

Teaching of Astronomy in Asian-Pacific Region

Bulletin No. 2

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Preface

We start to publish our Bulletin of "Teaching of Astronomy in Asian-Pacific Region" of the International Astronomical Union (IAU) by this issue of February 1990. A Working Committee (WC) of astronomical education in the Asian-Pacific (AP) region of the IAU was settled during the A-P regional meeting of the IAU held in Beijing in October 1987, to discuss our efforts for activation of astronomical education in the AP region. After exchanging some numbers of letters within members of the WC, the chairman of the WC made proposals on our activities: 1) to promote exchange of materials and techniques for astronomical education, 2) to promote activation in teaching of astronomy at some AP countries having no professional astronomers, 3) to promote exchange of school teachers and their ideas, and 4) to start a regular (semi-annual at the beginning) publication of this Bulletin. These proposals were approved at the WC meeting in Baltimore, USA during the IAU General Assembly in August 1988. The Chairman of the WC hopes this Bulletin will support activities of astronomical education in the AP countries and will develop much.

February 26, 1990

Syuzo Isobe
Chairman of the WC

Members of the WC

S. Isobe (Chairman; Japan), A. A. Aiad (Egypt),
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COMMUNICATING SPACE TO THE PUBLIC IN AUSTRALIA

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ABSTRACT

Improved public understanding of space engineering and science issues is crucial to gaining wide support for the continuation of space programs. Accordingly, it is necessary to convey clear information on the value of space activities to all parts of the community, emphasising their influence on everyday life. This large task involves marketing by the space community to the media, educators, community organisations and commercial bodies. Appropriate media strategies, curriculum planning, special events, electronic information services and museum roles are suggested for implementation.

WHY COMMUNICATE TO THE PUBLIC?

This paper is an effort to highlight the importance of educating the general community about space and some of the means to that end. It is hoped that as a result of discussion on the topic, planning can advance for the second "Communicating Space to the Public" space education conference to be held in Melbourne in May 1991 under the auspices of the Australian Astronomy and Space Education Liaison Group and the Australian Space Policy Institute.

Although the public see science and technology (scitech) as one of the most important influences on their way of life, their attitudes are marked by ambivalence, wariness, and a sense of the inevitability of technological progress. There is growing concern that the gulf between scitech developments and public understanding is widening, with possibly serious implications for the future of Western industrialised and democratic societies. Similar considerations apply to space science and technology which already include aspects of physics, botany, medicine, electrical

engineering, fluid mechanics, chemistry, law, economics and so on. Public and Government support for space can be viewed as one part of the recognition of the role of technology in our future.

At present though, the public's attitude to space is a mixture of awe, anti-technology feelings, pseudo-scientific ideas and an ignorance of the role that we can play in space. As space exploration programs grew out of intercontinental ballistic missile programs, they are often seen by people as military programs, with all the negative socio-political and cultural connotations that our society currently places on such activities. Yet this view hides the potential for private space ventures, beneficial space applications and personal involvement in space program management. Every one of us is affected by communications satellite services, weather satellite predictions, and navigation satellite use by airlines, just to cite a few examples. This personal level of the influence of space technology needs to be stressed to the person in the street, and our efforts at communicating space to the community should be directed at a personal level as appropriate.

STRATEGIES FOR COMMUNICATION

The importance of space activities must be conveyed to all sections of the community. This includes the political and commercial sectors, the media, educators and the general public. Creating a "space aware" society is the first and most important step in generating public, and ultimately political and business support, for space policies and aerospace industry activities.

Clear, straightforward explanations in non-complex, non-jargonistic language, supported by visuals wherever possible, are the best method of getting the message across. It is important to bear the target audience in mind at all times during the development and presentation of any materials. Poorly prepared attempts will not only fail to reach their target, but may also serve to damage the space awareness cause by alienating the audience and hence reinforcing negative stereotypes of science and technology.

Care should be taken to select the most appropriate medium for the information to be conveyed, so as to obtain maximum exposure for the message and benefit for the public relations effort involved. The electronic media prefer short, lively, non-technical presentations of information, with good visual images for television. The print media offer better opportunities for the exposition of more complex subjects, or issues which require more comprehensive, detailed or technical information. Ideally, it is preferable to aim for multi-channel dissemination of information, with specifically tailored packages for each of the different media targeted. In this way, the widest possible community exposure can be achieved and the message itself is re-inforced by delivery through different channels.

THE MEDIA FOR THE MESSAGE

Because of their pervasiveness in our society, the electronic media are the most important tool in engendering community space awareness and every opportunity to use them must be effectively utilised. News bulletins, news magazines and current affairs programs cover the widest possible demographic audience of all electronic media productions and are, therefore, a prime channel for communicating space to the broadest cross-section of the community. The current space-related content of these programs is very low and rather narrowly focussed. But the frequency of occurrence of space-related news items compares favourably with the general coverage of science and technology. This indicates that news program producers at least recognise some interest in space on the part of their audience, and are consequently prepared to accord some air-time to space-related stories.

After the news and current affairs programs come a wide range of television and radio programs which provide access to narrower, more specialised audiences who can be targeted with specific messages. Foremost among these are the popular science magazine programs which provide ready access channels for communicating space to audiences at least generally receptive and pro-science. Business and financial programs similarly provide opportunities for the proponents of space industry and commercialisation to present

their case. Health and lifestyle programs offer a forum for publicising the many medical spin-offs that have been derived from space research. The range of children's current affairs, science and educational programs can be very useful for conveying information about space activities to a particularly receptive audience. Similarly, the multi-cultural and ethnic media should not be ignored as channels for raising space awareness, especially when it comes to highlighting the international nature of much of today's space activities. Documentaries, chat-shows, variety and talk-back programs on radio and television reach large audiences, including the overlooked, such as the homebound and elderly.

Newspapers and news magazines not only provide all the communication opportunities of their electronic counterparts, they also offer the possibilities of feature articles, which can be used to focus on specific space issues or aspects of space technology. Regular scitech columns in the daily newspapers offer avenues for reporting the most recent developments. Cultivating good relations with science journalists is just as important as with the electronic media, since it may lead to opportunities to suggest space related topics for regular columns and feature articles. Specialist newspapers and magazines should be considered major channels for reaching specific markets, and initiatives should be taken to encourage staff-journalists to produce space-related articles. Science and business magazines are the prime targets here, but others catering to almost every imaginable pastime should not be overlooked for their link to a space theme. Similarly, the ethnic press should not be overlooked, nor the burgeoning field of children's and teenage magazines.

ALTERNATIVE PROGRAMS

In today's increasingly computer literate and using society, computer-based information services, data-bases and billboards provide exciting new avenues for communicating space awareness. In the United States, NASA's highly successful 'Spacelink' public access database is only one of a growing number of both free and subscription space information services accessible.

Around the world there is a growing movement to introduce space studies across the entire school curriculum using the students' general interest in space as a lead-in to a broad range of subjects such as geography, history, social studies and Earth science, as well as the more obvious mathematics, physics and chemistry. The aim is to increase the students' general awareness and knowledge of the role of space science and technology in their lives, and also encourage them to undertake more high level studies in mathematics and science, eventually leading to associated scitech careers. Public pro-space societies have a special role to play in communicating space to the public, harnessing the enthusiasm of their already space-aware members. Often these societies create their own opportunities through displays, public lectures, and special events.

Museum and science centre displays can be important venues for educating the public about space, reaching an average thirty percent of the community. They offer unique opportunities for genuine examples of space hardware to be displayed to the public. Space related facilities often maintain small visitor's centre displays. Science centres and Omnimax facilities also offer special opportunities to cover space science. Commercial or government temporary space displays at shopping and exhibition centres allow the advantages of exhibitions to be taken to the public.

Exposure of space matters has particularly expanded over the last five years, but more needs to be done. The pressure must be maintained by all of us concerned about the world's technological future.

AUTHORS' NOTE: A version of this paper was originally presented at the Fifth National Space Engineering Symposium at Canberra, Australia in November 1989. A copy of the full paper will be found in the text of the Proceedings. This summary is presented here because the authors believe that the issues raised, and strategies suggested herein are as relevant to the astronomical community as they are to other areas of space science and technology.

A BRIEF REPORT ON TEACHING OF ASTRONOMY AT CHULALONGKORN UNIVERSITY

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SUMMARY

This is to introduce the Astronomy Group at Chulalongkorn University, its members and activities. The group serves the nation by educating its youth and the public in general beside doing basic research in astronomy and space science.

INTRODUCTION

Chulalongkorn University, established in 1917, is the nation's oldest university and the first university to provide training in astronomy in its Department of Physics, which was founded in 1934 as the first of its kind in Thailand.

Astronomy teaching and research have been carried out since the very early history of the Department of Physics. The number of staff members trained in astronomy has grown slowly from one, about forty years ago, to the present number of ten, consisting of six faculty members and four supporting technicians. Former students, both graduates and undergraduates, who have studied astronomy at the Department are now working in the country's only planetarium and in universities and colleges around the Kingdom.

THE PRESENT STATE OF ASTRONOMY ACTIVITIES AT CHULALONGKORN

We have a long history of astronomy activities on campus with our resources mainly devoted to training undergraduates and M.Sc. candidates. Currently, the Department offers undergraduate courses in Introductory Astronomy, Spherical Astronomy, Celestial Mechanics, Galactic Astronomy, Basic Astronomical Instruments, Theoretical Astrophysics and related courses in Relativity, Meteorology, Optics and Electronics. Courses offered at the graduate level are Solar Physics, Astronomical Instruments,

Astronomical Techniques, Theory of Stellar Atmospheres, Celestial Mechanics and Selected Topics in Astrophysics.

We have instruments for the training of students and for conducting research such as a telescope, a heliostat, a spectrograph, lenses, mirrors, gratings, prisms, cameras, filters and film, which can be set up for special observation programs wherever and whenever the occasion arises. The biggest mirror is a twelve inch and the best grating is a high quality reflection type. Most research has concentrated on the sun, eclipses, comets, theoretical modeling and computational astronomy.

Besides educating students and doing research, we also have obligation to the public. Our members occasionally lecture off campus to various groups, write articles in popular magazines and conduct radio programs in astronomy. Moreover, tours to view comets and eclipses are arranged according to public interest.

THE STAFF MEMBERS

Of the six faculty members trained in astronomy, Dr.Rawi Bhavilai, a professor emeritus of the Physics Department, has done work in solar physics. Dr.Pornchai Pacharin-Tanakun, the leader of the astronomy group, has experience in numerical modeling of accretion disks and stellar winds. Mr.Sompong Jaidee has done research in stellar astronomy. Mr.Manit Rugivarodom has experience in spectroscopic study of solar atmosphere. Dr.Pirapat Sirisomboonlarp has worked on positional astronomy. And, lastly, Mr.Sathon Wijarnwannalak holds a master degree in spectrograph design.

Four technicians provide valuable service to the group. One of them is a darkroom expert, one is a telescope assistant or night assistant, the other two are machinists. Under the direction of Dr.Rawi Bhavilai and Dr.Pornchai Pacharin-Tanakun, the technicians produced and ran equipment for the photographic study of Comet Halley during the 1985-1986 apparition.

Seven faculty members in other related fields: two cosmic ray physicists, two optical scientists, two electronic physicists and one meteorologist, are very helpful in providing relevant contributions. They operate the optical and electronic shops and their command of their respective fields enhances our group's experience and widens our perception of the astronomical world.

A NEW RESEARCH-CLASS TELESCOPE

The Japanese Government has granted us a 45 cm cassegrain reflector together with a computer control system, a photo-electric photometer and a spectrograph. It will be the largest telescope in Thailand. The system should be ready to see first light early in 1991.

The telescope with its instruments will be worked to its full capabilities in providing research and education opportunity to anyone who has an interest in astronomy.

INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGE

Members of the astronomy group have taken part in several international meetings. For example, Dr.Rawi Bhavilai has been to several IAU (International Astronomical Union) General Assemblies and meetings. Dr.Pornchai Pacharin-Tanakun attended the International School for Young Astronomers in Indonesia in 1983 and participated in the 1985 XIX IAU General Assembly in New Delhi, where he was proposed as an advisor to IAU Commission 46: Teaching of Astronomy; and finally became a full member of the Union at the XX Assembly in Baltimore, 1988. Mr.Manit has also been to the International School in Malaysia in 1990. It is hoped that when we are ready, the University will apply to the IAU for the Visiting Lecturers' Program and will seek cooperation with other astronomical observatories abroad, particularly in Asia. Our role in training future young regional astronomers through IAU's International School shall also be considered.

TEACHING OF ASTRONOMY IN JAPAN: — Some problems in the New Course of Study —

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ABSTRACT

By 1989 new course of study in elementary and secondary school had been devised and been started. I will report about astronomical contents in the new course of study. That new course of study has some problems related with recent research of science education in which to know that how children's concepts and misconceptions are constructed is important and in which philosophy of science plays also an important role.

I. Introduction

For science education of elementary and secondary school, there are some innovative views. One is the view that children's cognition on science learning is important. We must know how children's concept is constructed. However, we have little idea of how and what children's concept about astronomical events and objects are constructed. They sometimes construct misconceptions which we can't accept, which have to be repaired or exchanged for reasons that they are different from the accepted views which are believed that it is true by scientists. In this respect, researchers of science education study what and how children have concepts using results of cognitive psychology.

Another is the view that philosophy of science contribute to how to learn scientific methods. In philosophy of science, a scientific method which we discuss as "view of new philosophy of science" that has appeared since Kuhn (1962) suggest in "The Structure of Scientific Revolutions" is not different from the previous one, which we call as "traditional philosophical perspective". Science education has been affected by "view of new philosophy of science" for recent 10 years. It is typical that a campaign of STS (Science/Technology/Society) curriculum have already carried out in U.S.A. and U.K. This campaign has a purpose to deal with social problems through understanding appropriately about interaction among science, technology, and society. It is important that core view in STS curriculum is "to learn about science" rather than "to learn science" which has been teaching in science education.

By 1989 the new course of study in elementary and secondary school had been devised and started. In this work I will report the contents of the new course of

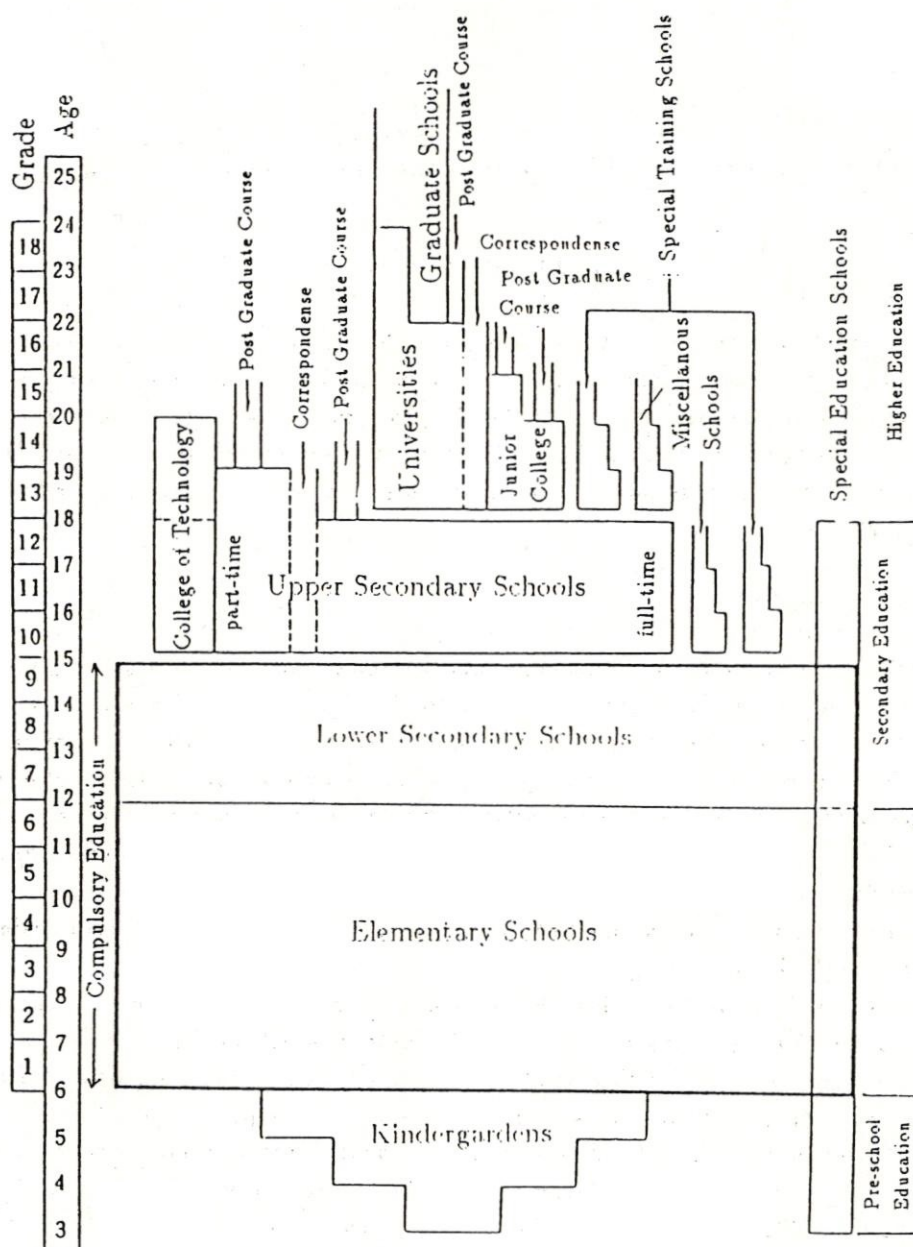


Figure 1. Organization of Present School System in Japan

study in Japan and point out some problems about teaching of astronomy in Japan from results of recent science education.

II. Science Education in the New Course of Study

Figure 1 is the organization of present school system in Japan. The new course of study had revised after an interval of about ten years, which is constructed by the Japanese Ministry of Education. There are some changes in contents and subject names.

a) Elementary School

In this revise, largest modification in elementary school is to have built a subject "seikatu-ka", Life Study, as new subjects in stead of abolition of Science and Social Study in grades 1 and 2. Scientific contents in elementary school is not almost changed because a part of Life Study also include scientific contents.

Elementary is from grade 1 to 6 and scientific contents as Science are learned in grade 3-6. Science is divided three divisions which are not distinct subject as teaching science; division A: "Life and its Environment", division B: "Materials and Energy", and division C: "Earth and Space". Astronomical contents are a part of division C.

b) Lower Secondary

Lower secondary is from grade 7 to 9. There are two fields in "Science" which is also undivided as subject: Field 1 is contained of physics and chemistry, and field 2 is contained of biology and earth science. Astronomy is in Field 2 and is mainly learned in grade 7 in unit of "Earth and Solar System".

c) Upper Secondary

Upper secondary is from grade 10 to 12. There are 5 division and 13 subject, which is shown in Table 1 as comparison to previous subjects. Student must select more than 2 divisions from 5 divisions and 9 subjects from General Science, Physics IA and IB, Chemistry IA and IB, Biology IA and IB, and Earth Science IA and IB. Student learned each IB subject is able to learn each II subject which is farther than subject IB. Subject IA make much of daily lives. In each subject, computers must be used for problem solving and others.

Astronomical contents in Earth Science IA, Earth Science IB, and Earth Science II. Other contents are geology, geophysics and meteorology.

As a part of General Science astronomical contents are taught.

III. Astronomy in New Course of Study

Table 1. Subjects of Upper Secondary

Previous(1978)		New(1989)	
Subjects	Credits ^a	Subjects	Credits ^a
General Science I ^b	(4)	General Science	(4)
General Science II	(2)	Physics IA	(2)
Physics	(4)	Physics IB	(4)
Chemistry	(4)	Physics II	(2)
Biology	(4)	Chemistry IA	(2)
Earth Science	(4)	Chemistry IB	(4)
		Chemistry II	(2)
		Biology IA	(2)
		Biology IB	(4)
		Biology II	(2)
		Earth Science IA	(2)
		Earth Science IB	(4)
		Earth Science II	(2)

^a 1 credit = 35 classroom hours of lesson. One classroom hour = 50 min.

^b Required Course.

Table 2 and Table 3 show comparisons of previous and new contents concerned with astronomy in "Science" of elementary schools and lower secondary schools, respectively. Contents of the new course of study is shown as follows.

a) Elementary School

• Grade 3

Sunny Side and Shadow

In this grade pupils learn about relation between sunny side and shadow caused with direction of sun. As metological contents they also learn about relation warmth and wetness.

• Grade 4

There is no astronomical contents.

• Grade 5

Sun and Moon

In this grade pupils observe and learn positions, movement and shapes of sun

Table 2. Astronomical Contents in Elementary Schools

Grade	Previous(1978)	New(1989)
Grade 1	shadow	_____
Grade 2	shadow caused with sun	_____
Grade 3	*****	sunny side, shadow and position of sun
Grade 4	shape and movements of sun and moon	*****
Grade 5	movements of stars and constellations	shape and movements of sun and moon
Grade 6	seasons and altitude of sun	movements of stars

and moon.

- Grade 6

Star and its Movement

In this grade pupils observe brightness, color and position of stars and they learn characteristics and law that star move regularly.

b) Lower Secondary School

Astronomy is learned in grade 7 in unit of "earth and solar system". There are several items.

i) Familiar Astronomical Object

- Moon and sun
- Apparent motion of celestial objects by earth spin
- Apparent motion of celestial objects by earth rotation

The student find characteristics of moon, sun and earth from observations and references.

ii) Planets and Solar System

- Difference between planets and stars:

Table 3. Astronomical Contents in Lower Secondary Schools

Previous(1978)	New(1989)
<p><i>i) Movements of Earth</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Apparent motion of celestial objects and earth spin • Apparent motion of celestial objects and earth rotation <p><i>ii) Components of Solar System</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shapes and character of earth, moon and sun • Solar system <p><i>iii) Stars and Cosmic</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relation among color, brightness, temperature of stars and distance from earth • Our galaxy consist of a number of stars 	<p><i>i) Familiar Astronomical Object</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Moon and sun • Apparent motion of celestial objects by earth spin • Apparent motion of celestial objects by earth rotation <p><i>ii) Planets and Solar System</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Difference between planets and stars • Movement of planets and solar system

- Movement of planets and solar system:

c) Upper Secondary School

In Upper Secondary it is different from elementary and lower secondary in the point of selection of subject. In previous course of study, "Earth science" is only selected by about 7 % of all (Tubota 1990). Though this value may be owing that one student probably selected more than two subjects, selection of earth science in the entrance examinations for national university is nearly equal, which is about 6 %. These value are so lower than other Physics (22 %), Chemistry (39 %), and Biology (32 %) (Tubota 1990). These tendencies will not be changed in new course of study. Many suppose that selection of Earth Science is worse. Other reason of low rate of selection is a small number of teachers teaching "Earth Science", moreover there are a little with abilities of teaching astronomy.

Astronomical contents in upper secondary are shown as follows.

i) Earth Science IA

This subject is taught for growth of scientific views and thoughts through observing familiar events around us.

Theme is "Movement of astronomical objects and human life"

- Time: Movement of Sun and Stars in Celestial
- Season and Ephemeric Time: Relative Position and Periods of Earth, Moon and Sun

ii) Earth Science IB

This subject have purpose that the students acquire ability of research through observations and experiments and understand fundamental conception, principles, and law.

Theme is "Earth in Space"

- Earth as Planet: Spin and Rotation of Earth, Movement of Planets
- Sun and Stars: Sun, Stars, Stellar Evolution through HR Diagram, Energy Source of Star
- Research Activity about Earth as Planet

iii) Earth Science II

This subject have purpose that the students have ability of research through observation and experiments and understand fundamental conception, principles, and low.

Theme is "Cosmic Components".

- Our Galaxy: Distributions of Stars and Gas in Galaxy, Structure of Galaxy
- Galaxies: Shapes and kinds of Galaxies, Distance and Distribution

iv) General Science

Astronomical materials are used as a part of "understanding of nature". There are a little students who will select this subject as well as General Science II of previous course of study.

IV. Some Problems in New Course of Study

Many teachers who teach science including astronomy in elementary and secondary school point out as follows.

- There are small numbers of teachers with abilities of teaching astronomy.
- There are a little contents about astronomy.
- It is difficult for pupils and students to understand astronomy.
- There is a gap between interest of student and contents of curriculum.
- The students must study for the entrance examination of advanced school.
- Observations are not sufficiently achieved much and at all owing to various problems.

- The students are not growing up with time-space conception.

Mentioned above the problems are summarized into three problems in teaching of astronomy. Firstly it is concerned with training teachers with abilities of teaching astronomy. It is also concerned with problems of university of training teachers. Those problems are argued at many domestic and international conferences and papers (*e.g.* Owaki and Isobe ; IAU Colloquium No.105).

Secondly it is concerned with children's cognition of time-space . We must know the actual condition of children about how they think in astronomical materials. However, we know little about how formation of children's concept, especially time-space conception, is going on. In new course of study, though curriculum and materials is considered about the actual condition of children, those are little mentioned about the cognitive process of children and why and how children make misconceptions. Research into children's concepts of astronomical object, *e.g.* earth, moon and sun, reported that children construct their own ideas and meanings for the events they observe in the natural world long before they receive any formal education. Nussbaum and Novak (1976), Nussbaum (1979), Sneider and Pulos (1983) and Baxter (1989) revealed and confirm this view. These concepts of children are seen in cross-cultural study (Mali and Howe 1979; Klein 1982; Matumori 1986). These studies reveal that children construct similar conception for astronomical events though difference of cultural and social environments and educational system cause different understanding.

Although these researches show a reduction in the more naive views as age increases, misconceptions persist in many children and some pass on into adulthood. It is the fact that many children's notions have historical ideas which ancient people thought, which is, strictly speaking, different between children's concept and the ancient concept in the view point of philosophy of science. Children change concept about astronomical events as age increases.

Thirdly it come from philosophy of science. We don't mention about the scientific method and science education curriculum because those are being discussed by a number of studies of science education (*e.g.* Hodson 1985; Hills 1989). On astronomy education, Owaki (1987) claim the meaning. In the new course of study, however, astronomical contents which include significance of philosophy of science don't seem to be discussed sufficiently.

V. Conclusions

Many researchers have reported various problems of teaching astronomy in materials and curriculums, most of which are based on the views how efficiently teachers teach astronomy to children by using good materials. What are then "good" materials ? Most of "good" materials as we called are devised practically. Recent science education research reveal the importance of children's cognition. In this respect, we

have to develop "good" materials.

In Japan the new course of study had revised after an interval of about ten years. It is seemed that there are some problems in the new course of study from point of view that studies of science education have been tending to change next phase. Recent science education studies reveal the importance of children's cognition which is researched on method of science, curriculum, and materials through philosophy of science and cognitive psychology. It is a time that we may again have to recognize a role of astronomy in schools among science education.

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INTERFERENCE BY LIGHT OF ASTRONOMICAL OBSERVATIONS

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1. Introduction

Modern society is a very complicated system; one of the complexities is the fact that the production and the consumption usually are located at different places, far from each other. Production and consumption are in this respect not restricted to material items: information and means for cultural or physical recreation and enjoyment are part of them. All this requires a very large amount of transportation; a large proportion of this it is road transportation of persons or goods.

The perfection of artificial lighting permitted to have such transportation at night in the absence of (natural) daylight: life can go on also after sun-set! From this point of view, artificial lighting is one of the major assets of our - technological - culture.

Because a large part of the transportation of persons and goods takes place on the open road, there is a great need for outdoor lighting. This outdoor lighting, however, has serious draw-backs: it causes disturbance and discomfort for many persons, many of whom has nothing to do with the transportation for which the lighting is installed. Here we are facing "light trespass". Light trespass has victims; one group of victims are the astronomers - both the professionals and the amateurs. They are restricted in their possibilities to make accurate observations.

Some people have a simple solution for light trespass: just switch off all outdoor lighting. Fortunately, also the victims of light trespass are more reasonable in their approach. The solution of the light trespass problems has to be found in improvements of the lighting design, where the function of the lighting is compared to the adverse effects of it. It will be necessary to improve the co-operation between the astronomical and the lighting communities.

2. Light trespass

Light trespass is a matter of major concern for the astronomers. Usually, it presents itself in the form of a sky glow in the vicinity of large urban or industrial concentrations. The luminance of the sky glow can conveniently be expressed by "Walker's law" that can be written as:

$$\text{Log } p = - 4.7 \log R - \log \theta$$

(after Anon, 1984; see Walker 1973) in which p is the ratio between the observed sky glow as measured in the direction of the source under an

elevation of 45 degrees and the natural background radiation, R the distance to the source (in km) and ϕ the total luminous flux of the outdoor lighting in the source (in lumen). The background radiation is usually taken as amounting to 2.10^{-4} cd/m². This law is established for cities in the South-West of the USA (Crawford, 1983, 1985; Turnrose, 1974; Walker, 1973). It seems to be applicable for other locations as well (Fisher & Turner, 1977).

More recently, the publications of Garstang gave a more solid mathematical basis for the assessment of the night-sky brightness. First, a flat-earth computer model was constructed (Garstang, 1986). The calculated values agreed well with the observed data, but the inclusion of distant urban agglomerations required a further adaption of the model that allowed for the curvature of the earth (Garstang 1989). The model is based on the physical properties of atmospheric scatter. The adapted model is applied to a large number of sites with considerable success. Further data are needed to extend the model for wider use; notably the approximation of the use of artificial light by taking 1000 lumen per head seems not to be valid for all countries. Finch et al. (1980) suggested values between 500 and 1000 lumen per head, but Schreuder (1988) concluded that values as low as 50 lumen per head can be found as well.

A special colloquium sponsored jointly by IAU and CIE was organised on this subject in conjunction with the IAU General Assembly (the IAU Colloquium No. 112 "Light pollution, radio interference, and space debris", August 13 - 16, 1988, Washington, D.C.; see Anon 1988).

Surveys of the problems of sky glow and of the remedies against it are given in Anon (1985, 1985a) and IAU/CIE (1980) and also in the special issue of *Vistas In Astronomy* (Anon, 1985b).

The sky glow is a result of all outdoor lighting installations. In the urban areas as are prevalent in the South-West of the USA the contribution of road lighting seems to be only small as compared to the contribution of other outdoor lighting, particularly of billboard and advertisement lighting. According to Finch et al. (1979) for the city of San Carlos (Cal.) the street lighting contributes only 14% to the total (direct and reflected) upward luminous flux, 86% comes from other sources. A large part of the upward flux comes from billboard lighting by means of floodlights; a practice that is not widely in use outside the US.

Waldram (1972) concluded on the basis of calculations of light scatter in the atmosphere that in a particular English town the contribution of the downward flux to the sky haze luminance, even of non-cut off lanterns, was about three times the contribution of the upward flux. More in general it is, however, not known what is the situation in other parts of the world where rather different practices of outdoor lighting may be found. Particularly it would be of interest to know how far Walker's law applies for continental Europe, and what would be the portion of street lighting in the upward luminous flux, because recently street lighting is mostly by semi-cut-off lanterns.

It should be kept in mind that a great part of astronomical observations are made in the infrared and ultraviolet regions. Furthermore, a large part of the observations involve spectroscopy. This implies that it is not enough to consider the "white" visible light of the sky glow; its spectral composition is also important. Finally, other natural or man-made disturbances may hamper astronomical observation (radio emission, vibration, air pollution etc.; see Anon, 1984, 1985, 1988).

3. The function of road lighting

The primary function of transport lighting is to permit that societal activities may proceed also during the time that the (natural) daylight is lacking. The two major categories of transport lighting are the lights carried by the traffic participants (the vehicles) themselves and the public (overhead, street) lighting. We will deal mostly with the latter because very little is known about the contribution of the former to the light trespass; furthermore, there seem to be no remedial measures that are practically applicable at present or in the near future.

The function of road lighting is derived from the visual task aspects of the traffic participants. Here we will concentrate on (car) drivers as their task is the most demanding. The task of drivers is two-fold:

- to reach the destination of the trip;
- to avoid collisions while doing so.

Broadly speaking, the first task involves the selection of the route and maintaining it, the second task is related to the avoidance of incidents and obstacles. Details of this "model" for traffic participation are given by Schreuder (1984).

In the last instance both tasks involve exclusively movements of the vehicle, and in changes therein: longitudinal and lateral position on the road, and the time derivatives of these (speed, decelerations, accelerations. Furthermore, it should be stressed that taking part in traffic, particularly as the driver of a car, is primarily a decision making task, and not in the first place a visual task, as is often stated. This may be illustrated by the large influence on accident frequency of even a minor dose of alcohol: visual processing is not impaired at all, but the decision making capability is.

The decisions are made on the basis of visual information, as in present road transportation other means of information transfer are hardly used. Thus, road lighting is essential for the provision of the information also in the dark. The two tasks require specific information (the demand); the lighting installation provides the information (the supply). In order to permit adequate road transport, the supply should exceed or at least equal the demand (see Schreuder, 1977). In this way the function of road lighting can be described as providing the information that is needed for the different task elements in such a way that the demands are met.

The supply must meet the demand. To investigate whether such is the case, two ways may be followed. First, one may determine the (quality or quantity of) the road lighting, and look into the accident statistics to find out whether the requirements as regards the safety goals are met. This has been done on a large scale (OECD, 1971; CIE, 1960, 1990; Fisher & Hall, 1977; Schreuder, 1983, 1988a) resulting in the statement that "good" road lighting as compared with "poor" lighting may result in a reduction of about 30% in night-time injury accidents for major urban roads and for rural motorways. Three major questions are unanswered yet: what exactly is "good"; what types of road require (public) road lighting, and what is the percentage of accident reduction on other types of road. For answering these questions one needs to proceed differently. Here, the supply-and-demand model is split up in elements. The first step is to determine what are the visually relevant things (the visually critical elements) for different task aspects, e.g. for different manoeuvres that have to be performed to maintain course or to avoid obstacles. Therefore, several visually critical elements have to be defined (Adrian, 1976; CIE, 1981, 1990a; Padmos, 1984; Schreuder, 1984, 1988b; Walraven, 1980). More in

particular, the run-of-the-road usually is more important than specific isolated objects. Recent studies make it clear that the recognition is even more important (Schreuder, 1985, 1986; Theewes 1989, 1989 a).

Extensive research and wide-spread practical experience show that the degree in which road lighting fulfills its traffic function can be quantified by the road surface luminance (the "brightness"). In addition, the uniformity of the luminance pattern and the glare are important, and obviously the visual guidance the driver may receive from the general road aspect including the lighting installation. See for a detailed discussion of these aspects: (De Boer ed., 1967 and Van Bommel & De Boer, 1980). Contrary to the opinion that was held for many decades - and that is held even now - it is NOT the illuminance (the amount of light falling into the surface) that is important. This implies that on road surfaces with a high light reflection, the luminous flux to be installed may be reduced. There is less agreement about the way the function for other road users - particularly pedestrians - are fulfilled. Sometimes one prefers the horizontal illuminance, sometimes the vertical or the semicylindrical illuminance, and again sometimes the luminance on the face of other pedestrians (Van den Brink & Tan, 1979; Schreuder, 1980; Caminada & Van Bommel, 1980, 1984).

As long as the question "what is good lighting" has not been answered, it is not possible to indicate what levels of luminance have to be recommended for different type of roads. Usually, one takes a value of 1 cd/m^2 as the minimum luminance for important traffic thoroughfares both in urban as in rural areas (CIE, 1977a; NSvV, 1990). For some types of roads an even higher value is often recommended; it should be noted, however, that the need for higher luminance levels seems to be more a matter of comfort and convenience than of traffic safety. For less important roads luminance levels of 0.5 cd/m^2 or lower are recommended. These recommendations of the CIE, the International Lighting Commission, are widely accepted and are used in most countries in the world. However, further research is urgently needed in this matter as the luminance values quoted above are in fact based mainly on practical experience. For this reason the CIE has established a working group to coordinate these activities. A framework for the required research is given in the symposium that was organized jointly by the TRB and the CIE (see TRB, 1984 and CIE, 1990a).

3. THE TECHNOLOGY OF ROAD LIGHTING

3.1. The light sources

Cost factors have always played a major role in road lighting policy. The costs of road lighting can be divided into three more or less equal parts: the costs of installation, the maintenance and lamp replacement costs, and the costs for electric energy (Tan, 1985). All costs are on a yearly base; we disregard other than electric lighting. The costs of the installation are more or less fixed for an installation of a certain type. The lamp costs and the energy costs, however, may vary considerably from one type of lamp to another - and from one location to another as well! Consequently, it is not possible to indicate one specific type of lamp that is the most economical. In fact, there are several families of lamps that are widely used for road lighting:

- o incandescent lamps (standard or halogen);
- o low-pressure mercury-vapour discharge lamps (fluorescent tubes "TL");
- o high-pressure mercury-vapour discharge lamps (clear, halide or fluorescent, "HP", "HPI", "HPL");

- o low-pressure sodium-vapour discharge lamps ("SOX");
- o high-pressure sodium-vapour discharge lamps ("SON").

(It should be noted that several of the abbreviated notations used in this paper are registered trade marks e.g. "TL").

Each of these families consists of many types, that are similar in construction but differ in lumen output and consequently in dissipated wattage. These types are always indicated by the nominal wattage not taking into account the electrical losses in the control gear (the ballasts).

The luminous efficacy of the different lamp families and types is widely different. The incandescent lamps have an efficacy (expressed in lumen per Watt) of some 7 to 15; TL 45 to 95; HP 40 to 100; SOX 140 to over 200 and SON 90 to 140. Because, however, TL and HP lamps are cheap and SOX and especially SON expensive, all discharge lamps are widely in use. Incandescent lamps are not used any longer in modern installations for "normal" roads: they are widely used for floodlighting, for decorative lighting in ancient city centres etc.

Another important difference is the size of the lamps. This is obviously important for the size of the lanterns that must be able to accommodate them but also for the dimensions of the optics, as will be indicated in the next section. TL lamps are very large; so are the larger types of SOX lamps. HP and SON lamps and most incandescent lamps, however, are quite small. A comprehensive survey of the physical and technical details of lamps is given by Elenbaas (1972), for a more modern but more practical survey see Kaufman, (ed.), (1981).

The colour characteristics of the lamps are important. Incandescent lamps emit a continuous spectrum similar to the black-body radiation: as a result of the permissible temperature of the incandescent filament, most energy is emitted in the infrared region and in the adjoining red, resulting in the low efficacy and the yellowish colour of these lamps. Low-pressure vapour-discharge lamps emit essentially line spectra only. The lines of mercury are in the blue and green but particularly in the (invisible) ultraviolet. In order to increase the amount of visible light and thus the efficacy, fluorescent material is added that transforms the (monochromatic) ultraviolet light in (heterochromatic) visible light. The light of TL lamps is therefore not monochromatic any longer. Its actual colour can be selected in a wide range by applying appropriate fluorescent materials (the so-called phosphors).

The emission of low-pressure sodium-vapour discharges is monochromatic as well; the wavelength being about 590 nm. As this is in the middle of the visible part of the electromagnetic spectrum, the discharge is used as such. The result is a monochromatic light source with very high efficacy, but which is not capable of rendering any colours other than yellow (and black). The modern technology of SOX lamps is discussed by Sprengers et al. (1985) and Sprengers & Peters (1986). For applications for transport lighting the monochromatic light is not considered as a draw-back; for the reduction in the negative aspects of light trespass it is a great advantage. In fact, the application of low-pressure sodium lamps is considered as the most important single remedy for the interference with astronomical observation (Anon, 1985, 1985a; Crawford, 1983, 1985; IAU/CIE, 1980).

Electric discharges in vapour under high pressure are not monochromatic as a result of the widening of the spectral lines. The emission spectrum is not fully continuous; to a certain extent the original lines can be recognized in the spectrum of the lamp. In HP lamps it is thus possible to find the Hg-lines; therefore most HP lamps include just as TL lamps fluorescent powders (HPL). By adding other vapours additional lines can be introduced, improving the efficacy and the colour properties: the HPI lamps have additions of halogens. SON lamps show the original Sodium lines. Additives are not customary. In high pressure discharge lamps one must take into account the additional emission of the discharge tube, which usually will be extremely hot and will act as an incandescent body.

The fluorescent bulb is relatively large in respect to the discharge tube. Consequently, the optical system of the lantern must be designed in relation to this. It should be mentioned that many SON lamps have a diffusing bulb just in order to enlarge the light source.

Usually, only one type of lamp from only one family is the most economic street lighting lamp for specific purposes in specific locations. Often, this is not the lamp that is the least damaging for astronomical observations. Generally speaking it costs more to select the best type of lamp; sometimes, however, the addition is not large. Several recommendations for lamps to be applied near observation sites are published (see e.g. Anon, 1985; Crawford, 1985).

3.2. The lanterns

Street lighting lanterns have three major functions:

- (i) controlling the light flux emitted by the lamps;
- (ii) protection of the lighting equipment against atmospheric influences and damage by natural causes and by vandalism;
- (iii) housing of the lighting equipment (lamps and electrical control gear like ballasts and fuses) and mounting it to the columns.

Lamps emit light in nearly all directions. A lighting scheme, however, requires usually a strict light control: one must ensure that the light is directed towards the objects to be lighted, and that no light shines in other directions, particularly in directions where it might cause glare or light trespass.

One may discern two ways of light control: simple screening and actually directing light in the desired directions. The first is simply a matter of shields and baffles; the effectiveness can be assessed by geometrical construction. Directing the light in the desired directions requires the application of optical means: mirrors, lenses or prisms. Basically, the optical control is realized by constructing a set of optical images of the light source (often but not always the discharge tube of the lamp) into the object to be illuminated. In the case of road lighting, this means constructing a number of optical images of the light source on the road surface in such a way that, taking into account the way the surface reflects the light, a certain desired distribution of the luminance of the road surface (as it present itself to an observer in a specified location) is realized. In case of the lighting of sport facilities, the same procedure is followed aimed at a specific distribution of the illuminance on the field.

The accuracy in which the light control can be realized depends on the divergence of the optical images. Here two factors have to be mentioned:

the natural spread of the lighting beams that results from the fact that usually the dimensions of the light source cannot be disregarded in relation to the dimensions of the optical imaging system - particularly to the focal length of the lenses or mirrors used. The fact that the dimensions of the light sources are not very small relative to the focal length, leads to a beam divergence (or beam aperture) that is essentially larger than zero. The simple laws of geometric optics do not apply. The second cause is the scatter due to the fact that in street lighting lanterns the optical systems are of a simple construction: restrictions in construction costs and dimensions of the lanterns result in an optical image with many faults. Lenses are usually made of pressed glass or extruded plastic elements and mirrors usually are formed of pressed aluminum. In all cases considerable errors - in optical sense - are unavoidable. These errors are added to the scatter of light from dust, grime, water etc. on the exterior surfaces of the lanterns. One might add here that the latter are reduced considerably when closed lanterns are used.

As a conclusion it must be stated that a considerable amount of light scatter can not be avoided. In case of the interference with astronomical observation it is primarily the light above the horizon that matters: that light may be reduced by applying lanterns that have a flat (transparent) lower surface, a "flat bowl" so to speak. In this case no light at all can be directed in directions over the horizon: a case of screening by means of the upper (opaque) part of the fitting. Open lanterns have a similar advantage. It should be pointed out that a flat closing window precludes applying refractors (lenses and/or prisms). Optically speaking lanterns with mirrors can be as effective as lanterns with refractors; preference of the one type over the other is primarily matter of costs and may differ considerably from one location to the other. Finally, open lanterns are not in use on a large scale for modern street lighting applications because their efficiency is rapidly reduced as a result of soiling and corrosion.

In this respect, the calculations of Waldram should be mentioned. On the basis of the light distribution of lanterns, and of the atmospheric scatter, he assessed the contribution of different parts of the light distribution diagram, and he showed clearly that cut-off lanterns are to be preferred near astronomical observatories. The difference with non-cut-off lanterns was, however, rather moderate. The reason for this seems to be the fact that at that time, only very shiny road surfaces were used in Britain. As we will explain later, such road surfaces are not used any longer, primarily because they tend to become very slippery when wet. One might expect that nowadays the advantage of cut-off lanterns will be more pronounced than in Waldram's days (Waldram, 1972).

The other two functions of the lantern (protection and housing) speak for themselves; they do not need to be discussed here. The different aspects of street lighting lanterns, their design, construction, installation and maintenance are discussed in detail in the relevant literature (see e.g. De Boer (ed.), 1967; Van Bommel & De Boer, 1980).

3.3. The road surface

We have indicated earlier that the most important criterion of quality for road lighting installations is the (average) road surface luminance. Now, the luminance of a non-emitting surface depends upon two quantities: the amount of light falling into the surface (the illuminance or illumination,

expressed in lux or lumen/m²) and the reflective properties of the surface. In many cases the amount of reflected light - and consequently the luminance - depends on the directions of light incidence and of observation - the "reflection factor" actually is a tensor. Road surfaces show this effect to a high degree, as a result of the glancing observation angles that are inherent to motorized road traffic, particularly when they are damp or wet - even the so-called diffuse or coarse road surfaces!

In designing effective road lighting installations, this effect is used to a considerable degree. The lanterns are designed in such a way that most of the light is emitted in directions close to, and lower than the horizon. In this way, the highest use is made from these specular characteristics of the road. Lanterns showing such emission (or luminous intensity distributions) are used very widely in continental Europe, particularly in roads with a traffic function. In residential areas, and as a matter of fact in the rest of the world for all roads, the so-called "non-cut-off" lanterns are predominant. The reason is that it was often assumed that by letting the light come out of the lantern in a nearly horizontal direction, the spacing between the successive lanterns could be large without causing dark patches between them. Both practical experience with modern, skid-proof road surfaces and calculations prove conclusively that this assumption is incorrect (see e.g. De Boer (ed.), 1967; CIE, 1976; CIE/PIARC, 1984; OECD, 1984; SCW, 1984). In fact, there really is no support at all using non-cutoff lanterns in road lighting for traffic routes. For residential areas, shopping areas and pedestrian precincts the matter is somewhat different. Here, one prefers a lively surrounding that is focussed on the needs for pedestrians to be able to see properly. Non-cut-off lanterns may contribute to such lively surroundings. However, such non-cut-off lanterns may contribute considerably to light trespass. A closer examination of the lighting and visual aspects involved will show that also in such situations and locations the use of non-cut-off lanterns is of little use. However, in such situations and locations the contribution of the street lighting to light trespass usually is small and often negligible as compared to the contribution of other light sources such as shop windows, floodlighting of buildings, sports stadium lighting etc.

As regards the road surface, we come to the conclusion that reducing the reflection factor (i.e. selecting a darker surface) does not reduce the light spill; contrary to this, the light spill will increase as a larger lamp (a higher lumen output) must be used in order to arrive at the same road surface luminance.

4. OTHER SOURCES OF LIGHT POLLUTION

The measurements quoted by Finch et al. (1979) clearly show that the contribution of other light sources to the light pollution often equals or even surpasses that of the road lighting. A similar result might be deduced from measurements quoted in Anon (1985), where the extinction of (part of) the street lighting of a city near an observatory resulted in a considerable reduction (of about 30%) of the sky glow; the majority of the sky glow, however, seems to have come from other sources.

The studies of Crawford (1983, 1985) suggest that billboard lighting does contribute to a considerable degree towards the sky glow. This seems to be a typical case for the (South-Western) USA; there are reasons to believe that in many European locations the sports stadium lighting is the primary source of stray-light.

Finally, the car headlamps presumably will contribute considerably to the light pollution. Studies in this area are urgently needed, particularly as many urge to increase the intensity of car headlamps. It should be noted that one might doubt whether this urge will result in positive effects for road safety! (Schreuder, 1976).

5. REMEDIAL MEASURES

The considerations given in the foregoing sections on road lighting and related subjects clearly point towards several possibilities to avoid or at least to reduce the disturbance for astronomical observations caused by light pollution:

- (I) reduce the total amount of light;
- (II) reduce the light emitted above the horizon;
- (III) reduce the amount of reflected light;
- (IV) reduce the width in the electromagnetic spectrum where light is emitted.

A. Switching out the lights

This obviously is the final solution as regards the astronomical observations. However, it cannot be done in full as other equally important aspects of our social life require night-time activities and consequently artificial light at night. Nevertheless, a fair number of light sources can be switched out without any damage; furthermore, in many cases light sources can be replaced by smaller sources emitting less light (other, even more effective possibilities are discussed further on). An important way to improve the situation is to guarantee that most lights, particularly those that contribute most to light pollution like sports stadium lighting, are not used after a certain time. Many local by-laws and ordinances impose time restrictions in the use of such lighting installations (Anon, 1981, 1982).

B. Using monochromatic light

The most effective way available at present to reduce interference is the use of (quasi)monochromatic light sources, more in particular the use of low-pressure sodium-vapour (SOX) lamps. These lamps emit a very narrow spectral band (nearly a line!) in the yellow part of the spectrum. Two advantages are obvious: all other spectral regions are not involved, so that observations in other spectral regions - either photography or spectroscopy - are hardly affected. Secondly, as the yellow line is close to the maximum of the sensitivity of the eye, the luminous efficacy of low pressure sodium lamps is high - they are far the most efficient light sources available at present (Sprengers & Peters, 1986). Finally they hardly do emit any radiation in the non-visible parts of the spectrum. On these grounds, the application of low-pressure sodium lamps near sites of astronomical observatories is universally recommended (see e.g. Anon, 1985, 1985a; CIE, 1978; Crawford, 1983, 1985; IAU/CIE, 1980); apart from the fact that low-pressure sodium lamps usually prove to be a very economic proposition to begin with!

C. Light control

We discussed in detail the possibilities to reduce light spill by means of light control. In simple terms this means preventing light being emitted above the horizon; more precisely it means that the light is directed to the objects to be illuminated. As regards the road lighting, the measures to reduce light trespass are very similar to those that enhance the (economic) efficiency of the lighting installation. The reason that lanterns with optimal light control are not applied universally is

twofold: primarily lighting design schemes employing such lanterns usually require higher initial costs whereas the economic profits are found only in the longer term - a matter that is often prohibitive in political decisions -, secondly setting up such schemes requires a high degree of light-technical skill. In this respect it is strange to have to note that the education at all levels of schooling in light-technical skills and sciences is quite limited in spite of the fact that both the general public and the political and administrative bodies worldwide are aware of the environmental and social aspects of good lighting versus excessive lighting (Begemann, 1986; Schreuder, 1986a).

D. Reduction of reflection

Theoretically speaking, this remedy is just as important as the two that have been mentioned earlier. In practice, however, the possibilities to manipulate the reflective characteristics in the real world are very limited indeed. We indicated also that reducing the reflection of the road surface is counterproductive in this respect.

The effect of air pollution might be included here. Air pollution often creates haze, or even clouds of smoke and dust; the light from lighting installations partly is scattered in these clouds, and partly absorbed. The net result of air pollution on the sky glow, particularly that of far away observatories can therefore be positive or negative. In some cases the sky glow may increase (when the scatter predominates), in other cases the net result may be a decrease of the sky glow (when the absorption predominates) (Anon, 1985).

E. Filtering the light

Finally, reducing the width of the spectral range of the emitted light is an effective countermeasure against the interference by light of astronomical observations, particularly in those cases where the use of low-pressure sodium lamps is impossible or undesirable. Here the emission of radiation near the ends of the visible region of the spectrum, e.g. the far blue and the far red can be restricted by filters. Radiation emitted in these regions contributes only little to the visual sensation (more precisely to the luminance), but it may cause considerable disturbance for certain types of astronomical observations, e.g. photographic observations where the near-ultraviolet is used, and to infrared measurements. Therefore, most by-laws and ordinances for areas near observatories restrict the emission of radiation in these spectral regions. This can be done quite simply by means of filters that can be incorporated in the lanterns (Anon, 1982).

6. THE FUTURE

It is relatively simple to indicate a number of remedial measures with which the disturbance of light pollution for the astronomical observations can be eliminated or at least diminished. It is not so simple, however, to indicate how these should (or could!) be implemented.

The first obstacle seems to be the lack of knowledge of the relevant aspects from the side of the authorities. One should try to convince the authorities that the cause for the astronomers is a legitimate one, as much so as the cause for other groups of interest. Furthermore, one should try and persuade the authorities that the means to fulfill the requirements of the astronomy are available, that they are within reasonable limits of what one can do (and will pay!), and, finally, that in a number of cases the solutions that are preferable for the astronomy are economically speaking advantageous as well (Schreuder, 1987).

A second obstacle is the restricted level of expertise of many lighting engineers. The scientific level of the lighting field as an engineering discipline is quite high, but unfortunately the persons in the field who have to take care of the lighting installation are often not educated to a high technical level. This is even more the case with many decision makers who are responsible for the political decisions regarding lighting and the money to spend on it! (Schreuder, 1986a; Begemann, 1986).

A further obstacle to the solution of the light pollution problems is the lack of understanding amongst the two communities involved: the lighting engineers and the astronomers. Notwithstanding the co-operation that did lead a.o. to the important joint report on light pollution (IAU/CIE, 1980) and, more recently, to the IAU colloquium 112 that was organised jointly by IAU and CIE, and was being held in Washington DC in August 1988 (Anon, 1988), there is still some mutual misunderstanding. However, when one looks at the literature and particularly at the statements of the IAU and the CIE respectively, it is easy to see that the two communities grow towards each other. This favorable development does not imply, however, that the two groups of professional experts always do understand each other. A continuing contact between the groups of experts seems to be urgently required.

A major new development in this respect is the founding of a CIE Technical Committee TC 4.21 that will study, in the context of Division 4 (on Lighting and Signalling for Transport) of CIE, the matter in close co-operation with IAU. At present, the final steps are being made to launch this TC. The membership includes several top astronomers and several top lighting engineers from six countries in three continents. It is expected that this TC will set up recommendations for the reduction of interference by light of astronomical observations (the title of the TC) by means of proposals for technical, administrative and economical measures.

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A MAP OF THE MOON WITH NAMES FOR CRATERS

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1. The rules for naming craters on the surface of the moon, on the smooth flat areas, called "mares" and on the mountain on the surface of the moon date back to a Jesuit astronomer of the sixteenth century. He wrote a book entitled "The Almagestum Novum" in which he stated:

a) Craters on the face of the moon shall be named after deceased astronomers.

(This has been changed slightly in recent years by the International Astronomical Union to include other scientists save astronomers, astronauts, and even men like Martin Luther.

b) Maria or flat smooth areas which were called "seas" by Galileo were named after moods or frames of mind. These have been kept except for one or two exceptions like the Moscow Sea.

c) Mountains on the moon have been named after mountains on the earth: Like the Alps, the Apennines, etc.

2. The maps shown here contain all of the items marked according to their positions in the tables. Look for those that contain names of Japanese astronomers. Look up their history in a book like "A History of Japanese Astronomy" S. Nakayama (1989).

3. Later we shall talk about the methods of Mercator Projection which these maps follow.

Newly Adopted			Far-Side		
Abbe	158S	175E			
Abul Wafa	2N	117E			
Aitken	17S	173E			
Al-Biruni	18N	93E			
Alden	24S	111E			
Alekhin	68S	130W			
Alter	19N	108W			
Amici	10S	172W			
Anders	42S	144W			
Anderson	16N	171E			
Antoniadi	69S	173W			
Apollo	37S	153W			
Appleton	37N	158E			
Arrhenius	55S	91W			
Artamonov	26N	104E			
Artem'ev	10N	145W			
Avicenna	40N	97W			
Avogadro	64N	165E			
Babcock	4N	94E			
Backlund	16S	103E			
Baldet	54S	151W			
Banachiewicz	51N	135W			
Barbier	24S	158E			
Barringer	29S	151W			
Bartels	24N	90W			
Bequerel	41N	129E			
Becvar	2S	125E			
Beijerinck	13S	152E			
Bell	22N	96W			
Bellingshausen	61S	164W			
Belopolsky	18S	128W			
Belyaev	23N	143E			
Bergstrand	19S	176E			
Berkner	25N	105W			
Berlage	64S	164W			
Bhabha	56S	165W			
Birkeland	30S	174E			
Birkhoff	59N	148W			
Bjerknes	38S	113E			
Blazhko	31N	148W			
Bobone	26N	132W			
Boltzmann	55S	115W			
Bolyai	34S	125E			
Borman	39S	149W			
Bose	54S	170W			
Boyle	54S	178E			
Bragg	42N	103W			
Brashear	74S	172W			
Bredikhin	17N	158W			
Bridgman	44N	137E			
Brouwer	36S	125W			
Brunner	10S	91E			
Buffon	41S	134W			
Buisson	1S	113E			
Butlerov	9N	109W			
Buys-Ballot	21N	175E			
Cabannes	61S	171W			
Cajori	48S	168E			
Campbell	45N	152E			
Cannizzaro	55N	100W			
Cantor	38N	118E			
Carnot	52N	144W			
Carver	43S	127E			
Cassegrain	52S	113E			
Ceraski	49S	141E			
Chaffee	39S	155W			
Chamberlin	59S	96E			
Chandpollion	37N	175E			
Chandler	44N	171E			
Chang Heng	19N	112E			
Chant	41S	110W			
Chaplygin	6S	150E			
Chapman	50N	101W			
Chappell	55N	178W			
Charlier	36N	132W			
Chaucer	3N	140W			
Chauvenet	11S	137E			
Chebyshev	34S	133W			
Chernyshev	47N	174E			
Chrétien	47S	163E			
Clark	38S	119E			
Coblentz	38S	126E			
Cockcroft	30N	164W			
Compton	55N	104E			
Comrie	23N	113W			
Comstock	21N	122W			
Congreve	0	168W			
Cooper	53N	176E			
Coriolis	0	172E			
Coulomb	56N	126W			
Crocco	47S	150E			
Crommelin	68S	147W			
Curie	11S	165W			
Cyrano	23S	92E			
Daedalus	20S				

Names on the Moon

15N 154E	Milankovic	77N 170E	Racah	14S 180	Sumner	57N 109E
10N 115W	Millikan	47N 121E	Raimond	14N 159W	Sundman	11N 91W
25N 153E	Mills	9N 156E	Ramsay	40S 145E	Swann	52N 112E
15S 115E	Milne	31S 113E	Rasumov	39N 114W	Szillard	34N 106E
20N 159E	Mineur	25N 162W	Rayet	45N 114E	Teisserenc	32N 137W
17S 90W	Minkowski	56S 145W	Rayleigh	67S 179E	Ten Bruggencate	9S 134E
5S 157W	Mitra	18N 155W	Ricco	75N 177E	Tereszkova	28N 145E
14N 118E	Möbius	16N 101E	Riedel	49S 140W	Tesla	38N 125E
31N 129W	Mohorovicic	19S 165W	Riemann	40N 96E	Thiel	40N 134W
22S 101E	Moiseyev	9N 103E	Rittenhouse	74S 107E	Thiessen	75N 169W
53N 128W	Montgolfier	47N 160W	Ritz	15S 92E	Thomson	32S 166E
4N 176W	Moore	37N 178W	Roberts	71N 175W	Tihomirov	25N 162E
35N 167W	Morozov	5N 127E	Robertson	22N 105W	Tikhov	62N 172E
53S 104E	Morse	22N 175W	Roche	42S 135E	Tiling	52S 132W
42N 155W	Moulton	61S 97E	Roshdestvensky	86N 155W	Timiryazev	5S 147W
8N 134W	Nagaoka	20N 154E	Rowland	57N 163W	Titius	27S 101E
38N 142E	Nassau	25S 177E	Rumford	29S 170W	Titov	28N 168E
41N 107W	Nernst	36N 95W	Rydberg	47S 96W	Trumpler	5N 149W
51S 158E	Neujmin	27S 125E	Saenger	4N 102E	Tsander	17N 144E
43S 101E	Niepee	72N 120W	Safarik	10N 177E	Tyndall	35S 117E
31S 131E	Nijland	33N 134E	Saha	2S 103E	Valier	7N 174E
42N 119W	Nikolaev	35N 151E	St. John	10N 150E	Van de Graaff	27S 172E
9S 132E	Nishina	45S 171W	Sanford	32N 139W	Van den Bergh	31N 159W
10S 119E	Nobel	15N 101W	Sarton	49N 121W	Van der Waals	44S 119E
44N 162E	Nöther	66N 114W	Scaliger	27S 109E	Van Gent	16N 160E
36S 129W	Nummerov	71S 161W	Schaeberle	26S 117E	Van Maanen	36N 127E
32N 180	Nuss	32N 167E	Schjellerup	69N 157E	Van Rhijn	52N 145E
28N 97W	Obruchev	39S 162E	Schlesinger	47N 138W	Van't Hoff	62N 133W
27S 96E	O'Day	31S 157E	Schliemann	2S 155E	Van Wijk	63S 119E
46S 140W	Ohm	18N 114W	Schneller	42N 164W	Vashakidze	44N 93E
48S 108E	Olcott	20N 117E	Schönfeld	45N 98W	Vavilov	1S 139W
8N 165W	Omar Khayyam	58N 102W	Schorr	19S 90E	Vening Meinesz	0 163E
30S 179W	Oppenheimer	35S 166W	Schrödinger	75S 133E	Ventris	5S 158E
38S 178E	Oresme	43S 169E	Schrödinger	62S, 99E to	Vernadsky	23N 130E
62S 150W	Orlov	26S 173W	(Rima)	71S, 114E	Vesalius	3S 115E
3N 102W	Oswald	11N 122E	Schuster	4N 147E	Vestine	34N 94E
19N 148E	Paneth	63N 95W	Schwarzschild	71N 120E	Vetchinkin	10N 131E
29N 116W	Pannekoek	4S 141E	Seares	74N 145E	Vil'ev	6S 144E
1N 109W	Papaleksi	10N 164E	Sechenov	7S 143W	Volterra	57N 131E
24S 143E	Paracelsus	23S 163E	Segers	47N 128E	Von der Pahlen	25S 133W
15S 114W	Paraskevopoulos	50N 150W	Seidel	33S 152E	Von Karman	45S 176E
43N 154E	Parenago	26N 109W	Seyfert	29N 114E	Von Neumann	40N 153E
70N 99W	Parkhurst	34S 103E	Shajn	33N 172E	Von Zeipel	42N 142W
17S 123E	Parsons	37N 171W	Sharonov	13N 173E	Walker	26S 162W
10N 113E	Paschen	14S 141W	Shatalov	24N 140E	Wan-Hoo	11S 139W
18S 147W	Pasteur	12S 105E	Shi Shen	76N 105E	Waterman	26S 128E
34N 100W	Pauli	45S 137E	Shternberg	19N 117W	Watson	63S 124W
6S 129E	Pavlov	29S 142E	Siedentopf	22N 135E	Weber	50N 124W
82N 107W	Pawsey	44N 145E	Sierpinski	27S 155E	Wegener	45N 113W
37S 142W	Pease	13N 106W	Sisakyan	41N 109E	Wells, H. G.	41N 122E
13S 103W	Perelman	24S 106E	Sklodowska	18S 96E	Wexler	69S 90E
9S 121W	Perelkin	10S 128E	Slipher	50N 160E	Weyl	16N 120W
39S 152E	Perkin	47N 176W	Smoluchowski	60N 96W	White	45S 160W
65S 162E	Perrine	42N 129W	Sniadecki	22S 169W	Wiechert	84S 165E
18N 149W	Petrie	45N 108E	Sommerfeld	65N 161W	Wiener	41N 146E
41S 169W	Petrovskiy	37N 115W	Spencer Jones	13N 166E	Wilsing	22S 155W
22N 105E	Petzval	63S 113W	Spiru Haret	59S 176W	Winkler	42N 179W
4N 156E	Pirquet	20S 140E	Stark	25S 134E	Winlock	35N 106W
22N 169W	Pizzetti	35S 119E	Siebbins	65N 143W	Woltjer	45N 160W
9S 145E	Planck	57S 135E	Stefan	46N 109W	Wood	44N 121W
29S 140W	Planck (Rima)	65S, 129E to	Stein	7N 179E	Wyld	1S 98E
14S 94W		54S, 125E	Steklov	37S 105W	Yablochkov	61N 127E
16S 171W	Plaskett	82N 173E	Steno	33N 162E	Yamamoto	59N 161E
47N 93W	Plummer	25S 155W	Stetson	40S 119W	Zeeman	75S 135W
15N 167W	Pogson	42S 111E	Stoletov	45N 155W	Zelinsky	29S 167E
22N 127W	Poincaré	57S 161E	Stoney	56S 156W	Zernike	18N 168E
14N 96W	Poinsot	79N 147W	Störmer	57N 145E	Zhiritsky	25S 120E
24N 123E	Polzunov	26N 115E	Stratton	6S 165E	Zhukovsky	7N 167W
11S 113E	Popov	17N 99E	Strömberg	22S 133W	Zinger	57N 176E
49S 110W	Poynting	17N 133W	Subbotin	29S 135E	Zsigmondy	59N 105W
6N 141E	Prager	4S 131E				
75N 116W	Prandtl	60S 141E				
72N 129W	Priestley	57S 108E				
12N 125E	Purkyne	1S 95E				
11S 149W	Quételet	43N 135W				
6N 121W						

This list gives approximate latitudes and longitudes, in degrees. The nomenclature is that adopted (subject to official corrections) by the International Astronomical Union in August, 1970. Known corrections up to early October, 1970, have been made in the map and list, but the data are liable to later revisions.

NATIONAL AERONAUTICS AND SPACE ADMINISTRATION

INDEX OF LUNAR FORMATIONS

OCTOBER 1971
1st Edition

PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE BY
THE AERONAUTICAL CHART AND INFORMATION CENTER, UNITED STATES
AIR FORCE FOR THE NATIONAL AERONAUTICS AND SPACE ADMINISTRATION.

INDEX OF LUNAR FORMATIONS

This report contains an alphabetical listing and feature location of all primary lunar names which have been approved by the International Astronomical Union (IAU).

Sources used for this list were: (1) "Named Lunar Formations" by Blagg and Müller, approved by the IAU in 1935, (2) Communications of the University of Arizona, Lunar and Planetary Laboratory "The System of Lunar Craters, Quadrants I, II, III and IV" which include names approved by the IAU in 1961 and 1964 and (3) Report on Lunar Nomenclature by the Working Group of Commission 17 of the IAU and approved by the IAU in 1970.

Coordinates of listed features are given to the nearest one degree intersection.

Users of this list are requested to forward any noticed discrepancies to ACIC (PDN), 2nd & Arsenal Sts., St. Louis, Missouri, 63118.

INDEX OF LUNAR FORMATIONS
Compiled by ACIC, 1 October 1971

CRATERS		CRATERS		CRATERS	
Abbe	58S 175E	Arrhenius	55S 91W	Bernouilli	35N 61E
Abel	35S 85E	Artamonov	26N 104E	Berosus	34N 70E
Abenezra	21S 12E	Artem'ev	10N 145W	Berzelius	37N 51E
Abulfeda	14S 14E	Arzachel	18S 2W	Bessarion	15N 37W
Abul Wafa	2N 117E	Asclepi	55S 26E	Bessel	22N 12E
Adams	32S 69E	Aston	33N 88W	Bettinus	63S 45W S.J.
Agatharchides	20S 31W	Atlas	47N 44E	Bhabha	56S 165W
Agrippa	4N 10E	Autolycus	31N 1E	Bianchini	49N 34W
Airy	18S 6E	Auwers	15N 17E	Biela	55S 51E
Aitken	17S 173E	Auzout	10N 64E	Billy	14S 50W * S.J.
Albategnius	11S 4E	Avicenna	40N 97W	Biot	23S 51E
Al-Biruni	18N 93E	Avogadro	64N 165E	Birkeland	30S 174E
Alden	24S 111E	Azophi	22S 13E	Birkhoff	59N 148W
Aldrin	1N 22E			Birmingham	65N 11W
Alekhin	68S 131W	Baade	45S 82W	Birt	22S 3W
Alexander	40N 13E	Babbage	59N 57W	Bjerknes	38S 113E
Alfraganus	5S 19E	Baco	51S 19E	Blagg	1N 1E
Alhazen	16N 72E	Babcock	4N 94E	Blancanus	64S 21W S.J.
Aliacensis	31S 5E	Backlund	16S 103E	Blanchinus	25S 3E
Almanon	17S 15E	Baillaud	74N 38E	Blazhko	31N 104W
Alpetragius	16S 5W	Bailly	67S 69W	Bobone	26N 132W
Alphonsus	14S 3W	Baily	50N 30E	Bode	7N 2W
Alter	19N 108W	Balboa	19N 83W	Boguslawsky	73S 43E
Amici	10S 172W	Baldet	54S 151W	Bohnenberger	16S 40E
Amundsen	85S 85E	Ball	36S 8W	Bohr	13N 86W
Anaxagoras	73N 10W	Balmer	20S 71E	Boltzmann	75S 90W
Anaximander	67N 51W	Banachiewicz	6N 80E	Bolyai	34S 125E
Anaximenes	73N 45W	Barbier	24S 158E	G. Bond	32N 106E
Andöl	10S 12E	Barnard	30S 86E	W. Bond	65N 4E
Anders	42S 144W	Barocius	45S 17E	Bonpland	8S 17W
Anderson	16S 171E	Barringer	29S 151W	Boole	64N 87W
Angström	30N 42W	Barrow	71N 8E	Borda	25S 17E
Ansgarius	13S 79E	Bartels	24N 90W	Borman	39S 148W
Antoniadi	69S 173W	Bayer	52S 35W	Boscovich	10N 112W
Apianus	27S 8E	Beaumont	18S 29E	Bose	54S 170W
Apollo	35S 153W	Bequerel	41N 129E	Boss	46N 88E
Apollonius	5N 61E	Bečvar	2S 125E	Bouguer	52N 36W
Appleton	37N 158E	Beer	27N 9W	Boussingault	70S 55E
Arago	6N 21E	Behaim	17S 79E	Boyle	54S 178E
Aratus	24N 5E	Beijerinck	13S 152E	Bragg	42N 103W
Archimedes	30N 4W	Belkovich	62N 90E	Brashear	74S 171W
Archytas	59N 5E	Bell	22N 96W	Brayley	21N 37W
Argelander	17S 6E	Bellingshausen	61S 164W	Bredikhin	17N 153W
Ariadaeus	5N 17E	Bellot	12S 48E	Breislak	48S 18E
Aristarchus	24N 48W	Belopolsky	18S 128W	Brenner	39S 39E
Aristillus	34N 1E	Belyaev	23N 143E	Brianchon	75N 87W
Aristoteles	50N 17E	Bergstrand	19S 176E	Bridgman	44N 137E
Armstrong	1N 25E	Berkner	25N 105W	Briggs	26N 69W
Arnold	67N 36E	Berlage	64S 164W	Brisbane	49S 69E

CRATERS			CRATERS			CRATERS		
Brouwer	36S	125W	Chamberlin	59S	96E	Daedalus	6S	160
Brown	46S	18W	Champollion	37N	175E	Daguerre	12S	34E
Bruce	1N	0	Chandler	44N	171E	D'Alembert	52N	164E
Bruggencate	9S	134E	Chang Heng	19N	112E	Dalton	17N	84W
Brunner	10S	91E	Chant	41S	110W	Damoiseau	5S	61W
Buch	39S	18E	Chaplygin	6S	150E	Daniell	35N	31E
Buffon	41S	134W	Chapman	50N	101W	Danjon	11S	124E
Buisson	1S	113E	Chappell	55N	179W	Dante	25N	180
Bullialdus	21S	22W	Charlier	36N	132W	Darney	15S	24W
Bunsen	42N	86W	Chaucer	3N	140W	d'Arrest	2N	15E
Burckhardt	31N	57E	Chauvenet	11S	137E	Darwin	20S	69W
Bürg	45N	28E	Chebyshev	34S	133W	Das	27S	138W
Burnham	14S	7E	Chernyshev	47N	174E	da Vinci	9N	45E
Büsching	38S	20E	Chevallier	45N	51E	Davisson	38S	175W
Butlerov	12N	110W	Chladni	4N	1E	Davy	12S	8W
Buyt-Ballot	21N	175E	Chrétien	47S	163E	Dawes	17N	26E
Byrd	85N	10E	Cichus	33S	21W	Dawson	67S	134W
Byrgius	25S	65W	Clairaut	48S	14E	Debes	30N	52E
			Clark	38S	119E	Debye	50N	177W
Cabannes	61S	171W	Clausius	37S	44W	Dechen	46N	68W
Cabeus	85S	41W	Clavius	58S	14W	De Forest	76S	162W
Cajori	48S	168E	Cleomedes	28N	56E	de Gasparis	26S	51W
Calippus	39N	11E	Cleostratus	60N	77W	Delambre	2S	17E
Campanus	28S	28W	Coblentz	38S	126E	de la Rue	59N	53E
Campbell	45N	152E	Cockcroft	30N	164W	Delaunay	22S	3E
Cannizzaro	55N	100W	Collins	1N	24E	Delisle	30N	35W
Cannon	20N	81E	Colombo	15S	46E	Dellinger	7S	140E
Cantor	38N	118E	Compton	56N	104E	Delmotte	27N	60E
Capella	8S	35E	Comrie	23N	113W	Delporte	16S	121E
Capuanus	34S	27W	Comstock	21N	122W	Deluc	53S	3W
Cardanus	13N	72W	Condorcet	12N	70E	Dambowski	3N	7E
Carlini	34N	24W	Congreve	0	168W	Democritus	62N	35E
Carnot	52N	144W	Conon	22N	2E	Demonax	78S	59E
Carpenter	70N	51W	Cook	17S	49E	de Morgan	3N	15E
Carrington	44N	62E	Copernicus	10N	20W	Denning	16S	143E
Carver	44S	127E	Cooper	53N	176E	De Roy	55S	99W
Casatus	73S	30W	Coriolis	0	172E	Desargues	70N	73W
Cassegrain	52S	113E	Coulomb	54N	115W	Descartes	12S	16E
Cassini	40N	5E	Cremona	67N	90W	Deseilligny	21N	21E
Catalán	46S	87W	Croccon	47S	150E	de Sitter	80N	38E
Catharina	18S	24E	Crommelin	68S	148W	Deslandres	32S	5W
Cauchy	10N	39E	Crookes	11S	165W	Deutsch	24N	111E
Cavalerius	5N	67W	Crozier	13S	51E	de Vico	20S	60W
Cavendish	25S	54W	Crüger	17S	67W	De Vries	20S	177W
Cayley	4N	15E	Curie	23S	92E	Dewar	3S	166E
Celsius	14S	20E	Curtius	67S	4E	Dionysius	3N	17E
Censorinus	0	33E	Cusanus	72N	70E	Diophantus	28N	34W
Cepheus	41N	46E	Cuvier	50S	10E	Dirichlet	10N	151W
Ceraski	49S	141E	Cyrano	20S	157E	Dollond	11S	14E
Chacornac	30N	32E	Cyrillus	13S	24E	Donati	21S	5E
Chaffee	39S	155W	Cysatus	66S	6W	Donner	31S	98E
Challis	80N	9E				Doppelmayer	28S	41W

CRATERS			CRATERS			CRATERS		
Doppler	13S	160W	Fauth	6N	20W	Gay-Lussac	14N	21W
Douglass	35N	122W	Faye	21S	4E	Geber	19S	14E
Dove	47S	31E	Fechner	59S	125E	Geiger	14S	158E
Draper	18N	22W	Fen'yi	45S	105W SJ	Geminus	35N	57E
Drebbel	41S	49W	Feoktistov	31N	140E	Gemma Frisius	34S	13E
Dreyer	10N	97E	Fermat	23S	20E	Gerard	45N	31W
Drude	39S	92W	Ferni	20S	122E	Gerasimovič	23S	124W
Dryden	33S	157W	Fernelius	38S	5E	Gernsback	36S	99E
Drygalski	79S	82W	Fersman	18N	126W	Gibbs	18S	34E
Dubiago	5N	70E	Feuillée	27N	9W	Gilbert	3S	76E
Dufay	5N	170E	Firmicus	8N	64E	Gill	64S	75E
Dugan	65N	103E	Firsov Fitzgerald	4N	112E	Ginzel	14N	97E
Dunér	45N	179E	Fitz-Gerard	27N	172W	Gloja	83N	2E
Dunthorne	30S	32W	Fizeau	58S	133W	Giordano Bruno	36N	103E
Dyson	61N	121W	Flammarion	3S	4W	Glaisher	13N	49E
Dziwulski	21N	99E	Flamsteed	4S	44W	Glaserap	2S	138E
			Fleming	15N	109E	Goclenius	10S	45E
Eddington	22N	72W	Focas	34S	94W	Goddard	15N	39E
Edison	25N	100E	Fontana	16S	57W	Godin	2N	10E
Egede	49N	11E	Fontenelle	63N	19W	Goldschmidt	73W	3W
Ehrlich	41N	172W	Foster	23N	142W	Golitsyn	25S	105W
Eichstadt	23S	78W	Foutault	50N	40W	Golovin	40N	161E
Eijkman	63S	142W	Fourier	30S	53W	Goodacre	33S	14E
Eimmart	24N	65E	Fowler	43N	145W	Gould	19S	17W
Einstein	17N	87W	Fracastorius	21S	33E	Grachev	3S	108W
Eindhoven	5S	110E	Fra Mauro	6S	17W	Graff	43S	83W
Elger	35S	30W	Franklin	39N	48E	Green	4N	133E
Ellerman	26S	121W	Franz	17N	40E	Gregory	2N	127E
Ellison	55N	108W	Fraunhofer	39S	59E	Grigg	13N	130W
Elvey	9N	101W	Freundlich	25N	171E	Grimaldi	5S	68W SJ
Emden	63N	176W	Fridman	13S	127W	Griscom	47S	149W
Encke	5N	37W	Froelich	80N	110W	Grotian	66E	128E
Endymion	54N	57E	Frost	37N	119W	Grove	40N	33E
Engelhardt	5N	159W	Furnerius	36S	60E SJ	Grumberger	67S	124 SJ
Eötvös	36S	134E				Gruithuisen	33N	40W
Epigenes	67N	5W	Gadomski	36N	147W	Guericke	12S	14W
Epimenides	41S	30W	Gagarin	20S	150E	Gullstrand	45N	130W
Eratosthenes	15N	11W	Galilaei	11N	63W	Gum	40S	89E
Erro	6N	98E	Galle	56N	22E	Gutenberg	9S	41E
Esnault-Pelterie	47N	142W	Galois	14S	153W	Guthnick	48S	94W
Espin	28N	109E	Galvani	50N	84W	Guyot	11N	117E
Euclides	7S	29W	Gambart	1N	15W	Gylden	5S	0
Euctemon	76N	31E	Gamow	65N	144E			
Eudoxus	44N	16E	Gansky	10S	97E	Hagecius	60S	47E
Euler	23N	29W	Ganswindt	80S	110E	Hagen	48S	135E SJ
Evans	10S	134W	Garavito	48S	157E	Hahn	31N	74E
Evdokimov	35N	153W	Gärtner	59N	35E	Haidinger	39S	25W
Evershed	36N	160W	Gassendi	17S	40W	Hainzel	41S	33W
			Gaudibert	11S	38E	Hale	74S	91E
Fabricius	43S	42E	Gauricus	34S	13W	Hall	34N	37E
Fabry	43N	100E	Gauss	36N	79E	Halley	8S	6E
Faraday	42S	9E	Gavrilov	17N	131E	Hamilton	43S	85E

CRATERS			CRATERS			CRATERS		
Hanno	56S	71E	Hohmann	18S	94W	Kies	26S	23W
Hansen	14N	73E	Holden	19S	63E	Kimura	57S	118E
Hansteen	12S	52W	Holetschek	28S	151E	Kinau	61S	15E
Harding	44N	71W	Hommel	55S	33E	King	5N	120E
Harpalus	53N	43W	Hooke	41N	55E	Kirch	39N	6W
Harriot	33N	114E	Horrebow	59N	41W	Kircher	67S	43W 3J.
Hartmann	3N	135E	Horrocks	4S	6E	Kirchhoff	30N	39E
Hartwig	6S	80W	Hortensius	6N	28W	Kirkwood	69N	157W
Harvey	19N	147W	Houzeau	18S	124W	Klaproth	70S	26W
Hase	29S	63E	Hubble	22N	87E	Kleimenov	33S	141W
Hatanaka	29N	122W	Huggins	41S	1W	Klein	12S	3E
Hausen	65S	89W	Humboldt	27S	81E	Klute	37N	142W
Hayford	13N	176W	Hutton	37N	169E	Koch	43S	150E
Hayn	65N	84E	Hyginus	8N	6E	Kohlschütter	15N	154E
Healy	32N	111W	Hypatia	4S	23E	Kolhörster	10N	113W
Heaviside	10S	167E				Komarov	25N	153E
Hecataeus	22S	79E	Ibn Yunus	14N	91E	Kondratyuk	15S	115E
Hedin	3N	77W	Icarus	6S	173W	König	24S	25W
Heinsius	39S	18W	Ideler	49S	22E	Konstantinov	20N	159E
Heis	32N	32W	Idelson	81S	114E	Kopff	17S	90W
Helberg	22N	102W	Ingalls	26N	153W	Korolev	5S	157W
Helicon	40N	123W	Inghirami	48S	69W	Kostinsky	14N	118E
Hell	32S	8W 5J	Innes	28N	119E	Kovalevskaya	31N	129W
Helmholtz	68S	64E	Isidorus	8S	33E	Kovalsky	22S	101E
Henderson	5N	152E	Izsak	23S	117E	Krafft	17N	73W
Hendrix	48S	161W				Kramers	53N	128W
Henry, Paul	24S	57W	Jackson	22N	163W	Krasnov	30S	80W
Henry, Prosper	24S	59W	Jacobi	57S	11E	Krasovsky	4N	176W
Henvey	13N	152W	Jansen	14N	29E	Krieger	29N	46W
Heraclitus	49S	6E	Jansky	9N	90E	Krylov	35N	167W
Hercules	47N	39E	Janssen	45S	42E	Krusenstern	26S	6E
Herigonius	13S	34W	Janssen	55S	91E	Kugler	53S	104E
Hermann	1S	57W	Jenner	42S	96E	Kulik	42N	155W
Hermite	86N	86W	Joffe	15S	129W	Kunowsky	3N	32W
Herodotus	23N	50W	Joliot	26N	94E	Kuo Shou Ching	8N	134W
Herschel	6S	2W	Joule	27N	144W	Kurchatov	38N	142E
C. Herschel	35N	31W	Jules Verne	35S	147E			
J. Herschel	62N	41W	Julius Caesar	9N	15E	La Caille	24S	1E
Hertz	13N	104E				Lacchini	41N	107W
Hertzprung	0	129W	Kaiser	36S	7E	La Condamine	53N	28W
Hesiodus	29S	16W	Kamerlingh Onnes	15N	116W	Lacroix	38S	59W
Hess	54S	174E	Kane	63N	26E	Lade	1S	10E
Hevelius	2N	67W	Kant	11S	20E	Lagalla	45S	23W
Heymans	75N	144W	Kapteyn	11S	71E	Lagrange	33S	72W
Hilbert	18S	108E	Karpinsky	73N	166E	Lalande	4S	9W
Hind	8S	7E	Kästner	7S	79E	Lamarck	23S	70W
Hippalus	25S	30W	Kearons	12S	113W	Lamb	43S	101E
Hipparchus	6S	5E	Keeler	10S	162E	Lambert	26N	21W
Hippocrates	71N	146W	Kekulé	16N	138W	Lamé	15S	64E
Hirayama	6S	93E	Kepler	8N	38W	Laméché	43N	13E
Hoffmeister	15N	137E	Khawolson	14S	112E	Lamont	5N	23E
Hogg	34N	122E	Kibālchich	2N	147W	Lampland	31S	131E
			Kidinnu	36N	123E	Landau	42N	119W

CRATERS			CRATERS			CRATERS		
Lane	9S	132E	Lorentz	34N	100W	McLaughlin	47N	93W
Langemak	10S	119E	Louville	44N	45W	McMath	15N	167W
Langevin	44N	162E	Love	6S	129E	McNally	22N	127W S
Langley	51N	86W	Lovelace	82N	107W	Mee	44S	35W
Langmuir	36S	129W	Lovell	37S	143W	Mees	14N	96W
Langrenus	9S	61E	Lowell	13S	103W	Meggers	24N	123E
Lansberg	0	27W	Lubbock	4S	42E	Meitner	11S	113E
La Pérouse	11S	77E	Lubiniezky	18S	24W	Mendel	49S	110W
Larmor	32N	180	Lucretius	9S	121W	Mendeleev	6N	141E
Lassell	15S	8W	Lundmark	39S	152E	Menelaus	16N	16E
Laue	28N	97W	Luther	33N	24E	Mercator	29S	26W
Lauritsen	27S	96E	Lütke	17S	123E	Mercurius	47N	66E
Lavoisier	38N	81W	Lyell	14N	41E	Mersenius	21S	49W
Leavitt	46S	140W	Lyman	65S	162E	Merrill	75N	116W
Lebedev	48S	108E	Lyot	50S	84E	Mesentsev	72N	129W
Lebedinsky	8N	165W				Meshchersky	12N	125E
Lee	31S	41W	Mach	18N	149W	Messala	39N	60E
Leeuwenhoek	30S	179W	Maclaurin	2S	68E	Messier	2S	48E
Legendre	29S	70E	Maclear	10N	20E	Metchnikov	11S	149W
Legendre	74S	76W	Macrobius	21N	46E	Metius	40S	43E
Lehmann	40S	56W	Mädler	11S	30E	Meton	74N	19E
Leibnitz	38S	178E	Maestlin	5N	41W	Michelson	6N	121W
Lemaitre	62S	150W	Magelhaens	12S	44E	Milanković	77N	169E
Le Monnier	26N	31E	Maginus	50S	6W	Milichius	10N	30W
Lenz	3N	102W	Main	81N	10E	Miller	39S	1E
Leonev	19N	148E	Mairan	42N	43W	Millikan	47N	121E
Lepaute	33S	34W	Maksutov	41S	169W	Mills	9N	156E
Letronne	11S	42W	Malapert	85S	13E S	Milne	31S	113E
Leucippus	29N	116W	Mallet	46S	54E	Mineur	25N	162W
Leuschner	1N	109W	Malyi	22N	105E	Minkowski	56S	145W
Le Verrier	40N	21W	Mandel'shtam	6N	162E	Minnaert (Provi-		
Levi-Civita	24S	143E	Manilius	14N	9E	visional)	67S	176E
Lewis	19S	114W	Manners	5N	20E	Mitchell	50N	20E
Lexell	36S	4W	Manzinus	68S	27E	Mitra	18N	155W
Ley	43N	154E	Maraldi	19N	35E	Möbius	16N	101E
Liapunov	27N	90E	Marci	22N	169W	Mohorovičić	19S	168W
Licetus	47S	7E	Marconi	9S	145E	Moigno	66N	29E
Lichtenberg	32N	68W	Marco Polo	15N	2W	Moiseev	9N	103E
Lick	12N	53E	Marinus	39S	76E	Moltke	1S	24E
Liebig	24S	48W	Mariotte	29S	140W	Monge	19S	48E
Lilius	54S	6E	Marius	12N	51W	Montanari	46S	21W
Lindblad	70N	99W	Markov	53N	63W	Montgolfier	47N	160W
Lindenau	32S	25E	Marth	31S	29W	Moore	37N	178W
Linne	28N	12E	Maskelyne	2N	30E	Moretus	71S	6W S
Lippershey	26S	10W	Mason	43N	30E	Morozov	5N	127E
Littrow	21N	31E	Maunder	14S	94W	Morse	22N	175W
Lobachevsky	10N	113E	Maupertuis	50N	27W	Moseley	21N	90W
Lockyer	47S	37E	Maurolucyus	42S	14E	Mösting	1S	6W
Lodygin	18S	147W	Maurycy	37N	40E	Mouchez	78N	27W
Loewy	23S	33W	Maxwell	30N	99E	Moulton	61S	97E
Lohrmann	0	67W	C. Mayer	63N	17E S	Müller	8S	2E
Lohse	14S	60E	T. Mayer	16N	29W	Murchison	5N	0
Lomonosov	27N	98E	McClure	15S	50E	Mutus	64S	30E
Longomontanus	50S	22W	McKellar	16S	171W			

CRATERS			CRATERS			CRATERS		
Nagaoka	20N	154E	Paracelsus	23S	163E	Poincaré	57S	161E
Nassau	25S	177E	Paraskevopoulos	50N	150W	Poinsot	79N	145W
Nansen	81N	95E	Parenago	26N	109W	Poisson	30S	11E
Nasiredin	41S	0	Parkhurst	34S	103E	Polybius	22S	26E
Nasmyth	50S	56W	Parrot	15S	3E	Polzunov	26N	115E
Naumann	35N	62W	Parry	8S	16W	Poncelet	76N	54W
Neander	31S	40E	Parsons	37N	171W	Pons	25S	22E
Nearch	58S	39E	Pascal	74N	70W	Pontanus	28S	14E
Neison	68N	25E	Paschen	14S	141W	Pontécoulant	59S	66E
Neper	9N	85E	Pasteur	12S	105E	Popov	17N	99E
Nernst	36N	95W	Pauli	45S	137E	Porter	56S	10W
Neujmin	27S	125E	Pavlov	29S	142E	Posidonius	32N	30E
Neumayer	71S	70E	Pawsey	44N	145E	Poynting	17N	133W
Newcomb	30N	44E	Peary	30E	89N	Prager	4S	131E
Newton	77S	17W	Pease	13N	106W	Prandtl	60S	141E
Nicholson	26S	85W	Peirce	18N	53E	Priestley	57S	108E
Nicolai	42S	26E	Peirescius	46S	68E	Prinz	26N	44W
Nicollet	22S	12W	Pentland	65S	11E	Proclus	16N	47E
Niepcé	72N	120W	Perelman	24S	106E	Proctor	46S	5W
Nijland	33N	134E	Perepelkin	10S	128E	Protagoras	56N	7E
Nikolaev	35N	151E	Perkin	47N	176W	Ptolemaeus	9S	2W
Nishina	45S	171W	Perrine	42N	129W	Puiseux	28S	39W
Nobel	15N	101W	Petavius	25S	60E	Purbach	26S	2W
Nöggerath	49S	46W	Petermann	74N	67E	Purkyně	1S	95E
Nonius	35S	4E	Peters	68N	29E	Pythagoras	63N	62W
Nöther	66N	114W	Petrie	45N	108E	Pytheas	21N	21W
Numerov	71S	161W	Petropavlovsky	37N	115W			
Nuši	32N	167E	Petrov	61S	88E	Quételet	43N	135W
			Pettit	28S	86W			
Obruchev	39S	162E	Petzval	63S	113W	Rabbi Levi	35S	24E
O'Day	31S	157E	Phillips	27S	76E	Racah	14S	180
Oenopides	57N	64W	Philolaus	72N	33W	Raimond	14N	159W
Oersted	43N	47E	Phocylides	53S	57W	Ramsay	40S	145E
Ohm	18N	114W	Piazzi	37S	68W	Ramsden	33S	32W
Oken	44S	76E	Piazzi Smyth	42N	3W	Rasumov	39N	114W
Olbers	7N	76W	Picard	15N	55E	Rayet	45N	114E
Olcott	20N	118E	Piccolomini	30S	32E	Rayleigh	29N	90E
Omar Khayyam	58N	102W	Pickering	3S	7E	Réaumur	2S	1E
Opelt	16S	17W	Pictet	44S	7W	Regiomontanus	29S	1W
Oppenheimer	35S	166W	Pingré	58S	74W	Regnault	54N	88W
Oppolzer	2S	0	Pirquet	20S	140E	Reichenbach	30S	48E
Oresme	43S	169E	Pitatus	30S	14W	Reimar	48S	60E
Orlov	26S	175W	Pitiscus	51S	31E	Reiner	7N	55W
Orontius	40S	4W	Pizzetti	35S	119E	Reinhold	3N	23W
Ostwald	11N	122E	Plana	42N	28E	Repsold	52N	78W
			Planck	58S	135E	Rhaeticus	0	5E
Palisa	9S	7W	Plaskett	82N	175E	Rheita	37S	47E
Palitzsch	28S	64E	Plato	51N	9W	Riccioli	3S	74W
Pallas	6N	2W	Playfair	23S	8E	Riccius	37S	26E
Palmieri	29S	48W	Plinius	15N	24E	Ricco	75N	177E
Paneth	63N	95W	Plummer	25S	155W	Riedel	49S	140W
Pannekoek	4S	140E	Plutarch	24N	79E	Riemann	40N	88E
Papaleski	10N	164E	Pogson	42S	111E	Ritchey	11S	8E

CRATERS			CRATERS			CRATERS		
Rittenhouse	74S	107E	Schwabe	65N	45E	Stöfler	41S	6E
Ritter	2N	19E	Schwartzschild	71N	120E	Stokes	53N	89W
Ritz	15S	92E	Scoresby	78N	14E	Stoletov	45N	155W
Roberts	71N	174W	Scott	82S	45E	Stoney	56S	156W
Robertson	22N	105W	Seares	74N	145E	Störmer	57N	145E
Robinson	59N	46W	Secchi	2N	43E	Strabo	62N	54E
Rocca	13S	73W	Sechenov	7S	143W	Stratton	6S	165E
Roche	42S	135E	Seeliger	2S	3E	Street	47S	11W
Römer	25N	36E	Segers	47N	128E	Strömgren	22S	133W
Röntgen	33N	92W	Segner	59S	48W	Struve	23N	76W
Rosenberger	55S	43E	Seidel	33S	152E	Subbotin	29S	135E
Ross	12N	22E	Seleucus	21N	67W	Suess	4N	48W
Rosse	18S	35E	Seneca	27N	80E	Sulpicius Gallus	20N	12E
Rost	56S	34W	Seyfert	29N	114E	Sumner	37N	109E
Rothmann	31S	28E	Shajn	33N	172E	Sundman	11N	91W
Rowland	57N	163W	Shaler	33S	85W	Swann	52N	112E
Rozhdestvensky	86N	155W	Sharonov	13N	173E	Sylvester	83N	82W
Rumford	29S	170W	Sharp	46N	40W	Szilard	34N	106E
Russell	27S	75W	Shatalov	24N	140E			
Rutherford	61S	12W	Sheepshanks	59N	17E	Tacitus	16S	19E
Rydberg	47S	96W	Shi Shen	76N	104E	Tacquet	17N	19E
Rynin	47N	104W	Short	75S	8W	Tannerus	56S	22E
			Shternberg	19N	117W	Taruntius	6N	46E
Sabine	1N	20E	Shuckburgh	43N	53E	Taylor	5S	17E
Sacrobosco	24S	17E	Siedentopf	22N	135E	Teisserenc	32N	136W
Saenger	4N	102E	Sierpinski	27S	155E	Tempel	4N	12E
Šafařík	10N	177E	Silberschlag	6N	13E	Tereschkova	28N	144E
Saha	2S	103E	Simpelius	73S	15E	Tesla	38N	125E
St. John	10N	150E	Sinas	9N	32E	Thales	62N	50E
Sanford	32N	139W	Sirsalis	12S	60W	Theaetetus	36N	6E
Santbech	21S	44E	Sisakyan	41N	109E	Thebit	22S	4W
Sarton	49N	121W	Skłodowska	18S	96E	Theon Junior	2S	16E
Sasserides	39S	10W	Slipher	50N	160E	Theon Senior	1S	15E
Saunders	4S	9E	Smoluchowski	60N	96W	Theophilus	11S	26E
Saussure	43S	4W	Snellius	29S	56E	Thiel	40N	134W
Scaliger	27S	109E	Sniadecki	22S	169W	Thiessen	75N	169W
Schaeberle	26S	117E	Sommerfeld	65N	161W	Thomson	33S	166E
Scheiner	60S	28W	Sömmering	0	8W	Tihomirov	25N	162E
Schiaparelli	23N	59W	Sosigenes	9N	18E	Tikhov	62N	172E
Schickard	45S	55W	South	57N	51W	Tiling	52S	132W
Schiller	52S	40W	Spallanzani	46S	24E	Timaeus	63N	1W
Schjellerup	69N	157E	Spencer Jones	13N	166E	Timiryazev	5S	147W
Schlesinger	47N	138W	Spiru Haret	59S	176W	Timocharis	27N	13W
Schliemann	2S	155E	Spörer	4S	2W	Tisserand	21N	48E
Schlüter	6S	83W	Stadius	10N	14W	Titus	27S	101E
Schmidt	1N	19E	Stark	25S	134E	Titov	29N	150E
Schneller	42N	164W	Stebbins	65N	143W	Torricelli	5S	28E
Schomberger	77S	25E	Stefan	46N	109W	Tralles	28N	53E
Schönfeld	45N	98W	Stein	7N	179E	Triesnecker	4N	4E
Schorr	19S	90E	Steinheil	49S	47E	Trouvelot	49N	6E
Schrödingier	75S	133E	Steklov	37S	105W	Trumpler	28N	168E
Schröter	3N	7W	Steno	33N	162E	Tsander	5N	149W
Schubert	3N	81E	Stetson	40S	119W	Tsiolkovsky	20S	129E
Schumacher	43N	61E	Stevinus	33S	54E	Tsu Chung-Chi	17N	144E
Schuster	4N	147E	Stiborius	34S	32E			

CRATERS			CRATERS		
Turner	1S	13W	Wells	41N	122E
Tycho	43S	11W	Werner	28S	3E
Tyndall	35S	117E	Wexler	69S	90E
			Weyl	16N	120W
Ukert	8N	1E	Whewell	4N	14E
Ulugh Beigh	33N	82W	White	45S	160W
			Wichmann	8S	38W
Valier	7N	174E	Wiechert	84S	165E
Van de Graaff	27S	172E	Wiener	41N	146E
Van den Bergh	31N	159W	Wilhelm	43S	21W
Van der Waals	44S	119E	Wilkins	29S	20E
Van Gent	16N	160E	Williams	42N	37E
Van Maanen	36N	127E	Wilsing	22S	155W
Van Rhijn	52N	145E	Wilson	69S	42W
Van't Hoff	62N	133W	Winkler	42N	179W
Van Wijk	63S	119E	Winlock	35N	106W
Vasco da Gama	14N	84W	Wöhler	38S	31E
Vashakidze	44N	93E	Wolf	23S	17W
Vavilov	1S	139W	Wollaston	31N	47W
Vega	45S	63E	Woltjer	45N	160W
Vendelinus	16S	62E	Wood	44N	121W
Vening Meinesz	0	163E	Wright	32S	86W
Ventris	5S	153E	Wrottesley	24S	57E
Vernadsky	23N	130E	Wurzelbauer	34S	16W
Vesalius	3S	115E	Wyld	1S	98E
Vestine	34N	94E			
Vetchinkin	10N	131E	Xenophanes	58N	82W
Vieta	29S	56W			
Vil'ev	6S	144E	Yablochkov	61N	127E
Vitello	30S	37W	Yamamoto	59N	161E
Vitruvius	18N	31E	Yarkes	15N	52E
Wlacq	53S	39E	Young	41S	51E
Vogel	15S	6E			
Volta	54N	85W	Zach	61S	5E
Voltterra	57N	131E	Zagut	32S	22E
Von der Pahlen	25S	133W	Zeeman	75S	135W
Von Kármán	45S	176E	Zelinsky	29S	167E
Von Neumann	40N	153E	Zeno	45N	73E
Von Zeipel	42N	142W	Zernike	18N	168E
Voskresensky	28N	88W	Zhiritsky	25S	120E
			Zhukovsky	7N	167W
Walker	26S	162W	Zinger	57N	176E
Wallace	20N	9W	Zöllner	8S	19E
Walter	33S	1E	Zsigmondy	59N	105W
Wan-Hoo	11S	139W	Zuchius	61S	50W 5J
Wargentin	49S	60W	Zupus	17S	52W 5J
Waterman	26S	128E			
Watson	63S	124W			
Watt	50S	49E			
Webb	1S	60E			
Weber	50N	124W			
Wegener	45N	114W			
Weigel	58S	39W			
Weinek	27S	37E			
Weiss	32S	20W			

<u>SEAS (Maria)</u>			<u>LAKES (Lacus)</u>		
Mare Anguis	22N	65E	Lacus Aestatis	15S	69W
(Serpent Sea)			(Lake of Summer)		
Mare Australe	50S	95E	Lacus Autumni	12S	84W
(Southern Sea)			(Lake of Autumn)		
Mare Cognitum	10S	23W	Lacus Mortis	45N	27E
(Known Sea)			(Lake of Death)		
Mare Crisium	16N	59E	Lacus Somniorum	38N	31E
(Sea of Crises)			(Lake of Dreams)		
Mare Fecunditatis	6S	51E	Lacus Veris	17S	86W
(Sea of Fertility)			(Lake of Spring)		
Mare Frigoris	55N	6E			
(Sea of Cold)			<u>MARSHES (Paludes)</u>		
Mare Humboldtianum	56N	82E	Palus Epidemiarum	32S	28W
(Humboldt's Sea)			(Marsh of Diseases)		
Mare Humorum	24S	38W	Palus Putredinis	28N	0
(Sea of Moisture)			(Marsh of Decay)		
Mare Imbrium	35N	15W	Palus Somni	16N	44E
(Sea of Rains)			(Marsh of Sleep)		
Mare Ingenii	34S	164E			
(Sea of Ingenuity)			<u>MOUNTAINS (Montes)</u>		
Mare Marginis	12N	88E	Montes Alpes	48N	0
(Border Sea)			(Alps)		
Mare Moscoviense	28N	143E	Montes Apenninus	20N	1W
(Moscow Sea)			(Apennines)		
Mare Nectaris	15S	35E	Montes Carpatum	15N	24W
(Sea of Nectar)			(Carpathians)		
Mare Nubium	22S	15W	Montes Caucasus	37N	9E
(Sea of Clouds)			(Caucasus Mts.)		
Mare Orientale	20S	95W	Montes Cordillera	5-35S	79-112W
(Eastern Sea)			(Cordilleras)		
Oceanus Procellarum	20N	60W	Montes Haemus	15N	13E
(Ocean of Storms)			(Haemus Mts.)		
Mare Serenitatis	27N	18E	Montes Harbinger	27N	42W
(Sea of Serenity)			(Harbinger Mts.)		
Mare Smythii	1N	86E	Montes Jura	48N	32W
(Smyth's Sea)			(Jura Mts.)		
Mare Spumans	1N	66E	Montes Pyrenaeus	15S	41E
(Foaming Sea)			(Pyrenees)		
Mare Tranquillitatis	10N	31E	Montes Recti	49N	20W
(Sea of Tranquillity)			(Straight Range)		
Mare Undarum	7N	69E	Montes Rhipaeus	7S	28W
(Sea of Waves)			(Riphaean Mts.)		
Mare Vaporum	14N	3E	Montes Rook	10-30S	82-105W
(Sea of Vapours)			(Rook Mts.)		
<u>BAYS (Sinus)</u>			Montes Spitzbergensis	35N	5W
Sinus Aestuum	11N	8W	(Spitzbergen Mts.)		
(Seething Bay)			Montes Taurus	28N	42E
Sinus Iridum	44N	31W	(Taurus Mts.)		
(Bay of Rainbows)			Montes Teneriffe	48N	13W
Sinus Lunicus	32N	2W	(Tenerife Mts.)		
(See Commemorative Features)					
Sinus Medii	1N	0			
(Central Bay)					
Sinus Roris	52N	50W			
(Bay of Dew)					

CAPIES (Promontoria)

Pr. Archerusia	17N	21E
Pr. Agarum	14N	66E
Pr. Agassiz	42N	2E
Pr. Banat	17N	26W
Pr. Deville	44N	1E
Pr. Fresnel	29N	5E
Pr. Heraclides	41N	34W
Pr. Kelvin	27S	33W
Pr. Laplace	26N	25W
Pr. Lavinium	15N	49E
Pr. Olivium	16N	49E
Pr. Taenarium	19S	7W

PEAKS (Mons)

Mons Ampère	19N	4W
Mons Argæus	19N	29E
Mont Blanc	46N	0
Mons Bradley	22N	1E
Mons Hadley	27N	5E
Mons Huygens	20N	2W
Mons La Hire	28N	25W
Mons Pico	46N	9W
Mons Piton	41N	1W
Mons Rümker	41N	58W
Mons Serac	17N	6W
Mons Wolff	17N	7W

RILLES/CLEFTS (Rimae)

Rima Agatharchides I	20S	28W
Rima Alphonsus I, II	14S	2W
Rima Archimedes I, II, III, IV, V, VI	27N	6W
Rima Archytas I	55N	2E
Rima Ariadaeus, I	6N	14E
Rima Aristarchus I, II, III, IV, V, VI, VII, VIII	27N	47E
Rima Aristoteles I, II	54N	15E
Rima Arzachel I, II	9S	1W
Rima Atlas I, II, III, IV, V	47N	45E
Rima Billy I, II	14S	49W
Rima Birt I	22S	9W
Rima Bode I, II, III, IV, V	10N	4W
Rima G. Bond I	33N	35E
Rima Boscovich I, II	10N	11E
Rima Bradley	25N	0
Rima Burckhardt I	32N	58E
Rima Bürg I, II	44N	24E
Rima Calippus I	37N	13E
Rima Cardanus	12N	72W
Rima Cauchy I	11N	38E

RILLES/CLEFTS (Rimae)

Rima Cavendish I, II	25S	52W
Rima Chacornac I, II, III, IV	29S	32E
Rima Cleomedes I	28N	56E
Rima Conon	19N	2E
Rima Daniell I, III, IV	38N	24E
Rima Darwin I, II, III, IV	20S	66W
Rima Davy I	11S	6W
Rima de Gasparis I, II, III, IV	26S	51W
Rima Doppelmayr I, II, III	27S	44W
Rima Eudoxus I, II	43N	13E
Rima Flammarion	2S	5W
Rima Fresnel I, II, III	29N	5E
Rima Furnerius I	35S	61E
Rima Gärtner I	60N	37E
Rima Gassendi I, II, III, IV, V, VI, VII, VIII, IX	17S	39W
Rima Gay-Lussac I, II	13N	22W
Rima Goclenius I, II	8S	42E
Rima Gould I	21S	19W
Rima Grimaldi I, II, III, IV	5S	64W
Rima Guericke I	16S	15W
Rima Gutenberg I, II, III, IV, V	6S	39E
Rima Hadley	26N	3E
Rima Hansteen I	12S	52W
Rima Hedin I	3N	73W
Rima Herigonius I	14S	37W
Rima Hesiodus	30S	22W
Rima Hevelius I, II, III	2N	67W
Rima Hippalus I, II, III, IV, V	25S	29W
Rima Hyginus, I	8N	7E
Rima Hypatia I, II	0	23E
Rima Jansen I	15N	30E
Rima Janssen I	45S	39E
Rima Krafft	15N	72W
Rima La Hire I, II	28N	27W
Rima Lassell I	16S	10W
Rima Letronne I	12S	40W
Rima Littrow I, II, III, IV, V, VI, VII	22N	31E
Rima Lohrmann I, II, III	0	65W
Rima Maclear I, II	13N	20E
Rima Marius	17N	49W
Rima Menelaus I, II, III	17N	17E

RILLES/CLEFTS (Rimae)

Rima Mersenius I, II, III	20S	46W
Rima Messier I	1S	44E
Rima Newcomb I	31N	41E
Rima Opelt I	13S	18W
Rima Oppolzer I	1S	2E
Rima Palmieri I	28S	47W
Rima Parry I, II, III, IV, V, VI	8S	17W
Rima Petavius I, II, III	26S	59E
Rima Pitatus I, II, III	30S	12W
Rima Plato I, II, III	52N	4W
Rima Plinius I, II, III	17N	24E
Rima Posidonius I, II, III, IV, V, VI	32N	30E
Rima Prinz I, II	27N	44W
Rima Ptolemaeus I	10S	3W
Rima Ramsden I, II, III, IV, V, VI	33S	31W
Rima Réaumur	3S	3E
Rima Rhaeticus I	0	4E
Rima Riccioli I, II	0	75W
Rima Ritter I, II, III, IV, V	3N	20E
Rima Römer I, II	27N	35E
Rima Schröter I	1N	6W
Rima Sharp I	46N	51W
Rima Sirsalis I, II, III, IV, V	16S	61W
Rima Sosigenes I, II, III, IV	7N	19E
Rima Stadius I, II	15N	17W
Rima Sulpicius Gallus I, II, III	21N	10E
Rima Theaetetus I, II, III	33N	6E
Rima Triesnecker I, II, III, V, VI, VII	4N	5E
Rima Zupus I, II	15S	53W

SCARPS (Rupes)

Rupes Altai (Altai Scarp)	25S	23E
Rupes Cauchy (Cauchy Scarp)	9N	38E
Rupes Kelvin (Kelvin Scarp)	28S	33W
Rupes Liebig (Liebig Scarp)	27S	45W

SCARPS (Rupes)

Rupes Mercator (Mercator Scarp)	30S	23W
Rupes Recta (Straight Wall)	22S	7W

VALLEYS (Vallis)

Vallis Alpes (Alpine Valley)	49N	3E
Vallis Baade	47S	77W
Vallis Bouvard	39S	83W
Vallis Inghirami	44S	72W
Vallis Palitzsch	24S	64E
Vallis Planck	59S	126E
Vallis Rheita (Rheita Valley)	44S	52E
Vallis Schrödinger	67S	105E
Vallis Schröteri (Schröter's Valley)	26N	51W
Vallis Snellius	30S	53E

COMMEMORATIVE FEATURES

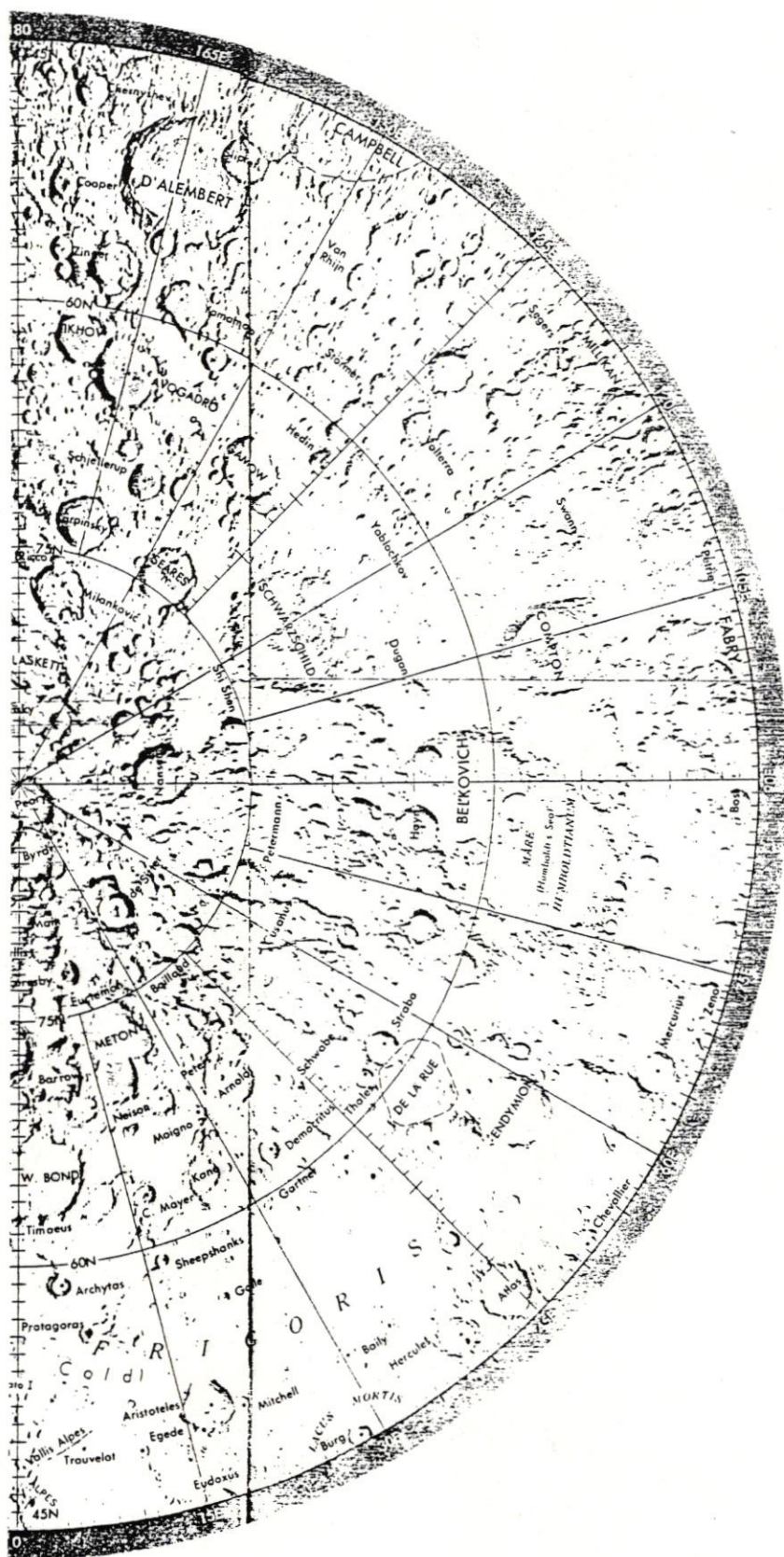
(Marked with an "X")

Planitia Descensus (Site of 1st USSR Soft Landing)	7N	64W
Sinus Lunicus (Site of 1st USSR Hard Landing)	32N	2W
Statio Tranquillitatis (Site of 1st USA Manned Landing)	1N	24E











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