

Owing to refraction, at the moment of true amplitude the Sun's centre appears to be elevated about 33' above the horizon. In tropic latitudes the difference between the true and apparent amplitudes is negligible, since the Sun rises and sets nearly perpendicular to the horizon. In the higher latitudes, however, the difference may amount to as much as 3°, and for this reason it is probably better under these circumstances to use timed observations, only, for compass checks. In the case of the Moon the position is reversed. As a consequence of the Moon's large parallax that body is actually not visible at the moment of its true amplitude, its upper limb being then about 1' below the horizon. Its availability for amplitude purposes is therefore restricted to latitudes within about 30° of its declination, when it will rise and set near the perpendicular.

TABLES 29 and 30—pp. 246-319, A, B, and C Tables.

A=Cot. H.A. Tan. Lat. B=Cosec. H.A. Tan. Dec. C=Cot. Az. Sec. Lat.

The ABC Tables provide one of the quickest and most convenient means of finding the azimuth; and also provide, with equal facility, great-circle courses and the "Longitude Correction".

Table 29 contains the values designated "A" and "B," corresponding to the arguments H.A. and Lat., and H.A. and Dec. respectively; which values, when combined according to their appropriate signs, form "C", which is, in fact, the "Longitude Correction," and which, by means of Table C (Table 30), produces azimuths and great-circle courses. Table C is indexed for the arguments Azimuth and Latitude. When in search of azimuth the table is entered with latitude and value C (not value C and latitude). The eye is run horizontally across the pages opposite the latitude until value C is picked up, when the azimuth will be found at the head of the page.

Examples:

Time Azimuth.

H.A. 84°	Lat. 6°30'S. Dec. 1°18'N.
H.A. 84°	{ Lat. 6°30'S., A=.012+
	Dec. 1 18N., B=.023+
	<u>C = .035+</u>

Then in Table C, with Lat. 6½°, Az. = 272°

Note.—Except when value C is small (less than .2) two decimal places are sufficient.

For Great-Circle Courses—

D. Long.	=	Hour angle.
"From" Lat.	=	Latitude.
"To" Lat.	=	Declination.

Time Azimuth.

H.A. 235°	Lat. 71°20'N. Dec. 62°10'N
H.A. 235°	{ Lat. 71°20'N., A=2.07-
	Dec. 62 10N., B=2.31-
	<u>C = 4.38-</u>

Then in Table C, with Lat. 71°20', Az. = 035°

Example of Great-Circle Course:—

From Lat. 58° 10'N.	Long. 5° 20'W.
To Lat. 20° 05'N.	Long. 61° 35'W.

	<u>56° 15'W</u>	D. Long.
With H.A. 56½°	{ Lat. 58° 10'N.,	A=1.09+
	Dec. 20° 05'N.,	B=.44-
	<u>C = .65+</u>	

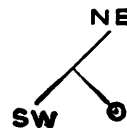
Then in Table C, with Lat. 58°, Az. = 251° = Course required.

When D. Long. is E. it would be proper to subtract it from 360° in order to make the precepts at the head of Table C yield correct advice for naming the course. This, however, need not be done if it is remembered to name the course as for "Body RISING": which, as the course will be easterly, should present no difficulty.

Longitude Correction—

"C" (the combination of the values A and B) is the error of longitude corresponding to an error of one minute in the latitude. It must, of course, be multiplied by the total error of latitude to obtain the total error of longitude.

To determine which way to apply the correction. The position-line runs at right-angles to the bearing of the body observed. Draw a short line to represent the bearing of the body, according to quadrant, and across the appropriate end of this line draw a second line to indicate the position-line. Thus, supposing the body bore S.E., then by sketch it is obvious that the position-line runs N.E. and S.W.—which means that the further the observer is to the North, the further he will be to the East, or the further to the South the further to the West.

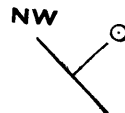


Example:

At 07.12 L.A.T., Lat. D.R. 22° 12' N. Long. obs. 37° 42' W. Sun in N.E. quadrant. Dec. 18° 55' N
 Now, L.A.T. 07.12 = H.A. 4h. 48m.

With H.A. 4h. 48m. and $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Lat. } 22^\circ 12' \text{ N.}, \\ \text{Dec. } 18^\circ 55' \text{ N.}, \end{array} \right.$ $\begin{array}{l} A = .13 + \\ B = .36 - \end{array}$

Therefore, Long. Corr. $(C) = .23 -$



At noon, when the above sight brought forward gave Lat. D.R. 23° 05' N. Long. obs. 37° 13' W., the latitude was found by meridian altitude to be 23° 13' N. Then since the D.R. latitude, with which the sight was worked, is 8M. in error, it is obvious that the observed longitude must also be in error. The true latitude being more northerly, the sketch indicates that the true longitude will be further to the West—by the amount $8 \times .23 = 1'.84$.

Long. obs. (for D.R. Lat.)	- -	37° 13' W.
Corr.	- -	1.8 W.
Long. obs. (for True Lat.)	- -	<u>37° 14.8 W.</u>

The correct noon position is therefore Lat. 23° 13' N. Long. 37° 14'.8W.

Note—Two decimal places are always sufficient for the Longitude Correction, for which purpose the sign of C is immaterial.

TABLE 31—pp. 321-325. **Vertical Sextant Angles.** $\frac{\text{Height}}{\text{Dist.}} = \text{Tan. Angle.}$

The table is for plane right-angled triangles only, which means that the point at sea-level vertically below the object observed must be within the observers' horizon (as defined by Table 44). The angle to be observed is that which subtends the crest of the object and its sea-level base point. Consequently, when a long fore-shore intervenes, guesswork has to be resorted to and the result should be accepted with caution.

The datum level for heights on British charts is High Water Ordinary Spring Tides. When the range of tide bears a considerable proportion to the height of the object (which may be the case with a sea-rock lighthouse) too small a distance may result. For lights the height given on the charts is that of the focal plane; but here also observations of the summit of the 'house give distances on the safe side—EXCEPT WHEN PASSING INSIDE A SUNKEN DANGER.

The space at the head of the table will be found convenient for pencilling in the heights of frequently used lighthouses, etc.

TABLE 37—p. 344. **Co-logarithms of Steaming Time.** The co-log. of a number is the arithmetical complement of the log. of that number. Thus, $\text{co-log. } 15 = \text{log. } 1 - \text{log. } 15 = 0.00000 - 1.17609 = 8.82391$. By the use of co-logs. we may effect division by adding, which, since the co-log. can be read from the tables at sight, is useful. To read co-log. from tables, proceed from **left to right**, subtracting each digit from 9 until the last, which is taken from 10.

The precept for using the table of co-logs. on p. 344 is given at the foot of the table. Where it is considered permissible to decide upon the steaming

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