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THE AMERICAN PRACTICAL NAVIGATOR

AN EPITOME OF NAVIGATION

ORIGINALLY BY

NATHANIEL BOWDITCH, LL.D.



2002 BICENTENNIAL EDITION

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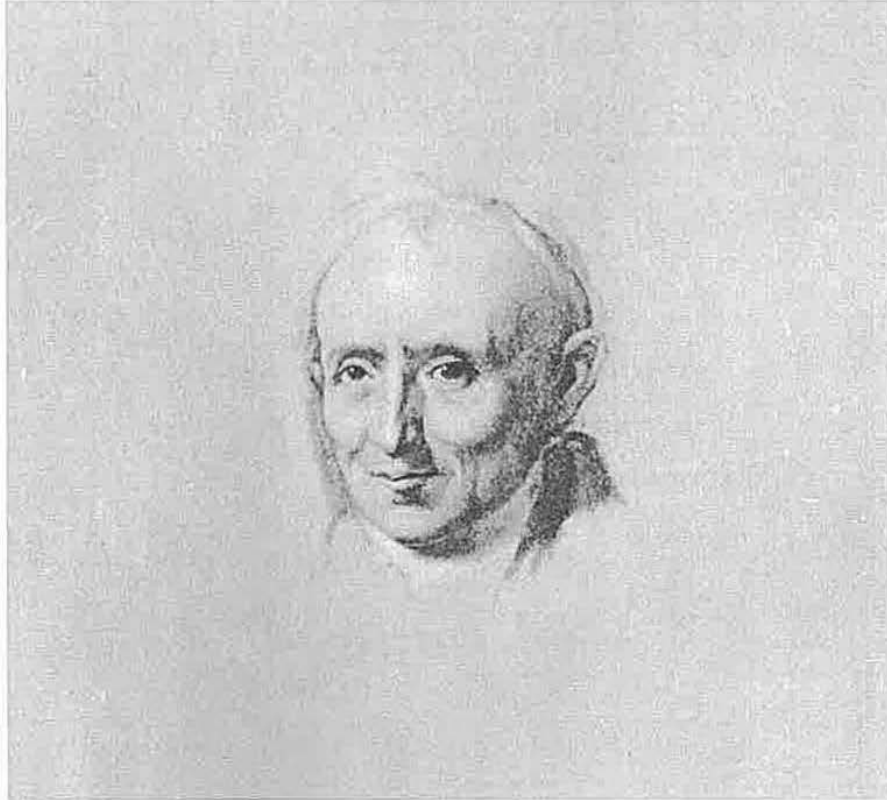


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Last painting by Gilbert Stuart (1828). Considered by the family of Bowditch to be the best of various paintings made, although it was unfinished when the artist died.

NATHANIEL BOWDITCH

(1773-1838)

Nathaniel Bowditch was born on March 26, 1773, in Salem, Mass., fourth of the seven children of shipmaster Habakkuk Bowditch and his wife, Mary.

Since the migration of William Bowditch from England to the Colonies in the 17th century, the family had resided at Salem. Most of its sons, like those of other families in this New England seaport, had gone to sea, and many of them became shipmasters. Nathaniel Bowditch himself sailed as master on his last voyage, and two of his brothers met untimely deaths while pursuing careers at sea.

Nathaniel Bowditch's father is said to have lost two ships at sea, and by late Revolutionary days he returned to the trade of cooper, which he had learned in his youth. This provided insufficient income to properly supply the needs of his growing family, who were often hungry and cold. For many years the nearly destitute family received an annual grant of 15 to 20 dollars from the Salem Marine Society. By the time Nathaniel had reached the age of 10, the family's poverty forced him to leave school and join his father in the cooper's trade to help support the family.

Nathaniel was unsuccessful as a cooper, and when he was about 12 years of age, he entered the first of two shipchandlery firms by which he was employed. It was during the nearly 10 years he was so employed that his great mind first attracted public attention. From the time he began school Bowditch had an all-consuming interest in learning, particularly mathematics. By his middle teens he was recognized in Salem as an authority on that subject. Salem being primarily a shipping town, most of the inhabitants sooner or later found their way to the ship chandler, and news of the brilliant young clerk spread until eventually it came to the attention of the learned men of his day. Impressed by his desire to educate himself, they supplied him with books that he might learn of the discoveries of other men. Since many of the best books were written by Europeans, Bowditch first taught himself their languages. French, Spanish, Latin, Greek and German were among the two dozen or more languages and dialects he studied during his life. At the age of 16 he began the study of Newton's *Principia*, translating parts of it from the Latin. He even found an error in that classic text, and though lacking the confidence to announce it at the time, he later published his findings and had them accepted by the scientific community.

During the Revolutionary War a privateer out of Beverly, a neighboring town to Salem, had taken as one of its prizes an English vessel which was carrying the philosophical library of a famed Irish scholar, Dr. Richard Kirwan. The books were brought to the Colonies and there bought by a group of educated Salem men who used them to found the

Philosophical Library Company, reputed to have been the best library north of Philadelphia at the time. In 1791, when Bowditch was 18, two Harvard-educated ministers, Rev. John Prince and Rev. William Bentley, persuaded the Company to allow Bowditch the use of its library. Encouraged by these two men and a third, Nathan Read, an apothecary and also a Harvard man, Bowditch studied the works of the great men who had preceded him, especially the mathematicians and the astronomers. By the time he became of age, this knowledge, acquired when not working long hours at the chandlery, had made young Nathaniel the outstanding mathematician in the Commonwealth, and perhaps in the country.

In the seafaring town of Salem, Bowditch was drawn to navigation early, learning the subject at the age of 13 from an old British sailor. A year later he began studying surveying, and in 1794 he assisted in a survey of the town. At 15 he devised an almanac reputed to have been of great accuracy. His other youthful accomplishments included the construction of a crude barometer and a sundial.

When Bowditch went to sea at the age of 21, it was as captain's writer and nominal second mate, the officer's berth being offered him because of his reputation as a scholar. Under Captain Henry Prince, the ship *Henry* sailed from Salem in the winter of 1795 on what was to be a year-long voyage to the Ile de Bourbon (now called Reunion) in the Indian Ocean.

Bowditch began his seagoing career when accurate time was not available to the average naval or merchant ship. A reliable marine chronometer had been invented some 60 years before, but the prohibitive cost, plus the long voyages without opportunity to check the error of the timepiece, made the large investment an impractical one. A system of determining longitude by "lunar distance," a method which did not require an accurate timepiece, was known, but this product of the minds of mathematicians and astronomers was so involved as to be beyond the capabilities of the uneducated seamen of that day. Consequently, ships were navigated by a combination of dead reckoning and parallel sailing (a system of sailing north or south to the latitude of the destination and then east or west to the destination). The navigational routine of the time was "lead, log, and lookout."

To Bowditch, the mathematical genius, computation of lunar distances was no mystery, of course, but he recognized the need for an easier method of working them in order to navigate ships more safely and efficiently. Through analysis and observation, he derived a new and simplified formula during his first trip.

John Hamilton Moore's *The Practical Navigator* was the leading navigational text when Bowditch first went to sea, and had been for many years. Early in his first voyage,

however, the captain's writer-second mate began turning up errors in Moore's book, and before long he found it necessary to recompute some of the tables he most often used in working his sights. Bowditch recorded the errors he found, and by the end of his second voyage, made in the higher capacity of supercargo, the news of his findings in *The New Practical Navigator* had reached Edmund Blunt, a printer at Newburyport, Mass. At Blunt's request, Bowditch agreed to participate with other learned men in the preparation of an American edition of the thirteenth (1798) edition of Moore's work. The first American edition was published at Newburyport by Blunt in 1799. This edition corrected many of the errors that Moore had included.

Although most of the errors were of little significance to practical navigation because they were errors in the fifth and sixth places of logarithm tables, some errors were significant. The most significant mistake was listing the year 1800 as a leap year in the table of the sun's declination. The consequence was that Moore gave the declination for March 1, 1800, as $7^{\circ}11'$. Since the actual value was $7^{\circ}33'$, the calculation of a meridian altitude would be in error by 22 minutes of latitude, or 22 nautical miles.

Bowditch's principal contribution to the first American edition was his chapter "The Method of Finding the Longitude at Sea," which discussed his new method for computing lunar distances. Following publication of the first American edition, Blunt obtained Bowditch's services in checking the American and English editions for further errors. Blunt then published a second American edition of Moore's thirteenth edition in 1800. When preparing a third American edition for the press, Blunt decided that Bowditch had revised Moore's work to such an extent that Bowditch should be named as author. The title was changed to *The New American Practical Navigator* and the book was published in 1802 as a first edition. Bowditch vowed while writing this edition to "put down in the book nothing I can't teach the crew," and it is said that every member of his crew including the cook could take a lunar observation and plot the ship's position.

Bowditch made a total of five trips to sea, over a period of about nine years, his last as master and part owner of the three-masted *Putnam*. Homeward bound from a 13-month voyage to Sumatra and the Ile de France (now called Mauritius) the *Putnam* approached Salem harbor on December 25, 1803, during a thick fog without having had a celestial observation since noon on the 24th. Relying upon his dead reckoning, Bowditch coned his wooden-hulled ship to the entrance of the rocky harbor, where he had the good fortune to get a momentary glimpse of Eastern Point, Cape Ann, enough to confirm his position. The *Putnam* proceeded in, past such hazards as "Bowditch's Ledge" (named after a great-grandfather who had wrecked his ship on the rock more than a century before) and anchored safely at 1900 that evening. Word of the daring

feat, performed when other masters were hove-to outside the harbor, spread along the coast and added greatly to Bowditch's reputation. He was, indeed, the "practical navigator."

His standing as a mathematician and successful shipmaster earned him a well-paid position ashore within a matter of weeks after his last voyage. He was installed as president of a Salem fire and marine insurance company at the age of 30, and during the 20 years he held that position the company prospered. In 1823 he left Salem to take a similar position with a Boston insurance firm, serving that company with equal success until his death.

From the time he finished the "*Navigator*" until 1814, Bowditch's mathematical and scientific pursuits consisted of studies and papers on the orbits of comets, applications of Napier's rules, magnetic variation, eclipses, calculations on tides, and the charting of Salem harbor. In that year, however, he turned to what he considered the greatest work of his life, the translation into English of *Mecanique Celeste*, by Pierre Laplace. *Mecanique Celeste* was a summary of all the then known facts about the workings of the heavens. Bowditch translated four of the five volumes before his death, and published them at his own expense. He gave many formula derivations which Laplace had not shown, and also included further discoveries following the time of publication. His work made this information available to American astronomers and enabled them to pursue their studies on the basis of that which was already known. Continuing his style of writing for the learner, Bowditch presented his English version of *Mecanique Celeste* in such a manner that the student of mathematics could easily trace the steps involved in reaching the most complicated conclusions.

Shortly after the publication of *The New American Practical Navigator*, Harvard College honored its author with the presentation of the honorary degree of Master of Arts, and in 1816 the college made him an honorary Doctor of Laws. From the time the Harvard graduates of Salem first assisted him in his studies, Bowditch had a great interest in that college, and in 1810 he was elected one of its Overseers, a position he held until 1826, when he was elected to the Corporation. During 1826-27 he was the leader of a small group of men who saved the school from financial disaster by forcing necessary economies on the college's reluctant president. At one time Bowditch was offered a Professorship in Mathematics at Harvard but this, as well as similar offers from West Point and the University of Virginia, he declined. In all his life he was never known to have made a public speech or to have addressed any large group of people.

Many other honors came to Bowditch in recognition of his astronomical, mathematical, and marine accomplishments. He became a member of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, the East India Marine Society, the Royal Academy of Edinburgh, the Royal Society of London, the Royal Irish Academy, the American Philosophical Society, the Connecticut Academy of Arts

and Sciences, the Boston Marine Society, the Royal Astronomical Society, the Palermo Academy of Science, and the Royal Academy of Berlin.

Nathaniel Bowditch outlived all of his brothers and sisters by nearly 30 years. He died on March 16, 1838, in his sixty-fifth year. The following eulogy by the Salem Marine Society indicates the regard in which this distinguished American was held by his contemporaries:

“In his death a public, a national, a human benefactor has departed. Not this community, nor our country only, but the

whole world, has reason to do honor to his memory. When the voice of Eulogy shall be still, when the tear of Sorrow shall cease to flow, no monument will be needed to keep alive his memory among men; but as long as ships shall sail, the needle point to the north, and the stars go through their wonted courses in the heavens, the name of Dr. Bowditch will be revered as of one who helped his fellow-men in a time of need, who was and is a guide to them over the pathless ocean, and of one who forwarded the great interests of mankind.”

**THE NEW AMERICAN
PRACTICAL NAVIGATOR;
BEING AN
EPITOME OF NAVIGATION;
CONTAINING ALL THE TABLES NECESSARY TO BE USED WITH THE
NAUTICAL ALMANAC,
IN DETERMINING THE
LATITUDE;**

**AND THE
LONGITUDE BY LUNAR OBSERVATIONS;**

**AND
KEEPING A COMPLETE RECKONING AT SEA:**

**ILLUSTRATED BY
PROPER RULES AND EXAMPLES:**

**THE WHICH IS DISPLAYED IN A
JOURNAL,**

KEPT FROM

BOSTON TO MADEIRA,

IN WHICH ALL THE RULES OF NAVIGATION ARE INTRODUCED:

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NEW TABLES,**

**WITH ORIGINAL IMPROVEMENTS AND ADDITIONS, AND A LARGE
VARIETY OF NEW AND IMPORTANT MATTER:**

A L S O

**MANY THOUSAND ERRORS ARE CORRECTED,
WHICH HAVE APPEARED IN THE BEST SYSTEMS OF NAVIGATION YET PUBLISHED.**

**BY NATHANIEL BOWDITCH,
FELLOW OF THE AMERICAN ACADEMY OF ARTS AND SCIENCES.**

ILLUSTRATED WITH COPPERPLATES.

First Edition.

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**SOLD BY FIFTY BOOKSELLERS, STATIONERS, AND MATHEMATICIAN-BOOKSELLERS,
IN THE UNITED STATES AND WEST INDIES.**

Original title page of *The New American Practical Navigator*, First Edition, published in 1802.

PREFACE

The Naval Observatory library in Washington, D.C., is unnaturally quiet. It is a large circular room, filled with thousands of books. Its acoustics are perfect; a mere whisper from the room's open circular balcony can be easily heard by those standing on the ground floor. A fountain in the center of the ground floor softly breaks the room's silence as its water stream gently splashes into a small pool. From this serene room, a library clerk will lead you into an antechamber, beyond which is a vault containing the Observatory's most rare books. In this vault, one can find an original 1802 first edition of the *New American Practical Navigator*.

One cannot hold this small, delicate, slipcovered book without being impressed by the nearly 200-year unbroken chain of publication that it has enjoyed. It sailed on U.S. merchantmen and Navy ships shortly after the quasi-war with France and during British impressment of merchant seamen that led to the War of 1812. It sailed on U.S. Naval vessels during operations against Mexico in the 1840's, on ships of both the Union and Confederate fleets during the Civil War, and with the U.S. Navy in Cuba in 1898. It went around the world with the Great White Fleet, across the North Atlantic to Europe during both World Wars, to Asia during the Korean and Vietnam Wars, and to the Middle East during Operation Desert Storm. It has circled the globe with countless thousands of merchant ships for 200 years.

As navigational requirements and procedures have changed throughout the years, *Bowditch* has changed with them. Originally devoted almost exclusively to celestial navigation, it now also covers a host of modern topics. It is as practical today as it was when Nathaniel Bowditch, master of the *Putnam*, gathered the crew on deck and taught them the mathematics involved in calculating lunar distances. It is that practicality that has been the publication's greatest strength, and that makes the publication as useful today as it was in the age of sail.

Seafarers have long memories. In no other profession is tradition more closely guarded. Even the oldest and most cynical acknowledge the special bond that connects those who have made their livelihood plying the sea. This bond is not comprised of a single strand; rather, it is a rich and varied tapestry that stretches from the present back to the birth of our nation and its seafaring culture. As this book is a part of that tapestry, it should not be lightly regarded; rather, it should be preserved, as much for its historical importance as for its practical utility.

Since antiquity, mariners have gathered available navigation information and put it into a text for others to follow. One of the first attempts at this involved volumes of

Spanish and Portuguese navigational manuals translated into English between about 1550 to 1750. Writers and translators of the time "borrowed" freely in compiling navigational texts, a practice which continues today with works such as *Sailing Directions and Pilots*.

Colonial and early American navigators depended exclusively on English navigation texts because there were no American editions. The first American navigational text, *Orthodoxal Navigation*, was completed by Benjamin Hubbard in 1656. The first American navigation text published in America was Captain Thomas Truxton's *Remarks, Instructions, and Examples Relating to the Latitude and Longitude; also the Variation of the Compass, Etc., Etc.*, published in 1794.

The most popular navigational text of the late 18th century was John Hamilton Moore's *The New Practical Navigator*. Edmund M. Blunt, a Newburyport publisher, decided to issue a revised copy of this work for American navigators. Blunt convinced Nathaniel Bowditch, a locally famous mariner and mathematician, to revise and update *The New Practical Navigator*. Several other learned men assisted in this revision. Blunt's *The New Practical Navigator* was published in 1799. Blunt also published a second American edition of Moore's book in 1800.

By 1802, when Blunt was ready to publish a third edition, Nathaniel Bowditch and others had corrected so many errors in Moore's work that Blunt decided to issue the work as a first edition of the *New American Practical Navigator*. It is to that 1802 work that the current edition of the *American Practical Navigator* traces its pedigree.

The *New American Practical Navigator* stayed in the Bowditch and Blunt family until the government bought the copyright in 1867. Edmund M. Blunt published the book until 1833; upon his retirement, his sons, Edmund and George, took over publication. The elder Blunt died in 1862; his son Edmund followed in 1866. The next year, 1867, George Blunt sold the copyright to the government for \$25,000. The government has published *Bowditch* ever since. George Blunt died in 1878.

Nathaniel Bowditch continued to correct and revise the book until his death in 1838. Upon his death, the editorial responsibility for the *American Practical Navigator* passed to his son, J. Ingersoll Bowditch. Ingersoll Bowditch continued editing the *Navigator* until George Blunt sold the copyright to the government. He outlived all of the principals involved in publishing and editing the *Navigator*, dying in 1889.

The U.S. government has published some 52 editions since acquiring the copyright to the book that has come to

be known simply by its original author's name, "Bowditch." Since the government began production, the book has been known by its year of publishing, instead of by the edition number. During a revision in 1880 by Commander Phillip H. Cooper, USN, the name was changed to *American Practical Navigator*. Bowditch's original method of taking "lunars" was finally dropped from the book just after the turn of the 20th century. After several more revisions and printings through World Wars I and II, *Bowditch* was extensively revised for the 1958 edition and again in 1995.

Recognizing the limitations of the printed word, and that computers and electronic media permit us to think about the processes of both navigation and publishing in completely new ways, NIMA has, for the 2002 edition, produced the first official Compact Disk-Read Only Memory (CD-ROM) version of this work. This CD contains, in addition to the full text of the printed book, electronic enhancements and additions not possible in book form. Our goal is to put as much useful navigational information before the navigator as possible in the most understandable and readable format. We are only beginning to explore the possibilities of new technology in this area.

As much as it is a part of history, *Bowditch* is not a history book. As in past editions, dated material has been dropped and new methods, technologies and techniques added to keep pace with the rapidly changing world of navigation. The changes to this edition are intended to ensure that it remains the premier reference work for modern, practical marine navigation. This edition replaces but does not cancel former editions, which may be retained and consulted as to historical navigation methods not discussed herein.

PART 1, FUNDAMENTALS, includes an overview of the types and phases of marine navigation and the organizations which develop, support and regulate it. It includes chapters relating to the types, structure, use and limitations of nautical charts; a concise explanation of geodesy and chart datums; and a summary of various necessary navigational publications.

PART 2, PILOTING, emphasizes the practical aspects of navigating a vessel in restricted waters, using both traditional and electronic methods.

PART 3, ELECTRONIC NAVIGATION, explains the nature of radio waves and electronic navigation systems. Chapters deal with each of the several electronic methods of navigation--satellite, Loran C, and radar, with special emphasis on satellite navigation systems and electronic charts.

PART 4, CELESTIAL NAVIGATION, updates the former edition with more modern terminology, and discusses

the use of calculators and computers for the solution of celestial navigation problems.

PART 5, NAVIGATIONAL MATHEMATICS, remains unchanged from the former edition.

PART 6, NAVIGATIONAL SAFETY, discusses recent developments in management of navigational resources, the changing role of the navigator, distress and safety communications, procedures for emergency navigation, and the increasingly complex web of navigation regulations.

PART 7, OCEANOGRAPHY, has been updated to reflect the latest science and terminology.

PART 8, MARINE WEATHER incorporates updated weather routing information and new cloud graphics.

The pronoun "he," used throughout this book as a reference to the navigator, refers to both genders.

The printed version of this volume may be corrected using the Notice to Mariners and Summary of Corrections. Suggestions and comments for changes and additions may be sent to:

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This book could not have been produced without the expertise of dedicated personnel from many government organizations, among them: U.S. Coast Guard, U.S. Naval Academy, U.S. Naval Oceanographic Office, US Navy Fleet Training Center, the U.S. Naval Observatory, Office of the Navigator of the Navy, U.S. Merchant Marine Academy, U.S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, the National Ocean Service, and the National Weather Service. In addition to official government expertise, we must note the contributions of private organizations and individuals far too numerous to mention. Mariners worldwide can be grateful for the experience, dedication, and professionalism of the many people who generously gave their time in this effort. A complete list of contributors can be found in the "Contributor's Corner" of the CD-ROM version of this book.

THE EDITORS

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO MARINE NAVIGATION

DEFINITIONS

100. The Art And Science Of Navigation

Marine navigation blends both science and art. A good navigator constantly thinks strategically, operationally, and tactically. He plans each voyage carefully. As it proceeds, he gathers navigational information from a variety of sources, evaluates this information, and determines his ship's position. He then compares that position with his voyage plan, his operational commitments, and his pre-determined "dead reckoning" position. A good navigator anticipates dangerous situations well before they arise, and always stays "ahead of the vessel." He is ready for navigational emergencies at any time. He is increasingly a manager of a variety of resources--electronic, mechanical, and human. Navigation methods and techniques vary with the type of vessel, the conditions, and the navigator's experience. The navigator uses the methods and techniques best suited to the vessel, its equipment, and conditions at hand.

Some important elements of successful navigation cannot be acquired from any book or instructor. The science of navigation can be taught, but the art of navigation must be developed from experience.

101. Types of Navigation

Methods of navigation have changed throughout history. New methods often enhance the mariner's ability to complete his voyage safely and expeditiously, and make his job easier. One of the most important judgments the navigator must make involves choosing the best methods to use. Each method or type has advantages and disadvantages, while none is effective in all situations. Commonly recognized types of navigation are listed below.

- **Dead reckoning (DR)** determines position by advancing a known position for courses and distances. A position so determined is called a dead reckoning (DR) position. It is generally accepted that only course and speed determine the DR position. Correcting the DR position for leeway, current effects, and steering error result in an **estimated position (EP)**.
- **Piloting** involves navigating in restricted waters

with frequent or constant determination of position relative to nearby geographic and hydrographic features.

- **Celestial navigation** involves reducing celestial measurements taken with a sextant to lines of position using calculators or computer programs, or by hand with almanacs and tables or using spherical trigonometry.
- **Radio navigation** uses radio waves to determine position through a variety of electronic devices.
- **Radar navigation** uses radar to determine the distance from or bearing of objects whose position is known. This process is separate from radar's use in collision avoidance.
- **Satellite navigation** uses radio signals from satellites for determining position.

Electronic systems and integrated bridge concepts are driving navigation system planning. Integrated systems take inputs from various ship sensors, electronically and automatically chart the position, and provide control signals required to maintain a vessel on a preset course. The navigator becomes a system manager, choosing system presets, interpreting system output, and monitoring vessel response.

In practice, a navigator synthesizes different methodologies into a single integrated system. He should never feel comfortable utilizing only one method when others are also available. Each method has advantages and disadvantages. The navigator must choose methods appropriate to each situation, and never rely completely on only one system.

With the advent of automated position fixing and electronic charts, modern navigation is almost completely an electronic process. The mariner is constantly tempted to rely solely on electronic systems. But electronic navigation systems are always subject to failure, and the professional mariner must never forget that the safety of his ship and crew may depend on skills that differ little from those practiced generations ago. Proficiency in conventional piloting and celestial navigation remains essential.

102. Phases of Navigation

Four distinct phases define the navigation process. The mariner should choose the system mix that meets the accuracy requirements of each phase.

- **Inland Waterway Phase:** Piloting in narrow canals, channels, rivers, and estuaries.
- **Harbor/Harbor Approach Phase:** Navigating to a harbor entrance through bays and sounds, and negotiating harbor approach channels.
- **Coastal Phase:** Navigating within 50 miles of the coast or inshore of the 200 meter depth contour.
- **Ocean Phase:** Navigating outside the coastal area in the open sea.

The navigator's position accuracy requirements, his fix interval, and his systems requirements differ in each phase. The following table can be used as a general guide for selecting the proper system(s).

	<i>Inland</i>	<i>Harbor/ Approach</i>	<i>Coastal</i>	<i>Ocean</i>
DR	X	X	X	X
Piloting	X	X	X	
Celestial			X	X
Radio		X	X	X
Radar	X	X	X	
Satellite	X*	X	X	X

Table 102. The relationship of the types and phases of navigation. * With SA off and/or using DGPS

NAVIGATION TERMS AND CONVENTIONS

103. Important Conventions and Concepts

Throughout the history of navigation, numerous terms and conventions have been established which enjoy worldwide recognition. The professional navigator, to gain a full understanding of his field, should understand the origin of certain terms, techniques, and conventions. The following section discusses some of the important ones.

Defining a **prime meridian** is a comparatively recent development. Until the beginning of the 19th century, there was little uniformity among cartographers as to the meridian from which to measure longitude. But it mattered little because there existed no method for determining longitude accurately.

Ptolemy, in the 2nd century AD, measured longitude eastward from a reference meridian 2 degrees west of the Canary Islands. In 1493, Pope Alexander VI established a line in the Atlantic west of the Azores to divide the territories of Spain and Portugal. For many years, cartographers of these two countries used this dividing line as the prime meridian. In 1570 the Dutch cartographer Ortelius used the easternmost of the Cape Verde Islands. John Davis, in his 1594 *The Seaman's Secrets*, used the Isle of Fez in the Canaries because there the variation was zero. Most mariners paid little attention to these conventions and often reckoned their longitude from several different capes and ports during a voyage.

The meridian of London was used as early as 1676, and over the years its popularity grew as England's maritime interests increased. The system of measuring longitude both east and west through 180° may have first appeared in the middle of the 18th century. Toward the end of that century, as the Greenwich Observatory increased in prominence, English cartographers began using the meridian of that

observatory as a reference. The publication by the Observatory of the first British *Nautical Almanac* in 1767 further entrenched Greenwich as the prime meridian. An unsuccessful attempt was made in 1810 to establish Washington, D.C. as the prime meridian for American navigators and cartographers. In 1884, the meridian of Greenwich was officially established as the prime meridian. Today, all maritime nations have designated the Greenwich meridian the prime meridian, except in a few cases where local references are used for certain harbor charts.

Charts are graphic representations of areas of the Earth, in digital or graphic form, for use in marine or air navigation. Nautical charts, whether in digital or paper form, depict features of particular interest to the marine navigator. Charts have probably existed since at least 600 B.C. Stereographic and orthographic projections date from the 2nd century B.C. In 1569 Gerardus Mercator published a chart using the mathematical principle which now bears his name. Some 30 years later, Edward Wright published corrected mathematical tables for this projection, enabling other cartographers to produce charts on the Mercator projection. This projection is still the most widely used.

Sailing Directions or **pilots** have existed since at least the 6th century B.C. Continuous accumulation of navigational data, along with increased exploration and trade, led to increased production of volumes through the Middle Ages. "Routiers" were produced in France about 1500; the English referred to them as "rutters." In 1584 Lucas Waghenaeer published the *Spieghel der Zeevaert* (*The Mariner's Mirror*), which became the model for such publications for several generations of navigators. They were known as "Waggoners" by most sailors.

The **compass** was developed about 1000 years ago. The origin of the magnetic compass is uncertain, but

Norsemen used it in the 11th century, and Chinese navigators used the magnetic compass at least that early and probably much earlier. It was not until the 1870s that Lord Kelvin developed a reliable dry card marine compass. The fluid-filled compass became standard in 1906.

Variation was not understood until the 18th century, when Edmond Halley led an expedition to map lines of variation in the South Atlantic. **Deviation** was understood at least as early as the early 1600s, but adequate correction of compass error was not possible until Matthew Flinders discovered that a vertical iron bar could reduce certain types of errors. After 1840, British Astronomer Royal Sir George Airy and later Lord Kelvin developed combinations of iron masses and small magnets to eliminate most magnetic compass error.

The **gyrocompass** was made necessary by iron and steel ships. Leon Foucault developed the basic gyroscope in 1852. An American (Elmer Sperry) and a German (Anshutz Kampfe) both developed electrical gyrocompasses in the early years of the 20th century. Ring laser gyrocompasses and digital flux gate compasses are gradually replacing traditional gyrocompasses, while the magnetic compass remains an important backup device.

The **log** is the mariner's speedometer. Mariners originally measured speed by observing a chip of wood passing down the side of the vessel. Later developments included a wooden board attached to a reel of line. Mariners measured speed by noting how many knots in the line unreeled as the ship moved a measured amount of time; hence the term **knot**. Mechanical logs using either a small paddle wheel or a rotating spinner arrived about the middle of the 17th century. The taffrail log still in limited use today was developed in 1878. Modern logs use electronic sensors or spinning devices that induce small electric fields proportional to a vessel's speed. An engine revolution counter or shaft log often measures speed aboard large ships. Doppler speed logs are used on some vessels for very accurate speed readings. Inertial and satellite systems also provide highly accurate speed readings.

The Metric Conversion Act of 1975 and the Omnibus Trade and Competitiveness Act of 1988 established the **metric system** of weights and measures in the United States. As a result, the government is converting charts to the metric format. Notwithstanding the conversion to the metric system, the common measure of distance at sea is the **nautical mile**.

The current policy of the National Imagery and Mapping Agency (NIMA) and the National Ocean Service (NOS) is to convert new compilations of nautical, special purpose charts, and publications to the metric system. All digital charts use the metric system. This conversion began on January 2, 1970. Most modern maritime nations have also adopted the meter as the standard measure of depths and heights. However, older charts still on issue and the charts of some foreign countries may not conform to this standard.

The **fathom** as a unit of length or depth is of obscure origin. Posidonius reported a sounding of more than 1,000 fathoms in the 2nd century B.C. How old the unit was then is unknown. Many modern charts are still based on the fathom, as conversion to the metric system continues.

The sailings refer to various methods of mathematically determining course, distance, and position. They have a history almost as old as mathematics itself. Thales, Hipparchus, Napier, Wright, and others contributed the formulas that permit computation of course and distance by plane, traverse, parallel, middle latitude, Mercator, and great circle sailings.

104. The Earth

The Earth is an irregular oblate spheroid (a sphere flattened at the poles). Measurements of its dimensions and the amount of its flattening are subjects of geodesy. However, for most navigational purposes, assuming a spherical Earth introduces insignificant error. The Earth's axis of rotation is the line connecting the north and south geographic poles.

A great circle is the line of intersection of a sphere and a plane through its center. This is the largest circle that can be drawn on a sphere. The shortest line on the surface of a sphere between two points on the surface is part of a great circle. On the spheroidal Earth the shortest line is called a geodesic. A great circle is a near enough approximation to

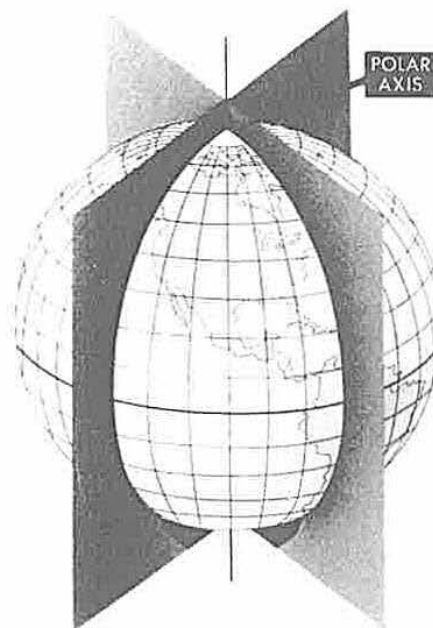


Figure 104a. The planes of the meridians at the polar axis.

a geodesic for most problems of navigation. A small circle is the line of intersection of a sphere and a plane which does not pass through the center. See Figure 104a.

The term **meridian** is usually applied to the **upper branch** of the half-circle from pole to pole which passes through a given point. The opposite half is called the **lower branch**.

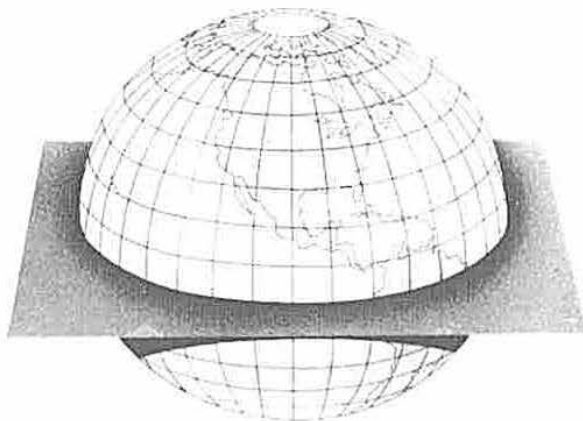


Figure 104b. The equator is a great circle midway between the poles.

A **parallel** or parallel of latitude is a circle on the surface of the Earth parallel to the plane of the equator. It connects all points of equal latitude. The equator is a great circle at latitude 0° . See Figure 104b. The poles are single points at latitude 90° . All other parallels are small circles.

105. Coordinates

Coordinates of latitude and longitude can define any position on Earth. **Latitude (L, lat.)** is the angular distance from the equator, measured northward or southward along a meridian from 0° at the equator to 90° at the poles. It is designated north (N) or south (S) to indicate the direction of measurement.

The **difference of latitude (l, DLat.)** between two places is the angular length of arc of any meridian between their parallels. It is the numerical difference of the latitudes if the places are on the same side of the equator; it is the sum of the latitudes if the places are on opposite sides of the equator. It may be designated north (N) or south (S) when appropriate. The middle or **mid-latitude (Lm)** between two places on the same side of the equator is half the sum of their latitudes. Mid-latitude is labeled N or S to indicate whether it is north or south of the equator.

The expression may refer to the mid-latitude of two places on opposite sides of the equator. In this case, it is

equal to half the difference between the two latitudes and takes the name of the place farthest from the equator.

Longitude (l, long.) is the angular distance between the prime meridian and the meridian of a point on the Earth, measured eastward or westward from the prime meridian through 180° . It is designated east (E) or west (W) to indicate the direction of measurement.

The **difference of longitude (DLo)** between two places is the shorter arc of the parallel or the smaller angle at the pole between the meridians of the two places. If both places are on the same side (east or west) of Greenwich, DLo is the numerical difference of the longitudes of the two places; if on opposite sides, DLo is the numerical sum unless this exceeds 180° , when it is 360° minus the sum.

The distance between two meridians at any parallel of latitude, expressed in distance units, usually nautical miles, is called **departure (p, Dep.)**. It represents distance made good east or west as a craft proceeds from one point to another. Its numerical value between any two meridians decreases with increased latitude, while DLo is numerically the same at any latitude. Either DLo or p may be designated east (E) or west (W) when appropriate.

106. Distance on the Earth

Distance, as used by the navigator, is the length of the **rhumb line** connecting two places. This is a line making the same angle with all meridians. Meridians and parallels which also maintain constant true directions may be considered special cases of the rhumb line. Any other rhumb line spirals toward the pole, forming a **loxodromic curve** or **loxodrome**. See Figure 106. Distance along the great

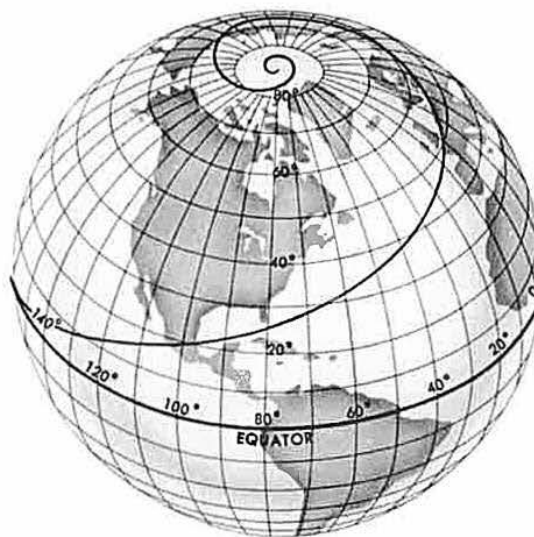


Figure 106. A loxodrome.

circle connecting two points is customarily designated **great-circle distance**. For most purposes, considering the nautical mile the length of one minute of latitude introduces no significant error

Speed (S) is rate of motion, or distance per unit of time. A **knot (kn.)**, the unit of speed commonly used in navigation, is a rate of 1 nautical mile per hour. The expression **speed of advance (SOA)** is used to indicate the speed to be made along the intended track. **Speed over the ground (SOG)** is the actual speed of the vessel over the surface of the Earth at any given time. To calculate **speed made good (SMG)** between two positions, divide the distance between the two positions by the time elapsed between the two positions.

107. Direction on the Earth

Direction is the position of one point relative to another. Navigators express direction as the angular difference in degrees from a reference direction, usually north or the ship's head. **Course (C, Cn)** is the horizontal direction in which a vessel is intended to be steered, expressed as angular distance from north clockwise through 360°. Strictly used, the term applies to direction through the water, not the direction intended to be made good over the ground. The course is often designated as true, magnetic, compass, or grid according to the reference direction.

Track made good (TMG) is the single resultant direction from the point of departure to point of arrival at any given time. **Course of advance (COA)** is the direction intended to be made good over the ground, and **course over ground (COG)** is the direction between a vessel's last fix and an EP. A **course line** is a line drawn on a chart extending in the direction of a course. It is sometimes convenient to express a course as an angle from either north

or south, through 90° or 180°. In this case it is designated course angle (C) and should be properly labeled to indicate the origin (prefix) and direction of measurement (suffix). Thus, C N35°E = Cn 035° (000° + 35°), C N155°W = Cn 205° (360° - 155°), C S47°E = Cn 133° (180° - 47°). But Cn 260° may be either C N100°W or C S80°W, depending upon the conditions of the problem.

Track (TR) is the intended horizontal direction of travel with respect to the Earth. The terms intended track and trackline are used to indicate the path of intended travel. See Figure 107a. The track consists of one or a series of course lines, from the point of departure to the destination, along which one intends to proceed. A great circle which a vessel intends to follow is called a **great-circle track**, though it consists of a series of straight lines approximating a great circle

Heading (Hdg., SH) is the direction in which a vessel is pointed at any given moment, expressed as angular distance from 000° clockwise through 360°. It is easy to confuse heading and course. Heading constantly changes as a vessel yaws back and forth across the course due to sea, wind, and steering error.

Bearing (B, Brg.) is the direction of one terrestrial point from another, expressed as angular distance from 000° (North) clockwise through 360°. When measured through 90° or 180° from either north or south, it is called bearing angle (B). Bearing and azimuth are sometimes used interchangeably, but the latter more accurately refers to the horizontal direction of a point on the celestial sphere from a point on the Earth. A relative bearing is measured relative to the ship's heading from 000° (dead ahead) clockwise through 360°. However, it is sometimes conveniently measured right or left from 000° at the ship's head through 180°. This is particularly true when using the table for Distance of an Object by Two Bearings.

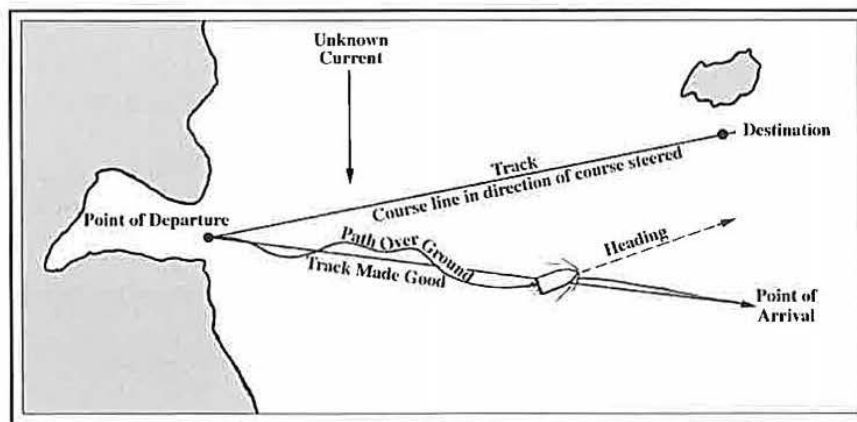


Figure 107a. Course line, track, track made good, and heading.

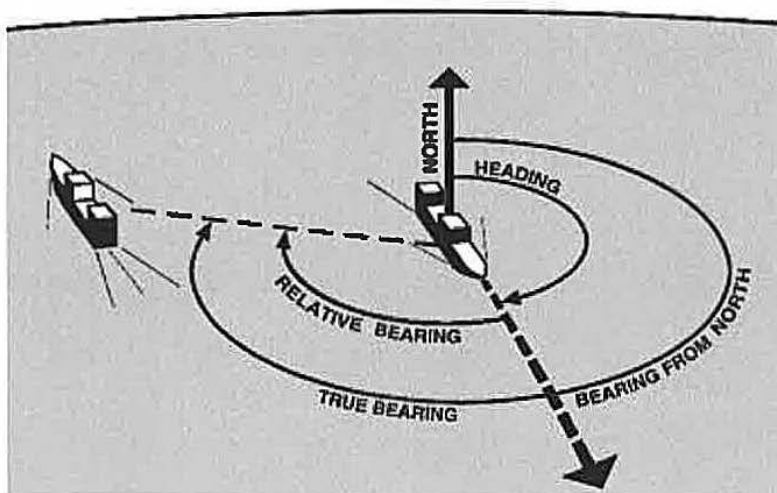


Figure 107b. Relative Bearing

To convert a relative bearing to a true bearing, add the true heading. See Figure 107b

True Bearing = Relative Bearing + True Heading.
Relative Bearing = True Bearing - True Heading.

108. Finding Latitude and Longitude

Navigators have made latitude observations for thousands of years. Accurate declination tables for the Sun have been published for centuries, enabling ancient seamen to compute latitude to within 1 or 2 degrees. Those who today determine their latitude by measuring the Sun at their meridian and the altitude of Polaris are using methods well known to 15th century navigators.

A method of finding longitude eluded mariners for centuries. Several solutions independent of time proved too cumbersome. Finding longitude by magnetic variation was tried, but found too inaccurate. The lunar distance method, which determines GMT by observing the Moon's position among the stars, became popular in the 1800s. However, the mathematics required by most of these processes were far above the abilities of the average seaman. It was apparent that the solution lay in keeping accurate time at sea.

In 1714, the British Board of Longitude was formed, offering a small fortune in reward to anyone who could provide a solution to the problem.

An Englishman, John Harrison, responded to the challenge, developing four chronometers between 1735 and 1760. The most accurate of these timepieces lost only 15 seconds on a 156 day round trip between London and Barbados. The Board, however, paid him only half the promised reward. The King finally intervened on

Harrison's behalf, and at the age of 80 years Harrison received his full reward of £20,000.

Rapid chronometer development led to the problem of determining **chronometer error** aboard ship. **Time balls**, large black spheres mounted in port in prominent locations, were dropped at the stroke of noon, enabling any ship in harbor which could see the ball to determine chronometer error. By the end of the U.S. Civil War, telegraph signals were being used to key time balls. Use of radio signals to send time ticks to ships well offshore began in 1904, and soon worldwide signals were available.

109. The Navigational Triangle

Modern celestial navigators reduce their celestial observations by solving a **navigational triangle** whose points are the elevated pole, the celestial body, and the zenith of the observer. The sides of this triangle are the polar distance of the body (**codeclination**), its zenith distance (**coalatitude**), and the polar distance of the zenith (**colatitude** of the observer).

A spherical triangle was first used at sea in solving **lunar distance** problems. Simultaneous observations were made of the altitudes of the Moon and the Sun or a star near the ecliptic and the angular distance between the Moon and the other body. The zenith of the observer and the two celestial bodies formed the vertices of a triangle whose sides were the two coalitudes and the angular distance between the bodies. Using a mathematical calculation the navigator "cleared" this distance of the effects of refraction and parallax applicable to each altitude. This corrected value was then used as an argument for entering the almanac. The almanac gave the true lunar distance from the Sun and several stars at 3 hour intervals. Previously, the

navigator had set his watch or checked its error and rate with the local mean time determined by celestial observations. The local mean time of the watch, properly corrected, applied to the Greenwich mean time obtained from the lunar distance observation, gave the longitude.

The calculations involved were tedious. Few mariners could solve the triangle until Nathaniel Bowditch published his simplified method in 1802 in *The New American Practical Navigator*.

Reliable chronometers were available by 1800, but their high cost precluded their general use aboard most ships. However, most navigators could determine their longitude using Bowditch's method. This eliminated the need for parallel sailing and the lost time associated with it. Tables for the lunar distance solution were carried in the American nautical almanac into the 20th century.

110. The Time Sight

The theory of the **time sight** had been known to math-

ematicians since the development of spherical trigonometry, but not until the chronometer was developed could it be used by mariners.

The time sight used the modern navigational triangle. The codeclination, or polar distance, of the body could be determined from the almanac. The zenith distance (colatitude) was determined by observation. If the colatitude were known, three sides of the triangle were available. From these the meridian angle was computed. The comparison of this with the Greenwich hour angle from the almanac yielded the longitude.

The time sight was mathematically sound, but the navigator was not always aware that the longitude determined was only as accurate as the latitude, and together they merely formed a point on what is known today as a **line of position**. If the observed body was on the prime vertical, the line of position ran north and south and a small error in latitude generally had little effect on the longitude. But when the body was close to the meridian, a small error in latitude produced a large error in longitude.

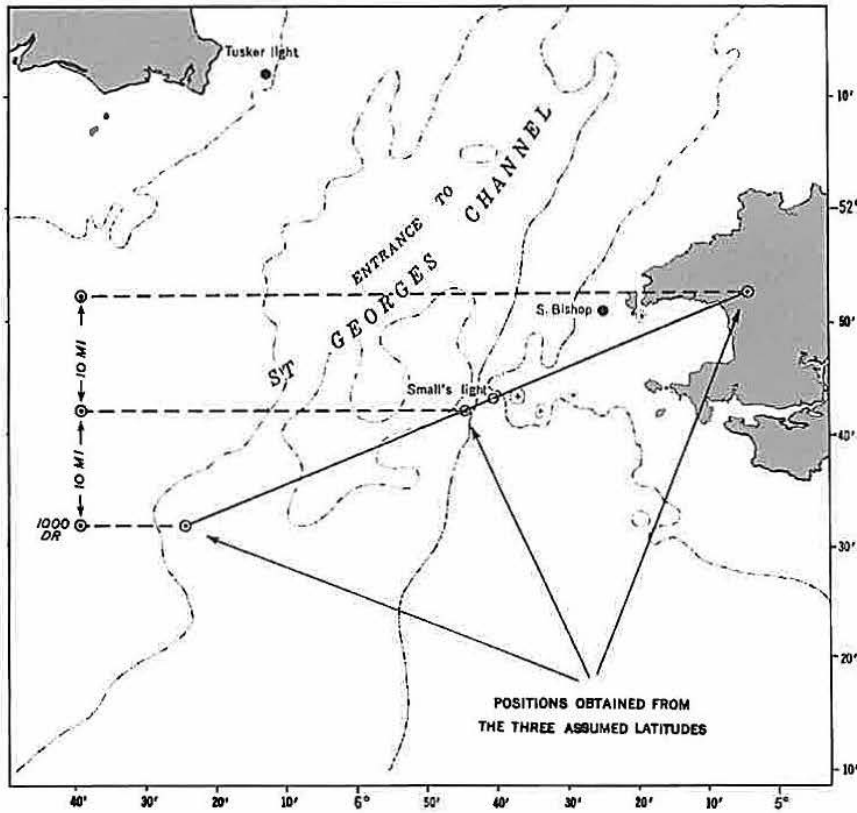


Figure 110. The first celestial line of position, obtained by Captain Thomas Sumner in 1837.

The line of position by celestial observation was unknown until discovered in 1837 by 30-year-old Captain Thomas H. Sumner, a Harvard graduate and son of a United States congressman from Massachusetts. The discovery of the "**Sumner line**," as it is sometimes called, was considered by Maury "the commencement of a new era in practical navigation." This was the turning point in the development of modern celestial navigation technique. In Sumner's own words, the discovery took place in this manner:

Having sailed from Charleston, S. C., 25th November, 1837, bound to Greenock, a series of heavy gales from the Westward promised a quick passage; after passing the Azores, the wind prevailed from the Southward, with thick weather; after passing Longitude 21° W, no observation was had until near the land; but soundings were had not far, as was supposed, from the edge of the Bank. The weather was now more boisterous, and very thick; and the wind still Southerly; arriving about midnight, 17th December, within 40 miles, by dead reckoning, of Tusker light; the wind hauled SE, true, making the Irish coast a lee shore; the ship was then kept close to the wind, and several tacks made to preserve her position as nearly as possible until daylight; when nothing being in sight, she was kept on ENE under short sail, with heavy gales; at about 10 AM an altitude of the Sun was observed, and the Chronometer time noted; but, having run so far without any observation, it was plain the Latitude by dead reckoning was liable to error, and could not be entirely relied on. Using, however, this Latitude, in finding the Longitude by Chronometer, it was found to put the ship 15' of Longitude E from her position by dead reckoning; which in Latitude 52° N is 9 nautical miles; this seemed to agree tolerably well with the dead reckoning; but feeling doubtful of the Latitude, the observation was tried with a Latitude 10' further N, finding this placed the ship ENE 27 nautical miles, of the former position, it was tried again with a Latitude 20' N of the dead reckoning; this also placed the ship still further ENE, and still 27 nautical miles further; these three positions were then seen to lie in the direction of Small's light. It then at once appeared that the observed altitude must have happened at all the three points, and at Small's light, and at the ship, at the same instant of time; and it followed, that Small's light must bear ENE, if the Chronometer was right. Having been convinced of this truth, the ship was kept on her course, ENE, the wind being still SE., and in less than an hour, Small's light was made bearing ENE 1/2 E, and close aboard.

In 1843 Sumner published a book, *A New and Accurate Method of Finding a Ship's Position at Sea by Projection on Mercator's Chart*. He proposed solving a single time sight twice, using latitudes somewhat greater and somewhat less than that arrived at by dead reckoning, and joining the two positions obtained to form the line of position.

The Sumner method required the solution of two time sights to obtain each line of position. Many older navigators preferred not to draw the lines on their charts, but to fix their position mathematically by a method which Sumner had also devised and included in his book. This was a tedious but popular procedure.

111. Navigational Tables

Spherical trigonometry is the basis for solving every navigational triangle, and until about 80 years ago the navigator had no choice but to solve each triangle by tedious, manual computations.

Lord Kelvin, generally considered the father of modern navigational methods, expressed interest in a book of tables with which a navigator could avoid tedious trigonometric solutions. However, solving the many thousands of triangles involved would have made the project too costly. Computers finally provided a practical means of preparing tables. In 1936 the first volume of *Pub. No. 214* was made available; later, *Pub. No. 249* was provided for air navigators. *Pub. No. 229, Sight Reduction Tables for Marine Navigation*, has replaced *Pub. No. 214*.

Electronic calculators are gradually replacing the tables. Scientific calculators with trigonometric functions can easily solve the navigational triangle. Navigational calculators readily solve celestial sights and perform a variety of voyage planning functions. Using a calculator generally gives more accurate lines of position because it eliminates the rounding errors inherent in tabular inspection and interpolation.

112. Development of Electronic Navigation

Perhaps the first application of electronics to navigation involved sending telegraphic time signals in 1865 to check chronometer error. Transmitting radio time signals for chronometer checks dates to 1904. Radio broadcasts providing navigational warnings, begun in 1907 by the U.S. Navy Hydrographic Office, helped increase the safety of navigation at sea.

By the latter part of World War I the directional properties of a loop antenna were successfully used in the radio direction finder. The first radiobeacon was installed in 1921. Early 20th century experiments by Behm and Langevin led to the U.S. Navy's development of the first practical echo sounder in 1922. Radar and hyperbolic systems grew out of WWII.

Today, electronics touches almost every aspect of navigation. Hyperbolic systems, satellite systems, and electronic charts all require an increasingly sophisticated electronics suite and the expertise to manage them. These systems' accuracy and ease of use make them invaluable assets to the navigator, but there is far more to using them than knowing which buttons to push.

113. Development of Radar

As early as 1904, German engineers were experimenting with reflected radio waves. In 1922 two American scientists, Dr. A. Hoyt Taylor and Leo C. Young, testing a communication system at the Naval Aircraft Radio Laboratory, noted fluctuations in the signals when ships passed between stations on opposite sides of the Potomac River. In 1935 the British began work on radar. In 1937 the USS Leary tested the first sea-going radar, and in 1940 United States and British scientists combined their efforts. When the British revealed the principle of the multicavity magnetron developed by J. T. Randall and H. A. H. Boot at the University of Birmingham in 1939, microwave radar became practical. In 1945, at the close of World War II, radar became available for commercial use.

114. Development of Hyperbolic Radio Aids

Various hyperbolic systems were developed beginning in World War II. These were outgrowths of the British GEE system, developed to help bombers navigate to and from their missions over Europe. Loran A was developed as a long-range marine navigation system. This was replaced by the more accurate Loran C system, deployed throughout

much of the world. Various short range and regional hyperbolic systems have been developed by private industry for hydrographic surveying, offshore facilities positioning, and general navigation.

115. Other Electronic Systems

The underlying concept that led to development of satellite navigation dates to 1957 and the first launch of an artificial satellite into orbit. The first system, NAVSAT, has been replaced by the far more accurate and widely available **Global Positioning System (GPS)**, which has revolutionized all aspects of navigation

The first **inertial navigation system** was developed in 1942 for use in the V2 missile by the Peenemunde group under the leadership of Dr. Wernher von Braun. This system used two 2-degree-of-freedom gyroscopes and an integrating accelerometer to determine the missile velocity. By the end of World War II, the Peenemunde group had developed a stable platform with three single-degree-of-freedom gyroscopes and an integrating accelerometer. In 1958 an inertial navigation system was used to navigate the USS *Nautilus* under the ice to the North Pole.

NAVIGATION ORGANIZATIONS

116. Governmental Role

Navigation only a generation ago was an independent process, carried out by the mariner without outside assistance. With compass and charts, sextant and chronometer, he could independently travel anywhere in the world. The increasing use of electronic navigation systems has made the navigator dependent on many factors outside his control. Government organizations fund, operate, and regulate satellites, Loran, and other electronic systems. Governments are increasingly involved in regulation of vessel movements through traffic control systems and regulated areas. Understanding the governmental role in supporting and regulating navigation is vitally important to the mariner. In the United States, there are a number of official organizations which support the interests of navigators. Some have a policy-making role; others build and operate navigation systems. Many maritime nations have similar organizations performing similar functions. International organizations also play a significant role.

117. The Coast and Geodetic Survey

The **U.S. Coast and Geodetic Survey** was founded in 1807 when Congress passed a resolution authorizing a survey of the coast, harbors, outlying islands, and fishing banks of the United States. President Thomas Jefferson appointed Ferdinand Hassler, a Swiss immigrant and

professor of mathematics at West Point, the first Director of the "Survey of the Coast." The survey became the "Coast Survey" in 1836.

The approaches to New York were the first sections of the coast charted, and from there the work spread northward and southward along the eastern seaboard. In 1844 the work was expanded and arrangements made to simultaneously chart the gulf and east coasts. Investigation of tidal conditions began, and in 1855 the first tables of tide predictions were published. The California gold rush necessitated a survey of the west coast, which began in 1850, the year California became a state. *Coast Pilots*, or *Sailing Directions*, for the Atlantic coast of the United States were privately published in the first half of the 19th century. In 1850 the Survey began accumulating data that led to federally produced *Coast Pilots*. The 1889 *Pacific Coast Pilot* was an outstanding contribution to the safety of west coast shipping.

In 1878 the survey was renamed "Coast and Geodetic Survey." In 1970 the survey became the "National Ocean Survey," and in 1983 it became the "National Ocean Service." The Office of Charting and Geodetic Services accomplished all charting and geodetic functions. In 1991 the name was changed back to the original "Coast and Geodetic Survey," organized under the National Ocean Service along with several other environmental offices. Today it provides the mariner with the charts and coast pilots of all waters of the United States and its possessions, and tide and tidal current tables for much of the world. Its

CHAPTER 3

NAUTICAL CHARTS

CHART FUNDAMENTALS

300. Definitions

A **nautical chart** represents part of the spherical earth on a plane surface. It shows water depth, the shoreline of adjacent land, prominent topographic features, aids to navigation, and other navigational information. It is a work area on which the navigator plots courses, ascertains positions, and views the relationship of the ship to the surrounding area. It assists the navigator in avoiding dangers and arriving safely at his destination.

Originally hand-drawn on sheepskin, traditional nautical charts have for generations been printed on paper. **Electronic charts** consisting of a digital data base and a display system are in use and are replacing paper charts aboard many vessels. An electronic chart is not simply a digital version of a paper chart; it introduces a new navigation methodology with capabilities and limitations very different from paper charts. The electronic chart is the legal equivalent of the paper chart if it meets certain International Maritime Organization specifications. See Chapter 14 for a complete discussion of electronic charts.

Should a marine accident occur, the nautical chart in use at the time takes on legal significance. In cases of grounding, collision, and other accidents, charts become critical records for reconstructing the event and assigning liability. Charts used in reconstructing the incident can also have tremendous training value.

301. Projections

Because a cartographer cannot transfer a sphere to a flat surface without distortion, he must project the surface of a sphere onto a **developable surface**. A developable surface is one that can be flattened to form a plane. This process is known as **chart projection**. If points on the surface of the sphere are projected from a single point, the projection is said to be **perspective** or **geometric**.

As the use of electronic charts becomes increasingly widespread, it is important to remember that the same cartographic principles that apply to paper charts apply to their depiction on video screens.

302. Selecting a Projection

Each projection has certain preferable features. However, as the area covered by the chart becomes smaller, the differences between various projections become less noticeable. On the largest scale chart, such as of a harbor, all projections are practically identical. Some desirable properties of a projection are:

1. True shape of physical features
2. Correct angular relationships
3. Equal area (Represents areas in proper proportions)
4. Constant scale values
5. Great circles represented as straight lines
6. Rhumb lines represented as straight lines

Some of these properties are mutually exclusive. For example, a single projection cannot be both conformal and equal area. Similarly, both great circles and rhumb lines cannot be represented on a single projection as straight lines.

303. Types of Projections

The type of developable surface to which the spherical surface is transferred determines the projection's classification. Further classification depends on whether the projection is centered on the equator (equatorial), a pole (polar), or some point or line between (oblique). The name of a projection indicates its type and its principal features.

Mariners most frequently use a **Mercator projection**, classified as a **cylindrical projection** upon a plane, the cylinder tangent along the equator. Similarly, a projection based upon a cylinder tangent along a meridian is called **transverse** (or **inverse**) **Mercator** or **transverse** (or **inverse**) **orthomorphic**. The Mercator is the most common projection used in maritime navigation, primarily because rhumb lines plot as straight lines.

In a **simple conic projection**, points on the surface of the earth are transferred to a tangent cone. In the **Lambert conformal projection**, the cone intersects the earth (a secant cone) at two small circles. In a **polyconic projection**, a series of tangent cones is used.

In an **azimuthal** or **zenithal projection**, points on the earth are transferred directly to a plane. If the origin of the

CHAPTER 8

PILOTING

DEFINITION AND PURPOSE

800. Introduction

Piloting involves navigating a vessel in restricted waters and fixing its position as precisely as possible at frequent intervals. More so than in other phases of navigation, proper preparation and attention to detail are important. This chapter will discuss a piloting methodology designed to ensure that procedures are carried out safely and efficiently. These procedures will vary from vessel to vessel according to the skills and composition of the piloting team. It is the responsibility of the navigator to choose the procedures applicable to his own situation, to train the piloting team in their execution, and to ensure that duties are carried out properly.

These procedures are written primarily from the perspective of the military navigator, with some notes included where civilian procedures might differ. This set of procedures is designed to minimize the chance of error and maximize safety of the ship.

The military navigation team will nearly always consist of several more people than are available to the civilian navigator. Therefore, the civilian navigator must streamline these procedures, eliminating certain steps, doing only what is essential to keep his ship in safe water.

The navigation of civilian vessels will therefore proceed differently than for military vessels. For example, while the military navigator might have bearing takers stationed at the gyro repeaters on the bridge wings for taking simultaneous

bearings, the civilian navigator must often take and plot them himself. While the military navigator will have a bearing book and someone to record entries for each fix, the civilian navigator will simply plot the bearings on the chart as they are taken and not record them at all.

If the ship is equipped with an ECDIS, it is reasonable for the navigator to simply monitor the progress of the ship along the chosen track, visually ensuring that the ship is proceeding as desired, checking the compass, sounder and other indicators only occasionally. If a pilot is aboard, as is often the case in the most restricted of waters, his judgement can generally be relied upon explicitly, further easing the workload. But should the ECDIS fail, the navigator will have to rely on his skill in the manual and time-tested procedures discussed in this chapter.

While an ECDIS is the legal equivalent of a paper chart and can be used as the primary plot, an ECS, (non-ECDIS compliant electronic chart system) cannot be so used. An ECS may be considered as an additional resource used to ensure safe navigation, but cannot be relied upon for performing all the routine tasks associated with piloting. The individual navigator, with knowledge of his vessel, his crew, and the capabilities they possess, must make a professional judgement as to how the ECS can support his efforts to keep his ship in safe water. The navigator should always remember that reliance on any single navigation system courts disaster. An ECS does not relieve the navigator of maintaining a proper and legal plot on a paper chart.

PREPARATION

801. Plot Setup

The navigator's job begins well before getting underway. Much advance preparation is necessary to ensure a safe and efficient voyage. The following steps are representative:

Ensure the plotting station(s) have the following instruments:

- **Dividers:** Dividers are used to measure distances between points on the chart.
- **Compasses:** Compasses are used to plot range arcs for radar LOP's. **Beam compasses** are used when the range arc exceeds the spread of a conventional

compass. Both should be available at both plots.

- **Plotters:** Several types of plotters are available. The preferred device for large vessels is the parallel motion plotter (PMP) used in conjunction with a drafting table. Otherwise, use a transparent protractor plotter, or triangles, parallel rulers or rolling rulers in conjunction with the chart's compass rose. Finally, the plotter can use a one arm protractor. The plotter should use the device with which he can work the most quickly and accurately.
- **Sharpened Pencils and Erasers:** Ensure an adequate supply of pencils is available.

- **Fischer Radar Plotting Templates:** Fischer plotting is covered in Chapter 13. The plotting templates for this technique should be stacked near the radar repeater.
- **Time-Speed-Distance Calculator:** Given two of the three unknowns (between time, speed, and distance), this calculator allows for rapid computation of the third.
- **Tide and Current Graphs:** Post the tide and current graphs near the primary plot for easy reference during the transit. Give a copy of the graphs to the conning officer and the captain.

Once the navigator verifies the above equipment is in place, he tapes down the charts on the chart table. If more than one chart is required for the transit, tape the charts in a stack such that the plotter works from the top to the bottom of the stack. This minimizes the time required to shift the chart during the transit. If the plotter is using a PMP, align the arm of the PMP with any meridian of longitude on the chart. While holding the PMP arm stationary, adjust the PMP to read 000.0°T. This procedure calibrates the PMP to the chart in use. Perform this alignment every time the piloting team shifts charts.

Be careful not to fold under any important information when folding the chart on the chart table. Ensure the chart's distance scale, the entire track, and all important warning information are visible.

Energize and test all electronic navigation equipment, if not already in operation. This includes the radar and the GPS receiver. Energize and test the fathometer. Ensure the entire electronic navigation suite is operating properly prior to entering restricted waters.

802. Preparing Charts and Publications

- **Assemble Required Publications.** These publications should include *Coast Pilots*, *Sailing Directions*, *USCG Light Lists*, *NIMA Lists of Lights*, *Tide Tables*, *Tidal Current Tables*, *Notice to Mariners*, and *Local Notice to Mariners*. Often, for military vessels, a port will be under the operational direction of a particular squadron; obtain that squadron's port Operation Order. Civilian vessels should obtain the port's harbor regulations. These publications will cover local regulations such as speed limits and bridge-to-bridge radio frequency monitoring requirements. Assemble and review the Broadcast Notice to Mariners file.
- **Select and Correct Charts.** Choose the largest scale chart available for the harbor approach or departure. Often, the harbor approach will be too long to be represented on only one chart. For example, three charts are required to cover the waters from the Naval Station in Norfolk to the entrance of the Chesapeake

Bay. Therefore, obtain all the charts required to cover the entire passage. Using the *Notice to Mariners*, verify that these charts have been corrected through the latest *Notice to Mariners*. Check the *Local Notice to Mariners* and the Broadcast Notice to Mariners file to ensure the chart is fully corrected. Annotate on the chart or a chart correction card all the corrections that have been made; this will make it easier to verify the chart's correction status prior to its next use. Naval ships may need to prepare three sets of charts. One set is for the primary plot, the second set is for the secondary plot, and the third set is for the conning officer and captain. Civilian vessels will prepare one set.

- **Mark the Minimum Depth Contour:** Determine the minimum depth of water in which the vessel can safely operate and outline that depth contour on the chart. Do this step before doing any other harbor navigation planning. Highlight this outline in a bright color so that it clearly stands out. Carefully examine the area inside the contour and mark the isolated shoals less than the minimum depth which fall inside the marked contour. Determine the minimum depth in which the vessel can operate as follows:

$$\text{Minimum Depth} = \text{Ship's Draft} - \text{Height of Tide} + \text{Safety Margin} + \text{Squat. (See Article 804 and Article 818.)}$$

Remember that often the fathometer's transducer is not located at the section of the hull that extends the furthest below the waterline. Therefore, the indicated depth of water is that below the fathometer transducer, not the depth of water below the vessel's deepest draft.

- **Highlight Selected Visual Navigation Aids (NAVAIDS).** Circle, highlight and label the main navigational aids on the chart. Consult the applicable *Coast Pilot* or *Sailing Directions* to determine a port's best NAVAIDS if the piloting team has not visited the port previously. These aids can be lighthouses, piers, shore features, or tanks; any prominent feature that is displayed on the chart can be used as a NAVAID. Label critical buoys, such as those marking a harbor entrance or a traffic separation scheme. Verify charted lights against the *Light List* or the *List of Lights* to confirm the charted information is correct. This becomes most critical when attempting to identify a light at night. Label NAVAIDS succinctly and clearly. Ensure everyone in the navigation team refers to a NAVAID using the same terminology. This will reduce confusion between the bearing taker, the bearing recorder, and plotter.
- **Highlight Selected Radar NAVAIDS.** Highlight radar NAVAIDS with a triangle instead of a circle. If

the NAVAID is suitable for either visual or radar piloting, it can be highlighted with either a circle or a triangle.

- Plot the Departure/Approach Track.** This process is critical for ensuring safe pilotage. Consult the *Fleet Guide* and *Sailing Directions* for recommendations on the best track to use. Look for any information or regulations published by the local harbor authority. Lacking any of this information, locate a channel or safe route on the chart and plot the vessel's track. Most U.S. ports have well-defined channels marked with buoys. Carefully check the intended track to ensure a sufficient depth of water under the keel will exist for the entire passage. If the scale of the chart permits, lay the track out to the starboard side of the channel to allow for any vessel traffic proceeding in the opposite direction. Many channels are marked by natural or man-made ranges. The bearings of these ranges should be measured to the nearest 0.1° or noted from the *Light List*, and this value should be marked on the chart. Not only are ranges useful in keeping a vessel on track, they are invaluable for determining gyro error. See Article 807.
- Label the Departure/Approach Track.** Label the track course to the nearest 0.5° . Similarly, label the distance of each track leg. Highlight the track courses for easy reference while piloting. Often a navigator might plan two separate tracks. One track would be for use during good visibility and the other for poor visibility. Considerations might include concern for the number of turns (fewer turns for poor visibility) or proximity to shoal water (smaller margin for error might be acceptable in good visibility). In this case, label both tracks as above and appropriately mark when to use each track.
- Use Advance and Transfer to Find Turning Points.** The distance the vessel moves along its original course from the time the rudder is put over until the new course is reached is called **advance**. The distance the vessel moves perpendicular to the original course during the turn is called **transfer**. The track determined above does not account for these. See Figure 802a. Use the advance and transfer characteristics of the vessel to determine when the vessel must put its rudder over to gain the next course. From that point, fair in a curve between the original course and the new course. Mark the point on the original course where the vessel must put its rudder over as the **turning point**. See Figure 802b.
- Plot Turn Bearings and Ranges.** A **turn bearing** is a predetermined bearing to a charted object from the track point at which the rudder must be put over in order to make a desired turn. In selecting a NAVAID

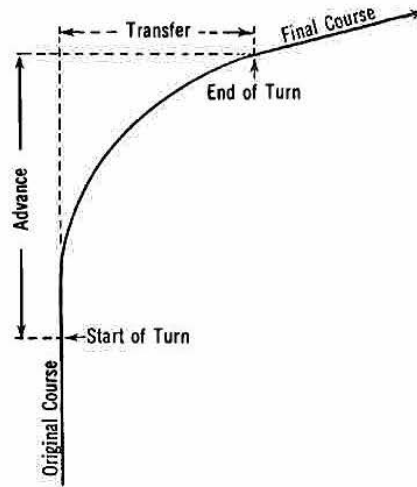


Figure 802a. Advance and transfer.

for a turn bearing, find one as close to abeam as possible at the turning point, and if possible on the inside elbow of the turn. Account for advance and transfer and label the bearing to the nearest 0.1° . A **turn range** is similar, but taken as a radar range to a prominent object ahead or astern. Ideally, both can be used, one as a check against the other.

Example: Figure 802b illustrates using advance and transfer to determine a turn bearing. A ship proceeding on course 100° is to turn 60° to the left to come on a range which will guide it up a channel. For a 60° turn and the amount of rudder used, the advance is 920 yards and the transfer is 350 yards.

Required: The bearing of flagpole "FP." when the rudder is put over.

Solution:

1. Extend the original course line, AB.
2. At a perpendicular distance of 350 yards, the transfer, draw a line A'B' parallel to the original course line AB. The point of intersection, C, of A'B' with the new course line is the place at which the turn is to be completed.
3. From C draw a perpendicular, CD, to the original course line, intersecting at D.
4. From D measure the advance, 920 yards, back along the original course line. This locates E, the point at which the turn should be started.
5. The direction of "FP." from E, 058° , is the bearing when the turn should be started.

Answer: Bearing 058° .

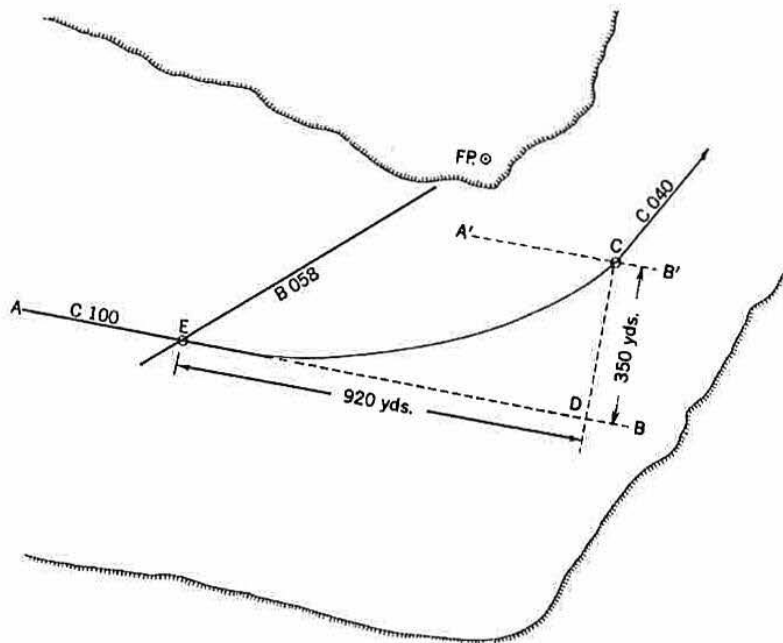


Figure 802b. Allowing for advance and transfer.

- Plot a Slide Bar for Every Turn Bearing:** If the ship is off track immediately prior to a turn, a plotting technique known as the **slide bar** can quickly revise a turn bearing. See Figure 802c. A slide bar is a line drawn parallel to the new course through the turning point on the original course. The navigator can quickly determine a new turn bearing by dead reckoning ahead from the vessel's last fix position to where the DR intersects the slide bar. The revised turn bearing is simply the bearing from that intersection point to the turn bearing NAVAID. Draw the slide bar with a different color from that used for the track in order to see the slide bar clearly.
- Label Distance to Go from Each Turn Point:** At each turning point, label the distance to go until either the ship moors (inbound) or the ship clears the harbor (outbound). For an inbound transit, a vessel's captain is usually more concerned about time of arrival, so assume a speed of advance and label each turn point with time to go until mooring.
- Plot Danger Bearings:** Danger bearings warn a navigator he may be approaching a navigational hazard too closely. See Figure 802d. Vector AB indicates a vessel's intended track. This track passes close to the indicated shoal. Draw a line from the NAVAID H tangent to the shoal. The bearing of that tangent line measured from the ship's track is $074.0^{\circ}T$. In other words, as long as NAVAID H bears *less than* $074^{\circ}T$ as the vessel proceeds down its track, the vessel will not ground on the shoal. Hatch the side of the bearing line on the side of the hazard and label the danger bearing NMT (no more than) $074.0^{\circ}T$. For an added margin of safety, the line does not have to be drawn exactly tangent to the shoal. Perhaps, in this case, the navigator might want to set an error margin and draw the danger bearing at $065^{\circ}T$ from NAVAID H. Lay down a danger bearing from any appropriate NAVAID in the vicinity of any hazard to navigation. Ensure the track does not cross any danger bearing.
- Plot Danger Ranges:** The danger range is analogous to the danger bearing. It is a standoff range from an object to prevent the vessel from approaching a hazard too closely.
- Label Warning and Danger Soundings:** To determine the danger sounding, examine the vessel's proposed track and note the minimum expected sounding. The minimum expected sounding is the difference between the shallowest water expected on the transit and the vessel's maximum draft. Set 90% of this difference as the warning sounding and 80% of this difference as the danger sounding. There may be peculiarities about local conditions that will cause the navigator to choose another method of setting warning and danger soundings. Use the above method if no

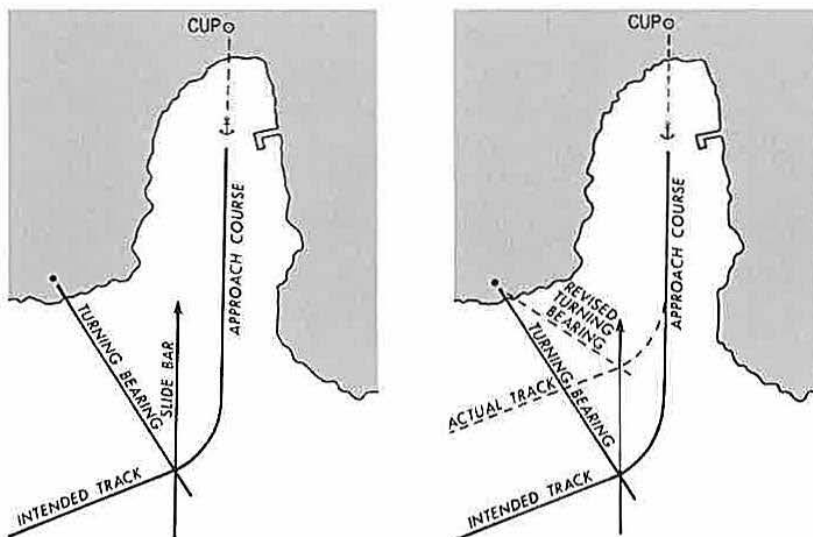


Figure 802c. The slide bar technique.

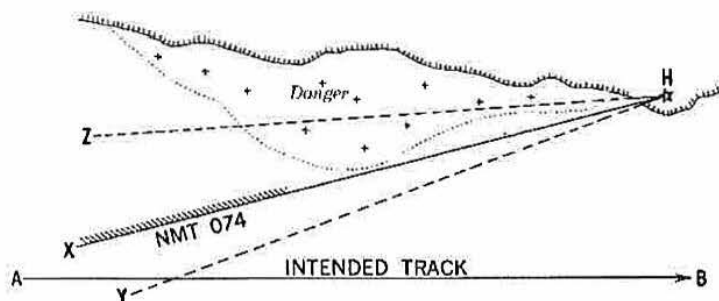


Figure 802d. A danger bearing, hatched on the dangerous side, labeled with the appropriate bearing.

other means is more suitable. For example: A vessel draws a maximum of 20 feet, and it is entering a channel dredged to a minimum depth of 50 feet. Set the warning and danger soundings at $0.9 (50\text{ft.} - 20\text{ft.}) = 27\text{ft}$ and $0.8 (50\text{ft.} - 20\text{ft.}) = 24\text{ft.}$, respectively. Re-evaluate these soundings at different intervals along the track, when the minimum expected sounding may change. Carefully label the points along the track between which these warning and danger soundings apply.

- Label Demarcation Line:** Clearly label the point on the ship's track where the Inland and International Rules of the Road apply. This is applicable only when piloting in U.S. ports.

- Mark Speed Limits Where Applicable:** Often a harbor will have a local speed limit in the vicinity of piers, other vessels, or shore facilities. Mark these speed limits and the points between which they are applicable on the chart.
- Mark the Point of Pilot Embarkation:** Some ports require vessels over a certain size to embark a pilot. If this is the case, mark the point on the chart where the pilot is to embark.
- Mark the Tugboat Rendezvous Point:** If the vessel requires a tug to moor, mark the tug rendezvous point on the chart.
- Mark the Chart Shift Point:** If more than one chart

will be required to complete the passage, mark the point where the navigator should shift to the next chart.

- **Harbor Communications:** Mark the point on the chart where the vessel must contact harbor control. Also mark the point where a vessel must contact its parent squadron to make an arrival report (military vessels only).
- **Tides and Currents:** Mark the points on the chart for which the tides and currents were calculated.

803. Records

Ensure the following records are assembled and personnel assigned to maintain them:

- **Bearing Record Book:** The bearing recorders for the primary and secondary plots should record all the bearings used on their plot during the entire transit. The books should clearly list what NAVAIDS are being used and what method of navigation was being used on their plot. In practice, the primary bearing book will contain mostly visual bearings and the secondary bearing book will contain mostly radar ranges and bearings.
- **Fathometer Log:** In restricted waters, monitor soundings continuously and record soundings every five minutes in the fathometer log. Record all fathometer settings that could affect the sounding display.
- **Deck Log:** This log is the legal record of the passage. Record all ordered course and speed changes. Record all the navigator's recommendations and whether the navigator concurs with the actions of the conning officer. Record all buoys passed, and the shift between different Rules of the Road. Record the name and embarkation of any pilot. Record who has the conn at all times. Record any casualty or important event. The deck log combined with the bearing log should constitute a complete record of the passage.

804. Tides and Currents

Determining the tidal and current conditions of the port is crucial. This process is covered in depth in Chapter 9. In order to anticipate early or late transit, plot a graph of the tidal range for the 24-hour period centered on the scheduled time of arrival or departure. Depending on a vessel's draft and the harbor's depth, some vessels may be able to transit only at high tide. If this is the case, it is critically important to determine the time and range of the tide correctly.

The magnitude and direction of the current will give the navigator some idea of the **set and drift** the vessel will experience during the transit. This will allow him to plan in

advance for any potential current effects in the vicinity of navigational hazards.

While printed tide tables can be used for predicting and plotting tides, it is far more efficient to use a computer with appropriate software, or the internet, to compute tides and print out the graphs. These graphs can be posted on the bridge at the chart table for ready reference, and copies made for others involved in the piloting process. NOAA tide tables for the U.S. are available at the following site: <http://co-ops.nos.noaa.gov/tp4days.html>. Always remember that tide tables give predicted data, but that actual conditions may be quite different due to weather or other natural phenomena.

805. Weather

The navigator should obtain a weather report covering the route which he intends to transit. This will allow him to prepare for any adverse weather by stationing extra lookouts, adjusting speed for poor visibility, and preparing for radar navigation. If the weather is thick, consider standing off the harbor until it clears.

The navigator can receive weather information any number of ways. Military vessels may receive weather reports from their parent squadrons prior to coming into port. Marine band radio carries continuous weather reports. Many vessels are equipped with weather facsimile machines. Some navigators carry cellular phones to reach shoreside personnel and harbor control; these can also be used to get weather reports from NOAA weather stations. If the ship is using a weather routing service for the voyage, it should provide forecasts when asked. Finally, if the vessel has an internet connection, this is an ideal source of weather data. NOAA weather data can be obtained at: <http://www.nws.noaa.gov>. However he obtains the information, the navigator should have a good idea of the weather before entering piloting waters.

806. The Piloting Brief

Assemble the entire navigation team for a piloting brief prior to entering or leaving port. The vessel's captain and navigator should conduct the briefing. All navigation and bridge personnel should attend. The pilot, if he is already on board, should also attend. If the pilot is not onboard when the ship's company is briefed, the navigator should immediately brief him when he embarks. The pilot must know the ship's maneuvering characteristics before entering restricted waters. The briefing should cover, as a minimum, the following:

- **Detailed Coverage of the Track Plan:** Go over the planned route in detail. Use the prepared and approved chart as part of this brief. Concentrate especially on all the NAVAIDS and soundings which are being used to indicate danger. Cover the buoyage system in use and

the port's major NAVAIDS. Point out the radar NAVAIDS for the radar operator. Often, a *Fleet Guide* or *Sailing Directions* will have pictures of a port's NAVAIDS. This is especially important for the piloting party that has never transited a particular port before. If no pictures are available, consider stationing a photographer to take some for submission to NIMA.

- **Harbor Communications:** Discuss the bridge-to-bridge radio frequencies used to raise harbor control. Discuss what channel the vessel is supposed to monitor on its passage into port and the port's communication protocol.
- **Duties and Responsibilities:** Each member of the piloting team must have a thorough understanding of his duties and responsibilities. He must also understand how his part fits into the whole. The radar plotter, for example, must know if radar will be the primary or secondary source of fix information. The bearing recorder must know what fix interval the navigator is planning to use. Each person must be thoroughly briefed on his job; there is little time for questions once the vessel enters the channel.

807. Evolutions Prior to Piloting

The navigator should always accomplish the following evolutions prior to piloting:

- **Testing the Shaft on the Main Engines in the Astern Direction:** This ensures that the ship can answer a backing bell. If the ship is entering port, no special precautions are required prior to this test. If the ship is tied up at the pier preparing to get underway, exercise extreme caution to ensure no way is placed on the ship while testing the main engines.
- **Making the Anchor Ready for Letting Go:** Make the anchor ready for letting go and station a watchstander in direct communications with the bridge at the anchor windlass. Be prepared to drop anchor immediately when piloting if required to keep from drifting too close to a navigational hazard.
- **Calculate Gyro Error:** An error of greater than 1.0° T indicates a gyro problem which should be investigated prior to piloting. There are several ways to determine gyro error:
 1. Compare the gyro reading with a known accurate heading reference such as an inertial navigator. The difference in the readings is the gyro error.
 2. Mark the bearing of a charted range as the range

NAVAID's come into line and compare the gyro bearing with the charted bearing. The difference is the gyro error.

3. Prior to getting underway, plot a dockside fix using at least three lines of position. The three LOP's should intersect at a point. Their intersecting in a "cocked hat" indicates a gyro error. Incrementally adjust each visual bearing by the same amount and direction until the fix plots as a pinpoint. The total correction required to eliminate the cocked hat is the gyro error.
4. Measure a celestial body's azimuth or amplitude, or Polaris' azimuth with the gyro, and then compare the measured value with a value computed from the *Sight Reduction Tables* or the *Nautical Almanac*. These methods are covered in detail in Chapter 17.

Report the magnitude and direction of the gyro error to the navigator and captain. The direction of the error is determined by the relative magnitude of the gyro reading and the value against which it is compared. When the compass is least, the error is east. Conversely, when the compass is best, the error is west. See Chapter 6.

808. Inbound Voyage Planning

The vessel's planned estimated time of arrival (ETA) at its mooring determines the vessel's course and speed to the harbor entrance. Arriving at the mooring site on time may be important in a busy port which operates its port services on a tight schedule. Therefore, it is important to plan the arrival accurately. Take the desired time of arrival at the mooring and subtract from that the time it will take to navigate to it from the entrance. The resulting time is when you must arrive at the harbor entrance. Next, measure the distance between the vessel's present location and the harbor entrance. Determine the speed of advance (SOA) the vessel will use to make the transit to the harbor. Use the distance to the harbor and the SOA to calculate what time to leave the present position to make the mooring ETA, or what speed must be made good to arrive on time.

Consider these factors which might affect this decision:

- **Weather:** This is the single most important factor in harbor approach planning because it directly affects the vessel's SOA. The thicker the weather, the more slowly the vessel must proceed. Therefore, if heavy fog or rain is in the forecast, the navigator must allow more time for the transit.
- **Mooring Procedures:** The navigator must take more than distance into account when calculating how long it will take him to pilot to his mooring. If the vessel needs a

CHAPTER 12

LORAN NAVIGATION

INTRODUCTION TO LORAN

1200. History and Role of Loran

The theory behind the operation of hyperbolic navigation systems was known in the late 1930's, but it took the urgency of World War II to speed development of the system into practical use. By early 1942, the British had an operating hyperbolic system in use designed to aid in long-range bomber navigation. This system, named Gee, operated on frequencies between 30 MHz and 80 MHz and employed "master" and "slave" transmitters spaced approximately 100 miles apart. The Americans were not far behind the British in development of their own system. By 1943, the U. S. Coast Guard was operating a chain of hyperbolic navigation transmitters that became Loran A (The term Loran was originally an acronym for LOnG RANge Navigation). By the end of the war, the network consisted of over 70 transmitters providing coverage over approximately 30% of the earth's surface.

In the late 1940's and early 1950's, experiments in low frequency Loran produced a longer range, more accurate system. Using the 90-110 kHz band, Loran developed into a 24-hour-a-day, all-weather radionavigation system named Loran C. From the late 1950's, Loran A and Loran C systems were operated in parallel until the mid 1970's when the U.S. Government began phasing out Loran A. The United States continued to operate Loran C in a number of areas around the world, including Europe, Asia, the Med-

iterranean Sea, and parts of the Pacific Ocean until the mid 1990's when it began closing its overseas Loran C stations or transferring them to the governments of the host countries. This was a result of the U.S. Department of Defense adopting the Global Positioning System (GPS) as its primary radionavigation service. In the United States, Loran serves the 48 contiguous states, their coastal areas and parts of Alaska. It provides navigation, location, and timing services for both civil and military air, land, and marine users. Loran systems are also operated in Canada, China, India, Japan, Northwest Europe, Russia, Saudi Arabia, and South Korea.

The future role of Loran depends on the radionavigation policies of the countries and international organizations that operate the individual chains. In the United States, the Federal Government plans to continue operating Loran in the short term while it evaluates the long-term need for the system. The U.S. Government will give users reasonable notice if it concludes that Loran is no longer needed or is not cost effective, so that users will have the opportunity to transition to alternative navigation aids and timing services.

Current information on the U.S. Loran system, including Notices to Mariners, may be obtained at the U.S. Coast Guard Navigation Center World Wide Web site at <http://www.navcen.uscg.gov/>.

LORAN C DESCRIPTION

1201. Summary of Operation

The Loran C (hereafter referred to simply as Loran) system consists of **transmitting stations**, which are placed several hundred miles apart and organized into **chains**. Within a Loran chain, one station is designated as the **master station** and the others as **secondary stations**. Every Loran chain contains at least one master station and two secondary stations in order to provide two lines of position.

The master and secondary stations transmit radio pulses at precise time intervals. A Loran receiver measures the **time difference (TD)** between when the vessel receives the master signal and when it receives each of the secondary signals. When this elapsed time is converted to distance, the locus of points having the same TD between the master and

each secondary forms the hyperbolic LOP. The intersection of two or more of these LOP's produces a fix of the vessel's position.

There are two methods by which the navigator can convert this information into a geographic position. The first involves the use of a chart overprinted with a Loran **time delay lattice** consisting of hyperbolic TD lines spaced at convenient intervals. The navigator plots the displayed TD's by interpolating between the lattice lines printed on the chart, manually plots the fix where they intersect and then determines latitude and longitude. In the second method, computer algorithms in the receiver's software convert the TD's to latitude and longitude for display.

As with other computerized navigation receivers, a typical Loran receiver can accept and store **waypoints**.

Waypoints are sets of coordinates that describe either locations of navigational interest or points along a planned route. Waypoints may be entered by visiting the spot of interest and pressing the appropriate receiver control key, or by keying in the waypoint coordinates manually, either as a TD or latitude-longitude pair. If using waypoints to mark a planned route, the navigator can use the receiver to monitor the vessel's progress in relation to the track between each waypoint. By continuously providing parameters such as cross-track error, course over ground, speed over ground, and bearing and distance to next waypoint, the receiver continually serves as a check on the primary navigation plot.

1202. Components of the Loran System

For the marine navigator, the components of the Loran system consist of the land-based transmitting stations, the Loran receiver and antenna, the Loran charts. In addition to the master and secondary transmitting stations themselves, land-based Loran facilities also include the primary and secondary system area monitor sites, the control station and a precise time reference. The transmitters emit Loran signals at precisely timed intervals. The monitor sites and control stations continually measure and analyze the characteristics of the Loran signals received to detect any anomalies or out-of-specification conditions. Some transmitters serve only one function within a chain (i.e., either master or secondary). However, in many instances, one transmitter transmits signals for each of two adjacent chains. This practice is termed **dual rating**.

Loran receivers exhibit varying degrees of sophistication, but their signal processing is similar. The first processing stage consists of **search and acquisition**, during which the receiver searches for the signal from a particular Loran chain and establishes the approximate time reference of the master and secondaries with sufficient accuracy to permit subsequent settling and tracking.

After search and acquisition, the receiver enters the **settle** phase. In this phase, the receiver searches for and detects the front edge of the Loran pulse. After detecting the front edge of the pulse, it selects the correct cycle of the pulse to track.

Having selected the correct tracking cycle, the receiver begins the **tracking and lock** phase, in which the receiver maintains synchronization with the selected received signals. Once this phase is reached, the receiver displays either the time difference of the signals or the computed latitude and longitude.

1203. The Loran Signal

The Loran signal consists of a series of 100 kHz pulses sent first by the master station and then, in turn, by the secondary stations. Both the shape of the individual pulse and the pattern of the entire pulse sequence are shown in Figure 1203a. As compared to a carrier signal of constant amplitude, pulsed transmission allows the same signal range to be

achieved with a lower average output power. Pulsed transmission also yields better signal identification properties and more precise timing of the signals.

The individual sinusoidal Loran pulse exhibits a steep rise to its maximum amplitude within 65 μsec of emission and an exponential decay to zero within 200 to 300 μsec . The signal frequency is nominally defined as 100 kHz; in actuality, the signal is designed such that 99% of the radiated power is contained in a 20 kHz band centered on 100 kHz.

The Loran receiver is programmed to track the signal on the cycle corresponding to the carrier frequency's third positive crossing of the x-axis. This occurrence, termed the **standard zero crossing**, is chosen for two reasons. First, it is late enough for the pulse to have built up sufficient signal strength for the receiver to detect it. Second, it is early enough in the pulse to ensure that the receiver is detecting the transmitting station's ground wave pulse and not its sky wave pulse. Sky wave pulses are affected by atmospheric refraction and if used unknowingly, would introduce large errors into positions determined by a Loran receiver. The pulse architecture described here reduces this major source of error.

Another important parameter of the pulse is the **envelope-to-cycle difference (ECD)**. This parameter indicates how propagation of the signal causes the pulse shape envelope (i.e., the imaginary line connecting the peak of each sinusoidal cycle) to shift in time relative to the zero crossings. The ECD is important because receivers use the precisely shaped pulse envelope to identify the correct zero crossing. Transmitting stations are required to keep the ECD within defined limits. Many receivers display the received ECD as well.

Next, individual pulses are combined into sequences. For the master signal, a series of nine pulses is transmitted, the first eight spaced 1000 μsec apart followed by a ninth transmitted 2000 μsec after the eighth. Secondary stations transmit a series of eight pulses, each spaced 1000 μsec apart. Secondary stations are given letter designations of U, W, X, Y, and Z; this letter designation indicates the order in which they transmit following the master. If a chain has two secondaries, they will be designated Y and Z. If a chain has three secondaries, they are X, Y and Z, and so on. Some exceptions to this general naming pattern exist (e.g., W, X and Y for some 3-secondary chains).

The spacing between the master signal and each of the secondary signals is governed by several parameters as illustrated in Figure 1203b. The general idea is that each of the signals must clear the entire chain coverage area before the next one is transmitted, so that no signal can be received out of order. The time required for the master signal to travel to the secondary station is defined as the average **baseline travel time (BTT)**, or **baseline length (BLL)**. To this time interval is added an additional delay defined as the **secondary coding delay (SCD)**, or simply **coding delay (CD)**. The total of these two delays is termed the **emission delay**

CHAPTER 14

ELECTRONIC CHARTS

INTRODUCTION

1400. The Importance of Electronic Charts

Since the beginning of maritime navigation, the desire of the navigator has always been to answer a fundamental question: "Where, exactly, is my vessel?" To answer that question, the navigator was forced to continually take fixes on celestial bodies, on fixed objects ashore, or using radio signals, and plot the resulting lines of position as a fix on a paper chart. Only then could he begin to assess the safety of the ship and its progress toward its destination. He spent far more time taking fixes, working out solutions, and plotting the results than on making assessments, and the fix only told him where the ship was at the time that fix was taken, not where the vessel was some time later when the assessment was made. He was always "behind the vessel." On the high seas this is of little import. Near shore, it becomes vitally important.

Electronic charts automate the process of integrating real-time positions with the chart display and allow the navigator to continuously assess the position and safety of the vessel. Further, the GPS/DGPS fixes are far more accurate and taken far more often than any navigator ever could. A good piloting team is expected to take and plot a fix every three minutes. An electronic chart system can do it once per second to a standard of accuracy at least an order of magnitude better.

Electronic charts also allow the integration of other operational data, such as ship's course and speed, depth soundings, and radar data into the display. Further, they allow automation of alarm systems to alert the navigator to potentially dangerous situations well in advance of a disaster.

Finally, the navigator has a complete picture of the instantaneous situation of the vessel and all charted dangers in the area. With a radar overlay, the tactical situation with respect to other vessels is clear as well. This chapter will discuss the various types of electronic charts, the requirements for using them, their characteristics, capabilities and limitations.

1401. Terminology

Before understanding what an electronic chart is and what it does, one must learn a number of terms and definitions. We must first make a distinction between official and unofficial charts. Official charts are those, and only those,

produced by a government hydrographic office (HO). Unofficial charts are produced by a variety of private companies and may or may not meet the same standards used by HO's for data accuracy, currency, and completeness.

An **electronic chart system (ECS)** is a commercial electronic chart system not designed to satisfy the regulatory requirements of the IMO Safety of Life at Sea (SOLAS) convention. ECS is an aid to navigation and when used on SOLAS regulated vessels is to be used in conjunction with corrected paper charts.

An **electronic chart display and information system (ECDIS)** is an electronic chart system which satisfies the IMO SOLAS convention carriage requirements for corrected paper charts when used with an ENC or its functional equivalent (e.g. NIMA Digital Nautical Chart.)

An **electronic chart (EC)** is any digitized chart intended for display on a computerized navigation system.

An **electronic chart data base (ECDB)** is the digital database from which electronic charts are produced.

An **electronic navigational chart (ENC)** is an electronic chart issued by a national hydrographic authority designed to satisfy the regulatory requirements for chart carriage.

The **electronic navigation chart database (ENCDB)** is the hydrographic database from which the ENC is produced.

The **system electronic navigation chart (SENC)** is the database created by an ECDIS from the ENC data.

A **raster navigation chart (RNC)** is a raster-formatted chart produced by a national hydrographic office.

A **raster chart display system (RCDS)** is a system which displays official raster-formatted charts on an ECDIS system. Raster charts cannot take the place of paper charts because they lack key features required by the IMO, so that when an ECDIS uses raster charts it operates in the ECS mode.

Overscale and **underscale** refer to the display of electronic chart data at too large and too small a scale, respectively. In the case of overscale, the display is "zoomed in" too close, beyond the standard of accuracy to which the data was digitized. Underscale indicates that larger scale data is available for the area in question. ECDIS provides a warning in either case.

Raster chart data is a digitized "picture" of a chart comprised of millions of "picture elements" or "pixels." All

data is in one layer and one format. The video display simply reproduces the picture from its digitized data file. With raster data, it is difficult to change individual elements of the chart since they are not separated in the data file. Raster data files tend to be large, since a data point with associated color and intensity values must be entered for every pixel on the chart.

Vector chart data is data that is organized into many separate files or layers. It contains graphics files and programs to produce certain symbols, points, lines, and areas with associated colors, text, and other chart elements. The programmer can change individual elements in the file and link elements to additional data. Vector files of a given area are a fraction the size of raster files, and at the same time much more versatile. The navigator can selectively display vector data, adjusting the display according to his needs. Vector data supports the computation of precise distances between features and can provide warnings when hazardous situations arise.

1402. Components of ECS's and ECDIS's

The terms ECS and ECDIS encompasses many possible combinations of equipment and software designed for a variety of navigational purposes. In general, the following components comprise an ECS or ECDIS.

- **Computer processor, software, and network:** These subsystems control the processing of information from the vessel's navigation sensors and the flow of information between various system components. Electronic positioning information from GPS or Loran C, contact information from radar, and digital compass data, for example, can be integrated with the electronic chart data.
- **Chart database:** At the heart of any ECS lies a database of digital charts, which may be in either raster or vector format. It is this dataset, or a portion of it, that produces the chart seen on the display screen.
- **System display:** This unit displays the electronic chart and indicates the vessel's position on it, and provides other information such as heading, speed, distance to the next waypoint or destination, soundings, etc. There are two modes of display, **relative** and **true**. In the relative mode the ship

remains fixed in the center of the screen and the chart moves past it. This requires a lot of computer power, as all the screen data must be updated and re-drawn at each fix. In true mode, the chart remains fixed and the ship moves across it. The display may also be north-up or course-up, according to the availability of data from a heading sensor such as a digital compass.

- **User interface:** This is the user's link to the system. It allows the navigator to change system parameters, enter data, control the display, and operate the various functions of the system. Radar may be integrated with the ECDIS or ECS for navigation or collision avoidance, but is not required by SOLAS regulations.

1403. Legal Aspects of Using Electronic Charts

Requirements for carriage of charts are found in SOLAS Chapter V, which states in part: "All ships shall carry adequate and up-to-date charts... necessary for the intended voyage." As electronic charts have developed and the supporting technology has matured, regulations have been adopted internationally to set standards for what constitutes a "chart" in the electronic sense, and under what conditions such a chart will satisfy the chart carriage requirement.

An extensive body of rules and regulations controls the production of ECDIS equipment, which must meet certain high standards of reliability and performance. By definition, **only an ECDIS can replace a paper chart**. No system which is not an ECDIS relieves the navigator of the responsibility of maintaining a plot on a corrected paper chart. Neither can the presence of an electronic chart system substitute for good judgement, sea sense, and taking all reasonable precautions to ensure the safety of the vessel and crew.

An electronic chart system should be considered as an aid to navigation, one of many the navigator might have at his disposal to help ensure a safe passage. While possessing revolutionary capabilities, it must be considered as a tool, not an infallible answer to all navigational problems. The rule for the use of electronic charts is the same as for all other aids to navigation: The prudent navigator will never rely completely on any single one.

CAPABILITIES AND PERFORMANCE STANDARDS

1404. ECDIS Performance Standards

The specifications for ECDIS consist of a set of inter-related standards from three organizations, the International Maritime Organization (IMO), the International Hydrographic Organization (IHO), and the International Electrotechnical Commission (IEC). The IMO published a resolution in November 1995 to establish performance

standards for the general functionality of ECDIS, and to define the conditions for its replacement of paper charts. It consisted of a 15-section annex and 5 original appendices. Appendix 6 was adopted in 1996 to define the backup requirements for ECDIS. Appendix 7 was adopted in 1998 to define the operation of ECDIS in a raster chart mode. Previous standards related only to vector data.

The IMO performance standards refer to IHO Special

Publication S-52 for specification of technical details pertaining to the ECDIS display. Produced in 1997, the 3rd edition of S-52 includes appendices specifying the issue, updating, display, color, and symbology of official electronic navigational charts (ENC), as well as a revised glossary of ECDIS-related terms. The IMO performance standards also refer to IEC International Standard 61174 for the requirements of type approval of an ECDIS. Published in 1998, the IEC standard defines the testing methods and required results for an ECDIS to be certified as compliant with IMO standards. Accordingly, the first ECDIS was given type approval by Germany's classification society (BSH) in 1999. Since then, several other makes of ECDIS have gained type approval by various classification societies.

The IMO performance standards specify the following general requirements: Display of government-authorized vector chart data including an updating capability; enable route planning, route monitoring, manual positioning, and continuous plotting of the ship's position; have a presentation as reliable and available as an official paper chart; provide appropriate alarms or indications regarding displayed information or malfunctions; and permit a mode of operation with raster charts similar to the above standards.

The performance standards also specify additional functions, summarized as follows:

- Display of system information in three selectable levels of detail
- Means to ensure correct loading of ENC data and updates
- Apply updates automatically to system display
- Protect chart data from any alteration
- Permit display of update content
- Store updates separately and keep records of application in system
- Indicate when user zooms too far in or out on a chart (over- or under-scale) or when a larger scale chart is available in memory
- Permit the overlay of radar image and ARPA information onto the display
- Require north-up orientation and true motion mode, but permit other combinations
- Use IHO-specified resolution, colors and symbols
- Use IEC-specified navigational elements and parameters (range & bearing marker, position fix, own ship's track and vector, waypoint, tidal information, etc.)
- Use specified size of symbols, letters and figures at scale specified in chart data
- Permit display of ship as symbol or in true scale
- Display route planning and other tasks
- Display route monitoring
- Permit display to be clearly viewed by more than one user in day or night conditions
- Permit route planning in straight and curved segments and adjustment of waypoints
- Display a route plan in addition to the route selected for monitoring
- Permit track limit selection and display an indication if track limit crosses a safety contour or a selected prohibited area
- Permit display of an area away from ship while continuing to monitor selected route
- Give an alarm at a selectable time prior to ship crossing a selected safety contour or prohibited area
- Plot ship's position using a continuous positioning system with an accuracy consistent with the requirements of safe navigation
- Identify selectable discrepancy between primary and secondary positioning system
- Provide an alarm when positioning system input is lost
- Provide an alarm when positioning system and chart are based on different geodetic datums
- Store and provide for replay the elements necessary to reconstruct navigation and verify chart data in use during previous 12 hours
- Record the track for entire voyage with at least four hour time marks
- Permit accurate drawing of ranges and bearings not limited by display resolution
- Require system connection to continuous positioning, heading and speed information
- Neither degrade nor be degraded by connection to other sensors
- Conduct on-board tests of major functions with alarm or indication of malfunction
- Permit normal functions on emergency power circuit
- Permit power interruptions of up to 45 seconds without system failure or need to reboot
- Enable takeover by backup unit to continue navigation if master unit fails,

Before an IMO-compliant ECDIS can replace paper charts on vessels governed by SOLAS regulations, the route of the intended voyage must be covered completely by ENC data, that ENC data must include the latest updates, the ECDIS installation must be IMO-compliant including the master-slave network with full sensor feed to both units, and the national authority of the transited waters must allow for paperless navigation through published regulations. The

latter may also include requirements for certified training in the operational use of ECDIS.

The first type approval was earned in 1999 and since the finalization of the standards in 1998, many manufacturers of ECDIS equipment have gained such certification.

The certifying agency issues a certificate valid for two years. For renewal, a survey is conducted to ensure that systems, software versions, components and materials used comply with type-approved documents and to review possible changes in design of systems, software versions, components, materials performance, and make sure that such changes do not affect the type approval granted.

Manufacturers have been willing to provide type-approved ECDIS to vessel operators, but in a non-compliant installation. Without the geographical coverage of ENC data, the expensive dual-network installation required by ECDIS will not eliminate the requirement to carry a corrected portfolio of paper charts. These partial installations range from approved ECDIS software in a single PC, to ECDIS with its IEC-approved hardware. In these instances, plotting on paper charts continues to be the primary means of navigation. As more ENC data and updates become available, and as governments regulate paperless transits, vessel operators are upgrading their installations to meet full IMO compliance and to make ECDIS the primary means of navigation.

1405. ECS Standards

Although the IMO has declined to issue guidelines on ECS, the Radio Technical Commission for Maritime Services (RTCM) in the United States developed a voluntary, industry-wide standard for ECS. Published in December 1994, the RTCM Standard called for ECS to be capable of executing basic navigational functions, providing continuous plots of own ship position, and providing appropriate indicators with respect to information displayed. The RTCM ECS Standard allows the use of either raster or vector data, and includes the requirement for simple and reliable updating of information, or an indication that the electronic chart information has changed.

In November 2001, RTCM published Version 2.1 of the "RTCM Recommended Standards for Electronic Chart Systems." This updated version is intended to better define requirements applicable to various classes of vessels operating in a variety of areas. Three general classes of vessels are designated:

- Large commercial vessels (ocean-going ships)
- Small commercial vessels (tugs, research vessels, etc.)
- Smaller craft (yachts, fishing boats, etc.)

The intent is that users, manufacturers, and regulatory authorities will have a means of differentiating between the needs of various vessels as relates to ECS. In concept, an ECS meeting the minimum requirements of the RTCM

standard should reduce the risk of incidents and improve the efficiency of navigating for many types of vessels.

However, unlike IMO-compliant ECDIS, an ECS is not intended to comply with the up-to-date chart requirements of SOLAS. As such, an ECS must be considered as a single aid to navigation, and should always be used with a corrected chart from a government-authorized hydrographic office.

Initially, IMO regulations require the use of vector data in an ECDIS; raster data does not have the flexibility needed to do what the ECDIS must do. But it soon became clear that the hydrographic offices of the world would not be able to produce vector data for any significant part of the world for some years. Meanwhile, commercial interests were rasterizing charts as fast as they could for the emerging electronic chart market, and national hydrographic offices began rasterizing their own inventories to meet public demand. The result was a rather complete set of raster data for the most heavily travelled waters of the world, while production of man-power intensive vector data lagged far behind. IMO regulations were then amended to allow ECDIS to function in an RCDS mode using official raster data in conjunction with an appropriate portfolio of corrected paper charts. Nations may issue regulations authorizing the use of RCDS and define what constitutes an appropriate folio of paper charts for use in their waters.

In general, an ECS is not designed to read and display the S-57 format, and does not meet the performance standards of either ECDIS or RCDS. But an ECDIS can operate in ECS mode when using raster charts or when using non-S-57 vector charts. When a type-approved ECDIS is installed without being networked to a backup ECDIS, or when it is using non-official ENC data, or ENC data without updates, it can be said to be operating in an ECS mode, and as such cannot be used as a substitute for official, corrected paper charts.

1406. Display Characteristics

While manufacturers of electronic chart systems have designed their own proprietary colors and symbols, the IMO Performance Standard requires that all IMO approved ECDIS follow the International Hydrographic Organization (IHO) Color & Symbol Specifications. These specifications are embodied in the ECDIS Presentation Library. Their development was a joint effort between Canada and Germany during the 1990s. In order for ECDIS to enhance the safety of navigation, every detail of the display should be clearly visible, unambiguous in its meaning, and uncluttered by superfluous information. The unofficial ECS's continue to be free to develop independent of IHO control. In general they seek to emulate the look of the traditional paper chart.

To reduce clutter, the IMO Standard lays down a permanent display base of essentials such as depths, aids to

navigation, shoreline, etc., making the remaining information selectable. The navigator may then select only what is essential for the navigational task at hand. A black-background display for night use provides good color contrast without compromising the mariner's night vision. Similarly, a "bright sun" color table is designed to output maximum luminance in order to be daylight visible, and the colors for details such as buoys are made as contrasting as possible.

The symbols for ECDIS are based on the familiar paper chart symbols, with some optional extras such as simplified buoy symbols that show up better at night. Since the ECDIS can be customized to each ship's requirements, new symbols were added such as a highlighted, mariner selectable, safety contour and a prominent isolated danger symbol.

The Presentation Library is a set of colors and symbols together with rules relating them to the digital data of the ENC, and procedures for handling special cases, such as priorities for the display of overlapping objects. Every feature in the ENC is first passed through the look-up table of the Presentation Library that either assigns a symbol or line style immediately, or, for complex cases, passes the object to a symbology procedure. Such procedures are used for objects like lights, which have so many variations that a look-up table for their symbolization would be too long. The Presentation Library includes a Chart 1, illustrating the symbology. Given the IHO S-57 data standards and S-52 display specifications, a waterway should look the same no matter which hydrographic office produced the ENC, and no matter which manufacturer built the ECDIS.

The overwhelming advantage of the vector-based ECDIS display is its ability to remove cluttering information not needed at a given time. By comparison, the paper chart and its raster equivalent is an unchangeable diagram. A second advantage is the ability to orient the display course-up when this is convenient, while the text remains screen-up.

Taking advantage of affordable yet high-powered computers, some ECDIS's now permit a split screen display, where mode of motion, orientation and scale are individually selectable on each panel. This permits, for example, a north-up small-scale overview in true motion alongside a course-up large-scale view in relative motion. Yet another display advantage occurs with zooming, in that symbols and text describing areas center themselves automatically in whatever part of the area appears on the screen. None of these functions are possible with raster charts.

The display operates by a set of rules, and data is arranged hierarchically. For example, where lines overlap, the less important line is not drawn. A more complex rule always places text at the same position relative to the object it applies to, no matter what else may be there. Since a long name or light description will often over-write another object, the only solution is to zoom in until the objects separate from each other. Note that because text causes so much

clutter, and is seldom vital for safe navigation, it is written automatically when the object it refers to is on the display, but is an option under the "all other information" display level.

Flexibility in display scale requires some indication of distance to objects seen on the display. Some manufacturers use the rather restrictive but familiar radar range rings to provide this, while another uses a line symbol keyed to data's original scale. The ECDIS design also includes a one-mile scalebar at the side of the display, and an optionally displayed course and speed made good vector for own ship. There may be a heading line leading from the vessel's position indicating her future track for one minute, three minutes, or some other selectable time.

To provide the option of creating manual chart corrections, ECDIS includes a means of drawing lines, adding text and inserting stored objects on the display. These may be saved as user files, called up from a subdirectory, and edited on the display. Once loaded into the SENC, the objects may be selected or de-selected just as with other objects of the SENC.

Display options for ECDIS include transfer of ARPA-acquired targets and radar image overlay. IMO standards for ECDIS require that the operator be able to deselect the radar picture from the chart with a single operator action for fast "uncluttering" of the chart presentation.

1407. Units, Data Layers and Calculations

ECDIS uses the following units of measure:

- **Position:** Latitude and longitude will be shown in degrees, minutes, and decimal minutes, normally based on WGS-84 datum.
- **Depth:** Depths will be indicated in meters and decimeters.
- **Height:** Meters
- **Distance:** Nautical miles and tenths, or meters
- **Speed:** Knots and tenths

ECDIS requires data layers to establish a priority of data displayed. The minimum number of information categories required and their relative priority from highest to lowest are listed below:

- ECDIS warnings and messages
- Hydrographic office data
- *Notice to Mariners* information
- Hydrographic office cautions
- Hydrographic office color-fill area data
- Hydrographic office on demand data
- Radar information
- User's data
- Manufacturer's data
- User's color-fill area data
- Manufacturer's color-fill area data

As a minimum, an ECDIS system must be able to perform the following calculations and conversions:

- Geographical coordinates to display coordinates, and display coordinates to geographical coordinates.
- Transformation from local datum to WGS-84.
- True distance and azimuth between two geographical positions.
- Geographic position from a known position given distance and azimuth.
- Projection calculations such as great circle and rhumb line courses and distances.

1408. Warnings and Alarms

Appendix 5 of the IMO Performance Standard specifies that ECDIS must monitor the status of its systems continuously, and must provide alarms and indications for certain functions if a condition occurs that requires immediate attention. Indications may be either visual or audible. An alarm must be audible and may be visual as well.

An alarm is required for the following:

- Exceeding cross-track limits
- Crossing selected safety contour
- Deviation from route
- Position system failure
- Approaching a critical point
- Chart on different geodetic datum from positioning system

An alarm or indication is required for the following:

- Largest scale for alarm (indicates that presently loaded chart is too small a scale to activate anti-grounding feature)
- Area with special conditions (means a special type of chart is within a time or distance setting)
- Malfunction of ECDIS (means the master unit in a master-backup network has failed)

An indication is required for the following:

- Chart overscale (zoomed in too close)
- Larger scale ENC available
- Different reference units (charted depths not in meters)
- Route crosses safety contour
- Route crosses specified area activated for alarms
- System test failure

As these lists reveal, ECDIS has been programmed to constantly "know" what the navigation team should know, and to help the team to apply its experience and judgment through the adjustment of operational settings.

This automation in ECDIS has two important consequences: First, route or track monitoring does not replace situational awareness; it only enhances it. The alarm functions, while useful, are partial and have the potential to be in error, misinterpreted, ignored, or overlooked.

Secondly, situational awareness must now include, especially when ECDIS is used as the primary means of navigation, the processes and status of the electronic components of the system. This includes all attached sensors, the serial connections and communication ports and data interfaces, the computer processor and operating system, navigation and chart software, data storage devices, and power supply. Furthermore, these new responsibilities must still be balanced with the traditional matters of keeping a vigilant navigational watch.

ECDIS or not, the windows in the pilothouse are still the best tool for situational awareness. Paradoxically, ECDIS makes the navigator's job both simpler and more complex.

1409. ECDIS Outputs

During the past 12 hours of the voyage, ECDIS must be able to reconstruct the navigation and verify the official database used. Recorded at one minute intervals, the information includes:

- Own ship's past track including time, position, heading, and speed
- A record of official ENC used including source, edition, date, cell and update history

It is important to note that if ECDIS is turned off, such as for chart management or through malfunction, voyage recording ceases, unless a networked backup system takes over the functions of the master ECDIS. In that case, the voyage recording will continue, including an entry in the electronic log for all the alarms that were activated and reset during the switchover. Voyage files consist of logbook files, track files and target files. The file structure is based on the date and is automatically created at midnight for the time reference in use. If the computer system time is used for that purpose, the possibility exists for overwriting voyage files if the system time is manually set back. Allowing GPS time as the system reference avoids this pitfall.

In addition, ECDIS must be able to record the complete track for the entire voyage with time marks at least once every four hours. ECDIS should also have the capability to preserve the record of the previous 12 hours of the voyage. It is a requirement that the recorded information be inaccessible to alteration. Preserving voyage files should follow procedures for archiving data. Unless radar overlay data is being recorded, voyage files tend to be relatively small, permitting backup onto low-capacity media, and purging from system memory at regular intervals. (This form of backing up should not be confused with the network master-slave

backup system.)

Adequate backup arrangements must be provided to ensure safe navigation in case of ECDIS failure. This includes provisions to take over ECDIS functions so that an ECDIS failure does not develop into a critical situation, and a means of safe navigation for the remaining part of the voyage in case of complete failure.

1410. Voyage Data Recorder (VDR)

The purpose of the voyage data recorder VDR is to provide accurate historical navigational data in the investigation of maritime incidents. It is additionally useful for system performance monitoring. A certified VDR configuration records all data points, as per IMO Resolution A.861(20) & EC Directive 1999/35/EC. Some of the voyage data can be relayed through ECDIS. A fully IEC compliant data capsule passes fire and immersion tests.

The implementation of a secure "black box" and comprehensive Voyage Data Recorder (VDR) is now a carriage requirement on passenger and Ro-Ro vessels over 3000 GT (1600 GRT) engaged in international passages. Existing vessels must be retrofitted by July 2004, and all vessels built after July 2002 must be fitted with a VDR. Retrofit regulations for other vessels built before July 2002 are still in development. Non-RO-RO passenger vessels built before July 2002 may be exempted from carriage where an operator can show that interfacing a VDR with the existing equipment on the ship is unreasonable and impracticable. The European Union requires that all RO-RO ferries or high speed craft engaged on a regular service in European waters (domestic or international) be fitted with a VDR if built before February 2003, and otherwise retrofitted by

July 2004.

VDR features include:

- Radar video capture: Radar video is captured and compressed every 15 seconds to comply with IEC performance standards.
- I/O subsystem: To collect a wide variety of data types, a sensor interface unit provides signal conditioning for all analog, digital and serial inputs. All data is converted and transmitted to a data acquisition unit via an ethernet LAN.
- Audio compression: An audio module collects analog signals from microphone preamplifiers. The data is digitized and compressed to meet Lloyds of London 24-hour voice storage requirements.
- Integral uninterruptible power supply (UPS) IEC requires a UPS backup for all components of the data acquisition unit and for the data capsule to provide two hours continuous recording following a blackout.
- Hardened fixed data capsule: IEC 61996 compliant data capsules fitted with ethernet connections provide fast download as well as fast upload to satellite links.
- Remote data recovery and shoreside playback: Options available in several systems.
- Annual system certification: The IMO requires that the VDR system, including all sensors, be subjected to an annual performance test for certification.

DATA FORMATS

1411. Official Vector Data

How ECDIS operates depends on what type of chart data is used. ENC's (electronic navigational charts) and RNC's (raster nautical charts) are approved for use in ECDIS. By definition both ENC's and RNC's are issued under the authority of national hydrographic offices (HO's). ECDIS functions as a true ECDIS when used with corrected ENC data, but ECDIS operates in the less functional raster chart display system (RCDS) mode when using corrected RNC data. When ECDIS is used with non-official vector chart data (corrected or not), it operates in the ECS mode.

In vector charts, hydrographic data is comprised of a series of files in which different layers of information are stored or displayed. This form of "intelligent" spatial data is obtained by digitizing information from existing paper charts or by storing a list of instructions that define various position-referenced features or objects (e.g., buoys, light-houses, etc.). In displaying vector chart data on ECDIS, the user has considerable flexibility and discretion regarding

the amount of information that is displayed.

An ENC is vector data conforming to the IHO S-57 ENC product specification in terms of content, structure and format. An ENC contains all the chart information necessary for safe navigation and may contain supplementary information in addition to that contained in the paper chart. In general, an S-57 ENC is a structurally layered data set designed for a range of hydrographic applications. As defined in IHO S-57 Edition 3, the data is comprised of a series of points, lines, areas, features, and objects. The minimum size of a data set is a cell, which is a spherical rectangle (i.e., bordered by meridians and latitudes). Adjacent cells do not overlap. The scale of the data contained in the cell is dependent upon the navigational purpose (e.g., general, coastal, approach, harbor).

Under S-57, cells have a standard format but do not have a standard coverage size. Instead, cells are limited to 5mb of data. S-57 cells are normally copy protected and therefore require a permit before use is allowed. These permits are delivered as either a file containing the chart

permits or as a code. In both cases the first step is to install the chart permit into the ECDIS. Some hydrographic offices deliver S-57 cells without copy protection and therefore permits are not required.

Any regional agency responsible for collecting and distributing S-57 data, such as PRIMAR for Northern Europe, will also maintain data consistency. National hydrographic offices are responsible for producing S-57 data for their own country area. Throughout the world HO's have been slow to produce sufficient quantities of ENC data. This is due to the fact that the standards evolved over several years, and that vector data is much harder to collect than raster data.

In 1996 the IHO S-57 data standard and IHO S-52 specifications for chart content and display were "frozen." It took three versions of S-57 before the issue was finally settled as to what actually comprises an ENC (i.e., ENC Product Specification) and what is required for updating (ENC Updating Profile). The ENC Test Dataset that the International Electrotechnical Commission (IEC) requires for use in conjunction with IEC Publication 61174 (IEC 1997) was finalized by IHO in 1998. It was not possible to conduct ECDIS type-approval procedures without a complete and validated IHO ENC Test Dataset.

Major areas of ENC coverage now include most of Canadian and Japanese waters, the Baltic and North Sea, and important waterways such as the Straits of Malacca, Singapore Strait, and the Straits of Magellan (Chile).

At the same time, many countries including the United States, are stepping up their production of ENC's where issues of port security require the collection of baseline data of submerged hazards. In the U.S., NOAA plans to complete its portfolio of large-scale charts of 42 ports in ENC format by mid-2003, with smaller scale chart completion by 2005. As the chart cells are completed, the data is being made available on the World Wide Web at no cost. Beginning in 2003, NOAA will post critical notice to mariner corrections without restrictions in monthly increments. At that point the status of NOAA's available ENC data will be changed from provisional to official.

ENC data is currently available from the HO's of most Northern European countries, Japan, Korea, Hong Kong, Singapore, Canada, Chile, and the United States, although the coverage and updating process is incomplete. Most ENC is available only through purchase, permits or licensing.

1412. Vector Data Formats Other Than IHO S-57

The largest of the non-S-57 format databases is the Digital Nautical Chart (DNC). The National Imagery and Mapping Agency (NIMA) produces the content and format for the DNC according to a military specification. This allows compatibility among all U.S. Defense Department assets. The DNC is a vector-based digital product that portrays significant maritime features in a format suitable for

computerized marine navigation. The DNC is a general-purpose global database designed to support marine navigation and Geographic Information System (GIS) applications. DNC data is only available to the U.S. military and selected allies. It is designed to conform to the IMO Performance Standard and IHO specifications for ECDIS.

Several commercial manufacturers have developed vector databases beyond those that have been issued by official hydrographic offices. These companies are typically manufacturers of ECDIS or ECS equipment or have direct relationships with companies that do, and typically have developed data in proprietary format in order to provide options to raster charts in the absence of ENC data. HO-issued paper charts provide the source data for these formats, although in some cases non-official paper charts are used. In some cases, ECS manufacturers provide a regular updating and maintenance service for their vector data, resulting in added confidence and satisfaction among users. The manufacturer's source of the updates is through HO's. Hence, these two particular non-official formats allows for a very high degree of confidence and satisfaction among mariners using this data.

ECS systems sometimes apply rules of presentation similar to officially specified rules. Thus information is displayed or removed automatically according to scale level to manage clutter. The same indications pertinent to overscaling ENC apply to private vector data. Since the chart data is not ENC, the systems must display that non-official status when used in an ECDIS.

1413. Raster Data

Raster navigational chart (RNC) data is stored as picture elements (pixels). Each pixel is a minute component of the chart image with a defined color and brightness level. Raster-scanned images are derived by scanning paper charts to produce a digital photograph of the chart. Raster data are far easier to produce than vector data, but raster charts present many limitations to the user.

The official raster chart formats are:

- ARCS (British Admiralty)
- Seafarer (Australia)
- BSB (U.S., NOAA/Maptech)

These charts are produced from the same raster process used to print paper charts. They are accurate representations of the original paper chart with every pixel geographically referenced. Where applicable, horizontal datum shifts are included with each chart to enable referencing to WGS84. This permits compatibility with information overlaid on the chart. *Note: Not all available charts have WGS84 shift information.* Extreme caution is necessary if the datum shift cannot be determined exactly.

Raster nautical charts require significantly larger

amounts of memory than vector charts. Whereas a world portfolio of more than 7500 vector charts may occupy about 500mb, a typical coastal region in raster format may consist of just 40 charts and occupy more than 1000mb of memory.

For practical purposes, most of a portfolio of raster charts should be left on the CD and not loaded into the ECDIS hard drive unless one is route planning or actually sailing in a given region. Of course, updates can only be performed on charts that are loaded onto the hard drive.

Certain non-official raster charts are produced that cover European and some South American waters. These are scanned from local paper charts. Additionally, some ECDIS and ECS manufacturers also produce raster charts in proprietary formats.

In 1998 the IMO's Maritime Safety Committee (MSC 70) adopted the Raster Chart Display System (RCDS) as Appendix 7 to the IMO Performance Standards. The IMO-IHO Harmonization Group on ECDIS (HGE) considered this issue for over three years. Where IHO S-57 Ed. 3 ENC data coverage is not available, raster data provided by official HO's can be used as an interim solution. But this RCDS mode does not have the full functionality of an otherwise IMO-compliant ECDIS using ENC data. Therefore, RCDS does not meet SOLAS requirements for carriage of paper charts, meaning that when ECDIS equipment is operated in the RCDS mode, it must be used together with an appropriate portfolio of corrected paper charts.

Some of the limitations of RCDS compared to ECDIS

include:

- Chart features cannot be simplified or removed to suit a particular navigational circumstance or task.
- Orientation of the RCDS display to course-up may affect the readability of the chart text and symbols since these are fixed to the chart image in a north-up orientation.
- Depending on the source of the raster chart data, different colors may be used to show similar chart information, and there may be differences between colors used during day and night time.
- The accuracy of the raster chart data may be less than that of the position-fixing system being used.
- Unlike vector data, charted objects on raster charts do not support any underlying information.
- RNC data will not trigger automatic alarms. (However, some alarms can be generated by the RCDS from user-inserted information.)
- Soundings on raster charts may be in fathoms and feet, rather than meters.

The use of ECDIS in RCDS mode can only be considered as long as there is a backup folio of appropriate up-to-date paper charts.

INTEGRATED BRIDGE SYSTEMS

1414. Description

An Integrated Bridge System (IBS) is a combination of equipment and software which uses interconnected controls and displays to present a comprehensive suite of navigational information to the mariner. Rules from classification societies such as Det Norske Veritas (DNV) specify design criteria for bridge workstations. Their rules define tasks to be performed, and specify how and where equipment should be sited to enable those tasks to be performed. Equipment carriage requirements are specified for ships according to the requested class certification or notation. Publication IEC 61029 defines operational and performance requirements, methods of testing, and required test results for IBS.

Classification society rules address the total bridge system in four parts: technical system, human operator, man/machine interface, and operational procedures. The DNV classifies IBS with three certifications: NAUT-C covers bridge design; W1-OC covers bridge design, instrumentation and bridge procedures; W1 augments certain portions of W1-OC.

An IBS generally consists of at least:

- Dual ECDIS installation – one serving master and the other as backup and route planning station

- Dual radar/ARPA installation
- Conning display with a concentrated presentation of navigational information (the master ECDIS)
- DGPS positioning
- Ship's speed measuring system
- Auto-pilot and gyrocompass system
- Full GMDSS functionality

Some systems include full internal communications, and a means of monitoring fire control, shipboard status alarms, and machinery control. Additionally, functions for the loading and discharge of cargo may also be provided.

An IBS is designed to centralize the functions of monitoring collision and grounding risks, and to automate navigation and ship control. Control and display of component systems are not simply interconnected, but often share a proprietary language or code. Several instruments and indicators are considered essential for safe and efficient performance of tasks, and are easily readable at the navigation workstation, such as heading, rudder angle, depth, propeller speed or pitch, thruster azimuth and force, and speed and distance log.

Type approval by Det Norske Veritas for the DNV-WI-ANTS (Automatic Navigation and Track-Keeping