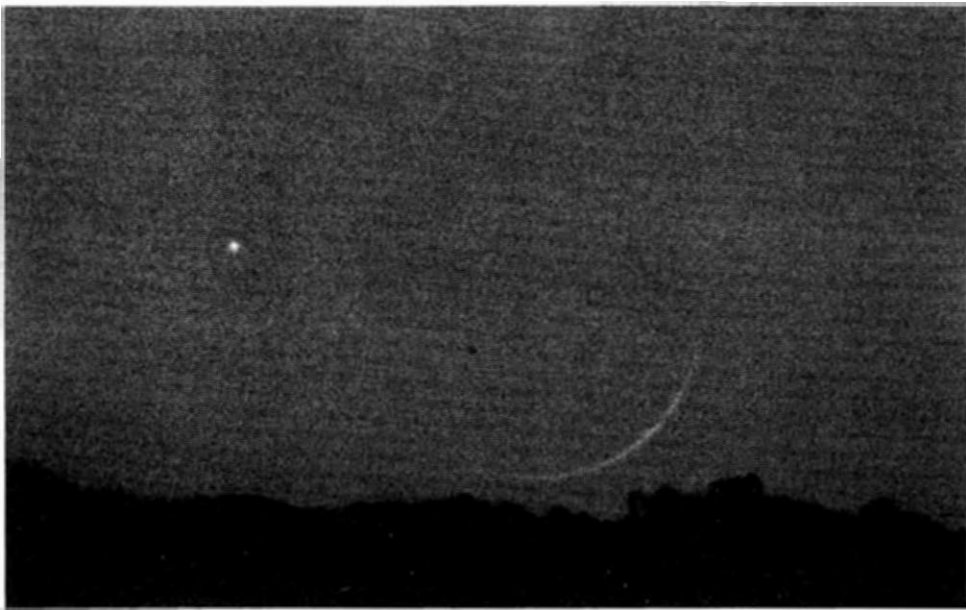


The Journal Of The Association Of Lunar And Planetary Observers

The Strolling Astronomer

Volume 42, Number 4

October, 2000 (Published January, 2001)

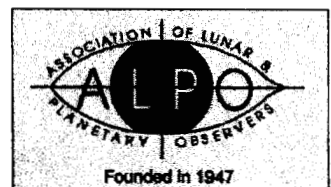


The planet Venus hangs above a cloud layer just 0.44 degrees to the left of the 24.3-hour old Moon as photographed by Cecil Post on 2000 August 01, 02h44m48s UT. One-second exposure on Ektachrome 200 slide film, 800-mm FL lens with camera on sidereal mount. Photographed from Las Cruces, New Mexico; Venus was occulted by the Moon as seen from the northwest United States, Western Canada, and Alaska.

THE ASSOCIATION OF LUNAR AND PLANETARY OBSERVERS

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A.L.P.O. OBSERVATIONS OF VENUS DURING THE 1997-98 EASTERN (EVENING) APPARITION

By: Julius L. Benton, Jr.,
A.L.P.O. Venus Coordinator

ABSTRACT

This report is a synopsis of visual, photographic and CCD observations contributed to the A.L.P.O. Venus Section by observers in the United States, Italy and Germany during the 1997-98 Eastern (Evening) Apparition, including instrumentation and data resources utilized in making those observations. Comparative studies deal with observers, instruments, and photovisual data. The report includes illustrations and a statistical analysis of the categories of features reported in the atmosphere of Venus, including cusps, cusp-caps, and cusp-bands, seen or suspected at visual wavelengths, both in integrated light and with color filters, as well as in a few ultraviolet photographs and images. Terminator irregularities and the apparent phase are discussed, as well as coverage based on results from continued monitoring of the dark hemisphere of Venus for the Ashen Light.

INTRODUCTION

A total of 99 drawings, photographs and CCD images of Venus were received by the A.L.P.O. Venus Section during the 1997-98 Eastern (Evening) Apparition. Geocentric phenomena in Universal Time (UT) for the 1997-98 Apparition are presented in *Table 1* (to right), while *Figure 1* (p. 150) illustrates the distribution of observations by month during the observing season.

Observational monitoring of Venus was generally good throughout the 1997-98 Eastern (Evening) Apparition. In what continues to be a desirable trend in recent apparitions, individuals started their observing programs soon after Venus emerged from Superior Conjunction (which occurred on 1997 APR 02), and they continued to follow the planet up to less than one day before Superior Conjunction on 1998 JAN 16. The "observing season," or observation period, ranged from 1997 APR 06 to 1998 JAN 15, with over five-sixths of the observations (85 percent) submitted for the period from 1997 June through December.

Eight individuals contributed a total of 99 visual and photographic observations of Venus during the 1997-98 Apparition, and *Table 2* (p. 150) gives their observing sites, number of observations, and instruments used.

Figure 2 (p. 151) depicts the distribution of observers and contributed

Table 1. Geocentric Phenomena in Universal Time (UT) for the 1997-98 Eastern (Evening) Apparition of Venus

	1997	
Superior Conjunction	APR 02 ^d	14 ^h
Initial Observation	APR 06	09
Dichotomy (predicted)	NOV 05	05
Greatest Elongation East (47°)	NOV 06	07
Greatest Brilliancy ($m_V = -4.7$)	DEC 11	23
	1998	
Final Observation	JAN 15	21
Inferior Conjunction	JAN 16	11
<i>Observed Range:</i>		
Apparent Diameter, d:	9".67-	(1997 APR 06)
	62".51	(1998 JAN 15)
Phase Coefficient, k):	1.000-	(1997 APR 06)
	0.005	(1998 JAN 15)

observations by nation of origin for the 1997-98 Eastern (Evening) Apparition. Three-quarters of the individuals contributing to the A.L.P.O. Venus Section (75 percent) were located in the United States but accounted for slightly less than half (45 percent) of the total observations received. As in several recent previous apparitions, international participation in our programs continued in an apparent favorable response to our efforts to foster increased cooperation among lunar and planetary observers worldwide.

The types of telescopes employed to perform observations of Venus in 1997-98 are shown graphically in *Figure 3* (p. 151). The overwhelming majority (98 percent) of observations in 1997-98 were made with astronomical instru-

Table 2. A.L.P.O. Venus Observers During the 1997-98 Eastern (Evening) Apparition.

Observer and Observing Site	No. Observations	Telescope(s) Used*
Benton, Julius L, Jr.; Wilmington Island, GA	30	15.2-cm (6.0-in) REF
Boisclair, Norman J.; South Glens Falls, NY	1	50.8-cm (20.0-in) NEW
Frassati, Mario; Crescentino, Italy	4	20.3-cm (8.0-in) SCT
	1	31.8-cm (12.5-in) NEW
Haas, Walter H.; Las Cruces, NM	1	20.3-cm (8.0-in) NEW
	1	31.8-cm (12.5-in) NEW
Melillo, Frank J.; Holtsville, NY	3	20.3-cm (8.0-in) SC
Niechoy, Detlev; Göttingen, Germany	2	10.2-cm (4.0-in) REF
	47	20.3-cm (8.0-in) SC
Post, Cecil; Las Cruces, NM	5	20.3-cm (8.0-in) NEW
Schmude, Richard W., Jr.; Barnesville, GA	4	50.8-cm (20.0-in) NEW
Total Number of Observers	8	
Total Number of Observations	99	

*REF = Refractor, SC = Schmidt-Cassegrain, NEW = Newtonian

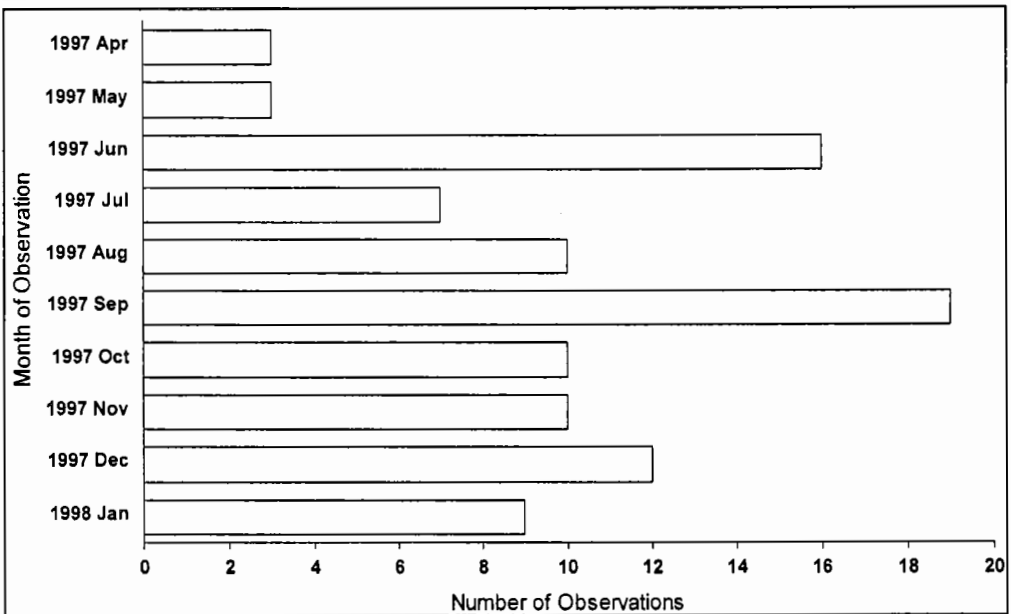


Figure 1. Distribution of observations by month during the 1997-98 Eastern (Evening) Apparition of Venus.

ments 15.2 cm (6.0 in) in aperture or larger, and classical designs (e.g., refractors and Newtonians) were used to make a little less than half (45 percent) of the observations; the remainder (55 percent) were made with Schmidt-Cassegrains.

During 1997-98, most observations (83 percent) were conducted under dark-sky conditions, although a few observers attempted their observations in twilight to avoid spurious atmospheric effects near the horizon.

The A.L.P.O. Venus Section Coordinator expresses his sincere gratitude to the eight individuals mentioned in this report who carefully followed Venus

and submitted photovisual observations during 1997-98. Readers desiring to learn more about the planet Venus are encouraged to join the A.L.P.O. and become regular participants to our observational programs in forthcoming apparitions.

OBSERVATIONS OF VENUSIAN ATMOSPHERIC DETAILS

Standard procedures and techniques for conducting visual studies of the vague and elusive "markings" in the atmosphere of Venus are discussed in detail in *The Venus Handbook* (Benton, 1987). Readers who have access to earli-

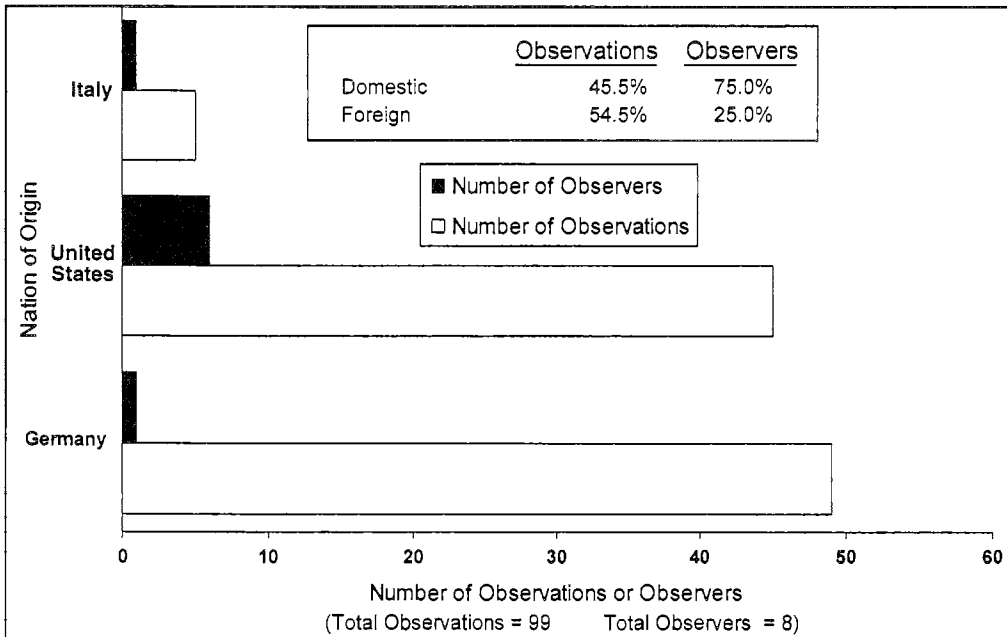


Figure 2. Distribution of observers and observations by nation of origin during the 1997-98 Eastern (Evening) Apparition of Venus.

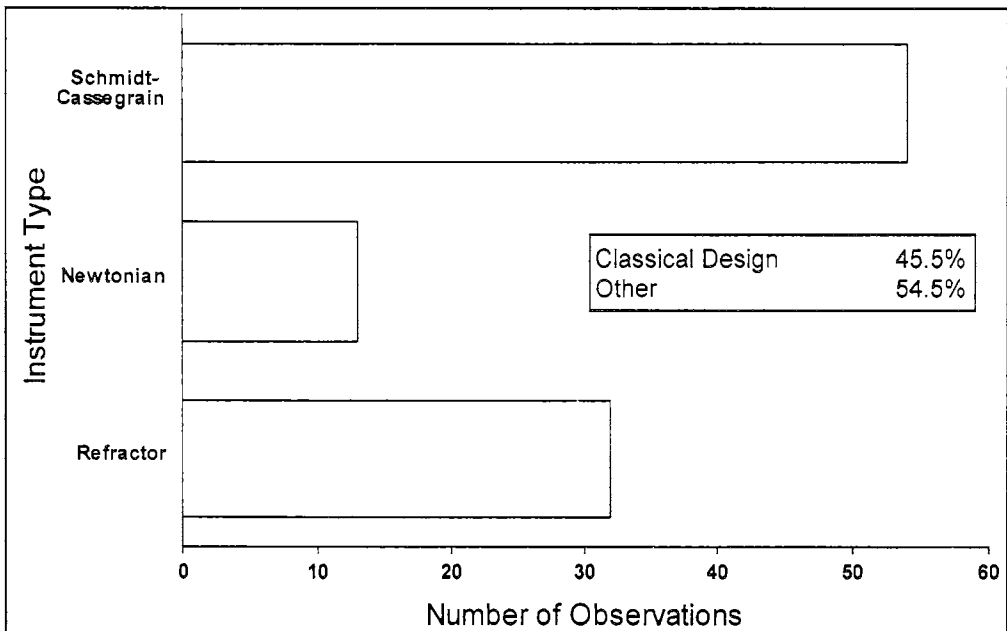
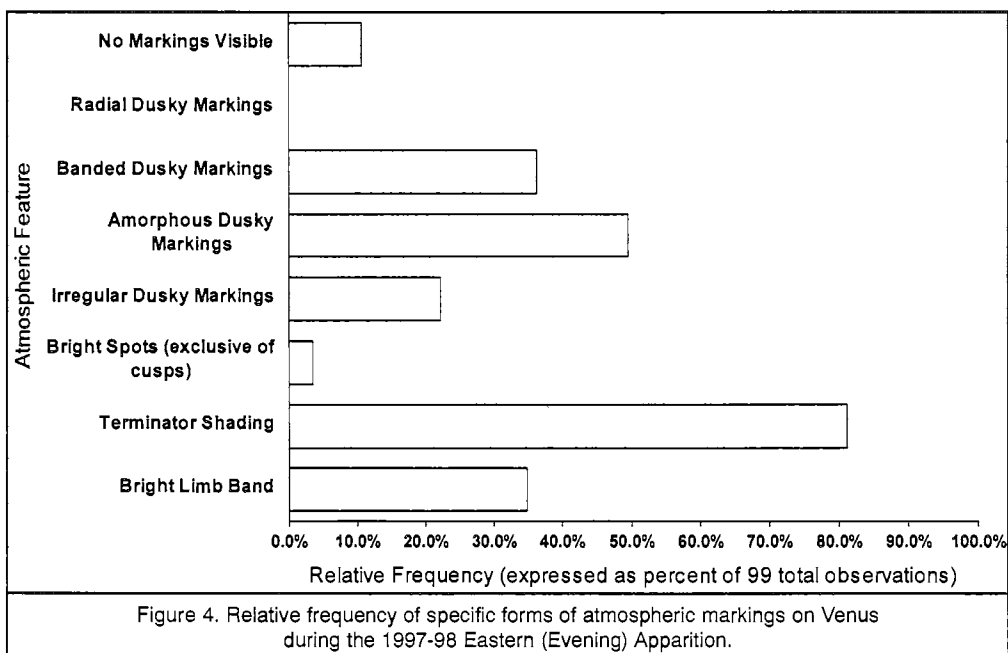


Figure 3. Types of telescopes used during the 1997-98 Eastern (Evening) Apparition of Venus. "Classical Design" consists of refractors and Newtonian reflectors.

er issues of this Journal may find it beneficial to consult previous apparition reports for a historical perspective on photo-visual studies of the planet Venus by A.L.P.O. observers.

The great majority of observations utilized in this analysis were made at visual wavelengths, and several examples of these observations in the form of draw-

ings and a CCD image appear in this report to aid the reader in interpreting the phenomena reported in the atmosphere of Venus in 1997-98. As was the case in the last two apparitions, Frank Melillo continued his painstaking efforts to obtain images of Venus in ultraviolet wavelengths, and one of his CCD images accompanies this report (*Figure 10*, p. 157).



With the exception of radial dusky markings, the visual and photographic data for the 1997-98 Apparition represented all of the traditional categories of dusky and bright markings in Venus' atmosphere as described in the literature referenced at the end of this report. *Figure 4* (above) illustrates the frequency that the specific forms of markings were seen or suspected. Most observations referred to more than a single category of marking or feature, and thus totals exceeding 100 percent are possible. Readers should realize, too, that a rather high incidence of subjectivity is inherent in visual attempts to describe the extremely elusive atmospheric markings of Venus. This undoubtedly affected the data in *Figure 4*, but it is believed that conclusions deduced from these data are at least reasonable.

Any dusky markings in the atmosphere of Venus are notoriously troublesome to detect visually, which is a characteristic of the planet that is largely independent of the experience of the observer. Using color filters and variable-density polarizers helps reveal subtle cloud phenomena on Venus at visual wavelengths, but the A.L.P.O. Venus Section continues to encourage observers to try UV photography or CCD images. The morphology of features revealed at UV wavelengths is usually quite different from what is seen in visual regions of the spectrum, particularly radial dusky patterns.

Figure 4 shows that a small portion (11 percent) of the observations of Venus in 1997-98 referred to a brilliant completely featureless disc, similar to the situation in the 1996-97 Western (Morning) Apparition, but contrasting with several earlier apparitions of the planet. When dusky features were seen or suspected, most were classed as "Banded Dusky Markings" (36 percent), "Amorphous Dusky Markings" (50 percent), and "Irregular Dusky Markings" (22 percent). No sightings of "Radial Dusky Markings" were reported during the 1997-98 Eastern (Evening) Apparition. In a few of Melillo's images taken in near ultraviolet wavelengths, a few vague dusky atmospheric features are apparent.

Terminator shading was apparent during much of the 1997-98 observing season, reported in 81 percent of the observations, as shown in *Figure 4*. The terminator shading usually extended from one cusp region to the other, and the shading appeared to lighten (i.e., take on a higher intensity) as one progressed from the region of the terminator toward the bright limb of the planet. This gradual variance in brightness ended in the Bright Limb Band in most accounts. In a few of Melillo's photographs in 1997-98, terminator shading appears to be represented.

The mean relative intensity for all of the dusky features on Venus in 1997-98 ranged from 8.0 to 8.5. [This scale runs from 0.0 for completely black to

10.0 for the brightest possible condition. Ed.] The A.L.P.O. Scale of Conspicuousness (which runs sequentially from 0.0 for “definitely not seen” up to 10.0 for “certainly seen”) was also used regularly during 1997-98. On this scale, the dusky markings in Figure 4 had a mean conspicuousness of 3.5 during the apparition, which suggests that these features fell within the range from very indistinct impressions to fairly good indications of their actual presence on Venus.

Figure 4 also shows that “Bright Spots or Regions,” exclusive of the cusp areas, were seen or suspected in only 3.5 percent of the total submitted observations, and these areas had a derived mean relative intensity of 9.2 to 9.8. In drawings made at visual wavelengths, observers called attention to such bright areas by sketching in dotted lines around such features, and although these features were completely absent on photographs in integrated light, perhaps one of Melillo’s near-ultraviolet photographs shows barely perceptible bright regions.

Observers routinely used color filters during the 1997-98 Apparition, and when results were compared with studies in integrated light, it was obvious that variable-density polarizers and color filters improved the visibility of vague atmospheric phenomena on Venus.

THE BRIGHT LIMB BAND

Figure 4 shows that a “Bright Limb Band” on the sunlit hemisphere of Venus was apparent in 35 percent of the submitted observations in 1997-98. When the Bright Limb Band was reported, it appeared as a continuous, brilliant arc extending from cusp to cusp 78 percent of the time, and was interrupted or only partially visible along the limb of Venus in 22 percent of the positive reports. The mean numerical intensity of the Bright Limb Band was 9.9 and this feature was definitely more conspicuous when color filters or variable-density polarizers were used. Although visual observers referred to the dazzling brightness of this feature in 1997-98, it was not apparent on any photographs of Venus that were submitted.

TERMINATOR IRREGULARITIES

The terminator is the geometric curve that divides the sunlit and dark

hemispheres of Venus. Observers described an irregular or asymmetric terminator in slightly more than one third (38 percent) of the observations in 1997-98. Amorphous, banded, and irregular dusky atmospheric markings appeared to blend with the dusky shading along the terminator, perhaps contributing to reported deformities. Filter techniques enhanced the visibility of terminator irregularities and dusky atmospheric features closely associated with them during the 1997-98 Apparition. Because of irradiation, bright features adjacent to the terminator may occasionally look like bulges, and dark features may appear as dusky hollows.

CUSPS, CUSP-CAPS, AND CUSP-BANDS

In general, when the phase coefficient, k (the fraction of the disc that is illuminated), lies between 0.1 and 0.8, features on Venus having the most contrast and prominence are repeatedly sighted at or near the planet’s cusps. These cusp-caps are sometimes bordered by what are described as dark, usually diffuse, cusp-bands. Figure 5 (p. 154) shows the visibility statistics for Venesian cusp features in 1997-98.

Figure 5 illustrates that, when the northern and southern cusp-caps of Venus were observed in 1997-98, these features were almost always equal in size and brightness. There were a very few instances when either the northern or southern cusp-cap was the larger, the brighter, or both, and in slightly more than a quarter of the observations submitted (29 percent), neither cusp-cap was visible. The mean relative intensity of the cusp-caps was about 9.8 during the 1997-98 Apparition. Dusky cusp-bands bordering the bright cusp-caps were not reported in 36 percent of the observations when cusp-caps were visible (see Figure 5), and the cusp-bands displayed a mean relative intensity of about 6.8.

CUSP EXTENSIONS

As can be seen in Figure 5, there were no cusp extensions reported beyond the 180° expected from simple geometry in 87 percent of the observations (in integrated light and with color filters). Later in the apparition, as Venus progressed through increasingly crescentic phases

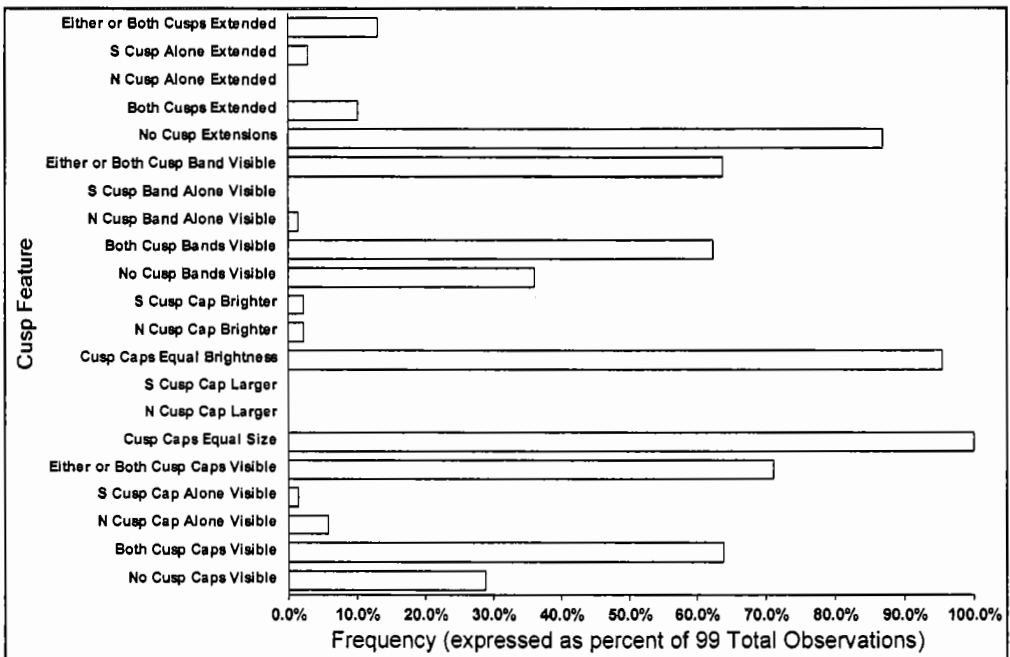


Figure 5. Visibility statistics of cusp features of Venus during the 1997-98 Eastern (Evening) Apparition.

approaching inferior conjunction in 1997-98, several observers recorded cusp extensions that ranged from 2° to 10° . Just before inferior conjunction, a few observers reported (especially in a W47 dark-blue filter) the cusps joining along the planet's unilluminated limb, forming a complete halo encircling the dark hemisphere of Venus. Reported cusp extensions were shown on drawings, with their appearance enhanced by color filters and polarizers, but none were photographed successfully. Experience has shown that cusp extensions are very difficult to document on film due to the fact that the sunlit regions of Venus are so much brighter than the faint extensions. Observers are encouraged to try their hand at recording cusp extensions using CCD or video cameras in future apparitions.

ESTIMATES OF DICHOTOMY

A discrepancy between the predicted and the observed dates of dichotomy (half-phase), known as the "Schröter Effect" on Venus, was reported by observers during the 1997-98 Eastern (Evening) Apparition. The predicted half-phase occurs when $k = 0.500$, and the phase angle, i , between the Sun and the Earth as seen from Venus, equals 90° . The observed-minus-predicted discrepancies for 1997-98 are given in Table 3 (right).

DARK HEMISPHERE PHENOMENA AND ASHEN LIGHT OBSERVATIONS

The Ashen Light, first reported by G. Riccioli in 1643, refers to an extremely elusive, faint illumination of Venus' dark hemisphere. Although it does not have the same origin, the Ashen Light resembles Earthshine on the dark portion of the Moon. Most observers agree that

Table 3. Observed versus Predicted Dichotomy of Venus: 1997-98 Eastern (Evening) Apparition.

Observers: J. Benton D. Niechoy

a. UT Dates (1997).

Observed (O)	Nov 01.10	Oct 29.70
Predicted (P)	Nov 05.22	Nov 05.22
Difference (O-P)	-4.12 ^d	-6.52 ^d

b. Phase (k).

Observed (O)	0.500	0.500
Predicted (P)	0.520	0.532
Difference (O-P)	-0.020	-0.032

c. Phase Angle (i, degrees).

Observed (O)	90.0	90.0
Predicted (P)	87.7	86.4
Difference (O-P)	+2.3	+3.6

Venus must be viewed against a completely dark sky for the Ashen Light to be seen, but this condition occurs only when the planet is very low in the sky where adverse terrestrial atmospheric conditions contribute to poor seeing. Also, substantial glare in contrast with the surrounding dark sky influences such observations. Even so, the A.L.P.O. Venus Section continues to hear from observers who say they have seen the Ashen Light when Venus was in a twilight sky.

During 1997-98, there were only three instances (3 percent of the observations) when the Ashen Light was suspected in integrated light, color filters, or variable-density polarizers. On rare occasions a few observers vaguely suspected the presence of the Ashen Light, but confirmation was lacking. There a few times during the 1997-98 Eastern (Evening) Apparition (in 4 percent of the observations) when observers said they thought they could see the dark hemisphere of Venus appearing darker than the surrounding sky. This phenomenon, in reality, is almost certainly a contrast effect.

CONCLUSIONS

The results of our analysis of visual and photographic observations contributed to the A.L.P.O. Venus Section during the 1997-98 Eastern (Evening) Apparition of Venus suggested limited activity in the atmosphere of the Venus. It has already been mentioned that it very difficult to differentiate between what may be genuine atmospheric phenomena and what is merely illusory on Venus at visual wavelengths. A greater level of confidence in our results will improve as the number of observers and incidence of simultaneous observations increases. The A.L.P.O. Venus Section is continuing the effort to organize and implement a simultaneous observation schedule during 2000 and subsequent years so that observers in relative proximity to one another can establish times to follow Venus when others (using similar methods and equipment) are viewing the planet. A simultaneous observing schedule is expected to appear on the A.L.P.O. website (www.lpl.arizona.edu/alpo) in the very near future. In addition to routine observations, the A.L.P.O. Venus Section needs many more ultraviolet photographs of the planet, as well as CCD images of

Venus in different wavelengths. We are attempting to standardize and improve observational techniques and methodology for more effective comparison of results among apparitions.

A.L.P.O. studies of the Ashen Light, which peaked in 1988 during the Pioneer Venus Orbiter Project, are continuing every apparition. Constant monitoring of the planet for the presence of this phenomenon by a large number of observers (ideally participating in a simultaneous observing program) remains important as a means of improving our chances of capturing confirmed dark hemisphere events.

Active international cooperation by individuals making regular systematic, simultaneous observations of Venus continues to be our prime objective, and the A.L.P.O. Venus Section invites interested readers to join us in our projects and challenges ahead.

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The drawings and photographs that follow (Figures 6-15) have had their contrast enhanced and are oriented with the South Pole of Venus at top. Any that were originally drawn reversed have been rectified, as noted in their captions. Unless otherwise stated, Seeing (*S*) is in the Standard A.L.P.O. Scale (0 = worst to 10 = perfect) and Transparency (*Tr*) is the limiting visual stellar magnitude in the vicinity of Venus. *k* is the phase coefficient and *d* is the angular diameter. Ephemeris data are from *The Astronomical Almanac*, 1997 and 1998 editions.

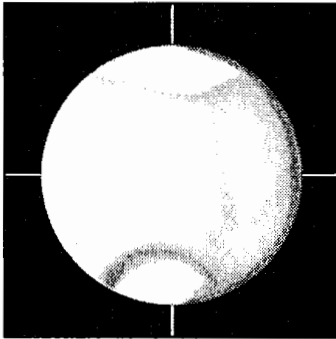


Figure 6. Drawing of Venus by D. Niechoy. 1997 JUN 01, 08^h09^m UT. 20.3-cm (8.0-in) Schmidt-Cassegrain, 112X, integrated light. *S* = 2.0, *Tr* = 2.0 (daylight). *k* = 0.962, *d* = 10".2. Original reversed.

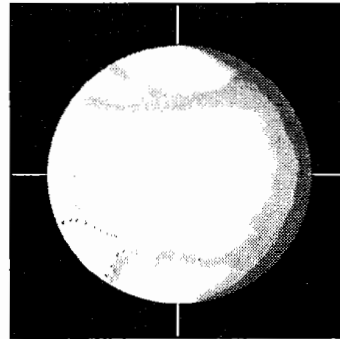


Figure 7. Drawing of Venus by D. Niechoy. 1997 JUL 01, 10^h35^m UT. 20.3-cm (8.0-in) Schmidt-Cassegrain, 112X, integrated light. *S* = 2.0, *Tr* = 2.0 (daylight). *k* = 0.888, *d* = 11".4. Original reversed.

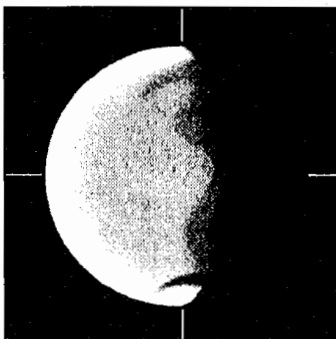


Figure 8. Drawing of Venus by Mario Frassati. 1997 SEP 09, 17^h35^m UT. 20.3-cm (8.0-in) Schmidt-Cassegrain, 300X, integrated light. *S* = 6.0 (interpolated), daylight. *k* = 0.725 (estimated as 0.70), *d* = 15".2.

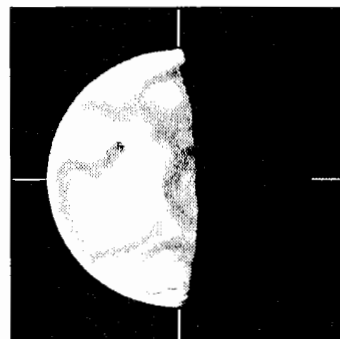


Figure 9. Drawing of Venus by D. Niechoy. 1997 SEP 20, 15^h14^m UT. 20.3-cm (8.0-in) Schmidt-Cassegrain, 112X, integrated light. *S* = 2.0, *Tr* = 2.0 (daylight). *k* = 0.687, *d* = 16".4. Original reversed.

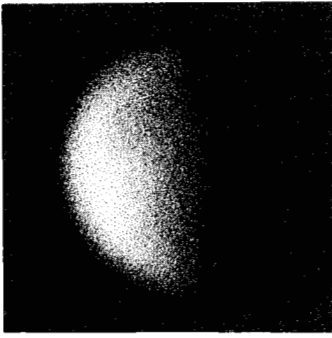


Figure 10. CCD image of Venus by Frank Melillo. 1997 Oct 12, 22h30m-22h31m UT. 20.3-cm (8.0-in) Schmidt-Cassegrain, 6-second exposure at f/20. Schott UG-1 Ultraviolet Filter with Starlight Xpress MX-5 CCD camera. $S = 8.0$, $Tr = +4.5$ (daylight). $k = 0.605$ (estimated as 0.60), $d = 19''.6$.

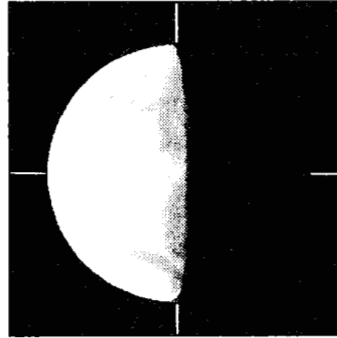


Figure 11. Drawing of Venus by D. Niechoy. 1997 Oct 31, 16h41m UT. 20.3-cm (8.0-in) Schmidt-Cassegrain, 225X, integrated light. $S = 3.0$, $Tr = +3.0$. $k = 0.523$, $d = 23''.5$.

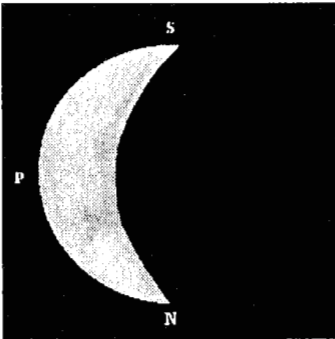


Figure 12. Drawing of Venus by Richard Schmude. 1997 Nov 27, 18h18m-18h27m UT. 50.8-cm (20.0-in) Newtonian, 95X, integrated light and W80A (blue) Filter. $S = 4.0$, $Tr = 5.5$ (daylight). $k = 0.368$ (estimated as 0.38), $d = 33''.0$.

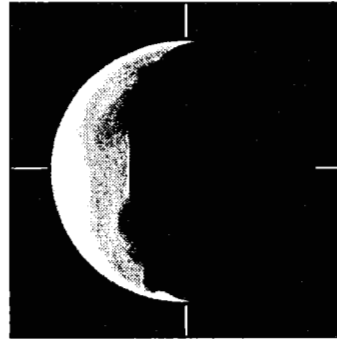


Figure 13. Drawing of Venus by Mario Frassati. 1997 Dec 12, 14h23m UT. 20.3-cm (8.0-in) Schmidt-Cassegrain, 222X, integrated light. $S = 6.0$ (interpolated), $Tr =$ medium (daylight). $k = 0.253$ (estimated as 0.28), $d = 41''.5$.

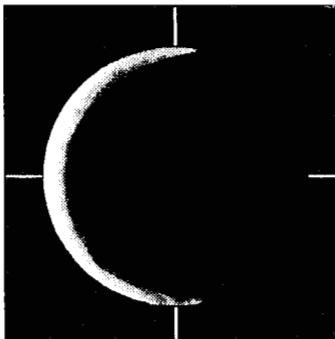


Figure 14. Drawing of Venus by D. Niechoy. 1997 Dec 30, 16h27m UT. 20.3-cm (8.0-in) Schmidt-Cassegrain, 225X, W25 (red) Filter. $S = 3.0$, $Tr = +3.0$. $k = 0.089$, $d = 55''.2$. Original reversed.

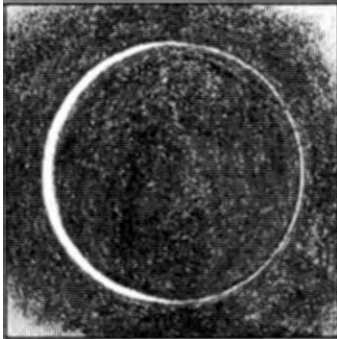


Figure 15. Drawing of Venus by Cecil Post. 1998 JAN 09, 20h36m-21h17m UT. 20.3-cm (8.0-in) Newtonian, 156X, integrated light and W21 (orange), W23A (light red), W11 (yellowish-green), W25 (red) and W80A (blue) Filters. $S = 2.0-4.0$, $Tr =$ "mild haze, scattered cirrus clouds." $k = 0.019$, $d = 61''.3$. Mr. Post noted "Cusp extension flashed into view. Very thin and pale. Strong suggestion I could see dark side."

OBSERVATIONS OF THE REMOTE PLANETS IN 1999

By: Richard W. Schmude, Jr.,
A.L.P.O. Remote Planets Coordinator

ABSTRACT

A total of 138 photoelectric magnitude measurements were made of Uranus and Neptune in 1999 and the selected normalized magnitudes of Uranus are: $B(1,0) = -6.65 \pm 0.02$, $V(1,0) = -7.16 \pm 0.02$, $R(1,0) = -6.89 \pm 0.04$ and $I(1,0) = -5.60 \pm 0.04$ while the corresponding values for Neptune are: $B(1,0) = -6.62 \pm 0.02$, $V(1,0) = -6.99 \pm 0.02$, $R(1,0) = -6.61 \pm 0.04$ and $I(1,0) = -5.61 \pm 0.04$. A bright spot was strongly suspected on Uranus by three individuals in September, 1999. Spectra of Uranus and Neptune, at a resolution of 30 Å, show several methane absorption bands. The spectra also show that the light intensity at wavelengths greater than 6500 Å drops off more slowly for Uranus than for Neptune.

INTRODUCTION

In the last three years, six new moons have been discovered orbiting Uranus [*Sky & Telescope*, 1998, 19; 1999a, 22; 1999b, 24] and amateur Paul Boltwood has imaged one of these new moons [*Sky & Telescope*, 1999b, 128]. In a second major development, Neptune has been imaged to a resolution of 0.05 arc-seconds with the Keck II telescope combined with adaptive optics; this is a better resolution than the Hubble Space Telescope achieves [*Sky & Telescope*, 2000, 21]. Finally, one other significant event has taken place in the A.L.P.O. Remote Planets Section — Frank Melillo

has succeeded in imaging the spectra of Uranus and Neptune. This report will summarize observations made of the Remote Planets in 1999.

Table 1 (lower left) lists the characteristics of the 1999 apparitions of Uranus, Neptune and Pluto. Nine individuals submitted observations of Uranus and Neptune in 1999; their names, locations and types of observations are summarized in *Table 2* (bottom left).

PHOTOELECTRIC PHOTOMETRY

Three people (Brian Loader, Frank Melillo and the author) submitted photoelectric magnitudes of Uranus and Neptune in 1999. In all cases, an SSP-3 solid state photoelectric photometer was used, this instrument is described elsewhere [*Optec*, 1997; Schmude, 1992, 20]. Loader carried out his measurements from New Zealand, and he used a 0.20-m Schmidt-Cassegrain telescope. Melillo also used a 0.20-m Schmidt-Cassegrain telescope, making his measurements from Long Island, New York. The author used a 0.51-m Newtonian telescope near Villa Rica, Georgia. *Table 3* (p. 159) lists the comparison stars used in the photoelectric measurements.

The measurements made by Loader and the author were all corrected for both atmospheric extinction and transformation. Loader carried out mea-

Table 1. Characteristics of the 1999 Apparitions of Uranus, Neptune and Pluto.

[Data were taken from the 1998, 1999 and 2000 *Astronomical Almanac*.]

Parameter	Uranus	Neptune	Pluto
First conjunction date	1999 FEB 02	1999 JAN 22	1998 Nov 30
Opposition date	1999 AUG 07	1999 JUL 26	1999 MAY 31
Angular diameter (opposition)	3".7	2".3	0".1
Right ascension (opposition)	21h 10m	20h 21m	16h 37m
Declination (opposition)	-17°03'	-19°13'	-10°05'
Second conjunction date	2000 FEB 06	2000 JAN 24	1999 DEC 03

Table 2. Contributors to the A.L.P.O. Remote Planets Section in 1999.

Observer and Location	Type of Observation*
Normal Boisclair; South Glenn Falls, NY	C, V
Brian Cudnik; Weimar, TX	C, V, VP
Bob English; Franklin, TN	V
Robin Gray; Winnemucca, NV	C, V, VP
Walter Haas; Las Cruces, NM	H
Brian Loader; New Zealand	PP
Frank Melillo; Holtsville, NY	CCD, PP, S
Donald Parker; Coral Gables, FL	CCD
Richard Schmude, Jr.; Barnesville and Villa Rica, GA	PP, V, VP

* C = Color, CCD = CCD image, H = Historical, PP = photoelectric photometry, S = Spectra, V = visible description/drawing, VP = visual photometry.

Table 3. Comparison stars used for Photoelectric Magnitude Measurements in 1999.

Star	Position (2000.0) ^a		Magnitude ^b			
	R.A.	Dec.	B	V	R	I
HD192773	20 ^h 17.3 ^m	-19° 58'	8.96	7.86	---	---
HD194213	20 ^h 25.1 ^m	-19° 26'	7.84	6.83	---	---
HD194473	20 ^h 26.4 ^m	-19° 09'	8.05	7.55	---	---
ρ Cap	20 ^h 28.9 ^m	-17° 49'	5.18	4.80	4.46	4.26
HD196078	20 ^h 35.5 ^m	-16° 32'	6.39	6.19	---	---
HD199947	21 ^h 00.9 ^m	-17° 32'	7.34	6.07	---	---
HD202261	21 ^h 15.1 ^m	-17° 21'	7.03	6.05	---	---

^aAll positions are from Hirshfeld *et al.* (1991).

^bMagnitudes are from the program GUIDE except for ρ Cap which is from Iriarte *et al.* (1965) and HD 196078 which is from Hirshfeld *et al.* (1991).

measurements of the two stars: SAO 205871 and SAO 205899 and from these, transformation coefficients of $\epsilon_B = +0.235$ and $\epsilon_V = +0.013$ were computed. The author used χ Peg and γ Peg as the red and blue star combination and computed transformation coefficients of $\epsilon_B = +0.091$, $\epsilon_V = -0.019$, $\epsilon_R = -0.072$ and $\epsilon_I = -0.107$ for his system. Loader's data had smaller extinction corrections than those for the author because of the high altitudes of Uranus and Neptune from New Zealand.

All photoelectric measurements of Uranus are summarized in *Table 4* (pp. 161-162) while those of Neptune are summarized in *Table 5* (p. 162). Selected normalized magnitude of Uranus and Neptune are listed in *Table 6* (below). The normalized magnitudes, $X_{(1,0)}$ are computed from:

$$X_{(1,0)} = X - 5.00 \log [r \Delta] \quad (1)$$

where X is the measured magnitude, r is the planet-Earth distance and Δ is the planet-Sun distance; both r and Δ are in astronomical units [one astronomical unit, or AU, is the mean distance from the Earth to the Sun, or 149,597,870 km].

The normalized V-filter magnitude for Uranus is $V_{(1,0)} = -7.16 \pm 0.02$, which is the same as in 1998 [Schmude, 2000] but is a little dimmer than the 1991 value of -7.20 ± 0.02 [Schmude, 1992, 20]. The

Table 6. Selected Normalized Magnitudes for Uranus and Neptune in 1999.
(The number of measurements is given in brackets.)

Planet	Normalized Magnitude			
	B(1.0)	V(1.0)	R(1.0)	I(1.0)
Uranus	-6.65±0.02 [20]	-7.16±0.02 [30]	-6.89±0.04 [1]	-5.60±0.04 [1]
Neptune	-6.62±0.02 [19]	-7.00±0.02 [39]	-6.61±0.03 [2]	-5.61±0.03 [2]

1991 and 1999 values are consistent with the notion that Uranus has decreased in V-filter brightness by about 0.005 magnitudes per year in the 1990s.

The normalized V-filter magnitude of Neptune in 1999 was $V_{(1,0)} = -6.99 \pm 0.02$ which is similar to the 1998 value but is brighter than the 1991 value of -6.91 ± 0.02 . The 1991 and 1999 values suggest that Neptune increased in V-filter brightness by about 0.010 magnitude per year in the 1990s.

Melillo reports that Uranus was a little fainter in the infrared in 1999 than in 1998 and 1997. He also believes that Uranus was less active in 1999 than in the previous two years.

VISUAL MAGNITUDE ESTIMATES

Three individuals submitted 52 and 35 visual magnitudes of Uranus and Neptune respectively. The mean normalized magnitudes are -7.1 ± 0.02 and -6.9 ± 0.02 for Uranus and Neptune respectively. As in the 1998 report, [Schmude, 2000] only the random errors are included in the uncertainty.

URANUS AND NEPTUNE DISC APPEARANCE

Six people submitted visual observations of Uranus and Neptune in 1999. *Figure 1* (p. 160) shows a CCD image of Uranus made by Parker, taken in 1995, which is a composite of 9 images made close together in time. Cudnik, Gray and Schmude all suspected a bright spot on Uranus in 1999. English observed a bright area on Uranus on 1999 OCT 17.04; however, this was not confirmed by Cudnik 75 minutes later. Under average and better seeing conditions, no detail was seen on Uranus on the following 1999 dates: AUG 30.22, SEP 06.33, OCT 11.19, OCT 17.09 and Nov 07.06; no detail was seen on Neptune on: OCT 17.11 and Nov 07.05.

Boisclair used a 0.51-m (20-in) Newtonian telescope and reported

SPECTRA OF URANUS AND NEPTUNE

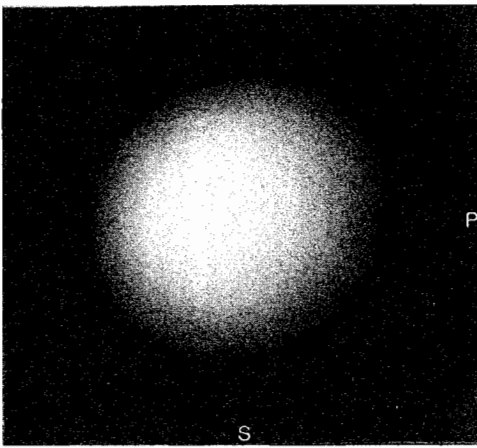


Figure 1: A CCD image of Uranus made on 1995 Jul 09, 07h30m UT, by Donald Parker. This view is a composite of 9 individual images.

a moderate yellow color for Uranus and a faint gray color for Neptune. Cudnik and Gray both reported various bluish-green hues for Uranus and Neptune.

Melillo submitted spectra of both Uranus and Neptune in 1999. A spectrum is a graph of light intensity versus the color of light. Each color of visible light has its own unique wavelength range. *Figure 2* (below) shows the spectra of Uranus and Neptune recorded by Melillo; the vertical axis is the light intensity and the horizontal axis is the light wavelength in angstroms. One angstrom is 1.0×10^{-10} m (the symbol for angstrom is Å). The colors for the wavelengths plotted along the bottom axis are approximately shown on the top axis of each spectrum.

Absorption bands (intensity minima) are in the Uranus spectrum at wavelengths of 5430, 5740, 6190, 6640, 6920, 7260, 7910, 8370 and 8680 Å. The bands at 5430, 6190, 7260 and 8680 Å are due to methane [Fegley *et al.*, 1991, 152-154]. The 6920- and 7910-Å bands may

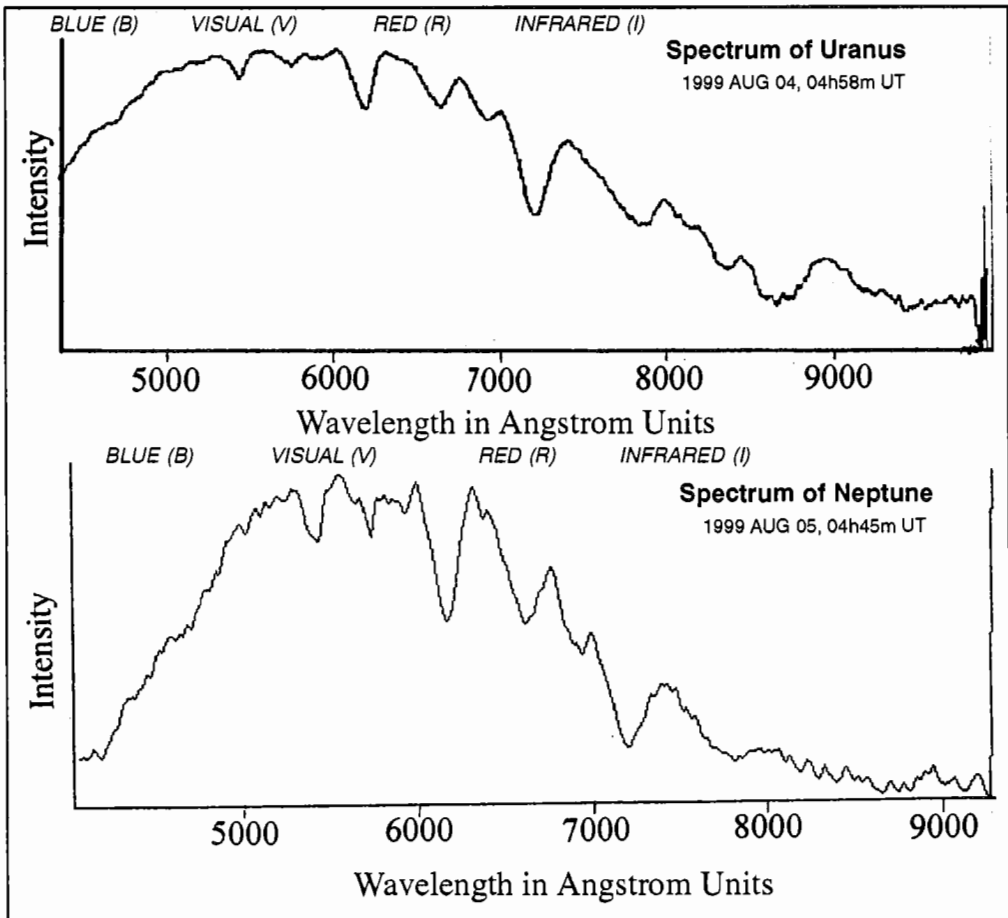


Figure 2: Spectra of Uranus (top) and Neptune (bottom) made by Melillo with a CCD camera. A 0.20-m Schmidt-Cassegrain telescope was used along with a spectroscope manufactured by Rainbow Optics.

be the 6818.9-Å and 7800-Å methane bands described in Fegley *et al.* [1991, 152-154]. The spectrum of Neptune shows absorption features similar to that of Uranus; however, there is one difference: the light intensity at wavelengths greater than 6500 Å drops off more slowly for Uranus than for Neptune.

Melillo also photographed Uranus and Neptune with and without a methane-band filter, using a 200-mm telephoto lens. The methane-band filter's transmission was centered on 8900 Å. Uranus and Neptune were not visible in the methane-band filter photograph, although the faintest objects in the photograph had a magnitude of +11.

Meilllo made an unfiltered CCD image of Uranus, Titania and Oberon on 1999 AUG 10 at 06^h00^m UT. At that time, both Titania and Oberon were at greatest elongation. Melillo reports that Titania was 0.33 magnitudes brighter than Oberon.

CONCLUSION

The photoelectric V-filter measurements of Uranus and Neptune are similar to the 1998 values but are different from those in 1991. On average, Uranus has dimmed by 0.005 magnitudes/year in the 1990s whereas Neptune has brightened by 0.010 magnitudes/year during that same period. A bright spot on Uranus was suspected by three people in September of 1999. Melillo imaged spectra of Uranus and Neptune in August, 1999, showing methane absorption features.

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Sky & Telescope. (2000) Vol. 99, No. 3 (Mar.), p. 21.

Table 4. Photoelectric Measured and Normalized Magnitudes of Uranus in 1999.

1999 UT Date	Filter	Magnitude		Comparison Star	Δ Air Mass: Planet- Star	1999 UT Date	Filter	Magnitude		Comparison Star	Δ Air Mass: Planet- Star
		Meas.	Norm.					Meas.	Norm.		
MAY						JUN					
18.754	V	5.80	7.17	HD202261	+0.008	20.276	B	6.28	6.63	HD196078	+0.28
18.755	V	5.81	7.16	"	+0.008	20.278	V	5.75	7.17	"	+0.28
18.760	V	5.80	7.17	"	+0.008	20.287	B	6.36	6.56	"	+0.25
18.763	V	5.79	7.18	"	+0.008	20.290	V	5.77	7.14	"	+0.23
18.765	V	5.80	7.17	"	+0.008	20.309	B	6.23	6.68	"	+0.16
JUN						20.311	V	5.73	7.18	"	+0.14
19.752*	V	5.77	7.14	HD202261	+0.007	20.330	B	6.25	6.66	"	+0.08
19.753*	V	5.79	7.13	"	+0.012	20.332	V	5.75	7.16	"	+0.07
20.264	B	6.25	6.66	HD196078	+0.37	20.347	B	6.19	6.72	"	+0.04
20.267	V	5.73	7.18	"	+0.35	(Continued on p. 162)					

Table 4. Photoelectric Measured and Normalized Magnitudes of Uranus in 1999—Continued.

1999 UT Date	Filter	Magnitude		Comparison Star	Δ Air Mass: Planet- Star	1999 UT Date	Filter	Magnitude		Comparison Star	Δ Air Mass: Planet- Star
		Meas.	Norm.					Meas.	Norm.		
JUN						OCT					
20.349	V	5.75	7.16	HD196078	+0.03	01.409	V	5.77	7.16	HD199947	0.00
20.365	B	6.20	6.71	"	0.00	01.410	V	5.77	7.15	"	0.00
20.367	V	5.72	7.19	"	-0.02	01.415	B	6.28	6.65	"	0.00
20.387	B	6.19	6.73	"	-0.05	01.418	B	6.28	6.65	"	0.00
20.389	V	5.77	7.14	"	-0.05	01.420	B	6.26	6.66	"	0.00
JUL						Nov					
14.448	V	5.69	7.19	HD202261	0.00	07.421	V	5.82	7.17	HD199947	-0.01
14.450	V	5.69	7.19	"	+0.01	07.424	V	5.83	7.16	"	-0.01
14.453	V	5.76	7.13	"	+0.01	07.426	V	5.84	7.15	"	-0.03
14.457	V	5.74	7.15	"	+0.01	07.428	V	5.83	7.16	"	-0.02
14.459	V	5.76	7.13	"	0.00	07.430	V	5.85	7.14	"	-0.01
14.464	B	6.23	6.66	"	+0.01	07.435	B	6.34	6.65	"	-0.02
14.466	B	6.30	6.59	"	0.00	07.437	B	6.37	6.62	"	-0.02
SEP						*The sky conditions were poor and so these data were not included when computing the selected values in Table 6.					
05.166	B	6.33	6.57	ρ Cap	-0.07	07.440	B	6.35	6.64	"	-0.02
05.168	V	5.79	7.10	"	-0.08	07.442	B	6.35	6.64	"	-0.01
05.171	R	6.00	6.89	"	-0.08	07.444	B	6.39	6.61	"	-0.02
05.173	I	7.29	5.60	"	-0.08						
OCT											
01.403	V	5.76	7.16	HD199947	0.00						
01.406	V	5.78	7.14	"	0.00						

Table 5. Photoelectric Measured and Normalized Magnitudes of Neptune in 1999.

1999 UT Date	Filter	Magnitude		Comparison Star	Δ Air Mass: Planet- Star	1999 UT Date	Filter	Magnitude		Comparison Star	Δ Air Mass: Planet- Star
		Meas.	Norm.					Meas.	Norm.		
MAY						AUG					
18.731	V	7.77	7.00	HD194473	0.00	03.163	V	7.74	6.97	HD196078	0.00
18.734	V	7.76	7.00	"	0.00	03.172	V	7.76	6.96	"	+0.03
18.737	V	7.77	6.99	"	0.00	SEP					
18.739	V	7.75	7.02	"	0.00	05.118	B	8.22	6.51	ρ Cap	+0.04
18.742	V	7.80	6.96	"	0.00	05.123	V	7.80	6.93	"	+0.04
18.744	V	7.77	6.99	"	0.00	05.125	R	8.10	6.63	"	+0.05
JUN						05.128	I	9.15	5.59	"	+0.05
19.723*	V	7.73	7.00	HD194473	+0.01	05.151	B	8.18	6.55	"	+0.06
19.726*	V	7.73	7.00	"	+0.01	05.154	V	7.84	6.89	"	+0.07
19.729*	V	7.69	7.04	"	+0.01	05.157	R	8.14	6.59	"	+0.07
19.732*	V	7.76	6.97	"	+0.01	05.159	I	9.11	5.63	"	+0.08
19.735*	V	7.71	7.02	"	+0.01	OCT					
19.738*	V	7.76	6.97	"	+0.01	01.385	V	7.74	7.02	HD192773	+0.01
19.740*	V	7.73	7.00	"	+0.01	01.388	V	7.78	6.98	"	+0.01
20.318	B	8.09	6.64	HD196078	+0.10	01.390	V	7.77	6.99	"	+0.01
20.321	V	7.74	6.99	"	+0.09	01.392	V	7.71	7.05	"	+0.01
20.336	B	8.15	6.58	"	+0.09	01.432	B	8.07	6.69	"	+0.01
20.339	V	7.74	6.99	"	+0.08	01.435	B	8.05	6.71	"	+0.01
20.353	B	8.06	6.67	"	+0.09	01.437	B	8.15	6.61	"	+0.01
20.356	V	7.79	6.94	"	+0.09	01.439	B	8.13	6.63	"	+0.01
20.371	B	8.06	6.67	"	+0.11	Nov					
20.373	V	7.74	6.99	"	+0.10	07.387	V	7.79	7.02	HD192773	+0.02
20.381	B	8.03	6.70	"	+0.10	07.390	V	7.75	7.06	"	+0.02
20.383	V	7.78	6.95	"	+0.10	07.392	V	7.76	7.05	"	+0.02
JUL						07.395	V	7.78	7.03	"	+0.02
14.395	V	7.74	6.98	HD194213	-0.01	07.397	V	7.77	7.04	"	+0.02
14.398	V	7.69	7.03	"	-0.02	07.403	B	8.23	6.57	"	+0.02
14.401	V	7.74	6.98	"	-0.01	07.405	B	8.17	6.63	"	+0.02
14.410	V	7.68	7.03	"	-0.01	07.408	B	8.14	6.66	"	+0.03
14.413	V	7.73	6.99	"	-0.01	07.410	B	8.24	6.56	"	+0.03
14.417	V	7.70	7.02	"	-0.01	07.412	B	8.15	6.65	"	+0.03
14.420	V	7.71	7.00	"	-0.01	*The sky conditions were poor and so these data were not included when computing the selected values in Table 6.					
14.423	V	7.72	7.00	"	-0.01						
14.430	B	8.18	6.54	"	-0.01						
14.433	B	8.13	6.58	"	-0.01						
14.435	B	8.02	6.70	"	-0.01						

A.L.P.O. MINOR PLANETS SECTION REPORT AND REVIEW FOR 1999: PART III— GENERAL REPORT OF POSITION OBSERVATIONS BY THE A.L.P.O. MINOR PLANETS SECTION FOR THE YEAR 1999

By: Frederick Pilcher, A.L.P.O. Minor Planets Coordinator

ABSTRACT

Observations of positions of minor planets by members of the Minor Planets Section in calendar year 1999 are summarized.

During the year 1999 a total of 4908 positions of 934 different minor planets were reported by members of the Minor Planets Section. Of these 52 are photographic measures (denoted P) and 3088 are CCD images (denoted C). All the remainder are approximate visual positions. All of the numbered minor planets were observed at positions agreeing within errors of measurement with those predicted from their published ephemerides.

Positional observations were contributed by the observers listed in *Table 1* (below).

The summary given in *Table 2* (pp. 164-171) lists minor planets in numerical order, the observer and telescope aperture (in cm), UT dates of the observations, and the total number of observations in that period. The year is 1999 except as otherwise indicated, when a series of observations begun in calendar 1999 continued into 2000.

**Table 1. Observers Submitting Positions to the
A.L.P.O. Minor Planets Section, 1999.**

Observer	Location	Instrument(s)	Number of	
			Planets	Positions
Arlia, Saverio	Buenos Aires, Argentina	15-cm f/6 New	3	52P
Camaiti, Plinio	Torino, Italy	13-cm f/6 refr+CCD 20-cm S-C + CCD	15	16C
Faure, Gerard	Col d'Arlezier France	20-cm S-C	112	277
Foglia, Sergio	Milan, Italy	10X50 & 20X80 binoculars	7	14
Garrett, Lawrence	Fairfax, VT USA	32-cm f/6 refl	146	303
Giambersio, Antonio	Potenza, Italy	20-cm f/6.3 refl+ CCD	10	38C
Goretti, Vittorio	Pianoro, Italy IAU Observatory	25-cm f/4 Schm + CCD	943 610	2915C
Harvey, G. Roger	Concord, NC, USA	74-cm New	221	732
Harvey, G. Roger and Farney, Mike	Dakota Wesleyan Univ., Mitchell, SD, USA	20-cm S-C	2	11
Hudgens, Ben	Memphis, TN, USA & vic.	25-cm f/4.5 Dob	79	166
Lucas, Michael	Ft. Myers, FL, USA	20-cm f/6 New & 35-cm f/11 S-C	19	59(1C)
Pilcher, Frederick	Jacksonville, IL, USA	35-cm S-C	30	187
Pryal, Jim	Ravensdale WA, USA	20-cm S-C	10	20
Puccini, Silvano	AIRALI Observatory, Rosignano, Italy	25-cm f/5.1 New + CCD	8	42C
Serafino Zani Observatory	Lumezzane, Italy	40-cm R-C + CCD	16	76C
Observers: C. Cremaschini, L. Cocca, S. Foglia, W. Marinello, M. Marinello, G. Pizzetti				
Telescope Types: Dob = Dobsonian, New = Newtonian, refr = refractor, refl = reflector, R-C = Ritchey-Chretien, Schm = Schmidt, S-C = Schmidt-Cassegrain				

**Table 2. Observations of Minor Planet Positions
Submitted to the A.L.P.O. Minor Planets Section in 1999.**

Data are given in the following order:

(First line) Minor planet number (and name if applicable);

(Succeeding lines) Observer, telescope aperture (cm), dates of observation(s), number of observations (C = CCD, P = Photographic; [no letter] = visual).

1 Ceres Camaiti, 13 Foglia, 5 Pilcher, 35	Apr 4 Jan 4-5 Jan 19- Feb 10	1C 2 6	57 Mnemosyne Pryal, 20	Oct 4	2	171 Ophelia Goretti, 25	Jan 20	5C	304 Olga Goretti, 25	Feb 23	5C
4 Vesta Foglia, 5 Hudgens, 25 Pilcher, 35	Jan 5-22 Feb 14-15 Jan 19- Feb 10	2 2 7	58 Concordia Garrett, 32	Sep 12	2	177 Irma Goretti, 25	Mar 19	5C	310 Margarita Faure, 20	Dec 7	2
6 Hebe Foglia, 8 Giambersio, 20 Pilcher, 35	Dec 5-6 Dec 3-6 Oct 11-18	2 4C 6	60 Echo Goretti, 25	Apr 1	5C	181 Eucharis Lucas, 20	Jan 18-22	2	311 Claudia Garrett, 32	Jun 6	2
7 Iris Pilcher, 35	Nov 30- Jan 1'00	7	68 Leto Goretti, 25 Pilcher, 35	Feb 8 Jan 19-Feb 10	5C 5	183 Istria Lucas, 20	Jan 12-23	3	313 Chaldaea Arlia, 15	Jan 5-10	15P
8 Flora Pilcher, 35	Mar 12-18	5	77 Frigga Harvey, 74 Lucas, 20	Jan 17 Feb 7-9	3 2	186 Celuta W. Marinello, 40	Dec 7	4C	316 Goberta Hudgens, 25	Nov 13-29	3
9 Metis Lucas, 20, 35 Pilcher, 35	Apr 19- May 16 Apr 7-13	3 3	80 Sappho Goretti, 25	Apr 4	5C	190 Ismene Goretti, 25	Mar 20- Apr 4	10C	331 Etheridgea Hudgens, 25	Oct 7	2
10 Hygiea Lucas, 20, 35	Mar 7-23	4	82 Alkmene Pilcher, 35	Apr 7-13	3	193 Ambrosia Goretti, 25 Pryal, 20	Oct 27 Oct 4	5C 2	332 Siri Garrett, 32	Jun 19	2
11 Parthenope Giambersio, 20 Lucas, 20	May 8 Mar 9-23	2C 3	85 Io Harvey & Farney, 20 Pryal, 20	Oct 29 Oct 4	3 2	196 Philomela Goretti, 2	Jan 21	5C	334 Chicago Garrett, 32	Sep 1	2
12 Victoria Lucas, 20	Apr 19	2	89 Julia Lucas, 20	Mar 23- Apr 19	2	198 Ampella Harvey & Farney, 20 Pryal, 20	Oct 27-29 Sep 4	8 2	336 Lacadiera Garrett, 32	Apr 6	2
14 Irene Foglia, 8 Pilcher, 35	Dec 5-6 Dec 30- Jan 1'00	2 6	91 Aegina Garrett, 32	Sep 4	2	201 Penelope Lucas, 20	Jan 8-23	6	338 Budrosa Garrett, 32	Apr 6	2
16 Psyche Arlia, 15	Jul 31- Sep 15	23P 4C	97 Klotho Camaiti, 20 Pilcher, 35	May 14 Mar 12-22	1C 8	205 Martha Goretti, 25	Sep 7- Oct 16	15C	340 Eduarda Goretti, 25	Apr 6	5C
17 Thetis Goretti, 25 Lucas, 20, 35	Feb 11 Feb 7-24	5C 3(1C)	99 Hekate Pryal, 20	Sep 4	2	208 Lacrimosa Garrett, 32	Feb 6	2	341 California Goretti, 25	Apr 25	5C
19 Fortuna Lucas, 20	Mar 9-12	2	101 Helena Goretti, 25	Feb 8-13	10C	213 Lilaea Camaiti, 20	May 14	1C	349 Dembowska Giambersio, 20 Lucas, 20	Jun 1-2 Mar 19-23	3C 2
26 Proserpina Lucas, 20	Jan 18-23	3	105 Artemis Camaiti, 20	Jun 11	1C	216 Kleopatra Foglia, 8	Dec 5-6	2	350 Ornamenta Camaiti, 20 Garrett, 32 Goretti, 25	May 14 Jun 13 Apr 30	1C 2 5C
29 Amphitrite Foglia, 8	Dec 5-6	2	112 Iphigenia Goretti, 2 Pilcher, 35 Pryal, 20	Sep 3 Sep 6-10 Sep 12	8C 6 2	219 Thusnelda Pryal, 20	Sep 4	2	351 Yrsa Garrett, 32	Feb 6	2
37 Fides Pilcher, 35	Mar 12-22	7	121 Hermione Camaiti, 20 Garrett, 32	May 14 Jun 12	1C 2	222 Lucia Garrett, 32 Goretti, 25	Apr 11 Apr 30	2 5C	361 Bononia Hudgens, 25	Sep 7	2
39 Laetitia Camaiti, 20 Goretti, 25	May 5 Mar 19-23	1C 55C	124 Alkeste Pilcher, 35	Apr 7-13	3	240 Vanadis Goretti, 25 Lucas, 20	Feb 6 Feb 7-9	5C 2	387 Aquitania Camaiti, 20	May 14	1C
40 Harmonia Lucas, 20, 35	Mar 19-23	2	131 Vala Pilcher, 35	Sep 30- Oct 6	5	245 Vera Lucas, 20	Jan 22-23	2	389 Industria Camaiti, 13 Goretti, 25	Apr 4 Jan 20	2C 5C
41 Daphne Arlia, 15 Giambersio, 20 Goretti, 25	Jul 17-26 Jun 14-28 May 29- Jun 5	14P 7C 10C	141 Lumen Goretti, 25	Sep 7	5C	251 Sophia Garrett, 32	Sep 3	2	391 Ingeborg Garrett, 32	May 15	2
45 Eugenia Lucas, 20	Jan 8-23	6	143 Adria Garrett, 32 Goretti, 25	Apr 6 Mar 19	2 5C	260 Huberta Goretti, 25	Apr 30	5C	401 Otilia Garrett, 32	May 15	2
47 Aglaja Goretti, 2	Nov 8	5C	149 Medusa Garrett, 32	May 15	2	261 Prymno Goretti, 25	Jun 6	5C	417 Suevia Garrett, 32	Jun 6	2
52 Europa Lucas, 20	Jan 8-23	6	152 Atala Garrett, 32	Jan 12	2	263 Dresda Hudgens, 25	Nov 28-29	2	422 Berolina Garrett, 32 Pryal, 20	Sep 12 Sep 12	2 2
			153 Hilda Garrett, 32	Jun 13	2	273 Atropos Hudgens, 25	Feb 15	2	430 Hybris Hudgens, 25	Jan 19	2
			158 Koronis Faure, 20 Garrett, 32	Jun 11 Jun 13-19	2 4	274 Philagoria Faure, 20 Goretti, 25 Hudgens, 25	Jan 20 Feb 18 Feb 15	2 5C 2	447 Valentine Garrett, 32	Feb 6	2
			164 Eva Goretti, 25	Apr 1	5C	280 Phylla Faure, 20	Nov 8-28	3	448 Natalie Faure, 20 Hudgens, 25	Aug 22 Oct 3	2 2
			169 Zelia Garrett, 32 Pryal, 20	Sep 4 Sep 4	2 2	289 Nenetta Goretti, 25	Jul 23	5C	449 Hamburga Garrett, 32	May 15	2
						300 Geraldina Garrett, 32	Sep 3	2	450 Brigitta Faure, 20	Dec 6	2
									455 Bruchsalia Goretti, 25	Apr 30	5C
									459 Signe Hudgens, 25	Jan 17-19	2

461 Saskia Faure, 20	Dec 1	2	625 Xenia Garrett, 32	Sep 1	2	778 Theobalda Garrett, 32	Jan 14	2	941 Murray Faure, 20	Dec 6	2
463 Lola Goretti, 25	May 2	5C	628 Christine Goretti, 25	May 2	5C	784 Pickeringia Harvey, 74	Dec 8	3	942 Romilda Faure, 20	Nov 5-27	5
468 Lina Garrett, 32	Oct 31	2	629 Bernardina Hudgens, 25	Nov 6-7	3	786 Bredichina Garrett, 32	Jun 12	2	Garrett, 32	Dec 1	2
483 Seppina Garrett, 32	Jun 19	2	632 Pyrrha Giambersio, 20	Sep 30- Oct 2	4C	787 Moskva Garrett, 32	May 12	2	Hudgens, 25	Nov 28-29	2
486 Cremona Faure, 20	Mar 20	2	640 Brambilla Garrett, 32	Jan 21	5C	Goretti, 25	Apr 30	5C	943 Begonia Hudgens, 25	Jan 17-19	2
Hudgens, 25	Mar 18- Apr 7	2	644 Cosima Faure, 20	Aug 22	3	795 Fini Goretti, 25	Apr 7-17	3	949 Hel Garrett, 32	Apr 6	2
502 Sigune Garrett, 32	Mar 8	2	646 Kastalia Garrett, 3	Sep 1-12	4	807 Ceraskia Goretti, 25	May 2	5C	950 Ahrensa Goretti, 25	Oct 7	5C
Hudgens, 25	Mar 18- Apr 7	2	Hudgens, 25	Aug 4-13	4	808 Merxia Goretti, 25	Apr 6	5C	954 Li Garrett, 32	Sep 3	2
Pilcher, 35	Feb 9-14	6	653 Berenike Garrett, 32	Jun 13	2	815 Coppelia Faure, 20	Mar 21	2	981 Martina Garrett, 32	Oct 31	2
511 Davida Goretti, 25	May 24- Jun 5	10C	Goretti, 25	Jun 22	5C	Goretti, 25	May 2	5C	Hudgens, 25	Oct 7	2
512 Taurinensis Garrett, 32	Mar 9	2	661 Cloelia Garrett, 32	Sep 2	2	816 Juliana Hudgens, 25	Jan 19	2	989 Schwassmannia Goretti, 25	Jun 22	5C
516 Amherstia Pryal, 20	Sep 4	2	683 Lanzia Pilcher, 35	Nov 30-Dec 8	8	825 Tanina Faure, 20	Mar 21	2	999 Zachia Goretti, 25	Sep 13	5C
518 Halawe Faure, 20	May 15	2	687 Tinette Faure, 20	Oct 16	2	Goretti, 25	Oct 10	5C	1005 Arago Goretti, 25	Mar 19	5C
519 Sylvania Camaiti, 20	May 14	1C	Hudgens, 25	Oct 7	2	829 Academia Faure, 20	Sep 7	2	1007 Pawlowia Garrett, 32	Dec 2	2
525 Adelaide Faure, 20	Dec 1	2	691 Lehigh Garrett, 32	Feb 6	2	Goretti, 25	Oct 10	5C	1012 Sarema Goretti, 25	Apr 25	5C
529 Preziosa Goretti, 25	May 24	5C	Goretti, 25	Jan 20	5C	832 Karin Faure, 20	Nov 28	2	1017 Jacqueline Garrett, 32	Jan 12	2
532 Herculina Foglia, 8	Dec 5-6	2	695 Bella Goretti, 25	Jan 21	5C	834 Burnhamia Goretti, 25	Apr 13	5C	1018 Arnolda Faure, 20	Nov 28	2
547 Praxedis Goretti, 25	May 2	5C	696 Leonora Goretti, 25	Jul 17	5C	838 Seraphina Hudgens, 25	Jul 4	2	1022 Olympiada Faure, 20	Jun 12	2
557 Violetta Faure, 20	Nov 28	2	699 Hela Faure, 20	Jun 13	4	840 Zenobia Hudgens, 25	Oct 3	2	Garrett, 32	Jun 12	2
559 Nanon Garrett, 32	May 12	2	Goretti, 32	Sep 3	2	846 Lipperta Faure, 20	Nov 27	2	Hudgens, 25	Jun 6	2
Goretti, 25	Apr 30	5C	Goretti, 25	Jul 4- Dec 31	124C	Hudgens, 25	Nov 28-29	2	1029 La Plata Garrett, 32	Sep 6	2
567 Eleutheria Garrett, 32	Jun 6	2	Hudgens, 25	Aug 13	2	847 Agnia Faure, 20	Nov 8-28	3	1034 Mozartia Goretti, 25	Feb 8	5C
570 Kythera Garrett, 32	Jun 13	2	W. Marinello, Pizzetti, 40	Sep 11	4C	Goretti, 25	Oct 27	5C	1036 Ganymed Goretti, 25	Jan 20	5C
573 Recha Garrett, 32	Sep 3	2	708 Raphaela Faure, 20	May 6	2	Hudgens, 25	Oct 15	2	Lucas, 20	Jan 8-18	4
575 Renate Faure, 20	Aug 22	2	711 Marmulla Hudgens, 25	Oct 15	2	860 Ursina Garrett, 32	Oct 30	2	1041 Asta Garrett, 32	Jan 12	2
583 Klotilde Garrett, 32	Jun 19	2	716 Berkeley Hudgens, 2	Feb 15	2	Goretti, 25	Nov 12	5C	1057 Wanda Faure, 20	Sep 10	2
590 Tomyris Garrett, 32	Feb 6	2	720 Bohlinia Garrett, 32	Sep 12	2	877 Walküre Hudgens, 25	Jan 17-19	2	Garrett, 32	Oct 13	2
Goretti, 25	Jan 30- Feb 17	20C	733 Mocia Garrett, 32	Sep 3	2	885 Ulrike Faure, 20	Dec 1	2	1060 Magnolia Goretti, 25	Dec 2	5C
597 Bandusia Goretti, 2	Oct 27	5C	737 Arequipa Harvey, 74	Aug 4	3	890 Waltraut Goretti, 25	Oct 6	5C	1063 Aquilegia Faure, 20	Nov 28- Dec 1	2
598 Octavia Garrett, 32	Jun 13	2	738 Alagasta Goretti, 25	Apr 25-May 9	10C	891 Gunhild Garrett, 32	Feb 6	2	1067 Lunaria Faure, 20	Oct 16	2
604 Tekmessa Garrett, 32	Oct 31	2	739 Mandeville Garrett, 32	Mar 8	2	893 Leopoldina Garrett, 32	Sep 1	2	Garrett, 32	Oct 30	2
605 Juvisia Hudgens, 25	Oct 3	2	740 Cantabria Garrett, 32	May 15	2	Goretti, 25	Jul 23	3C	Hudgens, 25	Oct 3	2
609 Fulvia Faure, 20	Dec 1	2	754 Malabar Garrett, 32	Sep 12	2	898 Hildegard Faure, 20	Jun 11	2	Pilcher, 35	Oct 5-12	8
614 Pia Faure, 20	Nov 27	2	761 Brendella Faure, 20	May 15	2	Garrett, 32	Jun 13	2	1069 Planckia Hudgens, 25	Jan 17-19	2
Garrett, 32	Dec 2	2	766 Moguntia Faure, 20	Jan 20	2	905 Universitas Goretti, 25	Mar 20	5C	1075 Helina Faure, 20	Sep 17	2
622 Esther Goretti, 25	Jul 23	5C	770 Bali Goretti, 25	Oct 27	5C	Harvey, 74	Mar 17	3	1078 Mentha Faure, 20	Jan 17	3
624 Hektor Garrett, 32	Jan 14	2	Hudgens, 25	Oct 15	2	915 Cosette Hudgens, 25	Jan 19	2	Garrett, 32	Feb 6	2
			771 Libera Hudgens, 25	Oct 15	2	918 Itha Goretti, 25	Feb 13	5C	Hudgens, 25	Jan 19	2
			773 Irmintraud Giambersio, 20	Oct 10-11	4C	928 Hildrun Goretti, 25	May 29- Jun 5	10C	1082 Pirola Faure, 20	Dec 1	3
						938 Chlosinde Hudgens, 25	Oct 3	2	1083 Salvia Garrett, 32	Feb 6	2

1088 Mitka Hudgens, 25	Dec 30- Jan 7'00	3	1330 Spiridonla Faure, 20	Mar 20- Apr 16 Apr 6	5 2	1541 Estonia Goretti, 25	Feb 23- Apr 4	10C	1731 Smuts Faure, 20 Garrett, 32	Sep 7 Sep 2-12	2 4
1089 Tama Garrett, 32	Sep 2	2	1331 Solvejg Faure, 20	Sep 17	2	1560 Strattonia Hudgens, 25	Oct 7	2	1736 Floirac Goretti, 25	Apr 10	5C
1095 Tulipa Goretti, 25	Mar 19	5C	1333 Cevenola Goretti, 25	Jun 22	5C	1569 Evita Harvey, 74	Oct 15	3	1770 Schlesinger Goretti, 25	Oct 27	5C
1098 Hakone Hudgens, 25	Nov 28-29	2	1355 Magoeba Faure, 20	Dec 6	2	1572 Posnania Faure, 20	Nov 28	2	1774 Kulikov Goretti, 25	Feb 6-8	10C
1118 Hanskya Goretti, 25	Mar 20	5C	1362 Griqua Goretti, 25	Jul 4-19	30C	1581 Abanderada Goretti, 25	Jan 20-22	10C	1789 Dobrovolsky Faure, 20	Sep 17	2
1123 Shapleya Faure, 20	Jan 20	2	1365 Henyey W. Marinello, Pizzetti, 40	Oct 10	3C	1585 Union Hudgens, 25	Feb 15	2	1792 Reni Faure, 20	Nov 27	2
1128 Astrid Goretti, 25	Apr 13	5C	1367 Nongoma Puccini, 25	Oct 27	5C	1586 Union Pilcher, 35	Feb 9-14	6	1792 Reni Goretti, 25	Nov 28	5C
1130 Skuld Hudgens, 25	Nov 27-28 Oct 15	2 2	1368 Numidia Faure, 20	May 6	2	1591 Baize Faure, 20	Jun 19	2	1811 Bruwer Goretti, 25	Oct 6	5C
1131 Porzia Faure, 20	Nov 5	2	1373 Cincinnati Goretti, 25	Jan 20-24	15C	1596 Itzigsohn Goretti, 25	Jan 21	5C	1812 Gilgamesh Harvey, 74	Feb 11	3
1135 Colchis Garrett, 32	Dec 10	2	1374 Isora Faure, 20	Aug 21	2	1600 Vyssotsky Camaiti, 20	Apr 16	1C	1833 Shmakova Garrett, 32	Sep 6	2
1142 Aetolia Faure, 20	Jun 11	2	1383 Limburgia Goretti, 25	Oct 7	5C	1603 Neva Hudgens, 25	Oct 7	2	1836 Komarov Faure, 20	Sep 10	2
1144 Oda Garrett, 32	Sep 2	2	1390 Abastumani Hudgens, 25	Nov 7	2	1607 Mavis Hudgens, 25	Nov 28-29	2	1853 McElroy Goretti, 25	Oct 27	5C
1146 Biarmia Goretti, 25	Nov 8	5C	1403 Idelsonia Faure, 20	Nov 27	2	1614 Goldschmidt Camaiti, 20	May 21	1C	1863 Antinous Faure, 20	Mar 16	7
1158 Luda Faure, 20	Sep 17	2	1423 Jose Faure, 20	Nov 27-28	2	1615 Bardwell Goretti, 25	Jan 20	5C	1863 Antinous Goretti, 25	Sep 7-13	10C
1166 Sakuntala Hudgens, 25	Aug 4	2	1426 Riviera Faure, 20	Apr 16	2	1621 Druzhba Faure, 20	Aug 21	2	1867 Deiphobus Goretti, 25	Sep 13	5C
1169 Alwine Goretti, 25	Mar 20	5C	1426 Riviera Garrett, 32	May 15	2	1621 Druzhba Garrett, 32	Sep 2	2	1886 Lowell Goretti, 25	Mar 24	5C
1170 Siva Goretti, 25	Mar 20	5C	1430 Somalia Harvey, 74	Nov 4	3	1622 Chacornac Faure, 20	May 6	2	1889 Pakhmutova Faure, 20	Nov 28	2
1173 Anchises Goretti, 25	Jul 17	5C	1437 Diomedes Garrett, 32	Jan 14	2	1627 Ivar Goretti, 25	Jan 24	5C	1889 Pakhmutova Goretti, 25	Nov 6	5C
1197 Rhodesia Garrett, 32	Apr 11	2	1442 Corvina Garrett, 32	Sep 3	2	1628 Strobel Faure, 20	Apr 16	2	1907 Rudneva Goretti, 25	May 2	5C
1200 Imperatrix Faure, 20	Apr 16	2	1446 Sillanpää Garrett, 32	Apr 11	2	1632 Sieböhme Faure, 20	Sep 10	2	1908 Pobeda Goretti, 2	Feb 18	5C
1204 Renzia Garrett, 32	Sep 2	2	1448 Lindbladla Pilcher, 35	Dec 30- Jan 1'00	6	1638 Ruanda Faure, 20	Jun 23	2	1925 Franklin-Adams Garrett, 32	Sep 3	2
1214 Richilde Goretti, 25	Feb 5	5C	1457 Ankara Garrett, 32	Sep 3	2	1642 Hill Hudgens, 25	Feb 15	2	1943 Anteros Goretti, 25	Nov 5- Dec 31	10C
1236 Thais Faure, 20	Nov 8	2	1459 Magnya Faure, 20	Dec 7	2	1648 Hajna Goretti, 25	Nov 5-6	5C	1946 Walraven Goretti, 25	Feb 8	5C
1240 Centenaria Goretti, 25	Jan 20	5C	1469 Linzia Garrett, 32	Sep 12	2	1656 Suomi Camaiti, 20	Jun 12	1C	2006 Polonskaya Goretti, 25	Jan 21	5C
1243 Pamela Garrett, 32	Oct 12	2	1485 Isa Goretti, 25	Mar 19	5C	1668 Hanna Garrett, 32	Jul 2	5C	2008 Konstitutsiya Goretti, 25	Mar 20	5C
1253 Frisia Hudgens, 25	Nov 28-29	2	1493 Sigrid Garrett, 32	Dec 2	2	1687 Glarona Faure, 20	Nov 27	2	2014 Vasilevskis Faure, 20	Apr 17	2
1271 Isergina Garrett, 32	Jan 12	2	1499 Pori Garrett, 32	Oct 12	2	1687 Glarona Garrett, 32	Dec 2	2	2014 Vasilevskis Garrett, 32	May 15	2
1276 Uclia Cremaschini, Pizzetti, 40	W. Marinello, Dec 30	3C	1503 Kuopio Faure, 20	Apr 16	2	1689 Floris-Jan Hudgens, 25	Nov 28-29	2	2016 Heinemann Garrett, 32	Sep 2	2
1279 Uganda Garrett, 32	Sep 3	2	1514 Ricouxa Goretti, 25	Apr 6	5	1698 Christophe Goretti, 25	Sep 7	2	2021 Poincare Goretti, 25	Jun 1	5C
1325 Inanda Faure, 20	Sep 17	2	1527 Malmquista Garrett, 32	Dec 2	2	1701 Okavango Faure, 20	Nov 8	2	2031 BAM Hudgens, 25	Oct 7	2
531 Hartmut Goretti, 25	Jan 21	5C				1723 Klemoia Faure, 20	Mar 20	2	2044 Wirt Goretti, 25	Apr 1	5C
						1725 CrAO Garrett, 3	Sep 3	2	2046 Leningrad Goretti, 25	Mar 20	5C
						1726 Hoffmeister Goretti, 25	Dec 2	5C	2057 Rosemary Harvey, 74	Oct 15	3
						1728 Goethe Link Goretti, 25	Feb 13	5C	2065 Spicer Garrett, 32	Sep 12	2
									2067 Aksnes Goretti, 25	Feb 23	5C
									2094 Magnitka Goretti, 25	Jan 20	5C

2118 Flagstaff Garrett, 32 Dec 10 2 Hudgens, 25 Nov 28-29 2	2550 Houssay Harvey, 74 Nov 10 3	2880 Nihondaira Goretti, 25 Feb 11 5C	3429 Chuvaev Harvey, 74 Sep 12 3
2120 Tyumenia Faure, 20 Sep 10 2	2557 Putnam Hudgens, 25 Oct 7 2 Pilcher, 35 Oct 6-12 6	2898 Neuvo Harvey, 74 Jan 25 3	3440 Stampfer Goretti, 25 Oct 10 5C Harvey, 74 Sep 11 3
2144 Marietta Goretti, 25 Jan 20- Feb 5 10C	2563 Boyarchuk Goretti, 25 Jan 20 5C	2928 Epstein Goretti, 25 Oct 7 5C	3485 Barucci Goretti, 25 Dec 7 5C
2151 Hadwiger Garrett, 3 Jan 14 2	2584 Turkmenia Goretti, 25 Mar 20 5C	2972 Niil Harvey, 74 Nov 4 3	3501 Olegiya Goretti, 25 Feb 8 5C
2167 Erin Garrett, 32 Apr 11 2	2586 Matson Goretti, 25 Oct 7 5C Harvey, 74 Sep 12 3	2987 Sarabhai Goretti, 25 Sep 9 5C	3507 Vilas Goretti, 25 Nov 8 5C
2190 Coubertin Harvey, 74 Mar 12 3	2598 Merlin Harvey, 74 Nov 5 3	3015 Candy Harvey, 74 Nov 10 3	3527 McCord Harvey, 74 May 17 3
2217 Eltigen Garrett, 32 Sep 6 2	2606 Odessa Faure, 20 Apr 16 2 Garrett, 32 May 12 2 Hudgens, 25 Apr 16-17 2	3019 Kulin Goretti, 25 Apr 10 5C	3533 Toyota Goretti, 25 Oct 10 5C
2222 Lermontov Faure, 20 Dec 1 2 Goretti, 25 Nov 5 5C	2607 Yakutia Garrett, 32 Sep 2 2	3053 Dresden Garrett, 32 Sep 2 2	3538 Nelsonia Harvey, 74 Dec 12 3
2229 Mezzarco Harvey, 74 Aug 4 3	2610 Tuva Goretti, 25 Feb 6 5C	3067 Akhmatova Harvey, 74 Dec 12 3	3557 Sokolsky Goretti, 25 Apr 25 5C
2233 Kuznetsov Goretti, 25 Nov 8-12 10C	2612 Kathryn Faure, 20 Apr 17 2 Goretti, 25 Apr 30 5C	3089 Oujianquan Faure, 20 Jun 23 2 Garrett, 32 Jun 13 2	3573 Holmberg Goretti, 25 Nov 8-12 10C
2238 Steshenko Goretti, 25 Oct 7-8 10C Harvey, 74 Oct 15 3	2637 Bobrovnikoff Goretti, 25 Feb 18 5C	3103 Eger Goretti, 25 Apr 13 5C	3581 Alvarez Faure, 20 Jun 12 4 Goretti, 25 May 29- Jul 16 25C
2251 Tikhov Hudgens, 25 Sep 7 2	2642 Vesalé Harvey, 74 Oct 15 3	3105 Stumpff Harvey, 74 Sep 2 3	3607 Naniwa Puccini, 25 Nov 14 5C
2259 Sofievka Goretti, 25 Sep 12 5C	2655 Guangxi Goretti, 25 May 2 5C	3109 Machin W. Marinello, Pizzetti, 40 Dec 7 3C	3622 Ilinsky Goretti, 25 Oct 10-16 10C
2262 Mitidika Faure, 20 Oct 16 2 Garrett, 32 Oct 12 2 Pilcher, 35 Oct 12-18 8	2685 Masursky Goretti, 25 Oct 9 5C	3112 Velimir Garrett, 32 Sep 3 2	3641 Williams Bay Harvey, 74 Sep 12 3
2266 Tchaikovsky Faure, 20 Dec 1 2	2696 Magion Harvey, 74 Feb 15 3	3114 Ercilla Harvey, 74 May 17 3	3645 Fabini W. Marinello, Pizzetti, 40 Oct 10 3C
2267 Agassiz Goretti, 25 Feb 6 5C	2707 Uferji Harvey, 74 Dec 8 3	3133 Sendai Goretti, 25 Apr 6 5C	3646 Aduatiques Puccini, 25 Nov 24-25 8C
2281 Biela Goretti, 25 Mar 24 5C	2711 Aleksandrov Harvey, 74 Sep 12 3	3143 Genecampbel Goretti, 25 Oct 6-9 14C	3652 Soros Harvey, 74 Sep 2 3
2320 Blarney Goretti, 25 Apr 10 5C	2717 Tellervo Faure, 20 Sep 7 2 Garrett, 32 Sep 3 2 Hudgens, 25 Sep 7 2	3146 Dato Goretti, 25 Oct 9 5C	3657 Ermolova Goretti, 25 Oct 9-16 10C
2331 Parvulesco Hudgens, 25 Dec 30- Jan 7'00 3	2725 David Bender Faure, 20 Nov 27 2 Hudgens, 25 Nov 28-29 2	3164 Prast Goretti, 25 Oct 6 5C	3659 Bellingshausen Goretti, 25 Mar 19 5C
2333 Porthan Goretti, 25 Apr 4 5C	2733 Hamina Harvey, 74 Feb 9 3	3169 Ostro Faure, 20 Jun 19 3	3660 Lazarev Harvey, 74 Mar 17 3
2337 Boubin Goretti, 25 Apr 1 5C	2751 Campbell Goretti, 25 Jul 17 5C	3188 Jekabsons Harvey, 74 Sep 12 3	3661 Dolmatovskij Goretti, 25 Nov 8-12 10C
2355 Nei Monggol Goretti, 25 Dec 2 5C	2768 Gorky Pilcher, 35 Dec 7-11 6	3199 Nefertiti Goretti, 25 Feb 6 5C	3678 Mongmanwal Goretti, 25 Apr 1 5C
2375 Radek Garrett, 32 Jun 13 2	2786 Grinevia Hudgens, 25 Oct 3 2	3200 Phaethon Goretti, 25 Nov 5 5C Puccini, 25 Nov 10-12 7C	3703 Volkonskaya Goretti, 25 Jun 8 5C
2378 Pannekoek Goretti, 25 Apr 1 5C	2787 Tovarishch Goretti, 25 Dec 2 5C	3224 Irkutsk Faure, 20 May 16- Jun 11 3	3704 1981 YX1 Harvey, 74 Sep 12 3
2385 Mustel Garrett, 32 Sep 12 2	2804 Yrjö Harvey, 74 May 18 3	3246 Bidstrup Goretti, 25 Jun 5 5C	3715 Stohl Goretti, 25 Jul 17 5C
2390 Nezarka Goretti, 25 Feb 11 5C	2815 Soma Harvey, 74 Sep 30 3	3268 De Sanctis Goretti, 25 Feb 8 5C	3754 Kathleen Faure, 20 Mar 21 2 Hudgens, 25 Apr 16-17 2
2400 Derevskaya Goretti, 25 Oct 9 5C	2816 Pien Goretti, 25 Apr 25 5C	3279 Solon Goretti, 25 Jul 17 5C	3777 McCauley Harvey, 74 Oct 15 3
2402 Satpaev Goretti, 25 Sep 9 5C	2832 Lada Goretti, 25 Jun 4 5C	3281 Maupertuis Goretti, 25 Feb 13 5C	3790 Raywilson Goretti, 25 Dec 7 5C
2413 van de Hulst Goretti, 25 Feb 8 5C	2853 Harvill Goretti, 25 Sep 9 5C	3285 Ruth Wolfe Faure, 20 Dec 6 2 Hudgens, 25 Nov 7 2 Pilcher, 35 Nov 4-9 6	3803 Tuchkova Harvey, 74 Feb 9 3
2446 Lunacharsky Harvey, 74 Apr 3 4	2862 Vavilov Goretti, 25 Jan 21 5C	3352 McAuliffe Goretti, 25 Jan 20-Apr 6 10C	3811 Karma Garrett, 32 Dec 1 2
2448 Sholokhov Faure, 20 Apr 17 2 Goretti, 25 May 2-29 10C	2865 Laurel Goretti, 2 Feb 5 5C	3389 Sinzot Goretti, 25 Jun 1 5C	3812 Lidaksum Harvey, 74 Jan 19 3
2463 Sterpin Garrett, 32 Sep 12 2	2878 Panacea Goretti, 25 Feb 23 5C	3408 Shalamov Garrett, 32 Sep 6 2	3813 Fortov Garrett, 32 Sep 1 2
		3409 Abramov Goretti, 25 Mar 24 5C	3838 Epona Goretti, 25 Nov 6- Dec 17 24C Harvey, 74 Nov 4 6

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3931 1987 DU6 Goretti, 25 Mar 20 5C	4287 Trisov Harvey, 74 Oct 15 3	4645 Tentaikojo Goretti, 25 Oct 27 5C	5133 Phillipadams Harvey, 74 Nov 4 3
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PROJECT "DELTA LUNA": A PROPOSAL TO SEARCH FOR IMPACT FEATURES ON THE MOON OF RECENT ORIGIN

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(This paper was delivered at the A.L.P.O. Conference in Ventura, California, July 20, 2000.)

The recent video recordings of impacts on the portion of the Moon illuminated by earthshine during the November, 1999 Leonid meteor storm by David Dunham and his colleagues of the International Occultation Timing Association have vindicated reports of impacts on the Moon by generations of visual observers. Here is a representative sampling of a half-dozen reports culled from references cited in Barbara Middlehurst's comprehensive *Chronological Catalog of Reported Lunar Events*:

October 19, 1945: Using a 9-inch Newtonian reflector at a magnification of 220X, the British selenographer F.H. Thornton detected a brilliant orange-yellow point of light on the floor of Plato near the ramparts of the crater's eastern (IAU) wall. With impressions of the Second World War fresh, Thornton compared the phenomenon to "the flash of an AA [anti-aircraft] shell exploding in the air at a distance of about ten miles." He noted that "the date is in the middle of the Orionid meteor stream."

April 15, 1948: A.W. Vince was examining the Earthlit portion of the crescent Moon with a 16-cm refractor when he was startled by a momentary flash, similar in brightness to a third-magnitude star, located near the darkened limb some 30 degrees north of the crater Grimaldi, which could be distinguished as a dark patch.

August 8, 1948: While examining the entire lunar disc at a magnification of 50X, A.J. Woodward saw a flash "like a bright sparkle of frost on the ground ... bluish-white

then yellow, on the dull part of the Moon, somewhat above and to the left of the Moon's center." Duration about three seconds. To Woodward "it had the appearance of an object striking the Moon's surface."

May 17, 1951: The renowned British selenographer H.P. Wilkins observed a bright speck within the crater Gassendi that lasted for only a second, followed by an afterglow which persisted for two to three seconds.

May 10, 1954: The lunar authority and prolific author V.A. Firsoff saw "a white flash, which, with a magnification of 30 diameters and an aperture of 1.75-inches had the naked-eye brilliance of a star of the fourth magnitude, may have lasted for about a second and left behind it a bluish afterglow..." The site was near the crater Lyot [now named Ammonius. *Ed.*], which lies on the floor of the large walled plain Ptolemaeus.

April 24, 1955: "F.C. Wykes was observing the Moon when he saw a white flash of short duration on the unilluminated portion of the disc ... in the northern part of Mare Serenitatis, not far and somewhat east of Posidonius."

In 1960 the Atomic Energy Commission and the military intelligence services of the United States established a global network of sensors, many installed on the rooftops of embassies, to detect the low-frequency acoustic waves generated by nuclear explosions. Over the years a number of powerful anomalous airbursts were recorded by these devices that have been interpreted as meteoritic in origin.

The largest event, which corresponded to a yield of 500 kilotons, presumably resulted from the arrival at a velocity of 15 to 20 kilometers per second of a piece of cosmic shrapnel some 20 meters across and weighing upwards of 8,000 tons that fell harmlessly between South Africa and Antarctica in August of 1963.

Since 1975 the U.S. Air Force Space Command has operated a network of surveillance satellites in geosynchronous orbits that are equipped with arrays of detectors to monitor the upper atmosphere for the infrared signatures of the exhaust of ballistic missiles as well as nuclear explosions. The 17-year record of atmospheric explosions detected by these early-warning sentinels was declassified by the Department of Defense in 1993. The frequency of the meteoritic bombardment that was revealed came as a rather rude shock to all but a handful of specialists.

Based on the military data, Edward Tagliaferri estimates that kiloton-yield meteoroids strike the Earth 80 times in an average year. Fortunately, non-metallic objects of this size are annihilated at high altitudes and pose little threat to life and limb. Apparently far more energy is released in the infrared than in the visible region of the spectrum, accounting for the comparative dearth of reports of extremely bright bolides by visual meteor observers.

With only $1/4$ the diameter and $1/81$ the mass of the Earth, the Moon will be subject to a dramatically reduced rate of bombardment. But even when these factors are taken into account, a cursory extrapolation from the terrestrial data suggests that a kiloton-yield impact should occur on the visible hemisphere of the Moon every two years.

Unimpeded by the presence of an appreciable atmosphere, even those fragile bodies that fail to penetrate the Earth's protective blanket of gases would strike the lunar surface, producing craterlets surrounded by considerably larger haloes of bright ejecta. The underlying assumption of our proposal is that a few of these ejecta blankets should subtend an apparent angular diameter of one arc second or more (at the distance of the Moon, 1.9 km subtends about one arc-second) and be discernible in even modest telescopes under high angles of illumination as dif-

fuse bright spots with a virtually stellar appearance. This may well explain why they have gone unnoticed—lunar observers almost invariably scrutinize or make high-resolution photographs of features when they are near the terminator, but under these conditions shadows accentuate topographic relief rather than differences in albedo.

A careful comparison of old photographs of the Full and gibbous Moon with modern images should reveal the presence of these features. Redundant gibbous phase plates should prevent any spurious "discoveries" from "Kodak star" emulsion defects. Actually, the exercise should prove similar to looking for novae or asteroids.

The recent Clementine Mission images are ideal for making these comparisons since they were almost invariably obtained under high sun angles and their resolution leaves nothing to be desired. Fortunately, the complete set of Clementine images at various image scales is available on CD-ROM at a modest price.

Suitable 19th-century photographs include the series taken with the 36-inch refractor at Lick Observatory by E.S. Holden and E.E. Barnard *circa* 1889-92. The authors have communicated extensively with the Lick Observatory staff in an effort to gain access to these plates. Unfortunately, their attempts to locate these plates have been unsuccessful, despite a concerted effort. However, they have managed to locate excellent plates of the Full Moon and the gibbous phases taken through a yellow filter at the prime focus of the Lick refractor by J.H. Moore and J.F. Chappell *circa* 1937-1947. The focal length of that instrument is 17.6 meters, giving a generous image scale of 160mm to the Moon's diameter. These images should provide an excellent 50-year time span comparison with the Clementine images.

The plates taken by Moritz Loewy and Paul Puiseaux at the Paris Observatory through a 23.6-inch $f/30$ Coude refractor *circa* the 1890s may be the best images from that era, with a plate scale very similar to the Lick plates. These would provide a 100-year time span versus the Clementine images. The renowned French astrophotographer Jean Dragesco has remarked that the Loewy

and Puiseux plates consistently managed to achieve the theoretical resolution of a 13-cm aperture (limited principally by the astigmatism of defective plane mirrors, the optician Jean Texereaux later claimed), which should be quite adequate for the intended purpose. We recently enlisted the assistance of Audouin Dollfus, currently retired from the Meudon Observatory in Paris. He has kindly offered to assist me in contacting the archivist at the Paris Observatory in order to obtain scanned, digitized versions of the Loewy and Puiseux plates taken at Full Moon and at the gibbous phases.

In addition, John Westfall has kindly supplied digitized images scanned from 8X10-inch glass plates of the gibbous Moon taken through the U.S. Naval Observatory's 61-inch astrometric reflector during 1966-67. Scanning at a resolution of 600 pixels per inch has yielded a pixel size of about one kilometer, which corresponds closely to the limitations of the original photographs. These images promise to provide an excellent 30-year time-span comparison with the Clementine images.

No doubt comparing the Clementine images to any digitized versions of old Earthbased photographs on a desktop computer will prove to be a painstaking, time-consuming exercise, but perhaps a number of project participants could be redundantly assigned sections of the lunar disk. When making these comparisons, even if an identical image scale is achieved, the effects of the spaceprobe's vantage point from lunar orbit and the effects of libration on the Earth-based photographs will almost certainly render any attempt to simply mimic a blink comparator impractical. However, a more primitive technique that was employed to discover one of Saturn's satellites shortly before the invention of the blink comparator may serve us well.

On long-exposure photographs taken at the Arequipa Station of Harvard College Observatory on three successive nights in August of 1898 with the Bruce astrograph, W.H. Pickering discovered the ninth, outermost satellite of Saturn, which he named Phoebe. A faint fifteenth-magnitude wisp of light, Phoebe was found on crowded plates that contained the images of over 100,000 stars. Pickering examined pairs of plates by

laying one atop the other with a slight offset in registration so that every stationary object appeared to have a close, identical companion. Armed with a hand-held magnifying glass, he painstakingly scanned the backlit plates, looking for any object that appeared single, signifying motion. Percival Lowell and his staff employed the same technique in their early search for a trans-Neptunian planet *circa* 1905.

The authors propose that any search begin by slightly offsetting the registration of superimposed, digitized images of the lunar maria, where the contrast between the bright ejecta and background of dark basalts will be greatest. We do not think that it would be prudent to extend the search for recent impact features into the brighter lunar highland terrain (at least initially), because this promises to be a far more daunting task. However, since the maria comprise about 40 percent of the visible hemisphere of the Moon, the sample size that they represent should prove sufficient.

If results of the exercise that we have described are positive, they promise to provide the first definitive evidence of a topographic change (however modest) on the Moon occurring within human memory and to verify recent estimates of the terrestrial meteoric bombardment rate. If the results are negative, they will be curiously at odds with the recent body of terrestrial bombardment data and hence still be very noteworthy. Hardly as significant as refining the value of the Hubble Parameter, we must admit, but well worth doing nonetheless, we hope you'll agree.

If this project is deemed worthy of pursuing, we suggest that it be christened "Project Delta Luna," after the Greek letter that is used to denote change in mathematical formulae.

CCD METHANE BAND OBSERVATIONS OF TITAN IN 1999

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ABSTRACT

Titan, one of the largest satellites in our Solar System, was monitored in the wavelength of $890\text{ nm} \pm 10\text{ nm}$ where methane absorbs heavily in the near infrared band. The observations were made to determine any possible variations in brightness as Titan revolves around Saturn.

INTRODUCTION

Titan is an interesting satellite that possesses an atmosphere. Taking about 16 days to go around Saturn, and with an angular diameter of 0.8 arc-seconds as seen from Earth, only the larger amateur telescopes can resolve its disk. In smaller instruments it is just a point of light.

Titan's atmosphere contains mostly nitrogen and a mixture of other gases which includes methane (CH_4). In 1944, Gerald P. Kuiper discovered methane absorption lines when he obtained Titan's spectrum. In 1980-81, Voyagers 1 and 2 imaged Titan. The surface was completely obscured by many layers of a dense, cloudy, 'smog-like' atmosphere. No bands and no details were seen in the atmosphere. Therefore, Titan disappointed many Voyager scientists.

Unlike Venus, which has a cloudy thick atmosphere with many low-contrast details, Titan's appearance is like smog. However, it is known that certain wavelengths in the near-infrared band can penetrate Titan's smog and be used to seek otherwise-hidden details on its surface.

Thus, in the mid-1990s, large telescopes with adaptive optics and the Hubble Space Telescope were used to obtain high-resolution images, obtaining their first true views ever of the surface of Titan.

OBSERVATIONS

The writer's observations were done with a Starlight Xpress MX-516 CCD camera on a Celestron 20-cm (8-in) telescope. In addition, a methane

absorption filter with its bandpass at $890\text{ nm} \pm 10\text{ nm}$ was used to capture images of Titan. The exposures were fairly long, at least 3-30 seconds with a total of 90 seconds even at the prime focus of f/10. When all three images were combined, Saturn itself was completely overexposed in order to capture Titan and perhaps a few other satellites. In 1999, five such images were taken, four of which are shown in *Figure 1* (below).

Titan was seen at a wide range of orbital longitudes. Titan was imaged at both eastern and westerly elongations, with the purpose of detecting possible infrared variations when comparing both elongations.

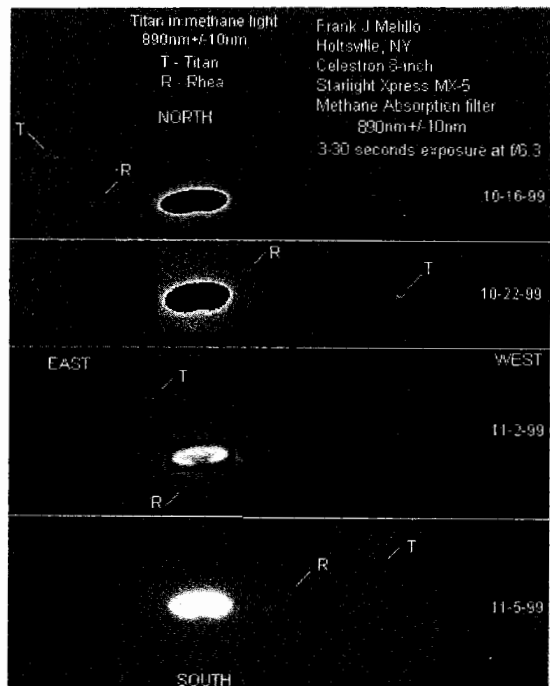


Figure 1. CCD images of Saturn, Titan and Rhea by Frank J. Melillo. Supporting data are given on the images.

RESULTS

Back in the mid-1990s, part of Titan's surface was imaged for the very first time. The surface thus revealed was more toward Titan's equator as the polar regions were obscured by the smog. One hemisphere of the satellite always faces Saturn just as the Moon does with the Earth. As Titan revolves around Saturn, the earthbased observer sees all longitudes on the surface. Titan is suspected of having light and dark surface regions, so that views in infrared wavelengths might show Titan's brightness varying in its course around Saturn. The leading hemisphere, turned toward us near eastern elongation, appears to be the brightest. At a western elongation, Titan is at its dimmest. At the time of observation in 1999, Saturn's south pole was tilted approximately 18° toward us. Since Titan orbits near Saturn's equatorial plane, and assuming that its rotational axis is approximately perpendicular to its orbital plane, we should have viewed Titan's south polar area as well as its equatorial region.

In the writer's CCD images, Titan was visible despite the methane in the atmosphere. Rhea, although fainter than Titan in visible light, was also visible as it has no atmosphere. Titan appeared slightly fainter than Rhea, indicating that Titan has some absorption in the near-infrared, but considerably less than Uranus or Neptune. Also, the wavelengths used may have penetrated through much of the atmosphere but not below, say, 100 km above the surface. In other words, the images do not penetrate deeply enough to see a rotational lightcurve. As a result, the images may show Titan's variations just marginally, but not conclusively. In addition to that, there is a possibility that short-term variations in Titan's brightness, on the order of a terrestrial day, at 890 nm may still occur. This would be very interesting. In the higher layers of Titan's atmosphere, above 100 km, the haze may change its brightness due to longitudinal winds.

CONCLUSION

Titan was imaged through a methane absorption filter at $890\text{ nm}\pm 10\text{ nm}$. It is hard to say at this moment whether any real light variations were detected; but if

the satellite is continually monitored for a longer period of time, a more definite light variation might be seen. Other wavelengths, say at 940 nm or even longer, at 3 μm , would have been a better choice to get a definite lightcurve caused by differences on the surface; but at least this observation shows that the 0.89- μm wavelength can penetrate a significant amount of the atmosphere in order to look for possible changes in the haze layer.

This turns out to be a very good project for both amateur and professional astronomers. Due to the Cassini space probe that will enter Saturn's system in 2004, there is a great interest in Titan observations. One astronomer, Ralph D Lorenz of the Lunar and Planetary Laboratory in Tucson, Arizona, invites amateur photometricists to participate in his project. There is evidence that Titan is changing. Therefore, amateur astronomers are ready to step in and take an important role in monitoring this truly dynamic object that we call Titan.

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A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE A.L.P.O. LUNAR METEORS PROJECT

By: Thomas R. Williams

INTRODUCTION

As many members of the Association of Lunar and Planetary Observers (A.L.P.O.) are aware, in the closing months of 1999 a significant breakthrough occurred in a field that was of interest to the A.L.P.O. for several decades after the A.L.P.O. was founded. On November 17, 1999, A.L.P.O. member Brian Cudnik and other observers from the International Occultation Timing Association (IOTA) as well as independent observers in Mexico were successful in observing the impact of six Leonid meteoroids on the surface of the Moon. Although that breakthrough did not occur under the auspices of the A.L.P.O., it did make evident the difficult technical problems attendant with this field of observational astronomy. The results of the IOTA effort also illustrate, as clearly as one could hope under such circumstances, how insightful Walter Haas has been in his leadership of this association.¹

THE PRE-HISTORY OF THE LUNAR METEOR PROJECT

As with all topics of interest to the members of A.L.P.O., the lunar meteors problem has a pre-history. It is necessary to consider that history, both from the observational and the theoretical perspectives, to comprehend what was understood about the matter when the A.L.P.O. initiated its formal Lunar Meteors Search project in 1955. That history includes the theoretical prospect of observing lunar meteors when Walter Haas first took on this problem as an observational project in 1939.

As Richard Baum has demonstrated, many leading observational astronomers in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries reported seeing occasional flashes on the dark part of the moon. The history of these observations is freighted with questions about the veracity or skills of the observers involved. In Baum's view, however, one simply cannot dismiss the

observational reports of such well-known observers as William Herschel, Johann Hieronymus Schröter, and Johann Mädler. Herschel's sightings of what he took to be volcanoes on the Moon, Schröter's observations of lunar crescent cusp extensions or Mädler's report of observing a bright flash, demand of us that we accord similar, if not equal, attention to the many reports of lesser professional and amateur astronomers who, over the past three centuries, have reported a number of such sightings. Interpretations placed on these observations by the observers involved should be considered separately from the reported observation.²

If it is important to understand that, from an historical perspective, observers have reported flashes and other transient phenomena on the moon for several centuries, it is equally important to develop some notion of the theoretical understanding of meteors and the Moon as a function of time. Meteors did not begin to receive much attention from astronomers until nearly the middle of the nineteenth century. Leading texts in the first half of the nineteenth century don't mention meteors as astronomical topics.³ It was not until after the multiple stone fall at de Aigle, France in 1803, and then the spectacular Leonid shower in the United States in 1833, that meteors began to attract attention from a few astronomers like Dennison Olmsted at Yale. By 1850 meteors were understood to be objects that originated outside the Earth's atmosphere. Nonetheless, John Herschel's 1859 edition of *Outlines of Astronomy* still relegated meteors to a brief but perfunctory statement near the end of his book.⁴

With the 1866 return of the Leonids on a 33-year cycle, meteors began to attract theoretical attention. By late 1866 Herbert Anson Newton, Giovanni Schiaparelli and other astronomers had computed orbits for several meteor streams. Those orbits had, in turn, been compared with the orbits of periodic comets. The comparisons led to the dis-

covery that Comet Temple was the likely source of the material causing the Leonid meteor shower. That discovery was a triumph for theoretical astronomy, but still, meteors had trouble competing with the more glamorous aspects of astronomy like stellar evolution. When Russell, Dugan and Stewart updated the standard astronomical textbook of their mentor, Charles A. Young, in 1926 they added little to Young's original text, even though a year earlier Charles Pollard Olivier had produced a substantial monograph on meteors, one that stood as a standard reference for decades to follow. Professional astronomers were, quite simply, not very interested in meteor astronomy.⁵

The Moon didn't fare much better, though a great deal more effort was invested in observing our celestial neighbor. The volcanic origin of the craters on the Moon, strongly defended by nineteenth-century amateur astronomers James Nasmyth and James Carpenter, was accepted as fact until well into the twentieth century. Richard Proctor advanced the alternative theory of meteoroid impact cratering in 1873. Proctor's idea was substantially advanced by the geologist G. K. Gilbert in 1878, and promoted by T. J. J. See in 1910. However, the dominant theory of crater formation remained volcanic until Ralph B. Baldwin's mid-1940s book, *The Face of the Moon*.⁶

So by 1940, we see that neither meteors, nor the origin of the craters on the Moon, were well understood as astronomical problems. There was yet a third aspect of the problem, and that was the question of an atmosphere on the Moon. The basic evidence cited to justify believing the Moon had no atmosphere was the absence of any refraction effect during the occultation of a star by the Moon. However, for several decades in the nineteenth century there was a troublesome problem that the diameter of the Moon, as determined by occultation experiments, was consistently 2 arcseconds lower than the diameter as determined by other methods. A small amount of refraction, not determinable by ordinary means, might account for the difference. The problem became an embarrassment for Astronomer Royal Airy until he finally acknowledged that 2 arcseconds was likely within the errors of the respective measurements, and in any event refraction

of that order would represent an atmosphere with only 1/2000th the density of that of the Earth.⁷

Opinions about the extent of the atmosphere that could theoretically be present on the Moon varied over time, but nearly everyone was satisfied that, were there an atmosphere, it was at least three orders of magnitude less dense than that of the Earth. The lack of an atmosphere on the Moon was taken as fact until well into the twentieth century, when some doubts began to be expressed about the reality of the statement. Baldwin, in fact, made this doubt explicit in 1965 when he stated "It has been known for a long time that the Moon does not have a dense atmosphere...[but if] the Moon has little in the way of an atmosphere...it is not reasonable to claim it has no atmosphere."⁸

HAAS DEFINES THE ISSUES FOR AMATEUR OBSERVERS

Thus, when Walter Haas first began his astronomical career, what was thought to be known would not have led one to invest much energy in the idea of observing meteoritic impacts on the Moon. However, Haas spent one summer at W. H. Pickering's Woodlawn Observatory near Mandeville, Jamaica. During that summer, one of the problems that Pickering introduced Haas to was that of observing the impact of meteoroids on the moon. Pickering's suggestion was to observe intensely during a lunar eclipse, so Haas took up this challenge. His first attempts to observe meteoroids impacting the darkened moon were in 1939 while he was a graduate student at Ohio State University.⁹

Through the mid-1930s, Haas participated in the Planetary and Lunar Section of the American Amateur Astronomers Association (AAAA). Headquartered in Milwaukee but with members from New York to California, the AAAA provided a meeting ground in which amateur astronomers could engage in the science of astronomy and discuss their results with like-minded individuals. Haas became acquainted with Latimer J. Wilson, Edwin P. Martz Jr., Hugh Johnson, Frank Vaughn, and other accomplished planetary observers in this period. The members of this planetary observing group maintained an active

correspondence after the AAAA failed in 1938. Thus deeply involved with other knowledgeable amateur astronomers, Haas expected to have little difficulty attracting others to occasional searches for possible lunar meteors.¹⁰

In his 1942 manifesto for lunar observers, "Does anything ever happen on the Moon?", Haas used his own lunar observations as well as those of many of his correspondents in building his case for studying the Moon. One of the studies he proposed was that of lunar meteoritic impacts. First Haas presented evidence that the project was viable by discussing the availability of meteoroids to impact the Moon and the odds of seeing one impact on the dark side of the Moon facing the Earth. Following an earlier analysis by Pickering, Haas theorized that because of the differences between surface gravity of the Earth and the Moon, a tenuous atmosphere might exist above the Moon at nearly the same altitudes and densities that existed on Earth. Such an atmosphere would create conditions in which meteoroids approaching the Moon might be ablated and form meteor trails like those displayed in the Earth's upper atmosphere. [The accepted terminology is that a small natural object in interplanetary orbit is a *meteoroid*, while the light phenomenon caused by its ablation in an atmosphere is a *meteor*. Ed.] If the density of the atmosphere was insufficient to ablate meteoroids, then they should impact the surface of the moon. The larger meteoroids might produce a flash visible in Earth-based telescopes.

Thus, observing whether meteor trails or impact flashes were visible on the Moon might test the scientific question of whether or not such a lunar atmosphere did exist. By calculating the odds and showing how increasing the number of observer hours at the eyepiece would improve chances of actually observing lunar meteor events, Haas hoped to encourage more observers to take up this potentially rewarding task. While his article was in preparation at the *Journal of the Royal Astronomical Society of Canada*, Haas observed what he took to be a Perseid meteor streaking through the lunar atmosphere. His note added in press describing this observation, though carefully worded, could not conceal Haas' elation at having an observation to report along with his appeal.¹¹

THE A.L.P.O. AS A NEW ORGANIZATIONAL FORMAT FOR OBSERVERS

After serving as a training instructor for Naval officers during World War II, in 1946 Haas settled in New Mexico, working as a mathematician at New Mexico State University. In the previous decade, he had emerged as a thought leader among amateur lunar and planetary observers in the United States, having assembled, analyzed and published their observations of several planets and the Moon in articles in astronomical journals. It was clear that the informal network of observers was stable and growing, and Haas decided the time had come to organize formally. The March 1947 publication of the first issue of *The Strolling Astronomer* and founding of the Association of Lunar and Planetary Observers announced therein is now a well-known story.¹²

PRELIMINARY A.L.P.O. EFFORTS ON LUNAR METEORS

Although a myriad of other issues with the fledgling organization now commanded Haas' attention, the lunar meteors problem was not forgotten. Haas used the pages of the *Journal, Association of Lunar and Planetary Observers (J.A.L.P.O., subtitled The Strolling Astronomer)* to encourage other observers to take up his interest in this topic. For example, in an early issue of *J.A.L.P.O.*, Haas summarized the results of previous observations and pointed out the scientific value of attempting to observe lunar meteors, referring to his article published earlier that year in *Popular Astronomy* and emphasizing the opportunity presented by the forthcoming Perseid shower.¹³

In the following issue, Haas reported on his own observational effort during that meteor shower. In five hours of concentrated observing spread over four nights, Haas reported seeing one moving 6th-magnitude speck projected against the dark part of the Moon. He provided details based on the assumption that the object was actually at the distance of the Moon. In the next issue, Haas again discussed the observation of lunar meteors, this time in his article summarizing

results reported for the lunar eclipse of 7 October 1949. Previous appeals had apparently had some effect, as twenty-four observers reported having spent a total of 15 hours of observing time in the search for lunar meteors during the eclipse, using telescopes ranging in aperture from three to twelve inches. A total of fourteen suspected events was reported, including twelve suspected stationary flashes or flares, and two moving flashes or streaks, as they were later known. One event was reported simultaneously by R. Venor and B. Lane, observing with 12-inch and 3-inch reflectors respectively, and separated by over 2000 miles. However, Venor reported the event as a streak, while Lane reported only a stationary flash. There was a large number of other observers with their eyes to telescopes and observing the Moon at exactly that same time, and no one else reported seeing either type of event. While Haas was unwilling to reject this one pair of sightings, he concluded the other thirteen observed events were spurious, noting that both he and others reported seeing terrestrial meteors while attempting to observe lunar meteors during the eclipse.¹⁴

For the next eight years, the pattern was similar, with Haas occasionally exhorting members to spend time searching for lunar meteors, especially during total lunar eclipses. The result of his low-key appeals was not encouraging. Haas received only sporadic reports. For example, San Diego observer Rudolph Lippert observed a peculiar bright flash on the Moon on 16 September 1953. In 1955, Patrick Moore, who had discussed the possibility of observing lunar meteors in his 1953 book, *A Survey of the Moon*, reported that one of the younger but nonetheless reliable BAA observers had reported seeing a flash while observing the Moon. Moore's report did not comment on the all-important question of whether the flash was stationary or moving.¹⁵

NEW LEADERSHIP AND A FORMAL PROGRAM

By 1955, Haas had decided that the A.L.P.O. needed a more formal program to address the accumulated record of "possible" lunar meteor observations. But, although he had come to that realization, Haas had his hands full adminis-

tering a growing organization and publishing its journal. He could not possibly provide formal leadership to a new project himself.

Fortunately, Robert M. Adams of Neosho, Missouri volunteered to lead an A.L.P.O. lunar meteor project. Adams had, for several years, been reporting telescopic meteors that he observed while making variable star estimates to Charles Pollard Olivier of the American Meteor Society. Adams had also submitted observations to Haas; he was characterized by Haas as "our most active member in searching for lunar meteors and possible lunar meteoritic impact-flares." In Adams' most recent effort, thirty half-hour periods of observation had yielded only two possible events, which he described as "...so brief that I consider it possible that they might be labeled subjective phenomena." The experience caused Adams to consider how to structure a more scientific approach to the lunar meteor problem and he had a plan.¹⁶

Adams' idea was that the random observing approach was unlikely to succeed, but that the odds of success were greatly enhanced if many observers watched the moon during scheduled favorable periods. He asked volunteers to participate in such a program. If sufficient observers volunteered, Adams would provide the schedule, receive and evaluate the observing records, and prepare reports to be published in *The Strolling Astronomer*. With such a schedule, two or three observers looking at the moon simultaneously from distant locations would be sufficient to reduce the number of false positives involving terrestrial atmospheric phenomena. To preserve the objectivity of his evaluations, Adams declared that he would not continue his own effort to observe lunar meteors and would instead devote his full effort to the matter of coordinating and reporting on the project.¹⁷

Adams' enthusiasm apparently stimulated interest in the project. New observers, scattered from Canada to Galveston, Texas, and from the Northeast to the West Coast, volunteered to participate in the program. Adams published a schedule of favorable observing periods to increase the possibility that simultaneous observations would be made from isolated stations.

Interest was no doubt enhanced by an event that was reported in *The Strolling Astronomer* later that year. On September 27, 1955, Eugene C. Larr, observing the Moon with an 8-inch solar coelostat, was startled by a bright speck moving across the face of the Moon in the vicinity of Sinus Iridum. Larr commented immediately to his observing companions, Roy K. Ensign and Dr. M. L. Stehsel, who recorded his comments describing the event for the two seconds or so it was visible. Haas congratulated Larr on the quality of his report, but characterized this only as an "exciting possibility that we are here dealing with a lunar meteor in a very rare lunar atmosphere..."¹⁷

A late report of a similar event was doubtless also stimulated by growing interest in the project. On November 15, 1953, Dr. Leon H. Stuart of Tulsa, Oklahoma, had observed visually through his camera finder, and photographed simultaneously, a brilliant spot near the terminator on the moon. He developed his photographic plate immediately to insure that the event had been recorded. By the time he returned to the telescope the spot had disappeared. Haas noted that the film used was especially sensitive to infrared radiation, which would include the heat released by a meteoritic impact. He opined that the brilliance of the spot shown on the picture reproduced in *The Strolling Astronomer* was therefore likely overstated in comparison to its visual appearance, in agreement with Stuart's comments to that effect.¹⁹

Adams began periodic progress reporting in the September-October 1955 issue of *The Strolling Astronomer*. When it became apparent that scheduled times for observation were not providing sufficient overlapping coverage, Adams shifted emphasis to more rigorously scheduled participation with observations conducted at sites that were isolated from each other by several miles. Only by such isolation was it possible to ensure that any terrestrial atmospheric events would be eliminated by the parallaxes among the stations.

Enthusiasm for the project grew in response to this more organized approach. For his report for the period from November 1955 to July 1956, Adams discussed results received from twenty-eight observers. In his report for

the period from August 1957 to July 1958 that number had grown to forty-one observers. Adams was well known as a member of AAVSO. His appeal to that organization drew in experienced variable star observers in the next few years, for example Clinton B. Ford of Connecticut and Curtis Anderson of Minneapolis. Enthusiasm was also spurred by a renewed theoretical justification for the possibility of observing lunar meteors, this time by Steadman Thompson.²⁰

Adams' appeal for more systematic effort on the local level was successful. Small groups of Connecticut and Massachusetts observers banded together to form coordinated multi-station observing programs. The Amateur Astronomers Association of Pittsburgh formed a similar network in the Tri-State area.²¹

MONTREAL'S PROGRAM

Members of the Montreal Centre of the Royal Astronomical Society of Canada (RASC) mounted the most substantial program designed to produce duplicate observations. The Montreal observers, under the leadership of Geoffrey Gaherty, accomplished substantial periods of overlapping observations from at least two and as many as five sites. One reason for that success may well have been that sixteen good observing sites were identified within a convenient distance from clusters of homes of Centre members. This arrangement allowed the RASC observers to accumulate an impressive record of simultaneous observations. There were a few reports of possible lunar events during the Montreal sessions, but the lack of a corroborative report by a simultaneous observer from another isolated station always negated such observations.²²

In each of his seven progress reports, Adams recited the names of observers who participated, the approximate number of hours each spent at the eyepiece, and information about their telescopes in addition to the number of "events" observed, together with brief descriptions of the events as flashes or streaks. Most reports were negative, but even many of those that appeared positive were couched in terms that made it apparent that, although an event was being reported, either the observer or Adams or both believed it was likely a terrestrial and not a lunar event.

In 1962, after seven years as the leader of the A.L.P.O. Lunar Meteor Search Project, Adams elected to step down and return to observing himself. Kenneth Chalk, one of the leaders of the Montreal effort, replaced Adams as project recorder. Chalk indicated his dedication to the project by undertaking a new theoretical analysis of the odds of observing a lunar meteor. Considering the matter in greater technical depth than either Haas or Thompson, Chalk included possible differences in the composition of a tenuous lunar atmosphere compared to that of the earth. He computed a graphical comparison of the variation of atmospheric density as a function of altitude above the surface of the earth or moon, showing that for lunar surface atmospheric pressures that ranged from 10^{-4} to 10^{-6} that at the surface of the earth, it was reasonable to speculate that larger meteoroids entering the tenuous lunar atmosphere 100 to 120 km above the lunar surface would produce a visible ablation trail. Chalk also noted that recent studies by Dollfus placed an upper limit on the density of any atmosphere at the lunar surface at 10^{-9} that of the earth's atmosphere. At that low a density visible meteor trails were unlikely.²³

TERMINATION OF THE A.L.P.O. PROJECT AND CONCLUSION

Chalk's tenure as the A.L.P.O. Lunar Meteor Search Project Recorder was limited by his own inability to continue the work. However, it is also true that interest in the project faded. In his 1965 announcement of the termination of the project, Haas cited the largely negative results over the life of the project as well as the fact that participation by observers outside of Montreal had greatly diminished. He also noted that observers had failed to detect any evidence of the impact of Ranger vehicles on the surface of the Moon. It also appears likely to a casual reader of *The Strolling Astronomer* that the lunar meteors program was, in reality, subsumed within the burgeoning joint A.L.P.O./NASA effort to observe transient lunar phenomena.²⁴

It is difficult to tabulate in any comprehensive manner the total results of the nearly ten years of observer effort devoted to the A.L.P.O. Lunar Meteor Search

Project. Reports to Adams and Chalk were often incomplete, or summarized the efforts of multiple observers in a non-quantitative manner. *Table 1* (p. 183) is an attempt to pull together these reports and give some dimension to the effort. As noted in *Table 1*, there was a number of events observed during the A.L.P.O. project, but none were ever conclusively supported by simultaneous observations from another observer at an isolated site. Thus, Haas, Adams and Chalk were forced to conclude that the events observed, however interesting they might have appeared otherwise, could only be assumed to have occurred in the terrestrial atmosphere.

The November 1999 observations during the Leonid meteor shower may thus be seen in a more appreciative light. Those videotaped confirmations of visual observations of meteoritic impacts on the Moon showed not only that such visual observations could actually be made with earth-based telescopes, but also just how very difficult it is to do so. It is obvious from these latest data that the A.L.P.O. program was likely doomed to failure by a variety of circumstances, even with simultaneous observations from isolated stations. From the IOTA data, it is apparent that unless observers deployed larger instruments than the 3- to 6-inch telescopes most frequently utilized by observers in the A.L.P.O. project it was unlikely that a confirmed observation could be made. As shown in *Figure 1* (p. 183), about three-fourths of the reported telescope usage was with instruments of six inches aperture or less.

Additionally, it is apparent from the videotaped observations that even the slightest inattention, in fact the mere blink of an eye, could cause an event to be missed. As shown in the examination of the videotapes, the brightest presence of the meteoritic impact was visible on only one frame. Even when a presence of the flash was visible in a second video frame, it was always at greatly reduced brightness. Thus the flash had faded substantially in less than 1/60th second.

The November 1999 observations of lunar meteoritic impacts are important from another perspective, however, and that is in reinforcing our appreciation of the imaginative leadership that the A.L.P.O. received from its founder over many years. In effect, one might in fact

Table 1. Results of the A.L.P.O. Lunar Meteor Search Project.

Recorder	J.A.L.P.O. Vol., No.	Number of Observers	Events Observed		Confirmations	
			Flashes	Streaks	Positive	Negative
Adams	9, 9-10	12+	14	?	0	2
Adams	10, 5-6	28	13	4	0	0
Haas/Adams	11, 1-6	19+	8	3	0	2
	Illinois*	11+	26	9	15†	Many?
	Ohio*	5	25	?	25†	Many?
	Wyoming*	2	6	1	0	Many?
Adams	12, 7-9	41	6	4	0	6
		1‡	15	8	0	0
Adams	15, 3-4	32	6	2	0	6
Chalk	18, 1-2	37	5	4	0	2

* These groups were organized locally and reported their observations to the Lunar Meteor Search Recorder after a total lunar eclipse. It is unclear in the information presented whether the organizers of these observing sessions were members of A.L.P.O. but it does appear clear that most of the observers were not.

† These confirmations were from adjacent telescopes at the same site and therefore do not meet the A.L.P.O. criteria for recognition as confirmed events.

‡ These observations were reported by one young and obviously enthusiastic individual observing with a 4-inch reflector, and should likely be ignored.

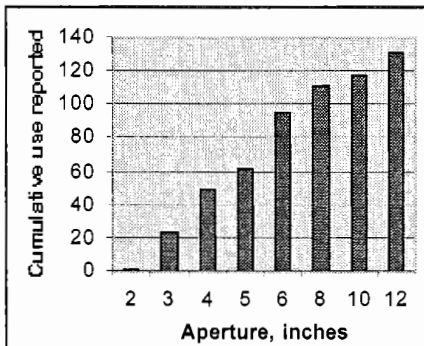


Figure 1. Telescope apertures deployed in the A.L.P.O. Lunar Meteor Search Project, cumulative number by aperture.

see the Lunar Meteor Search Project as a metaphor for Walter H. Haas and the A.L.P.O. in a much broader sense, for it was Haas' vision, persistence in the face of very long odds, and his courageous leadership of the organization that ensured its survival and indeed many successes over its first fifty years. Thus, it is perhaps fitting to consider this paper a tribute to Walter Haas as well as a recognition of the substantial efforts committed by A.L.P.O. and other observers to the possibility of making scientifically valid observations of lunar meteoritic events.

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- 8 Paraphrased slightly: see Baldwin, Ralph B. 1965. *A Fundamental Survey of the Moon*. New York: McGraw Hill Book Company: 116-117.
- 9 Haas, Walter H. 1998. Memorandum of discussion with Thomas R. Williams held at the Haas home, Las Cruces, New Mexico. In files. The best description of the experience of a visit to the Woodlawn Observatory was provided by Edwin P. Martz, Jr., who followed Haas to Mandeville a year later. See Martz, Edwin P. Jr. 1937. "Pilgrimage to a tropical observatory." *Popular Astronomy*, 45, no. 7: 365-374.; and Martz, Edwin P. Jr. 1937. "Pilgrimage to a tropical observatory." *Popular Astronomy*, 45, no. 8: 419-429. Haas carried out an active observing program at various colleges and universities during his undergraduate and graduate studies. His graduate advisor as a mathematics student at Ohio State was Lincoln LaPaz, who was well known for his interest in meteors and meteorites. Haas' Masters degree thesis was on the orbits of meteorites.
- 10 The journal of the AAAA, titled *Amateur Astronomy*, had limited circulation in the 1930s and is now rare. Copies may be found in a few astronomical libraries. The activity of the AAAA Planetary and Lunar Section is well documented in articles by Martz and Haas in that journal's pages.
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- 22 Adams, Robert M. 1960. "Progress report of the A.L.P.O. Lunar Meteor Search Project in 1958-59." *J.A.L.P.O.*, 14, no. 1-2: 21-26.; and Adams, Robert M. 1961. "Progress report of the A.L.P.O. Lunar Meteor Search Project in 1959-60." *J.A.L.P.O.*, 15, no. 3-4: 67-69. The French Canadian observers in Montreal established a parallel but less active program to observe lunar meteors during this same period. In their case, there were three stations, all manned by women observers. See Jean, Jean Pierre. 1963. "Lunar meteor search." *J.A.L.P.O.*, 17, no. 1-2: 18-19.

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BOOK REVIEWS

Edited by Jose Olivarez

Atlas of the Lunar Terminator

John E. Westfall

Cambridge University Press, 40 West 20th Street, New York, 10011-4211. 2000. 292 pages, illustrations, index. Price: \$50, cloth (ISBN 0-512-624336-3)

Reviewed by Robert A. Garfinkle, F.R.A.S.

Longtime A.L.P.O. leader, John Westfall, set out to create a lunar photographic atlas like no other that has ever been published. I feel that he has succeeded completely. The majority of published photographs of the Moon's surface are taken under medium to high solar angles by either earth-based observers or spacecraft cameras. Images taken at such high angles tend to wash out the fantastic details that are usually only visible in low solar-angle images. John attached a CCD camera to his telescope over a period of several years and snapped hundreds of sharp high-resolution images of the Moon's surface. He aimed for the areas where the solar angle was low and the surface details were in high contrast. Hundreds of hours were spent electronically stitching images together to create the mosaics that make up the bulk of the images in this book.

As the Moon orbits the Earth, the sunrise terminator, the line dividing the illuminated from the unilluminated hemisphere as the Sun rises over the surface, slowly proceeds across the lunar disk from the eastern limb just after New Moon to the western limb at Full Moon. After Full Moon, the sunset terminator proceeds again from east to west, progressively plunging the surface into darkness. We measure the position of this line against the surface in a system called the solar selenographic colongitude. This book is divided to show the changing relief of the surface, based on the approximate colongitude at

the time the images were taken. The text that accompanies the images is clear, precise, and very informative. John describes the types of surface features and gives general information of how to successfully take CCD images of the Moon. Where appropriate, he gives facts and figures on the Moon's various features.

Practically every page contains a clear mosaic of an area with a smaller-size grayed print of the same image. The feature names overlay the small images. This is a great idea, because it provides an uncluttered image of an area and a labeled image of the same area on the same page.

My only complaint has nothing to do with the efforts of the author, but is a systematic problem with Cambridge University Press (CUP). For my own CUP-published book, *StarHopping; Your Visa to Viewing the Universe*, CUP had a problem printing the small eyepiece-view drawings of deep-sky objects. The images are very dark, which makes it almost impossible to figure out the subjects of drawings. I complained to my editor, but nothing was done. I have seen problems with images and graphics in other CUP books, so I do not fault John for the less than ideal reproduction of some of his images. Some images contain sections that are washed out and appear grossly overexposed, while other images appear grainy (over pixilated) in spots. Although John clearly explains lunar and CCD camera terms in the text, I do object to the fact that this book lacks a glossary. These problems should not dissuade you from adding this wonderful volume to your lunar library.

I think that John has attained his goal—to fill the void in lunar literature for images of the lunar surface taken under low solar angles. He thereby gives us a handy lunar atlas consisting of high-resolution, high-relief images that show the Moon as we rarely can see it in print.

THE LINNÉ CONTROVERSY; OR ON THE SHAPE OF LUNAR CRATERLETS SEEN UNDER DIFFERENT SOLAR ALTITUDES

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ABSTRACT

Lunar craterlets with diameters near the resolving power of an atmosphere-instrument-detector system look like hills, if illuminated by a grazing Sun, and reveal their shape only under a higher Sun. The phenomenon is explained in terms of convolution of the subject image with the finite dimension of the single element of a discrete detector: the pixel, in a CCD image; the silver grain, in a photographic emulsion; the retinal cone cell, in a visual observation. The controversy about the different shapes attributed to craterlets like Linné by previous visual observers can thus be resolved. On this basis it appears reasonable to suggest that no physical changes affected Linné during the era of telescopic visual observations.

INTRODUCTION

Among the many lunar sites where different visual observers of the past claimed to have recorded shape or reflectivity variations, Linné is certainly one of the best known. Wilkins and Moore in 1961 [1] and more recently The Lunascan Project organization [2] have traced the history of the different aspects and changes attributed to Linné between 1843 and 1953.

Around 1843 W. Lohrmann, with a 4.25-in (10.8-cm) aperture telescope, and W. Beer and J. H. von Mädler, with 3.75 in (9.5 cm) aperture, described Linné as a deep crater 5 miles (8 km) in diameter, well visible under all lighting conditions. Between 1840 and 1843 J. Schmidt, with a 7-in (17.8-cm) refractor, also recorded Linné as a crater (in eight of eleven drawings), but in 1866 he announced that this description no longer applied and that all that could be seen was a whitish mound. During 1867 many observers could find only a mound. Later in that year, Schmidt announced that he could discern a mountain in the center of the mound. During 1868 Secchi and other observers detected a very shallow depression within the bright area containing a minute pit, half a mile in diameter. Still later Huggins measured its diameter as 2 miles (3 km). Around 1897 H. Corder and W. Goodacre, the latter using a 18-in (45.7-cm) reflector, drew Linné as a cratercone

which apparently varied in size as regards its central orifice. In 1951 F. H. Thornton, also with a 18-in (45.7-cm) reflector, found that Linné was a low mound on the summit of which was a deep pit, filled with shadow under low illumination. When the slight shadow cast by the mound had disappeared, owing to increasing solar altitude, the pit on the summit still held shadow, although this eventually disappeared. The white area surrounding Linné looked like some matter thrown out on all sides when the pit was formed. This description was fully and completely confirmed in 1953 by Wilkins and Moore, using the 33-in (83-cm) Meudon refractor.

To ascertain if the different aspects described could be ascribed to a unique physical reality, even if of complex nature, or if they are so irreconcilable to imply the occurrence of physical changes, in 1999 the author imaged Linné and its surroundings under different lighting conditions using a CCD camera fitted to a 14-in (35.6-cm) reflector.

INSTRUMENTS AND MEASURES

A PXL 211 CCD camera was used, bearing the TC-211 chip with 192×165 rectangular pixels, with pixel size 13.75 μm ×16.00 μm . The camera was fitted to a 14-in (35.6-cm) Newtonian reflector, the primary corrected to $\lambda/14$, with a secondary mirror of 2-in (5.1-cm) diameter.

The focal length was increased to 6 m with a 3× Barlow lens (TeleVue). Tens of images were taken on 1999 JAN 23 and 24 through an RG9 filter (2 mm thickness) and a manually operated shutter (exposure time about 0.01 s).

The two best images obtained in each session were corrected for the rectangular pixels and two unsharp masking filters were applied (binning of the masks 2×2 and 3×3 pixels). Finally the four images were rotated on the computer monitor so that the shadows were oriented horizontally, along the pixel rows. On these images the diameters of Linné and its whitish patch, of Linné A and Linné B and the lengths of their shadows were measured in units of pixels. From the values for Linné A and B and from their known diameters (4.0 and 5.0 km [3], respectively) the scale of the images was obtained (0.69 km per pixel in both observing sessions) which allowed diameters and lengths of the concerned features to be expressed in kilometers. For each CCD frame considered here, the local altitude of the Sun, H, the local

azimuth of the Sun, A, and its colongitude, C, were calculated with the *Lunar Observer's Tool Kit* software. From the shadow lengths and the local solar altitude, the heights of the features casting the shadows were also calculated with the same software. *Tables 1-3* (below) summarize the measurements.

RESULTS

On 1999 JAN 23, with a solar altitude of approximately 1° (*Figure 1*; p. 188, upper left), Linné looked like a hill having a base diameter of 5.5 ± 0.7 km and casting a shadow 8.3 ± 0.7 km in length. The height of the Linné "hill" was estimated as 125 ± 15 m, as compared with the crater wall's true height of 125 m [3]. In *Figure 1*, other hill-like features, similar to Linné, are indicated by the numbers 1, 2 and 3. The letters *a* and *b* indicate, respectively, the craters Linné A and Linné B, whose wall heights were estimated as about 285 ± 25 m and 370 ± 30 m, respectively.

Table 1. Dates and times of the four selected images of Linné, coordinates* of the measured features and relevant solar parameters.†

UT Date	Hour (UT)	Feature	ξ	η	H(°)	A(°)	C(°)
1999 JAN 23	18h 01m	Linné	+0.181	+0.465	0.94	89.88	348.98
1999 JAN 23	18h 01m	Linné A	+0.218	+0.483	3.21	91.96	348.98
1999 JAN 23	18h 01m	Linné B	+0.211	+0.508	3.01	91.15	348.98
1999 JAN 23	18h 18m	Linné			1.06	89.95	349.12
1999 JAN 23	18h 18m	Linné A			3.34	91.23	349.12
1999 JAN 23	18h 18m	Linné B			3.13	91.22	349.12
1999 JAN 24	17h 26m	Linné			11.42	95.49	000.84
1999 JAN 24	17h 28m	Linné			11.43	95.50	000.86

* ξ (Xi) and η (Eta) are lunar rectangular coordinates, in the Orthographic Projection at mean libration, measured in units of the lunar radius, with ξ measured positively to lunar east and η positively to lunar north.

† H is the solar altitude (all values positive), A the solar azimuth, and C the solar colongitude (longitude of sunrise terminator).

Table 2. Dimensions of Linné, seen as hill-shaped, and of the craters Linné A and B.

UT Date	Hour (UT)	Feature	Diameter (pixels, km)		Shadow length (pixels, km)		Height (m)
1999 JAN 23	18h 01m	Linné hill	8	5.5	12	8.3	120
1999 JAN 23	18h 01m	Linné A	6	4.1	8	5.5	300
1999 JAN 23	18h 01m	Linné B	7	4.8	10	6.9	350
1999 JAN 23	18h 18m	Linné hill	8	5.5	12	8.3	130
1999 JAN 23	18h 18m	Linné A	6	4.1	7	4.8	270
1999 JAN 23	18h 18m	Linné B	7	4.8	10	6.9	390

Table 3. Dimensions of Linné, seen as crater-shaped, and of the Linné light patch.

UT Date	Hour (UT)	Feature	Crater diameter (pixels, km)		Patch diameter (pixels, km)	
1999 JAN 24	17h 26m	Linné crater	4	2.8	9	6.2
1999 JAN 24	17h 28m	Linné crater	4	2.8	9	6.2

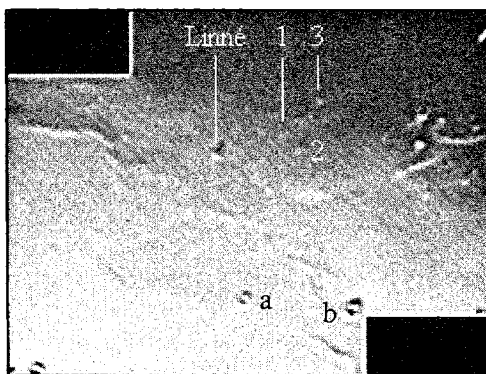


Figure 1. Linné hill recorded on 1999 JAN 23, 18h01m UT, with a local solar altitude of $0^{\circ}.94$; the instrumentation is described in the text. Other hill-like features are numbered 1, 2, 3; the craters Linné A (a) and Linné B (b) are also identified. Lunar north is to the lower right

On 1999 JAN 24, with a solar altitude of about 11° (Figure 2, upper right), Linné appeared as a crater 2.8 ± 0.7 km in diameter, as compared with a true value of 2.45 km [3], filled with shadow and surrounded by a light patch 6.2 ± 0.7 km in diameter. On the same image the formations indicated by the numbers 1, 2 and 3 also revealed their crater nature, with diameters respectively smaller than, nearly equal to or larger than that of Linné, but they showed no trace of light halos.

The 6.2-km diameter of the light patch surrounding the Linné crater in Figure 2 is nearly equal to the diameter of the Linné hill, estimated as about 5.5 km from Figure 1. The conclusion can be drawn that the light patch is detectable under any solar altitude, even if the crater is not discernible, and its diameter is about 6 km.

A photograph taken by the Apollo 15 crew shows Linné as a young crater 2.45 km in diameter, 600 m deep, with a rim height 125 m over the surface of Mare Serenitatis, surrounded by a ring of light ejecta nearly 2 km wide [3]. These data confirm the conclusions presented in this paper.

The different aspects of Linné described in the past, recorded by Apollo 15 in 1971 and by the present author during his January 1999 CCD observations can be summarized as follows:

- [a] deep crater 8 km in diameter (1843).
- [b] light patch (from 1866 to 1999) with a diameter of about 6 km (1971, 1999).

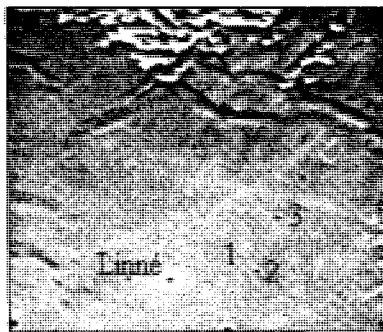


Figure 2. In this image, taken on 1999 JAN 24, 17h28m UT, with a local solar altitude of $11^{\circ}.4$, Linné and the features numbered 1, 2, 3 are revealed as craters. (The instrumentation is described in the text.) Lunar north to lower right

- [c] craterlet or cratercone (from 1867 to 1999) with a diameter of 2.45 km (1971, 1999).
- [d] cratercone or low hill (from 1897 to 1999) with a base diameter of about 6 km (1999).

DISCUSSION

The diameter of 8 km estimated in 1843 (aspect [a]) appears irreconcilable with the present diameter of Linné crater (2.45 km). However, it must be pointed out that Beer and Mädler observed with a 9.5-cm refractor, and Lohrmann with a 10.8-cm refractor, so that Linné's diameter of 2.45 km would put it near the limit of their resolving power. So, it is hard to accept that the 8 km value is the result of precise micrometric measurements, and thus the figure might be the result of a rough visual estimate. Moreover, given the high contrast between the craterlet filled with shadow and the surrounding light terrain, it can be that Beer and Mädler were misled into making a crude, exaggerated estimate of Linné's diameter.

Passing over the unacceptable value of the diameter reported in 1843, the aspects [a] and [c] are perfectly compatible; both indicate a deep pit, filled with shadow under a low Sun, then appearing as a conspicuous craterlet. This paper has revealed that the [b] aspect, the light patch, is a permanent feature seen at least since 1866, and is presently visible under any lighting condition.

Among the different aspects displayed by Linné during the last 157 years, incompatibility appears to remain only

between the form of a deep crater surrounded by a light patch (aspects [a], [b] and [c]) and the form of a hill (aspect [d]). It can be said that this incompatibility is lessened considering that Linné was also seen as a cratercone (aspect [d]); as a hill with a pit on the top, through 45-83 cm instruments. Moreover, comparison between Figures 1 and 2 indicates that, under different lighting conditions, features 1, 2 and 3 also show only one of the two aspects, that of a hill or that of a crater

At this point, it appears that there remain no contradictions among the different portraits of Linné traced by different observers from 1843 to the present, they are only complementary. In fact, an observer recorded an aspect (e.g. the hill), another recorded another aspect (e.g. the crater), representing a unique reality. The same apparent dichotomy was recorded for the craterlets 1, 2 and 3 by an impersonal detector, a CCD camera, under different solar altitudes. Accepting this empirical evidence, it appears unnecessary to assert that Linné underwent important modifications after 1843.

THE HILL-CRATER DICHOTOMY THRILLER

This paper has documented that Linné displays a hill-like appearance under a low Sun (H near 1°) and reveals its crater nature only under a higher Sun (near 11°). This behavior is not limited to Linné but is well known to lunar observers, for example in the case of Plato's floor craterlets, and is well documented in the present paper for the features indicated by the numbers 1, 2 and 3 in Figures 1 and 2. For this hill-crater dichotomy, the author proposes the following explanation. A craterlet seen under grazing illumination can look like a hill, or like a hill with a pit on the top, if the atmosphere-instrument-detector system is unable to record realistically a *key feature* whose dimensions are near or below its resolving power. The *key feature* is the thin luminous crescent separating the shadow filling the craterlet from the shadow cast by the craterlet rim. This crescent is due to the small portion of the craterlet interior wall illuminated by the grazing Sun.

The key feature under discussion is well visible, for example, in Linné A and

B with an 11° solar altitude (Figure 2), thus they immediately reveal their crater nature. In Linné and in the craterlets 1, 2 and 3 under an 1° solar altitude (Figure 1) this luminous sickle should be about 100 m wide at its widest point, and should reduce to nothing at the cusps of a semi-circle having a radius slightly larger than 1 km. As already said, one pixel of the author's imaging system covers a rectangle of the lunar surface about 700 m wide. A feature of width 100 m or less cannot be recorded as such, but only contribute with its illumination to the brightness value of the nearby pixels. The result is some lightening of the otherwise dark pixels within the interior or the rim shadow, with the appearance of faintly illuminated pixels which can simulate a hill top.

Increasing the solar altitude widens the luminous crescent, so, when it becomes about 700 m wide or larger, it can be recorded by a significant number of single pixels. To support this explanation the author devised three tests, two direct and one indirect.

The direct tests can be conducted by observing Linné under an 1° solar altitude with a telescope with an aperture at least 100 cm and the same CCD camera as the author's, or with the same telescope and a CCD with pixels about $5 \mu\text{m}$. Neither test is feasible for the author.

The indirect proof was obtained by degrading the CCD images of Linné A and B craters in Figure 1 with three Gaussian filters having 1, 2 and 3 pixels width at half height. This convolution simulates observations of Linné A and B carried out in poorer seeing conditions, or with a smaller instruments, or observations concerning a smaller crater (e.g. Linné). The results are given in Figures 3-5 (p. 190).

The convolution with a Gaussian filter 1 pixel wide (Figure 3) has no significant effect, but slightly reduces the image noise. The convolution with a Gaussian filter 2 pixels wide (Figure 4) transforms craters Linné A and B into apparent hills having a depression on the top. The convolution with a Gaussian filter 3 pixels wide (Figure 5) transforms craters Linné A and B into hills very similar to Linné's appearance and the features indicated as 1, 2 and 3 in Figure 1.

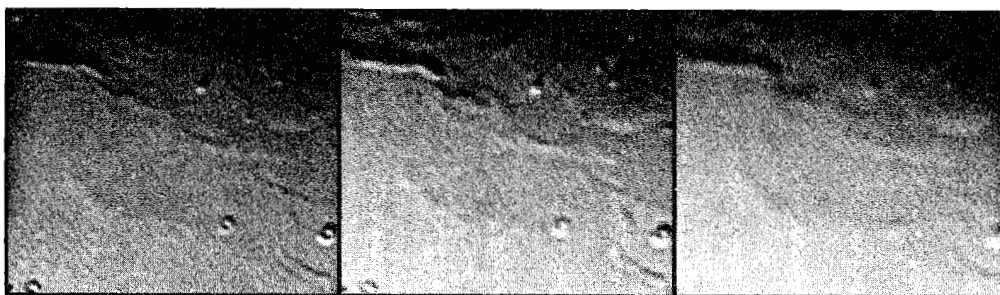


Figure 3. Image of Figure 1 after convolution with a Gaussian filter 1 pixel wide at half height. The only visible effect is a softening of the image.

Figure 4. Image of Figure 1 after convolution with a Gaussian filter 2 pixels wide at half height. The craters Linné A and B appear to be hills with depressions on their summits.

Figure 5. Image of Figure 1 after convolution with a Gaussian filter 3 pixels wide at half height. The craters Linné A and B appear just as Linné and features 1, 2, and 3 appear in Figure 1.

These results show what happens to Linné when it is observed under grazing illumination with an atmosphere-instrument-CCD system of insufficient resolving power. A similar convolution results when the eye or the photographic emulsion is used instead of the CCD detector. In the case of the eye, the discrete detector is the retinal cone cell array. In the case of the photographic emulsion, the discrete detector is the disordered array formed by the silver grains.

CONCLUSIONS

The convolution between the image of a lunar craterlet grazed by sunlight and a discrete detector can disguise the crater aspect when the crater rim width is near the resolving power of the instrument employed, giving the crater the appearance of a hill. The results presented in this paper thus can account for the different aspects recorded for Linné and other craterlets in the past, and support the author's opinion that Linné might not have undergone any physical modification from 1843 to the present.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author thanks Harry Jamieson for the kind loan of the *Lunar Observer's Tool Kit* software and Raffaello Lena of GLR for stimulating discussions.

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- (1) Wilkins, H. P., and Moore, P. *The Moon*, 2nd Ed., Faber and Faber Ltd., London, 1961, pp. 36 and 96.

- (2) The Lunascan Project Home Page is located at:

<http://www.evansville.net/~slk/lunascan.html>.

Their paper on Linné is located at: <http://astrosurf.com/lunascan/Linnecont.htm>

- (3) Wood, Charles A. "Lunar Notebook: Linné: Here Today, Gone Tomorrow." *Sky & Telescope*, Vol. 98, No. 3 (September 1999), p. 127.

• • • • •

Note by Editor: Another useful reference about this crater is: Pike, Richard J. "The Crater Linné." *Sky and Telescope*, Vol. 46, No. 6 (December, 1973), pp. 364-366. Also, below is an Apollo photograph of the crater, showing it in greater detail than can be seen from Earth.

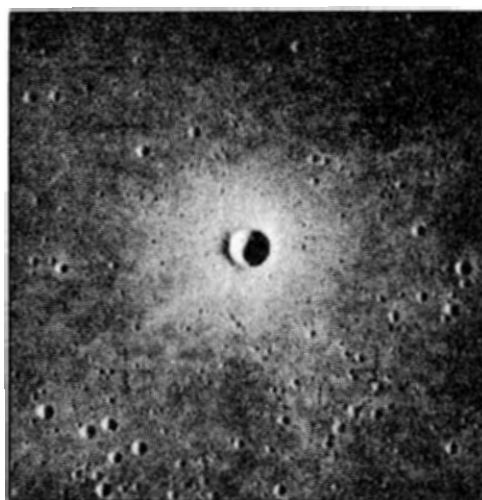


Figure 6. Apollo-15 Mapping Camera photograph of Linné (Frame 408), taken 1971 JUL 31 at about 01^h UT; colongitude -011°.1. North at top.

A.L.P.O. ANNOUNCEMENTS

Reminder for Authors.—As announced in our last previous issue, this issue of *J.A.L.P.O.* is the final one to be produced by the present Editor. Effectively immediately, all submitted material for our Journal should be sent to the A.L.P.O. Publisher, Harry D. Jamieson, P.O. Box 171302, Memphis, TN 38187-1302.

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Brad Smith Honored.—The name of planetary scientist Bradford A. Smith has been assigned to Minor Planet (8553 = 1995 HG) “Bradsmith.” This minor planet was discovered by Japanese amateurs K. Endate and K. Watanabe. In the 1950s and 1960s Dr. Smith was active in the A.L.P.O., his article “Venus in the Ultraviolet” appearing in the *J.A.L.P.O.* July, 1959 issue.

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March 19-24, 2001: International Planetarium and Astronomy Conference. In Sri Lanka. [Sri Lankan Skies & Sir Arthur Conference Secretariat, c/o Sri Lanka Planetarium, Stanley Wijesundera Mawatha, Colombo 07, Sri Lanka. E-Mail: (T.C. Samaranyake) planetsam2001@yahoo.com or planetsam2000_1999@yahoo.co.uk; Website: www.slnews.net/slplanet or www.slplanet.lgo.uk]

March 26-28, 2001: Fourth Annual Raytheon Science Data Centers Symposium. In Pasadena, California. [Lou Mayo (East Coast Chair), Raytheon ITSS, telephone 301-286-0165, E-mail lmayo@pop600.gsfc.nasa.gov; Emily Greene (West Coast Chair), ITSS, telephone 626-744-5420, E-mail egreene@sdsio.jpl.nasa.gov; Website: <http://www.sci-datacenter.org>]

April 2-7, 2001: Brown Dwarfs and Planets, 31st Saas-Fee Advanced Course. At Grimentz, Switzerland. [Website: <http://obswww.unige.ch/saas-fee/>]

June 11-15, 2001: First Eddington Workshop. In Cordoba, Spain. the topic being the Eddington ESA space mission for asteroseismology and extrasolar planet hunting (see also the next conference). [Website: <http://astro.esa.int/SA-general/Projects/Eddington/Eddi2001>]

June 18-20, 2001: Workshop on the Evolving Sun and Its Influence on Planetary Environments. In Granada, Spain. Sponsored by the Spanish Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Cientificas (CSIC) and the Instituto Nacional de Tecnica Aeroespacial (INTA) through the Instituto de Astrofisica de Andalucia (Granada) and the Centro de Astrobiologia (Madrid). [Alvaro Gimenez; Telephone: 34 91 813 11 55; FAX: 34 91 813 11 60; E-mail: ag@laeff.esa.es; Website: <http://www.iaa.es/junecongress>] Note that transportation from Cordoba to Granada will be provided for those participating in both the Eddington and the Evolving Sun Workshops.

June 25-27, 2001: Deuterium in the Universe. Conference at the Observatoire de Meudon, France; one day will be devoted to the Solar System. [E-Mail: deuterium.2001@obspm.fr; Website: <http://www.usr.obspm.fr/unicom/deuterium/textes/home/htm>]

June 25-30, 2001: Conference on Jupiter—Planet, Satellites and Magnetosphere. At the Harvest Regal Hotel, Boulder, Colorado. [Fran Bagenal, Professor of Astrophysical & Planetary Sciences, CB 391, University of Colorado, Boulder. Telephone: 303-492-2598; FAX: 303-492-6946; E-mail: bagenal@colorado.edu; Website: <http://lasp.colorado.edu/Jupiter/index.html>]

July 24-28, 2001: ALCON 2001. Astronomical League-A.L.P.O. Convention, hosted by the Astronomical League and the Mid-East Region of the Astronomical League. At the Holiday Inn and Francis Scott Key Conference Center, Frederick, Maryland. [Holiday Inn reservations: telephone 301-694-7500 or 800-868-0094. Meeting information, contact Frank Moon, Chair ALCON 2001, 7210 E. Sundown Court, Frederick, MD 21702; E-mail: ALCON2001Chair@aol.com]

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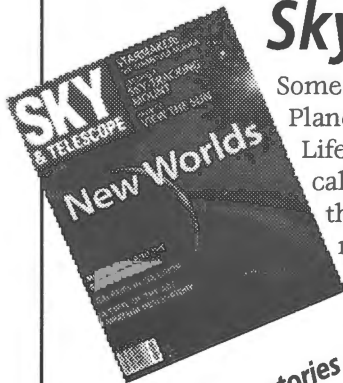
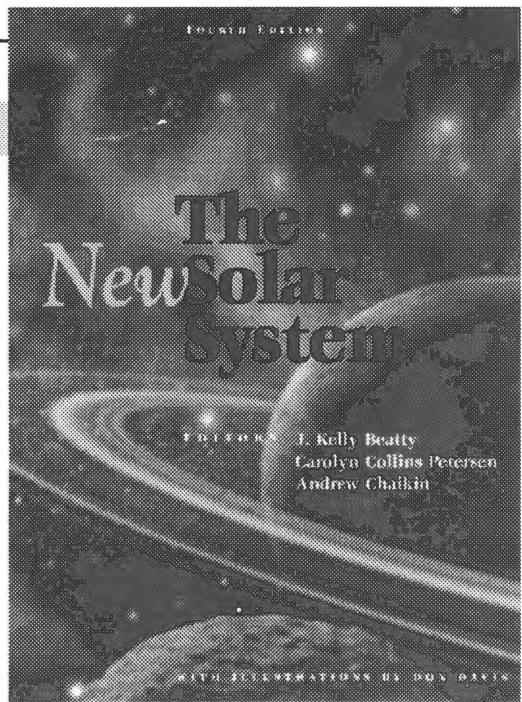
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