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Summary

This note gives an empirical algorithm for predicting first sighting of the new crescent moon, and a neat method for estimating the best time for making the observation.

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A Method for Predicting the First Sighting of the New Crescent Moon

by

B.D. Yallop

Summary

A single parameter method is obtained for predicting first sighting of the new crescent moon, based on the Indian method. Based on the method of Bruin, a simple rule is given that determines the time of best visibility in the twilight sky.

The six ranges of the single test parameter q are calibrated by applying the q -test to a standard set of 295 first sightings of the new crescent moon that cover the period 1859 to 1996. The ranges of the parameter correspond to the following visibility types and visibility codes for the new crescent moon:

- (A) easily visible to the unaided eye;
- (B) visible under perfect atmospheric conditions;
- (C) may need optical aid to find the thin crescent moon before it can be seen with the unaided eye;
- (D) can only be seen with binoculars or a telescope;
- (E) below the normal limit for detection with a telescope;
- (F) not visible, below the Danjon limit.

1. Introduction.

Methods for predicting first sighting of the new crescent moon have been around since the time of the Babylonians and maybe before that. The earliest methods depended upon parameters such as the age of the Moon (*Age*) and the time from sunset to moonset (*Lag*). In Medieval times the methods became slightly more sophisticated, and they included more technical parameters such as ecliptic latitude and longitude.

In the twentieth century empirical methods have been developed based on functional relationships between the arc of light (*ARCL*), arc of vision (*ARCV*) and the relative azimuth (*DAZ*). In this note I examine three of the twentieth century methods, due to Maunder (1911), the Indians, *The Indian Astronomical Ephemeris*, (1996), and Bruin (1977). My method is an adaptation of these three methods.

2. The basic variables.

The angles *ARCL*, *ARCV* and *DAZ*, always in degrees, are defined as follows:

ARCL is the angle subtended at the centre of the Earth by the centre of the Sun and the centre of the Moon.

ARCV is the geocentric difference in altitude between the centre of the Sun and the centre of the Moon for a given latitude and longitude, ignoring the effects of refraction.

DAZ is the difference in azimuth between the Sun and the Moon at a given latitude and longitude, the difference is in the sense azimuth of the Sun minus azimuth of the Moon.

Angles *ARCL*, *ARCV* and *DAZ* satisfy the equation

$$\cos ARCL = \cos ARCV \cos DAZ \quad (2.1)$$

so only two of the angles are independent variables.

For angles less than about 22° this approximates to

$$ARCL^2 = ARCV^2 + DAZ^2 \quad (2.2)$$

Although *ARCL* and *ARCV* are not directly observable, for historical reasons it is difficult to discontinue using them.

3. The basic data for three twentieth century methods.

This section gives the basic data for the method of (a) Maunder, (b) the Indians and (c) Bruin.

(a) The basic data for the Maunder method are given on page 359 of Maunder (1911), and are reproduced in Table 1:

Table 1: Maunder					
DAZ	0°	5°	10°	15°	20°
ARCV	11.0	10.5	9.5	8.0	6.0

Table 1 gives $ARCV$ as a function of DAZ , i.e. $ARCV = f(DAZ)$. If $ARCV > f(DAZ)$ then the crescent is visible. On the other hand if $ARCV < f(DAZ)$ it is not visible. Thus in principle, the degree of visibility is equivalent to testing the value of a single parameter q , where $q = ARCV - f(DAZ)$. In section 5 it is shown how q is calibrated for the Indian method using a standard data base of observations of lunar first sightings.

Fitting a quadratic polynomial in DAZ to $ARCV$ using the data in Table 1 by the method of least squares, yields a perfect fit, which indicates that Maunder was using a quadratic to represent his data. The visibility criterion is that the crescent is visible if

$$ARCV > 11 - |DAZ|/20 - DAZ^2/100 \quad (3.1)$$

(b) Since 1966, the basic data for the Indian method have been given in the Explanation to *The Indian Astronomical Ephemeris*, which is based on Schoch (1930). In the 1996 edition, for example, they are found on page 559 under the section “Heliacal rising and setting of planets”. They give the data in a similar form to Maunder, i.e. a table of $ARCV$ in terms of DAZ , which is reproduced here in Table 2.

Table 2: Indian					
DAZ	0°	5°	10°	15°	20°
ARCV	10.4	10.0	9.3	8.0	6.2

In this case a quadratic polynomial in DAZ fitted to $ARCV$ by the method of least squares produces the following criterion:

$$ARCV > 10.3743 - 0.0137 |DAZ| - 0.0097 DAZ^2 \quad (3.2)$$

(c) The basic data for the Bruin method are contained in figure 9, page 339 of Bruin (1977). This diagram yields $ARCV$ as a function of W the width of the crescent moon, and they are reproduced in Table 3. Note that the entry for $W = 0'3$ has been extrapolated, and that Bruin does not extend his curves beyond $W = 3'$.

Table 3: Bruin						
W	0'3	0'5	0'7	1'	2'	3'
ARCV	10.0	8.4	7.5	6.4	4.7	4.3

In this case a cubic polynomial in W is fitted to $ARCV$ by the method of least squares. A cubic polynomial is required because the curve has an inflection. Moreover, since the coefficient of W^3 is negative, it guarantees that the test criteria is eventually satisfied, provided that W is large enough. The criterion is that the crescent is visible if

$$ARCV > 12.4023 - 9.4878 W + 3.9512 W^2 - 0.5632 W^3 \quad (3.3)$$

where W is the width of the crescent in minutes of arc and is given by

$$W = 15(1 - \cos ARCL) = 15(1 - \cos ARCV \cos DAZ) \quad (3.4)$$

Notice that Bruin took the semi-diameter of the Moon to be a constant $15'$, and that W is a function of $ARCV$ and DAZ .

The criterion for Maunder (3.1) and the Indian method (3.2), can also be expressed as a function of $ARCV$ and W , as follows:

$$ARCV > 13.1783 - 9.0812 W + 2.0709 W^2 - 0.3360 W^3 \quad (3.5)$$

$$ARCV > 11.8371 - 6.3226 W + 0.7319 W^2 - 0.1018 W^3 \quad (3.6)$$

Note that an additional cubic term in W is required to maintain precision.

Finally for comparison I give the expression for Bruin in the alternative form $ARCV$ as a polynomial in DAZ , although the precision is poor when DAZ exceeds about 20° .

$$ARCV > 10.136 + 0.14 |DAZ| - 0.03 DAZ^2 \quad (3.7)$$

The curves $ARCV = f(DAZ)$ (i.e. $q = 0$) are drawn in Figure 1, for the three methods. As explained in section 3(a), visibility occurs when $ARCV > f(DAZ)$ (i.e. $q > 0$). Note that the Indian and Bruin test are very similar between $DAZ = 0^\circ$ and $DAZ = 20^\circ$. For $DAZ > 20^\circ$ the Bruin curve behaves quite differently from the Indian curve and has a strong inflexion. At high latitudes, when the orbit of the Moon is almost parallel with the horizon, this shape of curve produces predictions of first sighting that are far too late. Experimental data are required in this region to improve predictions at high latitudes.

From 1996 March, HM Nautical Almanac Office decided to abandon its test based on the Bruin method for one based on the Indian method, using the expression (3.6) since it produced more sensible results for old moonage sightings at high latitudes, which occur at least once a year for latitudes around 55° . It also uses the topocentric width of the crescent W' in place of W , which is calculated as follows:

$$SD = 0.27245 \pi \quad (3.8)$$

$$SD' = SD(1 + \sin h \sin \pi) \quad (3.9)$$

$$W' = SD'(1 - \cos ARCL) \quad (3.10)$$

where a dash indicates that a co-ordinate is topocentric, SD is the semi-diameter of the Moon, π is the parallax of the Moon and h is the geocentric altitude of the Moon.

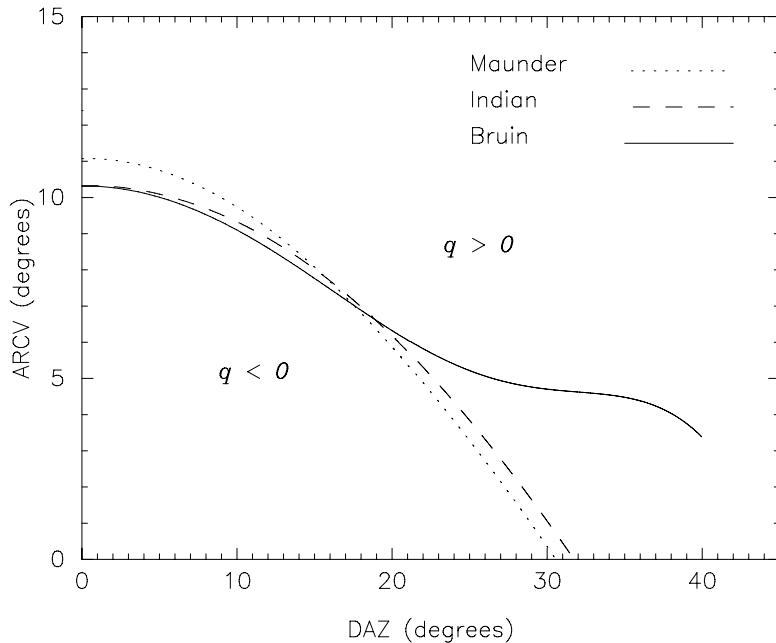


Figure 1: Comparison of Maunder, Indian and Bruin.

4. The concept of best time.

If the crescent moon is to be observed as early as possible it is important to know when is the best time for making the observation. If the observation is made too soon after sunset then the twilight sky may be too bright to pick out the faint crescent moon. The observer has to wait until the contrast between the crescent moon and the twilight sky has increased sufficiently for the Moon to be seen. Although the twilight sky becomes darker, the brightness of the crescent moon also diminishes due to atmospheric extinction as the altitude of the setting Moon decreases, so there is an optimum time for making the observation. In critical cases the observation is only possible within a short period of the best time.

Soon after sunset the observer will be using daylight vision to detect faint objects. Objects like stars are best found by looking straight at them. As the Sun sinks to about 5° below the horizon, night vision takes over. In this case much fainter objects can be seen, but it is necessary to use averted vision. Around this time first magnitude stars begin to pop out of the sky. In critical cases, with an elongation of say 8° and the Sun 5° below the horizon, and in the perfect geometrical situation with $DAZ = 0^\circ$, there is not much time left to observe the Moon before it sets in the murk on the horizon. It becomes increasingly more difficult to observe the crescent as the Danjon limit is approached simply due to these geometrical constraints.

Schaefer (1988), (see pages 519 and 520) calculates the best time from the logarithm of the actual total brightness of the Moon divided by the total brightness of the Moon needed for visibility for the given observing conditions. I have found it difficult to repeat his calculations exactly because the reference he quotes for his theoretical method, Schaefer (1990), is not readily available in most libraries. Furthermore, in his other papers that are relevant to the subject, he gives insufficient or conflicting information.

I have found a simple rule, however, based on Bruin (1977), which is sufficient for most purposes. Bruin (1977) gives a method for calculating the possibility of observing the Moon at any instant after sunset, and the results are given in figure 9 on page 339 of his paper. He plots a series of curves of visibility of $h+s$ (arc of vision) against s for $W = 0'5, 0'7, 1', 2'$ and $3'$, where $90^\circ - s$ is the geocentric altitude of the Sun, and h is the geocentric altitude of the Moon. Hence s is the depression of the Sun below the horizon and $h+s = ARCV$. Each of these curves has a minimum, which Bruin says is when the situation is at an optimum. On the curve for $W = 0'5$, he marks the minimum as point C. If a straight line is drawn through the origin (at $h+s = 0^\circ$ and $s = 0^\circ$) and through point C (at $h+s = 9^\circ$, and $s = 4^\circ$), it is found that this line passes directly through the minima of the series of curves for different W . Hence at the best time $4h = 5s$. If T_s is the time of sunset and T_m is the time of moonset, then the best time is given by

$$T_b = (5 T_s + 4 T_m)/9 = T_s + \frac{4}{9} Lag \quad (4.1)$$

Provided the derivation of the Bruin curves is sound, they yield, amongst other things, a very simple rule for determining the best time. It is therefore an important exercise to re-determine Bruin's figure 9 using modern theories for the brightness of the twilight sky as a function of s , (and azimuth of the Sun), the brightness of the Moon as a function of phase, the minimum contrast observable to the human eye for a thin crescent shape, various effects of the atmosphere, such as seeing and extinction, the effects of age of the observer, and other relevant effects.

To this end I first attempted to re-determine figure 9 in Bruin (1977) using his theories, with the aid of the computer package called MathCad. I wanted to extend his curves to a wider range of W , and confirm my result for determining best time. Unfortunately my attempts failed, because scaling factors have to be applied to make the transformations produce sensible results. In his paper Bruin says he has applied a "Gestalt" factor to obtain his results.

From the curves in Figure 1 it appears that for $DAZ < 20^\circ$ Bruin adjusted his results to agree with the Indian method. Doggett and Schaefer (1994) have made some strong comments about Bruin's assumptions for his model, and they point out that some of his quantities are orders of magnitude out.

In spite of these difficulties Bruin's method is a very important approach to the problem because in principle it provides answers to many questions that the Maunder and Indian method cannot address. I am therefore making a fresh attempt to calculate Bruin's curves using the modern approach of Schaefer.

The problem of predicting heliacal rising and setting of stars is similar to the problem of predicting first sighting of the new crescent moon. Three relevant papers have been written by Schaefer (1985), (1986) and (1987) on this topic, and I have managed to reproduce his work, apart from some inconsistencies between the three papers, which still need sorting out. A fourth paper by Schaefer (1993a), repeats all the relevant formulae, but again there are inconsistencies. In this last paper he quotes the expression by Allen (1963) for the apparent magnitude of the Moon as a function of phase. This is the remaining piece of information that is needed in the calculation to predict first sighting of the new crescent moon.

In general, the magnitudes of the stars are fixed, and empirical rules are found for predicting heliacal rising and setting that depend upon magnitude and $ARCV$, Lockyer (1894). There is also some dependence upon DAZ , which is fixed for each star.

Unlike the stars, the Moon is always near to the Sun at first sighting. Moreover the apparent magnitude of the Moon depends upon $ARCL$, which in turn is a function of $ARCV$ and DAZ , and therefore we would expect there to be an empirical rule that is a function of $ARCV$ and DAZ for making the prediction. The problem reduces to finding an expression for that function. There is one difference in the calculation that is often overlooked in the literature, a star is a point source, whilst the Moon is a thin crescent.

I have to agree with Schaefer that his method is very short, taking only a few lines of programming. I can now produce theoretically the curves $ARCV$ as a function of DAZ , and even predict what happens in daylight. I could produce and extend the curves of Bruin to find the best time using modern theories, although there are more logical ways of performing this calculation using a computer. As Schaefer points out, using different extinction coefficients I find an enormous difference between a site at high altitude with a clear dry atmosphere, and one at sea level with a humid or dusty atmosphere, so my empirical approach must be confined to a specific type of site where altitudes above sea level and extinction factors are confined to within narrow limits.

5. The basic data set of observations for calibrating first visibility parameters.

A list of 252 observations of first sighting has been published by Schaefer, (1988) and by Doggett, and Schaefer, (1994). The list was later extended to 295 observations by Schaefer (1996). The list includes cases of both sightings as well as non-sightings. Even non-sightings provide relevant information for calibration purposes.

I have re-calculated these data using my simple rule for determining the best time, and displayed the set of 295 observations in order of decreasing q in Table 4. Columns numbered 1 to 18 have the following meaning:

- 1 Number from original list.
- 2, 3, 4 Date of observation in the form year, month, day.
- 5 Morning (M) or evening (E) observation.
- 6 Julian Date of astronomical new moon minus 2 400 000 days.
- 7, 8 Latitude and longitude of observation.
- 9, 10, 11 Arc of light ($ARCL$), arc of vision ($ARCV$) and relative azimuth (DAZ) at best time.
- 12 Age of the Moon (Age) in hours at best time.
- 13 Time in minutes from sunset to moonset (Lag).
- 14 Parallax of the Moon (π) in minutes of arc. Semi-diameter = 0.27245π .
- 15 Topocentric width of the crescent W' in minutes of arc.
- 16 The test parameter (q), which is derived from the Indian method, and is defined in section 6.
- 17 Schaefer's coded description (BES) of how each observation was made. If the only character is a "V", then the Moon was visible to the unaided eye. An "I" means it was not seen with the unaided eye. If the first character is followed by (F) then optical aid was used to find the Moon, which was then spotted with the unaided eye. If the first character is followed by (B) or (T) it was visible with binoculars or a telescope, respectively. In the second and third papers, the rules were changed as follows: If the first character is followed by (I) it was invisible with either binoculars or a telescope. If the first character is followed by (V) it was visible with either binoculars or a telescope.
- 18 A prediction (BDY) of how the observation would be made, based on Schaefer's coded description

Table 5: The q -test criteria

Criterion	Range	Remarks	Visibility Code
(A)	$q > +0.216$	Easily visible, $ARCL \geq 12^\circ$	V
(B)	$+0.216 \geq q > -0.014$	Visible under perfect conditions	V(V)
(C)	$-0.014 \geq q > -0.160$	May need optical aid to find crescent	V(F)
(D)	$-0.160 \geq q > -0.232$	Will need optical aid to find crescent	I(V)
(E)	$-0.232 \geq q > -0.293$	Not visible with a telescope, $ARCL \leq 8.5^\circ$	I(I)
(F)	$-0.293 \geq q$	Not visible, below Danjon limit, $ARCL \leq 8^\circ$	I

The limiting values of q were chosen for the six criteria A to F for the following reasons:

- (A) A lower limit is required to separate observations that are trivial from those that have some element of difficulty. After some experimentation, it was found that the ideal situation $ARCL = 12^\circ$ and $DAZ = 0^\circ$ produces a sensible cut-off point, for which $q = +0.216$. To avoid ambiguities, the constant geocentric quantity W defined by equation (3.4), that was adopted by Bruin for the crescent width, was used to calculate q from equation (6.1) instead of W' .

There are 166 examples in Table 4 when q exceeds this value, and in general it should be very easy to see the Moon in these cases, provided there is no obscuring cloud in the sky.

- (B) From observers reports it has been found that, in general, $q = 0$ is close to the lower limit for first visibility under perfect atmospheric conditions at sea level, without requiring optical aid. Table 4 is used to set this lower limit for visibility more precisely. From inspection of Table 4, the significance of $q = 0$ can be seen, but $q = -0.014$ is another possible cut-off value. There are 68 cases in Table 4 with q in this range.
- (C) Table 4 was used to find the cut-off point when optical aid is always needed to find the crescent moon by matching the q -test visibility code with Schaefer's code. The rounded value of $q = -0.160$ was chosen for the cut-off criterion. Entry number 44, the first entry in the next group, was ignored because it is false. In Table 4 there are 26 cases that satisfy this criterion.
- (D) In this case Table 4 has too few entries from which to estimate a lower limit for q . The situation is made worse by the fact that where there is an entry, in most cases, the Moon was not seen even with optical aid. In fact it is rare for the crescent to be observed below an apparent elongation of about 7.5° , see Fatoohi *et al.* (1998). Table 4 has 17 cases. This is the current limit below which it is not possible to see the thin crescent moon with a telescope.

Allowing 1° for horizontal parallax of the Moon, and ignoring the effect of refraction, for an apparent elongation of 7.5° , $ARCL = 8.5^\circ$. If $DAZ = 0^\circ$ this corresponds to a lower limit of $q = -0.232$. Without good finding telescopes and positional information, observers are unlikely to see the crescent below this limit. The only sighting that was seen both optically and visually near this limit was No. 278 for which $q = -0.222$. It is an important observation because it is the observation with the smallest elongation, see Table 6. If the Moon were observed near this elongation and it was also at or near perigee, Age would be about 12 hours.

- (E) There is a theoretical cut-off point when the apparent elongation of the Moon from the Sun is 7° , known as the Danjon limit. This limit is obtained by extrapolating observations made at larger elongations. Allowing 1° for horizontal parallax of the Moon, and ignoring the effect of refraction, an apparent elongation of 7° is equivalent to $ARCL = 8^\circ$. With $ARCL = 8^\circ$ and $DAZ = 0^\circ$ the corresponding lower limit on q is -0.293 .
- (F) In Table 4 there are only 17 cases in this range of q , but three of them (169, 194 and 195) contradict the q -test, in particular, 194 and 195 are anomalous observations. The main reason for the discrepancy must be due to the extremely clear atmosphere experienced on high altitude mountain sites. The elongations, however, are well above the Danjon limit, and since $ARCV$ is about 4° , the observations were probably made using daylight vision. These observations show that the curve $q = 0$ needs modifying for high

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