FOREWORD

This Guidance Material (GM: Part- SPA) is interpretative material and provides guidance for the compliance of the requirements of ANO Part- SPA "Specific Approval". Section numbering of this GM is synchronized with that of regulations and AMCs of ANO Part-SPA.

This GM is effective from the date of publication of the ANO Part- SPA, Issue 1.

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Guidance Material on

ANO Part-SPA

Introduction

This Guidance Material (GM: Part-SPA) is interpretative material and provides guidance for the compliance of airworthiness requirement of ANO Part-SPA "Specific Approval" and is effective from the *date of publication of the ANO Part-SPA Issue 1*. Section numbering of this GM is synchronized with that of regulations and AMCs of ANO Part-SPA.

GM1 SPA.PBN.100 PBN operations

GENERAL

(a) PBN operations are based on performance requirements, which are expressed in navigation specifications (RNAV specification and RNP specification) in terms of accuracy, integrity, continuity, availability and functionality needed for the proposed operation in the context of a particular airspace concept.

Table 1 provides a simplified overview of:

(1) PBN specifications and their applicability for different phases of flight; and

(2) PBN specifications requiring a specific approval.

(b) More detailed guidance material for the operational use of PBN applications can be found in ICAO Doc 9613 Performance-Based Navigation (PBN) Manual.

(c) Guidance material for the design of RNP AR APCH procedures can be found in ICAO Doc 9905 RNP AR Procedure Design Manual.

(d) Guidance material for the operational approval of PBN operations can be found in ICAO Doc 9997 Performance-Based Navigation (PBN) Operational Approval Manual.

	FLIGHT PHASE							
	En-route		Arrival	Approach				Departure
	Oceanic	Continental		Initial	Intermediate	Final	Missed	
RNAV 10	10							
RNAV 5		5	5					
RNAV 2		2	2					2
RNAV 1		1	1	1	1		1	1
RNP 4	4							
RNP 2	2	2						
RNP 1			1	1	1		1	1
A-RNP	2	2 or 1	1–0.3	1–0.3	1–0.3	0.3	1–0.3	1–0.3
RNP APCH (LNAV)				1	1	0.3	1	
RNP APCH (LNAV/VNAV)				1	1	0.3	1	
RNP APCH (LP)				1	1		1	
RNP APCH (LPV)				1	1		1	
RNP AR APCH *****				**1–0.1**	**1–0.1**	**0.3–0.1**	**1–0.1**	
RNP 0.3 (H) *****		**0.3**	**0.3**	**0.3**	**0.3**		**0.3**	**0.3**

Numbers specify the accuracy level ***** specific approval required

GM1 SPA.PBN.105(c) PBN operational approval

FLIGHT OPERATIONAL SAFETY ASSESSMENT (FOSA)

(a) Traditionally, operational safety has been defined by a target level of safety (TLS) and specified as a risk of collision of 10^{-7} per approach operation. For RNP AR APCH operations, conducting the FOSA methodology contributes to achieving the TLS. The FOSA is intended to provide a level of flight safety that is equivalent to the traditional TLS, but using methodology oriented to performance-based flight operations. Using the FOSA, the operational safety objective is met by considering more than the aircraft navigation system alone. The FOSA blends quantitative and qualitative analyses and assessments by considering navigation systems, aircraft performance, operating procedures, human factor aspects and the operational environment. During these assessments conducted under normal and failure conditions, hazards, risks and the associated mitigations are identified. The FOSA relies on the detailed criteria for the aircraft capabilities and instrument procedure design to address the majority of general technical, procedure and process factors. Additionally, technical and operational expertise and prior operator experience with RNP AR APCH operations are essential elements to be considered in the conduct and conclusion of the FOSA.

(b) The following aspects need to be considered during FOSA, in order to identify hazards, risks and mitigations relevant to RNP AR APCH operations:

(1) Normal performance: lateral and vertical accuracy are addressed in the aircraft airworthiness standards, aircraft and systems operate normally in standard configurations and operating modes, and individual error components are monitored/truncated through system design or flight crew procedure.

(2) Performance under failure conditions: lateral and vertical accuracy are evaluated for aircraft failures as part of the aircraft certification. Additionally, other rare-normal and abnormal failures and conditions for ATC operations, flight crew procedures, infrastructure and operating environment are assessed. Where the failure or condition results are not acceptable for continued operation, mitigations are developed or limitations established for the aircraft, flight crew and/or operation.

(3) Aircraft failures

(i) System failure: Failure of a navigation system, flight guidance system, flight instrument system for the approach, or missed approach (e.g. loss of GNSS updating, receiver failure, autopilot disconnect, FMS failure, etc.). Depending on the aircraft, this may be addressed through aircraft design or operating procedure to cross-check guidance (e.g. dual equipage for lateral errors, use of terrain awareness and warning system).

(ii) Malfunction of air data system or altimetry: flight crew procedure cross-check between two independent systems may mitigate this risk.

(4) Aircraft performance

(i) Inadequate performance to conduct the approach operation: the aircraft capabilities and operating procedures ensure that the performance is adequate on each approach, as part of flight planning and in order to begin or continue the approach. Consideration should be given to aircraft configuration during approach and any configuration changes associated with a missed approach operation (e.g. engine failure, flap retraction, re-engagement of autopilot in LNAV mode).

(ii) Loss of engine: loss of an engine while on an RNP AR APCH operation is a rare occurrence due to high engine reliability and the short exposure time. The operator needs to take appropriate action to mitigate the effects of loss of engine, initiating a go-around and manually taking control of the aircraft if necessary.

(5) Navigation services

(i) Use of a navigation aid outside of designated coverage or in test mode: aircraft airworthiness standards and operating procedures have been developed to address this risk.

(ii) Navigation database errors: instrument approach procedures are validated through flight validation specific to the operator and aircraft, and the operator should have a process defined to maintain validated data through updates to the navigation database.

(6) ATC operations

(i) Procedure assigned to non-approved aircraft: flight crew are responsible for rejecting the clearance.

(ii) ATC provides ‘direct to’ clearance to or vectors aircraft onto approach such that performance cannot be achieved.

(iii) Inconsistent ATC phraseology between controller and flight crew.

(7) Flight crew operations

(i) Erroneous barometric altimeter setting: flight crew entry and cross-checkprocedures may mitigate this risk.

(ii) Incorrect procedure selection or loading: flight crew procedures should be available to verify that the loaded procedure matches the published procedure, line of minima and aircraft airworthiness qualification.

(iii) Incorrect flight control mode selected: training on importance of flight control mode, flight crew procedure to verify selection of correct flight control mode.

(iv) Incorrect RNP entry: flight crew procedure to verify RNP loaded in system matches the published value.

(v) Missed approach: balked landing or rejected landing at or below DA/H.

(vi) Poor meteorological conditions: loss or significant reduction of visual reference that may result in a go-around.

(8) Infrastructure

(i) GNSS satellite failure: this condition is evaluated during aircraft qualification to ensure obstacle clearance can be maintained, considering the low likelihood of this failure occurring.

(ii) Loss of GNSS signals: relevant independent equipage, e.g. IRS/INS, is mandated for RNP AR APCH procedures with RF legs and approaches where the accuracy for the missed approach is less than 1 NM. For other approaches, operating procedures are used to approximate the published track and climb above obstacles.

(iii) Testing of ground navigation aids in the vicinity of the approach: aircraft and operating procedures should detect and mitigate this event.

(9) Operating conditions

(i) Tailwind conditions: excessive speed on RF legs may result in inability to maintain track. This is addressed through aircraft airworthiness standards on the limits of command guidance, inclusion of 5 degrees of bank maneuverability margin, consideration of speed effect and flight crew procedure to maintain speeds below the maximum authorized for the RNP AR APCH procedure.

(ii) Wind conditions and effect on FTE: nominal FTE is evaluated under a variety of wind conditions, and flight crew procedures to monitor and limit deviations to ensure safe operation.

(iii) Extreme temperature effects of barometric altitude (e.g. extreme cold temperatures, known local atmospheric or weather phenomena, high winds, severe turbulence, etc.): the effect of this error on the vertical path is mitigated through the procedure design and flight crew procedures, with an allowance for aircraft that compensate for this effect to conduct procedures regardless of the published temperature limit. The effect of this error on minimum segment altitudes and the DA/H are addressed in an equivalent manner to all other approach operations.

GM1 SPA.MNPS.100 MNPS operations

DOCUMENTATION

MNPS and the procedures governing their application are published in the Regional Supplementary Procedures, ICAO Doc 7030, as well as in national AIPs.

GM1 SPA.RVSM.105(d)(9) RVSM operational approval

SPECIFIC REGIONAL PROCEDURES

The areas of applicability (by Flight Information Region) of RVSM airspace in identified ICAO regions is contained in the relevant sections of ICAO Document 7030/4. In addition, these sections contain operating and contingency procedures unique to the regional airspace concerned, specific flight planning requirements and the approval requirements for aircraft in designated region;

GM1 SPA.LVO.100 Low visibility operations

DOCUMENTS CONTAINING INFORMATION RELATED TO LOW VISIBILITY OPERATIONS

The following documents provide further information to low visibility operations (LVO):

(a) ICAO Annex 2 Rules of the Air;

(b) ICAO Annex 6 Operation of Aircraft;

(c) ICAO Annex 10 Telecommunications Vol. 1;

(d) ICAO Annex 14 Aerodromes Vol. 1;

(e) ICAO Doc 8168 PANS - OPS Aircraft Operations;

(f) ICAO Doc 9365 AWO Manual;

(g) ICAO Doc 9476 Manual of surface movement guidance and control systems (SMGCS);

(h) ICAO Doc 9157 Aerodrome Design Manual;

(i) ICAO Doc 9328 Manual of RVR Observing and Reporting Practices;

GM2 SPA.LVO.100 Low visibility operations

ILS CLASSIFICATION

The ILS classification system is specified in ICAO Annex 10.

GM1 SPA.LVO.100(c),(e) Low visibility operations

ESTABLISHMENT OF MINIMUM RVR FOR CAT II AND CAT III OPERATIONS

(a) General

(1) When establishing minimum RVR for CAT II and CAT III operations, operators should pay attention to the following information that originates in GM1 SPA.LVO.100.

(2) Since the inception of precision approach and landing operations various methods have been devised for the calculation of aerodrome operating minima in terms of DH and RVR. It is a comparatively straightforward matter to establish the DH for an operation but establishing the minimum RVR to be associated with that DH so as to provide a high probability that the required visual reference will be available at that DH has been more of a problem.

(3) The methods adopted by various States to resolve the DH/RVR relationship in respect of CAT II and CAT III operations have varied considerably. In one instance there has been a simple approach that entailed the application of empirical data based on actual operating experience in a particular environment. This has given satisfactory results for application within the environment for which it was developed. In another instance a more sophisticated method was employed which utilized a fairly complex computer programme to take account of a wide range of variables. However, in the latter case, it has been found that with the improvement in

the performance of visual aids, and the increased use of automatic equipment in the many different types of new aircraft, most of the variables cancel each other out and a simple tabulation can be constructed that is applicable to a wide range of aircraft. The basic principles that are observed in establishing the values in such a table are that the scale of visual reference required by a pilot at and below DH depends on the task that he/she has to carry out, and that the degree to which his/her vision is obscured depends on the obscuring medium, the general rule in fog being that it becomes more dense with increase in height. Research using flight simulation training devices (FSTDs) coupled with flight trials has shown the following:

(i) most pilots require visual contact to be established about 3 seconds above DH though it has been observed that this reduces to about 1 second when a fail operational automatic landing system is being used;

(ii) to establish lateral position and cross-track velocity most pilots need to see not less than a three-light segment of the Centre line of the approach lights, or runway Centre line, or runway edge lights;

(iii) for roll guidance most pilots need to see a lateral element of the ground pattern, i.e. an approach light cross bar, the landing threshold, or a barrette of the touchdown zone light; and

(iv) to make an accurate adjustment to the flight path in the vertical plane, such as a flare, using purely visual cues, most pilots need to see a point on the ground which has a low or zero rate of apparent movement relative to the aircraft.

(v) With regard to fog structure, data gathered in the United Kingdom over a 20 year period have shown that in deep stable fog there is a 90 % probability that the slant visual range from eye heights higher than 15 ft above the ground will be less than the horizontal visibility at ground level, i.e. RVR. There are at present no data available to show what the relationship is between the slant visual range and RVR in other low visibility conditions such as blowing snow, dust or heavy rain, but there is some evidence in pilot reports that the lack of contrast between visual aids and the background in such conditions can produce a relationship similar to that observed in fog.

(b) CAT II operations

The selection of the dimensions of the required visual segments that are used for CAT II operations is based on the following visual provisions:

(1) a visual segment of not less than 90 m will need to be in view at and below DH for pilot to be able to monitor an automatic system;

(2) a visual segment of not less than 120 m will need to be in view for a pilot to be able to maintain the roll attitude manually at and below DH; and

(3) for a manual landing using only external visual cues, a visual segment of 225 m will be required at the height at which flare initiation starts in order to provide the pilot with sight of a point of low relative movement on the ground.

Before using a CAT II ILS for landing, the quality of the localizer between 50 ft and touchdown should be verified.

(c) CAT III fail-passive operations

(1) CAT III operations utilizing fail-passive automatic landing equipment were introduced in the late 1960s and it is desirable that the principles governing the establishment of the minimum RVR for such operations be dealt with in some detail.

(2) During an automatic landing the pilot needs to monitor the performance of the aircraft system, not in order to detect a failure that is better done by the monitoring devices built into the system, but so as to know precisely the flight situation. In the final stages the pilot should establish visual contact and, by the time the pilot reaches DH, the pilot should have checked the aircraft position relative to the approach or runway Centre line lights. For this the pilot will need sight of horizontal elements (for roll reference) and part of the touchdown area. The pilot should check for lateral position and cross-track velocity and, if not within the pre-stated lateral limits, the pilot should carry out a missed approach procedure. The pilot should also check longitudinal progress and sight of the landing threshold is useful for this purpose, as is sight of the touchdown zone lights.

(3) In the event of a failure of the automatic flight guidance system below DH, there are two possible courses of action; the first is a procedure that allows the pilot to complete the landing manually if there is adequate visual reference for him/her to do so, or to initiate a missed approach procedure if there is not; the second is to make a missed approach procedure mandatory if there is a system disconnect regardless of the pilot's assessment of the visual reference available:

(i) If the first option is selected then the overriding rule in the determination of a minimum RVR is for sufficient visual cues to be available at and below DH for the pilot to be able to carry out a manual landing. Data presented in ECAC Doc 17 showed that a minimum value of 300 m would give a high probability that the cues needed by the pilot to assess the aircraft in pitch and roll will be available and this should be the minimum RVR for this procedure.

(ii) The second option, to require a missed approach procedure to be carried out should the automatic flight-guidance system fail below DH, will permit a lower minimum RVR because the visual reference provision will be less if there is no need to provide for the possibility of a manual landing. However, this option is only acceptable if it can be shown that the probability of a system failure below DH is acceptably low. It should be recognized that the inclination of a pilot who experiences such a failure would be to continue the landing manually but the results of flight trials in actual conditions and of simulator experiments show that pilots do not always recognize that the visual cues are inadequate in such situations and present recorded data reveal that pilots' landing performance reduces progressively as the RVR is reduced below 300 m. It should further be recognized that there is some risk in carrying out a manual missed approach procedure from below 50 ft in very low visibility and it should therefore be accepted that if an RVR lower than 300 m is to be approved, the flight deck procedure should not normally allow the pilot to continue the landing manually in such conditions and the aircraft system should be sufficiently reliable for the missed approach procedure rate to be low.

(4) These criteria may be relaxed in the case of an aircraft with a fail-passive automatic landing system that is supplemented by a head-up display that does not qualify as a fail- operational system but that gives guidance that will enable the pilot to complete a landing in the event of a failure of the automatic landing system. In this case it is not necessary to make a missed approach procedure mandatory in the event of a failure of the automatic landing system when the RVR is less than 300 m.

(d) CAT III fail-operational operations - with a DH

(1) For CAT III operations utilizing a fail-operational landing system with a DH, a pilot should be able to see at least one Centre line light.

(2) For CAT III operations utilizing a fail-operational hybrid landing system with a DH, a pilot should have a visual reference containing a segment of at least three consecutive lights of the runway Centre line lights.

(e) CAT III fails operational operations - with no DH

(1) For CAT III operations with no DH the pilot is not required to see the runway prior to touchdown. The permitted RVR is dependent on the level of aircraft equipment.

(2) A CAT III runway may be assumed to support operations with no DH unless specifically restricted as published in the AIP or NOTAM.

GM1 SPA.LVO.100(e) Low visibility operations

CREW ACTIONS IN CASE OF AUTOPILOT FAILURE AT OR BELOW DH IN FAIL-PASSIVE CAT III OPERATIONS

For operations to actual RVR values less than 300 m, a missed approach procedure is assumed in the event of an autopilot failure at or below DH. This means that a missed approach procedure is the normal action. However, the wording recognizes that there may be circumstances where the safest action is to continue the landing. Such circumstances include the height at which the failure occurs, the actual visual references, and other malfunctions. This would typically apply to the late stages of the flare. In conclusion, it is not forbidden to continue the approach and complete the landing when the pilot-in- command determines that this is the safest course of action. The operator’s policy and the operational instructions should reflect this information.

GM1 SPA.LVO.100(f) Low visibility operations

OPERATIONS UTILISING EVS

(a) Introduction

(1) Enhanced vision systems use sensing technology to improve a pilot’s ability to detect objects, such as runway lights or terrain, which may otherwise not be visible.

The image produced from the sensor and/or image processor can be displayed to the pilot in a number of ways including use of a HUD. The systems can be used in all phases of flight and can improve situational awareness. In particular, infra-red systems can display terrain during operations at night, improve situational awareness during night and low- visibility taxiing, and may allow earlier acquisition of visual references during instrument approaches.

(b) Background to EVS provisions

(1) The provisions for EVS were developed after an operational evaluation of two different EVS systems, along with data and support provided by the FAA. Approaches using EVS were flown in a variety of conditions including fog, rain and snow showers, as well as at night to aerodromes located in mountainous terrain. The infra-red EVS performance can vary depending on the weather conditions encountered. Therefore, the provisions take a conservative approach to cater for the wide variety of conditions which may be encountered. It may be necessary to amend the provisions in the future to take account of greater operational experience.

(2) Provisions for the use of EVS during take-off have not been developed. The systems evaluated did not perform well when the RVR was below 300 m. There may be some benefit for use of EVS during take-off with greater visibility and reduced light; however, such operations would need to be evaluated.

(3) Provisions have been developed to cover use of infra-red systems only. Other sensing technologies are not intended to be excluded; however, their use will need to be evaluated to determine the appropriateness of this, or any other provision. During the development, it was envisaged what minimum equipment should be fitted to the aircraft. Given the present state of technological development, it is considered that a HUD is an essential element of the EVS equipment.

(4) In order to avoid the need for tailored charts for approaches utilizing EVS, it is envisaged that the operator will use AMC6 SPA.LVO.110 Table 6 Operations utilizing EVS RVR/CMV reduction vs. normal RVR/CMV to determine the applicable RVR at the commencement of the approach.

(c) Additional operational considerations

(1) EVS equipment should have:

(i) a head-up display system (capable of displaying, airspeed, vertical speed, aircraft attitude, heading, altitude, command guidance as appropriate for the approach to be flown, path deviation indications, flight path vector and flight path angle reference cue and the EVS imagery);

(ii) a head-down view of the EVS image, or other means of displaying the EVS-derived information easily to the pilot monitoring the progress of the approach; and

(iii) means to ensure that the pilot monitoring is kept in the 'loop' and crew resource management (CRM) does not break down.

GM1 SPA.LVO.105 LVO approval

CRITERIA FOR A SUCCESSFUL CAT II, OTS CAT II, CAT III APPROACH AND AUTOMATIC LANDING

(a) The purpose of this GM is to provide operators with supplemental information regarding the criteria for a successful approach and landing to facilitate fulfilling the requirements prescribed in SPA.LVO.105.

(b) An approach may be considered to be successful if:

(1) from 500 ft to start of flare:

(i) speed is maintained as specified in the appropriate design standard accepted by CAAB. and

(ii) no relevant system failure occurs; and

(2) from 300 ft to DH:

(i) no excess deviation occurs; and

(ii) no centralized warning gives a missed approach procedure command (if installed).

(c) An automatic landing may be considered to be successful if:

(1) no relevant system failure occurs;

(2) no flare failure occurs;

(3) no de-crab failure occurs (if installed);

(4) longitudinal touchdown is beyond a point on the runway 60 m after the threshold and before the end of the touchdown zone light (900 m from the threshold);

(5) lateral touchdown with the outboard landing gear is not outside the touchdown zone light edge;

(6) sink rate is not excessive;

(7) bank angle does not exceed a bank angle limit; and

(8) no rollout failure or deviation (if installed) occurs.

GM1 SPA.LVO.110(c)(4)(i) General operating requirements

APPROVED VERTICAL FLIGHT PATH GUIDANCE MODE

The term ‘approved’ means that the vertical flight path guidance mode has been certified by the Authority of the country of design as part of the avionics product.

GM1 SPA.LVO.120 Flight crew training and qualifications

FLIGHT CREW TRAINING

The number of approaches referred to in AMC1 SPA.LVO.120 (f)(1) includes one approach and landing that may be conducted in the aircraft using approved CAT II/III procedures. This approach and landing may be conducted in normal line operation or as a training flight.

GM1 SPA.DG.105(b)(6) Approval to transport dangerous goods

PERSONNEL

Personnel include all persons involved in the transport of dangerous goods, whether they are employees of the operator or not.

GM1 SPA.HEMS.100(a) Helicopter emergency medical service (HEMS) operations

THE HEMS PHILOSOPHY

(a) Introduction

This GM outlines the HEMS philosophy. Starting with a description of acceptable risk and introducing a taxonomy used in other industries, it describes how risk has been addressed in this Subpart to provide a system of safety to the appropriate standard. It discusses the difference between HEMS and air ambulance - in regulatory terms.

(b) Acceptable risk

The broad aim of any aviation legislation is to permit the widest spectrum of operations with the minimum risk. In fact it may be worth considering who/what is at risk and who/what is being protected. In this view three groups are being protected:

(1) third parties (including property) - highest protection;

(2) passengers (including patients); and

(3) crew members (including technical crew members) – lowest.

(c) Risk management

Safety management textbooks' describe four different approaches to the management of risk. All but first have been used in the production of this section and, if it is considered that the engine failure accountability of performance class 1 equates to zero risk, then all four are used (this of course is not strictly true as there are a number of helicopter parts –such as the tail rotor which, due to a lack of redundancy, cannot satisfy the criteria):

(1) Applying the taxonomy to HEMS gives:

(i) zero risk; no risk of accident with a harmful consequence – performance class 1 (within the qualification stated above) - the HEMS operating base;

(ii) de minimis; minimised to an acceptable safety target - for example the exposure time concept where the target is less than 5×10^{-8} (in the case of elevated final approach and take-off areas (elevated FATOs) at hospitals in a congested hostile environment the risk is contained to the deck edge strike case - and so in effect minimised to an exposure of seconds);

(iii) comparative risk; comparison to other exposure - the carriage of a patient with a spinal injury in an ambulance that is subject to ground effect compared to the risk of a HEMS flight (consequential and comparative risk);

(iv) as low as reasonably practicable; where additional controls are not economically or reasonably practicable - operations at the HEMS operating site (the accident site).

(2) HEMS operations are conducted in accordance with the requirements contained in ANO 6-3, except for the variations contained in SPA.HEMS, for which a specific approval is required. In simple terms there are three areas in HEMS operations where risk, beyond that allowed in ANO 6-3, are identified and related risks accepted:

(i) in the en-route phase, where alleviation is given from height and visibility rules;

(ii) at the accident site, where alleviation is given from the performance and size requirement; and

(iii) at an elevated hospital site in a congested hostile environment, where alleviation is given from the deck edge strike - providing elements of SPA.HEMS.100 (c) Operations without an assured safe forced landing capability are satisfied.

In mitigation against these additional and considered risks, experience levels are set, specialist training is required (such as instrument training to compensate for the increased risk of inadvertent entry into cloud) and operation with two crew (two pilots, or one pilot and a HEMS technical crew member) is mandated.

(d) Air ambulance

In regulatory terms, air ambulance is considered to be a normal transport task where the risk is no higher than for operations to the full ANO 6-3 compliance. This is not intended to contradict/complement medical terminology but is simply a statement of policy; none of the risk elements of HEMS should be extant and therefore none of the additional requirements of HEMS need be applied.

To provide a road ambulance analogy:

(1) if called to an emergency: an ambulance would proceed at great speed, sounding its siren and proceeding against traffic lights - thus matching the risk of operation to the risk of a potential death (= HEMS operations);

(2) for a transfer of a patient (or equipment) where life and death (or consequential injury of ground transport) is not an issue: the journey would be conducted without sirens and within normal rules of motoring - once again matching the risk to the task (= air ambulance operations).

The underlying principle is that the aviation risk should be proportionate to the task.

It is for the medical professional to decide between HEMS or air ambulance - not the pilot. For that reason, medical staff who undertake to task medical sorties should be fully aware of the additional risks that are (potentially) present under HEMS operations (and the pre-requisite for the operator to hold a HEMS approval). (For example in some countries, hospitals have principal and alternative sites. The patient may be landed at the safer alternative site (usually in the grounds of the hospital) thus eliminating risk - against the small inconvenience of a short ambulance transfer from the site to the hospital.)

Once the decision between HEMS or air ambulance has been taken by the medical professional, the pilot in command makes an operational judgement over the conduct of the flight.

Simplistically, the above type of air ambulance operations could be conducted by any operator holding an Air Operator Certificate (AOC) (HEMS operators hold an AOC) - and usually are when the carriage of medical supplies (equipment, blood, organs, drugs etc.) is undertaken and when urgency is not an issue.

(e) Operating under a HEMS approval

There are only two possibilities: transportation as passengers or cargo under the full auspices of ANO 6-3 (this does not permit any of the alleviations of SPA.HEMS - landing and take-off performance should be in compliance with the performance (ANO 6-3), or operations under a HEMS approval as contained in this Subpart.

(f) HEMS operational sites

The HEMS philosophy attributes the appropriate levels of risk for each operational site; this is derived from practical considerations and in consideration of the probability of use. The risk is expected to be inversely proportional to the amount of use of the site. The types of site are as follows:

(1) HEMS operating base: from which all operations will start and finish. There is a high probability of a large number of take-offs and landings at this HEMS operating base and for that reason no alleviation from operating procedures or performance rules are contained in this Subpart.

(2) HEMS operating site: because this is the primary pick-up site related to an incident or accident, its use can never be pre-planned and therefore attracts alleviations from operating procedures and performance rules, when appropriate.

(3) The hospital site: is usually at ground level in hospital grounds or, if elevated, on a hospital building. It may have been established during a period when performance criteria were not a consideration. The amount of use of such sites depends on their location and their facilities; normally, it will be greater than that of the HEMS operating site but less than for a HEMS operating base. Such sites attract some alleviation under this Subpart.

(g) Problems with hospital sites

These sites are generally found in a congested hostile environment:

(1) in the grounds of hospitals; or

(2) on hospital buildings.

The problem of hospital sites is mainly historical and, whilst the authority could insist that such sites are not used – or used at such a low weight that critical engine failure performance is assured – it would seriously curtail a number of existing operations.

Even though the rule for the use of such sites in hospital grounds for HEMS operations attracts alleviation, it is only partial and will still impact upon present operations.

Because such operations are performed in the public interest, it was felt that the authority should be able to exercise its discretion so as to allow continued use of such sites provided that it is satisfied that an adequate level of safety can be maintained - notwithstanding that the site does not allow operations to performance class 1 or 2 standards. However, it is in the interest of continuing improvements in safety that the alleviation of such operations be constrained to existing sites, and for a limited period.

It is felt that the use of public interest sites should be controlled. This will require that a State directory of sites be kept and approval given only when the operator has an entry in the route manual section of the operations manual.

The directory (and the entry in the operations manual) should contain for each approved site:

(i) the dimensions;

(ii) any non-conformance with ICAO Annex 14;

(iii) the main risks; and

(iv) the contingency plan should an incident occur.

Each entry should also contain a diagram (or annotated photograph) showing the main aspects of the site.

(h) Summary

In summary, the following points are considered to be pertinent to the HEMS philosophy and HEMS regulations:

(1) absolute levels of safety are conditioned by society;

(2) potential risk must only be to a level proportionate to the task;

(3) protection is afforded at levels appropriate to the occupants;

(4) this Subpart addresses a number of risk areas and mitigation is built in;

(5) only HEMS operations are dealt with by this Subpart;

(6) there are three main categories of HEMS sites and each is addressed appropriately; and

(7) State alleviation from the requirement at a hospital site is available but such alleviations should be strictly controlled by a system of registration.

GM1 SPA.HEMS.120 HEMS operating minima

REDUCED VISIBILITY

(a) In the rule the ability to reduce the visibility for short periods has been included. This will allow the pilot in command to assess the risk of flying temporarily into reduced visibility against the need to provide emergency medical service, taking into account the advisory speeds included in Table 1. Since every situation is different it was not felt appropriate to define the short period in terms of absolute figures. It is for the pilot in command to assess the aviation risk to third parties, the crew and the aircraft such that it is proportionate to the task, using the principles of GM1 SPA.HEMS.100(a).

(b) When flight with a visibility of less than 5 km is permitted, the forward visibility should not be less than the distance travelled by the helicopter in 30 seconds so as to allow adequate opportunity to see and avoid obstacles (see table below).

Table 1 Operating minima – reduced visibility

Visibility (m)	**Advisory speed (kt)**
800	50
1500	100
2000	120

GM1 SPA.HEMS.125(b)(3) Performance requirements for HEMS operations

PERFORMANCE CLASS 2 OPERATIONS AT A HEMS OPERATING SITE

As the risk profile at a HEMS operating site is already well known, operations without an assured safe forced landing capability do not need a separate approval and the requirements does not call for the additional risk assessment that is specified in SPA.HEMS.100 (2)(i).

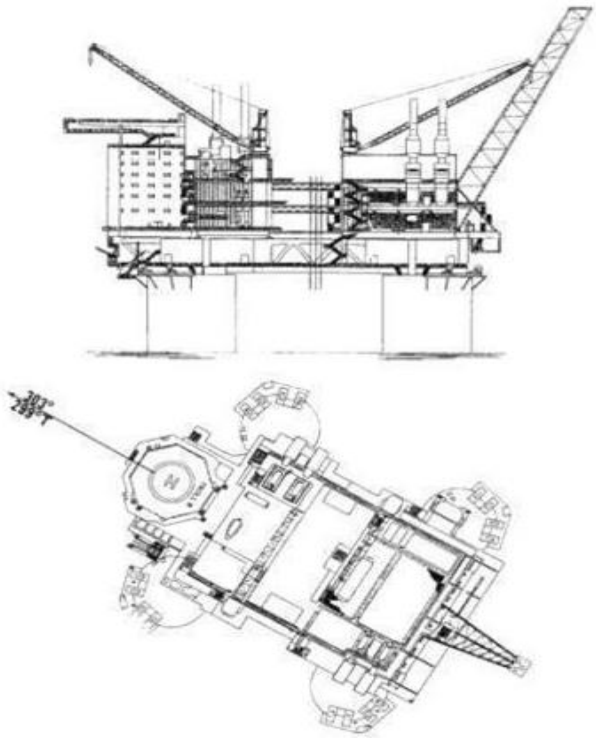
GM1 SPA.HOFO.110(b)(9) Operating Procedures

Emergency flotation systems (EFSs) cannot always be armed safely before the approach when a speed limitation needs to be complied with. In such case, the EFS should be armed as soon as safe to do so.

GM1 SPA.HOFO.115 Use of offshore locations

Figure 1 — Example of a helicopter landing area template

Operator		10-1	Revision date	
Installation/vessel name		Position	(N/S XXX)	(E/W XXX)
Deck height	Installation height	Highest obstacle within 5 nm	Deck heading	Deck ident
(XXX ft)	(XXX ft)			
AIMS/ICAO code	Radio	Radio	Deck category	Side ident
			(1/2/3)	
Deck size (m)	T value (XXX kg)	Cleared for (above D or t values)	Installation type	Operator
		(Helicopter type xxx)	(Fixed/semi/etc.)	
Fuel	Ground power	Inspection date	Inspected by	Next due
(Press/gravity/no)	(AC/DC/no)			



Wind direction	Wind speed	Limitations
(All) (000–050)	(All) (> 30)	(Performance requirements) (Table 2 etc.)
5:1 non-compliant obstacles		
Additional information		

Figure 2 — Example of a helicopter landing area template

GM1 SPA.HOFO.125 Airborne radar approach (ARA) to offshore locations

GENERAL

(a) General

(1) The helicopter ARA procedure may have as many as five separate segments: the arrival, initial, intermediate, final approach, and missed approach segment. In addition, the specifications of the circling manoeuvre to a landing under visual conditions should be considered. The individual approach segments can begin and end at designated fixes. However, the segments of an ARA may often begin at specified points where no fixes are available.

(2) The fixes, or points, are named to coincide with the beginning of the associated segment. For example, the intermediate segment begins at the intermediate fix (IF) and ends at the final approach fix (FAF). Where no fix is available or appropriate, the segments begin and end at specified points; for example, at the intermediate point (IP) and final approach point (FAP). The order in which the segments are discussed in this GM is the order in which the pilot would fly them in a complete procedure: that is, from the arrival through the initial and intermediate to the final approach and, if necessary, to the missed approach.

(3) Only those segments that are required by local conditions applying at the time of the approach need to be included in a procedure. In constructing the procedure, the final

approach track, which should be orientated so as to be substantially into the wind, should be identified first as it is the least flexible and most critical of all the segments. When the origin and the orientation of the final approach have been determined, the other necessary segments should be integrated with it to produce an orderly manoeuvring pattern that does not generate an unacceptably high workload for the flight crew.

(4) Where an ARA is conducted to a non-moving offshore location (i.e. fixed installation or moored vessel), and a reliable global navigation satellite system (GNSS) position for the location is available, the GNSS/area navigation system should be used to enhance the safety of the ARA. This is achieved by using the GNSS/area navigation system to navigate the helicopter onto, and maintain, the final approach track, and by using the GNSS range and bearing information to cross-check the position of the offshore location on the weather radar display.

(5) Examples of ARA procedures, as well as vertical profile and missed approach procedures, are contained in Figures 1 and 2 below.

(b) Obstacle environment

(1) Each segment of the ARA is located in an overwater area that has a flat surface at sea level. However, due to the passage of large vessels which are not required to notify their presence, the exact obstacle environment cannot be determined. As the largest vessels and structures are known to reach elevations exceeding 500 ft above mean sea level (AMSL), the uncontrolled offshore obstacle environment applying to the arrival, initial and intermediate approach segments can reasonably be assumed to be capable of reaching to at least 500 ft AMSL. Nevertheless, in the case of the final approach and missed approach segments, specific areas are involved within which no radar returns are allowed. In these areas, the height of wave crests, and the possibility that small obstacles may be present that are not visible on radar, results in an uncontrolled surface environment that extends to an elevation of 50 ft AMSL.

(2) Information about movable obstacles should be requested from the arrival destination or adjacent installations.

Under normal circumstances, the relationship between the approach procedure and the obstacle environment is governed by the concept that vertical separation is very easy to apply during the arrival, initial and intermediate segments, while horizontal separation, which is much more difficult to guarantee in an uncontrolled environment, is applied only in the final and missed approach segments.

(c) Arrival segment

The arrival segment commences at the last en-route navigation fix, where the aircraft leaves the helicopter route, and it ends either at the initial approach fix (IAF) or, if no course reversal or similar manoeuvre is required, it ends at the IF. Standard en-route obstacle clearance criteria should be applied to the arrival segment.

(d) Initial approach segment

The initial approach segment is only required if the intermediate approach track cannot be joined directly. Most approaches will be flown direct to a point close to the IF, and then on to the final approach track, using GNSS/area navigation guidance. The segment commences at the IAF, and on completion of the manoeuvre, it ends at the IP. The minimum obstacle clearance (MOC) assigned to the initial approach segment is 1 000 ft.

(e) Intermediate approach segment

The intermediate approach segment commences at the IP, or in the case of straight-in approaches, where there is no initial approach segment, it commences at the IF. The segment ends at the FAP and should not be less than 2 nm in length. The purpose of the intermediate segment is to align the helicopter with the final approach track and prepare it for the final approach. During the intermediate segment, the helicopter should be lined up with the final approach track, the speed should be stabilised, the destination should be identified on the radar, and the final approach and missed approach areas should be identified and verified to be clear of radar returns. The MOC assigned to the intermediate segment is 500 ft. (f) Final approach segment.

(1) The final approach segment commences at the FAP and ends at the missed approach point (MAPt). The final approach area, which should be identified on radar, takes the form of a corridor between the FAP and the radar return of the destination. This corridor should not be less than 2 nm wide so that the projected track of the helicopter does not pass closer than 1 nm to the obstacles lying outside the area.

(2) On passing the FAP, the helicopter will descend below the intermediate approach altitude and follow a descent gradient which should not be steeper than 6.5 %. At this stage, vertical separation from the offshore obstacle environment will be lost. However, within the final approach area, the MDA/MDH will provide separation from the surface environment. Descent from 1 000 ft AMSL to 200 ft AMSL at a constant 6.5 % gradient will involve a horizontal distance of 2 nm. In order to follow the guideline that the procedure should not generate an unacceptably high workload for the flight crew, the required actions of levelling off at MDH, changing heading at the offset initiation point (OIP), and turning away at the MAPt, should not be planned to occur at the same time from the destination.

(3) During the final approach, compensation for drift should be applied, and the heading which, if maintained, would take the helicopter directly to the destination should be identified. It follows that at an OIP located at a range of 1.5 nm, a heading change of 10° is likely to result in a track offset of 15° at 1 nm, and the extended centre line of the new track can be expected to have a mean position approximately 300–400 m to one side of the destination structure. The safety margin built into the 0.75-nm decision range (DR) is dependent upon the rate of closure with the destination. Although the airspeed should be in the range of 60–90 KIAS during the final approach, the ground speed, after due allowance for wind velocity, should not be greater than 70 kt.

(g) Missed approach segment.

(1) The missed approach segment commences at the MAPt and ends when the helicopter reaches the minimum en route altitude. The missed approach manoeuvre is a ‘turning missed approach’ which should be of not less than 30° and should not, normally, be greater than 45°. A turn away of more than 45° does not reduce the collision risk factor any further nor does it permit a closer DR. However, turns of more than 45° may

increase the risk of pilot disorientation, and by inhibiting the rate of climb (especially in the case of an OEI missed approach procedure), may keep the helicopter at an extremely low level for longer than it is desirable.

(2) The missed approach area to be used should be identified and verified as a clear area on the radar screen during the intermediate approach segment. The base of the missed approach area is a sloping surface at 2.5 % gradient starting from MDH at the MAPt. The concept is that a helicopter executing a turning missed approach will be protected by the horizontal boundaries of the missed approach area until vertical separation of more than 130 ft is achieved between the base of the area and the offshore obstacle environment of 500 ft AMSL that prevails outside the area.

(3) A missed approach area, taking the form of a 45° sector orientated left or right of the final approach track, originating from a point 5 nm short of the destination, and terminating on an arc 3 nm beyond the destination, should normally satisfy the specifications of a 30° turning missed approach.

(h) Required visual reference

The visual reference required is that the destination should be in view in order to be able to carry out a safe landing.

(i) Radar equipment

During the ARA procedure, colour mapping radar equipment with a 120° sector scan and a 2.5- nm range scale selected may result in dynamic errors of the following order:

(1) bearing/tracking error of ± 4.5° with 95 % accuracy;

(2) mean ranging error of 250 m; or

(3) random ranging error of ± 250 m with 95 % accuracy.

Figure 1 — Horizontal profile

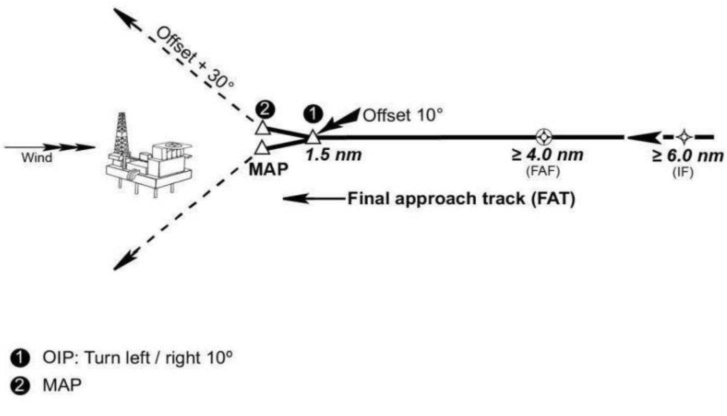
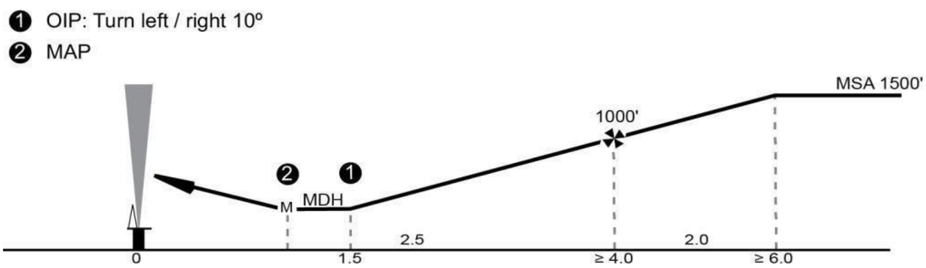


Figure 1 — Vertical profile



GM2 SPA.HOFO.125 Airborne radar approach (ARA) to offshore locations

GLOBAL NAVIGATION SATELLITE SYSTEM (GNSS)/AREA NAVIGATION SYSTEM

Where an ARA is conducted to a non-moving offshore location (i.e. fixed installation or moored vessel), and the GNSS/area navigation system is used to enhance the safety of the ARA, the following procedure or equivalent should be applied:

(a) selection from the area navigation system database or manual entry of the offshore location;

(b) manual entry of the final approach fix (FAF) or intermediate fix (IF), as a range of and bearing from the offshore location;

(c) operation of the GNSS equipment in terminal mode;

(d) comparison of weather radar and GNSS range and bearing data to cross-check the position of the offshore location;

(e) use of GNSS guidance to guide the aircraft onto the final approach track during the initial or intermediate approach segments;

(f) use of GNSS guidance from the FAF towards the offset initiation point (OIP) during the final approach segment to establish the helicopter on the correct approach track and, hence, heading;

(g) transition from GNSS guidance to navigation based on headings once the track is stabilised and before reaching OIP;

(h) use of GNSS range of and bearing to the offshore location during the intermediate and final approach segments to cross-check weather radar information (for correct 'painting' of the destination and, hence, of other obstacles);

(i) use of GNSS range of the offshore location to enhance confidence in the weather radar determination of arrival at the OIP and MAPt; and

(j) use of GNSS range of and bearing to the destination to monitor separation from the offshore location.

GM1 SPA.HOFO.145 Flight data monitoring (FDM) programme

DEFINITION OF AN FDM PROGRAMME

It should be noted that the requirement to establish a FDM programme is applicable to all individual aircraft in the scope of ANO (AOC), not to a subset selected by the operator.

(a) FDM analysis techniques

(1) Exceedance detection

(i) FDM programmes are used for detecting exceedances, such as deviations from flight manual limits, standard operating procedures (SOPs), or good airmanship. Typically, a set of core events establishes the main areas of interest that are based on a prior assessment of the most significant risks by the operator. In addition, it is advisable to consider the following risks: risk of runway excursion or abnormal runway contact at take-off or landing, risk of loss of control in flight, risk of airborne collision, and risk of collision with terrain.

Examples: low or high lift-off rotation rate, stall warning, ground proximity warning system (GPWS) warning, flap limit speed exceedance, fast approach, high or low on glideslope, heavy landing.

(ii) Trigger logic expressions may be simple exceedances such as redline values. The majority, however, are composites that define a certain flight mode, aircraft configuration or payload-related condition. Analysis software can also assign different sets of rules dependent on airport or geography. For example, noise sensitive airports may use higher than normal glideslopes on approach paths over populated areas. In addition, it might be valuable to define several levels of exceedance severity (such as low, medium and high).

(iii) Exceedance detection provides useful information, which can complement that provided in crew reports.

Examples: reduced flap landing, emergency descent, engine failure, rejected take-off, go-around, airborne collision avoidance system (ACAS) or GPWS warning, and system malfunctions.

(iv) The operator may also modify the standard set of core events to account for unique situations they regularly experience, or the SOPs they use.

Example: to avoid nuisance exceedance reports from a non-standard instrument departure.

(v) The operator may also define new events to address specific problem areas.

Example: restrictions on the use of certain flap settings to increase component life.

(2) All-flights measurements

FDM data are retained from all flights, not just the ones producing significant events. A selection of parameters is retained that is sufficient to characterise each flight and allow a comparative analysis of a wide range of operational variability. Emerging trends and tendencies may be identified and monitored before the trigger levels associated with exceedances are reached.

Examples of parameters monitored: take-off weight, flap setting, temperature, rotation and lift-off speeds versus scheduled speeds, maximum pitch rate and attitude during rotation, and gear retraction speeds, heights and times.

Examples of comparative analyses: pitch rates from high versus low take-off weights, good versus bad weather approaches, and touchdowns on short versus long runways.

(3) Statistics

Series of data are collected to support the analysis process: these usually include the numbers of flights flown per aircraft and sector details sufficient to generate rate and trend information.

(4) Investigation of incidents flight data

Recorded flight data provide valuable information for follow-up to incidents and other technical reports. They are useful in adding to the impressions and information recalled by the flight crew. They also provide an accurate indication of system status and performance, which may help in determining cause and effect relationships.

Examples of incidents where recorded data could be useful:

— high cockpit workload conditions as corroborated by such indicators as late descent, late localizer and/or glideslope interception, late landing configuration;

— unstabilised and rushed approaches, glide path excursions, etc.;

— exceedances of prescribed operating limitations (such as flap limit speeds, engine overtemperatures); and

— wake vortex encounters, turbulence encounters or other vertical accelerations.

It should be noted that recorded flight data have limitations, e.g. not all the information displayed to the flight crew is recorded, the source of recorded data may be different from the source used by a flight instrument, the sampling rate or the recording resolution of a parameter may be insufficient to capture accurate information.

(5) Continuing airworthiness

Data of all-flight measurements and exceedance detections can be utilised to assist the continuing airworthiness function. For example, engine-monitoring programmes look at measures of engine performance to determine operating efficiency and predict impending failures.

Examples of continuing airworthiness uses: engine thrust level and airframe drag measurements, avionics and other system performance monitoring, flying control performance, and brake and landing gear usage.

(b) FDM equipment

(1) General

FDM programmes generally involve systems that capture flight data, transform the data into an appropriate format for analysis, and generate reports and visualisation to assist in assessing the data. Typically, the following equipment capabilities are needed for effective FDM programmes:

(i) an on-board device to capture and record data on a wide range of in-flight parameters;

(ii) a means to transfer the data recorded on board the aircraft to a ground-based processing station;

(iii) a ground-based computer system to analyse the data, identify deviations from expected performance, generate reports to assist in interpreting the read-outs, etc.; and

(iv) optional software for a flight animation capability to integrate all data, presenting them as a simulation of in-flight conditions, thereby facilitating visualisation of actual events.

(2) Airborne equipment

(i) The flight parameters and recording capacity required for flight data recorders (FDR) to support accident investigations may be insufficient to support an effective FDM programme. Other technical solutions are available, including the following:

(A) Quick access recorders (QARs). QARs are installed in the aircraft and record flight data onto a low-cost removable medium.

(B) Some systems automatically download the recorded information via secure wireless systems when the aircraft is in the vicinity of the gate. There are also systems that enable the recorded data to be analysed on board while the aircraft is airborne.

(ii) Fleet composition, route structure and cost considerations will determine the most cost-effective method of removing the data from the aircraft.

(3) Ground replay and analysis equipment

(i) Data are downloaded from the aircraft recording device into a ground-based processing station, where the data are held securely to protect this sensitive information.

(ii) FDM programmes generate large amounts of data requiring specialised analysis software.

(iii) The analysis software checks the downloaded flight data for abnormalities.

(iv) The analysis software may include: annotated data trace displays, engineering unit listings, visualisation for the most significant incidents, access to interpretative material, links to other safety information and statistical presentations.

(c) FDM in practice

(1) FDM process

Typically, operators follow a closed-loop process in applying an FDM programme, for example:

(i) Establish a baseline: initially, operators establish a baseline of operational parameters against which changes can be detected and measured.

Examples: rate of unstable approaches or hard landings.

(ii) Highlight unusual or unsafe circumstances: the user determines when non-standard, unusual or basically unsafe circumstances occur; by comparing them to the baseline margins of safety, the changes can be quantified.

Example: increases in unstable approaches (or other unsafe events) at particular locations.

(iii) Identify unsafe trends: based on the frequency and severity of occurrence, trends are identified. Combined with an estimation of the level of severity, the risks are assessed to determine which may become unacceptable if the trend continues.

Example: a new procedure has resulted in high rates of descent that are nearly triggering GPWS warnings.

(iv) Mitigate risks: once an unacceptable risk has been identified, appropriate risk mitigation actions are decided on and implemented.

Example: having found high rates of descent, the SOPs are changed to improve aircraft control for optimum/maximum rates of descent.

(v) Monitor effectiveness: once a remedial action has been put in place, its effectiveness is monitored, confirming that it has reduced the identified risk and that the risk has not been transferred elsewhere.

Example: confirm that other safety measures at the aerodrome with high rates of descent do not change for the worse after changes in approach procedures.

(2) Analysis and follow-up

(i) FDM data are typically compiled every month or at shorter intervals. The data are then reviewed to identify specific exceedances and emerging undesirable trends and to disseminate the information to flight crews.

(ii) If deficiencies in pilot handling technique are evident, the information is usually de-identified in order to protect the identity of the flight crew. The information on specific exceedances is passed to a person (safety manager, agreed flight crew representative, honest broker) assigned by the operator for confidential discussion with the pilot. The person assigned by the operator provides the necessary contact with the pilot in order to clarify the circumstances, obtain feedback and give advice and recommendations for appropriate action. Such appropriate action could include re-training for the pilot (carried out in a constructive and non-punitive way), revisions to manuals, changes to ATC and airport operating procedures.

(iii) Follow-up monitoring enables the effectiveness of any corrective actions to be assessed. Flight crew feedback is essential for the identification and resolution of safety problems and could be collected through interviews, for example by asking the following:

(A) Are the desired results being achieved soon enough?

(B) Have the problems really been corrected, or just relocated to another part of the system?

(C) Have new problems been introduced?

(iv) All events are usually archived in a database. The database is used to sort, validate and display the data in easy-to-understand management reports. Over time, this archived data can provide a picture of emerging trends and hazards that would otherwise go unnoticed.

(v) Lessons learnt from the FDM programme may warrant inclusion in the operator’s safety promotion programmes. Safety promotion media may include newsletters, flight safety magazines, highlighting examples in training and simulator exercises, periodic reports to industry and the competent authority. Care is required, however, to ensure that any information acquired through FDM is de-identified before using it in any training or promotional initiative.

(vi) All successes and failures are recorded, comparing planned programme objectives with expected results. This provides a basis for review of the FDM programme and the foundation for future programme development.

(d) Preconditions for an effective FDM programme

(1) Protection of FDM data

The integrity of FDM programmes rests upon protection of the FDM data. Any disclosure for purposes other than safety management can compromise the voluntary provision of safety data, thereby compromising flight safety.

(2) Essential trust

The trust established between management and flight crew is the foundation for a successful FDM programme. This trust can be facilitated by:

(i) early participation of the flight crew representatives in the design, implementation and operation of the FDM programme;

(ii) a formal agreement between management and flight crew, identifying the procedures for the use and protection of data; and

(iii) data security, optimised by:

(A) adhering to the agreement;

(B) the operator strictly limiting data access to selected individuals;

(C) maintaining tight control to ensure that identifying data is kept securely; and

(D) ensuring that operational problems are promptly addressed by management.

(3) Requisite safety culture

Indicators of an effective safety culture typically include:

(i) top management's demonstrated commitment to promoting a proactive safety culture;

(ii) a non-punitive operator policy that covers the FDM programme;

(iii) FDM programme management by dedicated staff under the authority of the safety manager, with a high degree of specialisation and logistical support;

(iv) involvement of persons with appropriate expertise when identifying and assessing the risks (for example, pilots experienced on the aircraft type being analysed);

(v) monitoring fleet trends aggregated from numerous operations, not focusing only on specific events;

(vi) a well-structured system to protect the confidentiality of the data; and

(vii) an efficient communication system for disseminating hazard information (and subsequent risk assessments) internally and to other organisations to permit timely safety action.

(e) Implementing an FDM programme

(1) General considerations

(i) Typically, the following steps are necessary to implement an FDM programme:

(A) implementation of a formal agreement between management and flight crew;

(B) establishment and verification of operational and security procedures;

(C) installation of equipment;

(D) election and training of dedicated and experienced staff to operate the programme; and

(E) commencement of data analysis and validation.

(ii) An operator with no FDM experience may need a year to achieve an operational FDM programme. Another year may be necessary before any safety and cost benefits appear. Improvements in the analysis software, or the use of outside specialist service providers, may shorten these time frames.

(2) Aims and objectives of an FDM programme

(i) As with any project there is a need to define the direction and objectives of the work. A phased approach is recommended so that the foundations are in place for possible subsequent expansion into other areas. Using a building block approach will allow expansion, diversification and evolution through experience.

Example: with a modular system, begin by looking at basic safety-related issues only. Add engine health monitoring, etc. in the second phase. Ensure compatibility with other systems.

(ii) A staged set of objectives starting from the first week’s replay and moving through early production reports into regular routine analysis will contribute to a sense of achievement as milestones are met.

Examples of short-term, medium-term and long-term goals:

(A) Short-term goals:

— establish data download procedures, test replay software and identify aircraft defects;

— validate and investigate exceedance data; and

— establish a user-acceptable routine report format to highlight individual exceedances and facilitate the acquisition of relevant statistics.

(B) Medium-term goals:

— produce an annual report — include key performance indicators;

— add other modules to the analysis (e.g. continuing airworthiness); and

— plan for the next fleet to be added to programme.

(C) Long-term goals:

— network FDM information across all of the operator’s safety information systems;

— ensure FDM provision for any proposed alternative training and qualification programme (ATQP); and

— use utilisation and condition monitoring to reduce spares holdings.

(iv) Initially, focusing on a few known areas of interest will help prove the system's effectiveness. In contrast to an undisciplined 'scatter-gun' approach, a focused approach is more likely to gain early success.

Examples: rushed approaches, or rough runways at particular aerodromes. Analysis of such known problem areas may generate useful information for the analysis of other areas.

(3) The FDM team

(i) Experience has shown that the 'team' necessary to run an FDM programme could vary in size from one person for a small fleet, to a dedicated section for large fleets. The descriptions below identify various functions to be fulfilled, not all of which need a dedicated position.

(A) Team leader: it is essential that the team leader earns the trust and full support of both management and flight crew. The team leader acts independently of others in line management to make recommendations that will be seen by all to have a high level of integrity and impartiality. The individual requires good analytical, presentation and management skills.

(B) Flight operations interpreter: this person is usually a current pilot (or perhaps a recently retired senior captain or instructor), who knows the operator's route network and aircraft. This team member's in-depth knowledge of SOPs, aircraft handling characteristics, aerodromes and routes is used to place the FDM data in a credible context.

(C) Technical interpreter: this person interprets FDM data with respect to the technical aspects of the aircraft operation and is familiar with the power plant, structures and systems departments' requirements for information and any other engineering monitoring programmes in use by the operator.

(D) Gate-keeper: this person provides the link between the fleet or training managers and flight crew involved in events highlighted by FDM. The position requires good people skills and a positive attitude towards safety education. The person is typically a representative of the flight crew association or an 'honest broker' and is the only person permitted to connect the identifying data with the event. It is essential that this person earns the trust of both management and flight crew.

(E) Engineering technical support: this person is usually an avionics specialist, involved in the supervision of mandatory serviceability requirements for FDR systems. This team member is knowledgeable about FDM and the associated systems needed to run the programme.

(F) Replay operative and administrator: this person is responsible for the day- to-day running of the system, producing reports and analysis.

(ii) All FDM team members need appropriate training or experience for their respective area of data analysis. Each team member is allocated a realistic amount of time to regularly spend on FDM tasks.

GM2 SPA.HOFO.145 Flight data monitoring (FDM) programme

FDM

Additional guidance material for the establishment of a FDM programme is found in:

(a) International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) Doc 10000 — Manual on Flight Data Analysis Programmes (FDAP); and

(b) United Kingdom Civil Aviation Authority (UK CAA) CAP 739 — Flight Data Monitoring.

The following table provides examples of FDM events that may be further developed using operator- and helicopter-specific limits. The table is considered illustrative and non-exhaustive.

Table 1 — Examples of FDM events

Event title/description	Parameters required	Comments
Ground		
Outside air temperature (OAT) High — Operating limits	OAT	To identify when the helicopter is operated at the limits of OAT.
Sloping-ground high-pitch attitude	Pitch attitude, ground switch (similar)	To identify when the helicopter is operated at the slope limits.
Sloping-ground high-roll attitude	Roll attitude, ground switch (similar)	To identify when the helicopter is operated at the slope limits.
Rotor brake on at an excessive number of rotations (main rotor speed) (NR)	Rotor brake discreet, NR	To identify when the rotor brake is applied at too high NR.
Ground taxiing speed — max	Ground speed (GS), ground switch (similar)	To identify when the helicopter is ground taxied at high speed (wheeled helicopters only).
Air taxiing speed — max	GS, ground switch (similar), radio altitude (Rad Alt)	To identify when the helicopter is air taxied at high speed.
Excessive power during ground taxiing	Total torque (Tq), ground switch (similar), GS	To identify when excessive power is used during ground taxiing.
Pedal — max left-hand (LH) and right-hand (RH) taxiing	Pedal position, ground switch (similar), GS or NR	To identify when the helicopter flight controls (pedals) are used to excess on the ground. GS or NR to exclude control test prior to rotor start.
Excessive yaw rate on ground during taxiing	Yaw rate, ground switch (similar), or Rad Alt	To identify when the helicopter yaws at a high rate when on the ground.
Yaw rate in hover or on ground	Yaw rate, GS, ground switch (similar)	To identify when the helicopter yaws at a high rate when in a hover.
High lateral acceleration (rapid cornering)	Lateral acceleration, ground switch (similar)	To identify high levels of latera acceleration, when ground taxiing, that indicate high cornering speed.
High longitudinal acceleration (rapid braking)	Longitudinal acceleration, ground switch (similar)	To identify high levels of longitudinal acceleration, when ground taxiing, that indicate excessive braking.
Cyclic-movement limits during taxiing (pitch or roll)	Cyclic stick position, ground switch (similar), Rad Alt, NR or GS	To identify excessive movement of the rotor disc when running on ground. GS or NR to exclude contro test prior to rotor start.
Excessive longitudinal and lateral cyclic rate of movement on ground	Longitudinal cyclic pitch rate, lateral cyclic pitch rate, NR	To detect an excessive rate of movement of cyclic control when on the ground with rotors running
Lateral cyclic movement — closest to LH and RH rollover	Lateral cyclic position, peda position, roll attitude, elapsed time ground switch (similar)	To detect the risk of a helicopter rollover due to an incorrect combination of tail rotor peda position and lateral cyclic contro position when on ground.
Excessive cyclic control with insufficient collective pitch on ground	Collective pitch, longitudinal cyclic pitch, lateral cyclic pitch	To detect an incorrect taxiing technique likely to cause rotor head damage.
Inadvertent lift-off	Ground switch (similar), autopilot discreet	To detect inadvertent lifting into hover.

Event title/description	Parameters required	Comments
Flight — Take-off and landing		
Day or night landing or take-off	Latitude and Longitude (Lat & Long), local time or UTC	To provide day/night relevance to detected events.
Specific location of landing or takeoff	Lat & Long, ground switch (similar),Rad Alt, total Tq	To give contextual information concerning departures and destinations.
Gear extension and retraction — airspeed limit	Indicated airspeed (IAS), gear position	To identify when undercarriage airspeed limitations are breached.
Gear extension & retraction — height limit	Gear position, Rad Alt	To identify when undercarriage altitude limitations are breached.
Heavy landing	Normal/vertical acceleration, ground switch (similar)	To identify when hard/heavy landings take place.
Cabin heater on (take-off and landing)	Cabin heater discreet, ground switch (similar)	To identify use of engine bleed air during periods of high power demand.
High GS prior to touchdown (TD)	GS, Rad Alt, ground switch (similar) elapsed time, latitude, longitude	To assist in the identification of 'quick stop' approaches.
Flight — Speed		
High airspeed — with power	IAS, Tq 1, Tq 2, pressure altitude (Palt), OAT	To identify excessive airspeed in flight.
High airspeed — low altitude	IAS, Rad Alt	To identify excessive airspeed in low-level flight.
Low airspeed at altitude	IAS, Rad Alt	To identify a 'hover out of ground'effect.
Airspeed on departure (< 300 ft)	IAS, ground switch (similar), Rad Alt	To identify shallow departure.
High airspeed — power off	IAS, Tq 1, Tq 2 or one engine inoperative (OEI) discreet, Palt, OAT	To identify limitation exceedance of power-off airspeed.
Downwind flight within 60 sec of take-off	IAS, GS, elapsed time	To detect early downwind turn after take-off.
Downwind flight within 60 sec of landing	IAS, GS, elapsed time	To detect late turn to final shortly before landing.
Flight — Height		
Altitude — max	Palt	To detect flight outside of the published flight envelope.
Climb rate — max	Vertical speed (V/S), or Palt, or Rad Alt, Elapsed time	Identification of excessive rates o climb (RoC) can be determined from an indication/rate of change of Palt or Rad Alt.
High rate of descent	V/S	To identify excessive rates of descent (RoD).
High rate of descent (speed or height limit)	V/S, IAS or Rad Alt or elevation	To identify RoD at low level or low speed.
Settling with power (vortex ring)	V/S, IAS, GS, Tq	To detect high-power settling with low speed and with excessive rate of descent.
Minimum altitude in autorotation	NR, total Tq, Rad Alt	To detect late recovery from autorotation.
Low cruising (inertial systems)	GS, V/S, elevation, Lat & Long	To detect an extended low-leve flight. Ground speed is less accurate with more false alarms. Lat & Long used for geographical boundaries.
Low cruising (integrated systems)	Rad Alt, elapsed time, Lat & Long, ground switch (similar)	To detect an extended low-level flight.
Flight — Attitude and controls		
Excessive pitch (height related — turnover (T/O), cruising or landing)	Pitch attitude, Rad Alt elevation, Lat & Long	To identify inappropriate use o excessive pitch attitude durin flight. Height limits may be use (i.e. on take-off and landing or < 500 ft) — Lat & Long required for specific-location-related limits Elevation less accurate than Rad Alt Elevation can be used to identify the landing phase in a specific location.

Event title/description	Parameters required	Comments
Excessive pitch (speed related — T/O, cruising or landing)	Pitch attitude, IAS, GS, Lat & Long	To identify inappropriate use o excessive pitch attitude during flight. Speed limits may be used (i.e on take-off and landing or in cruising) — Lat & Long required for specific-location-related limits. GS less accurate than IAS.
Excessive pitch rate	Pitch rate, Rad Alt, IAS, ground switch (similar), Lat & Long	To identify inappropriate use of excessive rate of pitch change during flight. Height limits may be used (i.e. on take-off and landing). IAS only for IAS limit, ground switch (similar) and Lat & Long required for specific- location- related limits.
Excessive roll/bank attitude (speed or height related)	Roll attitude, Rad Alt, IAS/GS	To identify excessive use of rol attitude. Rad Alt may be used fo height limits, IAS/GS may be used for speed limits.
Excessive roll rate	Roll rate, Rad Alt, Lat & Long, Ground switch (similar)	Rad Alt may be used for height limits, Lat & Long and ground switch (similar) required for specific-location-related and air/ground limits.
Excessive yaw rate	Yaw rate	To detect excessive yaw rates in flight.
Excessive lateral cyclic control	Lateral cyclic position, ground switch (similar)	To detect movement of the latera cyclic control to extreme left or right positions. Ground switch (similar) required for pre or post T/O.
Excessive longitudinal cyclic control	Longitudinal cyclic position, ground switch (similar)	To detect movement of the longitudinal cyclic control to extreme forward or aft positions. Ground switch (similar) required for pre or post T/O.
Excessive collective pitch control	Collective position, ground switch (similar)	To detect exceedances of the aircraft flight manual (AFM) collective pitch limit. Ground switch (similar) required for pre or post T/O.
Excessive tail rotor control	Pedal position, ground switch (similar)	To detect movement of the tai rotor pedals to extreme left and right positions. Ground switch (similar) required for pre or post T/O.
Manoeuvre G loading or turbulence	Lat & Long, normal accelerations, ground switch (similar) or Rad Alt	To identify excessive G loading of the rotor disc, both positive an negative. Ground switch (similar required to determine air/ground Rad Alt required if height limi required.
Pilot workload/turbulence	Collective and/or cyclic and/or tai rotor pedal position and change rate (Lat & Long)	To detect high workload and/or turbulence encountered during take-off and landing phases. Lat & Long required for specific landing sites. A specific and complicated algorithm for this event is required. See United Kingdom Civil Aviation Authority (UK CAA) Paper 2002/02.
Cross controlling	Roll rate, yaw rate, pitch rate, GS, accelerations	To detect an ‘out of balance’ flight. Airspeed could be used instead of GS.
Quick stop	GS (min and max), V/S, pitch	To identify inappropriate flight characteristics. Airspeed could be used instead of GS.
Flight — General		
OEI — Air	OEI discreet, ground switch (similar)	To detect OEI conditions in flight.
Single engine flight	No 1 engine Tq, No 2 engine Tq	To detect single-engine flight.
Torque split	No 1 engine Tq, No 2 engine Tq	To identify engine-related issues.
Pilot event	Pilot event discreet	To identify when flight crews have depressed the pilot event button.
Traffic collision avoidance system (TCAS) traffic advisory (TA)	TCAS TA discreet	To identify TCAS alerts.

Event title/description	Parameters required	Comments
Training computer active	Training computer mode active or discreet	To identify when helicopter have been on training flights.
High/low rotor speed — power on	NR, Tq (ground switch (similar), IAS, GS)	To identify mishandling of NR Ground switch (similar), IAS or ground speed required to determine whether helicopter is airborne.
High/low rotor speed — power off	NR, Tq (ground switch (similar), IAS, GS)	To identify mishandling of NR Ground switch (similar), IAS or ground speed to determine whether helicopter is airborne.
Fuel content low	Fuel contents	To identify low-fuel alerts.
Helicopter terrain awareness and warning system (HTAWS) alert	HTAWS alerts discreet	To identify when HTAWS alerts have been activated.
Automatic voice alert device (AVAD) alert	AVAD discreet	To identify when AVAD alerts have been activated.
Bleed air system use during take- off (e.g. heating)	Bleed air system discreet, ground switch (similar), IAS	To identify use of engine bleed air during periods of high power demand.
Rotors' running duration	NR, elapsed time	To identify rotors' running time for billing purposes.
Flight — Approach		
Stable approach heading change	Magnetic heading, Rad Alt, ground switch (similar), gear position, elapsed time	To identify unstable approaches.
Stable approach pitch attitude	Pitch attitude, Rad Alt, ground switch (similar), gear position	To identify unstable approaches.
Stable approach rod GS	Altitude rate, Rad Alt, ground switch (similar), gear position	To identify unstable approaches.
Stable approach track change	Track, Rad Alt, ground switch (similar), gear position	To identify unstable approaches.
Stable approach angle of bank	Roll attitude, Rad Alt, ground switch (similar), gear position	To identify unstable approaches.
Stable approach — rod at specified height	Altitude rate, Rad Alt, ground switch (similar), gear position	To identify unstable approaches.
Stable approach — IAS at specified height	IAS, Rad Alt, ground switch (similar), gear position	To identify unstable approaches.
Glideslope deviation above or below	Glideslope deviation	To identify inaccurately flown instrument landing system (ILS) approaches.
Localiser deviation left and right	Localiser deviation	To identify inaccurately flown ILS approaches.
Low turn to final	Elevation, GS, V/S, heading change	Airspeed could be used instead of GS.
Premature turn to final	Elevation, GS, V/S, heading change	Airspeed could be used instead of GS.
Stable approach — climb	IAS (min & max), V/S (min & max), elevation	To identify unstable approaches.
Stable approach — descent	IAS (min & max), V/S, elevation	To identify unstable approaches.
Stable approach — bank	IAS (min & max), V/S, elevation, roll	To identify unstable approaches.
Stable approach — late turn	Heading change, elevation, GS	To identify unstable approaches.
Go-around	Gear select (Rad Alt)	To identify missed approaches. Rad Alt for height limit.
Rate of descent on approach	Altitude rate, Rad Alt, Lat & Long, ground switch (similar)	To identify high rates of descent when at low level on approach. Rad Alt if below specified height, Lat & Long for specified location required.
Flight — Autopilot		
Condition of autopilot in flight	Autopilot discreet	To detect flight without autopilot engaged; per channel for multichannel autopilots.
Autopilot engaged within 10 sec after take-off	Autopilot engaged discreet, elapsed time, ground switch (similar), total Tq, Rad Alt	To identify inadvertent lift-off without autopilot engaged.

Event title/description	Parameters required	Comments
Autopilot engaged on ground (postflight or preflight)	Autopilot engaged discreet, elapsed time, ground switch (similar), total Tq, Rad Alt	To identify inappropriate use o autopilot when on ground. Elapse time required to allow for permissible short periods.
Excessive pitch attitude with autopilot engaged on ground (offshore)	Pitch attitude, autopilot discreet, ground switch (similar), Lat & Long	To identify potential for low N when helicopter pitches on floatin helideck.
Airspeed hold engaged — airspeed (departure or non-departure)	Autopilot modes discreet, IAS, (ground switch (similar), total Tq, Rad Alt)	To detect early engagement of autopilot higher modes. Ground switch (similar), total Tq and Rad Alt to determine if the flight profile is ‘departure’.
Airspeed hold engaged — altitude (departure or non-departure)	Autopilot modes discreet, Rad Alt, (IAS, ground switch (similar), total Tq)	To detect early engagement of autopilot higher modes. IAS, ground switch (similar), total Tq to determine if the flight profile is ‘departure’.
Alt mode engaged — altitude (departure or non-departure)	Autopilot modes discreet, Rad Alt, (ground switch (similar), total Tq, IAS)	To detect early engagement of autopilot higher modes. Ground switch (similar), total Tq and Rad Alt to determine if the flight profile is ‘departure’.
Alt mode engaged — airspeed (departure or non-departure)	Autopilot modes discreet, IAS, (ground switch (similar), total Tq, Rad Alt)	To detect early engagement of autopilot higher modes. IAS, ground switch (similar), total Tq to determine if the flight profile is ‘departure’.
Heading mode engaged — speed	Autopilot modes discreet, IAS	To detect engagement of autopilot higher modes below minimum speed limitations. Ground switch (similar), total Tq and Rad Alt to determine if the flight profile is ‘departure’.
V/S mode active — below specified speed	Autopilot modes discreet, IAS	To detect engagement of autopilot higher modes below minimum speed limitations.
VS mode engaged — altitude (departure or non-departure)	Autopilot modes discreet, IAS, (WOW, total Tq, Rad Alt)	To detect early engagement of autopilot higher modes. Ground switch (similar), total Tq and Rad Alt to determine if the flight profile is ‘departure’.
Flight director (FD) engaged — speed	FD discreet, IAS	To detect engagement of autopilot higher modes below minimum speed limitations.
FD-coupled approach or take off — airspeed	FD discreet, IAS, ground switch (similar)	To detect engagement of autopilot higher modes below minimum speed limitations.
Go-around mode engaged — airspeed	Autopilot modes discreet, IAS, ground switch (similar), total Tq, Rad Alt	To detect engagement of autopilo higher modes below minimum speed limitations.
Flight without autopilot channels engaged	Autopilot channels	To detect flight without autopilot engaged; per channel for multichannel autopilots.

GM1 SPA.HOFO.150 Aircraft tracking system

OPERATIONAL PROCEDURE

The procedure should take into account the following aspects:

(a) the outcome of the risk assessment made when the update frequency of the information was defined;

(b) the local environment of the intended operations; and

(c) the relationship with the operator’s emergency response plan.

Aircraft tracking data should be recorded on the ground and retained for at least 48 h. Following an accident or a serious incident subject to investigation, the data should be retained for at least 30 days, and the operator should be capable of providing a copy of this data without delay.

GM1 SPA.HOFO.160(a)(1) Additional equipment requirements

PUBLIC ADDRESS (PA) SYSTEM

When demonstrating the performance of the PA system or that the pilot's voice is understandable at all passengers' seats during flight, the operator should ensure compatibility with the passengers' use of ear defenders/ear plugs (hearing protection). The operator should only provide hearing protection that is compatible with the intelligibility of the PA system or pilot's voice, as appropriate.

GM1 SPA.HOFO.160(a)(2) Additional equipment requirements

RADIO ALTIMETER

For additional information, please refer to ANO(AW) Part-IDE, AMC1 CAT.IDE.H.145 Radio altimeters and ANO(AW) Part-IDE AMC2 CAT.IDE.H.145
Radio altimeters, as well as to ANO(AW) Part-IDE, GM1 CAT.IDE.H.145 Radio altimeters.

GM1 SPA.HOFO.165(h) Additional procedures and equipment for operations in a hostile environment

SEAT ALLOCATION

The identification and seating of the larger passengers might be achieved through the use of patterned and/or colour-coded armbands and matching seat headrests.

GM1 SPA.SET-IMC.105(d)(2) SET-IMC operations approval

LANDING SITE

(a) When selecting landing sites along a route to be operated, it is recommended to prioritise the different types of landing sites as follows:

 (1) aerodromes with available runway lighting;
 (2) aerodromes without available runway lighting;
 (3) non-populated fields with short grass/vegetation or sandy areas.

(b) When assessing the suitability of a landing site which is not an aerodrome, it is recommended to consider the following landing site criteria:
 (1) size and shape of the landing area:
  (i) landing sites with a circular shape providing multiple approach paths depending on the wind; and
  (ii) for other cases, landing sites with a minimum width of 45 m; and

 (2) type of surface:
 the surface of the landing area should allow a safe forced landing to be conducted.

GM2 SPA.SET-IMC.105(d)(2) SET-IMC operations approval

SAFETY RISK ASSESSMENT FOR A SPECIFIC ROUTE

(a) Introduction
The risk assessment methodology should aim at estimating for a specific route the likelihood of having fatalities due to emergency landing caused by engine failure. Based on the outcome of this risk assessment, the operator may extend the duration of the risk period beyond the maximum allowed duration if no landing site is available within gliding range.

(b) The safety target

The overall concept of SET-IMC operations is based on an engine reliability rate for all causes of 10 per million flight hours, which permits in compliance with SET-IMC requirements an overall fatal accident rate for all causes of 4 per million flight hours.

Based on accident databases, it is considered that the engine failure event does not contribute by more than 33 % to the overall fatal accident rate. Therefore, the purpose of the risk assessment is to ensure that the probability of a fatal accident for a specific flight following engine failure remains below the target fatal accident rate of 1.3 × 10-6.

(c) Methodology

The methodology aims at estimating the likelihood of failing to achieve a safe forced landing in case of engine failure, a safe forced landing being defined as a landing on an area for which it is reasonably expected that no serious injury or fatalities will occur due to the landing even though the aeroplane may suffer extensive damage.

This methodology consists of creating a risk profile for a specific route, including departure, en route and arrival airfield and runway, by splitting the proposed flight into appropriate segments (based on the flight phase or the landing site selected), and by estimating the risk for each segment should the engine fail in one of these segments. This risk profile is considered to be an estimation of the probability of an unsuccessful forced landing if the engine fails during one of the identified segments.

When assessing the risk for each segment, the height of the aeroplane at which the engine failure occurs, the position relative to the departure or destination airfield or to an emergency landing site en route, and the likely ambient conditions (ceiling, visibility, wind and light) should be taken into account, as well as the standard procedures of the operator (e.g. U-turn procedures after take-off, use of synthetic vision, descent path angle for standard descent from cruising altitude, etc.).

The duration of each segment determines the exposure time to the estimated risk. The risk is estimated based on the following calculation:

Segment risk factor = segment exposure time (in s)/3 600 × probability of unsuccessful forced landing in this segment x assumed engine failure rate per flight hour (FH).

By summing up the risks for all individual segments, the cumulative risk for the flight due to engine failure is calculated and converted to risk on a ‘per flight hour’ basis.

This total risk must remain below the target fatal accident rate of 1.3×10^{-6} as under (b) above.

(d) Example of a risk assessment

An example of such a risk assessment is provided below. In any case, this risk assessment is an example designed for a specific flight with specific departure and arrival aerodrome characteristics. It is an example of how to implement this methodology, and all the estimated probabilities used in the table below may not directly apply to any other flight. The meaning of the different parameters used is further detailed below:

AD/Other: ‘AD’ is ticked whenever only aerodromes are selected as landing sites in the segment concerned. ‘Other’ is ticked if the selected landing sites in the segment concerned are not aerodromes. When a risk period is used by the operator, none of the two boxes (neither ‘AD’ nor ‘Other’) are ticked.

Segment exposure time: this parameter represents the duration of each segment in seconds (s). Estimated probability of an unsuccessful forced landing if engine fails in the segment: probability of performing in the segment a safe forced landing following engine power loss.

Segment risk factor: risk of an unsuccessful forced landing (because of power loss) per segment (see formula above).

		LANDING SITE				**Assumed engine failure rate per FH**			$1,00x10^{-5}$
Segments of flight	**Assumed height or height band above ground level (AGL) in ft**	AD	**Other**	**Segment exposure time (in s)**	**Cumulative flight time from start of take-off to end of segment (in s)**	**Estimated probability of unsuccessful forced landing if engine fails in this segment**	**Segment risk factor**	**Cumulative risk per flight**	**Comment on estimation of unsuccessful outcome**
Take-off (T-O) ground roll	0 ft	X		20	20	0.01 %	5.56 x 10-12	5.56 x 10-12	T-O aborted before being airborne.Runway long enough to stop the aircraft.
Climb-out	0-50 ft	X		8	28	0.10 %	2.22 x 10-11	2.78 x 10-11	Aircraft aborts T-O and lands ahead within runway length available.
	50-200 ft	X		10	38	1.00 %	2.78 x 10-10	3.06 x 10-10	
	200-1 100 ft	X		36	74	100.00 %	1.00 x 10-7	1.00 x 10-7	Aircraft has to land ahead outside airfield with little height for manoeuvring
	1 100-2 000 ft	X		36	110	50.00 %	5.00 x 10-8	1.50 x 10-7	U-turn and landing at opposite q-code for magnetic heading of a runway (QFU) possible.
	2 000-4 000 ft	X		80	190	25.00 %	5.56 x 10-8	2.06 x 10-7	
Climbing to en route height	4 000-10 000ft	X	X	240	430	5.00 %	3.33 x 10-8	2.39 x 10-7	Aircraft able to operate a glide-in approach.
Cruising: emergency area available	≤ 10 000 ft	X		5 400	5 830	5.00 %	7.50 x 10-7	9.89 x 10-7	En route cruising time with available landing sites along the route within gliding range.
Cruising: emergency area NOT available	≤ 10 000 ft			300	6 130	100.00 %	8.33 x 10-7	1.82 x 10-6	En route cruising time without available landing sites within gliding range.
Descent to initial approach fix for instrument flight rules (IFR) approach	10 000-4 000 ft on a 4° slope (1 200 ft/min)	X		300	6 430	5.00 %	4.17 x 10-8	1.86 x 10-6	Descent with available landing sites within gliding range, and destination not reachable.
Aircraft has to descend below the glide approach capability to set up for a normal powered landing from 1000 ft on a 3° approach path	4 000-1 000 ft on the approach		X	150	6 580	50.00 %	2.08 x 10-7	2.07 x 10-6	Aircraft descends below the height needed to maintain a glide approach for reaching the airfield. Therefore, it may land short of airfield if engine fails.
Aircraft descends on a 3° approach path	1 000 -50 ft on approach at 120 kt (600 ft/min)			95	6 675	100.00 %	2.64 x 10-7	2.34 x 10-6	Aircraft assumes 3° glideslope, regained to ensure normal landing. Therefore, it may undershoot the landing field if engine fails at this late stage.
Landing	50 ft above threshold until touchdown	X		10	6 685	5.00 %	1.39 x 10-9	2.34 x 10-6	Aircraft over runway. Engine is to be idled anyway, but failure, while airborne, may surprise pilot and result in hard landing.
Landing ground run	Touchdown to stop	X		15	6 700	0.01 %	4.17 x 10-12	2.34 x 10-6	Aircraft on ground. Risk negligible, if engine stops on the example runway (very long) providing that all services are retained.
								1.26×10^{-6}	Risk per flight

The following likelihood scale may be used to determine the estimated probability of an unsuccessful forced landing:

Probability in %	Description
0	Impossible
0-1	Negligible likelihood/remote possibility
1-10	Possible but not likely
10-35	Moderately likely
35-65	Possible
65-90	Likely
90-99	Almost certain
99-100	Certain

GM1 SPA.SET-IMC.110(f) Equipment requirements for SET-IMC operations

AREA NAVIGATION SYSTEM

Acceptable standards for the area navigation system are ETSO-145/146c, ETSO-C129a, ETSO-C196a or ETSO-C115 issued by the EASA or equivalent standard acceptable by CAAB.

GM1 SPA.SET-IMC.110(h) Equipment requirements for SET-IMC operations

LANDING LIGHTS

In order to demonstrate the compliance of its aeroplane's landing lights with the 200-ft illumination capability requirement, and in the absence of relevant data available in the aircraft flight manual (AFM), the operator should liaise with the type certificate (TC) holder or supplemental type certificate (STC) holder, as applicable, to obtain a statement of compliance.

GM1 SPA.SET-IMC.110(i)(7) Equipment requirements for SET-IMC operations

ELEMENTS AFFECTING PILOT'S VISION FOR LANDING

Examples of elements affecting pilot's vision for landing are rain, ice and window fogging.