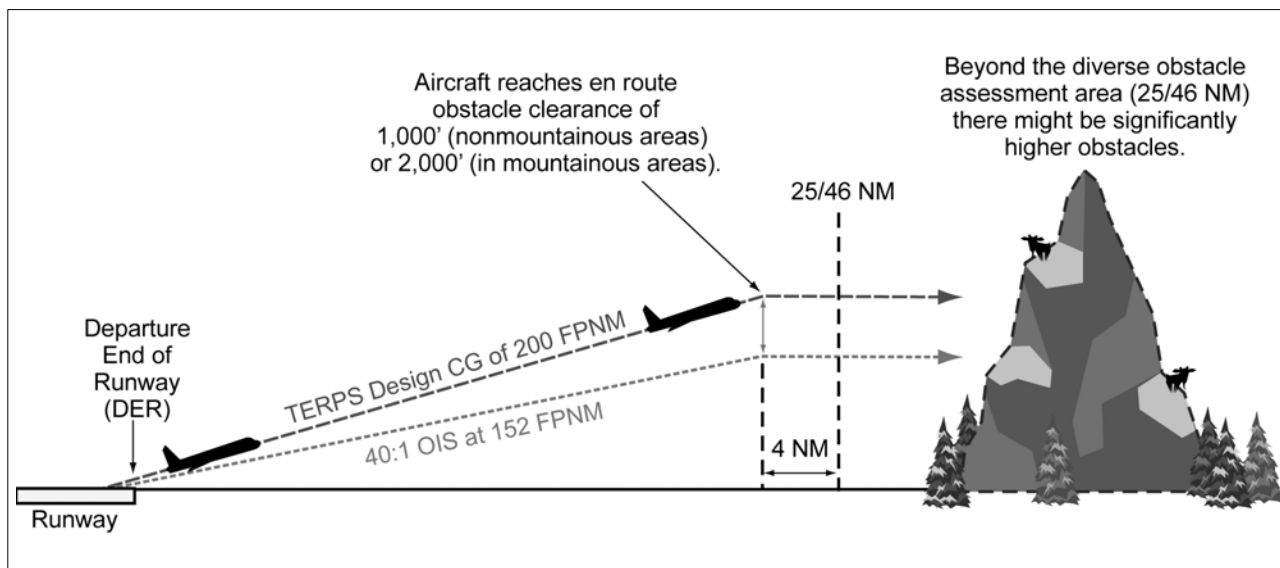
CFR 91.177 for further information on en route altitudes.)

NOTE-

ODPs are normally designed to terminate within these distance limitations, however, some ODPs will contain routes that may exceed 25/46 NM; these routes will ensure obstacle protection until reaching the end of the ODP.

FIG 5-2-1

Diverse Departure Obstacle Assessment to 25/46 NM



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

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

EXAMPLE-

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

EXAMPLE-

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

included in the ATC clearance. ATC requires a climb gradient of 310 FPNM to 4000, however, this ATC climb gradient may be amended or canceled.

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

EXAMPLE–

“Minimum climb 340 FPNM to ALPHA.” The pilot climbs at least 340 FPNM to ALPHA, then at least 200 FPNM to MIA.

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

EXAMPLE–

“Climb in visual conditions so as to cross the McElory Airport southbound, at or above 6000, then climb via Keemling radial zero three three to Keemling VORTAC.”

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

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

clearance from these obstacles. That segment of the procedure that requires the pilot to see and avoid obstacles ends when the aircraft crosses the specified point at the required altitude. In all cases continued obstacle clearance is based on having climbed a minimum of 200 feet per nautical mile to the specified point and then continuing to climb at least 200 foot per nautical mile during the departure until reaching the minimum enroute altitude, unless specified otherwise.

2. ATC may assume responsibility for obstacle clearance by vectoring the aircraft prior to reaching the minimum vectoring altitude by using a Diverse Vector Area (DVA). The DVA has been assessed for departures which do not follow a specific ground track. ATC may also vector an aircraft off a previously assigned DP. In all cases, the 200 FPNM climb gradient is assumed and obstacle clearance is not provided by ATC until the controller begins to provide navigational guidance in the form of radar vectors.

NOTE–

When used by the controller during departure, the term “radar contact” should not be interpreted as relieving pilots of their responsibility to maintain appropriate terrain and obstruction clearance which may include flying the obstacle DP.

3. Pilots must preplan to determine if the aircraft can meet the climb gradient (expressed in feet per nautical mile) required by the departure procedure, and be aware that flying at a higher than anticipated ground speed increases the climb rate requirement in feet per minute. Higher than standard climb gradients are specified by a note on the departure procedure chart for graphic DPs, or in the Take-Off Minimums and (Obstacle) Departure Procedures section of the U.S. Terminal Procedures booklet for textual ODPs. The required climb gradient, or higher, must be maintained to the specified altitude or fix, then the standard climb gradient of 200 ft/NM can be resumed. A table for the conversion of climb gradient (feet per nautical mile) to climb rate (feet per minute), at a given ground speed, is included on page D1 of the U.S. Terminal Procedures booklets.

d. Where are DPs located? DPs will be listed by airport in the IFR Takeoff Minimums and (Obstacle) Departure Procedures Section, Section C, of the Terminal Procedures Publications (TPPs). If the DP is textual, it will be described in TPP Section C. SIDs and complex ODPs will be published graphically and named. The name will be listed by airport name and

runway in Section C. Graphic ODPs will also have the term “(OBSTACLE)” printed in the charted procedure title, differentiating them from SIDs.

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

e. Responsibilities

1. Each pilot, prior to departing an airport on an IFR flight should:

(a) Consider the type of terrain and other obstacles on or in the vicinity of the departure airport;

(b) Determine whether an ODP is available;

(c) Determine if obstacle avoidance can be maintained visually or if the ODP should be flown; and

(d) Consider the effect of degraded climb performance and the actions to take in the event of an engine loss during the departure. Pilots should notify ATC as soon as possible of reduced climb capability in that circumstance.

NOTE—

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

2. After an aircraft is established on an SID and subsequently vectored or cleared off of the SID or SID transition, pilots must consider the SID canceled,

unless the controller adds “expect to resume SID.” Aircraft may not be vectored off of an ODP until at or above the MVA/MIA, at which time the ODP is canceled.

3. Aircraft instructed to resume a SID that contains ATC altitude restrictions, shall be issued/reissued all applicable restrictions or shall be advised to comply with those restrictions.

4. If prior to or after takeoff an altitude restriction is issued by ATC, all previously issued “ATC” altitude restrictions are cancelled including those published on a SID.

5. ATC crossing altitude restrictions published on SIDs are identified on the chart with “(ATC)” following the altitude restriction. This will indicate to the pilot and the controller that this restriction is for ATC purposes and may be deleted by ATC. When an ATC crossing altitude has been established prior to the beginning of a transition route, a minimum altitude for obstruction clearance or other design constraints will also be published at the same fix adjacent/below the “(ATC)” altitude. The absence of “(ATC)” at a “minimum altitude” indicates the restriction is there to support obstacle clearance, airspace restrictions, Navaid reception, and/or other reason(s) that mandate compliance. These altitudes CANNOT be lowered or cancelled by ATC. A standalone “(ATC)” altitude restriction may also be located on a transition route; however, it must never be lower than the published Minimum Enroute Altitude (MEA).

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

f. RNAV Departure Procedures

All public RNAV SIDs and graphic ODPs are RNAV 1. These procedures generally start with an initial RNAV or heading leg near the departure runway end. In addition, these procedures require system performance currently met by GPS or DME/DME/IRU RNAV systems that satisfy the criteria discussed in AC 90–100A, U.S. Terminal and En Route Area Navigation (RNAV) Operations. RNAV 1 procedures require the aircraft’s total system error remain bounded by ± 1 NM for 95% of the total flight time.

5-3-4. Airways and Route Systems

a. Three fixed route systems are established for air navigation purposes. They are the Federal airway system (consisting of VOR and L/MF routes), the jet route system, and the RNAV route system. To the extent possible, these route systems are aligned in an overlying manner to facilitate transition between each.

1. The VOR and L/MF (nondirectional radio beacons) Airway System consists of airways designated from 1,200 feet above the surface (or in some instances higher) up to but not including 18,000 feet MSL. These airways are depicted on IFR Enroute Low Altitude Charts.

NOTE-

The altitude limits of a victor airway should not be exceeded except to effect transition within or between route structures.

(a) Except in Alaska, the VOR airways are: predicated solely on VOR or VORTAC navigation aids; depicted in black on aeronautical charts; and identified by a “V” (Victor) followed by the airway number (for example, V12).

NOTE-

Segments of VOR airways in Alaska are based on L/MF navigation aids and charted in brown instead of black on en route charts.

(1) A segment of an airway which is common to two or more routes carries the numbers of all the airways which coincide for that segment. When such is the case, pilots filing a flight plan need to indicate only that airway number for the route filed.

NOTE-

A pilot who intends to make an airway flight, using VOR facilities, will simply specify the appropriate “victor” airway(s) in the flight plan. For example, if a flight is to be made from Chicago to New Orleans at 8,000 feet, using omniranges only, the route may be indicated as “departing from Chicago–Midway, cruising 8,000 feet via Victor 9 to Moisant International.” If flight is to be conducted in part by means of L/MF navigation aids and in part on omniranges, specifications of the appropriate airways in the flight plan will indicate which types of facilities will be used along the described routes, and, for IFR flight, permit ATC to issue a traffic clearance accordingly. A route may also be described by specifying the station over which the flight will pass, but in this case since many VORs and L/MF aids have the same name, the pilot must be careful to indicate which aid will be used at a particular location.

This will be indicated in the route of flight portion of the flight plan by specifying the type of facility to be used after the location name in the following manner: Newark L/MF, Allentown VOR.

(2) With respect to position reporting, reporting points are designated for VOR Airway Systems. Flights using Victor Airways will report over these points unless advised otherwise by ATC.

(b) The L/MF airways (colored airways) are predicated solely on L/MF navigation aids and are depicted in brown on aeronautical charts and are identified by color name and number (e.g., Amber One). Green and Red airways are plotted east and west. Amber and Blue airways are plotted north and south.

NOTE-

Except for G13 in North Carolina, the colored airway system exists only in the state of Alaska. All other such airways formerly so designated in the conterminous U.S. have been rescinded.

(c) The use of TSO-C145 (as revised) or TSO-C146 (as revised) GPS/WAAS navigation systems is allowed in Alaska as the only means of navigation on published air traffic service (ATS) routes, including those Victor, T-Routes, and colored airway segments designated with a second minimum en route altitude (MEA) depicted in blue and followed by the letter G at those lower altitudes. The altitudes so depicted are below the minimum reception altitude (MRA) of the land-based navigation facility defining the route segment, and guarantee standard en route obstacle clearance and two-way communications. Air carrier operators requiring operations specifications are authorized to conduct operations on those routes in accordance with FAA operations specifications.

2. The jet route system consists of jet routes established from 18,000 feet MSL to FL 450 inclusive.

(a) These routes are depicted on Enroute High Altitude Charts. Jet routes are depicted in black on aeronautical charts and are identified by a “J” (Jet) followed by the airway number (e.g., J12). Jet routes, as VOR airways, are predicated solely on VOR or VORTAC navigation facilities (except in Alaska).

NOTE-

Segments of jet routes in Alaska are based on L/MF navigation aids and are charted in brown color instead of black on en route charts.

(b) With respect to position reporting, reporting points are designated for jet route systems. Flights using jet routes will report over these points unless otherwise advised by ATC.

3. Area Navigation (RNAV) Routes.

(a) Published RNAV routes, including Q-Routes and T-Routes, can be flight planned for use by aircraft with RNAV capability, subject to any limitations or requirements noted on en route charts, in applicable Advisory Circulars, or by NOTAM. RNAV routes are depicted in blue on aeronautical charts and are identified by the letter “Q” or “T” followed by the airway number (for example, Q-13, T-205). Published RNAV routes are RNAV-2 except when specifically charted as RNAV-1. These routes require system performance currently met by GPS, GPS/WAAS, or DME/DME/IRU RNAV systems that satisfy the criteria discussed in AC 90-100A, U.S. Terminal and En Route Area Navigation (RNAV) Operations.

NOTE-

AC 90-100A does not apply to over water RNAV routes (reference 14 CFR 91.511, including the Q-routes in the Gulf of Mexico and the Atlantic routes) or Alaska VOR/DME RNAV routes (“JxxxR”). The AC does not apply to off-route RNAV operations, Alaska GPS routes or Caribbean routes.

(1) Q-routes are available for use by RNAV equipped aircraft between 18,000 feet MSL and FL 450 inclusive. Q-routes are depicted on Enroute High Altitude Charts.

NOTE-

Aircraft in Alaska may only operate on GNSS Q-routes with GPS (TSO-C129 (as revised) or TSO-C196 (as revised)) equipment while the aircraft remains in Air Traffic Control (ATC) radar surveillance or with GPS/WAAS which does not require ATC radar surveillance.

(2) T-routes are available for use by GPS or GPS/WAAS equipped aircraft from 1,200 feet above the surface (or in some instances higher) up to but not including 18,000 feet MSL. T-routes are depicted on Enroute Low Altitude Charts.

NOTE-

Aircraft in Alaska may only operate on GNSS T-routes with GPS/WAAS (TSO-C145 (as revised) or TSO-C146 (as revised)) equipment.

(b) Unpublished RNAV routes are direct routes, based on area navigation capability, between

waypoints defined in terms of latitude/longitude coordinates, degree-distance fixes, or offsets from established routes/airways at a specified distance and direction. Radar monitoring by ATC is required on all unpublished RNAV routes.

(c) Magnetic Reference Bearing (MRB) is the published bearing between two waypoints on an RNAV/GPS/GNSS route. The MRB is calculated by applying magnetic variation at the waypoint to the calculated true course between two waypoints. The MRB enhances situational awareness by indicating a reference bearing (no-wind heading) that a pilot should see on the compass/HSI/RMI, etc., when turning prior to/over a waypoint en route to another waypoint. Pilots should use this bearing as a reference only, because their RNAV/GPS/GNSS navigation system will fly the true course between the waypoints.

b. Operation above FL 450 may be conducted on a point-to-point basis. Navigational guidance is provided on an area basis utilizing those facilities depicted on the enroute high altitude charts.

c. **Radar Vectors.** Controllers may vector aircraft within controlled airspace for separation purposes, noise abatement considerations, when an operational advantage will be realized by the pilot or the controller, or when requested by the pilot. Vectors outside of controlled airspace will be provided only on pilot request. Pilots will be advised as to what the vector is to achieve when the vector is controller initiated and will take the aircraft off a previously assigned nonradar route. To the extent possible, aircraft operating on RNAV routes will be allowed to remain on their own navigation.

d. When flying in Canadian airspace, pilots are cautioned to review Canadian Air Regulations.

1. Special attention should be given to the parts which differ from U.S. CFRs.

(a) The Canadian Airways Class B airspace restriction is an example. Class B airspace is all controlled low level airspace above 12,500 feet MSL or the MEA, whichever is higher, within which only IFR and controlled VFR flights are permitted. (Low level airspace means an airspace designated and defined as such in the Designated Airspace Handbook.)

(b) Unless issued a VFR flight clearance by ATC, regardless of the weather conditions or the

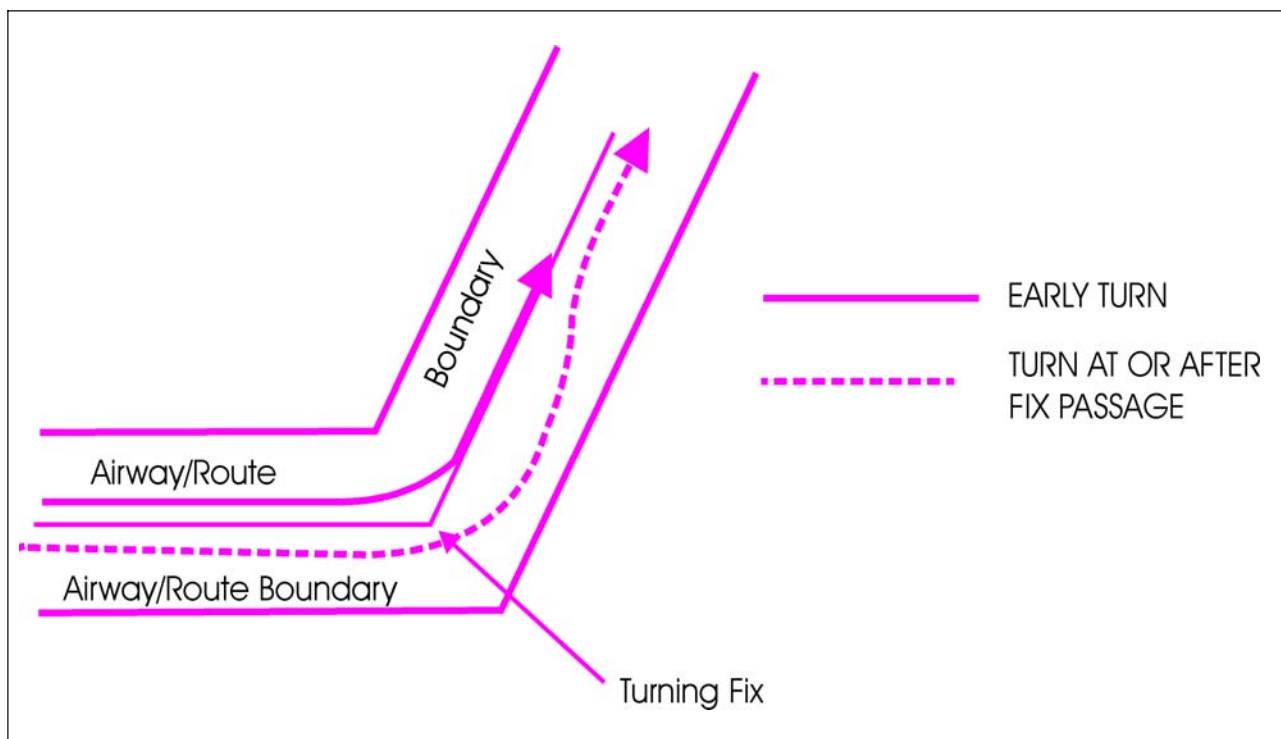
height of the terrain, no person may operate an aircraft under VMC within Class B airspace.

(c) The requirement for entry into Class B airspace is a student pilot permit (under the guidance or control of a flight instructor).

(d) VFR flight requires visual contact with the ground or water at all times.

2. Segments of VOR airways and high level routes in Canada are based on L/MF navigation aids and are charted in brown color instead of blue on en route charts.

FIG 5-3-1
Adhering to Airways or Routes



5-3-5. Airway or Route Course Changes

a. Pilots of aircraft are required to adhere to airways or routes being flown. Special attention must be given to this requirement during course changes. Each course change consists of variables that make the technique applicable in each case a matter only the pilot can resolve. Some variables which must be considered are turn radius, wind effect, airspeed, degree of turn, and cockpit instrumentation. An early turn, as illustrated below, is one method of adhering to airways or routes. The use of any available cockpit

instrumentation, such as Distance Measuring Equipment, may be used by the pilot to lead the turn when making course changes. This is consistent with the intent of 14 CFR Section 91.181, which requires pilots to operate along the centerline of an airway and along the direct course between navigational aids or fixes.

b. Turns which begin at or after fix passage may exceed airway or route boundaries. FIG 5-3-1 contains an example flight track depicting this, together with an example of an early turn.

c. Without such actions as leading a turn, aircraft operating in excess of 290 knots true air speed (TAS) can exceed the normal airway or route boundaries depending on the amount of course change required, wind direction and velocity, the character of the turn fix (DME, overhead navigation aid, or intersection), and the pilot's technique in making a course change. For example, a flight operating at 17,000 feet MSL with a TAS of 400 knots, a 25 degree bank, and a course change of more than 40 degrees would exceed the width of the airway or route; i.e., 4 nautical miles each side of centerline. However, in the airspace below 18,000 feet MSL, operations in excess of 290 knots TAS are not prevalent and the provision of additional IFR separation in all course change situations for the occasional aircraft making a turn in excess of 290 knots TAS creates an unacceptable waste of airspace and imposes a penalty upon the preponderance of traffic which operate at low speeds. Consequently, the FAA expects pilots to lead turns and take other actions they consider necessary during course changes to adhere as closely as possible to the airways or route being flown.

5-3-6. Changeover Points (COPs)

a. COPs are prescribed for Federal airways, jet routes, area navigation routes, or other direct routes for which an MEA is designated under 14 CFR Part 95. The COP is a point along the route or airway segment between two adjacent navigation facilities or waypoints where changeover in navigation guidance should occur. At this point, the pilot should change navigation receiver frequency from the station behind the aircraft to the station ahead.

b. The COP is normally located midway between the navigation facilities for straight route segments, or at the intersection of radials or courses forming a dogleg in the case of dogleg route segments. When the COP is NOT located at the midway point, aeronautical charts will depict the COP location and give the mileage to the radio aids.

c. COPs are established for the purpose of preventing loss of navigation guidance, to prevent frequency interference from other facilities, and to prevent use of different facilities by different aircraft in the same airspace. Pilots are urged to observe COPs to the fullest extent.

5-3-7. Minimum Turning Altitude (MTA)

Due to increased airspeeds at 10,000 ft MSL or above, the published minimum enroute altitude (MEA) may not be sufficient for obstacle clearance when a turn is required over a fix, NAVAID, or waypoint. In these instances, an expanded area in the vicinity of the turn point is examined to determine whether the published MEA is sufficient for obstacle clearance. In some locations (normally mountainous), terrain/obstacles in the expanded search area may necessitate a higher minimum altitude while conducting the turning maneuver. Turning fixes requiring a higher minimum turning altitude (MTA) will be denoted on government charts by the minimum crossing altitude (MCA) icon ("x" flag) and an accompanying note describing the MTA restriction. An MTA restriction will normally consist of the air traffic service (ATS) route leading to the turn point, the ATS route leading from the turn point, and the required altitude; e.g., MTA V330 E TO V520 W 16000. When an MTA is applicable for the intended route of flight, pilots must ensure they are at or above the charted MTA not later than the turn point and maintain at or above the MTA until joining the centerline of the ATS route following the turn point. Once established on the centerline following the turning fix, the MEA/MOCA determines the minimum altitude available for assignment. An MTA may also preclude the use of a specific altitude or a range of altitudes during a turn. For example, the MTA may restrict the use of 10,000 through 11,000 ft MSL. In this case, any altitude greater than 11,000 ft MSL is unrestricted, as are altitudes less than 10,000 ft MSL provided MEA/MOCA requirements are satisfied.

5-3-8. Holding

a. Whenever an aircraft is cleared to a fix other than the destination airport and delay is expected, it is the responsibility of the ATC controller to issue complete holding instructions (unless the pattern is charted), an EFC time and best estimate of any additional en route/terminal delay.

NOTE-

Only those holding patterns depicted on U.S. government or commercially produced (meeting FAA requirements) low/high altitude enroute, and area or STAR charts should be used.

b. If the holding pattern is charted and the controller doesn't issue complete holding instructions, the pilot is expected to hold as depicted on the

for a “normal” glidepath, due to its location down the runway.

3. Accordingly, pilots are advised to carefully review approach procedures, prior to initiating the approach, to identify the optimum position(s), and any unacceptable positions, from which a descent to landing can be initiated (in accordance with 14 CFR Section 91.175(c)).

k. Area Navigation (RNAV) Instrument Approach Charts. Reliance on RNAV systems for instrument operations is becoming more commonplace as new systems such as GPS and augmented GPS such as the Wide Area Augmentation System (WAAS) are developed and deployed. In order to support full integration of RNAV procedures into the National Airspace System (NAS), the FAA developed a new charting format for IAPs (See FIG 5-4-9). This format avoids unnecessary duplication and proliferation of instrument approach charts. The original stand alone GPS charts, titled simply “GPS,” are being converted to the newer format as the procedures are revised. One reason for the revision is the addition of WAAS based minima to the approach chart. The reformatted approach chart is titled “RNAV (GPS) RWY XX.” Up to four lines of minima are included on these charts. Ground Based Augmentation System (GBAS) Landing System (GLS) was a placeholder for future WAAS and LAAS minima, and the minima was always listed as N/A. The GLS minima line has now been replaced by the WAAS LPV (Localizer Performance with Vertical Guidance) minima on most RNAV (GPS) charts. LNAV/VNAV (lateral navigation/vertical navigation) was added to support both WAAS electronic vertical guidance and Barometric VNAV. LPV and LNAV/VNAV are both APV procedures as described in paragraph 5-4-5a7. The original GPS minima, titled “S-XX,” for straight in runway XX, is retitled LNAV (lateral navigation). Circling minima may also be published. A new type of nonprecision WAAS minima will also be published on this chart and titled LP (localizer performance). LP will be published in locations where vertically guided minima cannot be provided due to terrain and obstacles and therefore, no LPV or LNAV/VNAV minima will be published. GBAS procedures are published on a separate chart and the GLS minima line is to be used only for GBAS. ATC clearance for the RNAV procedure authorizes a properly certified pilot to utilize any minimums for which the aircraft is certi-

fied (for example, a WAAS equipped aircraft utilizes the LPV or LP minima but a GPS only aircraft may not). The RNAV chart includes information formatted for quick reference by the pilot or flight crew at the top of the chart. This portion of the chart, developed based on a study by the Department of Transportation, Volpe National Transportation System Center, is commonly referred to as the pilot briefing.

1. The minima lines are:

(a) **GLS.** “GLS” is the acronym for GBAS Landing System. The U.S. version of GBAS has traditionally been referred to as LAAS. The worldwide community has adopted GBAS as the official term for this type of navigation system. To coincide with international terminology, the FAA is also adopting the term GBAS to be consistent with the international community. This line was originally published as a placeholder for both WAAS and LAAS minima and marked as N/A since no minima was published. As the concepts for GBAS and WAAS procedure publication have evolved, GLS will now be used only for GBAS minima, which will be on a separate approach chart. Most RNAV(GPS) approach charts have had the GLS minima line replaced by a WAAS LPV line of minima.

(b) **LPV.** “LPV” is the acronym for localizer performance with vertical guidance. RNAV (GPS) approaches to LPV lines of minima take advantage of the improved accuracy of WAAS lateral and vertical guidance to provide an approach that is very similar to a Category I Instrument Landing System (ILS). The approach to LPV line of minima is designed for angular guidance with increasing sensitivity as the aircraft gets closer to the runway. The sensitivities are nearly identical to those of the ILS at similar distances. This was done intentionally to allow the skills required to proficiently fly an ILS to readily transfer to flying RNAV (GPS) approaches to the LPV line of minima. Just as with an ILS, the LPV has vertical guidance and is flown to a DA. Aircraft can fly this minima line with a statement in the Aircraft Flight Manual that the installed equipment supports LPV approaches. This includes Class 3 and 4 TSO-C146 GPS/WAAS equipment.

(c) **LNAV/VNAV.** LNAV/VNAV identifies APV minimums developed to accommodate an RNAV IAP with vertical guidance, usually provided by approach certified Baro-VNAV, but with lateral and vertical integrity limits larger than a precision approach or LPV. LNAV stands for Lateral

Navigation; VNAV stands for Vertical Navigation. This minima line can be flown by aircraft with a statement in the Aircraft Flight Manual that the installed equipment supports GPS approaches and has an approach-approved barometric VNAV, or if the aircraft has been demonstrated to support LNAV/VNAV approaches. This includes Class 2, 3 and 4 TSO-C146 GPS/WAAS equipment. Aircraft using LNAV/VNAV minimums will descend to landing via an internally generated descent path based on satellite or other approach approved VNAV systems. Since electronic vertical guidance is provided, the minima will be published as a DA. Other navigation systems may be specifically authorized to use this line of minima. (See Section A, Terms/Landing Minima Data, of the U.S. Terminal Procedures books.)

(d) LP. “LP” is the acronym for localizer performance. Approaches to LP lines of minima take advantage of the improved accuracy of WAAS to provide approaches, with lateral guidance and angular guidance. Angular guidance does not refer to a glideslope angle but rather to the increased lateral sensitivity as the aircraft gets closer to the runway, similar to localizer approaches. However, the LP line of minima is a Minimum Descent Altitude (MDA) rather than a DA (H). Procedures with LP lines of minima will not be published with another approach that contains approved vertical guidance (LNAV/VNAV or LPV). It is possible to have LP and LNAV published on the same approach chart but LP will only be published if it provides lower minima than an LNAV line of minima. LP is not a fail-down mode for LPV. LP will only be published if terrain, obstructions, or some other reason prevent publishing a vertically guided procedure. WAAS avionics may provide GNSS-based advisory vertical guidance during an approach to an LP line of minima. Barometric altimeter information remains the primary altitude reference for complying with any altitude restrictions. WAAS equipment may not support LP, even if it supports LPV, if it was approved before TSO-C145b and TSO-C146b. Receivers approved under previous TSOs may require an upgrade by the manufacturer in order to be used to fly to LP minima. Receivers approved for LP must have a statement in the approved Flight Manual or Supplemental Flight Manual including LP as one of the approved approach types.

(e) LNAV. This minima is for lateral navigation only, and the approach minimum altitude will be published as a minimum descent altitude (MDA). LNAV provides the same level of service as the present GPS stand alone approaches. LNAV minimums support the following navigation systems: WAAS, when the navigation solution will not support vertical navigation; and, GPS navigation systems which are presently authorized to conduct GPS approaches.

NOTE-

GPS receivers approved for approach operations in accordance with: AC 20-138, Airworthiness Approval of Positioning and Navigation Systems, qualify for this minima. WAAS navigation equipment must be approved in accordance with the requirements specified in TSO-C145b or TSO-C146b and installed in accordance with Advisory Circular AC 20-138.

2. Other systems may be authorized to utilize these approaches. See the description in Section A of the U.S. Terminal Procedures books for details. Operational approval must also be obtained for Baro-VNAV systems to operate to the LNAV/VNAV minimums. Baro-VNAV may not be authorized on some approaches due to other factors, such as no local altimeter source being available. Baro-VNAV is not authorized on LPV procedures. Pilots are directed to their local Flight Standards District Office (FSDO) for additional information.

NOTE-

RNAV and Baro-VNAV systems must have a manufacturer supplied electronic database which must include the waypoints, altitudes, and vertical data for the procedure to be flown. 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.

3. ILS or RNAV (GPS) charts.

(a) Some RNAV (GPS) charts will also contain an ILS line of minima to make use of the ILS precision final in conjunction with the RNAV GPS capabilities for the portions of the procedure prior to the final approach segment and for the missed approach. Obstacle clearance for the portions of the procedure other than the final approach segment is still based on GPS criteria.

NOTE-

Some GPS receiver installations inhibit GPS navigation whenever ANY ILS frequency is tuned. Pilots flying aircraft with receivers installed in this manner must wait until they are on the intermediate segment of the procedure

prior to the PFAF (PFAF is the active waypoint) to tune the ILS frequency and must tune the ILS back to a VOR frequency in order to fly the GPS based missed approach.

(b) Charting. There are charting differences between ILS, RNAV (GPS), and GLS approaches.

(1) The LAAS procedure is titled “GLS RWY XX” on the approach chart.

(2) The VDB provides information to the airborne receiver where the guidance is synthesized.

(3) The LAAS procedure is identified by a four alpha-numeric character field referred to as the RPI or approach ID and is similar to the IDENT feature of the ILS.

(4) The RPI is charted.

(5) Most RNAV(GPS) approach charts have had the GLS (NA) minima line replaced by an LPV line of minima.

(6) Since the concepts for LAAS and WAAS procedure publication have evolved, GLS will now be used only for LAAS minima, which will be on a separate approach chart.

4. Required Navigation Performance (RNP)

(a) Pilots are advised to refer to the “TERMS/LANDING MINIMUMS DATA” (Section A) of the U.S. Government Terminal Procedures books for aircraft approach eligibility requirements by specific RNP level requirements.

(b) Some aircraft have RNP approval in their AFM without a GPS sensor. The lowest level of sensors that the FAA will support for RNP service is DME/DME. However, necessary DME signal may not be available at the airport of intended operations. For those locations having an RNAV chart published with LNAV/VNAV minimums, a procedure note may be provided such as “DME/DME RNP-0.3 NA.” This means that RNP aircraft dependent on DME/DME to achieve RNP-0.3 are not authorized to conduct this approach. Where DME facility availability is a factor, the note may read “DME/DME RNP-0.3 Authorized; ABC and XYZ Required.” This means that ABC and XYZ facilities have been determined by flight inspection to be required in the navigation solution to assure RNP-0.3. VOR/DME updating must not be used for approach procedures.

5. Chart Terminology

(a) Decision Altitude (DA) replaces the familiar term Decision Height (DH). DA conforms to the international convention where altitudes relate to MSL and heights relate to AGL. DA will eventually be published for other types of instrument approach procedures with vertical guidance, as well. DA indicates to the pilot that the published descent profile is flown to the DA (MSL), where a missed approach will be initiated if visual references for landing are not established. Obstacle clearance is provided to allow a momentary descent below DA while transitioning from the final approach to the missed approach. The aircraft is expected to follow the missed instructions while continuing along the published final approach course to at least the published runway threshold waypoint or MAP (if not at the threshold) before executing any turns.

(b) Minimum Descent Altitude (MDA) has been in use for many years, and will continue to be used for the LNAV only and circling procedures.

(c) Threshold Crossing Height (TCH) has been traditionally used in “precision” approaches as the height of the glide slope above threshold. With publication of LNAV/VNAV minimums and RNAV descent angles, including graphically depicted descent profiles, TCH also applies to the height of the “descent angle,” or glidepath, at the threshold. Unless otherwise required for larger type aircraft which may be using the IAP, the typical TCH is 30 to 50 feet.

6. The MINIMA FORMAT will also change slightly.

(a) Each line of minima on the RNAV IAP is titled to reflect the level of service available; e.g., GLS, LPV, LNAV/VNAV, LP, and LNAV. CIRCLING minima will also be provided.

(b) The minima title box indicates the nature of the minimum altitude for the IAP. For example:

(1) DA will be published next to the minima line title for minimums supporting vertical guidance such as for GLS, LPV or LNAV/VNAV.

(2) MDA will be published where the minima line was designed to support aircraft with only lateral guidance available, such as LNAV or LP. Descent below the MDA, including during the missed approach, is not authorized unless the visual conditions stated in 14 CFR Section 91.175 exist.

(3) Where two or more systems, such as LPV and LNAV/VNAV, share the same minima, each line of minima will be displayed separately.

7. Chart Symbolology changed slightly to include:

(a) **Descent Profile.** The published descent profile and a graphical depiction of the vertical path to the runway will be shown. Graphical depiction of the RNAV vertical guidance will differ from the traditional depiction of an ILS glide slope (feather) through the use of a shorter vertical track beginning at the decision altitude.

(1) It is FAA policy to design IAPs with minimum altitudes established at fixes/waypoints to achieve optimum stabilized (constant rate) descents within each procedure segment. This design can enhance the safety of the operations and contribute toward reduction in the occurrence of controlled flight into terrain (CFIT) accidents. Additionally, the National Transportation Safety Board (NTSB) recently emphasized that pilots could benefit from publication of the appropriate IAP descent angle for a stabilized descent on final approach. The RNAV IAP format includes the descent angle to the hundredth of a degree; e.g., **3.00 degrees**. The angle will be provided in the graphically depicted descent profile.

(2) The stabilized approach may be performed by reference to vertical navigation information provided by WAAS or LNAV/VNAV systems; or for LNAV-only systems, by the pilot determining the appropriate aircraft attitude/groundspeed combination to attain a constant rate descent which best emulates the published angle. To aid the pilot, U.S. Government Terminal Procedures Publication charts publish an expanded Rate of Descent Table on the inside of the back hard cover for use in planning and executing precision descents under known or approximate groundspeed conditions.

(b) **Visual Descent Point (VDP).** A VDP will be published on most RNAV IAPs. VDPs apply only to aircraft utilizing LP or LNAV minima, not LPV or LNAV/VNAV minimums.

(c) **Missed Approach Symbolology.** In order to make missed approach guidance more readily understood, a method has been developed to display missed approach guidance in the profile view through

the use of quick reference icons. Due to limited space in the profile area, only four or fewer icons can be shown. However, the icons may not provide representation of the entire missed approach procedure. The entire set of textual missed approach instructions are provided at the top of the approach chart in the pilot briefing. (See FIG 5-4-9).

(d) **Waypoints.** All RNAV or GPS stand-alone IAPs are flown using data pertaining to the particular IAP obtained from an onboard database, including the sequence of all WPs used for the approach and missed approach, except that step down waypoints may not be included in some TSO-C129 receiver databases. Included in the database, in most receivers, is coding that informs the navigation system of which WPs are fly-over (FO) or fly-by (FB). The navigation system may provide guidance appropriately – including leading the turn prior to a fly-by WP; or causing overflight of a fly-over WP. Where the navigation system does not provide such guidance, the pilot must accomplish the turn lead or waypoint overflight manually. Chart symbolology for the FB WP provides pilot awareness of expected actions. Refer to the legend of the U.S. Terminal Procedures books.

(e) TAAs are described in paragraph 5-4-5d, Terminal Arrival Area (TAA). When published, the RNAV chart depicts the TAA areas through the use of “icons” representing each TAA area associated with the RNAV procedure (See FIG 5-4-9). These icons are depicted in the plan view of the approach chart, generally arranged on the chart in accordance with their position relative to the aircraft’s arrival from the en route structure. The WP, to which navigation is appropriate and expected within each specific TAA area, will be named and depicted on the associated TAA icon. Each depicted named WP is the IAF for arrivals from within that area. TAAs may not be used on all RNAV procedures because of airspace congestion or other reasons.

(f) **Hot and Cold Temperature Limitations.** A minimum and maximum temperature limitation is published on procedures which authorize Baro-VNAV operation. These temperatures represent the airport temperature above or below which Baro-VNAV is not authorized to LNAV/VNAV minimums. As an example, the limitation will read: “Uncompensated Baro-VNAV NA below -8°C ($+18^{\circ}\text{F}$) or above 47°C (117°F).” This information will be found in the upper left hand

box of the pilot briefing. When the temperature is above the high temperature or below the low temperature limit, Baro-VNAV may be used to provide a stabilized descent to the LNAV MDA; however, extra caution should be used in the visual segment to ensure a vertical correction is not required. If the VGSI is aligned with the published glidepath, and the aircraft instruments indicate on glidepath, an above or below glidepath indication on the VGSI may indicate that temperature error is causing deviations to the glidepath. These deviations should be considered if the approach is continued below the MDA.

NOTE-

Many systems which apply Baro-VNAV temperature compensation only correct for cold temperature. In this case, the high temperature limitation still applies. Also, temperature compensation may require activation by maintenance personnel during installation in order to be functional, even though the system has the feature. Some systems may have a temperature correction capability, but correct the Baro-altimeter all the time, rather than just on the final, which would create conflicts with other aircraft if the feature were activated. Pilots should be aware of compensation capabilities of the system prior to disregarding the temperature limitations.

NOTE-

Temperature limitations do not apply to flying the LNAV/VNAV line of minima using approach certified WAAS receivers when LPV or LNAV/VNAV are annunciated to be available.

(g) WAAS Channel Number/Approach ID.

The WAAS Channel Number is an optional equipment capability that allows the use of a 5-digit number to select a specific final approach segment without using the menu method. The Approach ID is an airport unique 4-character combination for verifying the selection and extraction of the correct final approach segment information from the aircraft database. It is similar to the ILS ident, but displayed visually rather than aurally. The Approach ID consists of the letter W for WAAS, the runway number, and a letter other than L, C or R, which could be confused with Left, Center and Right, e.g., W35A. Approach IDs are assigned in the order that WAAS approaches are built to that runway number at that airport. The WAAS Channel Number and Approach ID are displayed in the upper left corner of the approach procedure pilot briefing.

(h) At locations where outages of WAAS vertical guidance may occur daily due to initial

system limitations, a negative W symbol (**W**) will be placed on RNAV (GPS) approach charts. Many of these outages will be very short in duration, but may result in the disruption of the vertical portion of the approach. The **W** symbol indicates that NOTAMs or Air Traffic advisories are not provided for outages which occur in the WAAS LNAV/VNAV or LPV vertical service. Use LNAV 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 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. As the WAAS coverage is expanded, the **W** will be removed.

5-4-6. Approach Clearance

a. An aircraft which has been cleared to a holding fix and subsequently “cleared . . . approach” has not received new routing. Even though clearance for the approach may have been issued prior to the aircraft reaching the holding fix, ATC would expect the pilot to proceed via the holding fix (his/her last assigned route), and the feeder route associated with that fix (if a feeder route is published on the approach chart) to the initial approach fix (IAF) to commence the approach. *WHEN CLEARED FOR THE APPROACH, THE PUBLISHED OFF AIRWAY (FEEDER) ROUTES THAT LEAD FROM THE EN ROUTE STRUCTURE TO THE IAF ARE PART OF THE APPROACH CLEARANCE.*

b. If a feeder route to an IAF begins at a fix located along the route of flight prior to reaching the holding fix, and clearance for an approach is issued, a pilot should commence the approach via the published feeder route; i.e., the aircraft would not be expected to overfly the feeder route and return to it. The pilot is expected to commence the approach in a similar manner at the IAF, if the IAF for the procedure is located along the route of flight to the holding fix.

c. If a route of flight directly to the initial approach fix is desired, it should be so stated by the controller with phraseology to include the words “direct . . . ,” “proceed direct” or a similar phrase which the pilot can interpret without question. When uncertain of the clearance, immediately query ATC as to what route of flight is desired.

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

e. The following applies to aircraft on radar vectors and/or cleared “direct to” in conjunction with an approach clearance:

1. Maintain the last altitude assigned by ATC until the aircraft is established on a published segment of a transition route, or approach procedure segment, or other published route, for which a lower altitude is published on the chart. If already on an established route, or approach or arrival segment, you may descend to whatever minimum altitude is listed for that route or segment.

2. Continue on the vector heading until intercepting the next published ground track applicable to the approach clearance.

3. Once reaching the final approach fix via the published segments, the pilot may continue on approach to a landing.

4. If proceeding to an IAF with a published course reversal (procedure turn or hold-in-lieu of PT pattern), except when cleared for a straight in approach by ATC, the pilot must execute the procedure turn/hold-in-lieu of PT, and complete the approach.

5. If cleared to an IAF/IF via a NoPT route, or no procedure turn/hold-in-lieu of PT is published, continue with the published approach.

6. In addition to the above, RNAV aircraft may be issued a clearance direct to an Intermediate Fix followed by a straight-in approach clearance.

NOTE—

Refer to 14 CFR 91.175 (i).

5-4-7. Instrument Approach Procedures

a. Aircraft approach category means a grouping of aircraft based on a speed of V_{REF} , if specified, or if V_{REF} is not specified, $1.3 V_{SO}$ at the maximum certified landing weight. V_{REF} , V_{SO} , and the maximum certified landing weight are those values as established for the aircraft by the certification

authority of the country of registry. A pilot must use the minima corresponding to the category determined during certification or higher. Helicopters may use Category A minima. If it is necessary to operate at a speed in excess of the upper limit of the speed range for an aircraft’s category, the minimums for the higher category must be used. For example, an airplane which fits into Category B, but is circling to land at a speed of 145 knots, must use the approach Category D minimums. As an additional example, a Category A airplane (or helicopter) which is operating at 130 knots on a straight-in approach must use the approach Category C minimums. See the following category limits:

1. Category A: Speed less than 91 knots.

2. Category B: Speed 91 knots or more but less than 121 knots.

3. Category C: Speed 121 knots or more but less than 141 knots.

4. Category D: Speed 141 knots or more but less than 166 knots.

5. Category E: Speed 166 knots or more.

NOTE—

V_{REF} in the above definition refers to the speed used in establishing the approved landing distance under the airworthiness regulations constituting the type certification basis of the airplane, regardless of whether that speed for a particular airplane is $1.3 V_{SO}$, $1.23 V_{SR}$, or some higher speed required for airplane controllability. This speed, at the maximum certificated landing weight, determines the lowest applicable approach category for all approaches regardless of actual landing weight.

b. When operating on an unpublished route or while being radar vectored, the pilot, when an approach clearance is received, must, in addition to complying with the minimum altitudes for IFR operations (14 CFR Section 91.177), maintain the last assigned altitude unless a different altitude is assigned by ATC, or until the aircraft is established on a segment of a published route or IAP. After the aircraft is so established, published altitudes apply to descent within each succeeding route or approach segment unless a different altitude is assigned by ATC. Notwithstanding this pilot responsibility, for aircraft operating on unpublished routes or while being radar vectored, ATC will, except when conducting a radar approach, issue an IFR approach clearance only after the aircraft is established on a segment of a published route or IAP, or assign an

altitude to maintain until the aircraft is established on a segment of a published route or instrument approach procedure. For this purpose, the procedure turn of a published IAP must not be considered a segment of that IAP until the aircraft reaches the initial fix or navigation facility upon which the procedure turn is predicated.

EXAMPLE-

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

or

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

NOTE-

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

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

REFERENCE-

AIM, Advance Information on Instrument Approach, Paragraph 5-4-4

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

e. Except when being radar vectored to the final approach course, when cleared for a specifically prescribed IAP; i.e., “cleared ILS runway one niner

approach” or when “cleared approach” i.e., execution of any procedure prescribed for the airport, pilots must execute the entire procedure commencing at an IAF or an associated feeder route as described on the IAP chart unless an appropriate new or revised ATC clearance is received, or the IFR flight plan is canceled.

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

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

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

REFERENCE-

AIM, Missed Approach, Paragraph 5-4-21

AIM, Missed Approach, Paragraph 5-5-5

i. ATC may clear aircraft that have filed an Advanced RNAV equipment suffix to the intermediate fix when clearing aircraft for an instrument approach procedure. ATC will take the following actions when clearing Advanced RNAV aircraft to the intermediate fix:

1. Provide radar monitoring to the intermediate fix.

2. Advise the pilot to expect clearance direct to the intermediate fix at least 5 miles from the fix.

NOTE–

This is to allow the pilot to program the RNAV equipment to allow the aircraft to fly to the intermediate fix when cleared by ATC.

3. Assign an altitude to maintain until the intermediate fix.

4. Ensure the aircraft is on a course that will intercept the intermediate segment at an angle not greater than 90 degrees and is at an altitude that will permit normal descent from the intermediate fix to the final approach fix.

5–4–8. Special Instrument Approach Procedures

Instrument Approach Procedure (IAP) charts reflect the criteria associated with the U.S. Standard for Terminal Instrument [Approach] Procedures (TERPs), which prescribes standardized methods for use in developing IAPs. Standard IAPs are published in the Federal Register (FR) in accordance with Title 14 of the Code of Federal Regulations, Part 97, and are available for use by appropriately qualified pilots operating properly equipped and airworthy aircraft in accordance with operating rules and procedures acceptable to the FAA. Special IAPs are also developed using TERPS but are not given public notice in the FR. The FAA authorizes only certain individual pilots and/or pilots in individual organizations to use special IAPs, and may require additional crew training and/or aircraft equipment or performance, and may also require the use of landing aids, communications, or weather services not available for public use. Additionally, IAPs that service private use airports or heliports are generally special IAPs.

5–4–9. Procedure Turn and Hold-in-lieu of Procedure Turn

a. A procedure turn is the maneuver prescribed when it is necessary to reverse direction to establish the aircraft inbound on an intermediate or final approach course. The procedure turn or hold-in-lieu-of-PT is a required maneuver when it is depicted on the approach chart, unless cleared by ATC for a straight-in approach. Additionally, the procedure turn or hold-in-lieu-of-PT is not

permitted when the symbol “No PT” is depicted on the initial segment being used, when a RADAR VECTOR to the final approach course is provided, or when conducting a timed approach from a holding fix. The altitude prescribed for the procedure turn is a minimum altitude until the aircraft is established on the inbound course. The maneuver must be completed within the distance specified in the profile view. For a hold-in-lieu-of-PT, the holding pattern direction must be flown as depicted and the specified leg length/timing must not be exceeded.

NOTE–

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

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

2. Descent to the procedure turn (PT) completion altitude from the PT fix altitude (when one has been published or assigned by ATC) must not begin until crossing over the PT fix or abeam and proceeding outbound. Some procedures contain a note in the chart profile view that says “Maintain (altitude) or above until established outbound for procedure turn” (See FIG 5–4–14). Newer procedures will simply depict an “at or above” altitude at the PT fix without a chart note (See FIG 5–4–15). Both are there to ensure required obstacle clearance is provided in the procedure turn entry zone (See FIG 5–4–16). Absence of a chart note

or specified minimum altitude adjacent to the PT fix is an indication that descent to the procedure turn altitude can commence immediately upon crossing

over the PT fix, regardless of the direction of flight. This is because the minimum altitudes in the PT entry zone and the PT maneuvering zone are the same.

FIG 5-4-14

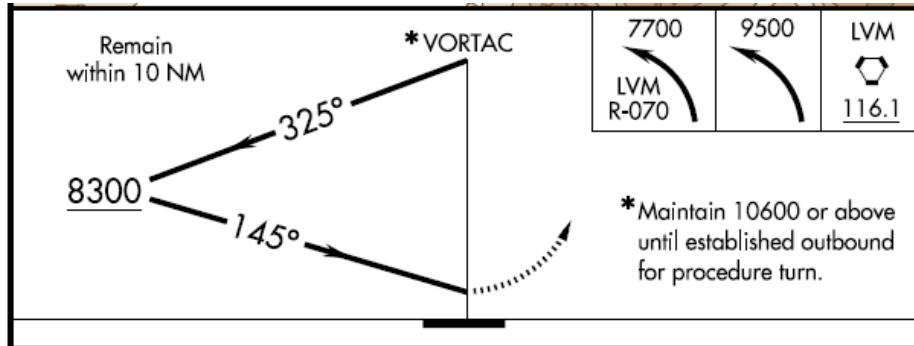


FIG 5-4-15

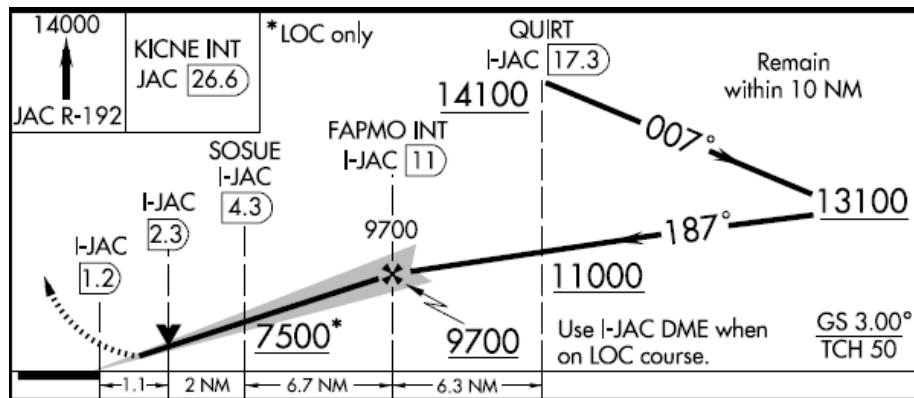
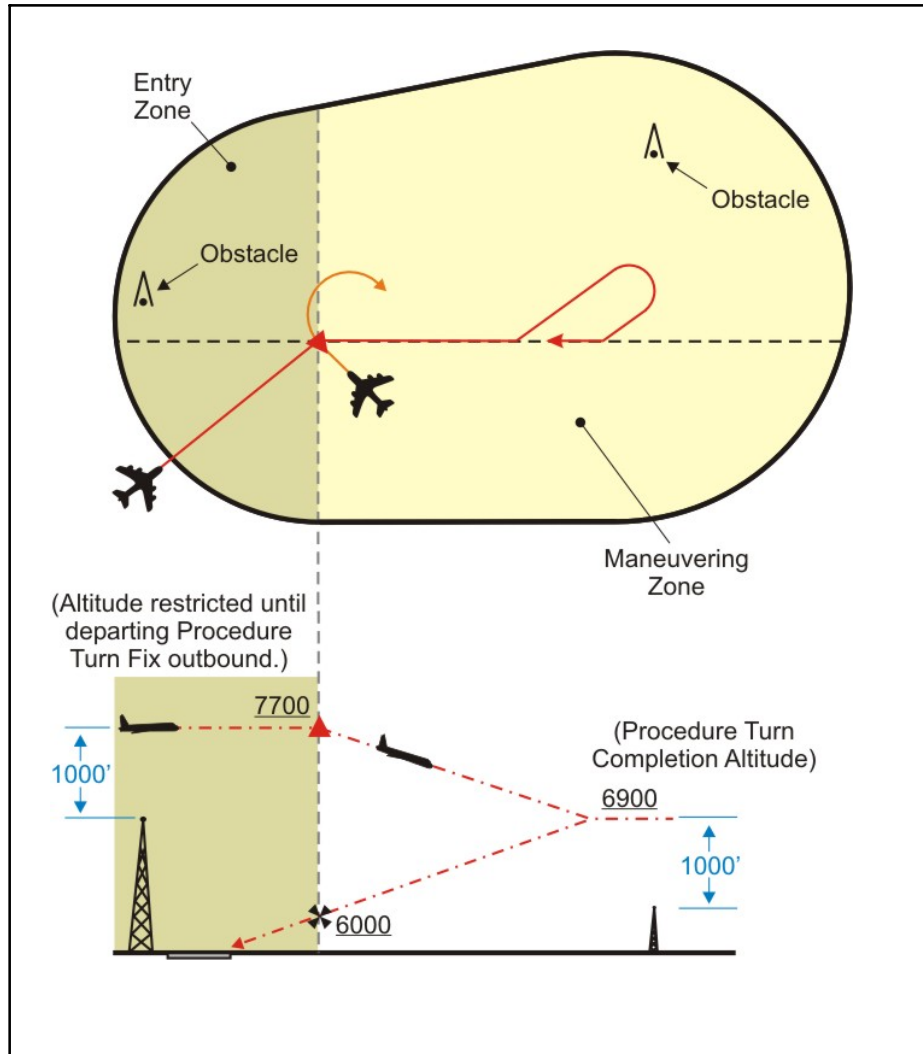


FIG 5-4-16



3. When the approach procedure involves a procedure turn, a maximum speed of not greater than 200 knots (IAS) should be observed from first overhauling the course reversal IAF through the procedure turn maneuver to ensure containment within the obstruction clearance area. Pilots should begin the outbound turn immediately after passing the procedure turn fix. The procedure turn maneuver must be executed within the distance specified in the profile view. The normal procedure turn distance is 10 miles. This may be reduced to a minimum of 5 miles where only Category A or helicopter aircraft are to be operated or increased to as much as 15 miles to accommodate high performance aircraft.

4. A teardrop procedure or penetration turn may be specified in some procedures for a required course reversal. The teardrop procedure consists of departure from an initial approach fix on an outbound course followed by a turn toward and intercepting the inbound course at or prior to the intermediate fix or point. Its purpose is to permit an aircraft to reverse direction and lose considerable altitude within reasonably limited airspace. Where no fix is available to mark the beginning of the intermediate segment, it must be assumed to commence at a point 10 miles prior to the final approach fix. When the facility is located on the airport, an aircraft is considered to be on final approach upon completion of the penetration turn. However, the final approach segment begins on the final approach course 10 miles from the facility.

Chapter 7. Safety of Flight

Section 1. Meteorology

7-1-1. National Weather Service Aviation Products

a. Weather service to aviation is a joint effort of the National Weather Service (NWS), the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA), the military weather services, and other aviation oriented groups and individuals. The NWS maintains an extensive surface, upper air, and radar weather observing program; a nationwide aviation weather forecasting service; and provides limited pilot briefing service (interpretational). Pilot weather briefings are provided by personnel at Flight Service Stations operated by FAA (in Alaska) or by federal contract facilities (elsewhere in the U.S.). Aviation routine weather reports (METAR) are taken manually by NWS, FAA, contractors, or supplemental observers. METAR reports are also provided by Automated Weather Observing System (AWOS), Automated Surface Observing System (ASOS), and Automated Weather Sensor System (AWSS).

REFERENCE-

AIM, Para 7-1-12 Weather Observing Programs.

b. Aerodrome forecasts are prepared by approximately 100 Weather Forecast Offices (WFOs). These offices prepare and distribute approximately 525 aerodrome forecasts 4 times daily for specific airports in the 50 States, Puerto Rico, the Caribbean and Pacific Islands. These forecasts are valid for 24 hours and amended as required. WFOs prepare over 300 route forecasts and 39 synopses for briefing purposes and for Transcribed Weather Broadcasts (TWEB) only outside the continental United States (CONUS). The route forecasts are issued 4 times daily; each forecast is valid for 12 hours. A centralized aviation forecast program originating from the Aviation Weather Center (AWC) in Kansas City was implemented in October 1995. In the conterminous U.S., all inflight advisories, Significant Meteorological Information (SIGMETs), Convective SIGMETs, and Airmen's Meteorological Information (AIRMET-text bulletins [WA] and graphics [G-AIRMETs]), and all Area Forecasts (FAs) (6 areas) are now issued by AWC. FAs are prepared 3 times a day in the conterminous U.S. and Alaska (4

times in Hawaii), and amended as required. Inflight advisories are issued only when conditions warrant. Winds aloft forecasts are provided for 176 locations in the 48 contiguous States and 21 locations in Alaska for flight planning purposes. (Winds aloft forecasts for Hawaii are prepared locally.) All the aviation weather forecasts are given wide distribution through the Weather Message Switching Center Replacement (WMSCR) in Atlanta, Georgia, and Salt Lake City, Utah.

REFERENCE-

AIM, Para 7-1-6 Inflight Aviation Weather Advisories.

c. 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 maintains a nationwide network of Flight Service Stations (FSSs) to serve the weather needs of pilots. In addition, NWS meteorologists are assigned to most ARTCCs as part of the Center Weather Service Unit (CWSU). They provide Center Weather Advisories (CWAs) and gather weather information to support the needs of the FAA and other users of the system.

b. The primary source of preflight weather briefings is an individual briefing obtained from a briefer at the FSS. These briefings, which are tailored to your specific flight, are available 24 hours a day through the use of the toll free number (1-800-WX BRIEF). Numbers for these services can be found in the Airport/Facility Directory (A/FD) under "FAA and NWS Telephone Numbers" section. They may also be listed in the U.S. Government section of your local telephone directory under Department of Transportation, Federal Aviation Administration.

REFERENCE-

AIM, Para 7-1-4 Preflight Briefing, explains the types of preflight briefings available and the information contained in each.

FIG 7-1-1
Weather Elements Conversion Tables

TIME

STANDARD TO UTC

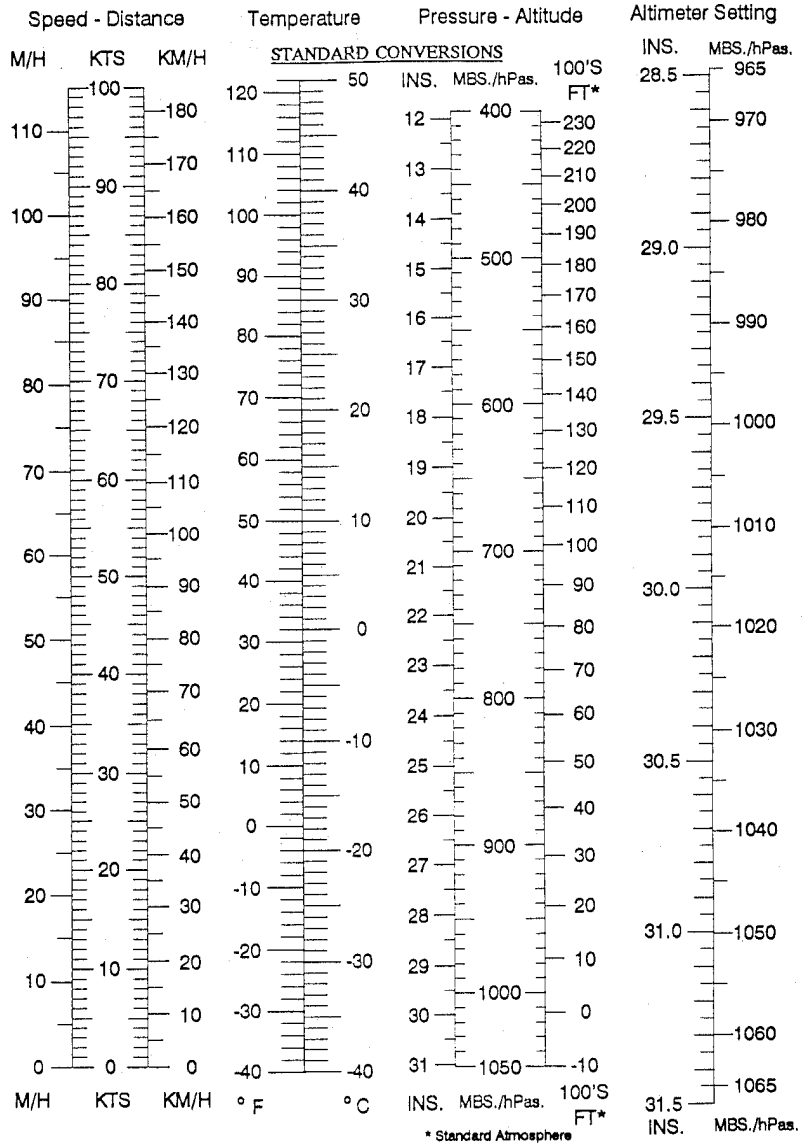
Eastern + 5 hr = UTC
 Central + 6 hr = UTC
 Mountain + 7 hr = UTC
 Pacific + 8 hr = UTC
 Alaskan + 9 hr = UTC
 Hawaii & Aleutian Islands + 10 hr = UTC

Subtract one hour for Daylight Time

WINDSPEED

MPH	KNOTS
1-2	1-2
3-8	3-7
9-14	8-12
15-20	13-17
21-25	18-22
26-31	23-27
32-37	28-32
38-43	33-37
44-49	38-42
50-54	43-47
55-60	48-52
61-66	53-57
67-71	58-62
72-77	63-67
78-83	68-72
84-89	73-77
119-123	103-107

Knots x 1.15 = Miles Per Hour
 Miles Per Hour x 0.869 = Knots



7-1-11. Flight Information Services (FIS)

a. FIS. Aviation weather and other operational information may be displayed in the cockpit through the use of FIS. FIS systems are of two basic types: Broadcast only systems (called FIS-B) and two-way request/reply systems. Broadcast system components include a ground- or space-based transmitter, an aircraft receiver, and a portable or installed cockpit display device. Two-way systems utilize transmitter/receivers at both the ground- or space-based site and the aircraft.

1. Broadcast FIS (i.e., FIS-B) allows the pilot to passively collect weather and other operational data and to display that data at the appropriate time. In addition to textual weather products such as Aviation Routine Weather Reports (METARs)/ Aviation Selected Special Weather Reports (SPECIs) and Terminal Area Forecasts (TAFs), graphical weather products such as radar composite/mosaic images, temporary flight restricted airspace and other NOTAMs may be provided to the cockpit. Two-way FIS services permit the pilot to make specific weather and other operational information requests for cockpit display. A FIS service provider will then prepare a reply in response to that specific request and transmit the product to that specific aircraft.

2. FIS services are available from four types of service providers:

(a) A private sector FIS provider operating under service agreement with the FAA using broadcast data link over VHF aeronautical spectrum and whose products have been reviewed and accepted by the FAA prior to transmission. (Products and services are defined under subparagraph c.)

(b) Through an FAA operated service using a broadcast data link on the ADS-B UAT network. (Products and services are defined under subparagraph d.)

(c) Private sector FIS providers operating under customer contracts using aeronautical spectrum.

(d) Private sector FIS providers operating under customer contract using methods other than aeronautical spectrum, including Internet data-to-the-cockpit service providers.

3. FIS is a method of receiving aviation weather and other operational data in the cockpit that

augments traditional pilot voice communication with FAA's 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 pre-flight briefings or inflight voice communications. FIS; however, can provide textual and graphical background information that can help abbreviate and improve the usefulness of such communications. FIS enhances pilot situational awareness and improves safety.

4. 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 systematically 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.

b. 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 (e.g., graphical ground-based radar precipitation depictions) are not appropriate for tactical avoidance of severe weather such as negotiating a path through a weather hazard area. FIS supports strategic 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 pre-flight weather and flight planning briefing.

5. 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.

6. 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, FAA's en route "Flight Watch" service, data from other air traffic control facilities, airline operation control centers, pilot reports, as well as their own observations.

c. FAA FISDL (VHF) Service. The FAA's FISDL (VHF datalink) system is a VHF Data Link (VDL) Mode 2 implementation that provides pilots and flight crews of properly equipped aircraft with a cockpit display of certain aviation weather and flight operational information. This information may be displayed in both textual and graphical formats. The system is operated under a service agreement with the FAA, using broadcast data link on VHF aeronautical spectrum on two 25 KHz spaced frequencies (136.450 and 136.475 MHz). The FAA FISDL (VHF) service is designed to provide coverage throughout the continental U.S. from 5,000 feet AGL to 17,500 feet MSL, except in areas where this is not feasible due to mountainous terrain. Aircraft operating near transmitter sites may receive useable FISDL signals at altitudes lower than 5,000 feet AGL, including on the surface in some locations, depending on transmitter/aircraft line of sight geometry. Aircraft operating above 17,500 feet MSL may also receive useable FISDL signals under certain circumstances.

1. FAA FISDL (VHF) service provides, free of charge, the following basic text products:

(a) Aviation Routine Weather Reports (METARs).

(b) Aviation Selected Special Weather Reports (SPECIs).

(c) Terminal Area Forecasts (TAFs), and their amendments.

(d) Significant Meteorological Information (SIGMETs).

(e) Convective SIGMETs.

(f) AIRMET text bulletins (WA).

(g) Pilot Reports (both urgent and routine) (PIREPs); and,

(h) Severe Weather Forecast Alerts and Warnings (AWWs/WW) issued by the NOAA Storm Prediction Center (SPC).

2. The format and coding of these text products are described in Advisory Circular AC-00-45, Aviation Weather Services, and paragraph 7-1-30, Key to Aerodrome Forecast (TAF) and Aviation Routine Weather Report (METAR).

Section 5. Potential Flight Hazards

7-5-1. 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.

7-5-2. 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, Paragraph 4-1-15 Radar Traffic Information Service.

7-5-3. 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 Airmen (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.

7-5-4. 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.

7-5-5. 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

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

a. Terms Added:

GLOBAL NAVIGATION SATELLITE SYSTEM (GNSS) [ICAO]
GLOBAL NAVIGATION SATELLITE SYSTEM MINIMUM EN ROUTE IFR
ALTITUDE (GNSS MEA)

b. Editorial/format changes were made where necessary. Revision bars were not used due to the insignificant nature of the changes.

G

GATE HOLD PROCEDURES– Procedures at selected airports to hold aircraft at the gate or other ground location whenever departure delays exceed or are anticipated to exceed 15 minutes. The sequence for departure will be maintained in accordance with initial call-up unless modified by flow control restrictions. Pilots should monitor the ground control/clearance delivery frequency for engine start/taxi advisories or new proposed start/taxi time if the delay changes.

GBT–

(See **GROUND-BASED TRANSCEIVER**.)

GCA–

(See **GROUND CONTROLLED APPROACH**.)

GDP–

(See **GROUND DELAY PROGRAM**.)

GENERAL AVIATION– That portion of civil aviation which encompasses all facets of aviation except air carriers holding a certificate of public convenience and necessity from the Civil Aeronautics Board and large aircraft commercial operators.

(See ICAO term **GENERAL AVIATION**.)

GENERAL AVIATION [ICAO]– All civil aviation operations other than scheduled air services and nonscheduled air transport operations for remuneration or hire.

GEO MAP– The digitized map markings associated with the ASR-9 Radar System.

GLIDEPATH–

(See **GLIDESLOPE**.)

GLIDEPATH [ICAO]– A descent profile determined for vertical guidance during a final approach.

GLIDEPATH INTERCEPT ALTITUDE–

(See **GLIDESLOPE INTERCEPT ALTITUDE**.)

GLIDESLOPE– Provides vertical guidance for aircraft during approach and landing. The glideslope/glidepath is based on the following:

a. Electronic components emitting signals which provide vertical guidance by reference to airborne instruments during instrument approaches such as ILS/MLS, or

b. Visual ground aids, such as VASI, which provide vertical guidance for a VFR approach or for the visual portion of an instrument approach and landing.

c. **PAR**. Used by ATC to inform an aircraft making a PAR approach of its vertical position (elevation) relative to the descent profile.

(See ICAO term **GLIDEPATH**.)

GLIDESLOPE INTERCEPT ALTITUDE– The minimum altitude to intercept the glideslope/path on a precision approach. The intersection of the published intercept altitude with the glideslope/path, designated on Government charts by the lightning bolt symbol, is the precision FAF; however, when the approach chart shows an alternative lower glideslope intercept altitude, and ATC directs a lower altitude, the resultant lower intercept position is then the FAF.

(See **FINAL APPROACH FIX**.)

(See **SEGMENTS OF AN INSTRUMENT APPROACH PROCEDURE**.)

GLOBAL NAVIGATION SATELLITE SYSTEM (GNSS) [ICAO]– A worldwide position and time determination system that includes one or more satellite constellations, aircraft receivers and system integrity monitoring, augmented as necessary to support the required navigation performance for the intended operation.

GLOBAL NAVIGATION SATELLITE SYSTEM MINIMUM EN ROUTE IFR ALTITUDE (GNSS MEA)– The minimum en route IFR altitude on a published ATS route or route segment which assures acceptable Global Navigation Satellite System reception and meets obstacle clearance requirements. (Refer to 14 CFR Part 91.) (Refer to 14 CFR Part 95.)

GLOBAL POSITIONING SYSTEM (GPS)– A space-base radio positioning, navigation, and time-transfer system. The system provides highly accurate position and velocity information, and precise time, on a continuous global basis, to an unlimited number of properly equipped users. The system is unaffected by weather, and provides a worldwide common grid reference system. The GPS concept is predicated upon accurate and continuous knowledge of the spatial position of each satellite in the system with respect to time and distance from a

transmitting satellite to the user. The GPS receiver automatically selects appropriate signals from the satellites in view and translates these into three-dimensional position, velocity, and time. System accuracy for civil users is normally 100 meters horizontally.

GNSS [ICAO]–

(See GLOBAL NAVIGATION SATELLITE SYSTEM.)

GNSS MEA–

(See GLOBAL NAVIGATION SATELLITE SYSTEM MINIMUM EN ROUTE IFR ALTITUDE.)

GO AHEAD– Proceed with your message. Not to be used for any other purpose.

GO AROUND– Instructions for a pilot to abandon his/her approach to landing. Additional instructions may follow. Unless otherwise advised by ATC, a VFR aircraft or an aircraft conducting visual approach should overfly the runway while climbing to traffic pattern altitude and enter the traffic pattern via the crosswind leg. A pilot on an IFR flight plan making an instrument approach should execute the published missed approach procedure or proceed as instructed by ATC; e.g., “Go around” (additional instructions if required).

(See LOW APPROACH.)

(See MISSED APPROACH.)

GPD–

(See GRAPHIC PLAN DISPLAY.)

GPS–

(See GLOBAL POSITIONING SYSTEM.)

GRAPHIC PLAN DISPLAY (GPD)– A view available with URET that provides a graphic display of aircraft, traffic, and notification of predicted conflicts. Graphic routes for Current Plans and Trial Plans are displayed upon controller request.

(See USER REQUEST EVALUATION TOOL.)

GROUND-BASED TRANSCEIVER (GBT)– The ground-based transmitter/receiver (transceiver) receives automatic dependent surveillance–broadcast messages, which are forwarded to an air traffic control facility for processing and display with other radar targets on the plan position indicator (radar display).

(See AUTOMATIC DEPENDENT SURVEILLANCE-BROADCAST.)

GROUND CLUTTER– A pattern produced on the radar scope by ground returns which may degrade other radar returns in the affected area. The effect of ground clutter is minimized by the use of moving target indicator (MTI) circuits in the radar equipment resulting in a radar presentation which displays only targets which are in motion.

(See CLUTTER.)

GROUND COMMUNICATION OUTLET (GCO)–

An unstaffed, remotely controlled, ground/ground communications facility. Pilots at uncontrolled airports may contact ATC and FSS via VHF to a telephone connection to obtain an instrument clearance or close a VFR or IFR flight plan. They may also get an updated weather briefing prior to takeoff. Pilots will use four “key clicks” on the VHF radio to contact the appropriate ATC facility or six “key clicks” to contact the FSS. The GCO system is intended to be used only on the ground.

GROUND CONTROLLED APPROACH– A radar approach system operated from the ground by air traffic control personnel transmitting instructions to the pilot by radio. The approach may be conducted with surveillance radar (ASR) only or with both surveillance and precision approach radar (PAR). Usage of the term “GCA” by pilots is discouraged except when referring to a GCA facility. Pilots should specifically request a “PAR” approach when a precision radar approach is desired or request an “ASR” or “surveillance” approach when a nonprecision radar approach is desired.

(See RADAR APPROACH.)

GROUND DELAY PROGRAM (GDP)– A traffic management process administered by the ATCSCC; when aircraft are held on the ground. The purpose of the program is to support the TM mission and limit airborne holding. It is a flexible program and may be implemented in various forms depending upon the needs of the AT system. Ground delay programs provide for equitable assignment of delays to all system users.

GROUND SPEED– The speed of an aircraft relative to the surface of the earth.

GROUND STOP (GS)– The GS is a process that requires aircraft that meet a specific criteria to remain on the ground. The criteria may be airport specific, airspace specific, or equipment specific; for example, all departures to San Francisco, or all departures entering Yorktown sector, or all Category I and II

aircraft going to Charlotte. GSs normally occur with little or no warning.

GROUND VISIBILITY-
(See VISIBILITY.)

GS-
(See GROUND STOP.)

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