



THE ASSESSMENT WAS THE WAR TO SHARE THE WAY AND THE WA

Digitized for Microsoft Corporation
by the Internet Archive in 2007.
From University of California Libraries.
May be used for non-commercial, personal, research, or educational purposes, or any fair use.
May not be indexed in a commercial service.



ТНЕ

ELEMENTS

OF

NAVIGATION.

VOLUME THE FIRST.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

ELEMENTS

NAVIGATION;

CONTAINING THE

THEORY and PRACTICE.

With the necessary TABLES,

And COMPENDIUMS for finding

The LATITUDE and LONGITUDE at SEA.

To which is added,

A TREATISE

MARINE FORTIFICATION.

Composed for the Use of

The ROYAL MATHEMATICAL School at CHRIST'S HOSPITAL,
The ROYAL ACADEMY at PORTSMOUTH,
And the GENTLEMEN of the NAVY.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

By J. ROBERTSON,

Late Librarian to the Royal Society, and formerly Head-Master of the Royal Academy, at Portsmouth.

The FIFTH EDITION, with ADDITIONS.

Carefully revised and corrected by

WILLIAM WALES,

Master of the Royal Mathematical School, Christ's Hospital, London.

L O N D O N,
Printed for C. NOURSE, in the STRAND,
Univ Calif - DMDCCLXXXVVIIcrosoft ®

ro R54

JOHNEARL OF

SANDWICH,

&c. &c. &c.

FIRST COMMISSIONER

OF THE

Boards of Admiralty and Longitude.

MY LORD,

WHILE the public voice is unanimous in applauding your humanity towards the Artificers, in general, of His Majesty's Dock-yards, and your attention to restore the Royal Navy of Britain to the respectable state from which it had been suffered to decline since the last War, Philosophers not only admire these noble acts, but likewise, your generous encouragement to improve Geographical, Nautical, and Natural Knowledge.

A

Such

DEDICATION.

Such exertions of your Lordship's extraordinary Mental and Official Abilities, will undoubtedly be transmitted with honour to the latest posterity: And your laudable example must inspire a regard for Works instended to promote public utility.

The Author of The Elements of Navigation, notwithstanding the favourable reception which the former impressions have met with from British Mariners, thinks himself extremely happy that this improved Edition is permitted to appear under your Lordship's Patronage.

That you may long enjoy the Opportunity as well as Inclination of promoting useful Arts and Learning, is a hope sincerely entertained by,

My Lord,

Your Lordship's

most obedient

and humble Servant,

Nov. 1. 1772.

John Robertson.

TOTHE

RIGHT WORSHIPFUL Sir ROBERT LADBROKE, Knt. Alderman, PRESIDENT;

THE

Worshipful THOMAS BURFOOT, Esq. TREASURER;

And the rest of the

WORSHIPFUL GOVERNORS

OF

Christ's Hospital, London:

This Book, containing the Elements of Navigation, and a Treatife on Marine Fortification, first published for the Use of the Children in the Royal Mathematical School, when they were under my Care, is, as a grateful acknowledgement for past favours, addressed by

Your WORSHIPS' most humble Servant,

Nov. 1. 1772.

John Robertson.

accomplished and the stop of the first thresh

A D V E R T I S E M E N T.

IN this Edition, the Editor has carefully corrected the errors which had crept into the former; he has recomputed the Tables in Book V. Art. 308, 309, and 310, of the Sun's Longitude, Right Afcention, and Declination, and has also revised, as far as his materials extended, the Geographical Table, and added the names of such places as his own observations, or those of other persons, have surnished him with; so that he flatters himself it is the most extensive and correct of any extant. On the whole, he presumes, this Edition will be found as worthy of the approbation of the public in general, and of feamen in particular, as those which were printed under the Author's inspection.

PREFACE.

IT having been part of my employment for many years past, to instruct youth in the theoretical and practical parts of Navigation; I was naturally led to draw up rules and examples sitted to the years and capacity of the scholar: some of the precepts, from time to time were altered, according as I had observed how they were comprehended by the majority of my pupils; until at length I had put together a set of materials, which I found sufficient for teaching this Art.

Upon my being intrusted by the governors of Christ's Hospital (in the beginning of the year 1748) with the care of the Royal Mathematical school there, founded by King Charles the second, I had a great opportunity of experiencing the method I had before used; and finding it fully answered my expectation, I determined to print it for the use of that school: but as those children are to be instructed in the mathematical sciences, on which the art of Navigation is founded, I judged it proper, on their account, to introduce the subjects of Arithmetic, Geometry, Trigonometry, Sc. for which reason, this treatise is distinguished by the title of Elements of Navigation.

After my appointment (in the year 1755) to be head master of the Royal Marine Academy at Portsmouth, sounded by King George the second, I also found that this beak was sufficiently intelligible to beginners of middling capachies; and therefore, in the second edition, in the year 1764, the manner in which it was first composed was continued, except the removing of the book of Astronomy, from being the 8th, into the place of the 5th, whereby the books of Plane Sailing, Globular Sailing, and Days Works, which together nearly comprehend the art of Nevigation, solving in succession. There were indeed some varietions in the modes of expression in a few places; but the additions in every book were made rather to extend the notions of learners, than to supply any discious manting in the sormer educion; except some of the additions in the 9th, book, which were not se well known at the time of the fust impression.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

1

The work is divided into ten parts or books, each being a distinct treatise; the preceding ones contain the necessary elements which are wanted in those that follow. The demonstration of the several propositions are given as concisely as I could contrive, to carry with them a sufficient degree of evidence: Throughout the whole of the elementary parts, brevity and perspicuity were considered; but the practical parts are more fully treated on, and intended to include every useful particular, worthy of the mariner's notice.

In the elementary parts, where it is not easy to introduce new matter, there will be found the common principles treated in a manner, which, it is apprehended, is better adapted to beginners; and such new lights thrown on several particulars, as will render them more obvious than in the view wherein they have been commonly seen.

The treatise of Fortisication annexed, is the result of many years application; and is delivered in a very different mode from what other writers have taken; for among the multitude which I have seen, they generally begin with the fortisying of a town, the most difficult part of the art, and end with works the most easy to contrive and execute: Herein the works of the simplest construction are begun with, and the learner gradually advanced to the fortisying of a town: Indeed the limits chosen for this tratt have caused some articles to be briefly mentioned, and others to be totally omitted; nevertheless, it is conceived that, in its present state, it may be of considerable use to Marine Officers, and even surnish some hints not altogether unworthy the notice of the Gentlemen of the Army.

The Maritime parts of these Elements, contained in the viith, viiith, and ixth books, are also delivered in a manner somewhat different from what is seen in other writers; who, for the most part copying from one another, have not much contributed towards persecting the art of Navigation; the writers indeed have been many, but the improvers have been very sew; Wright, Norwood, and Halley, having done the most of what has been discovered since a little before the beginning of the 17th century: However, in the method here taken, it is apprehended that the proper judges will find some sew improvements, as well in the art itself as in the manner of communicating it to learners.

The common treatifes of Navigation, which, on account of their small bulk and easy price, are vended among the British Mariners, sum not to be written with an intention to excite in their readers a Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft & desire

defire to pursue the Sciences, farther than they are handled in those books; so that it is no wonder our seamen in general had so little mathematical knowledge; for the person who could keep a trite journal, formed on the most easy occurrences, has been reckoned a good artist; but whenever those occurrences have not happened, the journalist has been at a loss, and unable to find the ship's place with any tolerable degree of precision; and such accidents have probably contributed to the distress which many ships crews have experienced, and which a little more knowledge among them might have prevented, or at least have lessened.

About the middle of the 16th century, Navigation began to be considered as an art, in a great measure dependent on the Mathematical sciences; and on such a plan has it been cultivated by the labours of the most judicious, who have applied themselves towards its perfection; and although the art has been enriched by the observations of some learned men in different nations, yet it has so happened, that the chief of the improvements, and particularly the mathematical ones*, were first published in Britain.

Into this work are collected most, if not all, of the useful and curious particulars relating to the art of Navigation; there are also interspersed historical remarks of inventions, with the names of many eminent men, and their works; these were intended as incentives to inspire learners and our seamen with a desire not only of knowing the things herein treated of from their foundations, but of pushing their inquiries into such other parts of the sciences as may procure to themselves pleasure, profit, and respect, and render them more useful to their country by the skill resulting from such acquisitions.

I have always thought that the chief motives which ought to induce a person to appear as a writer should be, either that he has something new to publish, or that he has arranged the parts of a known subject, in a method more regular and useful than had been done before; in either of these cases he cannot be a proper judge, unless he has seen the pieces extant on that subject, or at least, those of the most eminent authors already published: On these principles I was led to examine what had been done by the different writers on Navigation; and having perused most of their books, of which I

could get information, I had an opportunity of discovering the steps by which this art has risen to its present perfection, and consequently of knowing the most material parts of the history of its progress: Among other things, I could not avoid remarking a mistake which has crept into many of the modern books of Navigation; which is, that Wright's invention of making a true sea-chart was stolen by Mercator, and published as his own. I suspect this story had its rise in a book printed in the year 1675 by Edward Sherburne, intitled "The Sphere of Marcus Manilius made an English Poem, with Annotations and an Altronomical Appendix."

My enquiries into these matters induced the late learned Dr. James Wilson to review and complete his observations on the same subject, and produced his Dissertation on the History of the Art of Navigation; which he was pleased to give me leave to publish with the second edition of this work.

There are few persons, however knowing and careful, who may not commit, and overlook, inadvertencies in their own compositions, which may be discovered by others: therefore at my request the greatest part of the manuscript for the first edition was read and examined by two of my friends*, well acquainted with the theory and practice of Navigation; who, by their judicious observations, enabled me to improve several articles: Some part of the additions to the 2d Edition, received much elegance and perspicuity through the friendly advice and communications of the late learned Dr. Henry Pemberton, F.R.S.

The second Edition of these Elements having also been well received by the Public; Dr. Wilson took the pains to revise his Dissertation, which he improved in many particulars: And I have also endeavoured to retain their favourable opinions of my labours, by giving Compendiums for performing the operations of the new tethods of finding the latitude and longitude of a ship at sea; and some other alterations and additions which I conveived would render this third Edition more generally useful.

Nov. 1, 1772.

^{*} William Mountaine, Efq. F. R. S. and Mr. William Payne.

TEN

HIS treatife in two volumes contains ten books; each is divided into feveral fections, and numbered with the Roman numerals.

The particular articles are numbered by the common figures, each book beginning with the number 1.

The references made from one article of the treatife to another is of

two kinds.

First. When in the same book. Then the number of the article referred to, is put in a parenthesis. Thus (27), refers to the article numbered 27 in the same book.

Second. When in another book. Then the number of the book in Roman figures, and of the article in common figures, is put in a parenthesis. Thus (II. 160) refers to the 160th article of the second book.

In the following contents, the fections refer to the number of the page: the particulars to the number of the article.

Vol. I. BOOK I. ARITHMETIC.

From Page I to Page 12

110111 1 180 1	to 1 age 42.
Section I. Definitions and Principles p. 1 Notation, numeration, and fractions	Section VII. Of Proportion p. 20 Of the nature of proportional num-
	ters 44 The Rule of Three 46
at articles 17 to 21	A collection of 26 and Gions
Signs, and tables of coin, weights,	A collection of 26 questions 47
Section II. Addition p. 6	Section VIII. Of powers and
Of subola numbers and finations of	roots p. 26
Of whole numbers and fractions 24	
Of subole numbers and fraction p. 8	power art. 49
Of whole numbers and fractions 26	To extract the square root 54
Subtraction 27	To extract the cube root 56 SECTION IX. Of numeral feries
SECTION IV. Multiplication p. 10	oberion 1111 Of nameral fertes
Multiplication table art. 29	Of arithmetic progression art. 59
Multiplication of authole numbers	Of geometric progression 60
Multiplication of whole numbers and fractions art. 30	Some properties of Juch progressi-
SECTION V. Division p. 12	
Of whole numbers and fractions 32	
SECTION VI. Reduction p. 14	
Of several names to one name 35	Comment V OCL
Of inferior name to sup. name 36	Of the material Change it
77 1 7 - 1 7 1 7 1	To make logarithms 73
1	0001 11 01 11 0
97 1 1 1 6	
1) . a . / a .	7 / 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
Fractical quellions 43	Multiplication by logarithms 85 Division
	A / [U1/1276

CONTENT'S.

Division by logarithms
Of proportion by logarithms

86 Of the arith. comp. of logarithms 88 87 Of powers and roots by logarithms 89

BOOK II. GEOMETRY.

From Page 43 to Page 88.

SECTION I. Definitions and Prin-	SECTION IV. Of Proportion p. 68
ciples p. 43	Definitions and Principles 138 to 147
	General Properties 148 to 164
Postulates 43	In similar triangles 165
Axioms 46	In the circle and regular polygons 169
SECT. II. Geometrical Problems p. 48	Quadrature of the circle 191
Of right lined figures 55 to 69	SECT. V. Of planes and folids p. 82
Of the circle 70 to 74	Definitions and Principles art. 198
Of proportional lines 75 to 80	
Scales of equal parts and chords	
	SECTION VI. Of the spiral p. 86
Of polygons 85	
SECTION III. Geom. Theorems p. 58	Of the proportional spiral 222
Of lines and triangles art. 91 to 106	
Of quadrangles and the circle	Of Napier's Logarithms 229
107 to 137	

BOOK III. PLANE TRIGONOMETRY.

From Page 89 to Page 124.

	, 8 .
SECTION I. Definitions and Prin-	Synapsis of the rules art. 52
ciples p. 89	Twelve numeral examples 53 to 64
Definitions art. 1 to 16	SECTION IV. Of the Gunter's
SECTION II. Triangular canon p. 92	scale p. 114
Construction of the plane scale art. 17	Of natural and logarithmic scales
Of fines of small arcs 25	art. 65, 66, 67
Of sines above 60 degrees 29	art. 65, 66, 67 Of the line of numbers 68
Of the relation of tangents, &c. 31	Of the line of fines 69
To compute the fines 38	Of tangents and verfed fines 70, 71
Of the tables of fines, tangents,	Demonstration of their construction
&c. 39	72
SECT. III. Solution of triangles p. 100	SECT. V. Use of Gunter's scale p. 118
By opposite sides and angles art. 45	Precepts art. 76 to 78 Exemplifications 79 to 86
Two sides and included right an-	Exemplifications 79 to 86
gle 46	
Two sides and included oblique an-	triangles p. 122
gle 48	In oblique angled triangles art. 88 Rules for finding an angle 90 to 98
By three sides 49, 50	Rules for finding an angle 90 to 98

CONTENTS.

BOOK IV. OF SPHERICS.

From Page 125 to Page 193.

Control of the contro	
SECTION I. Principles p. 125	
Definitions art. 1	Synopsis of oblique angled spher. 144 SECTION VIII. Construction and
Axioms 16	SECTION VIII. Confiruction and
SECTION II. Stereographic propo-	calculation of the cases of right
sitions p. 128	angled spheric triangles p. 166
Principal properties art. 30 to 59	Numeral examples art. 156 to 161
SECT. III. Spheric Geometry p. 135	Exam. of a quadrantal triangle 162
The construction and demonstration	SECTION IX. Construction and
of 37 cases art. 60 to 81	calculation of the cases of oblique
SECTION IV. Spheric Trigono-	angled spheric triangles p. 173
metru potru	Numeral examples art. 163 to 168
metry Definitions and Principles p. 145 art. 82	SECTION X. Goniometric lines p. 179
SECTION V. Spherical Theorems	Properties deduced art. 160
/ /	
Fifteen propositions art. 90 to 110	, 0
SECTION VI. Solutions of right en-	Variety of theoroms 211 to 210
aled fahanic triangles 12 1 72	Relation between the Edge and an
gled spheric triangles p. 152 By two new rules art. 111	Relation between the fides and an-
Dy Matin's amount and	gles of Spheric triangles 225 to 236
By Napier's general rule 119	Rules when two sides and the in-
SECTION VII. Solution of oblique	cluded angle are known, to find
angled spheric triangles p. 157	
With a perpendicular 120 to 124	Rules when 3 sides are known 254
Given three sides or three angles 125	To find the natural sines of given
	arcs; and the contrary 256, 25;

BOOK V. ASTRONOMY.

E D	D 0
From Page 19	5 to Page 328.
SECTION I. Solar Aftronomy p. 195	Of parallaxes art. 66
Of the Solar System art. 1	The measure of the Earth 73
Number of constellations and stars 6	Of the Moon 74
	Of folar and lunar eclipses 79
Annual and diurnal motions 17	SECTION III. Astronomy of the
Planets orbits and nodes 21	
Elliptic orbits of the planets 23	Definit ons and Principles art. 89
Kepler's laws 29	
Conjunctions and oppositions 34	1 0
Table of the folar system 37	degrees into time 133
Of the secondary planets 38	Of the culminating of the stars 134
Of the figure of the planets 40	SECTION IV. Of the projection of
SECT. II. Terrestrial Astronomy p. 204	the sphere p. 221
	Four projections on the four prin-
grade appearances art. 45	cipal circles art. 135
Phenomena of the inferior planets 46	
	The construction and numeral so-
	lution of 22 problems 139 to 169
Obliquity of the ecliptic 55	SECT. VI. To find the latitude p. 242
Of the different seasons 56	Stereographic folution of fifteen
Rising and setting of stars 65	problems of latitude 170 to 184
Univ Calif - Digitiz	ed by Microsoft 8 Fourteen

CONTENTS.

Fourteen other problems for find-	SECTION VIII. Elements of the
	Earth's motion p. 280
Nonagefimal degree 204	Of mean motion and anomaly art. 222
SECTION VII. Practical Astrono-	Of the different years 229
my p. 268	Twelve problems relating to the
Of astronomical instruments art. 205	Earth's motion 234 to 255
Of the Clock 206	SECT. IX. Equation of time p. 291
Of the Clock 206 Of the Telescope 207	Of the syderial and equatorial day
Of the Micrometer 208	art. 261
Of the Quadrant 209	Of mean and apparent time : 263
Of the Transit Instrument 210	To calculate the equation of time 268
Of the Astronomical Sector 212	
	For finding the Sun's place
To adjust the clock 215	art. 269 to 280
Of the change in the Sun's declina-	Of declinat. and right afcen. to 289
tion 216	Equation of time 290
Of Vernier's dividing plate 219	Nineteen astronomical tables to 319
-)	2.000
BOOK VI. GE	OGRAPHY, &c.
From Page 320	g to Page 400.

SECTION I. Definitions and Prin-SECT. V. The use of the globes p. 346 Twenty-two problems on the celestial ciples p. 329 Of the poles and circles art. 3 and terrestrial globes art. 54 to 76 Of latitude and longitude 6, 9 SECTION VI. Of Winds Air and Atmosphere art. 78, 79 Division of the Earth by zones 13 Division of the Earth by climates 17 Trade-winds and Monfoons SECTION II. Natural division of Dr. Halley's observations p. 332 SECTION VII. Of Tides the Earth art. 18 to 31 Definitions Of gravitation and attraction to 89 Of continents and oceans Cause of the general tides 32, 33 art. 90 SECTION III. Of the political di-The chief propositions on tides to 101 Of the tides about Britain vision of the Earth P. 334 art. 35 SECTION VIII. Chronology p. 364 Europe and its chief parts Afia Of aras or epochs art. III. 38 Africa Julian account or old file 42 114 4.6 Gregorian account, or new stile 115 America SEC. IV. Geographical problems p. 342 Of the Kalendar 116 Chronological problems C.ncerning latitude and longitude to 126 Geographical and tide table 137 50 to 53

Vol. II. BOOK VII. OF PLANE SAILING.

From Page 1 to Page 130.

0	
p. 1	Its use, shewn in 7 cases 6 to 12
art, 1	SECTION III. Plane failing p. 6
2	Definitions and Principles
3	art. 13 to 21
P. 3	Rules for constructions 22
art.	Of the Traverse table 24
	Proportions .
	art, 1 2 3 p. 3

CONTENT'S.

Proportions of sides and angles,	SECT. VIII. Current failing p. 51
making either side the radius 25	Definitions and Principles art. 47
Ganons of plane failing 26 Table of rhumbs 27	General construction 49
Table of rhumbs 27	Twenty questions and their solu-
SECT. IV. Of fingle courses p. 11	tions ibid.
The fix cases of plane sailing to art. 33	SECTION 1X. Miscellaneous ques-
Questions in plane sailing 34	tions p. 60
SECTION V. Compound courses p. 21	Twenty complicated questions with
To work a traverse art. 36	their folutions art. 51
To work a traverse art. 36 To construct a traverse 37	SECTION X. Surveying of coasts
To construct a compound course 39	and barbours p. 70
Twenty questions in comp. courses 40	and barbours p. 70 To furvey on ship-board art. 52
SECTION VI. Oblique failing p. 35	To survey on shore 53 Of colours and their use 55
Bearing and fetting of objects art. 41	Of colours and their use 55
Twenty questions and their folu-	SECT. XI. To estimate distances p. 76
tions ibid.	
SECT. VII. Sailing to windward p.42	By the curvature of the earth 61
Definitions art. 42	Table of distances seen at sea 65
Definitions art. 42 General construction 46	Traverse tables art. 66, 67 from p. 81 to 130
Twenty questions and their solutions	from p. 81 to 130
ibid.	. ,
BOOK VIII. OF GL	OBULAR SAILING.

From Page 13	1 to Page 224.
SECTION I. Definitions and Prin-	SEC. V. Compound courfes p. 174
ciples p. 131	Principles and rules to art. 76
Of a ship's true place at sea art. 3	Four examples wrought by the fe-
Of Mercator's chart 4	veral rules to art. 81
Of Wright's construction - 6	Four examples wrought by the feweral rules to art. 81 SECT. VI. Of Mercator's chart p.182
SECTION II. Reckoning of longi-	Construction art. 82
tude, in 14 tropositions p. 134	Of the lines of longitude and lati-
Meridional parts by the fecants art. 12	tude on Gunter's scale 83
To construct a true sea chart 12	Thirteen Problems on the use of
Truth of failing by the Mercator's	Mercator's chart to art. 99 SECT.VII. Great circle failing p.191 The use art. 102
chart 15	SECT. VII. Great circle failing p. 101
Of the foiral rhumbs on the globe 21	The use art. 102
Meridional parts analogous to the	The use art. 102 The six cases in a single course to 108
logarithmic tangents 24.	Concerning compound courses and
SECTION III. Parallel failing D. 116	the principles to art. 110
Rules of computation art. 21	Three examples to 114
Merid dift of meridians 24	Three examples to 114 SECTION VIII. Of the figure of the Earth p. 203 (If the experiments to find the fi-
The cases of parallel Sailing 27	the Farth
Other examples	(If the experiments to find the fi-
SECTION IV. Middle latitude and	gure of the Earth to art. 121
	Of the ratio and magnitude of the
Principles for Mid-latitude art. 44	axes of the Earth to art. 126
Principles for Mercator's 49	Of the pavallels of let degrees of
Thirteen Problems of alabelen	Of the parallels of lat. degrees of
Cailing by Mid lat Mountain	lat. and merid. parts on the fphe- roid to 142
and leganith town outs to any	Tollar of manil tranto n 01 5 to 20
and logarith, tangents to art. 73	Tables of merid. parts p. 215 to 224
Univ Caiii - Di	gitized by MicrosofB® KIX.

BOOK IX, OF DAYS WORKS.

From Page 225 to Page 341.

Chamber T Of - Air's week m 206	Lib Dagger J'A
Section I. Of a ship's run p. 226	415. By 3 zen. dift. at unequal in-
Of the log. line and half min. glass	
Of their courses art. 3	
Of their corrections 4	vals, not near noon 61
Of M. Bouguer's log. 7	6th. By 3 alts. at unequal inter-
SECT. II. Of the sea compass p. 231	vals, not near noon 60
Construction and properties art. 14	7th. By 2 altitudes, the interval
Impersections and amendments 15	of time, declination, and latitude
Discovery of the variation 16	by account 70
Of the azimuth compass 17 To make artificial magnets 18	8th. By declination, two altitudes,
To make artificial magnets 18 To observe by the azimuth compass 21	the interval of time, lat. by ac-
SECTION III. Of amplitude p. 236	count, and course and distance run between the observation
hy logarithms art 25	
To work them { by logarithms art. 25 by Traverse table 26	SECTION X. To find the longitude at sea p. 286
SECTION IV. Of azimuths p. 239	Methods of correcting the long.
hy logarithms art 28	290
To work them { by logarithms art. 28 by Gunter's scale 29	METHOD I. By a current art. 79
SECTION V. Of the variation of	II. By the course and dist.
the compass p. 242	III. By the variation chart 85
What the variation is art. 30	IV! By a perfect time-keeper 80
To find the variation 31	V. By the sun's declination 92
To correct courses by variation 32	VI. By the moon's culminating 93
SECTION VI. Of leeway p. 244	VII. By eclipses of Jupiter's Sa-
What, and how allowed for art. 33	tellites 94
To correct the courses 35	VIII. By eclipses of the moon 97
SECTION VII. Of quadrants p. 245	IX. By occultation of stars 98
Of Davis's quadrant art. 36	To observe the angular distance of
Of the fore-staff 40.	celestial objects 102
Of Hadley's quadrant 41	To correct the observed angular
To rectify and observe by it 42	distance 107
Improvements 50	Compendium for obtaining the true
Of an artificial horizon 51	angular distance, with examples
Corrections, by the dip 52	108
By refraction 53	Mr. Witchell's method 109
By parallax 54	To find the Greenwich time an-
Tables for corrections of alts. p. 255	fivering to a given distance 110
SECTION VIII. Of comparing and	METHOD X. Longitude by obser-
correcting time p. 256	vations of dist. and alts. III
To find the time, and correct the	XI. Longitudes by observations
zvatch 258	of the distance only 112
SECTION IX. To find the latitude	SECT. XI. Of a ship's reckoning
at sea p. 261	p. 317
1st. By decl. and zen. dist. art. 60	Of dead reckoning and the log-book
2d. By decl. and equal alts. 63	art. 113
3d. By 3 zen. dift. at equal inter-	General precepts 114
vals, near noon 641	Four independent days works to 120

CONTENTS,

fournal of a voyage from England	Facio's problem art, 133
to Madeira in 27 days, with each	De la Caille on longitude 135
day's work p. 324 to 341	Of the Moon's phases 136
APPENDIX p. 342	Of the time of high-water 137
Theory of Davis's quadrant art. 124	Of the Moon's rising 141
	Tables of logarithms of numbers
Theory of Hadley's quadrant 126	Tables of logarithms of numbers,
Dip of the horizon 128	fines and tangents
Dip of the horizon 128 Of refraction 130	from p. 353 to 392
Of latitude 131	
- 3.	1
FORTIFI	CATION
FORTIFI	CATION.
DADT I OF TAND	FORTIFICATIONS.
TAKI I, OF LAND	FORTIFICATIONS,
From Page	to Page Fa
From rage	I to Page 52.
SECTION I. Of lines p. 2	Of gates 104
What, and where used art. 6 to 9	Of streets and buildings 109
Dimensions and construction to 17	Of bridges 112
SECTION II. Of batteries p. 7	Orillon and retired flank 114
Several kinds art. 18	Double and casemated flanks 116
	Sport and cajemated janks 110
Of the ditch and parapet 22, 23	SECTION V. Of works for the de-
Platform and magazine 28, 32	fence of the foss p. 38
A fascine battery 34	
A coffee hattern 28	horns art. 117 to 120
A coffer battery 38 Fo construct embrasures 46	horns art. 117 to 120
To construct embrasures 46	SECTION VI. Of outworks p. 39
Profiles of batteries 50	Necessary observations 122
SECTION III. Additional works p. 16	
Of want and banket works por 16	1 660 1 1
Of ramps and barbets 51, 56	1 (10
Of cavaliers and traverses 58, 59	Of counterguards 131
Of pallifades and barriers 61, 62	Of the tenaillon 132
Of redoubts and redan 63, 71	
	Of horn and crown-works 135
SECTION IV. Fortifying of towns	Of the covered-way, glacis, and
p. 23	places of arms 139
Definitions art. 73 to 84	Of traverses and sally-ways 142
General principles 85	Of communications 144
Table for regular works 86	
To draw the master-line 89	Of profiles 148
To make the rampart 93	Constructions of profiles 152
To make the foss and esplanade 98	
10 make the jojs and ejplanade 90	1 of migation for infications
DARGE TE AND TOTAL	E ECOMMONG LONG
PART II. OF MARIN	E FORTIFICATIONS.
	and the second s
From Page	52 to Page 76.
Snowrough Ocharland n ro	+ Of the Code of 1 1 to 1'C C
SECTION I. Of harbours p. 52	Of proper forts and their disposi-
Artificial harbours art. 170	tion 187
	SECTION III. Of booms p. 58
SECTION II. Of the fortifying of	
mode and boul in jurifying of	
roads and harbours p. 53	In a straight channel 193
Exemplified in five forts	In the bend of a river 195
from art. 174 to 185	General maxims 198
Of the figure and size of forts 186	
J 110 1/2 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	
United Onlife District	Section Section
	ZOO DIL IIIIOPOOTT (DI

CONTENTS.

SECTION IV. Of mooring ships p. 63	Action at Gibraltar 1693 art. 200
Of mooring in regard to the stream	Disposition at Cadiz 210
art. 200	Disposition at St. John's 1697 211
Of mooring in regard to the wind	Battle of Vigo 1702 212
	Action at Carthagena 1741 213
SECTION V. Of gallant actions	Action in river Hughly 1757 214
	Siege of Louisburg 1758 215
Battle of Santa Cruz 1657 art. 207	
Astion at Londonderry 1689 208	

In this Treatife are XVI. Plates.

Vol I.	V	or. II.			
Plate Page		Plate.	Page	Plate	Page
Spherics 1. 125		VII.	I	Globular SXII.	131
[II. III. 195	Plane	VIII.	35	Sailing \XIII.	202
Astronomy { II. III. 195 IV. 224 V. 250	Cailing	IX.	43	Days Works XIV.	352
(V. 250	Jailing	X.	51	Fortifica- SXV.	2.2
Geography VI. 329	20	XI.	59	tion XVI.	76.

ERRATA.

VOLUME I.

P. 34, l. 7 and 8, from the bottom, and p. 98, l. 9, for Nepier, read Napier.

—P. 63, l. 28, 29, and 30, for BC, r. AC.

—P. 71, l. 4, for C, r. D

P. 77, l. 22, for (art.) 145, r. 146.

—P. 129, l. 22, for (art.) 213, r. 212.

—P. 132, l. 9, for ABS, r. ABL; l. 28, for AF, r. FR, and for AR, r. FR; l. 29, for AR, r. FR; and l. 31, for ABE, r. BAE.

P. 138, l. 19, for AP, r. AC.

—P. 223, l. 4, for VIII q IX, r. VIII q IV.

—P. 225, l. 40, for © O, r. V O.

—P. 337, l. 30, p. 388, l. 37, and p. 389, l. 27, for Manilla, r. Manila.

—P. 350, in the title, for Geograpay, r. Geography.

—P. 395, catch-word, for Siera, r. Siara.

VOLUME II.

P. 144, l. 2, 10, 26, 41, 42, and 44, for Napeir, r. Napier.—P. 301, l. 4 and 5, for Regulus, r. Spica Virginis.—P. 307, l. 6, for enlightened limb, r. center.—P. 351, l. 9 and 16, for IV. r. VI.

DISSERTATION

ON THE

RISE AND PROGRESS

OFTHE

Modern ART OF NAVIGATION.

Thas been much disputed to whom the world was obliged for the mariner's compass. A late Italian writer indeed contends, after many*, that the honour of the invention is due to Flavio Gioja of Amalsi in Campania, who lived about the beginning of the 14th century †, though others say it came from the East, and was earlier known in Europe ‡. However that may be, it is certain, this wonderful discovery gave rise to the present art of navigation; which seems to have made some progress during the voyages, that were begun in the year 1420, by Henry Duke of Visco ||. This learned Prince, brother to Edward King of Portugal, was particularly knowing in cosmography, and sent for one master James from the island of Majorca, to teach navigation, and make instruments and charts for the sea §.

These voyages being greatly extended, the art was improved under the succeeding monarchs of that nation. For Roderic and foseph, physicians to King fohn the Second, together with one Martin de Bohemia, a Portuguese native of the island of Fayal, scholar to Regionontanus, about the year 1485, calculated tables of the Sun's declination, for the use of the failors, and recommended the astrolabe for taking observations at

fea ¶.

The famous Christopher Columbus is faid, before he attempted the discovery of America, to have confulted Martin de Bohemia, with others, and during the course of his voyage to have instructed the Spaniards in

Peima dedit nautis ulum magneti Amalphis.

Histoire des Mathematiques, par M. Montuela, à Paris, 1758.

& Decados d'Asia par J. di Burnos, lib. xvi. 1552.

^{*} Suitable to that verse of Pannermitana,

⁺ See Signor Gregorio Grimaldi's Differtation on this subject in the Memoirs of the Etroscan Academy of Cortona, tom. iii. p. 193, printed at Rome in 1742.

Mariana Hift, Hifpan, lib. xx. cap. 11. and lib. xxvi. cap. 17. M. gunt. e., 1605.

Maffeii Histor. Indic. lib. i. p. 6. printed at Florence in 1588.
Vol. I. a navigation;

navigation *; for the improvement of which art, the Emperor Charlet

the Fifth afterwards founded a lecture at Seville +.

The variation of the fea-compass could not be long a fecret. Columbus. on the 14th of September 1492, observed it, as his son Ferdinand afferts t, though others feem to attribute that discovery to Schastian Cabot ||. And as this variation differs in different places, Gonzales d'Oviedi found there was none at the Azeres \\; where fome geographers have thought fit in their maps to make their first meridian to pass through one of those islands: it not being then known, that the variation altered in time."

The use of the Gross Staff now began to be introduced amongst the This very ancient instrument being described by John Werner of Nuremberg, in his Annetations on the first book of Ptolemy's Geography, printed in 1514; he recommends it for observing the distance between the Moon and some star, in order thence to determine the longitude. Werner feems to have been the greatest geometer, as well as astronomer, of the time. In 1522, he published a tract q, containing a specimen of the conics, with fome folid problems, and also he there determined the

precession of the equinox more exactly than it had been done.

But the art of navigation still remained very imperfect, from the conffant use of the plane-chart, the gross errors of which must have often missed the mariner, especially in voyages far distant from the equator. Its precepts were probably at first only set down on the earliest sea-charts, as that custom is continued to this day; and larger directions have been usually premised by the Dutch, to collections of their charts called Wagoner's, from the name of the publisher: The Dutch call these collections also by many other affected titles, such as Fiery-Columns, Sea-Beacons, Mirrors, Atlaffes, &c.

At length there were published in Spanish two treatises, containing a system of the art, which were in great vogue; the first by Pedro de Medina at Valladolid, 1545, called Arte de Nauegar; the other at Seville, in 1556, by Martin Cortes, with this title, Breve Compendio de la Sphera, y de la Arte de Nauegar con nueuos Instrumentos y Reglas. The author of this last

tract fays, he composed it at Cadiz in 1545.

These seem to have been the oldest writers, who had fully handled this subject; for Medina, in his dedication to Philip Prince of Spain,

|| See Livio Sanuto's Geographia, at the fame place in 1585. Dr. William Gibbert, de Magnete. London, 1000; and Purchas's Pilgrim, in 1027, vol. I.

Opera Mathematica at Nuremberg, in quarto. Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

^{*} La Historia general y natural de las Indias par Gonzalles de Miedo, en Sevilla, 1535. And Descriptione de las Indias Occidentale, de Antonio de Herrera, en Madrid, 1601.

⁺ Hackleyt, in the dedication of his first volume of Voyages, printed in 1509. In Columbus's life written in Spanish, which is very scarce, but it was printed in Italian at Venice in 1571.

[§] Cabot, a Venetian by birth, first served our King Henry the seventh, then the King of Spain, and lastly, returning to England, he was constituted grand pilot by King Edward the fixth, with an annual falary of above 160 pounds. Of this famous navigator and his expeditions, many writers have made mention, both foreigners and English, as Peter Martyr, Ramuseo, Herrera, Holinfied. Lord Bacon, and particularly Hacklust and Purchas, in their Collections of Voyages.

laments, that multitudes of ships daily perished at sea, because there were neither teachers of the art, nor books by which it might be learnt; and Cortes, in his dedication, boasts to the Emperor, that he was the first who had reduced navigation into a compendium, enlarging much on what he

had performed *.

Medina gave ridiculous directions, how to guess at the place of the horizon, when it could not be seen; as also he desended the errors of the plane-chart, and advanced against the variation of the magnetic needle such absurd arguments, as Aristotle and his followers had done to prove the impossibility of the Earth's motion. But Cortes briefly and clearly made out the errors of the plane-chart, and seemed to restect on what had been said against the variation of the compass, when he advised the mariner rather to be guided by experience, than to mind subtle reasonings. Besides he endeavoured to account for this variation, in imagining the needle to be influenced by a magnetic pole (which he called the point attractive) different from that of the world, and this notion has been farther prosecuted by others.

However, Medina's book, being perhaps the first of its kind, was soon translated into Italian, French, and Flemish +, serving for a long time as

a guide to navigators of foreign countries.

But Cortes was our favourite author, a translation of whose work by Mr. Richard Eden was, on the recommendation of that great navigator Mr. Stephen Borrough, and the encouragement of the Society for making discoveries at sea, published at London in 1561: which underwent various impressions ‡, whilst that of Medina, though translated within twenty years after the other, seems to have been neglected, notwithstanding the encomiums bestowed on it by Mr. John Frampton, the translator.

A fystem of navigation at that time consisted of some such particulars as these: An account of the *Ptolemaic* hypothesis, and the circles of the sphere; of the roundness of the Earth, its longitudes, latitudes, climates, and eclipses of the luminaries; a kalendar; how to find the prime, cpact, &c. and by the last the Moon's age, and thence the tides; a description of the sea-compass, not forgetting the loadstone, with something about the variation, called its north-easting and north-westing, for the discovering of which, by night as well as by day, *Cortes* said, an instrument might be easily contrived; tables of the Sun's declination for four years §,

The Italian and French translations were printed in 1554, the first at Venice, the other at Lions; the Flemish edition, I have feen, was at Antwerp

in 1580; perhaps it had been printed before.

^{*} The learned Don Nicelo Antonio, in his Bibliotheca Hilpanica, printed at Rome in 1672, tom. i. p. 323. puts down a book, intitled, Tradado de la Sphera y del marear con el regimento de las alturas, written by Francijco Falero, a Portegueje, and printed at Seville in 1535; but perhaps there is a mistake in the date. He also mentions an edition of Cortes in 1551.

In the latter editions fome mistakes in the translation are corrected.

§ Cortes sets down the places of the Sun for a twelvemonth, with an equation-table to correct those places, serving for many years to come; and also another table to find the Sun's declination from his longitude being given.

in order to find the latitude, from his meridian altitude; to do the fame thing by those called the guard-stars in the north, and the crossers in the south; of the course of the Sun and Moon; the length of the days; of time and its divisions; to find the hour of the day, and by the nocturnal that of the night; and lassly, a description of the sea-chart, on which to discover where the ship is, they made use of a small table, that shewed, upon an alteration of one degree in the latitude, how many leagues were run on each rhumb, together with the departure from the meridian. Besides some instruments were described, especially by Cortes; as one to find the place and declination of the sun, with the days and place of the Moon; certain dials, the astrolabe and cross-staff, with a complex machine to discover the hour and latitude at once.

And after this manner the art continued to be treated, though from

time to time improvements were made by the following authors.

As Werner had proposed to find the longitude by observations on the Moon; so Gemma Frisus, in a tract intitled De Principiis Astronomiæ et Cosmographiæ, printed at Antwerp in 1530, advised the keeping of the time by means of small clocks or watches for the same purpose, then, as he says, lately invented. He also contrived a new fort of cross-staff, which he describes in his treatise. De Radio Astronomico et Geometrico, printed at the same place 1545, and in his additions to Poter Apian's Cosmography, gives the figure of an instrument, he calls a Nautical Quadrant, as very useful in navigation, promising to write largely on the subject; accordingly, in an edition he made anno 1553, so his above-mentioned book De Principiis Astronomiæ, &c. he delivers several nautical axioms, as he calls them, which with some alterations were repeated by his son Cornelius Gemma, in a posthumous piece of his sather on the Universal Astrolabe, published in 1556. Gemma Frisus died in 1555, aged 45 years.

With us Dr. William Cunningham, in his Cosmographical Glass, printed in 1559, amongst other things briefly treats of navigation, especially shewing the use of the Nautical Quadrant, much praising that instrument.

But a greater genius than these undertook this subject; for the famous mathematician Pedro Nunez, or Nonius, having to early as 1537 published a book, written in the Portuguese language, to explain a difficulty in navigation proposed to him by the commander Don Martin Alphonso de Susa; which was thirty years after printed at Basil, in Latin, with the addition of a second book, the whole intitled de Arte et Ratione Navigandi; where he exposes, both truly and learnedly, the errors of the planechart; and befides gives the folition of leveral curious Aftronomical Problems, amongst which is that of determining the latitude from two obserfervations of the Sun's altitude and the intermediate azimuth being given. He also delivers many useful advices about the art of navigation, particularly how to perform its operations on the globe. He observed, that though the oblique rhumbs are spiral lines, yet the direct course of a ship will always be the arch of some great circle, whereby the angle with the meridians will continually change; all that the fleersman can here do for the preferving of the original rhumb is to correct these deviations, as tion as they appear fenfible. But thus the fhip will in reality describe a courie without the rhumb-line intended; and therefore his calculations for affigning the latitude, where any rhumb-line croffes the feve al meridians, will be in some measure erroneous. He also again sets down his method of division of a quadrant by concentric circles *, which he had described in his ingenious treatise de Crepusculis, printed in 1542, imagining it had been practised by Ptolemy. There were also added other tracts of his, but the completest edition of his Latin works was made by himself at Coimbra in 1573. His treatise of Algebra, written in Spanish,

was printed at Antwerp fix years before.

In 1577 Mr. William Bourne published his treatise t, intitled, A Regiment for the Sea, which he defigned as a supplement to Cortes, whom he frequently quotes. Befides many things common with others, Bourne gives a table of the places and declinations of thirty-two principal stars, in order to find the latitude and hour; as also a larger tide-table than that published by Mr. Leonard Digges, in 1556 t. He shews, by confidering the irregularities in the Moon's motion, the errors of the failors in finding her age by the epact; and also in their determining the hour from observing upon what point of the compass the Sun and Moon ap peared. He advifes in failing towards high latitudes to keep the reckoning by the globe, as there the plane-chart errs most. He despairs of our ever being able to find the longitude by any instrument, unless the variation of the compass should be caused by some such attractive point, as Cortes had imagined. Though of this he doubts, and as he had shewn how to find the variation of the compass at all times, he advises to keep an account of the observations, as useful to discover thereby the place of a fhip; which advice the famous Simon Stevin profecuted at large in a treatife published at Leyden in 1599, intitled Portuum investigandorum Ratio Metaphrasto Hugone Grotio; the substance of which was the same year printed at London in English, by Mr. Edward Wright, intitled The Haven-finding Art.

But the most remarkable thing in this ancient tract is, the describing of the way by which our failors estimated the rate a ship made in her course, by an instrument easled the log. This was so named from the piece of wood, or log, that floats in the water, while the time is reckoned during which the line that is sastened to it is veering out. The author of this device is not known, and I find no farther mention of it till 1607, in an East-India voyage, published by Purchas; but from that time its name occurs in other voyages, that are amongst his collections. And henceforward it became famous, being taken notice of, both by our own authors, and by foreigners; as by Gunter in 1623, Snellius in 1624, Metius in 1631, Ough red in 1633, Herizone in 1634, Saltonstall in 1636, Norwood in 1637, Francier in 1643; and indeed by almost all the succeeding writers on navigation, of every country. And it continues to be still in use as at first, though attempts have been often made to im-

+ He had ten years before published what he calls Rules of Navigation, 23

appears from his Almanac, printed in 1571.

The admirable divition, now to much in use, is a very great improvement of this; so that when the samous Dr. Edmard Halley, the Royal Astronomer, revived that by adapting it to his Mural Arch, some body here named it A Nowis, in which he has been followed by many.

In his treatile, intitled, A Prognofication everlasting, fol. 23.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

prove it, and other contrivances proposed to supply its place. Many of these have succeeded in quiet water, but proved useless in a troubled sea.

A following edition of this book was revised by the author, where, in the preface, he sets forth the gross ignorance of the old ship-masters, repeating some of the insipid jests they made use of to justify their want of knowledge in their art. Amongst the additions, he enlarges on the account of the log-line. And at the end subjoins an Hydrographical Discourse touching the sive several Passages into Cathay.

Bourne published other tracts, as one called *Inventions* or *Devises*, where he describes a method by wheel-work of measuring the velocity of a ship

at Sea, which artifice he attributes to one Mr. Humfrey Cole.

At Antwerp, in 1581, Michael Coignet, a native of the place, published a small treatise, intitled, Instruction nouvelle des Points plus excellents & necessaires touchant l'Art de Naviger *. This served as a supplement to Medina, whose mistakes Coignet well exposed. He there shewed, that as the rhumbs are spirals, making endless revolutions about the poles, numerous errors must arise from their being represented by straight lines on the fea-charts; and expressed his hopes of discovering a rule to remedy those errors; faying, that most of the speculations, delivered by the great mathematician, Peter Nonius, for that purpose, were scarce practicable; and therefore in a manner useless to failors. In treating of the Sun's declination, he took notice of the gradual decrease in the obliquity of the ecliptic, a point long diffuted, but now fettled from the theory of attraction. He also described the cross-staff with three transverse pieces, as it is at prefent made, which he acknowledged to be then in common use amongst the mariners; but he preferred that of Gemma Frisius. He likewise gave some instruments of his own invention, which are now quite laid afide, except perhaps his nocturnal. As the old fea-table, mentioned above, erred more and more in advancing towards the poles; he fet down another to be used by such as failed beyond the 60th degree of latitude. At the end of the book is delivered a method of failing on a parallel of latitude by means of a ring dial, and a 24 hour glass; on which the author very much values himfelf.

The fame year Mr. Robert Norman + published a discovery, he had long before made, of the dipping of the magnetic needle, in a small pamphlet called The Newe Attractive, where he shews how to determine its quantity; and in speaking of the loadstone, he disputes against Cortes's notion, that the variation of the compass was caused by a point fixed in the heavens, contending that it should be fought for in the earth, and proposes how to discover its place. He also treats of the various forts of compasses, setting forth at large the dangers that must arise from the then prevailing practice of not fixing, on account of the variation, the wire directly under the flower-de-luce; as compasses made in different

† He is commended for an excellent Artist by our authors, as Bousse, Birrough, Sir Humfrey Gilbert, Hues, Potter, Blundeville, Wright, and Dr. Gilbert.

^{*} It had been published in Flemish, but the French edition is the follest. Coignet died in 1623, leaving many mathematical manuscripts, see Valerii Andrew Bibliotheca Belgica, printed at Lowvain in 1643.

Theti-

countries have it placed differently. Bourne indeed had warned against

this abuse, and there are many things common to both authors.

To Norman's piece is always subjoined, Mr. William Burrough's Difcourse of the Variation of the Cumpass or Magneticall Needle. The author had been a famous navigator, having used the sea from fifteen years of age, and for his merit promoted to be Controller of the navy by Queen Elizabeth *. He shews how to determine the variation several ways, fetting down many observations of it made by an azimuth-compass of Norman's invention, but improved by himself. He demonstrates the falshood of the rules commonly used, to find the latitude by the guardstars. He particularizes many errors in the then sea-charts, occasioned by the neglect of the variation; adding, But of these coastes (towards the north), and of the inwarde partes of the countries of Russia, Muscovia, &c. I have made a perfect plat and description, by myne owne experience in sundrie voiages and travailes, bothe by fea and lande to and fro in thefe partes, which I gave to her Majestie in anno 1578. And lattly, he justly finds fault with Coignet's instrument, called a nautical hemisphere; but speaks too feverely against the writers of navigation, concluding thus,

But as I have alreadic fufficientlie declared, the cumpas showeth not alwaies the pole of the worlde, but varieth from the same diversly, and in sayling describeth circles accordingly. Whiche thing, if Petrus Nonius, and the rest that have written of Navigation, had jointlie considered in the trastation of their rules and Instruments, then might they have been more available to the use of Navigation; but they perceiving the difficultie of the thyng, and that if they had dealt therewith, it would have uttarly overwhelmed their former plausible conceits, with Pedro de Medina (who, as it appeareth, having some small suspicion of the matter, reasonath very clerkly, that it is not never say that such an absurdity as the Variation, should be admitted in such an excellent art as Navigation is) they have all thought best to passe it over with

Slence.

The Spaniards too continued to publish treatifes of the art; particularly at Seville was printed in 1585 an excellent Compendium by Roderico Zamorano; which is written clearly and with brevity, not being incumbered with such idle speculations as abound in Medina and Cortes. The author was Royal Lecturer at Seville, and contributed much to the reforming the sea charts; as we are told by his successor, Andrew Garcia de Cospedes,

who also published a treatise of navigation at Madrid, in 1606.

As globes may be very ferviceable for the mariner, Mr. Edward Mullineux fet forth in 1592, at the charges of Mr. William Sanderson merchant †, a pair much larger than those the samous geographer Gerard Mercator published in 1541. On the terrestrial one were described many new discovered countries, and traced out the respective voyages round the world by Sir Francis Drake in 1577, and Mr. Thomas Candish in 1586, with the progress Sir Martin Frobisher had made towards the north in 1576, to a place called his Straits.

^{*} Hackleyt's Voyages, vol. i. p. 417, printed in 1599.

[†] Mr. Carder for was commended for his knowledge as well as generofity, to ingenious men.

These globes were accompanied with a tract containing their uses written in English; but in 1594 Mr. Robert Hues published a more elaborate one in Latin; wherein, amongst others, he solves by the globe the problem of determining the latitude from two heights of the Sun observed with the intermediate time being given*; and in the last part of his book, he performs the usual questions in navigation, premising a discourse on the rhumb-lines, where he attempts to resute what Gemma Fristus had afferted, who says, that they meet in the poles. At the conclusion he highly praises a treatise of Mr. Thomas Hariot, hoping it would be soon published, in which that author had treated of this subject upon geometrical principles, with great sagacity and judgment. But all the manuscripts of that great mathematician were lost, except his Artis Analytica Praxis, which was published long after his death in 1631; wherein is first advanced that idea of algebraic equations, which has been ever fince followed.

Hues + was a person of letters, and besides had been far at sea. Amongst other curious particulars, he gives a good account of the attempts that had been made at various times to measure the Earth. In the Epistle to Sir Walter Rawley he takes an occasion to enumerate the many discoveries of our mariners in very different parts of the world. His book was received with great applause, and has been indeed a pattern for such as afterwards handled the same subject. It has been often printed abroad, particularly in 1617 with the notes of John Isaac Pontanus, who omitted the Epistle and the mentioning of Hariot. However from this mutilated edition it was translated into English by one Mr. John Chilmead, and published in 1639.

Amongst our sailors none were more samous than Captain John Davis; who gave name to the straits which he discovered; and great matters were expected from his long experience and skill. In 1594 he published a small treatise, intitled, The Seaman's Secrets. This is written with brevity, though somewhat pedantically, and was esteemed in its time, an eighth edition being printed in 1657; so that it seems to have supplanted Cortes. Davis treats of plane sailing, calling it borizontal, and sets down the form of keeping a reckoning at Sea. He likewise show to sail by the globe, and boasts of what he intended to do; much commending great circle sailing, without describing it, as also

^{*} This problem has been discussed by Dr. Henry Pemberton, in the Philofophical Transactions, vol. li. part. 2d. 1760, p. 910, where he has also given some improvements in trigonometry.

[†] There is an account of Hues and Hariot in Anthony Wood's Athen. Oxon.

vol. i. printed in 1721, as being both members of that Univerfity.

[†] Several of his voyages are in Hackluyi's and Purchas's collections. He and Captain Abraham Kendal are greatly praifed by Sir Robert Dudley, in his Arcano del Mare, as keeping a perfect reckoning by the way of longitude and latitude, where are given two of their Journals. This Dudley was a natural fon of the great Earl of Leicester, and had commanded, in 1594, a flet against the Spaniards; but retiring to Florence, he affumed the titles of Duke of Northum erland and Earl of Warwick. His Arcano was printed at that place in two volumes in 1646 and 1647.

what he calls paradoxal; that is, by a projection on the plane of the equator with spiral rhumbs, saying, he will publish a chart for that purpose. But above all, he extels the use of calculations in the cases of na-

vigation, and promifes to handle that subject.

At the end of the book is given the figure of a staff of his contrivance, to make a back observation. Of this the author is so vain as to say, Than which instrument (in my opinion) the seaman shall not finde any so good, and in all clymates of so great certaintie, the invention and demonstration whereof, I may boldly challenge to appertain unto my selfe (as a portion of the talent which God hath bestowed upon me) I hope without abuse or offence to any.

This instrument seems to have for some time been in use; for Adrian Metius, in his treatise, intitled Astronomica Institutio, printed in 1605, gives a figure of it from an original, in the possession of M. Frederic Hautman, governor of Amboyna. But it soon yielded to one of a more commodious form, which is now commonly called Davis's Quadrant*; as if it was also of his invention, and that perhaps only because a back observation is made by both instruments, so the quadrant itself was at first styled a Staff

and Back-Staff.

The famous traveller Signor Pietro della Valle passing, in 1623, from Ormus to Surat aboard an English vessel, where observing this quadrant much practised by the seamen, as it was quite new to him, takes an occasion to shew its use very distinctly, and says, they told him, that it had been lately invented and called David's Staff + from its author. Also Captain Charles Saltonstall, in his Navigation, describes it under the name of a Back-Staff; and in Captain Thomas James's samous voyage for discovering a north-west passage, begun in 1631, amongst the many instruments, he carried along with him, are mentioned two of Mr. Davis's Back-slaves, which were doubtless these quadrants.

Contemporary with Davis was Mr. Richard Polter, who, it is faid, had been a principal mafter aboard the Royal Navy. He wrote a very small book intitled The Pathway to Perfect Sailing, where, from an obfervation he made in 1586, he would infer to that different loadstones communicated different degrees of variation to the magnetic needle, and therefore despites the publishing observations of that kind, as needless. His book was not printed till 1644, nor did it deserve to be published at all, as it abounds with mistakes, and is written fantastically, obscurely and

arrogantly.

But all this while the plane-chart, notwithstanding its errors were frequently complained of, continued to be followed; as its use is easy, and serves tolerably well in short voyages, especially near the equator.

* It is called by the French Quartier Anglois.

1 Pecha; s he should have thence concluded the variation altered, as was

discovered afterwards.

[†] David Stoff, che in lingua Inglese wale à dir legnodi David Viaggi; Part 3. Letter 1. à Roma. This author not only praises the Captain Nicholas Wood-14k, and other officers, but also the common failors, for their care and skill; and says, the Portuguese lose great number of ships for not being so exact in their observations as the English.

DISSERTATION ON THE RISE, &c.

However, a way to remedy these errors had, for some time, been inquired after. And Gerrard Mercator feems to be the first, who conceived the means of effecting this, in a manner convenient for feamen, by continuing to represent both the meridians and parallels of latitude by parallel fraight lines, as in the plane-chart, but gradually augmenting the distances between the degrees of latitude in advancing from the equator towards either pole, that the rhumbs also might be extended into straight lines, so that a straight line drawn between any two places, laid down in this chart by their longitudes and latitudes, should make an angle with the meridians, expressing the rhumb leading from one to the other. But though Mercator, in 1569, set forth an universal map thus constructed *, it does not appear upon what principles he proceeded; probably, by observing in a globe furnished with rhumbs, what meridians the rhumbs passed at each degree of latitude. That he knew not the genuine principles, I shall make evident; our countryman, Mr. Edward Wright, was certainly the first who discovered them.

Wright infinuates, but without sufficient grounds, that this enlargement of the intervals between the parallels had been suggested before by

Cortes +, and even by Ptolemy himself.

As to Cortes, he speaks of the number of the degrees of latitude, and not the extent of them; for his expression amounts to no more than this, that the degrees of latitude are to be numbered from the equator, and consequently both northwards and southwards from that line the numbers affixed to them must continually increase; and from any place having latitude (suppose Cape St. Vincent in Spain, which is his instance) the degrees of latitude will be denoted by numbers increasing towards the pole, and decreasing towards the equator. He had before expressly directed, that they should be all equal by measurement on a scale of leagues adapted

to the map I.

The passage in Ptolemy ||, referred to by Wright &, does indeed relate to the proportion between the distances of the parallels and meridians, but contains no shadow of Mercator's scheme: for instead of proposing any gradual enlargement of the distances of the parallels in a general chart; that passage relates only to particular maps, and is more distinctly explained in the first chapter of his last book; where he advises explicitly not to confine a system of such maps to one and the same scale, but to plan them out by a different measure, as occasion shall require, with this only caution; that the degrees of longitude should in each bear in some measure that proportion to the degrees of latitude, which the magnitude of the respective parallels bear to a great circle of the sphere; and subjoins, that in particular maps, if this proportion be observed in regard to the

+ See the 2d chapter of Wright's book.

‡ Part 3d. cap. 2d. fol. 58. || Geograph. lib. ii. cap. 1.

^{*} See his life, written by his intimate friend, Gaulterus Ghymmius, which was prefixed to an enlarged edition of his Atlas, published at Duisburg, in 1593, by Rumoldus his son, a year after his father's death. Gerrard Mercator was born in 1512.

[§] In an advertisement set down on his universal map, at the end of his second edition of his book; and in this mistake he has been followed by others.

middle parallel, the inconvenience will not be great, though the meridians should be straight parallels to each other; wherein his defign is plainly no other, than that the maps should in some fort represent the figures of the countries they are drawn for. Mercator, who drew maps for Ptolemy's tables.*, understood him in no other sense, thinking it an improvement not to regulate the meridians by one parallel, but by two: one distant from the northern, and the other from the southern extremity of the map by a fourth part of the whole depth; whereby in his maps. though the meridians are straight lines, they are generally drawn inclining to each other towards the pole.

But Mercator's universal map, mentioned above, though the author defigned it for the benefit of failors, was fo far from being readily adopted, that some of the most skilful amongst them objected to its usefulness. Thus Mr. Burrough fays of it - By augmenting his degrees of latitude towards the poles, the same is more fitte for suche to beholde, as studie in cofmographie, by readyng authours upon the lande, then to bee used in Navigation

at the fea.

And Mr. Thomas Blundeville, in his Briefe Description of Universal Mappes and Cardes, first printed in 1589, gives an account of this map, observing that Barnardus Puteanus of Bruges had published, in 1579, one altogether like it. And though Blundeville is fo particular, as to fet down numbers expressing the distances between each parallel of latitude in those maps, yet he seems to slight them, by saying, that no better rules than those given by Ptolemy can be devised. But what is delivered by this geographer about the construction of a general map, is a very indifferent performance, altogether unworthy the author of the Almagest, and not in the least corresponding with the segacity shewn in two treatises on the Planifphere and Analemma, which the Arabians have handed down to us as Ptolemy's +.

Marinus also, at the end of his Geographia Univerfa, (the former part of which is a translation of Ptolemy's) first printed at Venice, in 1596, mentions this map of Mercator, and gives even a sketch of it; but feems

to have no dillinct conception of the author's defign.

That Mercator's map was not rightly described, is manifest from the numbers given by Blundeville; and that he was ignorant of a genuine method of dividing the meridian, appears from a passage in his life, where the writer fays Mercator often affured him, that this extending a fphere into a plane answered to the quadrature of the circle, as that nothing feemed to be wanting but the demonstration.

However, our authors now began to entertain favourable thoughts of it, perhaps from the report that Mr. Wright was about to treat on that fubject. Dr. Thomas Hood, to the first edition which he gave of Bourne's Regiment in 1592, added a Dialogue of his own, called The Mariner's Guide, written only to fliew the use of the plane chart, where he acknowledges and fets forth its errors, and highly praifes Mercator's, faving, he

* In an edition he made of Ptolemy's Geography, in 1584.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

[†] These were published by Fed. Commandinus, one at Vonice, in 1518, the other at Rome, in 1562.

had composed a treatise concerning it; but the indistinct account he gives of it, shews it would not be this author's lot to render it fit for the use of navigation. And Mr. Blundeville, in the following editions of his above-mentioned tract, omitted the commendation he had given of Pte-

lemy's method of delineating an universal map.

Mercator's scheme was not indeed contrived for representing the parts of a country in a just proportion to each other; but is appropriated to the use of mariners, who sail upon rhumbs by the guidance of the compass; which our countryman, Mr. Edward Wright, persected *, by discovering a true way of dividing the meridian. An account of this he sent from Caius college, in Cambridge, where he was then a sellow, to his friend the above-mentioned Mr. Elundeville, containing a short table for that purpose, with a specimen of a chart so divided, together with the manner of dividing it. All which Blundeville published, in 1594, amongst his Exercises, in that part which treats of navigation †; where he has well delivered what had been before written on that art; insomuch that his book was long in great repute, a seventh edition having been printed in 1636. To the second edition, Anno 1606, and sollowing ones, was added his former discourse of universal maps.

In 1597, the Reverend Mr. William Barlowe, in his Navigator's Supply, gave a demonstration of this division as communicated by a friend; saying, This manner of carde has been publiquely extant in print these thirtie yeares at least \$\dagger\$, but a cloude (as it were) and thicke miste of ignorance doth keepe it hitherto concealed: And so much the more, because some who were reckneed for men of good knowledge, have by glauncing speeches (but never by any one reason of moment) gone about what they could

to disgrace it.

This book of *Barlowe*'s contains descriptions of several instruments for the use of navigation, the principal of which is an azimuth compass, with two upright sights §; and as the author was very curious in making experiments on the loadstone, he discourses well and largely on the seacompass; and still further handles that subject in a tract he published some years after, intitled, Magnetical Adve. tisements.

At length, in 1599, Mr. Wright himself printed his famous treatife, intitled, The Correction of certain Errors in Navigation, which had been written many years before; where he shews the reason of this division!

+ Chap. 29.

t He thould have faid 28 only.

§ Many of these instruments are in the Arcano de! Mare, together with the

demonstration bove mentioned.

^{*} Some of our modern writers have faid, Mercator took the hint from Wright, but that is a mistake; for Mercator's map was published thirty years before Wright's book, who frequently refers to it. See Edward Shirburn's translation of the first book of Manilius, in 1675, p. 86.

Map: 1th their meridians thus divided had been published at Amsterdom by Jodees Hending, who, when in London, working as an engraver, learnt the menner of Loing is from Mr. Wright's Manuferett; the fourth chapter of which he had transcribed into one of his maps. Howains afterwards in his letters, both to Mr. Brizgs, and also to Mr. Wright, begged pardon for not having acknow-

the manner of confiructing his table, and its uses in navigation, with other improvements: A book, as Dr. Halley says, well deserving the perusal of all such as design to use the sea*.

In the preface, Wright complains of the obstinacy of our mariners, for not liking an improvement in their art, saying, that they were like those whose ignorance Master Bourne had exposed, repeating Bourne's

very words.

Though this great improvement in navigation by Wright has been embraced and followed by all proper judges; yet some undiscerning persons have of late, even amongst us, sound fault with it, particularly Henry Wilson, author of a Treatise on Navigation, by a proposal for a curvilinear sea-chart, in 1720; and the Rev. Mr. West, of Exeter, in a posthumous piece, printed in 1762. But their cavils were sufficiently obviated; those of the first by Mr. Haselden, in his Mercator's Chart, and in his Reply, both printed in 1722; and of the second, by Mr. William Mountaine, in the Philosophical Transactions, vol. LIII. p. 69. Anno 1763."

In 1610 a fecond edition of Mr. Wright's book was published, and dedicated to Prince Henry, his royal pupil +, where the author inserted farther improvements; particularly, he proposed an excellent way of determining the magnitude of the Earth; at the same time recommending, very judiciously, the making our common measures in some settled proportion to that of a degree on its surface, that they might not depend on

the uncertain length of a barley-corn.

Some of his other improvements were; The Table of Latitudes for dividing the meridian, computed to minutes; whereas before it was but to every tenth minute, and the fhort table fent by him to Blundeville to degrees only: An infitument, he calls the Sea-rings, by which the variation of the compass, altitude of the Sun, and time of the day, may be determined readily at once in any place, provided the latitude be known: The correcting of the errors ariling from the excentricity of the eye in observing by the cross-staff: A total amendment in the Tables of the declinations and places of the Sun and stars, from his own observations, made with a fix-foot quadrant, in the years 1594, 95, 96, and 97: A fea-quadrant, to take altitudes by a forward or backward observation, and likewise with a contrivance for the ready finding the latitude by the height of the pole-star, when not upon the meridian. And that his book might be the better understood by beginners, in this edition is subjoined a translation of the above-mentioned Zumerano's Compendium; he correct-

acknowledged the obligation. See Wright's preface, where he complains of Hondra's pace eding; and further relates, how his book, a copy of which having been prefacted to the Part of Camberland, had liked to have come out under the name of a famous navigator, whom, from fome circumflances there neutrinored, I imagine to have been Alraham Kendal.

Philosophica Transactions, for 16,6, Nº 219.

[†] In 1657 a 3d edition was published by Mr. Telef & Maxon, where the dedication is unadvifidly left out, and at the end is added by the editor the above-mentioned Haven feeling Art, as also Wright's universal map, improved by the discourse made free his time.

ing some mistakes in the original, and adding a large table of the variation of the compass observed in very different parts of the world, to shew it

is not occasioned by any magnetical pole.

This excellent person was allowed fifty pounds a year (no inconsiderable sum at that time) by the East India Company, for reading a lecture of navigation; he also projected the conveying water to London, but was prevented from executing his scheme by designing men, which is frequently the case. Whilst he led a studious and retired life, his reputation was so far known, that Queen Elizabeth granted, in 1589, a dispensation for his absence from the university, in order to accompany the Earl of Cumberland in the expedition to the Azores; as I am informed by Sir James Burrough, Master of Caius College, whose fine taste in architecture, part of the new buildings in Cambridge shew, they rendering the rest of those buildings a disgrace to that samous seat of learning, which has produced many great men, as, (to mention here only mathematicians) Wright, Briggs, Oughtred, Dr. Pell, Foster, Horrox, Bainbridge, Bishop Ward, Dr. Wallis, Dr. Barrow, Rooke, Sir Isaac Newton, Cotes, and Dr. Brook Taylor.

Wright's improvements on Mercator's chart became foon known

abroad.

In 1608 were published the Hypomnemata Mathematica of the abovementioned Simon Stevin, composed for the use of Prince Maurice. In the part concerning navigation, the author, having treated of failing on a great circle, and shewn how to draw mechanically the rhumbs on a globe, sets down Wright's two tables of latitude and of rhumbs, in order to describe those lines more accurately; and in an appendix he commends Hues, shews a mistake committed by Nonius in relation to the rhumbs, and pretends to have discovered an error in Wright's latter table; but Wright himself, in the second edition of his book, has fully answered all Stevin's objections, demonstrating that they arose from his gross way

of calculating.

And in 1624 the learned Willebrordus Snellius, Professor of the Mathematics at Leyden, published his Typhis Batavus*, a treatise of navigation on Wright's plan, written somewhat obscurely. In the introduction are praised Nonius, Mercator, Stevin, Hues, and Wright. But since what had been performed by our artists on this subject, is not there particularly declared, as are the improvements made by the others; it has happened that some have attributed Wright's principal discovery to this author. Thus Albert Girard, who in 1634 published a French translation of Stevin's Works with notes, in one of them observes, that Snellius had calculated, what he calls, Tabulæ Canonicæ Parallelorum, to minutes as far as 70 degrees; whereas Wright had set forth in 1610 such a table so calculated to 89 degrees 59 minutes; notwithslanding which M. de Lagni, in the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris for 1703, treating of the Corrested Chart, says, c'est Willebrord Snellius qui

^{*} In 1617 had been published his Eratosibenes Batawus, where is given an account of his measuring the earth.

en est l'inventeur. But the French writers now acknowledge our coun-

tryman to have been its author*.

Snellius was followed in Holland by Adrian Metius, in a treatife, intitled, Primum Mobile, printed at Amsterdam, in 1631; and in France by the learned Peter Herigone, in his Cursus Mathematicus, where, in the dedication of the fourth tome to the Marshal Bassompire, the author says, Artem navigandi in census Mathematices non reposuere plerique nostrum, neque sanè in hunc ordinem ascribi meruit, quandiu cœcâ tantum nautarum praxi celebrata est; nunc verò cùm inventis tabulis loxodromicis (quas nos primum Gallis exhibemus) formam certam sirmasque leges acceperit sine injuria omitti non potest. But to return to our countrymen.

Mr. Wright, in the 12th chapter, having shewn how to find the place of a ship on his chart, observed, the same might be performed more accurately by calculation; but considering, as he says, that the latitudes, and especially the courses at sea, could not be determined so precisely, he forbore setting down particular examples; as the mariner may be allowed to save himself this trouble, and only mark out upon his chart, when truly constructed, the ship's way after the manner then usually

practifed.

However, in 1614+, Mr. Raphe Handson, among his nautical questions subjoined to a translation of Pitiscus's Trigonometry, solved very distinctly every case of navigation, by applying arithmetical calculations to Wright's table of latitudes, or of meridional parts, as it has fince been called.

And befides, though the method Wright discovered for determining the change of longitude by a ship failing on a rhumb, is the adequate means of performing it; Handson proposed two ways of approximation for that purpose, without the assistance of Wright's division of the meridian line. The first was computed by the arithmetical mean between the co-sines of both latitudes; the other by the fame mean between their secants, as an alternative, when Wright's book was not at hand, though this latter is wider from the truth than the first; and farther he shewed by the aforestid calculations, how much each of these compendiums deviates from the truth, and also how erroneously the computations on the principles of the plain-chart differ from them all.

There is another method of approximation, by what is called The Middle Latitude 1, which, though it errs more than that by the arithmetical mean between the co-fines; yet being less operose, is that generally used by our failors; notwithstanding the arithmetical mean between the logarithmic co-fines, equivalent to the geometrical mean between the co-fines themselves, had been fince proposed by Mr. John Bassat 1, which in

high latitudes is formewhat preferable.

It was repainted in 10;0.

1 Gunter's works, fast printed in 1923.

⁻⁻⁻⁻ c'est qu' on up elle les cartes réduites, invention admirable, de la que le ou est redevable à Edou est Wright, quoiqu'on l'ait sonvent attribuée à Mescator. Host de l'Acad. Royale des Sciences, An. 1753, p. 275.

If About 16,75, in a dialogue which was published after the author's death, in an appendix to the Parbolog to perfect Sailing. Begins had been a teacher

xvi DISSERTATION ON THE RISE, &c.

The computation by the middle latitude, will always fall short of the true change of longitude; that, by the geometrical mean, will always exceed; but that, by the arithmetical mean, fall short in latitudes above 45 degrees, and exceed in lesser latitudes. However, none of these methods, when the change in latitude is sufficiently small, will deviate greatly from the real change in longitude.

About this time logarithms * began to be introduced into the practice of the mathematics; and as they are of excellent use in the art of navi-

gation, we shall here fay fomething about their original.

These were invented by John Napier, Baron of Marchistoun in Scotland, as appears from his treatise, intitled, Miristic Logarithmorum Canonis Descriptio, first printed in 1614+. Soon after, the author communicated to Mr. Henry Briggs, Professor of geometry at Gresham college in London ‡, another form of logarithms; with which Mr. Briggs was so well pleased, that he immediately set about computing a very large table of them, which he published in 1624, with his Arithmetica Logarithmica ||. But in the mean time, as a specimen, he printed in 1617 a sew copies for his own use and that of his friends, of a very small one, not exceeding a thousand natural numbers.

From this table Mr. Edmund Gunter, Mr. Briggs's colleague in Aftronomy, computed one of artificial fines and tangents to every minute of the quadrant, which he published in 1620, being the first of its kind §. And when he made an edition of his works three years after, both these

tables were subjoined to his book.

of navigation at Chatham, and well made out what he undertook, that a ship would return to the place it departed from, by sailing on the same rhumb, contrary to what Fuller and others had maintained. At the end of this discourse, he applies his compendium to the three principal problems in sailing.

* The foundation of logarithms is a property of two feries of numbers, one in arithmetical, the other in geometrical proportion; which property is

declared by Archimedes in his Arenarius.

† In 16:9 was made, after the author's death, a fecond edition, with his farther improvements in Spherical Trigonometry.

1 He was in 1619 appointed by Sir Henry Saville, his professor of geometry

at Oxford.

Adrian Via. q made an edition of this book at Tergou, in 1628, where the table of logarithms was continued by him to one hundred thousand numbers, though the logarithms themselves are but to ten places, whereas in Briggs's book they were to sourteen. Some copies of Vlacq's tables were purchased by our booksellers, and published at London, with an English explanation pre-

mised, dated 1631.

§ Vlace also published, at the same place, in 1633, his Trigonometria Artistialis, with tables of logarithmic sines and tangents to every tenth second of the quadrant. Viace's tables have a great reputation for their exactness, as Sherwin's first edition in 1706, and Gardiner's in 1742, have amongst us. It as Fonteneile, in the History of the Academy of Sciences for 1717, commends an edition of Via. g's smaller tables, made at Lyons, in 1670, as does M. de la Lande, in his Astronomy, printed at Paris, in 1764, tables published there in 1750.

There he applied to navigation, according to Wright's table of meridional parts, as well as to other branches of the mathematics, his admirable Ruler *, on which were inferibed the logarithmic lines for numbers and for fines and tangents of arches. He also greatly improved the Sector + for the same purposes. And he shewed how to take a back observation by the cross-staff, whereby the error, arising from the excentricity of the eye, is avoided; describing likewise an instrument of his invention, named by him a Cross-Bow, for taking altitudes of the Sun or stars, with some contrivances for the more ready collecting the latitude from the observation ‡.

The discoveries relating to the logarithms were carried to France by Mr. Edmund Wingate, who, going to Paris in 1624, published in that city two small tracts in French ||, and dedicated them both to Gaston, the King's only brother. In the first he teaches the use of Gunter's ruler, and in the other, of the tables of logarithms and artificial sines and tangents, as modelled according to Napier's last form, attributed by Wingate to Briggs, which is a mistake; as appears from the dedication of Napier's Rabdologia, printed in 1616, and from what Mr. Briggs himself

faid in the preface of his Arithmetica Logarithmica.

The Reverend Mr. William Oughtred projected this ruler into a circular arch, shewing fully its uses in a treatise first printed in 1633, intitled, The Circles of Proportion; where, in an appendix, are well handled several important points in navigation. It has been made in the form of a Sliding Ruler. See Seth Partridge's use of the double scale in 1662.

As by the logarithmic tables all trigonometrical calculations are greatly facilitated; to the first author, who, I find, has applied them to the cases of failing, was Mr. Thomas Addison, in his treatise, intitled, Arithmetical Navigation, printed in 1625. He also gives two traverse tables with their uses, the one to quarter points of the compass, the other to degrees.

Mr. Henry Gellibrand, Mr. Gunter's fuccessor at Gresham College, published his discovery of the changes in the variation of the compass in a small quarto pamphlet, intitled, A Discourse Mathematical on the Variation of the Magnetical Needle, printed in 1035. This extraordinary phenomenon he sound out by comparing the observations made at different times near the same place by Mr. Burrough, Mr. Gunter, and himself,

This Ruler is so constantly is the practice of our artists, that it has got the name of The Gunter.

[†] The uses of a Sector had been shewn by Dr. Robert Hood, in a truck he published in 1598.

this ingenious person died 1626, aged 45 years. His works have been several times reprinted with successive additions; the second edition was made in 1636 from his own manuscript; then from those of Mr. Samuel Forster Protestor of Altronomy at Grespan College, again by Mr. H.nry Bond, and Mr. William Leybourn. The fullest and last, being the fifth, was in 1673.

These were afterwards printed at London in English with improvements.

all persons of great skill and experience in these matters. And this discovery was soon known abroad*, for father Athanasius Kircher, in his treatise intitled Magnes, first printed at Rome in 1641, says our countryman Mr. John Greaves had informed him of it, and then gives a letter of the samous Marinus Mersennus, containing a very distinct account thereof. Gellibrand had been samous, for the part he bore in the Trigonometria Britannica of his deceased friend Mr. Briggs, which was printed in 1633, at Tergon, under the care of Adrian Vlacq. Gellibrand also, in 1635, published in English an Institution Trigonometricals.

In 1631 Mr. Richard Norwood had published an excellent treatise of Trigonometry, adapted to the invention of logarithms, particularly in applying Napier's general canons †. The author having, as he says, acquired his knowledge in the mathematics at sea ‡, especially shewed the use of trigonometry in the three principal kinds of navigation. And towards the sarther improvement of that art, he undertook a laborious

work for examining the division of the log-line.

As altitudes of the Sun are taken on ship-board, by observing his elevation above the visible horizon; to collect from thence the Sun's true altitude with correctness, Wright observes it to be necessary, that the dip of the horizon below the observer's eye should be brought into the account, which cannot be calculated without knowing the magnitude of the earth. Hence he was led to propole different methods for finding this; but complains, that the most effectual was out of his power to execute; and therefore contented himself with a rude attempt, in some measure sufficient for his purpose: and the dimensions of the Earth deduced by him corresponded so well with the usual divisions of the logline, that as he wrote not an express treatise on navigation, but only for the correcting fuch errors, as prevailed in general practice, the log-line did not fall under his notice. But Mr. Norwood, for regulating this inftrument upon genuine principles, put in execution the method Mr. Wright recommends, as the most perfect for measuring the dimension of the Earth, with the true length of the degrees of a great circle upon it; and, in 1635, actually measured the distance between London and York; from whence, and the fummer-folfitial altitudes of the Sun observed on the meridian at both places, he found a degree on a great circle of the Earth to contain 367196 English feet, equal to 57300 French fathoms or toifes, which is very exact; as appears from many measures, that have been made fince that time.

A very advantageous report of it was made by M. Mariotte at a meeting, in 1668, of the Academy. Da Hamel, Hist. Acad. Scient. p. 51. 1701.

In the History of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris for 1712, p. 19. it is said by M. de Fontenelle, that the learned Peter Gassendi was the principal discoverer of this property; but Gassendi himself acknowledged that he had before received information of Gellibrand's discoveries. Gassend. Oper. vol. ii. p. 152, Logd. 1658.

¹ From a failor he became a teacher, styling himself before his books, A Reader of the Mathematics in London.

Of this affair Mr. Norwood gives a full and clear account in his treatile, called The Seaman's Practice, first published in 1637. There, with unaffected modesty, he apologizes for the hardiness of a private person's undertaking fo difficult a talk; and very cautiously points out the true reason, how so great a mathematician as Snellius had failed in his attempt. He also shews various uses of his discovery, particularly for correcting the gross errors hitherto committed in the divisions of the log-line. But fuch necessary amendments have been little attended to by the failors, whose obstinacy in adhering to inveterate mistakes has been always complained of by the best writers on navigation. This improvement has at length, however, made its way into practice: few navigators of reputation using now the old measure of 42 feet to a knot.

Farther, Mr. Norwood likewise there describes his own excellent method of setting down and perfecting a Sea-Reckoning, using a traversetable, which method he had followed and taught for many years; and besides, shews how to rectify the course, by the variation of the compass being confidered; as also how to discover currents, and to make proper

allowance on their account.

This treatife, and that of Trigonometry, were continually reprinted, as the principal books for learning scientifically the art of Navigation. What he had delivered, especially in the latter of them, concerning this subject, was contracted as a manual for failors, in a very small piece, called his Epitome, which useful performance has gone through numberless editions.

No alterations were ever made in The Seaman's Practice, till in the 12th edition, printed in 1676, after the author's decease, there began to be inferted, at page 59, the following paragraph in a fmaller character [About the year 1672, Monsieur Picart has published an account in French, concerning the measure of the Earth, a breviate whereof may be seen in the Philosophical Transactions, N° 112, wherein he concludes one degree to contain 365184 English feet, nearly agreeing to Mr. Norwood's experiment.] And this advertisement is continued in the subsequent editions,

as I find it in one-printed fo lately as 1732.

Norwood's measure therefore, though it was not known to the great Sir Isaac Newton in his youth, was not buried in oblivion, on account of the confusions occasioned by our civil wars, as M. de Voltaire has been pleased to say *; on the contrary, it has been constantly commended by our writers on navigation: as by Mr. Henry Bond, foon after its publication, in a note at page 107 of the Seaman's Kalendar, which ancient book he reprinted and improved, whose use, through numberless editions, is continued amongst our failors to this day; by Mr. Henry Phillips in his Geometrical Seaman in 1652, and in his Advancement of Navigation in 1657; by Mr. John Collins in his Navigation by the Plane Scale, in 1659; by the reverend Dr. John Newton in his Mathematical Elements, in 1660; Mr. John Seller in his Practical Navigation, in 1669; Mr. John Brown in his Triangular Quadrant in 1671.

^{*} Elemens de la Philosophie de Newton, chap. xviii. printed at Paris in 17 8.

XX DISSERTATION ON THE RISE, &c.

And in the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1676, N° 126, there is given a very particular account of it. Nor had it escaped the royal notice; for when King James, in 1690, honoured the observatory at Paris with a visit, he informed the gentlemen, then present, of this measure of the Earth; and upon their acquainting his Majesty how that had been determined by Mr. *Picard*, the King wished the two measures might be compared together *.

But that it was not commonly known in *France* is no wonder, feeing our books were not then fo much inquired after as at prefent by that polite

and learned people.

In the Journal des Sçavans for December 1666, it was observed of Dr. Hooke's Micrographia, qu'il est écrit en une langue que peu de personnes entendent; but long after, in the same Journal for February 1750, it is said of the English tongue, that it was une langue que tous les vrais savans devroient savoir. And now, as Norwood is taken notice of in the latter editions of Sir Isaac Newton's Principia, his name and merit indeed are become universally known. Insomuch that a particular account of his measure is given by M. de Maupertuis, in the preface to his Treatise of the figure of the Earth, printed at Paris in 1738; wherein he describes his method of determining the length of a degree on the Earth in Lapland; and Norwood is mentioned by two learned Spanish sea officers, D. Jorge Juan, and D. Antonio d'Ulioa, in their voyage printed at Madrid in 1748, which was undertaken, as they were appointed to accompany the French mathematicians, sent to measure a degree near the equator.

About the year 1645 Mr. Bond published in Norwood's Epitome a very great improvement in Wright's method, by a property in his meridian line, whereby its divisions are more scientifically affigned, than the author himself was able to effect; which was from this theorem, That these divisions are analogous to the excesses of the logarithmic tangents of half the respective latitudes augmented by 45 degrees above the logarithm of

the radius.

This he afterwards explained fomewhat more fully in the third edition of Gunter's works, printed in 1653, where, after observing that the logarithmic tangents from 45° upwards increase in the same manner (as he expresses it) that the secants added together do, if every half degree be accounted as one whole degree of Mercator's meridional line; his rule for computing the meridional parts appertaining to any two latitudes (supposed on the same side of the equator) is laid down to this effect; To take the logarithmic tangent, rejecting the radius, of half each latitude augmented by 45 degrees, and dividing the difference of those numbers by the logarithmic tangent of 45° 30', the radius being likewife rejected, and the quotient will be the meridional parts required, expressed in degrees. And this rule is the immediate consequence from the general theorem, That the degrees of latitude bear to 1 degree (or 60 minutes, which in Wright's table stands as the meridional parts for I degree) the fame proportion as the logarithmic tangent of half any latitude augmented by 45 degrees, and the radius neglected, to the like tangent

^{*} D. Hamel, Hift. Academ. Regal. Scient. p. 285.

of half a degree augmented by 45 degrees, with the radius likewise re-

jected.

But here was farther wanting the demonstration of this general theorem, which was at length fupplied by that great mathematician, Mr. Fames Gregory of Aberdeen, in his Exercitationes Geometrica, printed at London in 1668; and fince more concifely demonstrated, together with a scientific determination of the divisor, by Dr. Halley, in the Philosophical Transactions for 1695, N° 219, from the consideration of the spirals into which the rhumbs are transformed in the stereographic projection of the fphere upon the plane of the equinoctial; which the excellent Mr. Roger Cotes has rendered still more simple, in his Logometrio, first published in the Philosophical Transactions for 1714, No 388.

It is moreover added in Gunter's book, that if 10 of this divisor (which does not fentibly differ from the logarithmic tangent of 45° 1' 30" curtailed of the radius) be used, the quotient will exhibit the meridional parts expressed in leagues: and this is the divisor set down in Norwood's

Epitome.

After the same manner the meridional parts will be found in minutes, if the like logarithmic tangent of 45° o' 30" diminished by the radius be taken, that is, the number used by others * being 12633, when the logarithmic tables consist of eight place besides the index.

This Mr. Bond, who introduce outside useful a discovery into the art, was

a teacher of the mathematics in London, and employed to take care of and improve the impressions of the current treatises of navigation. In an edition of the Seaman's Kalendar, p. 103, he declared, he had discovered the longitude, by having found out the true theory of the magnetic variation; and to gain credit to his affertion, he forefold, that at London in 1657 there would be no variation of the compass, and from that time it would gradually increase the other way, which happened accordingly. Again, in the Philosophical Transactions for 1668, No 40, he published a table of the variations for 49 years to come.

This joyful news to all failors acquired Mr. Bond a great reputation; informach that the treatife he had composed, called The Longitude found, was in 1676 published by the special command of King Charles the Second, and ushered into the world with the approbation of several of the

most eminent mathematicians of that time +.

But it was foon opposed, there being published at London a book in 1678, called The Longitude not found, written by one Mr. Beckborrow. And indeed as Bond's hypothesis did not in any wife answer its author's fanguine expectations, the famous Dr. Halley again undertook this affair; and from a multitude of observations he would conclude, that the mag-

^{*} See Mr. Perkins's Treatife of Navigation in Vol. I. of Sir Jonas Moore's Now I flem of the Mathematicks, p. 203, printed at London in 1681. Perkins's book was jublished by itself the year following, under the title of the Seaman's Tator.

⁺ In the Philosophical Transactions for the same year, Nº 130, it is said, the Lord Brounker's name was inferted by mistake.

netic needle was influenced by four poles. His speculations on this subject are delivered in the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1683, N° 148, and for 1692, N° 195. But this wonderful *phenomenon* seems to have hitherto eluded all our researches.

However, that excellent person in 1700 published a general map, on which were delineated curve lines expressing the paths, where the magnetic needle had the same variation. This was received with universal applause*, as it may lead to some discovery in so abstruct an affair, and at present be useful on many occasions in determining the longitude. The positions of these curves will indeed continually suffer alterations; but then they should be corrected from time to time; as they have been for the year 1744, and 1756, by two ingenious persons, Mr. William Mountaine and Mr. James Dodson, Fellows of the Royal Seciety. The latter died not long after he had been chosen, for his merit, mathematical master, at Christ's Hospital, in London.

Dr. Halley also gave, in the Philosophical Transactions for 1690, N° 183, a differtation on the monsoons, containing many observations very useful for all such as fail to places that are subject to those

winds.

The true principles of navigation having been fettled by Wright, Norwood, and Bond, many authors among tus trod in their steps, making some little improvements. It would be impossible to enumerate each particular. Of the writers already mentioned, Phillips and Cellins, in the title pages of their books, declare what they aimed at; Phillips also, in his tract called the Advancement of Navigation, recommends a pendulum instead of a half minute glass, to estimate the time the log-line is running out. He also proposes to do the same thing by wheel-work. Besides, in the Philosophical Transactions for 1668, N° 34, he delivers a better method to determine the tides than what was commonly practifed; for which purpose Mr. John Flamsleed, the Royal Astronomer, still gave more perfect directions in the same Transactions for 1683, N° 143; as likewise he first ordered a glass lens to be fixed on the shade vane, in what is called Davis's quadrant †, which contrivance Dr. Robert Hook, Prosession of Geometry at Gressam College, had before thought of ‡.

Seller's Practical Navigation, though without demonstrations, has the rules of failing in the different kinds, as performed by calculation, by the plane scale, by the Gunter, and by the sinical quadrant, with various other matters relative to the art; as also the use of the azimuth-compass as now modelled, the ring-dial, the sea-ring, cross-staff, Davis's quadrant,

^{*} It is particularly commended in the History and Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, for the year 1701, 1705, 1706, 1708, and 1710. See also Mr. Rains's Reflections in his Introduction to Lord Anjon's Voyage round the World, made in 1743, &c. as also in the ninth chapter of the field book, and eighth of the third.

⁺ See the above-mentioned Parkins's Navigation, page 250.

[†] See Bishop Thomas Speat's excellent History of the Royal Society in 16, page 246; and Hook's Posshumous Works, published by Richard is aller, 119, in 1705, p. 557.

plough, nocturnal, inclinatory needle and globe, together with all the neceffary tables; the whole being delivered in a manner fo well adapted to the general humour of mariners, that it has undergone numberless editions: the last, I have seen, was in 1739; but some late writers seem to have abated the run of this book.

As in failing especial regard ought to be had to the Ice-way a ship makes, fo many authors have touched upon this point; but the allowances usually made on that account are very particularly set down by Mr. John Buckler, and published in a small tract first printed in 1702, intitled, A New Compendium of the whole Art of Navigation, written by Mr.

William Jones.

We ought not here to pass over in filence the very useful invention of Dr. Gowin Knight, which is the making artificial magnets, that are of greater efficacy than the natural ones. Though the Doctor has not thought fit to reveal his fecret; yet others have found it out, who have made it public, particularly the Rev. John Mitchel, and Mr. John Canton; the first in a treatise of Artificial Magnets, printed in 1750; the other in the Philosophical Transactions, vol. XLVII. Ann. 1751.

The Earth being now univerfally agreed to be not a perfect globe, but a spheroid, whose diameter at the poles is shorter than any other; the Rev. Dr. Patrick Murdoch published a tract in 1741, where he accommodated Wright's failing to fuch a figure; and Mr. Colin Maclaurin, the fame year, in the Philosophical Transactions, No 461, gave a rule to determine the meridional parts of a spheroid, which speculation he farther

treats of in his book of Fluxions, printed at Edinburgh, in 1742.

Though Sir Isaac Newton in his Principia, first printed in 1686, had demonstrated from the theory of gravity, that this must be the real form of the Earth, as it revolved about an axis; yet in the year 1718 M. Caffini again * undertook from observations to shew the contrary, and that the earth was a spheroid, having its longest diameter passing through its poles +; and in 1720 M. de Mairan advanced arguments, supposed to be strengthened by geometrical demonstrations, to confirm further M. Caffini's affertion. But in the Philosophical Transactions for 1725, No 386, . 287, 388, Dr. Defaguliers published a differention, wherein he made appear the weakness of the reasoning, and the insufficiency of the observations, as they were managed, to fettle fo nice an affair. He there also proposed a proper method for adjusting this point, when he says, If any confequence of this kind could be drawn from actual measuring, a degree of latitude should be measured at the equator, and a degree of longitude likewise measured there; and a degree very northerly, as for example, a whole degree might be actually measured upon the Baltic sea, when frozen, in the latitude

^{*} In the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, his father in 1701, and he in 1713, attempted to prove the Earth was an oblong sphe-

⁺ M. John Bernouille in his Effai d'une Nouvelle Physique Celeste, printed at Paris in 1735, triumphs over Sir Iiaac Newton; vainly imagining these precarious observations could invalidate what Sir Laac had demonst ated.

of fixty degrees. There, according to M. Cossini's last supposition, a degree would be 56653 toises; whereas at the equator it would be of 58019 toises, the difference being 1366 toises, about the two and fortieth part of a degree, which must be sensible; and likewise the degree of longitude would according to him be of 56817 toises, less by 1202, or the forty-eighth part, than a degree of latitude at the same place.

On this admonition, in 1735, there were fent from France two fets of mathematicians, members of the Royal Academy of Sciences; one towards the pole, the other to the equator, in order to measure, at each place, the length of a degree on the meridian. The report they brought home; quite overfet what had been urged in favour of the oblong figure; a degree towards the north, in the latitude of 66° 20′, being found to con-

tain about 57438 toiles, and near the equator but 56750.

This unwelcome news caused a degree to be again measured in France, which at length came out to be consonant with those which had been brought from very distant parts of the world. Thus these mathematicians confirmed by painful observations, what Sir Isaac Newton had, as M. de Maupertuis used to say, determined in his elbow-chair; Sir Isaac making the length of a degree under the pole to be 57382, and at the equator 56637 toises. And perhaps no observations can be exact enough to determine this matter more precisely.

But let us mention fome of the foreign writers on navigation.

At Rome, in 1607, came forth a treatife, intitled, Nautica Mediterranea, written in Italian by Bartolomew Crefcenti, the Pope's engineer. The author misses no opportunity of exposing the errors of Medina; but scarce gives any thing of his own, except a machine for measuring the way a ship made.

As the Jesuits have treated of most branches of learning, so this art has not been beneath their consideration; the three following authors

having been of their fociety.

At Paris, in 1633, Father George Fournier, published an Hydragraphy, principally relating to navigation. The author would persuade us, that one of Dieppe had corrected the plane chart; and that the Hollanders learnt of the French the making charts so corrected; whereas this had been engraved long before at Amsterdam, by Iodocus Hondius, and others.

John Baptist Riccioli, in his Geographia & Hydrographia Reformata, printed at Bologna in 1661, inserts a treatise of navigation, collecting his materials from almost every writer, as he does in his Almagest and Chro-

nglogy, which is indeed the chief merit of his works.

Father Millet Dechalles wrote on this subject after a more masterly manner, both in his Cursus Mathematicus, first printed at Lyons in 1674, and in a French treatise, published in 1677, intitled L'Art de Naviger de-

montré par Principes.

These three authors, besides treating of the different kinds of sailing, abound in methods for taking of altitudes, finding the variation, and estimating the way a ship makes, &c. They also describe a machine refem ing that of *Orescenti*. Riccioli gives a very faulty measure of the Ear h, made by himself; and Dechalles advises the use of a pendulum in reckening by the log-line, as also of wheel-work for the same purpose, as Philips and Cole had done.

But there were writers in France between Fournier and Dechalles. For in 1666, and the following years, there were printed at Dieppe several tracts handling different parts of navigation, composed by M. G. Denys,

which have been often reprinted.

And in 1671 the Sieur Blondel S. Aubin published a book called, L'Art de Naviger par le Quartier de Reduction, describing an instrument * much in use amongst the French sailors, by which may be performed, as by the sinical quadrant, the operations of navigation, though not much more speedily than by the traverse table, and not at all so accurately. He also published in 1673 his Tresor de la Navigation, where the art is well treated of, particularly by calculations.

M. Saverien, in his Marine Dictionary, printed at Paris in 1758, fays, that M. Dassier seems to have been the first of the French writers that shewed the use of Gunter's scales [échelles Angloises] in his Pilote expert,

printed in 1683.

At Paris, ten years after, was published the first part of a pompous work, intitled, Le Neptune François, by order of the French king, confisting of sea-charts, according to Wright's scheme, made from the latest observations, and reviewed by Mess. Pene, Cassini, and others. As this contained the charts of Europe only, there were added others of different parts of the world, printed the same year at Amsterdam. The whole was preceded by a discourse of M. Sauveur, who had formed some of the charts, where he shews how to perform the problems of astronomy and navigation by scales; which discourse had been published by itself at Paris, in 1692.

M. John Bouguer composed, by authority, his Traité Complet de la Navigation, first printed in 1698, which was well received, as containing most of the practices then known; and Father Pézenas, Jesuit and Royal Prosessor of Hydrography at Marseilles, published there, in 1733, a tract, called, Elemens de Pilotage; and at Avignon, in 1741, a larger work, intitled, Prastique du Pilotage. This author shews how to find the meridional parts by the Artificial Tangents, an old discovery amongst us, declared so long ago as 1645, in Norwood's Epitome; he also has been industrious in translating several of our mathematical books into French.

But in 1753 M. Peter Bouguer, fon of the former, published a very elaborate treat se on this subject, intitled, Nouveau Traité de Navigation, which is written sensibly, the author being an excellent mathematician, and famous for other productions. He there gives a variation-compast to fisse own invention, and attempts to reform the log, as he had done in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences for 1747. He is also very

* It is only a kind of skeleton of Wright's universal map.

⁺ Many of these forts of compasses have been proposed at different times, as by M. Buache, in the Memoirs of the French Academy of Sciences for 1752, page 377; Captain Chrisopher Middleton, in the Philosophical Transactions, No 450, Ann. 1738; and Dr. Knight, as improved by the ingenious Mr. John Smeaton, ibid. No 495, Ann. 1750.

XXVI DISSERTATION ON THE RISE, &c.

particular in determining the lunations more accurately than by the common methods, and in describing the corrections of the dead reckonings.

The excellent astronomer, M. de la Caille, in 1760, made an edition of

M. Bouguer's book, which he fomewhat abridged and improved.

In 1766, came out at Paris, a treatise, with this title, Abregé du Pilotage divisé en deux parties, ou on traite principalement des Amplitudes, des Loxodromi s, dans l'hypothese de la Sphere et de Spheroide, des marées, des variations de l'aiman.

The former part of this book was first published in 1693. Here the

whole is improved by M. le Monnier.

Though the Spaniards were the earliest writers on navigation, yet they were very backward to adopt its improvements. Indeed Antonio de Naiera published at Lisbon, in 1628, a treatise, intitled, Navegation especulativa y practica; where, though the author rectifies the tables of the Sun and fixed flars, from Tycho Brahe's observations, he proceeds no farther in the theory of navigation than what had been advanced by Nonius, as followed by Cespedes. But of late, in 1712, was printed at the same place. Arte de Navegar por Manuel Pimental; where is shewn the use of Wright's chart, which, in imitation of the French, the author calls Charta Reduzida. He likewise describes Davis's quadrant, and mentions Norwood and Picard's measures of the Earth. In 1757 a treatise was printed at Cadiz, intitled, Compendio de Navigacion para el uso de los Cavelleros Guardias Marinas, written by the ingenious gentleman mentioned above. Don Jorge Juan. This is a good performance, delivering very diffinctly the feveral parts of the art, as now improved. Some things are here omitted, that usually occur in books on this subject; but for the knowledge of fuch particulars, references are made to tracts composed expressly for the use of the society of gentlemen, destined for the sea-service.

Bonguer and Forge Juan, describe and commend the method of dividing instruments for taking of angles, published by Peter Vernier, in a treatise, intitled, La Construction, &c. du quadrant nouveau, printed at Brussels, in 1631. This division is an improvement of that of Curtius, as that of Fererius is of the division by diagonals *, and readily follows from the first Lemma of Clavius's treatise on the Astrolabe +, as has been observed by Pézenas, in a book he published at Avignon in 1765, in-

titled, Astronomie des Marins.

As to their treating of Wright's chart, I mentioned above Snellius and Metius. To an edition, in 1665, of Vlacq's small tables of logarithms, &c. is added, by Abraham de Gruel, one of meridional parts, whose use he shews, with other parts of navigation, in his Course of Mathematics, written in Detch, and printed at Amsterdam in 1676, as had been done by John Viret, in his Flambeau reluissant où Thresor de la Navigation, at the same place, in 1677.

^{*} See Mr. Robins's Mathematical Tracts, where these divisions are largely treated of.

f Fielt printed at Rome, in 1693.

The Dutch are great navigators, and have been famous for their At-lasses, before which are premised treatises of navigation, as has been already observed. The oldest I have seen of these, was published at Leyden in 1584, intitled, Spiegel der Zee-Vaert (or Mirror of Navigation,) by Lucas fansz Waghenaer. In their later Atlasses there is described an instrument to be used after the manner of Davis's quadrant, but where instead of circular arches are substituted straight lines.

Notwithstanding all the improvements hitherto mentioned, the fearecknings, though kept by such as were deemed very skilful mariners, are often found widely different from the truth. But this often happens through negligence, as I have heard Dr. Halley, who had used the

fea, fav.

These errors would be avoided, if from time to time the latitude and longitude could be determined. The first is generally obtained by the meridian altitude and declination of the Sun being given. The declination is got by the help of tables of the Sun, with an easy trigonometrical

operation.

But even the latitude could not be very exact, before the famous Kepler had determined the true form of the Earth's orbit *. Hence were fabricated his Tabulæ Rudolphinæ. Next, those of Mr. Thomas Street were in great request +. But they, in their turn, yielded to Dr. Halley's, and his again to those of the accurate and elaborate Mayer; which, however, will want to be corrected hereafter: For, as Sir Isaac Newton has shewn, that all bodies mutually attract one another, the Earth will be disturbed in its motion by the actions of some of the other planets.

To find the longitude is a much more difficult affair. For this end, at present, the societies of learned men in Europe offer from time to time rewards to such as shall best treat of particular subjects in mathematicks or physicks. Some of these have been relating to navigation, when Polleni, Bernouilli, Bouguer, and others have obtained the prizes. And it is hoped,

this institution may contribute to the advancement of the art.

Eclipses of the moon were used of old; and Kepler recommended those

of the Sun as preferable #.

The fatellites of Jupiter were no fooner discovered by the great Galliles §, than the frequency of their eclipses recommended them for this purpose; and amongst those who attempted this subject, none were more

fuccessful than Signor Dominic Cassini.

This great aftronomer in 1688 published at Bolegna tables for calculating the appearances of their eclipses, with directions for finding thence the longitudes of places; and being invited to France by Lewis the Fourteenth, he there published correcter tables in 1693. But the mutual attractions of the satellites on one another rendering their motions exceffively irregular, the tables soon run out; insomuch that they require to be renewed from time to time, which has been performed by ingenious

In his treatise de Moiu Martis, in 1609.

[†] In hi Aftronomia Carolina, in 1061.

Il Tabular Rudolph, printed at Ulm in 1627, cap. xvi. & xxxii. § In his Sydere is Nameius, first printed at Visits in 1612.

persons, as Dr. James Pound, Dr. James Bradley *, M. Cassini the son, and M. Peter Wargentin +; so that now many of the common Almanaes set

down, when these eclipses happen throughout the year.

The Rev. Nevil Maskelyne, D. D. our present Royal Astronomer, has published annually, since the year 1767, by order of the Commissioners of Longitude, a work entitled, The Nautical Almanac and Astronomical Ephemeris, containing not only the eclipses of the satellites, but also many other tables, to enable the mariner to determine the longitude at sea; particularly tables of the distances which the moon's center will have from that of the Sun, and from fixed stars, at every three hours, under the meridian of the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, and which have since been copied into the Connoisance des Temps for these latter years by the editor of that work.

The large reward granted by the *Parliament* for a practical way of discovering the longitude at sea, has put many upon the search: infomuch that several idle and absurd schemes have been offered by ignorant and wrong-headed men. But the perfecting the methods proposed long ago by John Werner and Gemma Frisus, seems at present to engage the

attention of the public.

The theory of the moon, though much amended by the noble Tycho Brahe and Mr. Jevemy Horrox ‡, was found to be infufficient to answer this end. But the causes of her various irregularities having been discovered by Sir Isaac Newton, and her theory thence improved beyond expectation, gave great hopes of success; which have since been happily sulfilled by means of the improvements which have since been made in the methods of computing the several quantities of these inequalities by M. Euler, and Tobias Mayer of Gottingen §: The former of these gentlemen having been happy in reducing Sir Isaac Newton's theory into neat analytical expressions, of which the latter availing himself, was, by a very singular address of his own, enabled to bring out the greatest quantities of the equations with ease and exactness, and thence to construct tables

^{*} He fucceeded Dr. Halley at Greenwich, where he made a great number of Astronomical Observations, which, as they are most accurate, it is hoped will not be lost. He became famous on observing and accounting for an apparent motion in the fixed stars, and called their aberration, which was immediately exhibited by the great mathematician Dr. Brook Taylor according to the exact theory of the Earth's motion. See Mr. Robins's Mathematical Tracts, vol. II. page 276.

[†] Wargentin's tables are much esteemed; they were first published at Stock-holm in the Asia Societatis Regii Scientiarum Upfalensis for the year 1741, but since more correct from a new copy of the author's at Paris in 1759, by M. de la Lande. The ingenious author has rendered them yet more correct, and his labours on this head may be seen in the Connoisance des Temps for 1766, and the Nautical Amanacs for 1771, and 1779.

[†] This great genius died in 1641, scarce 23 years old. See his Operar Posthuma, published by the samous Dr. John Wallis at London, in 1673. Horrex first observed the Transit of Venus over the Sun in 1639. He wrote an account of this Phenomenon, which was published by the great astronomer Hewelius, at Dantzic, in 1661.

[&]amp; Com. Societ. Reg. Gottingens. tom. II. page 283.

agreeing to the moon's motion in every part of her orbit, with very furprifing exactness. And this ingenious person has left behind him tables still more exact *, for which the British Parliament have rewarded his widow with f. 3000, as also Mr. Euler with f. 300. These tables were

published in 1770, by Dr. Maskelyne.

As to the method of Gemma Frifius, M. Huygens was perfuaded it might be accomplished by his inventions of pendulum clocks and watches: a description of the first he published in a small tract, printed at the Hague, in 1658; and of the second, as improved, in the Journal des Sçavans for the month of February, 1675. And great expectations of fuccefs had been raifed from fome trials made in a voyage with these watches of the first construction, by Major Holmes; an account whereof is given in the Philosophical Transactions, Ann. 1669. But the various accidents those movements are liable to, soon caused that way to be laid aside.

Notwithstanding which, the ingenious Mr. John Harrison has for many years past employed himself in contriving a machine, that shall be free from all imaginable inconveniencies; and his endeavours were fo well approved of by gentlemen of the greatest knowledge in these subjects, that the commissioners for the longitude thought sit to allow him some gratifications for his pains. He was afterwards farther confidered, upon disclosing the internal structure of his machine, and the whole reward has fince been given him by Parliament.

The difficulty of making observations at sea with sufficient exactness for finding the longitude, was feared to be infurmountable; but attempts have not been wanting to overcome it. In the History of the Royal Society, at page 246, we meet with the first mention of an invention in these words: A new instrument for taking angles by reflection, by which means the eye at the same time sees the two objects both as touching the same point, though distant almost to a semicircle; which is of great use for making exact observations at sea. A figure of this instrument, drawn by Dr. Hook, the inventor, is given in the Doctor's posthumous works, with a description, at page 503. But here, as one reflection only was made use of, it would not answer the purpose. However, this was at last effected by Sir Isaac Newton, who communicated to Dr. Halley, about the year 1700, a paper of his own writing, containing a description of an inflrument with two reflections, which foon after the Doctor's death was found among his papers by Mr. Jones, who communicated it to the Royal Society, and it was published in the Philosophical Transactions, Nº 465, Ann. 1742.

How it happened that Dr. Halley never mentioned this in his life-time, is very extraordinary; feeing John Hadley, Efq. + had described,

^{*} See his Elogium in the Nova Asta Eruditorum, for March 1762.

[†] Mr. Hadiey being well acquainted with Sir Ifaac Newton, might have heard him fay, Hook's proposal could be perfected by means of a double reflection. However, Mr. Hadley, being a very ingenious person, might have hit on the fam; thought; as well as Mr. Godfrey of Penislvania to whom the invention of this admirable inflrument has been ascribed by tome entlemen of that colony: This is not the only case, wherein different persons have produced fimilar inventions.

XXX DISSERTATION ON THE RISE, &c.

in N° 430, Ann. 1731, an inftrument grounded on the fame principles, which is fo well esteemed, that our shops abound with them, accommodated with Vernier's division, as they are made by our most skilful workmen; and are now in general use amongst the skilful seamen of

most of the maritime nations.

Though Medina's method for finding the place of the horizon was abfurd; yet, for this end, several plausible ones have been proposed by ingenious persons, as Mess. Elton, Hadley, Godfrey, and Leigh; and that chiefly by applying a level to Davis's quadrant. Their devices are described in the Philosophical Transactions for 1732, 33, 34, and 37. And, lastly, an Horizontal Top, invented by the late Mr. Serson, who was unfortunately lost at sea aboard the Victory man of war, has been approved of, and published by Mr. Smeaton in the Philosophical Transactions, vol. XLVII. for 1752, part ii. page 352.

Some methods used for obtaining the place of the horizon, and of obferving with Mr. Hadley's Reflecting Sector, are described by Mr. Robertson, in his Elements of Navigation; which treatise has deservedly met

with the approbation of the public.

Thus have I endeavoured to trace out the principal fleps by which the art of navigation has advanced to its present height; nor without hopes that the attempt may not prove altogether unacceptable to those whose business or curiosity lead them to be acquainted with this very useful branch of the mathematics: on the successful practising of which depends, in an especial manner, the flourishing state of our country.

This Differtation, written at first by desire, is now reprinted with alterations. Though I may be thought to have dwelt too long on some particulars not directly relating to the subject; yet I hope that what is so delivered, will not be altogether unentertaining to the candid reader. As to any apology for having handled a matter quite foreign to my way of life, I shall only plead, that very young, living in a sea-port town, I was eager to be acquainted with an art that could enable the Mariner to arrive across the wide and pathless ocean at his desired harbour.

London.

JAMES WILSON.

ADVERTISEMENT.

A S it may be expected that four kinds of readers will look into this book, it was thought convenient to point out to some of them, the places where they may meet with what they more particularly want.

FIRST. Those who having made a proficiency in the mathematics, will, it is likely, examine in what manner the subjects are here treated, and whether any thing new is contained therein: it is conceived that such readers will find some things which may recompence them for their trouble, in almost every one of the books.

SECONDLY. Those learners, who are desirous of being instructed in the art of Navigation in a scientific manner, and would chuse to see the reason of the several steps they must take to acquire it: To such persons, it is recommended that they read the whole book in the order they find it; or, if the learner is very young, he may omit the IVth and Vth books till after he is master of the VIth and VIIth.

THIRDLY. That class of readers, which, with too much truth may be faid, comprehends most of our mariners, who want to learn both the elements and the art itself by rote, and never trouble themselves about the reason of the rules they work by: As it is probable there ever will be many readers of this kind, they may be well accommodated in this work; thus, if they are not already acquainted with Arithmetic and Geometry, let them read the five first rules of Arithmetic, to page 20; thence proceed to the definitions and problems in Geometry, from page 43 to 58. In the book of Trigonometry, read pages 89, 90, 91, 92, 98, 99, and from 104 to 114: the whole of book VI. In book the VIIth they may read to page 35, and as much more as they please. In book VIII, let them read the sections III, IV, V, VI, from page 146 to page 182. In book V, they may read section III, and as many problems in the Vth and VIth sections as they can; and let them read the whole of the ninth book.

FOURTHLY. That fet of readers who will not be at the pains of learning any thing more than how to perform a day's work; fuch may herein meet with the practice almost independent of other knowledge. Let such persons make themselves acquainted with section IV. of book VI, and the use of the table at page 374; then learn the use of the Traverse Table at the end of book VII, which they will find exemplified between pages 8 and 35, Vol. II; also they must learn the use of the Table of Meridional parts at the end of Book VIII. After which, they may proceed to book IX, where they will find ample instructions in all the particulars which enter into a day's work. But with this scanty knowledge of things, they will be obliged to omit some parts, which it is well worth their pains to be acquainted with.



THE

ELEMENTS

OF

NAVIGATION.

BOOK I. OF ARITHMETICK.

SECTION I.

Definitions and Principles.

RITHMETICK is a science which teaches the properties of numbers; and how to compute or estimate the value of things.

2. An UNIT or UNITY, is any thing considered as one.

3. NUMBER, in general, is many units.

4. DIGITS or FIGURES are the marks by which numbers are denoted or expressed, and are the nine following.

Digits, 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. Names, One. Two. Three. Four. Five. Six. Seven. Eight. Nine. And with these is used the mark 0, called cypher, which of itself stands for nothing; but being annexed to a digit, alters its value.

Thus 40 signifies forty; and 400 stands for four hundred, &c.

5. INTEGER, or WHOLE, NUMBERS, are such as express a number of things, each of which is considered as an unit.

Thus four pounds, twelve miles, thirty-four gallons, one hundred days, &c. arc, in each case, called an integer number, or whole number.

6. Fractional Numbers, are those which express the value of some part or parts of an unit.

Thus one half, one quarter, three quarters, &c. are each the fractional parts of an unitariv Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® Vol. I. B 7. Nota-

7. NOTATION is the expressing by digits or figures any number proposed in words; and the reading of any number that is expressed by figures, is called NUMERATION.

8. DECIMAL NOTATION is that kind of numbering in which ten units of any inferior name are equal in value to an unit of the next superior.

9. Every number is faid to confift of as many places as it contains figures.

10. The value of every digit in any number is changed according to the place it flands in; and the reading of any number confifts in giving

to each figure its right name and value.

11. The right hand place of an integer number is called the place of units; and from this place all numbers begin, whether whole or fractional; the integers increasing in order from the unit place towards the left; and the fractions decreasing in order from the unit place towards the right: and to distinguish decimal fractions from integers, there is always a point or comma (,) set on the left hand side of the fractional number; so that the integers stand on the left hand side of the mark, and the fractions on the right hand.

12. For the more convenient reading of numbers, they are divided into periods of fix places each, beginning at the unit place; and each period into two degrees of three places each, the names and order of which are as follow: where X stands for the word tens, C for hun-

areds, and Th. for thousands.

	13.			72.5			Int	teg	er.	s		-				•	I)e	cir	na	l fi	rać	if	ons	5			
			S	ec	on	ď	per	io	d .	Fi	ſŧ	pe	rio	d		Fi	rst	pe	ric	od	Se	co	nd	P	eri	od		
To a should	Apple.	3	De	gr	ee.	De	gr	ee	De	gr	ee	De	gı	ee	D	egi	ree	D	egi	ree	D	egi	ree	D	egi	ree	N	
* .	&c.	Billions	C. Th. Millions	X. Th. Millions	Th. Millions	C. Millions	X. Millions	Millions	C. Thoufands	X. Thoufands	Thoufands	Hundreds	Tens .	Units	Tenths	Hundredths	Thousandths	X. Thoufandths - 7	C. Thoufandths	Millionths.		C. Millionths	Th. Millionths	X. Th. Millionths	C. Th. Millionths	Billionths	&c.	
		5	4	3	2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9,	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	I	2	3	4	5		
]					Fra me		ion	S	are	al	ſo	{	Primes	Seconds	Thirds	Fourths	Fifths	Sixths	Sevenths	Lighths	Ninths	Tenths.	Elevenths	[welfths	&c.	

The name of the first period is Units; of the second, Millions; of the

third, Billions; of the fourth, Trillions; &c.

In the above order it may be observed, that each degree contains the names of Units, Tens, Hundreds; the first degree of a period contains the units of that period, and the second contains the thousandths thereof: so that from hence it will be easy to read a number consisting of ever so many places by the following directions.

Univ Calif5- Digitized by Microsoft ® 14. Rule.

- 14. Rule. Ift. Suppose the number parted into as many sets or degrees of three places each, beginning at the unit's place, as it will admit of; and if one or two places remain, they will be the units and tens of the next degree.
- 2d. Beginning at the left hand, read in each degree, as many hundreds, tens, and units, as the figures in those places of the degree express, adding the name thousands, if in the second degree of a period; and adding the name of the period, after reading the hundreds, tens, and units in its first degree.

Thus the integer number in the preceding table will be read.

Five billions, four hundred thirty two thousand, one hundred twenty three millions, four hundred fifty six thousand, seven hundred eighty nine.

15. All fractional numbers confift of two parts, which are usually written one above the other with a line drawn between them: the number below the line, called the *denominator*, shews into how many equal parts the unit is divided: the number above the line, called the *numerator*, shews by how many of these equal parts the value of that fraction is expressed.

Thus 9 pence, is 9 parts in twelve of a shilling; and may be written

thus, 2, when a shilling is the unit.

16. Those fractions, the denominators of which are 10, or 100, or 1000, or 10000, or 100000, &c. are called decimal fractions: but fractions with any other denominators are called vulgar fractions.

The vulgar fractions that most frequently occur, are these:

1, which is read one fourth, or one quarter.

 $\frac{1}{3}$ - - - - one third. $\frac{1}{7}$ - - - - one half.

2 - - - - - - two thirds.

³/₄ - - - - - three fourths, or three quarters.

17. As decimal fractions are parts of an unit divided into either 10, 100, 1000, 10000, &c. parts, according to the places in the fractional number; therefore they are read like whole numbers, only calling them so many parts of 10, or of 1000, or of 1000, &c.

18. Cyphers on the right hand of integers increase their value; on the left hand of a decimal fraction diminish its value: but on the left hand of integers, or on the right hand of fractions, do not alter their value.

Thus \{ 8 is 8 units. 80 8 tens. 800 8 hundreds. \]

And \{ ,8 is 8 parts in 10 \ ,08 8 parts in 100 \} of an unit \, 008 8 parts in 1000 \} of divided.

When a fraction has no integer prefixed, it is convenient to put o in the place of units.

19. A MIXED NUMBER, is when a fraction is annexed to a whole number.

Thus five and a half is called a mixed number, and is written 5\frac{1}{2}, or thus, 5,5; which is thus read, five and five tenths.

20. Like names in different numbers are such figures as stand equally distant from the place of units; or have the same denomination annexed to them.

Thus all numbers of pounds sterling are like names, and so are all numbers of shillings; the like of any numbers of miles, &c.

- 21. Besides the decimal notation explained in article 8, there are other kinds in common use; such as the duodecimal, in which every superior name contains 12 units of its next inserior name: the Sexagenary, or Sexagesimal, in which fixty of an inserior name make one of its next superior. The former is used by workmen in the measuring of artisticers works in building; and the latter is used in the division of a Circle, and of Time.
- 22. The following characters or marks are frequently used in Arithmetical computations, briefly to express the manner of operation.

The mark + (more) belongs to addition; and shews that the num-

bers it stands between are to be added together.

Thus 12 + 3 expresses the sum of 12 and 3; or that 3 is to be added

to 12, and is thus read, 12 more 3.

The mark — (less) is for subtraction; and shews that the number following it, or on the right hand, is to be taken from the number preceding it, or on the left hand.

Thus 12 — 3, expresses the difference between 12 and 3; or that 3 is to be subtracted from 12, and is thus read, 12 less 3, or 12 lessened by 3.

This mark × (into) for multiplication, shews that the numbers on each side of it are to be multiplied the one by the other.

Thus 12 × 3, denotes the product of 12 into 3; or that 12 is to be

multiplied by 3.

Division is expressed by setting the divisor under the dividend with a line drawn between them, like a fraction.

Thus 12, expresses the quotient of 12 by 3; or that 12 is to be divided

by 3.

This fign = (equal) shews that the result of the operation by the numbers or quantities on one side of it, is equal either to the numbers or quantities on the other side, or to the result of the operation by these numbers or quantities.

Thus 12+3=15; and 12-3=9; and 12×3=36; and 13=4; feverally shews the value of the preceding expressions.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft @23. Tables

23. TABLES OF ENGLISH MONEY, WEIGHTS, and MEASURES.

MONEY.

Farthings Pence Shill. Pound

960 = 240 = 20 = 1 £.

48 = 12 = 1s.

4 = 1d.

Note, 1, 2, 3 farthings, are thus written, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{4}$.

- AVOIRDUPOISE WEIGHT.

Drams Ounces Pounds Hund Ton 573440 = 35840 = 2240 = 20 = 1 2867c = 1792 = 112 = 1 C. 256 = 16 = = 11b. 16 = 1 oz.

Note, Provisions, Stores, &c. areweighed by the Avoirdupoise, or great weight.

TROY WEIGHT. Grains Pennywts Ounces Pound 5760 = 240 = 12 = 1 lb. 480 = 20 = 1 oz. gr. 24 = 1 dwt. Note, Gold and Silver are weighed by Troy Weight.

WINE MEASURE.

Solidinch.Pints.Gall.Hogfh.PipeTun 58212=2016=2522=4=2=1 29106=1008=126=2=1 P. 14553= 504= 63=1 Hhd. 231= 8= 1

42=1 Tierce. 84=! l'uncheon.

DRY MEASURE.

Pints Gall. Pecks Bush. Quarter 512 = 64 = 32 = 8 = 1 64 = 8 = 4 = 1 16 = 2 = 1 8 = 1

Note, 4 bush. = 1 Comb: 10 qrs. = 1
Wey: 12 Weys = Last of Corn.
36 Bushels = 1 Chaldron of Coals.

CLOTH MEASURE.

4 Nails = 1 QuarterofaYard.
4 Quarters = 1 Yard.
5 Quarters = 1 English ell.
3 Quarters = 1 Flemish ell.
6 Quarters = 1 French ell.
a Span = 9 inches.
a Hand = 4 inches.

LONG MEASURE.

Yards Barley corns Inches Feet Poles Furl. Mile. = 320 = 8 = 1190080 = 63360 = 5280= 1760 7920 = 660 = 220 = 40 = 1 23760 = 198 = 594 = $16\frac{1}{2} =$ $5\frac{1}{2} =$ 108 = 36 = 3 36 = 12

Also 3 miles make 1 league.

And 20 leagues or 60 Sea miles make a degree.

But a degree contains about 69 miles of statute measure.

A fathom = 6 feet = 2 yards.

TIME.

Seconds Minutes Hours Days Year 31556937 = 525948 = 8766 = 3654 = 1 86400 = 1440 = 24 = 1 day 3600 = 60 = 1 hour.

Pence Table. Even parts of a Pound Sterling. Pence Sh. Pence Pence Sh. Pence S. d. is d. 20 = 1.870 = 5 . 10 10.0 6 is 1 90 Pound Sterlin 3 = 2.680 = 6.86.8 4 يو $40 = 3 \cdot 4$ 90 = 7.65.0 3 50 = 4 . 2 100 = 8.44.0 2 1 2 3 4 O 4 65=5.0 110 = 9. 2 3 . 4 2.6

24.

SECTION II. ADDITION.

Addition is the method of collecting several numbers into one sum.

Rule 1st. Write the given numbers under each other, so that like names stand under like names; that is units under units, tens under tens, &c. and under these draw a line.

2d. Add up the first or right hand upright row, under which write the overplus of the units of the second row, contained in that sum.

3. Add these units to the sum of the second row, under which write the overplus of the units of the third row, contained in that sum.

And thus proceed until all the rows are added together.

EXAMPLES.

Ex. I. Add 28-76-47-18 and 12 together.

These numbers being written under each other will stand thus. 28 Say 2 and 8 is 10, and 7 is 17, and 6 is 23, and 8 is 31; 76 then, because 10 units in the right hand row make an unit in 47 the next row; therefore in 31 there are 3 units of the second 18 row, and an overplus of I; write down the I, and add the 3 to 12 the fecond row, faying, 3 that is carried and I is 4, and I is 5, and 4 is 9, and 7 is 16, and 2 is 18, in which is one unit of the 181 third row (had there been a 3d) and an overplus of 8; write down the 8, and add the I to the third row: but as there is no third row, the I carried must be written on the left hand of the 8; and 181 will be the fum of the five given numbers.

Ex. II. Add 476—378 —290—75—7638—4 gether.	4—18329 and 46 to-
The given numbers fet in order will stand thus	476 3784 18329 290 75 7638 46
The Sum	30638

Ex. III. Add the numbe	
-3489 - 28764 - 28	
-19 and 438 together.	*
	10768
	3489
The given numbers placed as the rule di- rects, stand thus	28764
placed as the rule di- >	289
rects, stand thus	6438
	19
	438
The Sum	50205

Ex.	1	V	•	Add	these	nun	ibers	tog	ether
					3720	,45	,		

	25,co36 4179,802 3,6284
υm	7928,8840

S

Ex. V. Add the following numbers
together.
15836,071
20,09
34,7
583,27008
Supa 16174 12108

In

Book I.

In the two last examples, where there are both integer and fractional numbers, it may be observed, that like integer places, and like fractional places, stand under each other; and the manner of adding them together,

is the same as explained in the first example.

25. It frequently happens, that numbers are to be added together, the names of which do not increase in a tenfold manner, as in the last Examples; fuch as in adding different fums of money, weights, or meafures; in which, regard is to be had to the number of those of a lower name, contained in one of its next greater name, as shewn in the preceding tables: Examples of which follow.

Ex. VI. Add the following sums of | Ex. VII. Add the following sums of money together. money together.

£	5.	d.
353	14	81/2
276	10	4
89	17	5 4 10 4
34	12	103
754	15	41/2

7683 19 954 682 10 63 15 9384 21 14

In these two examples the carriage is by 4 in the farthings; by 12 in the pence; by 20 in the shillings; and by 10 in the pounds.

Weights together.

0	3		
lb.	OZ.	dwt.	gr.
218	10	13	18
176	9	19	23
85	1.1	17	1 I
24	8	15	21
506	5	07	10

Carry for 24, 20, 12, 10.

Ex. VIII. Add the following Troy Ex. IX. Add the following Avoirdupoise Weights together.

1)				
Tons.	Cwt.	qrs.	lb.	OZ.
535	17	3	22	1.1
91	19	I	27	13
158	12	0	18	15
_ 7	15	2	13	08
797	05	0	26	15

*Carry for 16, 28, 4, 20, 10.

Ex. X. Add the following parts of Time together.

		20,500,001			
W	eeks	Da.	Ho.	Min.	Sec.
	21	4	18	37	59
15	11	6	13	25	47
	19	3	23	59	28
	38	4	08	22	39
	91	5	16	25	53

Carry for 60, 60, 24, 7, 10.

Ex. XI. Add the following parts of a Circle together

1	1000	11	411	
Deg.				
176	32	59	43	25
85	59	27	31	59
114	28	45	59	14
67	12	38	2.1	47
444	13	51	39	25

Carry for 60, 60, 60, 60, 10

Explanation of Example VI.

Three farthings and 1 farthing is 4 farthings, and 2 farthings is 6 farthings; which is a penny haifpenny; fet down 1 and carry 1.

Then 1 and 10 is 11, and 5 is 16, and 4 is 20, and 8 is 28 pence;

which is 2 shillings and 4 pence: fet down 4, and carry 2.

Again, 2 and 12 is 14, and 17 is 31, and 10 is 41, and 14 is 55 shillings; which is 2 pounds 15 shillings; set down 15 shillings, and carry 2 pounds. The rest is easy.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® 26. SEC

26. SECTION III. SUBTRACTION.

SUBTRACTION is the method of taking one number from another, and shewing the remainder, or difference, or excess.

The fubducend is the number to be subtracted, or taken away.

The minuend is the number from which the subducend is to be taken.
RULE 1st. Under the minuend write the subducend, so that like names stand under like names; and under them draw a line.

2d. Beginning at the right-hand fide, take each figure in the lower line from the figure standing over it, and write the remainder, or what

is lest, beneath the line, under that figure.

3d. But if the figure below is greater than that above it, increase the upper figure by as many as are in an unit of the next greater name; from this fum take the figure in the lower line, and write the remainder under it.

4th. To the next name in the lower line, carry the unit borrowed, and thus proceed to the highest denomination or name.

EXAMPLES.

Ex. I. From 436565874 the minuend, Take 249853642 the fubducend,

Remains 186712232 the difference.

Here the five figures on the right of the subducend may be taken from those over them: but the 6th figure, viz. 8, cannot be taken from the 5 above it. Now as an unit in the 7th place makes 10 in the 6th place, therefore borrowing this unit makes the 5, 15; then say, 8 from 15 leaves 7, which set down; and say 1 carried and 9 is 10, 10 from 6 cannot be had, but 10 from 16 leaves 6, set it down; then 1 carried and 4 is 5, 5 from 13 leaves 8; set it down: then 1 carried and 2 is 3, 3 from 4 leaves 1.

Ex. II.	From Take	7620908 387509 2	Ex. III.	From Take	3 ² 7,9563 49,8697
	Remains	3745816		Remains	278,0866
Ex. IV.	From Take	30007,295 2536,876	Ex. V.	From Take	5000,0000 479,6378
	Leaves	27470,419		Leaves	4520,3622
Ex. VI.	Borrowed Paid	£. s. d. 24 14 $6\frac{1}{2}$ 18 12 $4\frac{1}{4}$	Ex. VII.	Lent Received	£. s. d. 294 15 9‡ 89 18 10‡
	Remains	6 02 2 ¹ / ₄			204 16 101

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®Ex. VIII.

Ex. V	III.	In S	exag	esima	ls.
7	0		H	411	iv
From	76	28	37	49	32
Take	65	29	16	53	45
Leaves	10	59	20	55.	47

Ex. IX	I. In	Sexa	gesim	als.	
	0	,	"	6/7	îv
From	218	46	32	50	18
Take	149	52	47	53	29
Leaves	68	53	44	56	49

QUESTIONS to exercise Addition and Subtraction. 27.

QUEST. I. The Share of Fack's and Tom received as much, beside 7 f. 18s. smart money: How much money did Tom receive?

d. Tom's prize money 61/2 17 Smart money 18 0 Tom received 156 61/2

QUEST. III. What year was King George born in, he being 67 years old in the year 1749?

> Current vear 1749 67 fubtr. Age 1682 Year born in

QUEST. V. A seaman who had received 46f. 17s.6d. for wages, prize money, &c. meeting with bad company was tricked out of 18 guineas: Now John had reckoned to pay his wife's debts of 13f. 16s. 6d. and his landlady's bill of 16f. 12s. Required whether he can fulfil his intentions, and what the difference will be?

18 13 16	18 16 12	d. 0 6 0
49 46	6	6
2	9	0
	13	13 16 16 12

QUEST. II. The Spanish invaprize money was 148 f. 17s. 6d1; from was in the year 1588, and the French attempted an invasion in the year 1744: How many years were between these fruitless attempts?

> French 1744 Spanish 156 Years between

QUEST. IV. Two Ships depart from the same port, one having sailed 835 miles, is got 48 miles a-head of the other: Required the aftermost ship's distance?

> The first ship's distance 835 Their difference Second ship's distance 787

QUEST. VI. Will and Frank talking of their ages in the year 1749, Will said he was born in the year of the Rebellion, in 1715; and Frank said he remembered he was ten years old the year King George the Second was crowned in 1727: Required the age of each, and the difference of their ages?

Current year Will was born	1749 1715
Will's age	34
Current year	1749
King George crowned	1727
Years fince	22
Frank's age then	10
Frank's age	32

So Will was oldest by two years. 2Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft 28, SEC-

28. SECTION IV. MULTIPLICATION.

MULTIPLICATION is the method of finding what a given number will amount to, when repeated as many times as is represented by another number.

The number to be multiplied, is called the Multiplicand. The number multiplied by, is called the Multiplier.

And the number which the multiplication amounts to, is called the Product.

Both multiplicand and multiplier are called Factors.

Before any operation can be performed in Multiplication, it is necesfary that the learner should commit to memory the following table.

29.	The	MULTIPLICATION	TABLE.
-----	-----	----------------	--------

tin	ies	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
.2		4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24
3			9	12	15	18	21	24	27	30	33	36
4				16	20	24	28	32	36	40	44	48
5					25	30	35	40	45	50	55	
6	34			Pa		36	42	48	54	60		72
7 8							49	56	63	70	77	84
8	111							64	72	80	88	96
9									81	90	99	108
10				17.00						100	110	120
11									4		121	132
12								1				144

Observe, that in multiplying any figure in the upper line by any figure in the left-hand column, the product will fland right against the figure used in the left-hand column, and under that used in the upper line. Thus were 6 to be multiplied by 9, feek the greater figure 9 in the upper line, and right under it, against 6 in the left hand, stands 54 for the Product. And so of others.

The foregoing table being well known, the work of Multiplication

will be performed as follows.

To multiply any number, as	37256
By any fingle figure, as by	7
Set them as in the margin, and proceed	260792

thus, 7 times 6 is 42, fet down 2 and carry 4; 7 times 5 is 35 and 4 carried is 39, fet down 9 and carry 3; 7 times 2 is 14 and 3 carried is 17, fet down 7 and carry 1; 7 times 7 is 49 and 1 carried is 50, fet down 0 and carry 5; 7 times 3 is 21 and 5 carried is 26, which set down, and the work is done. But for compound Multiplication take the following:

30. RULE 1st. Write the Factors so, that the right hand place of the Multiplier stands under the right hand place of the Multiplicand.

2d. Multiply the Multiplicand severally by every figure of the Multiplier, fetting the first figure of each line under the figure then multiplying by.

3d. Add the feveral lines together; and their fum is the Product. 4th. From the right hand of the Product point off, for fractions, as many places as there are fractional places in both Factors; and those to the left of the mark of distinction are integers; those to the right are fractions. Univ Calit - Digitized by Microsoft ®

5th. If the number of places in the Product are not so many as the number of fractional places in both Factors, make up that number by writing cyphers on the left hand, and to these prefix the mark of distinction.

Example I. Multiply 742 by 53.

The lesser Factor being written under the greater Factor, as here shewn, and a line drawn under them; say 3 times 2 is 6, write 6 under the 3; then 3 times 4 is 12, write down 2 and carry 1; and 3 times 7 is 21, and 1 carried is 22, write the 22: Again, 5 times 2 is 10, write 0 under the 5, and carry 1; and 5 times 4 is 20 and 1 Multiplicand 742 Factors.

Multiplier 53 Factors.

2226
3710

Product 39326

carried is 21, write down 1 and carry 2; then 5 times 7 is 35, and 2 carried is 37, write down the 37: Now add the two lines together found by multiplying by 3 and by 5, and their fum 39326 is the product required.

EXA	MPLE II.	
Multiply	28704	
by	8631	
	28704	~
	86112	
	172224	-
	229632	
	247744224	Product.

Here, because there are 4 fractional

places in the Multiplicand, and 3 in the Multiplier, which together make 7, therefore 7 places are pointed off on the right of the product for fractions.

EXAMPLE V.

Multiplier 0.24706

Example IV.

Multiply 936,287
607,02
1872574
6554090
56177220
508344,93474

Multiply 0,34796
by 0,0258
278368
173980
69592
0,008977368

The cyphers in the Multiplier of this example are thus managed. Having multiplied by the 2 as before, fay o times 7 is 0, write 0 under the 0, and proceed to the next figure 7, by which multiply as before, then coming to the accound 0, fay, 0 times 7 is 0, write 0 under the place of the fecond 0, and proceed to the next figure 0, by which multiply as before.

Here, because there are 5 fractional places in one Factor, and 4 in the other, there should be 9 fractional places in the Product; and there arising but 7, therefore two cyphers are set on the left hand to make 9 places.

8) 36 56 (457

3 Z

45

40

56

56

31. SECTION V. DIVISION.

DIVISION is the method of finding bow often one number is contained in another; or may be taken from another.

The number to be divided, is called the Dividend.

The number dividing by, is called the Divisor.

The Quotient is the number arising from the division, and shews how many times the Divisor is contained in the Dividend.

The operations in Division are performed as follow.

32. Rule 1st. On the right and left of the Dividend draw a crooked line; write the Divisor on the left side, and the Quotient, as it arises, on

the right fide of the Dividend.

2d. Seek how often the Divisor may be taken in as many figures on the left hand of the Dividend, as are just necessary; write the number of times it may be taken, in the Quotient; and there will be as many figures more in the Quotient, as there are figures remaining in the Dividend then not used.

3d. Multiply the Divisor by this Quotient-figure, set the Product under that part of the Dividend used; subtract, and to the right hand of the remainder bring down the next figure of the Dividend: Divide as before; and thus proceed until all the figures of the Dividend are used.

4th. If there is a remainder, to its right hand fide annex a cypher or cyphers, as if brought down from the Dividend, and divide as before; and thus it is that fractions arise, viz. from the remainders in division.

5th. When any figure of the Dividend is taken down, or annexed, as before shewn, and the Divisor cannot be taken in the number thus increased; put 0 in the Quotient, and take down, or annex, another figure; and proceed in this manner, until the Divisor can be taken from the number.

6th. When fractions are concerned: From the number of fractional places used in the Dividend, take those in the Divisor; count the number of remaining places from the right of the Quotient, put the mark there; and those to the left are integers, those to the right fractions.

7th. If there arise not so many places in the Quotient as the 6th article requires, supply the places wanting with cyphers on the left, and to those prefix the fractional mark.

Ex. I. Divide 3656 f. among 8 persons.

Set the given numbers as in Art. 1st. Now the two left hand figures contain 8; then say 8 is contained in 36, 4 times; set 4 in the Quotient, and say 4 times 8 is 32, set 32 under 36, subtract, there remains 4, to which bring down the next figure of the Dividend 5, makes 45; then say 8 is contained in 45, 5 times; set 5 in the Quotient, and say 5 times 8 is 40; write 40 under 45, subtract, and to the remainder 5 take down 6, the next figure of the Dividend, makes 56; then say 8 is contained in 56, 7 times; write 7 in the Quotient, multiply 8 by 7 makes 56, which write and the other 56, and subtracting there remains 0.5

under the other 56, and subtracting there remains 0: So it may be concluded, that 3656 contains 8, 457 times: Or, if 3656 f. be divided among 8 persons, the share of each will be 457 f.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® Ex. II.

Ex.	IL Divide 3125 25)3125(125	by 25.	
	25		
	62		
	50		
	125.		
	125		
	0		

Ex. III. Divide 95269 by 47.
47)95269(2027
94

See precept 5th. 126
94

329
329

Ex. IV. Divide 5859 by 124.

124)5859(47,25
496

899
868

310 for the Remaind.

248 See precept 4th.
620
620

See precept 5th. 3768
3768

Ex. VI. Divide 2,3569 by 673,4.
673,4)2,3569(35
20202 Quot. 0,0035

33670 See precepts 33670 4th, 6th, 7th. In Ex. VI. the 4 fractional places given in the Dividend, and the 0 used with the Remainder, make 5 fractional places; from which I place in the Divisor being taken, leaves 4 fractional places for the Quotient; but in the Quotient are

only the two places 35, therefore 2 cyphers are prefixed, and makes, 0035, before which, for form sake, an 0 is set for the place of units.

- 33. When the Divisor does not exceed the number 12, the Division may be performed in one line; by making the Multiplication and Subtraction mentally, or in the mind, and carrying the Remainder, as a many tens, to the next figure.
- 34. In all operations of Division, it must be observed, that the Product of the Divisor by the Quotient figure must not exceed that part of the Dividend then using; and the Remainder, by subtracting the Product, must ever be less than the Divisor.

As the Quotient multiplied by the Divisor makes the Dividend; So the Product of two numbers being divided by one of them, will give the other; that is, Division is proved by Multiplication, and Multiplication is proved by Division.

35. SECTION VI. REDUCTION.

REDUCTION is the method of reducing numbers from one name, or denomination, to another; retaining the same value.

CASE I. To reduce a number confisting of several names, to their least name.

RULE 1st. Multiply the first, or greater name, by the parts which an unit of that name contains of the next less name; adding to the Pro-

duct the parts of the fecond name in the given number.

2d. Multiply this sum by the number of times that an unit of the next less name is contained in one of the second name; adding to the Product the parts of the third name contained in the given number: And thus proceed, until the least name in the given number is arrived at.

Ex. I. In 23f. 14s. 61/2 d. how | Ex. II. In 8lb. 1002. of gold, how many grains? many farthings? lb. oz. 5. 14 61 8 10 23 12 106 Ounces. 474 Shillings. 20 5694 Pence. 2120 Pennyweights. Answer 22778 Farthings. 8480 4240 50880 Grains.

Ex. III. In a cannon weighing 2 Tons, 14C. 3qrs. 19lb. how many pounds?

T. C. Qrs. lb.

Ex. IV. In 36 deg. 48'. 27". 56".

how many thirds?

36 48 27 56

60

2208 Minutes.
60

132507 Seconds.

An explanation of the first Ex. will make all the rest plain. Since pounds is the greatest name in the given number, and an unit thereof contains 20 of the next less name, or shillings; therefore multiply the pounds by 20, saying 0 times 3 is 0, to which adding the 4 in the 14s. makes 4; then 2 times 3 is 6, and the one, in the place of tens in the shillings, makes 7; then 2 times 2 is 4: Now multiply 474s. by 12, saying 12 times 4 is 48, and the 6 in the pence makes 54; write 4 and carry 5; then 12 times 7 is 84 and 5 is 89, &c. Lastly, multiply the 5694 pence by 4, saying 4 times 4 is 16, and the two farthings in the given number is 18; write 8 and carry 1, &c.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® 36. CASE

26. CASE II. A number of an inferior name being given; to find how many of each superior denomination are contained in it.

RULE 1st. Divide the given number, by the number of times that one of its units is contained in an unit of the next superior name.

2d. Divide this Quotient by the parts making one of the next name. 3d. Divide this Quotient by the parts making one of the next name: And proceed in this manner, until the highest name is obtained.

4th. Then the last Quotient, and the several remainders, will be the

parts of the different names contained in the given number.

Ex. I. In 22778 farthings, how Ex. II. In 7950476 thirds of a demany pounds, shillings, and pence? 4)22778(2 Farthings. 12) 5694(6 Pence. 2,0) 47.4(14 Shillings. 23 Pounds. Answer 23 f. 14s. 6 1 d.

Ex. III. In 6151 pounds, how many Tons, Hundreds, Quarters, Pounds? 28)6151(219 56 4)219(3 Qrs. 55 2,0)5,4(14 C. Tons. 271

10 Pounds. Answer 2T. 14C. 3Qrs. 19lb.

252

gree, how many o ! 11 111.2 6,0)795047,6(56 Thirds. 6,0)13250,7(27 Seconds. 6,0) 220,8(48 Minutes. 36 Degrees. Answer 36°. 48'. 27". 56".

Ex. IV. In 50880 grains, how many Pounds, Ounces, Pennyweights, Grs. 24)50880(2120

Answer 8lb. 10 oz.

Explanation of Ex. I. Since 4 of the given number make one of the next name, pence, then 22778 divided by 4, give 5694 pence, and a Remainder of 2 farthings; then 5694 pence divided by 12, the number of pence in one of the next name, shillings, the Quotient is 474 shillings, and a Remainder of 6 pence; then 474 shillings divided by 20, the number of shillings in one of the next name, pounds, the Quotient is 23 pounds, and a Remainder of 14 shillings. And by the 4th precept, the answer is collected.

A like operation will folve the other examples, having regard to the increase of the different names.

37. In any Division, if the Divisor has one or more cyphers on the right hand, those cyphers may be pointed off; but then as many places must be pointed off from the Dividend, which places are not to be divided, but annexed to the right hand of the Remainder. See the above examples. Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft &S. CASE

38. CASE III. To reduce a vulgar fraction to its equivalent decimal fraction.

RULE. To the Numerator annex one or more cyphers, divide this by the Denominator, and the Quotient will be the fraction fought.

If the Division does not end when fix figures are found in the Quotient, the work need not be carried any farther.

Exam. I. To reduce 15 to its equivalent decimal fraction.

Here 423 the Denominator is made the Divisor, and 15 the Numerator is set for the Dividend, to which annexing a cypher or two for fractional places, feek how often the Divisor can be had in 15, the integral part of the Dividend; and as it cannot be taken, put o in the Quotient for the place of units: Then taking in one fractional place, feek how oft the Divisor can be had in 150, fay 0 times, and put another o in the Quotient for the place of

15,00(0,0	3546
 1 2 6 9	
2310	
1692	
2580	
2538	
420	

primes: Now taking in two fractional places to the 15, the Divisor will be contained in it thrice, and thus proceed until the Division ends, or till 6 places arise in the Qotient: But in this example, as the 6th place would be o, it is omitted, because cyphers on the right hand of decimal fractions are of no fignification, as will evidently appear, Notation of Fractions being well understood.

Ex. II. Reduce 1/2 to a decimal Ex. III. Reduce 1/4 to a decimal fraction. 2)1,0(0,5 Answer.

fraction. 4)1,00(0,25 Answer.

Ex. IV. Reduce \(\frac{3}{4}\) to a decimal Ex. V. Reduce \(\frac{5}{8}\) to a decimal fraction. 4)3,00(0,75 Answer.

fraction. 8)5,000(0,62; Answer.

Ex. VI. Reduce 1/3 to a decimal Ex. VII. Reduce 7/2 to a decimal fraction. 3)1,00(0,33, &c. Answer.

fraction. 12)7,0000(0,5833 &c. Answ.

39. In the two last Quotients, it may be observed, that 3 would con tinually arise; such decimal fractions are called circulating, or recurring fractions: These have a peculiar kind of operation belonging to them, which the inquisitive reader will find in a book intitled A General Treatise of Mensuration*, the third edition, published in the year 1767; and also in other books.

[.] By the Author of these Elements.

40. CASE IV. To reduce a number consisting of different names, to a decimal fraction of its greatest name.

RULE 1st. Write the given names orderly under one another, the least name being uppermost; and on their left side draw a line: Let these be reckoned as Dividends.

2d. Against each name, on the left hand, write the number making one of its next superior name: And let these be the Divisors to the former Dividends.

3d. Begin with the upper one, and write the Quotient of each division as fractions, on the right of the Dividend next below it; then let this mixed number be divided by its Divisor, &c.

And the last Quotient will be the decimal fraction fought.

Ex. I. Reduce 15s. 93 d. to the fractional part of a pound sterling.

First set the three farthings, the 9 pence, the 15 shillings and o pounds under one another; and against the far- 12 9,75 things fet 4, against the pence set 12, and against the 20 15,8125 shillings, 20; then the three with cyphers supposed to be annexed, being divided by 4, the Quotient ,75 is written on the right hand of the 9 pence; and the mixed number 9,75 with cyphers annexed as they are wanted, being divided by 12, the Quotient ,8125 is written on the right hand of the 15s, then this mixed number 15,8125 being divided by 20, the Quotient 0,790625 f. is the answer.

Ex. II. Reduce 1s. 21 d. to the frac- Ex. III. Reduce 48'. 17". 53". to tional part of a pound sterling.

> 12 2,25 20 1,1875 0,059375

Answer 11. 2 4 d. =0,059375 L.

Ex. IV. Reduce 8 oz. 15 divt. 18 gr. to the fractional part of a pound troy.

15,75 8,7875 12 0.732291

Anf. 80z. 15dwt. 18 gr. =0,732291lb.

41. Here because 24 is a number too great to divide by in one line, therefore it is broken into the parts 4 and 6, which multiplied together make 24.

the fractional part of a degree.

60 53 60 17,883333 60 48,298055 0,804967

Answ. 48'. 17". 53". =0,804967 Deg.

Ex. V. Reduce 3 grs. 19 lb. 1402. to the fractional part of a G. weight.

> 28 { 4 19,875 7 (4.96875 3,709821 0,927155

Answ. 3gr. 19lb. 1402=0,927455 C.

Here the 16 is broken into the numbers 4 and 4; and 28 into 4 and 7; and 14 is divided by 4; and the Quotient 3,5 by 4, &c.

. 42. CASE V. To reduce a decimal fraction of a superior name, to its value in inferior denominations.

RULE 1st. Multiply the given fraction by the number that an unit of its name contains units of the next leffer name; from the right hand of the Product point off as many places as there are in the given fraction.

2d. Multiply the places, so pointed off, by as many as an unit of this

name contains of the next less name; point off as before.

And thus proceed until the multiplication is made by the least name. 3d. Then the integers, or the numbers on the left of the distinguishing marks in each Product, will be the parts in each name, which together are equal to the given fraction.

Example I. What number of shillings, pence, and farthings, are equal in

value to 0,790625f. Sterling.

Here an unit of the given name f. contains 20 of the next less name, shillings; then multiplying by 20, and pointing off 6 places on the right, because the given number 0,790625 contains 6 fractional places, the Product is 15,812500 shillings; then the fractions of this number, viz. 812500 multiplied by 12, the number that an unit of this name contains of the next less name,

£. 0,790625 1. 15,812500 far. 3,000000

and the product pointed as before, there arises 9,750000 pence; the fractions of this number multiplied by 4, gives 3,000000 farthings; then the parts pointed off on the left, viz. 15s. 9 d. are the value of the given fraction.

EXAMPLE II. What is the value of EXAMPLE III. What is the value of 0,056285f. Sterling? 0,58695 degrees?

Deg. 0,58695 Min. 35,217 00 Sec. 13,020 Thirds -0,120

Example IV. What is the value of Example V. What is the value of 0,732291lb. troy?

This example worked as above, by multiplying by 12, 20, 24, the ing by 4, 28, 16, the answer will value will be found to be

80z. 15 dwts. 18 gr. nearly.

0,927455 part of a C. weight?

By operating as above, multiplybe

3 qrs. 19lb. 14oz. nearly.

QUESTIONS to exercise the preceding rules. 43.

QUEST. I. A Sloop with the cap- 1 tain and 26 hands take a prize which men got by plunder 321 f. How much fold for 1578 f. of which each seaman was the Share of each? had 45 f. and the captain the rest: How much was his share?

26 Men 45 f. to each 130 104

fubtract 1170 f. the crew's share. from 1578 L. the whole prize.

remains 408 f. the captain's share.

QUEST. III. A feaman, whose wages are 35s. 6d. a month, returns home at the end of 29 months; he having taken up 12f. 18s.: How much has he to receive?

mult. by 12

425 pence a month, mult. by 29 months,

3834 852

12)12354 pence

2,0) 102,9 6d.

from 51 L. 91. 6d. = wages, 12 f. 18s. take cd. received,

remains 38 f. 11s. 6d. to receive,

QUEST. V. In 306 crowns, how many half crowns and pence? Answer \ 612 half crowns. 18360 pence.

QUEST. VII. A Seaman's Share of a prize was 14 guineas, 32 moidores, 12 thirty-fix shillings pieces, and 52 pistoles at 17s. each: How much sterling did the whole come to?

Answer 123 L. 145.

QUEST. II. A boat's crew of 15

15)321(21£. 21 15

remains 6 £. which mult. by 20s. in 1 f.

> 15) 1201. (85. 120

Answer 21 f. 8s. to each.

QUEST. IV. Six mess-mates, who propose to live well during an East-India voyage of 22 months, agree to expend among them 5s. a day, besides the ship's allowance: Now one of them having but 25s. a month, how will matters stand with him at the end of the voyage?

Now 28 days, at 5 s. a day, makes 140s. or 7f, a month; which for 22 months, is 154f.

Then a fixth part of 154£. is

25 f. 13s. 4d. for each man. Also 25s. a month for 22 months makes 27 f. 10s. for wages; which will overpay his expences, by If.

16s. 8d.

QUEST. VI. In 30 chalders of coals, each of 36 bushels, how many pecks?

Answer 4320 pecks.

QUEST. VIII. Suppose a ship fails 5½ miles an hour for 14 days: How many degrees and minutes has fee failed in the whole; 60 fea miles making one degree?

Answer 30 deg. 48 min. Univ Calif - DigQized by Microsoft ® SEC-

SECTION VII. OF PROPORTION: Or, THE RULE OF THREE.

44. Four numbers are said to be proportional, when by comparing them together by two and two, they either give equal Products or equal Quotients.

Suppose these four numbers 3 8 12 32

In comparing them together by multiplication,

The Product of 3 and 8 is 24; of 12 and 32 is 384, unequal.

of 3 and 12 is 36; of 8 and 32 is 256, unequal.

of 3 and 32 is 96; of 8 and 12 is 96, equal.

Therefore 3 8 12 32, are called proportional numbers.

Now let them be compared together by division.

The Quotient of 8 by 3 is 2,6&c. of 32 by 12 is 2,6&c. equal.

of 12 by 3 is 4 of 32 by 8 is 4, equal.

of 32 by 3 is 10,6&c. of 12 by 8 is 1,5, unequal.

Therefore by this comparison, the numbers are said to be proportional.

In this kind of comparing four numbers together, there is no need to try for more equal Products, or Quotients, than one fet of either fort; for either case will determine the proportionality independent of the other.

But it must be observed, that among sour proportional numbers, there will be but one set of equal Products, and two sets of equal Quotients, the smaller numbers being Divisors.

45. When four numbers are to be written as proportionals, they must be placed in such order, that the Product of the first and sourth be equal

to the Product of the second and third.

A question is said to belong to the Rule of Three, when three numbers or terms are given to find a fourth proportional, which is the answer to the question.

And in order to resolve such questions, the three given terms must be first placed in a proper order, which is called stating the terms of the

question.

46. Questions in the Rule of Three are stated, and resolved by the fol-

lowing precepts.

rst. Consider of what kind the fourth term, or number sought, will be, whether money, weight, measure, time, &c. and among the three numbers given in the question let that which is of the same kind with what is required be placed for the third term.

2d. From the nature of the question, determine whether the number fought will be greater or less than the number which is placed for the third

term.

3d. If the fourth term will be greater than the third, fet the greater of the remaining two terms for the fecond, and the less for the first.

But if the fourth term is to be less than the third, set the greater of the

remaining two terms for the first, and the less for the second.

Then in either case, the given three terms are stated.

4th. Reduce those terms which consist of more names than one, to one name; and observe that the first and second terms are always to be of the same name.

5th. Multiply the second and third terms together, divide the product by the first term, and the Quetient will be the sourch term, of the same name the third term was reduced to.

47. QUEST. I. If 4 yards of cloth cost 18s. what will 24 yards cost?

Here it is plain, that the term fought, or the worth of 24 yards, will be money; therefore the given money 18s. is fet for the third term; and as the worth of 24 yards must be greater than the worth of 4 yards, therefore the 24 is fet for the 2d term, and the 4 for the 1st. Then the 2d term 24 being multiplied by the 3d, 18, the Product is 432, which divided by the 1st term 4, the Quotient or 4th term is 108, which are shillings, the same name of the 3d term; then 108 shillings divided by 20, gives 5£. 8s.

Answer 5 f. 8 s.

QUEST. II. If I lend 200 f. for 12 months, how long ought I to have the use of 150 f. to recompence me?

Here the answer or 4th term is to be time; therefore let 12 months, the given time, be set for the 3d term: Now it is evident, that the 150 f. being less than the 200 f. must be kept a longer time, and so the 4th term will be greater than the 3d term: Therefore the 200 is put for the 2d term, and the 150 for the 1st. Then the 2d term multiplied by the 3d, the Product will be

2400; which being divided by the 1st term, the Quotient 16 is the 4th term; and because the 3d term was months, the 4th term will be months.

Quest. III. What will 1836lb. of raisins come to, at the rate of 6s.

8 d. for 24 lb. ?

Here as money is the thing fought, money must be the 3d term: And as 6s. 8d. consists of two names, they must be reduced to one name, viz. pence.

1b. 1b. s. d. 24 —
$$1836$$
 — 6 8 6 8 1836 12 80 8 0 8 0 8 0 8 0 8 0 8 0 8 0 8 0 9 0

Here the 2d term being multiplied by the 3d, and the Product divided by the first, the quotient is 6120 pence; which being valued, gives 25 £. 105.

QUEST. IV. If 20 yards of cloth, 5 quarters wide, will ferve to hang a room: How many yards of 4 quarters wide will ferve to hang the same room?

Here yards of length are required; then 20 yards must be the 3d term.

QUEST. V. What will 420 yards of cloth come to, at 14s. 10 4 d. for 1 ell English?

The term fought being money, the 14s. 10 \(\frac{1}{4}\)d. must be the 3d term, and be reduced to farthings; also the 1st and 2d terms are to be reduced to quarters of a yard.

Answer 250 f. 55.
The Divisor 5 being a single digit, the Quot. is written under the Divid.

QUEST. VI. A owes to B 463 f. but compounds for 7s. 6d. in the pound: How much must B receive for his debt?

Here composition money is the thing fought; then the 3d term must be the composition money, viz. 7s. 6d.

48. As it will be more convenient in most cases to reduce such numbers, or terms, which consist of several names, to the fractional parts of their greatest name, than to reduce them to their lowest name; therefore in the solution of some of the following questions, the inferior parts of the given terms are reduced by Case IV. of Reduction; and the answers are valued by Case V. Quest.

QUEST. VII. If 8lb. of pepper tost 4s. 8d.: What will 7G. 3qrs. 14lb. come to at that rate?

1b. C. qrs. 1b. s. 8 --- 7 - 4 12 56 31 23. 8821b. . 56 262 5292 62' 4410 882 8)49392 12)6174 6d. 2,0)51,4 145.

Answer 25 f. 14s. 6 d.

QUEST. IX. What is the interest of 584f. for a year, at 5 per cent. per annum: Or at the rate of 5f. for the use of 100f. for a year?

Here interest is the term required; therefore 5£, the interest of 100£. is to be the 3d term: And as the 4th term, or the interest of 584£. is greater than the 3d term; then the 2d term is to be greater than the 1st.

Answer 29 L. 4s.
QUEST. XI. What is the interest
of 542 L. 10s. for 219 days, at 5 L.
per cent. per annum?

To folve this question, find the interest for 1 year; multiply this interest by 219, and divide the Product by 365, the Quotient will be the answer; and is 16 f. 5s. 6d.

QUEST. VIII. One bought 4. Hhds. of sugar, each containing 6 C. 2 qrs. 14 lb. at 2 f. 8 s. 6 d. for each C. weight: What did the whole come to?

C. C. qrs. lb. f. s. d.

Now 1 C. weight is 112lb.
And 4 Hh. at 6C. 2q. 14lb=2968lb.
Also 2f. 8s. 6d. is 582d.
Then the Product of the 2d and 3d terms is 1727376.
Which divided by the 1st term 112, the Quotient is 15423 pence, whose value is 64f. 5s. 3d.

QUEST. X. What is the interest of 387 f. 12 s. for three years and 4 months, at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. per annum?

Find the interest for 1 year; then thrice that, together with $\frac{1}{3}$ of one year, will be the interest fought.

Answer 45 £. 41. 5 d.

QUEST. XII. For how long must 487 f. 10s. be at simple interest, at 41 f. per cent. per annum. to gain 95 f. 1s. 3d.?

Find what will be the interest of 487 £. 10s. for 1 year; divide 95 £. 1s. 3d. by this interest, and the Quotient will be 45 years.

of wine, and is allowed 6 months cre- pieces of kersey, each piece containing dit: But for ready money gets it 6d. 34 ells Flemish, at the rate of 8 s. in a gallon cheaper: How much did 4d. per ell English: What did the he fave by paying ready money?

Answer 44 L. 2 A

QUEST. XV. One bought 3 tons of oil for 153f. 9s. which having leaked 74 gallons, he would make the prime-cost of the remainder: How must it be sold per gallon?

Now 1 T. = 252 Gall. And 3 T. = 756 Subtract the gallons leaked = 74

Remains 682

G. G. Then 682 - 1 - 153,45 Answer 4s. 6d. a gallon.

QUEST. XVII. At 13f. for 100 lb. of goods: What will 895 lb. come to, allowing 4lb. upon every 100lb. for tret, or waste?

Since 4lb. is to be allowed on the 100lb. therefore 104lb. is given for 100.

lb. lb. Then 104 — 895 — 13

Answer 111 £. 171. 6 d.

QUEST. XIX. If 100 pounds of Jugar be worth 36s. 8d. What will be the worth of 875lb. rebating 4lb. upon every 100lb. for tare?

Here the buyer has 100lb. on paying for 96lb.

Ib. lb. Then 100 - 96 - 875 And the 4th term will be 840lb.

Also 100 -- 840 -- 1,833333 Then the 4th term will be 15 L. 81. and so much will the sugar come Then 81) 155,25 (1,916666 L.

QUEST. XIII. One bought 14 pipes | QUEST. XIV. A clothier fold 50 whole come to?

Answer 425 L.

QUEST. XVI. A broker fold 3 of 3 of a ship for 147 f. 11s. 3d.: How much was the whole ship valued at?

Now $\frac{2}{5}$ of $\frac{3}{4} = \frac{2}{5} \times \frac{3}{4} = \frac{6}{25} = \frac{3}{15}$ by art. 38. For $2 \times 3 = 6$, a new numerator. And 5 × 4=20, a new denominator. Also 147 L. 111. 3d.=147,5625. art.

share share Then 0,3-1-147,5625 art. 46.

Answer 491 L. 17 s. 6 d.

QUEST. XVIII. One has cloth which cost 2 s. 8 d. a yard: For how much must it be fold a yard on 3 months credit, to gain 25 f. per cent. per annum?

mon. mon. L. First 12 - 3 - 25 - 6,25

Secondly 100-6,25-0,133333 By multiplying and dividing, the 4th term will be found 2d. Then 2s. 8d. +2d. =2s. 10d. a yard, the felling price.

QUEST. XX. A chapman bought 81 kerseys for 135 f.: How must be sell them per piece to gain 15f. per cent?

Find how much 135£. will be advanced to, at 15 f. per cent.

Then this fum divided by 81 will be the felling price of each piece.

£. £. Now 100 - 115 - 135 - 155,25 Answer I L. 18s. 4d. a-piece.

QUEST. XXI. A merchant who is to receive a sum of money, is offered a parcel of cloths at 2s. 10d. a yard on ducats at 6s. 4d. which are worth but 3 months credit, found he had gained 6s. 21d. or chequins at 8s. 2d. each, 25f. per cent. per annum: What did that are worth but 8s: By which specie the cloth cost per yard? will be sustain the least loss?

6s.
$$2\frac{1}{2}d$$
.=74, 5d.
8s. 0 d .=96
6s. 4 d .=76
8s. 2 d .=98

} the real value.

But the chequins are valued at 98 d. Therefore the ducats are most advantageous.

QUEST. XXIII. A person wants 750 pieces of foreign coin, each worth 11s. Ad. How much will they come to, allowing the broker the worth of 2 pieces upon every 100?

Now 100 -- 102 -- 750 -- 765. He must pay for 765 pieces, which will come to 433 f. 10s.

QUEST. XXV. A grocer bought 44 C. of pepper for 15£. 17s. 4d. which proving to be damaged, he is willing to lose 121f. per cent. how much must be sell it a lb.?

Since he is to lose 121 per cent. he must take 87f. 10s. for 100f. Now diminish the 15f. 17s. 4d. in this proportion, and this fum divided by the pounds in 4½ C. will give 7d. for what each pound is to be fold at.

QUEST. XXII. One who had fold

mo.
$$f$$
. mo. f .
Now 12—25—3—6,25
And 100+6,25=106,25 f .
 f . f . f .
Then 106,25—100—0,14166

The fourth term to which will be a fraction, the value of which will be 2s. 8d. which is the prime cost per yard of the cloth.

QUEST. XXIV. A gentleman would exchange 729 pieces of 4s. 2d. each into sterling money: How much will he receive for them, allowing the broker 11f. per cent.?

P. P. £. Now 1-729-0,208333-151,875 the worth of the pieces. Then 101,25—100—151,875—150 f. He will receive 150f. for them.

QUEST. XXVI. Suppose 42 gallons of honey be valued at 2f. and the duty is 15f. per cent. on this value, and a drawback of 5f. per cent. on the duty for prompt payment: What will the ready money duty of 672 gallons come to?

Now 42G.: 672G.:: 2f.: 32f. And 100£.: 15£.:: 32£.:4,8£. Also 1006.: 956.:: 4,86.: 4,566.

Answer 46. 111. 21d.

The Rule of Proportion is of almost universal use in all business where computation is required; as in buying and felling, values of flocks and their dividends; the interest and discount of money; the customs and duties on goods, &c. But the designed brevity of this book will not permit farther illustrations.

SECTION VIII. OF THE POWERS OF NUMBERS, AND OF THEIR ROOTS.

49. The Power of a number, is a product arifing by multiplying that number by itself, the product by the same number, this product by the same number again, &c. to any number of multiplications.

50. The given number is called the first power or root.

The Product of the 1st power by itself, is the second power, or square. The Product of the 2d power by the 1st, is the 3d power, or cube. The Product of the 3d power by the 1st, is the 4th power, &c.

51. Here follow the 1st, 2d, and 3d powers of the nine digits.

Roots, or 1st power 3 4 9 16 1 2 Squares, or 2d power 1 4 36 25 49 Cubes, or 3d power 1 8 27 64 125 216 343 512

Ex. I. What is the 2d power, or Ex. II. What is the 3d power, or Square of the number 24?

cube of 38?

24×24=576 is the 2d power.

Now $38 \times 38 = 1444$ the 2d power. Then 1444 × 38 = 54872 the 3d power.

The figure, or number, shewing the name of any power, is called the

index of that power. .

Thus I is the index of the first power: 2 is the index of the 2d power; 3 of the third power, &c. Also $\frac{1}{3}$ is the index of the square root; $\frac{1}{3}$, the index of the cube root, &c.

52. Any number may be confidered as a power of some other number. Thus 64 may be taken as the 2d power of 8, and the third power of

4, &c.

53. The root of a given number, confidered as a power, is a number which being raifed to the index of that power, will either be equal to the given number, or approach very near to it.

To extract the Square Root of a given number. 54.

RULE Ist. Begin at the unit's place, put a point over it, and also over every next figure but one, reckoning to the left for integers, and to the right for fractions; and there will be as many integer places in the root, as there are points over the integers in the given number.

The figure under a point, with its left-hand place, is called a period.

2d. Under the left-hand period write the greatest square contained in it, and fet the root thereof in the Quotient; subtract the square, and to the remainder bring down the next period, as in Division.

3d. On the left of this Remainder write the double of the Root or Quotient for a Divisor; seek how often this may be had in the Remainder, except the right-hand place; write what arifeth both in the Root, and on the right of the Divisor.

4th. Multiply this increased Divisor by the last Quotient-figure; subtract, and to the Remainder bring down the next period; double the Root for a Divisor, and proceed as before.

55. Fractional places will arise in the Root, by annexing to the Re-

mainders, periods of two cyphers each, and renewing the operation. $\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{X}_{t}}$

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

Ex. I. What is the Square Root of 1444?

Put a point over the units place 4, and also over the place of 100s. Now the number confists of 2 periods, and will have 2 integer places in the Root: Then the greatest Square in 14, the lest-hand period, is 9, and its Root is 3; write 9 under the period, and three in the Root; now 9 from 14 leaves 5, to which annex the next period 44; the Root 3 doubled makes 6,

1444 (38 Root. 9 68) 544 544

next period 44; the Root 3 doubled makes 6, which in 54 is contained 8 times, annex 8 to the 3 in the Quotient, and to the Divifor 6, makes the Root 38 and the Divifor 68; then 8 times 68 is 544; and there remaining 0, on subtraction, it may be concluded, that 38 is the true Root.

Ex. II. What is the Square Root of 36372961?

Ex. IV. What is the Square Root of 24681024?
Answer 4968.

Ex. VI. What is the Square Root of 76395820?

68291196

Ex. III. What is the Square Root of 1,0609?

1,0609 (1,03 Root.

203) 0609
609

Ex. V. What is the Square Root of 911236798,794365?
Answer 30186,699, &c.

Here the products are omitted, the multiplication and fubtraction being made in the mind.

In the VIth Example, after all the periods given were brought down, there remained 8220, to which a period of two cyphers was annexed, and the operation renewed, and continued until 4 decimal places were obtained in the Root; every period brought down giving one place.

To extract the Cube Root of a given Number. 56.

RULE 1st. Over the unit place of the given number put a point, and also over every third figure from the unit place, to the left for integers, and to the right for fractions; and the root will have as many integer places, as there are points, or periods, in the integral part of the given number.

2d. Under the left hand period, write the greatest Cube it contains, the root of which fet in the Quotient: Subtract the Cube from the period, and to the Remainder annex the remaining periods; call this the

Resolvend.

3d. To the Quotient annex as many cyphers as there were periods

remaining; call this the Root.

4th. Divide the Resolvend by the Root, add the Quotient to thrice the Square of the Root, let the Sum be a Divisor to the Resolvend, and the Quotient-figures annexed to the right of the first Root, without the cyphers, will be the Cube Root fought.

5th. If the second figure of the Root be 1, or 0; then generally 3 or 4 figures of the Root will be obtained at the first operation: But if the second figure exceeds 2, it will be best to find only two places at first.

6th. To renew the operation; subtract the Cube of the figures found in the Root from the given number; then form a Divisor, and divide as directed in the fourth precept; and this will give the Root true to 5 or fix places: For each operation commonly triples the figures found in the last Root.

What is the Cube Root of 9800344?

Put a point over the unit place 4, another over the place of thousands, and another over that of millions; and because there are 3 points, there will be 3 places in the Root. Under 2,00) 18003,44 Resolvend. the left hand period 9, write 8, the greatest Cube in it, and its Root 2 write in the Quotient, then subtracting, the Refolvend is 1800344: Now because there are two periods remaining, therefore two cyphers annexed to the Root 2, make it 200, by which dividing the Resolvend, the Quotient is 9001; also the square of 200 is 40000, the triple thereof 120000 being added to 9001, makes 129001

9800344(2 9001 = Quotient. 1 20000 = thrice the Sq. of the R. 129001)1800344(14 129001 510344 516004 The Root is 214.

for a Divisor, by which dividing 1800344, the Quotient is 14 nearly, and is taken as 14, because it is much nearer to it than to 13; now 14 being annexed to the former Root 2, makes 214, the Root fought.

For 214 × 214 × 214 = 9800344.

Book I.

Ex. II. What is the Cube Root of 518749442875?

In this example, because 3 periods were remaining, and consequently 3 places more to be found; therefore in the last division a point is put over the 3d place from the right hand, and the Divisor is first to be tried in the Dividend as far as this point, in which as it cannot be taken, 0 is put in the Quotient, &c. here the last figure 5 is too much, but it is much nearer to 5 than to 4; then 035 annexed to the first Root 8, makes 8035 for the Root.

Ex. III. What is the Gube Root of 114604290,028?

114 64	604290,028		48 48
4,00) 50	0604290		384
	6510		192
60	6510) 50604	4290 (8	2304
Here 480 is ta	ken for the I	Root at the first operation.	18432
	14604290,0	28(48	110592
480)	8358,9 691200 =	The work of the Division is supposed to on a waste paper. the Quotient. = triple the Square of 480, viz. 230400>	
Divifor	699558,9)	4012290,028 (5736 34977945 5144955 4896912 248043 209807 38176	

57. Here, instead of bringing down the figures of the Dividend to the Remainders, the Divisor is lessened each time, by pointing off a place on the right; but regard is to be had to the carriage which will arise from the places thus omitted.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® SEC

SECTION IX. OF NUMERAL SERIES.

- 58. A rank of three or more numbers that increase or decrease by an uniform progression, is called a Numeral Series.
- 59. If the Progression is made by equal differences, that is by the constant addition or subtraction of the same number; the series is called an Arithmetic Progression.
- Thus \begin{cases}
 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 & & c. increasing by adding 1, 3 & 6 & 9 & 12 & 15 & 18 & 21 & 24 & 27 & & c. increasing by adding 3, 49 & 43 & 37 & 31 & 25 & 19 & 13 & 7 & 1 & & c. decreasing by subducting 6, are ranks of numbers in Arithmetic Progression: And of such ranks there may be an infinite variety.
- 60. If the Progression is made by a constant multiplication or division with the same number, the series is called a Geometric Progression.

- 61. The common Multiplier or Divisor is called the ratio.

 Thus 2 is the ratio in the 1st rank, 5 in the 2d rank, 3 is the ratio in the 3d rank, and 4 in the 4th rank.
- 62. In any feries of terms in Arithmetic Progression, the sum of any two terms, considered as extremes, is equal to the sum of any two terms taken as means equally distant from the extremes.

Thus in 3 terms (where the 1st and 3d are extremes, and the other the mean) viz. 6.9.12, then 6+12=9+9=18.

And in 4 terms, viz. 13.19.25.31.

Then 13+31=19+25=44.

may be an infinite variety.

Also in the terms 49 · 43 · 37 · 31 · 25 · 19 · 13 · 7 · 1. Then 49+1=43+7=37+13=31+19=25+25=50.

63. In a feries of terms in Geometric Progression, the Product of any two terms considered as extremes, is equal to the Product of any two intermediate equidistant terms considered as means.

```
Thus in 3 terms, viz. 5. 25 . 125 . Or 3 . 9 . 27.

Then 5 × 125 = 25 × 25 = 625. Also 3 × 27 = 9 × 9 = 81.

And in 4 terms 4 . 8 . 16 . 32.

Then 32 × 4 = 16 × 8 = 128.

Also in the terms 1 . 4 . 16 . 64 . 256 . 1024 . 4096 . 16384.

Then 16384 × 1 = 4096 × 4 = 1024 × 16 = 256 × 64 = 16384.
```

64. In any Arithmetic Progression, the sum of any two terms lessened by the first term; or their difference increased by the first term, will be a term also in that progression.

Thus in the Progression $1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 9 \cdot 11 \cdot 13 \cdot 15 \cdot 17 \cdot 19 \cdot 21 &c.$ Then 7+11=18, and 18-1=17 is a term of the Progression.

Mso 11-7=4, and 4+1=5 is a term of the Progression.

65. In any Geometric Progression, the product of any two terms divided by the first term; or the Quotient of any two terms multiplied by the first term, will give a term also in that series.

Thus in the Progression 3.6.12.24.48.96.192.384.768 &c.

Then $\frac{12 \times 96}{3} = 384$; and $\frac{192}{12} \times 3 = 48$, are terms in the Progression.

66. If over a series of terms in Geometric Progression, be written a series of terms in Arithmetic Progression, the first term of which is 0, and common difference is 1, term for term; then any term in the Arithmetic Series, will shew how far its corresponding term in the Geometric Series is distant from the first term.

Thus { 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 & c. Arithmetic Series. 1 3 9 27 81 243 729 & c. Geometric Series. Here 729 is distant from the 1st term, 6 terms; 243 is distant 5 terms, 81 is distant 4 terms.

67. The terms of the Arithmetical Series are called indices to the terms of the Geometric Series.

Thus 5 is the index to 243; 3 is the index to 27; 1 is the index to 3; &c.

68. PROBLEM I. In an Arithmetic Progression: Given the first term, the common difference, and the number of terms.

Required the last term.

RULE. Subtract I from the number of terms, multiply the remainder by the common difference; to the product add the first term, and the sum will be the last term.

Ex. I. Suppose 1 and 9 to be the first and second terms, of an Arithmetic Progression of 1074 terms: What is the last term?

Here 9-1=8 is the com. diff. Now 1074-1=1073. And $1073 \times 8=8584$. Then 8584+1=8585=last term.

Ex. II. A person agrees to discharge a certain debt in a year, by weekly payments, viz. the sirst week 5s, the 2d week 8s. &c. constantly increasing each week by 3s.: How much was the last payment?

5 = 1ft. term. Now 52 - 1 = 51. 3 = com. diff. And $51 \times 3 = 153$.

52=N° of terms. Then 153+5=1581.=7 £. 181.=last Payment.
69. Pro-

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

69. PROBLEM II. In an Arithmetic Progression: Given the first term, last term, and the number of terms.

Required the fum of all the terms.

RULE. Add the first and last terms together, the sum multiplied by half the number of terms, gives the fum of all the terms.

first 1000 numbers in their natural in a year by weekly payments equally order.

Here 1=1ft term, 1=com. diff. 1000 = No of terms, its 1 is 500. Now 1000+1=1001. $52=N^{\circ}$ of terms, its $\frac{1}{2}$ is 26. Then 1001 × 500=500500 is the fum Now 158+5=163. required.

Required the sum of the Ex. II. A debt is to be discharged increasing; the 1st to be 5s. and the last 7f. 18s. How much was the debt?

> Here 7f. 181 = 1581. = last term. Then 163×26=4238s.=211f. 18s. is the fum of the terms, or debt.

Ex. III. Suppose à basket and 500 stones were placed in a straight line, a yard distant from one another: Required in what time a man could bring them one by one to the basket, allowing him to walk at the rate of 3 miles an hour?

Between the basket and stones are 500 spaces, which is the number of terms. Now 500+1=501. Then 501 x250=125250=fum of the terms. But as he goes backwards and forwards, he walks 250500 yards. Which divided by 1760 (the yards in 1 mile) gives 142,329 miles. Which at 3 miles an hour, will take 47 h. 26 min. 35 feconds nearly.

70. PROBLEM III. In a Geometric Progression: Given the first term, the ratio and the last term.

Required the sum of all the terms.

RULE. Multiply the last term by the common ratio, from the Product fubtract the first term for a Dividend.

Subtract I from the ratio for a Divisor; then divide, and the Quotient will be the fum of all the terms.

Ex. I. Suppose the first term of a series to be 3, the ratio 3, and the last term 6561: Required the fum of all the terms.

Now 6561 = last term. 3=ratio. And Mult. by 3=ratio. Sub. 19683=Product. Rem. 2 = Divisor. Subtr. 3=first term. 10680=Dividend.

Then 2)19680 (9840 is the sum of all the terms.

Ex. II. Let the first term be 2, the second term 10, and the last term 156250: Required the sum of all the terms.

Here 2) 10 (5 is the common ratio. Now 156250 x 5 = 781250. And 781250-2=781248 = Dividend.

Also 5-1=4 the Divisor. Then 4) 781248 (195312 is the sum of all the terms.

71. PRO-

71. PROBLEM IV. In a Geometric Progression: Given the first term, the ratio, and the number of terms.

Required the last term.

RULE 1st. Write down 6 or 7 of the leading terms in the Geometric Series, and over them their Indices.

2d. Add together the most convenient indices to make an index less by

unity than the number expressing the place of the term sought.

3d. Multiply together the terms of the Geometric Series, belonging to

those indices which were added; make the product a dividend.

4th. Raife the first term to a power whose index is one less than the number of terms multiplied; make the result a Divisor to the former Dividend, and the Quotient will be the term sought.

Ex. I. What is the 12th term of a Geometric Series, the first term of which is 3, and second term is 6?

Now $\frac{6}{3} = 2$ is the common ratio.

The number of terms multiplied together is 2; and 2-1=1, the power to which the first term 3 is to be raised; but the first power of 3 is 3.

Then $\frac{18432}{3} = 6144$ is the 12th term of the given feries.

Ex. II. A Perfon being asked to dispose of a fine horse, said he would sell him on condition of having one farthing for the 1st nail in his shoes, two farthings for the 2d nail; one penny for the 3d nail; two pence for the 4th; four pence for the 5th; 8 pence for the 6th, &c.; doubling the price of every nail to 32, the number of nails in the four shoes: How much would that horse be sold for at that rate?

Here the first term is 1, the ratio 2, and the number of terms 32. First. To find the last term.

Now $\begin{cases} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & c. \text{ Indices.} \\ 1 & 2 & 4 & 8 & 16 & 32 & 64 & 123 & 256 & c. \text{ Geometric terms.} \end{cases}$ And 31 is the index to the 32d term. Then 8+8=16; 16+8=24; 24+7=31.

The 1st term being 1, any power thereof is 1; so the 4th article of the rule is useless in this question.

Now 256 x 256 = 65536 is the 17th term.

65536×256=16777216 is the 25th term. 16777216×128=2147483648 is the 32d term.

2-1=1) 4.94967295 the fum of the terms: or the price, in farthings, of

Aniwer 4473924 L. 51. 34d.

Vol. I. Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® SEC-

SECTION X. OF LOGARITHMS.

72. LOGARITHMS are a series of numbers so contrived, that by them the work of multiplication may be performed by addition; and the operation of division may be done by subtraction.

73. Or, Logarithms are the Indices to a series of numbers in Geome-

trical Progression.

Where the same Indices serve equally for any Geometric Series.

74. Hence it is evident, there may be as many kinds of Indices or Lo-

garithms, as there can be taken kinds of Geometric Series.

But the Logarithms most convenient for common uses, are those adapted to a Geometric Series increasing in a tenfold Progression, as in the last of

the examples above.

75. In the Geometric Series 1.10.100.1000. &c. between the terms 1 and 10, if the numbers 2.3.4.5.6.7.8.9 were interposed, to them might Indices be also adapted in an Arithmetic Progression, suited to the terms interposed between 1 and 10, considered as a Geometric Progression: Also proper Indices may be found to all the numbers that can be interposed between any two terms of the Geometric Series.

But it is evident that all the Indices to the numbers under 10 must be less than 1; that is, are fractions: Those to the numbers between 10 and 100 must fall between 1 and 2; that is, are mixed numbers consisting of 1 and some fraction: And so the Indices to the numbers between 100 and 1000 will fall between 2 and 3; that is, are mixed numbers consisting of

two and some fraction: And so of the other Indices.

76. Hereafter, the integral part only of these Indices will be called the Index; and the fractional part will be called the Logarithm: And the computing of those fractional parts is called the making of Logarithms; the most troublesome part of this work is to make the Logarithms of the prime numbers; that is, of such numbers which cannot be divided by any other number than by itself and unity.

77. To find the Logarithms of prime numbers.

Rule ist. Let the sum of the proposed number and its next less number be called A.

2d. Divide 0,868588963 * by A, reserve the Quotient.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® 3d. Divide

^{*} The number 0,868588963 is the Quotient of 2 divided by 2,302585093, which is the Logarithm of 10, according to the first form of the Lord Nepier, who was the inventor of Logarithms. The manner by which Nepier's Log. of 10 is found, may be seen in many books of Algebra; but is here omitted, because this treatise does not contain the elements of that science: However, those who have not opportunity to enter thoroughly into this subject, had better grant the truth of one number, and thereby be enabled to try the accuracy of any Logarithm in the tables, than to receive those tables as truly computed, without any means of examining the certainty thereof.

3d. Divide the reserved Quotient by the Square of A, reserve this Quotient.

4th. Divide the last reserved Quotient by the Square of A, reserving the Quotient; and thus proceed as long as division can be made.

5th. Write the referved Quotients orderly under one another, the first

being uppermost.

6th. Divide these Quotients respectively by the odd numbers 1.3.5. 7.9.11, &c. that is, divide the first reserved Quotient by 1, the 2d by 3, the 3d by 5, the 4th by 7, &c. let these Quotients be written orderly under one another, add them together, and their sum will be a Logarithm.

7th. To this Logarithm, add the Logarithm of the next less number.

and the fum will be the Logarithm of the number proposed.

Ex. I. Required the Logarithm of the number 2.

Here the next less number is 1, and 2+1=3=A. And the Square of A is 9. Then;

0,868588963	=,289529654.	And	,289529654	=,289529654
0,289529654	=,032169952.	&		=,010723321
0.032169962	-=,003574440.	· &c	.002574440	
	=,000397160.	&		=,000056737
0,000397160	=,cooo4+129.	&c	,	=,00004903
-9	=,0000c4903.	&	9	=,000000445
9	=,000000545.	&		=,00000004z
	=,000000060.	&		=,000000004
	To this Lo	og.		0,301029994
	Their fum	is the	Log. of 2	=0,301029994

This process needs no other explanation than comparing it with the rule.

That the manner of computing these Logarithms may be familiar to the Reader, the operations of making feveral of them are here subjoined.

Ex. II. Required the Logarithm of the number 3.

Here the next less number is 2; and 3+2=5=A, whose Square is 25. 0,868588963 ,173717792 =,173717792. And =,173717792 0,173717792 6948712: & ,002316327 25 3 0,006948712 277948 277948. & 25 0,000277948 11118. & =,000001588 0,000011118 445. &

> To this Logarithm Add the Log. of 2

0,176091258 0,301029994

,000000002

The fum is the Logarithm of 3

18. &

0,477121252

78. Since the Logarithms are the Indices of numbers confidered in a Geometric Progression; therefore the sums, or differences of these Indices, will be Indices or Logarithms belonging to the Products, or Quotients, of fuch terms in the Geometric Progression as correspond to those Logarithms which were added or fubtracted (71).

Ex. III. Required the Log. of 4.

Now4=2 × 2.

0,000000445

25

Then to the Log. of 2 0,301029994 Add the Log. of 2 0,301029994

Sum is the Log. of 4 0,602059988

Ex. V. Required the Log. of 10. In the original Series, 1 is assumed for the Logarithm of 10.

Ex. VII. Required the Log. of 8.

Now 8=2×2×2.

Therefore the Log. of z taken thrice gives the Log. of the number 8 The Log. of 2 is

0,301029994

Which multiplied by

Gives the Log. of 8

Ex. IV. Required the Log. of 6.

Now $3 \times 2 = 6$.

Then to the Log. of 3 0,477121252 Add the Log. of 2 0,301029994

Sum is the Log. of 6 0,778151246

Ex. VI. Required the Log. of 5.

Now 10 divided by 2 gives 5.

Then from Log. of 10 1,000000000 Take Log. of 2 0,301029994

Leaves the Log. of 5 0,698970006

Ex. VIII. Required the Log. of q.

Now $9=3\times3$.

Therefore the Log. of 3 doubled gives the Log. of 9.

The Log. of 3 is 0,477121252 Which multiplied by

0,903089982 Gives the Log. of 9 0,954242504

igitized by Microsoft ® Ex. 1X.

Ex. IX. Required the Logarithm of 7.

Here 6 is the next less. Then 7+6=13=A; and 160=Square of A. ,066814536 0,868588963 0,066814536 395352_ 395352. 131784 169 3 0,000395352 2339. 468 80 2339. 169 5 0,000002339_ 14_ 169 7 To this Logarithm 0,066946790 Add the Logarithm of 6 0,778151246 The fum is the Logarithm of 7 0,845038036

The Log. of 12 is equal to the fum of the Logs. of 3 & 4, or of 2 & 6. The Log. of 14 is equal to the fum of the Logs. of 7 & 2.

 of 15
 of 3 & 5.

 of 16
 of 4 & 4, or of 8 & 2.

 of 18
 of 3 & 6, or of 9 & 2.

 of 20
 of 4 & 5, or of 10 & 2.

79. The Logs. of the prime numbers 11, 13, 17, 19, are to be found as in the examples I. II. 1X. and in like manner is the Log. of any other prime number to be found; but it may be observed, that the operation is shorter in the larger prime numbers; for any number exceeding 400, the first Quotient added to the Logarithm of its next lesser number, will give the Logarithm fought, true to 8 or 9 places; and therefore it will be very easy to examine any suspected Logarithm in the tables.

80. The manner of disposing the Logarithms, when made, into tables,

is various: But in this treatife they are ordered as follows.

Any number under 100, or not exceeding two places, and its Logarithm, are found in the first page of the table, where they are placed in adjoining columns; and diffinguished by the title Num. for the common numbers; and by Log. for the Logarithms.

These tables are at the end of Book IX.

A number of three or four places being given, its Logarithm is thus found.

Seek for a page in which the given number shall be contained between the two numbers marked at the top, annexed to the letter N: Then right against the three first figures of the given number, sound in the column signed Num, and in the column signed by the fourth, stands the Logarithm belonging to that number of four places.

If the number confifted of 3 places only; then these places sound as before directed, the Logarithm stands against them in the column

figned o.

Thus, to find the Logarithm of 5738. Seek for a page in which stands at top N° 5200 to 5800; then in the column signed N° find 573, right against which in the column signed 8 at top or bottom stands, 75876, which is the Logarithm to 5738, exclusive of its Index.

SI. A Logarithm being given, its number is thus found.

Seek for a page in which the three first figures of the given Logarithm are found at top annexed to the letter L; then in one of the columns figned with the figures 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, find a number the nearest to the given Logarithm; against this number in the column figned N° , stand three figures; to the right of these annex the figure with which the column was signed at top or bottom, and this will be the number corresponding to the given Logarithm, not regarding the Index.

82. All numbers confishing of the fame figures, whether they be integral, fractional, or mixed, have the fractional parts of their Logarithms the fame.

If the following examples be well attended to, there will be no difficulty in finding the Logarithm to a proposed number, or the number to a proposed Logarithm, within the limits of the table of Logarithms here used.

Num.	Logarithms.	Logarithms.	Numbers.
5874	3,76893	0,37295	2,360
587,4	2,76893	1,28631	19,33
58,74	1,76893	2,51947	330,7
5.874	0,76893	3,75052	5632,
0,5874	1,76893	3,18397	0,001527
0,05874	2,76893	2,43020	0,02693
P,c03874	3,76893	1,85962	0.7238

83. A general rule to find the Index to the Log. of a given number. To the left of the Logarithm, write that figure (or figures) which expresses the distance from unity, of the highest-place digit in the given number; reckoning the unit's place 0, the next place 1, the next place 2, the next place 3, &c.

When there are integers in the given number, the Index is always affirmative; but when there are no integers, the Index is negative, and is

to be marked by a little line drawn above it: thus \(\frac{1}{2}\).

Thus a number having 1 . 2 . 3 . 4 . 5 &c. integer places.

The index of its Logarithm is 0.1.2.3.4. &c.

And a fraction having a digit in the place of Primes, Seconds, Thirds, Fourths, &c.

Then the Index of its Logarithms will be 1.2.3.4 &c.

By the above rule, the place of the fractional comma, or mark of distinction, in the number answering to a given Logarithm, will be always known.

84. The more places the Logarithms confift of, the more accurate, in general, will be the refult of any operation performed with them: But for the purposes of Navigation, as five places, exclusive of the Index, are sufficient, therefore the logarithmic tables in this treatise are not extended any farther.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft & MUL-

85. MULTIPLICATION BY LOGARITHMS;

Or, Two or more numbers being given, to find their Product by Logarithms.

RULE. Add together the Logarithms of the Factors, and the fum is a Logarithm, the corresponding number of which is the Product required.

Observing to add what is carried from the Logarithm to the sum of the affirmative Indices.

And that the difference between the affirmative and negative Indices are to be taken for the Index to the Logarithm of the Product. Fx 1. Multiply 86,25 by 6,48.

Ex. 1. Williply 60,25 b)	0,40.
86,25 its Log. is	1,93576
6,48 its Log. is	0,81157
Product 558,9	2,74733
Ex. III. Multiply 3,768	by 2,053
and by 0,007693.	
3,768 its Log. is	0,5,611
2,053	0,31239
0,007693	3,88610
Product o ococi	2 75 460

The I carried from the left hand column of the Logs, being affirmative, reduces 3 to 2.

Ex. II. Multiply 46,75 by 0,3275. 46,75 its Log. is 0,3275 its Log. is 1,51521

Product 15,31 1,18499

Ex. IV. Multiply 27,63 by 1,859 and by 0,7258 and by 0,03591.

27,63 its Log. is 1,44138 1,8;9 0,26928 0,7258 1,86082 0,03591 2,55521 Product 1,339 0,12669

Here 2 being carried to the Index 1, makes 3; which takes off the I and 2.

DIVISION BY LOGARITHMS. 86.

Or, Two numbers being given, to find how often the one will contain the other, by Logarithms.

RULE. From the Log. of the Dividend, subtract the Log. of the Divisor; then the number agreeing to the Remainder, will be the Quotient required.

But observe to change the Index of the Divisor from negative to affirmative, or from affirmative to negative: And then let the difference of the affirm. and neg. Indices be taken for the Index to the Log. of the Quotient.

When an unit is borrowed in the left-hand place of the Logarithm, add it to the Index of the Divisor, if affirmative; but subtract it if negative; and let the Index arising be changed and worked with as before.

and let the Thick attillig b	c changed	alla Worked With as before	•
Ex. I. Divide 558,9 by	6,48.	Ex. II. Divide 15,31 by	y 46,75.
Log. of Divid. 558,9 is	2,74733	Log. of Divid. 15,31 is	1,18497
Log. of Divifor 6,48 is	0,81157	Log. of Divifor 46,75 is	1,66978
The Custom is 26			
The Quotient is 86,25	1,93570	The Quotient is 0,3275	1,51519
Ex.III. Divideo, 05951 byo	007602	Ex. IV. Divide 0,6651	lu 22 5
		1.x. 1v. Divine 0,0051	by 22,5.
Log. of Divid. 0,05951 is	2,77459	Log. of Divid. 0,6651 is	1,82289
Log. of Divisor 0,007673 is	3,88610	Log. of Divitor 22,5 is	1,35218
The Quotient is 7,735	0,88849	The Quotient is 0,02956	2,47071
0 110 () 110 () 110 ()	0,0004)	1 110 2 3 3 3 3 5 7 9 7 9	-14/0/
	,	D	
Univ Calif -	Digitize	od by Microsoft ®	87. OI

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

87. OF PROPORTION.

If. State the terms of the question (by 46) and let them be written orderly under one another, prefixing to the first term the word As, to the second To, to the third So, and under them set the word To.

2d. Against the first term, write the arithmetical complement of its

Logarithm. See Art. 88.

3d. Against the second and third terms, write their Logarithms.

4th, The sum of those three Logarithms, abating 10 in the Index, will be the Logarithm of the 4th term; which sought in the tables, the number answering to it is the answer or term sought.

88. The arithmetical complement of a Logarithm is thus found. Beginning at the Index, write down what each figure wants of 9, except the

last, or right-hand figure, which take from 10.

But if the Index is negative, add it to 9; and proceed with the rest as

before.

Ex. I. Find a fourth proportional	Ex. II. Find a third proportional
number to 98,45 and 1,969 and 347,2	number to 9,642 and 4,821.
As 93,45 its * Ar. Co. Log. 8,00678	As 9,642 its Ar. Co. Log. 9,01583
To 1,969 0,29425	To 4,821 0,6×314
So 347,2 2,54058	So 4,821 0,68314
	-
To 6,944 0,84161	To 2,411 0,38211
E WAY IN	-
E III mi	To the first of th
Ex. 111. What will a gunner's	Ex. IV. If 4 of a yard of cloth
pay amount to in a year at 2 fg. 12s.	cost 2 of a guinea: How many ells
6d. a month of 28 days?	English for 3 £. 10s.?
As 28 days its Ar. Co. Log. 8,55284	As \(\frac{2}{3}\) Guin.=141. Ar. Co. 8,85387
To 365 days 2,56229	To $3 £. 10s. = 70s.$ 1.84510 So $\frac{3}{5}$ ell =0,6 1,77815
So 2£. 125. 6d.=2,625£. 0,41913	So $\frac{3}{5}$ ell =0,6 1,77815
To as C see a description of the second	Ta
To 34L. 41. 5 d. = 34,22 L. 1,53426	To 3 ells 0,47712
Ex. V. What number will have	Ex. VI. How many yards of shal-
the same proportion to 0,8538 as	loon of \{ ell wide will be enough to
0,3275 has to 0,0131?	line a coat containing 3½ ells of 1¾
-,3-,3,-13	yards wide?
As 0,0131 its Ar. Co. Log. 11,88273	
To 0,3275 1,51521	As $\frac{1}{4}$ $\times \frac{5}{4}$ yd. w. $\equiv 0.9375$ 10,02803 To $1\frac{3}{4}$ yd. w. $\equiv 1.75$ 0,24304
property and the state of the s	So $3\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{5}{4}$ yd. 1.=4,375 0,64098
So 0,8538 1,93136	32.14 /41 1-413/3 0504390
To 21,35 1,32930	To 8 yd. long=8,167 0,91205
232230	
	where w. stands for wide, 1. for long.

^{*} Ar. Co. Log. Rand: for the Arithmetical Complement of the Logarithm.

OF POWERS AND THEIR ROOTS.

89. A number being given, to find any proposed power of that Number.

RULE 1st. Seek the Logarithm of the given number.

2d. Multiply this Logarithm by the Index of the proposed power.

3d. Find the number corresponding to the Product, and it will be the power required.

90. In multiplying a Logarithm having a negative Index, the Product

of that Index is negative.

But the carriage from the Logarithm is affirmative.

Therefore the difference will be the Index of the Product.

And is to be of the same kind with the greater, or that which was made the minuend.

		I.	
Ex. I. What is the fecon	id power	Ex. II. W	Vhat is the 3d
Ex. I. What is the second of the number 3,874? To 3,874 its Log. is The Index is	•	the number 2,	768?
To 3,874 its Log. is	0,58816	The Nº 2,768	its Log. is
The Index is	2	The Index is	
The power fought is 15,01	1,17632	The power for	ight is 21,21
Ex. III. What is the 12 of the number 1,539?	th power	Ex. IV. It of the number	Vhat is the 36, 2?

of i	Ex	. IV.	IVhat er 2?	is the	365th power
of 1	the	numb.	er 2 ?		

Ex. II. What is the 3d power of

1,539 its Log. is The Index is	0,18724	
The power fought is 176,6	2,24688	

2 Its Log. is 0,30103 The Index is 365 150515 180618 90309

In the IV th Ex. the Index of the Product being 109, shews that the required power will confift of 110 integer places; of which no more than 4 places are found in these tables; there- 109,87595 fore the number fought may be thus expressed, 7515 [106]: That is, 7515 with 106 cyphers annexed.

Ex.	V. W	hat is	the 2	ed powe	er of
the nun	nber 0,2	857			
Too 2	857. its	Log.	is	1.4	5501

The Index of 2d power

The power 0,08162

The power is 0,4961

the number 0,7916? To 0,7916, its Log. is The Index of 3d power

Here, there being no carriage from the Product of the Log. the duct of the Log. is 2; then the whole Product of the negative Index is negative, viz 2.

Here the carriage from the Pro-Product of the negative Index 1, viz. 3, being lessened by 2, leaves I, the Index of the Product.

Ex. VI. What is the 3d power of

91. A number being given, to find any proposed Root of it.

RULE 1st. Seek the Logarithm of the given number.

2d. Divide this Logarithm by the denominator of the Index of the proposed root.

3d. The number corresponding to the Quotient will be the root.

When the Index to the Logarithm to be divided is negative, and less than the Divisor, or Denominator of the root. Then

Increase the negative Index by as many units, borrowed, as shall be

equal to the Divisor, and the Quotient will give I for the Index.

Carry the units borrowed as tens to the left-hand place of the Logarithm, and then divide that Logarithm as in whole numbers.

rithm, and then divide that Logarithm as in whole numbers.			
Ex. I. What is the Square Root of the number 1501?	Ex. II. What is the Cube Root of the number 2121?		
2)3,17638	3)3,32654		
Root fought is 38,74 1,58819	Root fought 12,85 1,10885		
Ex. III. What is the Root, of which 176,6 is the 12th power?	Ex. IV. What is the Root, of which 2 is the 365th power?		
12)2,24699	365)0,30103		
Root fought is 1,539 0,18725	Root fought is 1,002 0,00082		
Ex. V. What is the Square Root of the number 0,08162?	Ex. VI. What is the Cube Root of the number 0,496?		
Log. of 0,08162, div. by 2)2,91180	Log. of 0,496 div. by 3)1,69548		
Gives Root 0,2857 to 1,45590	Gives Root 0,7916 to 1,89849		

Here the Divisor 2 can be taken in the Index 2, and gives for the Quotient 1.

Here the Divisor 3 cannot be taken in the Index \overline{i} ; then \overline{i} borrowed makes with \overline{i} , $\overline{3}$; in which the Divisor 3 will go \overline{i} : the 2 borrowed carried to the 6, &c. makes 269548, which divided by 3, gives 89849.

END OF BOOK I.



THE

ELEMENTS NAVIGATION.

BOOK II. OF GEOMETRY.

SECTION I.

Definitions and Principles.

I. CEOMETRY is a science which treats of the descriptions, properties and relations of magnitudes in general: Or of such things where length, or where length and breadth, or length, breadth, and thickness, are considered.

2. A Point is that which is without parts or dimensions.

3. A LINE is length without breadth: It is called a RIGHT LINE when it is the shortest distance between two points, as AB: Or a CURVED LINE when it is not the shortest distance, as CD.

A line is usually denoted by two letters, viz. one at each

4. A Superficies or Surface is that magnitude which has only length and breadth, and is bounded by lines: as FG.

5. A Solid is that magnitude which has length, breadth and thickness.

6. A FIGURE is a bounded space, the limits or bounds of which may be either lines or surfaces.

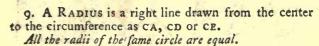
7. A PLANE, or a PLANE FIGURE, is a fuperficies which lies evenly, or perfectly flat, between its limits, and may be bounded by one curve line; but not with lefs than three right lines, as A, B, C, D, or E, &c.



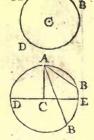


8. A

- 8. A CIRCLE is a plain figure, bounded by an uniformly curved line, called the Circumference, as ABD, which is every where equally distant from one point, as c within the figure called the CENTER.



10. An Arc is any part of the circumference. As the arc AB, or the arc AD.



11. A CHORD is a right line joining the ends of an arc, as AB, and is faid to fubtend that arc; it divides the circle into two parts, called SEGMENTS.

12. A DIAMETER is a chord passing through the center, as DE, and

divides the circle into two equal parts, called SEMICIRCLES.

13. The CIRCUMFERENCE of every circle is supposed to be divided into 360 equal parts, called DEGREES; each degree into 60 equal parts, called MINUTES; each minute into 60 equal parts, called Seconds, &c.

14. A PLANE ANGLE, is the inclination of two lines

on the same plane meeting in a point, as ACB.

A right lined angle is formed by two right lines. The point where the lines meet is called the angular point, as C.

The lines which form the angle are called legs. Thus CA and CB are the legs of the angle ACB.

An Angle is usually marked by three letters, viz. one at the angular point, and one at the other end of each leg; but that at the angular point is always to be read the middle letter, as ACB, or BCA.

15. The measure of a right lined angle is an arc, as BA contained between the legs CB, CA, including the angle, the angular point c being the center of that

arc.

16. A RIGHT ANGLE is that, the measure of which is a fourth part of the circumference of a circle, or ninety degrees. Thus the angle ACB is a right angle.

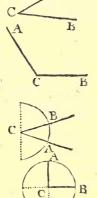
17. A PERPENDICULAR is that right line which cuts another at right angles; or which makes equal angles on both fides. Thus DC is perpendicular to AB, when the angles DCA and DCB are equal, or are right angles.

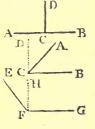
18. An Acute Angle, as ACB, is that which is less

than a right angle DCB.

19. An OBTUSE ANGLE, as EFG, is that which is greater than a right angle HFG.

Acute and obtuse angles are called OBLIQUE ANGLES.





20. PARALLEL LINES, are right lines in the fame plane, which do not incline to one another, as AB, CD.

21. A TRIANGLE is a plane figure bounded by three lines.

22. An Equilateral Triangle is that in which the three lines, or fides, are equal, as A.

23. An Isosceles Triangle is that which has

only two equal fides, as B or C.

24. A RIGHT ANGLED TRIANGLE, as ABC, is that which has one right angle B.

25. An Obtuse Angled Triangle, as def, has one obtuse angle e.

26. An Acute angled Triangle, as G, has all its angles acute.

27. A QUADRANGLE, or QUADRILATERAL, is a plane figure bounded by four right lines, or fides.

A Quadrangle is usually expressed by letters at the op-

posite angles.

28. A PARALLELOGRAM is a quadrangle the opposite sides of which are parallel and equal, as P.

29. A RECTANGLE is a parallelogram with right angles: and in which the length is greater than its breadth, as R.

30. A SQUARE is a parallelogram having four

equal fides and right angles, as s.

31. A TRAPEZIUM is a quadrangle the opposite sides of which are not parallel, as T.

32. The DIAGONAL of a quadrangle, is a line, as AB, drawn from one angle, to its opposite angle.

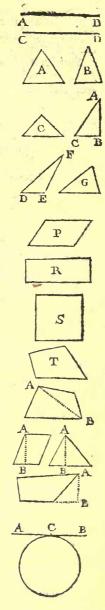
33. The BASE of a figure, is the line it is sup-

posed to stand on.

34. The ALTITUDE or HEIGHT of a figure, is the perpendicular diffance AB, between the base and the vertex, or part most remote from the base.

35. Congruous Figures, are those which agree, or correspond, with one another, in every respect.

36. A TANGENT to a circle is a right line, as AE, touching its circumference, but not cutting; and the point c, where it touches, is called the point of contast.



37. An ANGLE, BAC, in a Segment, CADB, is, when the angular point is in the circumference of the fegment, and the legs including the angle pass through the ends B and C, of the chord of the segment.

Such an angle is faid to be in a circumference; and to fland on the arc, BC, included between the legs, AB and

Ac, of the angle.



- 38. Right lined figures, having more than four fides, are called *Polygons*; and have their names from the number of their angles, or fides; as those of five fides are called Pentagons; of fix fides, Hexagons; of seven fides, Heptagons; of eight fides, Octagons, &c.
 - 39. A regular Polygon is a figure with equal fides, and equal angles.
- 40. A figure is faid to be inscribed in a circle, when all the angles of that figure are in the circumference of the circle.
- 41. A figure is faid to circumferibe a circle, when every fide of the figure is touched by the circumference of the circle.
- 42. A Proposition is something proposed to be considered; and requires either a solution or answer, or that something be made out, or proved.

A Problem is a practical proposition, in which something is proposed to be done, or effected.

A Theorem is a speculative proposition, or rule, in which something is affirmed to be true.

A Corollary is some conclusion gained from a preceding proposition.

A Scholium is a remark on fome proposition; or an exemplification of the matter which it contains.

An Axiom is a felf-evident truth, or principle, that every one affents to upon hearing it proposed.

A Postulate is a principle, or condition, requested; the simplicity or reasonableness of which cannot be denied.

In Mathematics, the following Postulates and Axioms, are some of the principal ones that are generally taken for granted.

When a proposition, from supposed premises, asserts such and such confequences; and subjoins, And the contrary: it is to be understood, that if the consequences be assumed as premises; then what were first taken as premises, would become consequences.

Thus, in Article 95, it is premifed, that if two parallel right lines are cut by another right line, there refults this confequence; The alternate angles are equal. And the contrary means; that where equal alternate angles are made by a right line cutting two other right lines; the right lines so cut, are parallel lines.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® Poftulates.

Postulates.

- 43. I. That a right line may be drawn from any given point to another given point.
- 44. II. That a given right line may be continued, or lengthened at pleafure.
- 45. III. That from a given point, and with any radius, a circle may be described.

Axioms.

- 46. I. Things equal to the same thing, are equal to one another.
- 47. II. If equal things are added to equal things, the sums or wholes will be equal. But if unequals be added, the sums are unequal.
- 48. III. If equal things are taken from equal things, the remainders, or differences, are equal: but are unequal, when unequals are taken.
- 49. IV. Things are equal which are double, triple, quadruple, &c. or half, third part, &c. of one and the same thing, or of equal things.
- 50. V. Things which have equal measures, are equal. And the contrary.
 - 51. VI. Equal circles have equal radii.
- 52. VII. Equal arcs in equal circles have equal chords, and are the measures of equal angles. And the contrary.
- 53. VIII. Parallel right lines have each the fame inclination to a right line cutting them.

In what follows, it is to be understood, that right lines (viz. straight lines) are drawn by the edge of a straight ruler: circles or arcs, are described with one foot of a pair of compasses, the other foot resting on the point which is taken for the center; and the distance of the seet, or points, of the compasses is taken as the radius: also, that the point marked out by a letter is to be understood, when the reference is made to that letter.

54. It is also taken for granted, that a line or distance can be taken between the compasses, and may be transferred or applied from one place to another. Also, that one figure can be applied to, or laid upon another, or conceived to be so applied.

In any problem, when a line, angle, or figure is faid to be given; that line, angle, or figure must be made, before any part of the operation is performed.

SEC-

SECTION II.

Geometrical Problems.

55.

PROBLEM I.

To bifest, or divide into two equal parts, a given line AB.

OPERATION. 1st. From the ends A and B*, with one and the fame radius, greater than half AB, describe arcs cutting in c and D. (45)

2d. A ruler laid by c and D, gives E, the middle of AB, as required.

The proof of this operation depends on articles

56.

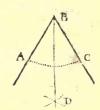
PROBLEM II.

To bifect a given right lined angle ABC.

OPERATION. 1st. From B, describe an arc Ac. 2d. From A and c*, with one and the same radius, describe arcs cutting in D. (45)

3d. A right line drawn through B and D will divide the angle into two equal parts, as required.

The proof depends on article 101.



57.

PROBLEM III.

From a given point B, in a given right line AF, to draw a right line perpendicular to the given line.

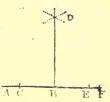
CASE I. When B is near the middle of the line.

OPERATION. 1st. On each fide of B, take the equal distances BC, and BE. (54)

2d. On c and E* describe, with one radius, arcs cutting in D. (45)

3d. A right line drawn through B and D will be the perpendicular required. (43)

The proof depends on article 103.



58. CASE II. When B is at, or near the end of the given line:

OPERATION. 1st. On any convenient point c, taken at pleasure, with the distance, or radius cB, describe an arc DBE, cutting AF in D, B. (45)

2d. A ruler laid by D and C will out this arc in E.

3d. A right line drawn through B and E will

be the perpendicular required.

This depends on article 130.

D B B

^{*} That is, first describe an arc from one point; then describe an arc from the other point with the same opening of the compasses.

59.

PROBLEM IV.

To draw a line perpendicular to a given right line AB, from a point c without that line.

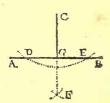
CASE I. When the point C is nearly opposite to the middle of the given line.

OPERATION. 1st. On c, with one radius, cut

2d. On p and E, with one radius, describe arcs cutting in F. (45)

A ruler laid by c and F gives G; then draw CG, and that will be the perpendicular required.

This depends on articles 101, 99.



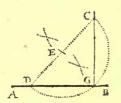
60. CASE II. When c is nearly opposite to one end of the given line AB.

OPERATION. Ift. To any point D in AB, draw the line CD. (43)

2d. Bisect the line CD in E. (43)

3d. On E, with the radius EC, cut AB in G. Then CG being drawn, will be the perpendicular required.

This depends on article 130.



61.

PROBLEM V.

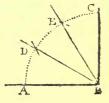
To trifect, or divide into three equal parts, a right angle ABC.

OPERATION. 1st. From B, with any radius BA, describe the arc AC, cutting the legs BA, BC, in A, C.

2d. From A, with the radius AB, cut the arc AC in E, and from C, with the fame radius, cut AC in D.

3d. Draw BE, BD, and the angle ABC will be divided into three equal parts.

This depends on article 193.



62.

PROBLEM VI.

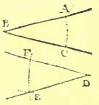
At a given point D, to make a right lined angle equal to a given right lined angle ABC.

OPERATION. Ist. From D and B, with one radius describe the arcs EF, and AC, cutting the legs of the given angle in the points A, C.

2d. Transfer the diffance AC to the arc EF, from F to E.

3d. Lines drawn from D, through E and F, will form the angle EDF equal to the angle ABC.

This depends on article 101.



Yor. I. E 63. PROB-Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® 63.

PROBLEM VII.

To draw a line parallel to a given right line AB.

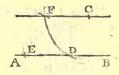
CASE I. When the parallel line is to pass through a given point, c.

OPERATION. 1st. From c, with any convenient radius, describe an arc DF, cutting AB in D.

2d. Apply the radius CD from D to E; and from E, with the same radius, cut the arc DF in F.

3d. A line drawn through F and c will be parallel to AB.

This depends on article 101, 95.



64. CASE II. When the parallel line is to be at the given distance c from AB.

OPERATION. 1st. From the points A and B, with the radius c, describe arcs D and E.

2d. Lay a ruler to touch the arcs p and E, and a line drawn in that position is the parallel required. This operation is mechanical.

65.

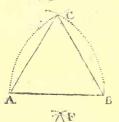
PROBLEM VIII.

Upon a given line AB, to make an equilateral triangle.

OPERATION. Ist. From the points A and B. with the radius AB, describe arcs cutting in C.

2d. Draw CA, CB, and the figure ABC is the triangle required. (43.)

The truth of this operation is evident; for the fides are radii of equal circles.



D

66. By a like operation, an Isosceles triangle DEF may be constructed on a given base DE, with the given equal legs DF, EF, either greater, or lefs,

67.

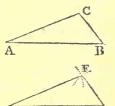
than the base DE.

PROBLEM IX.

To make a right lined triangle, the sides of which shall be respectively equal, either to those of a given triangle ABC, or to three given lines, provided any two of them taken together are greater than the third.

CHERATION. Ift. Draw a line DE equal to the . 2d On a, with a radius equal to Ac, describe (45)

he with a radius equal to BC, describe the former arc in F. (45)and the triangle DFE will be



Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft 68. PROB-

1

68.

PROBLEM X.

Upon a given line AB, to describe a square.

OPERATION. 1st. Draw BC perpendicular, and equal to AB. (58)

2d. On A and c, with the radius AB, describe arcs cutting in D. (45)

3d. Draw DC, DA; and the figure ABCD is the fquare required.

This depends on articles 101, 104, 95, 30.

69. PROBLEM XI.

To describe a restangle whose length shall be equal to a given line EF, and breadth equal to another given line G.

OPERATION. 1st. At E and F erect two perpendiculars, EH and FI, each equal to the given line G.

2d. Draw HI, and the figure EFIH will be the rectangle required.

This depends on articles 29, 101, 104, 95.

70. PROBLEM XII.

To find the center of a circle. OPERATION. Ist. Draw any chord AB.

2d. Bifect AB with the chord CD. (55)

3d. Bifect on with the chord EF, and their interfection G will be the center required.

This depends on article 125.

PROBLEM XIII.

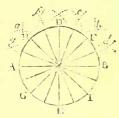
To divide the circumference of a circle into two, four, eight, fixteen, thirty-two, &c. equal parts.

OPERATION. 1st. A diameter AB divides the

circle into two equal parts. (12)
2d. A diameter DE, perpendicular to AB, divides

the circumference into four equal parts.

3d. On A, D, B, describe arcs cutting in a, b; then by the intersections a, b, and the center, the diameters FC, HI, being drawn, divide the circumterence into eight equal parts; and so on by contitinual bisection.



E

For at each operation, the intercepted arcs are bifected, and the parts doubled,

PROBLEM XIV.

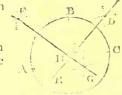
To describe a circle, the circumference of which shall pass through three given points A, B, C, provided they do not lie in one right line.

OPERATION. 1st. Bifect the distance CB with the line DE. (55)

2d. Bisect the distance AB with the line FG.

3d. On H, the interfection of these lines, with the distance to either of the given points, describe the circle required.

This depends on article 125.



73- PROB-

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

73.

PROBLEM XV.

To draw a tangent to a given circle, that shall pass through a given point A.

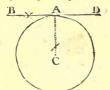
CASE I. When A is in the circumference of the circle.

OPERATION. Ist. From the center c, draw the radius ca.

(43)

2d. Through A draw BD perpendicular to CA (58), and BD is the tangent required.

This depends on article 126.



74. CASE II. When the given point A, is without the given circle.

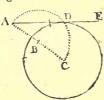
OPERATION. 1st. From the center c, draw cA, which bife& in B. (55)

2d. On B, with the radius BA, cut the given

circumference in D.

3d. Through D, the line AE being drawn, will be the tangent required.

This depends on articles 130, 126.



75.

PROBLEM XVI.

To two given right lines A, B, to find a third proportional.

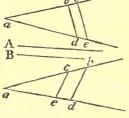
OPERATION. 1st. Draw two right lines making any angle, and meeting in a.

2d. In these lines, take ab = first term, and ac,

ad, each equal to the second term.

3d. Draw bd, and through c, draw ce parallel A to bd; then ae is the third proportional fought. B

And ab: ac:: ad: ae*.
This depends on article 165.



76.

PROBLEM XVII.

To three given right lines A, B, C, to find a fourth proportional.

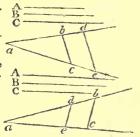
OPERATION. 1st. Draw two right lines making any angle, and meeting in a.

2d. In these lines take ab = first term, ac = se-

cond term, and ad=third term.

3d. Draw be, and parallel to it, through d, draw de; then ae is the fourth proportional required.

And ab: ac:: ad: ae.
This depends on article 165.



^{*} And is thus read: ab is to ac, as ad is to ac.
The character (:) standing for is to, and the character (::) for as.

79.

77. PROBLEM XVIII.

Between two given right lines A, B, to find a mean proportional.

OPERATION. Iff. Draw a right line, in which take ac = A, ab = B.

2. Bifect be in F (55); and on F, with the radius Fb, describe a semicircle bec.

3d. From a draw ae perpendicular to bc (57); then ae is the mean proportional required.

And ac: ae: : ae: ab.
This depends on article 171.

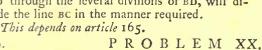
78. PROBLEM XIX.

To divide a given line BC in the same proportion as a given line A is divided.

OPERATION. Ift. From one end B of BC draw BD, making any angle with BC.

2d. In BD apply from B the feveral divisions of A; fo BD will be equal to A, and alike divided.

3d. Draw CD; then lines drawn parallel to CD through the feveral divisions of BD, will divide the line BC in the manner required.



To divide a given right line AB into a proposed number of equal parts (suppose 7).

OPERATION. 1st. From A, one end of AB, draw AE to make any angle with AB; and from B, the other end, draw BF, making the angle ABF equal to the angle BAE. (62)

2d. In each of the lines AE, BF, beginning at A and B, take, of any length, as many equal parts, lefs one, as AB is to be divided into, viz. I, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.

3d. Lines drawn from 1 to 6, 2 to 5, 3 to 4,

&c. will divide AB as was required.

This depends on article 165.

80. Another Method.

OPERATION. 1st. Through one end A, draw a line CC nearly perpendicular to AB.

2d. Draw EF parallel to AB, at any convenient diffance.

3d. In EF take, of any length, as many equal parts as AB is to be divided into; as 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, to F.

4th. Through B and F, where the divisions terminate, draw BC, meeting CC in C.

5th. Lines drawn from c through the feveral divisions of EF, will cut

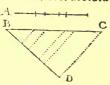
AB into the equal parts required.

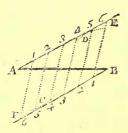
Note, If the sum of the divisions from E to F chance to be less than AB, the point c, and the line EF, will be on the same side of AB; but if greater, c salls on the contrary side.

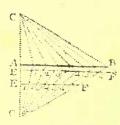
C falls on the contrary side.

Digitized by Microsoft. PROB.

A B F GET







81.

PROBLEM XXI.

To make Scales of equal parts.

OPERATION. Ist. Draw three lines, A, B, C, parallel to one another, and at convenient distances, such as are here expressed.

2d. In the line c, take the equal parts cb, bc, cd, da, &c. each equal

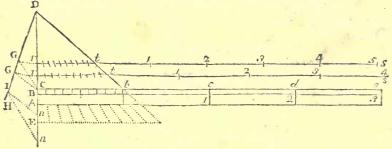
to some proposed length.

3d. Through c, draw the line DE perpendicular to ca; and parallel to DE, through the feveral points b, c, d, a, &c. draw lines across the three parallels A, B, C; then are the spaces or distances cb, bc, cd, &c. called the primary divisions.

4th. Divide the left-hand space into to equal parts (80), and through these points let lines, parallel to DE, be drawn across the parallels BC; and the primary division cb will be parted into 10 equal spaces, called subdivisions.

5th, Number the primary divisions from the left towards the right,

beginning at c, and the scale is constructed.



Such Scales are useful for constructing figures, the sides of which are expressed in measures of length; as seet, yards, miles, &c. Or to find the measures of the length of lines in a given figure.

Thus a line of 36, or 360, feet, yards, &c. is taken by fetting one point of the compasses on the third primary division, and extending the

other point to the fixth subdivision: and so of others.

In these Scales it is usually supposed, that an inch is divided into some number of such parts, as are expressed by the subdivisions.

82. To find the divisions of a Scale of equal parts, when any given number of them are to make an inch.

OPERATION. 1st. Make a Scale ca, where the primary divisions shall be each one inch; let DC be at right angles to ca, and the left-hand space cb be divided into 10 equal parts, and draw Db from any point D.

2d. Draw DH, making with DC any angle; and make DI=Eb.

3d. Take the number of parts proposed in an inch, from the Scale ca, and apply them from D to n, in the line DC, continued if necessary.

4th. Draw n_1 , and c_G parallel to n_1 ; and make $n_r = b_G$.

5th. Through r draw rs parallel to ca, cutting Db in t; then rt will be one of the primary divisions, containing 10 of the parts the inch was to be divided into.

6th. Lines drawn from D to the divisions of cb, divide rt into 10 equal

parts.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft 83. PROB-

83. PROBLEM XXII.

To divide the circumference of a circle into degrees; and thence to make α Scale of chords.

OPERATION. 1st. Describe the semicircle ABD, the center of which

is c, and draw CD at right angles to AB.

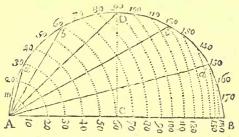
2d. Trifect the angles ACD, DCB, in the points a, b; c, d (61): then by trials, divide the arcs Aa, ab, bD, Dc, cd, dB, each into three equal parts, and the femicircumference will be divided into 18 equal parts, of 10 degrees each.

3d. These arcs being bisected, will give arcs of 5 degrees.

4th. And these arcs being divided into 5 equal parts, by trials, will

give arcs of I degree each.

5th. The chords of the arcs Ad, Ac, AD, Ab, Aa, and of every other arc, being applied from A on the diameter AB, will divide AB into a Scale of chords; which are to be numbered from A towards B.



A Scale of chords is useful for constructing an angle of a given number of degrees: And for finding the measure of a given angle.

84. PROBLEM XXIII.

To make an angle of a proposed number of degrees.

OPERATION. 1st. Take the first 60 deg. from the Scale of chords, and with this radius describe an arc BC, the center of which is A.

2d. Take the chord of the proposed number of degrees from the Scale, reckoning from its beginning, and apply this distance to the arc BC, from B to C.

3d. Lines drawn from A, through the points B and C, will form an

angle BAC, the measure of which is the degrees proposed.

With Scales of chords not exceeding 90 degrees, fuch as are generally put on rulers, angles greater than 90 degrees, suppose of 138 deg. are to be taken at twice, viz. 69 and 69 (½ of 138), or 90 and 48.

When a given angle, BAC, is to be measured.

From the angular point A, with the chord of 60 degrees, describe the arc BC, cutting the legs in the points B and C.

Then the distance Be, applied to the chords, from the beginning, will

shew the degrees which measure the angle BAC.

4 85. PROB-

86.

85. PROBLEM XXIV.

In a given circle to inscribe a regular polygon, the number of sides being given.

OPERATION. 1st. Divide 360 degrees by the number of fides, and the Quotient will be the degrees which measure the angle at the center of the circle, subtended by a fide of the polygon*.

2d. Draw the radius CB, make an angle BCD equal to those degrees (84), and draw the chord DB; then will DB be the side of the polygon required; which applied to the circumference from B

to a, a to b, b to c, &c. will give the points to which the fides of the po-

lygon are to be drawn.

If the polygon has an even number of fides, draw the diameter AB; and divide half the circumference, as before; then lines drawn from these points through the center, as ED, will give the remaining points, in the other semicircumference.



On a given right line AB, to construct a regular polygon of any assigned number of sides.

OPERATION. 1st. Divide 360 degrees by the number of fides; subtract the Quotient from 180 degrees, the remainder will be the degrees which measure the angle made by any two adjoining sides of that polygon, and is called the angle of the polygon.

2d. At the ends A, B, of the line AB, make angles ABC, BAD, equal to the angle of the polygon.

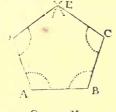
3d. Make AD, BC, each equal to AB.

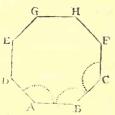
4th. At the points c, p, make angles equal to that of the polygon as before; and let the fides including those angles be each equal to An; and thus proceed until the polygon is confiructed.

In figures of any number of fides, the two last fides DE, CE; or EG, HG; are readiest found by describing ares from C and D, or from E and H, with

the radius AB, intersected in E, or in G.

In figures of an even number of fides, having drawn half the number, AD, AB, BC, CF, by means of the angles; the remaining fides may be found, by drawing through the points D and F the lines DE, FH, parallel and equal to their opposite fides CF, AD; and fo of the rest.





+ For each fide of the polygon with radii drawn to its ends form an Isosceles triangle.

Then the angle of the po'ygon is derived from articles 85, 96, 104.

87. PROB.

^{*} For there will be as many equal angles at the center as there are equal sides. And the whole cirumference measures the sum of all the angles at the center.

87. PROBLEM XXVI.

About a given regular Polygon, to circumscribe a circle: or within that

Polygon to inscribe a circle.

OPERATION. 1st. Bisect any two angles FAB, CBA, with the lines AG, BG, (56) and the point G, where they intersect one another, will be the center of the polygon.

2d. A circle described from G, with the radius

GA, will circumscribe the given polygon.

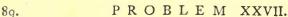
This depends on article 85, 96, 104.

88. Again, Ist. Bisect any two sides FE, ED, in the points H and I (55); and draw HG, IG, at right angles to FE, ED (57); then the point G, where they intersect each other, will be the center of the Polygon.

2d. A circle described from G, with the radius GH, will be inscribed in

the given Polygon.

This depends on article 126.



On a given right line AB, to describe a segment of a circle, that shall contain an angle equal to a given right lined angle c.

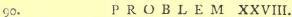
OPERATION. 1st. Make an angle BAF equal to the given angle c. (62)

2d. From H, the middle of AB, draw HI at right angles to AB (57), and from A draw AI at right angles to AF (58), cutting HI in I.

3d. From 1, with the radius 1A, describe a circle. Then will the segment AGB contain an angle

AGB equal to the given angle c.

This depends on articles 125, 126, 132.



To divide a right line in continued proportion, in the ratio of two given right lines AB, AC.

OPERATION. 1st. From B, with the radius AB (the antecedent) describe an arc Ac.

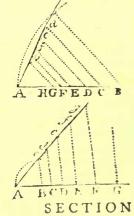
2d. In that are apply (the consequent) Ac from A to c; draw Ac, and apply cA from c to D.

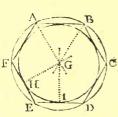
3d. Apply the following lines in the order directed, viz. AD from A to d, and from d to E; AE from A to e, and from e to F; AF from A to f, and from f to G; AG from A to g, and from g to H, &c. Then will the proportional lines be AB, AC, AD, AE, AF, AG, &c. And

AB: AC:: (Ac=) AC: (Ad=) AD. AB: AC:: (Ad=) AD: (Ae=) AE.

AB: AC:: (Ae =) AE: (Af =) AF.

This depends on articles 104, 95, 165.





Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

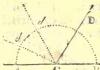
SECTION III.

Geometrical Theorems.

OF RIGHT LINES AND PLANES.

THEOREM I.

When one right line CD stands upon another right line AB, they make two angles BCD, ACD whichtogether are equal to two right angles.

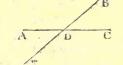


DEMONSTRATION. For describing a semicircle ADB, on c. (45)
Then the arc DB measures the angle BCD. (15)
And the arc DA measures the angle ACD. (15)
But the arcs DB and AD together measure two right angles. (13, 16)
Therefore BCD and ACD together, are equal to two right angles (50)

92. COROLLARY. Hence if any number of right lines cd stands on one point c, on the same side of another right line AB; the sum of all the angles are equal to two right angles; or are measured by 180 degrees.

93. THEOREM II.

If two right lines AC, EE interfest each other in D, the opposite angles are equal, viz.



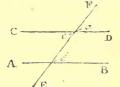
* \(CDE = \(\text{ADE}, \) and \(\text{CDE} = \(\text{ADE}. \)

+ DEM. For the angles ADE and ADB together make two right angles. (91)
And the angles CDB and ADB together make two right angles. (91)
Therefore the fum of ADE and ADB=fum of CDB and ADB. (46)

Consequently the \angle CDB is equal to the \angle ADE. (48) 94. ‡ COROL. Hence if any number of right lines cross each other in one point, the sum of all the angles which they make about that point, is equal to four right angles; or is measured by 360 degrees.

95. THEOREM III.

If a right line FE cut two parallel right lines AB, CD; then is the outward angle $a \parallel$ equal to the inward and opposite angle d; and the alternate angles c, d are equal: and the contrary.



DEM. Because CD and AB are parallel by supposition:

Then FE has the same inclination to CD and AB.

And this inclination is expressed by the $\angle a$ or $\angle d$:

Therefore the outward $\angle a$ is equal to the inward and opposite $\angle d$.

Now the $\angle a$ is equal to the $\angle c$.

Now the $\angle a$ is equal to the $\angle c$. And fince the $\angle a$ is equal to the $\angle d$; (93)

Therefore the alternate angles c and d are equal. (46)

* The mark L stands for the word angle.

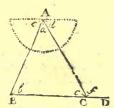
† DEM. stands for Demonstration. † COROL. stands for Corollary.

Angles are sometimes marked by a single letter. Thus angle a is used for angle FAD.

96. THEO-

96. THEOREM IV.

In any right lined triangle ABC, the sum of the three angles a, b, c, is equal to two right angles: And if one side BC be continued, the outward angle f is equal to the sum of the two inward and opposite angles a, b.



DEM. Through A, draw a right line parallel to BC, (63) making with AB the $\angle e$, and with AC the $\angle d$.

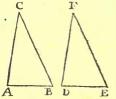
AB the $\angle e$, and with AC the $\angle d$.	
Now $\angle e = \angle b$; and $\angle d = \angle c$. being alternate.	(95)
And two right angles measure the $\angle e + \angle a + \angle d$.	(92)
Therefore $\angle b + \angle a + \angle c = \angle e + \angle a + \angle d$.	(47)
Confequently $\angle b + \angle a + \angle c = t$ wo right angles.	(46)
	(91)
	(46)
The state of the other is not	1to

97. Hence, if one angle is right or obtuse, each of the other is acute. 98. If two angles of one triangle are equal to two angles of another triangle, the remaining angles are equal. And if one angle in one triangle is equal to one angle in another triangle, then is the sum of the remaining

is equal to one angle in another triangle, then is the sum of the remaining angles in one, equal to the sum of the remaining angles in the other.

99. THEOREM V.

If two fides AB, AC and the included angle A in one triangle ABC, are respectively equal to two sides DE, DF and the included angle D of another DEF, each to each; then are those triangles congruous.



DEM. Apply the point D to the point A, and the line DE to AB.

Now as DE AB (by supposition); therefore the point E falls on B.

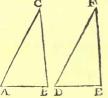
But \(\times \times \sup \leq A \) (by sup.); therefore DF will fall on Ac.

And since \(\times \times

Therefore the triangles ACB, DFE, are congruous, fince every part agrees.

THEOREM VI.

If two triangles ABC, DEF have two angles A, B and the included fide AB in one respectively equal to two angles D, E and the included fide DE in the other, each to each; then are those triangles congruous.



DEM. Apply the point D to A, and the line DE to AB.

Now as DE = AB (by fup.); therefore the point E falls on B.

And as $\angle D = \angle A$ (by fup.); therefore the line DF falls on AC.

Now if the line AC is lefs or greater than the line DF;

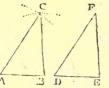
Then the line FE not falling on CB, makes the $\angle B$ less or greater than $\angle E$. But $\angle B = \angle E$ (by sup.); therefore AC is neither less nor greater than DF. Or the line AC=DF; consequently FE=CB.

Therefore the triangles are congruous,

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft THEO-

IOI. THEOREM VII.

Two triangles ABC, DEF are congruous, when the three sides in the one are equal to the three sides in the other, each to each.



DEM. Apply the point D to A, and the line DE to AB.

Now as DE = AB (by fup.); therefore the point E falls on B.

(54)

On A, with the radius Ac, describe an arc.

Then as DF=AC, the point F will fall in that arc.

Also on B, with the radius BC, describe another arc, cutting the former in C.

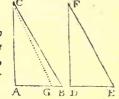
And fince EF=BC, the point F will fall in this arc also.

But if the point F can fall in both these arcs, it can be only where they intersect, as in c.

Confequently the triangles are congruous.

THEOREM VIII.

Two triangles ABC, DEF are congruous, when two angles A, B and a fide AC opposite to one of them, in one triangle, are respectively equal to two angles D, E and a side DF opposite to a like angle in the other triangle, each to each.



DEM. Apply the point D to A, and the line DF to Ac

Now as DF = Ac (by fup.); therefore the point F falls on c.

And as \(D = \times A \) (by fup.); the line DE will fall on the line AB.

And if the point E does not fall on B, it must fall on some other point G. Draw CG.

Then the angle AGC is equal to the angle DEF.

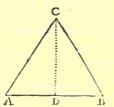
And the angle ABC=(DEF=) AGC, which is not possible.

(99)

Therefore the point E can fall no where but on the point B. Confequently the triangles are congruous.

103. THEOREM IX.

In the Isosceles, or equilateral triangle ACB; a line drawn from the vertex C to the middle of the base AB is perpendicular to the base, and bisects the vertical angle: and the contrary *.



DEM. The triangles ADC, BDC, are congruous.

Since CA = CB (23); CD = CD, and AD = DB by supposition:

Therefore $\angle A = \angle B$, $\angle ACD = \angle BCD$, $\angle ADC = \angle BDC$.

Consequently CD is at right angles to AB.

(101)

104. COROL. Hence in any right lined triangle where there are equal fides, or angles;

The angles A, B, opposite to equal sides BC, AC are equal. And the sides BC, AC, opposite to equal angles A, B, are equal.

That is, if a line drawn perpendicular to the base of a triangle bisects the vertical angle; then that triangle must be Isosceles, and the perpendicular is drawn from the middle of the base.

THEO-

(46)

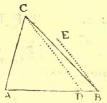
(47)

(28)

(101)

THEOREM X. 105.

In every right lined triangle ABC the greater angle c is opposite to the greater side AB.



DEM. In the greater fide AB, take AD = AC; draw CD, and through B draw BE parellel to CD. (62)Then the angles ADC, ACD, are equal. (104) And $\angle ADC = \angle ABE$. (95)

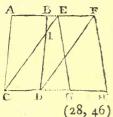
Therefore \(\text{ACD} = \(\text{ABE.} \) That is, a part of the angle ACB is greater than the angle ABC.

Confequently the $\angle c$ is greater than the $\angle B$; and in the fame manner, it may be proved to be greater than the $\angle A$, if the fide AB be greater than CB.

106. Corol. Hence in every right lined triangle, the greater fide is opposite to the greater angle.

THEOREM XI. 107.

Parallelograms ACDB, ECDF, EGHF standing on the same base CD, or on equal bases CD, GH, and between the same parallels, CH, AF, are equal.



DEM. For AB = EF, being each equal to CD. To each add BE, and AE = BF. Now AC = BD, and CE = DF.

The triangles ACE, BDF, are therefore congruous.

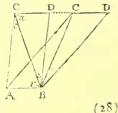
(101) Now if from each of the triangles ACE and BDF, be taken the triangle BIE, the remaining trapeziums ABIC and FEID are equal. Then if to each of the trapeziums ABIC, FEID, be added the triangle CID, their fum will be the parallelograms AD and DE, which are equal.

And in like manner it may be fhewn, that the parallelogram EH is equal

to the parellelogram ED = AD.

108. THEOREM XII.

A triangle ABC is the half of a parallelogram AD, when they stand on the same base AB, and are between the same parallels AB, CD.



DEM. Ac is equal to DB, and AB to DC. Also BC is a side common to both the triangles ABC and DCB.

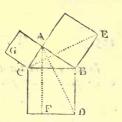
These triangles are therefore congruous. Consequently the triangle ABC is half the parallelogram AD.

109. COROL. I. Hence every parallelogram is bisected by its diagonal. 110. COROL. II. Also, triangles standing on the same base, or on equal bases, and between the same parallels, are equal.

They being the halves of equal parallelograms under like circumstances. Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft (2) THE O.

III. THEOREM XIII.

In every right angled triangle BAC the square on the side BC opposite to the right angle A is equal to the sum of the squares of the two sides AB, AC containing the right angle.



DEM. On the sides AB, AC, BC, construct the squares AG, AE, CD (68): draw AD, CE; and draw AF parallel to BD. (63)Then the triangles ABD, EBC, are congruous. (99)For the \angle ABE \equiv \angle CBD, being right angles. (30)To each add the angle ABC, then LEBC and LABD are equal. $\cdot (47)$ Therefore EB, BC, LEBC are respectively equal to AB, BD, LABD. (108)Also the triangle EBC is half the parallelogram AE For they stand upon the same base EB, and are between the same parallels EB and AC; BA making right angles with BE and CA continued. Likewise the triangle ABD is half the parallelogram BF. (108)For they stand upon the same base BD, and are between the same parallels BD, AF. Therefore, as the halves of the parallelograms EA and BF are equal, con-

Therefore, as the halves of the parallelograms EA and BF are equal, confequently the parallelogram BF is equal to the square AE. (49) In the same manner may it be shewn, that the parallelogram CF is equal to the square AG.

But the parallelograms BF and CF together, make the fquare CD, Therefore the fquare CD is equal to the fquares EA and AG.

*112. COROL. I. Hence if any two fides of a right angled triangle are known, the other fide is also known.

For BC = square root of the sum of the squares of AC and AB.

AC = square root of the difference of the squares of BC and AB.

AB = square root of the difference of the squares of BC and AC.

113. Or thus, making the quantities \overline{BC}^2 , \overline{AB}^2 , \overline{AC}^2 , to fland for the fquares made on those lines.

And the mark \checkmark to fland for the square root of such quantities as stand under the line joined to the top of this mark.

Then
$$BC = \sqrt{\overline{AC^2 + AB^2}};$$

 $AC = \sqrt{\overline{BC^2 - AB^2}};$
 $AB = \sqrt{BC^2 - \overline{AC^2}}.$

Scholium. The lines of the lengths 5, 4, 3, (or their doubles, triples, &c.) will form a right angled triangle.

For
$$5^2 = 4^2 + 3^2$$
. Or $25 = 16 + 9$.

114. COROL. II. Of all the lines drawn from a given point to a given line, the perpendicular is the shortest.

- 115. COROL. III. The shortest distance between two parallel right lines, is a right line drawn from one to the other perpendicular to both.
- For two opposite sides of a rectangular parallelogram are equal (28); and each is the shortest distance between the other sides.

THEOREM XIV.

If a right line AB be divided into any two parts AC, CB; then will the square on the whole line be equal to the sum of the squares on the parts, together with two restangles under the two parts.

That is $\overline{AB}^2 = \overline{AC}^2 + \overline{CB}^2 + 2 \times AC \times CB$.*

DEM. Let AD, AF, be fquares on AB, AC. (68)
Then will FG, and GD, be each equal to CB. (48)
Hence FD is a fquare on a line equal to CB. (30)
Alfo FB and FE are rectangles on lines equal to AC, CB.
But the fquares AF, FD, and the rectangles FB, FE, fill
up the fquare AD, or are equal to AD.

118. COROL. I. Hence the fquare of AC the difference between two lines AE, CB, is equal to the fquare of the greater AB, leffened by the fquare of the lefs CB and by two rectangles under the leffer line CB and the faid difference.

That is $\overline{AB - BC^2} = \overline{AB^2} - \overline{BC^2} - 2BC \times AC$. For AB - BC = AC. Then $\overline{AC^2} = \overline{AB^2} - \overline{BC^2} - 2BC \times AC$. (48)

119. COROL. II. The difference between the squares on two lines AB, Ac is equal to the rectangle under the sum AB + BC and difference AB — BC of those lines.

That is $\overline{AB}^2 - \overline{AC}^2 = \overline{AB + BC} \times \overline{AB - AC}$. For $\overline{AB}^2 - \overline{AC}^2 = \overline{CB}^2 + 2AC \times CB$. $= \overline{CB + AC + AC} \times CB$. $= \overline{AB + AC} \times (CB =)\overline{AB - AC}$. (117,48)

Thes for ACXCB, is written ACB. for ABXBC, is written ABC.

And for 2 X AC X CB, is swritten 2ACB.

120. THEO-

The recangle under two lines is generally expressed by 3 letters; the first two letters stand for one line, and the lust two for the other line.

120.

THEOREM XV.

In every triangle, ADC the square of a side CD subtending an acute angle A, is equal to the squares of the sides AD, AC about that angle, lessened by two restangles under one of those sides AC and that part AB contained between the acute angle and the perpendicular DB drawn to that side AC from its opposite angle D.

That is, $\overline{DC}^2 = \overline{AD}^2 + \overline{AC}^2 - 2CAB$.

DEM. $\overline{DC}^2 - \overline{BC}^2 = (\overline{DB}^2 =) \overline{AD}^2 - \overline{AB}^2$. (111)

And $\overline{AC}^2 = 2ABC + \overline{BC}^2 + \overline{AB}^2$. (117)

Then $\overline{DC}^2 - \overline{BC}^2 - \overline{AC}^2 = \overline{AD}^2 - \overline{BC}^2 - 2\overline{AB}^2 - 2ABC$. (48)

And $\overline{DC}^2 = \overline{AD}^2 + \overline{AC}^2 - 2\overline{AB}^2 - 2ABC$, by adding $\overline{BC}^2 + \overline{AC}^2$. (47) $(-AB \times 2AB - BC \times 2AB)$ $(-\overline{AB} + \overline{BC} \times 2AB)$ Then $\overline{DC}^2 = \overline{AD}^2 + \overline{AC}^2 - (AC \times 2AB) = 2CAB$.

121. Corol. Hence $AB = \frac{\overline{AD}^2 + \overline{AC}^2 - \overline{DC}^2}{2CA}$.

THEOREM XVI.

In an obtuse angled triangle ACD, the square of the side AD opposite to the obtuse angle C is equal to the sum of the squares of the sides AC, CD about the obtuse angle; together with two restangles under one side AC, and the continuation CB of that side to meet a perpendicular DB drawn to it from the opposite angle D.

That is, $\overline{AD}^2 = \overline{AC}^2 + \overline{CD}^2 + 2AC \times CB$.

DEM. For $\overline{AD}^2 - \overline{AB}^2 = (\overline{DB}^2 =) \overline{CD}^2 - \overline{CB}^2$. (111)

And $\overline{AB}^2 = 2ACB + \overline{AC}^2 + \overline{CB}^2$. (117)

Then $\overline{AD}^2 = \overline{AC}^2 + \overline{CD}^2 + 2ACB$. (47)

123. Corol. Hence $\overline{CB} = \overline{\overline{AD}^2 - \overline{AC}^2 - \overline{CD}^2}$.

124. THE O-

D

(97**)**

THEOREM XVII

In any circle, a diameter, AB, drawn perpendicular to a chord, DE, bifects that chord and its subtended arc DEE.

DEM. From the center c, draw the radii CD, CE, to the extremities of the chord DE.

Then the triangles CFE, CFD, are congruous. (102)

For CF being at right angles to DE, the \angle CFD= \angle CFE. (17) And the triangle CDE being isosceles (23), the \angle D= \angle E (104). Also CF is common.

Therefore DF=FE: And the arc DB=BE:

For those arcs measure the equal angles FCE, FCD.

of a chord at right angles to it, passes through the center of that circle; and the contrary.

THEOREM XVIII.

A tangent, AB, to a circle is perpendicular to a diameter, DC, drawn to the point of contact, C.

DEM. If it be denied that DC is perpendicular to AB. Then from the center D, let some other line DE, cutting the circle in E, be drawn perpendicular to AB.

Now the angle DBC being right, the angle DCB is acute. Consequently DC is greater than DB.

But DC = DE (9). Therefore DE is greater than DB, which is abfurd.
Therefore no other line passing through the center can be perpendicular to the tangent, but that which meets it at the point of contact.

THEOREM XIX.

An angle, BCD, at the center of a circle, is double of the angle, BAD at the circumference, when those angles stand on the same arc, BD.

DEM. Through the point A draw the diameter AE. Then the angle ECD= \angle CAD+ \angle CDA. (96) But the \angle CAD= \angle CDA. (104)

Therefore the ZECD is equal to twice the angle CAD.

In the same manner it may be shewn, that the angle BCE is equal to twice the angle BAE.

Consequently the angle BCD (= \angle ECD + * \angle BCE) is equal to twice the angle BAD (= \angle EAD + \angle BAE). (47, 48)

128. COROL. I. Hence an angle, BAD, at the circumference is meafured by half the arc, BD, on which it stands. For the angle at the center BCD is measured by the arc BD. (15)

Consequently the angle BAD=half the angle BCD, is measured by half the arc DB.

129. Corol. II. All angles in the circumference, and flanding on the fame arc, are equal.

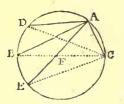
. The mark+, fignifies the fum or difference.

Vol. I. Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

THEOREM XX.

An angle, BAC, in a semicircle, is a right one.
An angle, DAC, in a segment less than a semicircle,
is obtuse.

An angle, EAC, in a fegment greater than a femicircle, is acute.

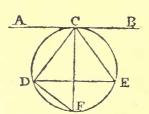


DEM. For the angle BAC is measured by half the semicircular arc BEC, or is measured by half of 180 degrees; that is, by 90 degrees. (128, 16) And \angle DAC is measured by half the arc DEC, greater than 180° *. Also \angle EAC is measured by half the arc EC, less than 180°. Therefore these angles are respectively equal to, greater, or less than 90 degrees.

131. Cor. Hence in a right angled triangle BAC; the angular point A of the right angle, and the ends, B, c, of the opposite side, are equally distant from F, the middle of that side; that is, a circle will always pass through the right angle, and the ends of its opposite side taken as a diameter.

THEOREM XXI.

The angle ACD, formed by a tangent AB, to a circle, CDE, and a chord, CD, drawn from the point of contact, C, is equal to an angle, CED, in the alternate segment; and is measured by half the arc DC of the included segment.



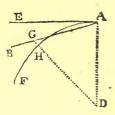
DEM. Draw the diameter FC, and join DF.	
The ∠s ACF and CDF are both right.	(126, 130)
Therefore the \angle ' DCF and DFC are together \equiv a right \angle .	(96)
But the \angle ' ACD and DCF are together \equiv a right \angle .	
Confequently the \(DCF \) and DFC = the \(\alpha' \) ACD and DCF.	(46)
Take the \(DCF \) from each, and the \(DFC = \) the \(ACD. \)	(48)
But the 2' DFC and DEC are equal.	(129)
Consequently the \(\neq\^\circ\) DEC and ACD are equal also.	(46)

^{*} A fmall o put above any figure, fignifies degrees.

133.

THEOREM XXII.

Between a circular arc AHF, and its tangent AE, no right line can be drawn from the point of contact A.



DEM. For if any other right line can be drawn, let it be the right line AB.

From D, the center of AHF, draw DG perpendicular to AB, cutting AB in G, and the arc in H.

Now as \angle DGA is right; therefore DA is greater than DG. (106) But DA = DH (9). Therefore DH is greater than DG, which is abfurd. Confequently no right line can be drawn between the tangent AE and the arc AHF.

134. COROL. I. Hence the angle DAH, contained between the radius DA, and an arc AH, is greater than any right lined acute angle.

For a right line AB must be drawn from A, between the tangent AE and

radius AD, to make an acute angle.

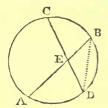
But no fuch right line can be drawn between AE and the arc AH. (133)

135. Corol. II. Hence the angle EAH, between the tangent EA and arc AH, is lefs than any right lined acute angle.

136. COROL. III. Hence it follows, that at the point of contact the arc has the fame direction as the tangent, and is at right angles to the radius drawn to that point.

THEOREM XXIII.

If two right lines, AB, CD, interfect any how (in E) within a circle, their inclination, AED, or CEB, is meafured by half the fum of the intercepted arcs, AD, CB.



DEM. For drawing DB;

The \angle AED = \angle EDB + \angle EBD.

But the \angle EDB is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc CB.

And the \angle EBD is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc AD.

Consequently the \angle AED is measured by half the arc CB, together with half the arc AD.

(50)

SECTION IV. Of Proportion.

DEFINITIONS and PRINCIPLES.

138. One quantity A, is faid to be measured or divided by another quantity B, when A contains B some number of times, exactly.

Thus if A=20, and B=5; then A contains B four times. A is called a multiple of B; and B is faid to be part of A.

139. If a quantity A (=20) contains another B (=5) as many times as a quantity C (=24) contains another D (=6); then

A and C are called like multiples of B and D.

B and D are called like parts of A and C: And
A is faid to have the fame relation to B, as C has to D.

Or, like multiples of quantities are produced, by taking their Rectan-

gle, or Product, by the same quantity, or by equal quantities.

The Rectangle or Product of quantities, A and B, is expressed by writing this mark \times between them. Thus, $A \times B$, or $B \times A$, expresses the rectangle contained by A and B.

140 When two quantities of a like kind are compared together, the relation which one of them has to the other, in respect to quantity, is called Ratio.

The first term of a ratio, or the quantity compared, is called the Antecedent; and the second term, or the quantity compared to, is called the Consequent.

A ratio is usually denoted by setting the antecedent above the conse-

quent with a line drawn between them.

Thus $\frac{A}{B}$ fignifies, and is thus to be read, the ratio of A to B.

The multiple of a ratio $\frac{A}{B}$, is the product of each of its terms by the fame quantity, or by equal quantities. Thus $\frac{A \times C}{B \times C}$ is the ratio $\frac{A}{C}$ taken C times.

The product of two or more ratios, $\frac{A}{B}$, $\frac{C}{D}$, is expressed by taking the product of the antecedents for a new antecedent, and the product of the confequents for a new consequent. Thus $\frac{A \times C}{B \times D} = \frac{A}{B} \times \frac{C}{D}$.

141. Equal ratios are those where the antecedents are like multiples or parts of their respective consequents.

Thus in the quantities A, B, C, D: Or 20, 5, 24, 6.

In the ratio of A to B, or of 20 to 5, the antecedent is a multiple of its confequent four times.

And in the ratio of c to D, or 24 to 6, the antecedent is a multiple of its confequent four times.

That is, the ratio of A to B is the same as the ratio of C to D.

And this equality of ratios is thus expressed, $\frac{A}{B} = \frac{C}{D}$.

142. Ratio of equality is, when the antecedent is equal to the consequent.

Thus when A = B, then $\frac{A}{B}$, or $\frac{A}{A}$, or $\frac{B}{B}$, is a ratio of equality.

143. Four quantities are faid to be proportional, which, when compared together by two and two, are found to have equal ratios.

Thus, let the quantities to be compared be A, B, C, D: Or 20, 5, 24, 6. Now in the ratio of A to B, or of 20 to 5; A contains B four times. And in the ratio of C to D, or of 24 to 6; C contains D four times.

Then the ratios of A to B, and of C to D, are equal: Or $\frac{A}{B} = \frac{C}{D}$. (141)

And their proportionality is thus expressed, A:B::C:D.

Also in the ratio of A to c, or of 20 to 24; c contains A, once and $\frac{1}{5}$.

And in the ratio of B to D, or of 5 to 6; D contains B, once and $\frac{1}{5}$.

Where the ratios are likewise equal, viz. $\frac{A}{C} = \frac{B}{D}$.

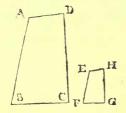
And these are also proportional, A:C::B:D.

144. So that when four quantities of the same kind are proportional, the ratio between the first and second is equal to the ratio between the third and sourth; and this proportionality is called Direct.

145. Also the ratio between the first and third is equal to the ratio between the second and sourth; and this proportionality is called Alternate.

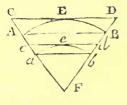
146. Similar, or like, right lined figures, are those which are equiangular, (that is, the several angles of which are equal one to the other;) and also, the sides about the equal angles proportional.

Thus if the figures Ac and EG are equiangular, And AB: BC:: EF: FG; Or BC: CD:: FG: GH; Then are those figures called similar, or like figures. And the like in triangles, or other figures.



147. Like arcs, chords, or tangents, in different circles, are those which subtend, or are opposite to, equal angles at the center.

Let F be the center of two concentric arcs AEB, aeb, terminated by the radii FaA, FbB, produced; AB, ab, their chords, and CD, cd, their tangents. Then as the angle CFD is measured either by the arc AEB, or aeb, those arcs are said to be alike, or similar; that is, the arc aeb is the same part of its whole circumference, as the arc AEB is of its whole circumference.



F 3 148. THEO... Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

148.

THEOREM XXIV.

Quantities, and their like multiples, have the same ratio.

That is, the ratio of A to B is equal to the ratio of twice A to twice B, or thrice A to thrice B, &c. Or thus $\frac{A}{B} = \frac{2A}{2B} = \frac{3A}{3B}$, &c. $= \frac{C \times A}{C \times B}$; that is, equal to the ratio of c times A to c times B.

DEM. For the ratio of A to B must either be equal to the ratio of like multiples of A and B, or to the ratio of unlike multiples of them.

Now suppose the ratio of A to B is equal to the ratio of their unlike

multiples, c times A, D times B; that is, $\frac{A}{B} = \frac{C \times A}{D \times B}$

Then A: B:: C × A: D × B (143). And A: C × A:: B: D × B. (145)

Therefore $\frac{A}{C \times A} = \frac{B}{D \times B}$ (144). Where the confequents are unequal multiples of their antecedents, by supposition.

But $\frac{A}{C \times A}$ is not equal to $\frac{B}{D \times B}$. (141)

Then A: CXA::B: DXB is not true. Also A: B:: CXA: DXB is not true.

Consequently $\frac{A}{B}$ is unequal to $\frac{C \times A}{D \times B}$.

Therefore the ratio of unlike multiples of two quantities, is not equal to the ratio of those quantities.

Consequently the ratio of two quantities, and the ratio of their like multiples, are the same. Or $\frac{A}{B} = \frac{C \times A}{C \times B}$.

149. Cor. I. In any ratio, if both terms contain the same quantity or quantities; the value of the ratio will not be altered by omitting, or taking away those quantities. For $\frac{C \times A}{C \times B} = \frac{A}{B}$, by taking away c.

150. Cor. II. Quantities, and their like parts, have equal ratios. For A and B are like parts of C X A and C X B.

151. Cor. III. Quantities, and their like multiples, or like parts, are proportional. For A:B::CXA:CXB. And CXA:CXB:: A:B (148)

parts, are also equal. For if A=B; and $\frac{A}{B} = \frac{C \times A}{C \times B}$;

Then are the antecedents and confequents in a ratio of equality. (141)

153. Cor. V. If the parts of one quantity are proportional to the parts of another quantity, they are like parts of their respective quantities. For only like parts are proportional to their wholes. (151)

154. Con. VI. Ratios, which are equal to the same ratio, are equal to

one another. For the ratio of $\frac{A}{B} = \frac{C \times A}{C \times B} = \frac{D \times A}{D \times B}$, &c. (148)

155. COR.

155. Cor. VII. Proportions, which are the fame to the fame proportion, are the fame to one another.

If A:B::c:D; and A:B::E:F; Then c:D::E:F.

For
$$\frac{A}{B} = \frac{D}{C}$$
; and $\frac{A}{B} = \frac{E}{F}$ (144). Then $\frac{C}{D} = \frac{E}{F}$. (46)

156. Cor. VIII. If two ratios or products are equal, their like multiples, either by the same or by equal quantities, or by equal ratios, are also equal.

That is, if
$$\frac{A}{B} = \frac{C}{D}$$
: Then $\frac{A \times E}{B \times E} = \frac{C \times C}{D \times E}$.

And if
$$E = F$$
: Then $\frac{A \times E}{B \times E} = \frac{C \times F}{D \times F}$

And if
$$\frac{E}{F} = \frac{G}{H}$$
: Then $\frac{A \times E}{B \times F} = \frac{C \times G}{D \times H}$.

For in either case, the ratios may be considered as quantities.

THEOREM XXV.

Equal quantities, A and B, have the same ratio or proportion to another quantity C. And any quantity has the same ratio to equal quantities.

That is, if A=B: Then A:c::B:c. And c:A::c:B.

Dem. Since A=B; then c is the like multiple, or part of B, as it is of A.

And A:B::c:c(151). Therefore A:c::B:c. (145)

Also c:c::A:B(151). Therefore c:A::c:B. (145)

158. Cor. I. Hence, when the antecedents are equal, the confequents are equal; and the contrary.

159. Cor. II. Quantities are equal, which have the fame ratio to another quantity: or to like multiples or parts of another quantity. Thus, if A: C:: B: C. Then A=B.

160. Cor. III. Since A: c:: B: c; and c: A:: c: B. Therefore, when four quantities are in proportion, As antecedent is to confequent, fo is antecedent to confequent: Then shall the first confequent be to its antecedent, as the second confequent to its antecedent: and this is called the inversion of ratios.

THEOREM XXVI.

In two, or more, fets of proportional quantities, the rectangles under the like terms are proportional.

That is, if A:B::C:D; and E:F::G:H.

Then AXE: BXF:: CXG: DXH.

DEM. Since
$$\frac{A}{E} = \frac{C}{D}$$
; and $\frac{E}{F} = \frac{G}{H}$. (144)

Therefore
$$\frac{A \times E}{B \times F} = \frac{C \times G}{D \times H}$$
. (156)

F 4 162. THEO-

THEOREM XXVII.

In four proportional quantities A:B::C:D. Then the Rectangle or Product of the two extremes is equal to the Rectangle or Product of the two means. That is, A X D = B X C.

DEM. Since A:B::C:D by supposition. Therefore
$$\frac{A}{B} = \frac{C}{D}$$
. (144)

And
$$\frac{A}{B} = \frac{A \times D}{B \times D}$$
 (156). Also $\frac{C}{D} = \frac{C \times B}{D \times B}$. (156)

Therefore $\frac{A \times D}{B \times D} = \frac{C \times B}{D \times B}$ (46), where the consequents are equal.

Confequently
$$A \times D = C \times B$$
. (158)

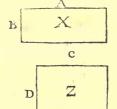
163. Hence, if the Rectangle or Product of two quantities is equal to the Rectangle or Product of other two quantities; those four quantities are proportional.

Thus, suppose the two Rectangles, X, Z, are equal; Where A, c, are their lengths, and B, D, their breadths.

Then $A \times B = C \times D$ by supposition.

Therefore A: C:; D:B,

That is, As the length of X is to the length of Z. So the breadth of Z is to the breadth of X.



In fuch cases, the lengths are said to be to one another reciprocally, as their breadths.

Or that proportion A: C:: D: B is reciprocal, when $A \times B = C \times D$.

THEOREM XXVIII.

If four quantities are proportional; then will either of the extremes, and the ratio of the product of the means to the other extreme, be in the ratio of equality: And either mean, and the ratio of the product of the extremes to the other mean, will be also in a ratio of equality.

That is, if A:B::C:D. Then $A = \frac{B \times C}{D}$. And $B = \frac{A \times D}{C}$.

DEM. Since A:B::C:D by supposition.

Therefore
$$A \times D = B \times C$$
. (162)

And
$$\frac{A \times D}{C} = \frac{B \times C}{C} (157)$$
. Also $\frac{B \times C}{D} = \frac{A \times D}{D}$. (157)

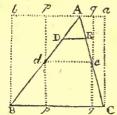
But
$$B = \frac{B \times C}{C} (149)$$
. And $A = \frac{A \times D}{D}$. (149)

Therefore
$$\frac{A \times D}{C} = B$$
, And $\frac{B \times C}{D} = A$. (46)

165. THE O-

THEOREM XXIX.

In any plane triangle, ABC, any two adjoining fide, AB, AC, are cut proportionally by a line DE, drawn parallel to the other side BC, viz. AD : DB : : AE : EC.



DEM. Through B and C draw Bb, ca, at right angles to BC, meeting ba, drawn through A, parallel

to BC: Through p, q, the middles of Ab, Aa, draw pp, qq, parallel to Bb or ca, meeting AB, Ac, in the points d, c; and join dc. (95,100)

Now the triangles Adp, Edp, and Acq, Ccq, are congruous. Therefore Ad = Bd, Ac = Cc, pd = pd, qc = qc.

(49)

But $p_f = qq$ (116): Therefore pd = qc.

And de is parallel to BC.

(116)

In the same manner it may be shewn, that lines parallel to Bb, drawn through the middles of Ap, pb; Aq, qa; will also bisect Ad, Bd; Ac, Cc; and that lines joining these points of bisection will also be parallel to Bc: And the same may be proved at any other bisections of the segments of the lines AB, AC: Also the like may be readily inferred at any other divisions of the lines Ab, Aa.

Therefore lines parallel to BC, cut off like parts from the lines AB, AC.

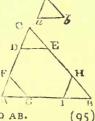
Then AB: AC:: AD: AE. And AB: AC:: BD: CE. (151)

Therefore AD : AE : : BD : CE. (155)And by Alternation AD : BD : : AE : CE. (145)

166. Cor. Hence, when the fides AB, Ac, of a triangle are cut proportionally, in D, E, the fegments AD, AE; DB, EC; of those fides are proportional to the fides: And the line DE, drawn to those sections, is parallel to the other fide BC.

THEOREM XXX. 167.

In equiangular triangles, ABC, abc, the sides about the equal angles are proportional; and the sides opposite to equal angles are also proportional.



DEM. In CA, CB, take CD $\equiv ca$, CE $\equiv cb$; and draw F

Then the triangles CDE, cab, being congruous. (99) The \angle CDE=(\angle a=) \angle A. Therefore DE is parallel to AB.

In the fame manner, taking AF = ac, AG = ab; also BH = bc, BI = ba; and drawing FG, HI, the triangles AGF, IBH, abe, are congruous; therefore FG is parallel to CB, and HI is parallel to CA.

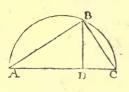
Then (CD =) ca : CA :: (CE =) cb : CB. (AF =) ca : CA : : (AG =) ab : AB.(165)(BH =) bc : BC :: (BI =) ab : AB.

168. Cor. Hence, Triangles have one angle in each equal, and the fides about those equal angles proportional, those triangles are equiangular and fimilar.

169, THEO-

169. THEOREM XXXI.

In a right angled triangle, ABC, if a line, BD, be drawn from the right angle B, perpendicular to the opposite side, AC; then will the triangles ABD, BCD, on each side the perpendicular, be similar to the whole ABC, and to one another.



DEM. For in the triangles ABC, ADB, the \angle A is common; And the right angle ABC = right angle ADB.

Therefore the remaining \angle C = \angle ABD.

In the fame manner it will appear, that the triangles ABC, BDC, are like.

Therefore the triangles ABD, BCD, are also similar.

170. Cor. I. Hence, AC: AB:: AB: AD.
AC: BC:: BC: DC.
AD: DB:: DB: DC.

(167)

171. Cor. II. Hence a right line BD, drawn from a circumference of a circle perpendicular to the diameter AC, is a mean proportional between the fegments AD, DC, of the diameter.

And AD × DC = DB².

For a circle, the diameter of which is AC, will pass through A, B, C. (131)

Scholium. This corollary includes what is usually called one of the chief properties of the circle, namely;

The square of the Ordinate is equal to the restangle under the two

Abscissas.

Here, the ordinate is the perpendicular BD; and the two Abscissas are the two segments AD, DC, of the diameter AC.

THEOREM XXXII.

In a circle, if two chords, AB, CD, interfect each other in E, either within the circle, or without, by prolonging them; then the rectangle under the fegments, terminated by the circumference and their interfection, will be equal.

That is, AE × EB = CE × ED.

DEM. Draw the lines BC, DA.

Then the triangles DEA, BEC, are fimilar.

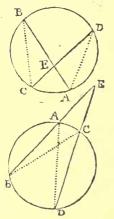
For the angle at E is equal (93), or common.

And the ∠D = ∠B, as flanding on the fame arc

AC (129). Then the other angles are equal. (98)

Therefore AE: CE:: ED: EB. (167)

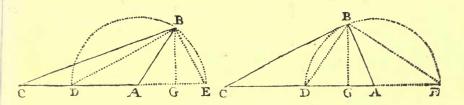
Confequently AE × EB = CE × ED. (162)



173. THE U-

THEOREM XXXIII.

If with the least side AB of a given triangle ABC, a semicircle be described from the angular point A; meeting the side AC, produced in the points D, E; and from B, the lines BE, BD, be drawn, and also BG perpendicular to DE: Then the values of the several lines AG, CG, GE, GD, BE, BD, BG, may be expressed in terms of the sides of the triangle ABC, as follow.



174.
$$AG = \frac{\overline{BC^2 - AC^2 - AB^2}}{2AC}. \quad (123)$$
Or
$$AG = \frac{\overline{AC^2 + AB^2 - BC^2}}{2AC}. \quad (121)$$
175.
$$CG = \frac{\overline{AC^2 - AB^2 + BC^2}}{2AC}. \quad For \quad CG = AC + AG, \text{ or to } AC - AG.$$
And
$$AC + AG = AC + \frac{\overline{BC^2 - AC^2 - AB^2}}{2AC}. \quad (174)$$

$$= \frac{2\overline{AC^2 + BC^2 - AC^2 - AB^2}}{2AC}. \quad (149)$$

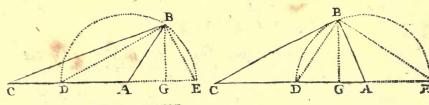
176.
$$GE = \frac{2H \times \overline{H - CB}}{2AC}$$
: Here $2H = AC + AB + BC$.

For $GE = AB(AE) + AG = AB + \frac{\overline{AC^2 + AB^2 - CB^2}}{2AC}$. (174)
$$= \frac{2AC \times AB + \overline{AC^2 + AB^2 - \overline{BC^2}}}{2AC}$$
. (149)

But $2AC \times AB + \overline{AC^2 + AB^2} = (\overline{AC + AB^2 = })\overline{CE^2}$. (117)

Then $GE = \frac{\overline{CE^2 - BC^2}}{2AC} = \frac{\overline{CE + BC} \times \overline{CE - BC}}{2AC}$. (119)
$$= \frac{\overline{CA + AB + BC} \times \overline{CA + AB - BC}}{2AC}$$

$$= \frac{2H \times \overline{2H - 2BC}}{2AC} = \frac{2H \times \overline{H - BC}}{2AC}$$



177.
$$GD = \frac{H - AC \times 2H - 2AB}{AC}$$
. Here $2H = AC + AB + BC$.

For GD = AD
$$\mp$$
 AG = AB \mp AG = AB $-\frac{\overline{AC^2 - AB^2 + BC^2}}{2AC}$. (174)
= $\frac{2AC \times AB - \overline{AC^2 - AB^2 + BC^2}}{2AC}$. (178)
= $\frac{\overline{AC - AB^2 + BC^2}}{2AC} = \frac{\overline{BC^2 - CD^2}}{2AC}$. (118)
= $\frac{\overline{BC - CD} \times \overline{BC + CD}}{2AC}$. (119)
= $\frac{\overline{BC + AB - AC} \times \overline{BC + AC - AB}}{2AC}$.
= $\frac{2AC}{2AC}$.

For
$$\overline{BE}^2 = DE \times GE$$
. (170)
 $= 2AB \times \frac{\overline{CE}^2 - \overline{BC}^2}{2AC}$. (176)

Therefore
$$BE = \sqrt{\frac{2 \text{ AB}}{2 \text{ AC}} \times \frac{\overline{\overline{CE}^2 - \overline{BC}^2}}{\overline{CE}^2 - \overline{BC}^2}} = \sqrt{\frac{AB}{AC} \times 2H \times \overline{H - CB}}$$
. (176)

179.
$$BD = \sqrt{\frac{AB}{C}} \times \overline{H-AC} \times \overline{2H-2AC}.$$
For $\overline{BD}^2 = DE \times GD$. (170)
$$= 2AE \times \frac{\overline{BC}^2 - \overline{CD}^2}{2AC}.$$
 (177)
Therefore $BD = \sqrt{\frac{2AB}{2AC}} \times \overline{BC}^2 - \overline{CD}^2$. (177)

Therefore BD =
$$\sqrt{\frac{2AB}{2AC}} \times \overline{BC^2 - \overline{CD}^2}$$
. (177)

180.
$$BG = \frac{2}{AC} \times \sqrt{H \times H - CB \times H - AC \times H - AE}$$

For BG2=GEXGD. Therefore BG=VGEXVGD. (170)

And
$$GE = \frac{2}{AC} \times H \times \overline{H-CB}$$
. (176) $GD = \frac{2}{AC} \times \overline{H-AC} \times \overline{H-AB}$. (177)

181. COROL. Hence is derived the Rule usually given for finding the area, or superficial content, of a Triangle, the three sides being known.

RULE. I. From half the fum of the three fides, subtract each fide severally, noting the three remainders.

2d. Multiply the faid half fum, and the three noted remainders continually.

3d. The square root of the product is the area of the Triangle.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® THEO.

THEOREM XXXIV.

If a regular polygon, ABCDEF, be inscribed in a circle; and parallel to these sides if tangents to the circle be drawn, meeting one another in the points a, b, c, d, e, f; then shall the sigure formed by these tangents circumscribe the circle, and be similar to the inscribed sigure.



DEM. Since the circle touches every fide of the figure abcdef, by conftruction; therefore the circle is circumfcribed by that figure. (41) Through A and B, draw the radii sA, sB, prolonged till they meet the tangent ab, in a, b.

Then the triangles ASB, asb, are equiangular.

For the \angle at s is common; and the other angles are equal, because AE and ab are parallel, by supposition.

Also sa=sb: For the triangles ASB, asb, are isosceles. (104)
And the same may be proved of the other triangles; and also, that they

are equal to one another.

Therefore the figure abcdef has equal sides, and is equiangular to the figure ABCDEF.

Now sA: sa:: AB: ab; and sA: sa:: AF: af. (167)

Therefore AB: ab:: AF: af. And the like of the other fides. (155)
Confequently the figures ABCDEF, abcdef, are fimilar. (145)

- 183. Cor. I. If two figures are composed of like sets of similar triangles, those figures are similar.
- 184. Cor. II. Hence, if from the angles a, b, of a regular polygon circumferibed a circle, lines as, bs, be drawn to the center s; the chords AB of the intercepted arcs will be the fides of a fimilar polygon, inferibed in the circle: and the fides AB, ab, of the inferibed and circumferibing polygons will be parallel.
- 185. Cor. III. The chords or tangents of like arcs in different circles, are in the fame proportion as the radii of those circles.

For if a circle circumscribe the polygon abcdef; then the sides of the polygons abcdef, ABCDEF, are chords of like arcs in their respective cir-

cumscribing circles.

And if a circle be inscribed in the polygon ABCDEF, the sides AB, ab, &c. are tangents of like arcs also: And these have been shewn to be proportional to their radii sA, sa.

186. Cor. IV. The Perimeters of like polygons (or the fum of their fides) are to one another as the radii of their inferibed or circumferibed circles.

For sA: sa:: AB: ab. (182)

And AB, ab, are like parts of the perimeters of their polygons.

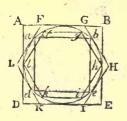
Therefore sa: sa:: perimeter ABCDEF: perimeter abcdef.

(151)

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

187. THEOREM XXXV.

If there be two regular and like polygons applied to the same circle, the one inscribed and the other circumscribed: Then will the circumference of that circle, Land half the sum of the perimeters of those polygons, approach nearer to equality, as the number of sides in the polygons increase.



DEM. It is evident at fight, that the circumfcribing hexagon FGHIKL is lefs than the circumfcribing fquare ABED.

And also that the inscribed hexagon fghikl is greater than the inscribed fquare abed.

And in both cases, the difference between the hexagon and the circle is less than the difference between the circle and the square.

Therefore the polygon, whether inscribed or circumscribed, differs less from the circle, as the number of its sides is increased.

And when the number of fides in both is very great, the perimeters of the polygons will nearly coincide with the circumference of the circle; for then the difference of the polygonal perimeters becomes so very small, that they may be esteemed as equal.

And yet so long as there is any difference between these polygons, though ever so small, the circle is greater than the inscribed, and less than the circumscribed polygons: Therefore half their sums may be taken for the circumserence of the circle, when the number of those sides is very great.

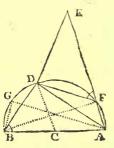
Hence, the circumferences of circles are in proportion to one another, as the radii of those circles, or as their diameters.

For the perimeters of the inscribed and circumscribing polygons are to one another, as the radii of the circles. (186)

And these perimeters and circumferences continually approach to equality.

189. THEOREM XXXVI.

In a circle AFB, if lines, BA, DA, FA, be drawn from the extremities of two equal arcs, BD, DF, to meet in that point A of the circumference determined by one of them, BA, passing through the center; then shall the middle line AD, be a mean proportional between the sum AB+AF of the extreme lines, and the radius BC of that circle.



DEM. On D, with the distance DA, cut AF produced in E.

Then drawing DE, DF, DB, the triangles ADB, EDF, are congruous. (102) For $\angle EFD = (\angle FDA + \angle FAD(96) =) \angle DBA(128)$. Because the arc DFA = DF + FA.

And $\angle E = \angle FAD(104) = \angle DAB$, by construction; and DE = DA.

Therefore EF = AB; and AE = AB + AF.

Draw CD; then the triangles ACD, ADE, are similar.

For they are Isosceles and equiangular.

Therefore AC: AD: (AE=) AB+AF.

(167)

190. Hence, whence the radius of the circle is expressed by 1, and one of the extreme lines, or chords, passes through the center; then if the number 2 be added to the other extreme chord, the square root of that sum will be equal to the length of the mean chord.

For fince AC: AD:: AD: AB + AF (189.) Th. $\overrightarrow{AD}^2 = AC \times \overrightarrow{AB \times AF}$. (162) Now if AC=1, then AB=2; And $\overrightarrow{AD}^2 = 2 + AF$; because multiplying by

r is useless here. Therefore AD= $\sqrt{2+AF}$.

As the arcs BD and DFA make a semicircle, they are called the supplements of one another: Therefore if the arc BD is any part (as, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{12}, \cdots
\mathbb{E}_c.) of the semicircumserence; then is the line DA called the supplemental chord of that part.

191. REMARK. In the posthumous works of the Marquis de le Hospital, (page 319, English edition) this principle is applied to the doctrine of angular sections; that is, to the dividing of a given are into any proposed number of equal parts: Or the finding of the chord of any pro-

posed arc.

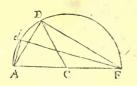
For if BF was any affumed arc, the chord of which had a known ratio to the given radius BC; then as BFA is a right angled triangle (130), the fide $AF = \sqrt{\overline{AB^2 - BF^2}}$ (113) will also be known. And by this Theorem the mean chord AD will be known; and also DB ($=\sqrt{\overline{AB^2 - AD^2}}$) the chord of half the arc BF will also be known.

And by bisecting the arc DB in G, and drawing AG, GB, the mean chord AG is known (189); and GB ($=\sqrt{\overline{AB}^2-\overline{AG}^2}$) is also given.

And in this manner, by a continual bifection, the chord of a very small are may be obtained; the practice of which is facilitated by article (190) deduced from page 330 of the said work.

192. Ex-

192. EXAMPLE. Required the chord of the \(\frac{1}{3.972}\) part of the circumference of a circle, the radius of which is 1. Or, required the side of a regular polygon of 3072 sides, inscribed in a circle, the diameter of which is 2.



Let ADF be a semicircle, the diameter AF=2, and center c. Take the arc AD=\frac{1}{2} of the semicircumference, or equal to 60 degrees; and draw DC, DA, DF.

Let d represent the point where the arc is bisected; d_F the supplemental chord to that bisection: and let the marks d, d'', d''', div, &c. express the bisected points agreeable to the number of bisections.

193. Now fince
$$\angle ACD = 60^{\circ}$$
.

Therefore $\angle CAD + \angle ADC = (180^{\circ} - 60^{\circ} =)120^{\circ}$. (98)

But \angle CAD= \angle ADC (104); then \angle CAD= $(\frac{120}{2})$ 60°. Therefore DA=(DC=AC=) 1.

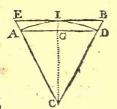
And as the triangle ADF is right angled at D. (130) Then DF = $(\sqrt{AF^2-AD^2} (113) = \sqrt{4-1} =) \sqrt{3} = 1,7320508075688773$ Therefore the supplemental chord of the arc AD, or of

Now Fd^{ix} the supplemental chord of T_{535}^{t} being known, the chord Ad^{ix} of T_{535}^{t} , part of the semicircumference, or of T_{535}^{t} , part of the whole circumference, is also known.

That is
$$Ad^{ix} = (\sqrt{AF^2 - Fd^{ix^2}}) \sqrt{4 - 2 + Fd^{vii}} = 0,0020453073606764$$

194. Consequently, the side of a regular polygon of 3072 sides, inferibed in a circle whose diameter is 2, is 0,0020453073606764

195. The fide of a similar polygon circumscribing the same circle, the center of which is c, may be thus found.



Let BE be the fide of the circumscribed polygon; and draw BC, EC, cutting the circle in D and A.

Draw DA, and it will be the fide of the inscribed polygon; and is parallel to BE.

Draw ci bisecting the angle BCE, and it will bisect BE and DA at right angles (103). And $DG = (\frac{1}{2}DA =) \frac{1}{2}Ad^{ix}$.

Then $CG = \sqrt{\overline{CD}^2 - \overline{DG}^2} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{2}\overline{Ad^{i}x^2}}$.

But $\frac{1}{2}$ Adix = 0,001022653680338. And its fquare is 0,00000104582055 Which subtracted from I leaves 0,99999895417945 Whose fquare root, or co, is equal to 0,99999947708959 Now the triangles CBI, CDG, are fimilar. (167, 151) Then cg: c1:: 2DG: 2BI.

Therefore (2BI=) BE= $(\frac{2DG \times CI}{CG}(164)=)\frac{DA}{CG}$; For IC=I.

Or BE = $\frac{0,0020453073606764}{0,9999994770895883}$ = 0,0020453084301895 which is the fide of a regular polygon of 3072 fides, circumfcribing a

circle the diameter of which is 2.

196. Scholium. The fide of a regular polygon of 3072 fides, inscribed in a circle, the diameter of which is 2, is 0,0020453073606764. (194). Which multiplied by 3072, will give the perimeter of that polygon, which is 6,2831842119979622.

The fide of a fimilar polygon, circumferibing the fame circle is

0,0020453084301895. (195)

Which multiplied by 3072, will give for the perimeter of that po-6,2831874973420925. lygon

The sum of these perimeters is

12,5663717093400547.

The half fum is 6,28318585, &c. Which is very nearly equal to the circumference of a circle, the diameter

of which is 2 (187), the difference between it

and the infcribed polygon being only 0,00000164, &c. and the circumferibed polygon being only 0,00000164, &c.

197. Now the circumferences of circles being in the fame proportion, as their diameters.

Therefore the diameter of a circle being 1,

3,141592, &c. which agrees with the The circumference will be circumference as found by other methods.

SECTION V.

Of Planes and Solids.

DEFINITIONS and PRINCIPLES.

198. A line is faid to be in a plane, when it passes through two or more points in that plane; and the common section of two planes is a line which is in both of them.

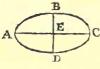
199. The inclination of two meeting planes AB, CD, is measured by an acute angle GFH, made by two right lines FG, FH, one in each plane, and both drawn perpendicular to the common section DE, of these planes from F, some point in it.



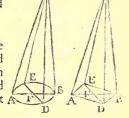
200. A right line DE intersecting two sides AC, BC, of a triangle ABC, so as to make angles CDE, CED, within the figure, equal to the angles CBA, CAB, at the base AB, but with contrary sides of the triangle, is said to be in a subcontrary position to the base.



201. If a circle in an oblique position be viewed, it will appear of an oval form, as ABCD; that is, it will seem to be longer one way, as AC, than another, as DB; nevertheless the radii EA, EB, are to be esteemed as equal. And the same must be understood in viewing any regular figure, when placed obliquely to the eye.



202. If a line be fixed to any point c above the plane of a circle ADBE, and this line while stretched be moved round the circle, so as always to touch it; then a solid which would fill the space passed over by the line, between the circle and the point AC, is called a CONE.



203. If the figure ADBE had been a polygon, and the stretched line had moved along its sides, the figure which would then have been described, is called a PYRAMID.

So that Cones and Pyramids are folids which regularly taper from a

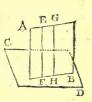
circle, or polygon, to a point.

The circle or polygon is called the Base; and the point c the Vertex. When the vertex is perpendicularly over the middle or center of the base, then the solid is called a RIGHT CONE, or a RIGHT PYRAMID; otherwise an Oblique Cone, or Oblique PYRAMID.

204. If a Cone or Pyramid be cut by a plane passing through the verfex c, and center of the base F, the section ABC, or EDC, is a triangle. 205. A right line AB, is perpendicular to a plane CD, when it makes right angles ABE, ABF, ABG, with all the right lines BE, BF, BG, drawn in that plane to touch the faid right line AB.



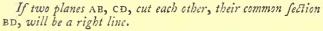
206. So that from the fame point B, in a plane, only one perpendicular can be drawn to that plane on the fame fide.



207. A plane AB, is perpendicular to a plane CD, when the right lines EF, GH, drawn in one plane AB, at right angles to FB, the common fection of the two planes, are also at right angles to the other plane CD.

208. So that a line EF, perpendicular to a plane CD, is in another plane AB, and at right angles to FB, the common fection of the two planes.

209. THEOREM XXXVII.





DEM. For if it be not, draw a right line DEB in the plane AB, from the point D to the point B; also draw a right line DFB in the plane BC.

Then two right lines DEB, DFB, have the fame terms, and include a space or figure, which is absurd. (7)

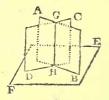
Therefore DEB and DEB are not right lines: Neither can any other lines drawn from D to E, befides BD, be right lines.

Consequently the line Dr, the common section of the planes, is a right

line.

THEOREM XXXVIII.

If two planes AB, CD, which are both perpendicular to a third plane EF, cut one another; their intersection HG is at right angles to that third plane EF.



(208)

DEM. For the common fection of AB and CD is a right line GH. (209) Also HB, HD, are the common sections of AB, CD, with the plane EF.

Now from the point H, a line HG drawn perpendicular to the plane EF, must be at right angles to HB, HD. (205)

But HG must be in both planes AB, CD.

Therefore it must be in the common section of those planes.

Consequently the section HG of the planes AB, CD, is at right angles to the plane EF.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

THEOREM XXXIX. 211.

The sections, aebd, of a Cone or Pyramid CAEBD, which are parallel to the base AEBD, are similar to that base.

DEM. For let AFBC, DFEC, be sections through the A

vertex c, and center F of the base.

Then these sections will cut one another in the right line FC (209), and the transverse section abde, in the right lines ab, and ed, interfecting in f.

Then are the following fets of triangles fimilar; namely, AFC, afc; BFC, bfc; DFC, dfc; EFC,

ofc.

Wherefore FC : fC :: FA : fa :: FB : fbAnd the like in any other fections :: FD: fd through c and F. (165)

Now in the Cone, FA = FB = FD = FE; therefore fa = fb = fd = fe. (152) So that all the right lines drawn from f to the circumference of the figure adbe are equal to one another.

Consequently the figure adbe is a circle.

(9) And in the Pyramid, FC: fC:: DC: dC:: DB: db:: DA: da.

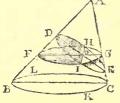
FC: fc:: EC: eC:: EA: ca:: EB: eb.

Therefore in each pair of corresponding triangles in the base and transverse fection, the fides are respectively proportional.

Confequently, as the base and transverse section are composed of like sets of fimilar triangles; therefore they are also similar. (183)

THEOREM XL. 212.

If a Cone ABLCK, the base of which is a circle CBLCK, be cut by a plane in a subcontrary position to the base, the section DIEH will be a circle.



DEM. Through the vertex A, and center of the base, let the triangular fection ABC be taken, so as to be at right angles to the planes of the base BKCL, of the subcontrary section DIEH, and of the section FIGH, taken parallel to the base, and cutting the subcontrary section in the line 10H.

Therefore 10H is perpendicular to DE and FG (210) cutting one another

Now the section FIGH is a circle (211). Therefore FO × 0G = 012. (171) Again the triangles GOF, FOD, are fimilar.

For LGEO= LDFO= LABC by conftr. And LGOE= LDOF. Therefore E0: 0G:: F0: D0 (107.) And E0 x D0 = F0 x OG (162) = 012. So that or is a mean proportional, either between Fo and og, or no and EO. But as the same would happen wherever FG cuts DE; therefore all the lines or, both in the fections FIGH and DIEH, are lines in a circle. Consequently the section DIEH is a circle.

213. If

213. If the section cut both sides of the cone not in a subcontrary position to BC, the diameter of the base, then the section (suppose it still) DIEH, is called an Elliptic section, which though not a circle, will be a bounded curve, longer one way than the other; and, like a circle, return into itself.

The curve DIEH is called an Ellipus.

214. The line DE, the TRANSVERSE DIAMETER or Axis.

The line on or or, is called an ORDINATE.

215. The ordinate through the middle of DE, is called the Conjugate Axis,

The intersection of the Transverse and Conjugate Axes, is called the CENTER of the Ellipsis.

- 216. If a circular arc be described, with a radius equal to half the Transverse Axis, from one end of the Conjugate Axis, its intersections with the Transverse Axis, are called Foci, one on each side of the center of the Ellipsis.
- 217. Every right line passing through the center of the Ellipsis, and terminated at each end by the curve, is called a DIAMETER.
- 218. The radius that would describe a circular arc of the same curvature with the ellipsis at any point of it, is called the RADIUS OF CURVATURE.

A TANGENT to any point in the Ellipsis, is a right line perpendicular to the radius of curvature at that point.

- 219. Two Diameters being fo drawn, that one is parallel to a tangent, and the other passes through the point of contact; those two Diameters are said to be Conjugate Diameters; and have certain relations to their Ordinates, Tangents, Radii of Curvature, and other lines belonging to the Ellipsis.
- 220. A third proportional to any two Conjugate Diameters, is called the PARAMETER.

SECTION VI.

Of the Spiral.

221. Suppose the radius of a circle to revolve with an uniform motion round its center, and while it is so revolving, let a point move along the radius; then will the successive places of that point be in a curve, which is called a spiral.

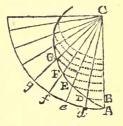
This will be readily conceived by imagining a fly to move along the

spoke of a wheel, while the wheel is turning round.

If while the radius revolves once, the point has moved the length of the radius; then the spiral will have revolved but once round the center, or pole; consequently the motion in the circumference is to the motion in the radius, as the circumference is to the radius: And if the wheel revolves twice, thrice, or in any proportion to the motion in the radius; then the spiral will make so many turns, or parts of a turn, round the center.

222. Now suppose, while the radius revolves equably, a point from the circumference moves towards the center, with a motion decreasing in a geometric progression; then will a spiral be generated, which is called a proportional spiral.

Let the radius cA be divided in any continued decreasing geometric progression (90), as of 10 to 8; then the series of terms will be 10; 8; 6,4; 5,12; 4,096; 3,2768; 2,62144, &c. Also let the circumference be divided into any number of equal parts, in the points d, e, f, g, &c. Then if the several divisions of the radius cA be successively transferred from the center c, cutting the other radii in the points D, E, F, G, &c. and a curved line be evenly drawn through these points it will be a spiral of the



drawn through those points, it will be a spiral of the kind proposed.

223. From the nature of a decreasing geometric progression, it is easy to conceive that the radius ca may be continually divided; and although each successive division becomes shorter than the next preceding one, yet if ever so great a number of divisions, or terms, be taken, there will still remain a finite magnitude.

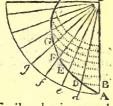
224. Hence it follows, that this spiral winds continually round the center, and does not fall into it till after an infinite number of revolutions.

Also, that the number of revolutions decrease, as the number of the equal parts, into which the circumference is divided, increases.

THEOREM XLI.

Any proportional spiral cuts the intercepted radii at equal angles.

DEM. If the divisions Ad, de, ef, fg, &c. of the circumference were very small, then would the several radii be so close to one another, that the intercepted parts AD, DE, EF, FG, &c. of the spiral, might be taken as right lines.



And the triangles CAD, CDE, CEF, &c. would be fimilar, having equal angles at the point C, and the fides about those angles proportional. (168) Therefore the angles at A, D, E, F, &c. being equal, the spiral must necessarily cut the radii at equal angles.

THEOREM XLII.

If the radii of any proportional spiral be taken as numbers, then will the corresponding arcs of the circle, reckoned from their commencement, be as the logarithms of those numbers.

DEM. As the lines CA, CD, CE, CF, CG, &c. are a series of terms in geometric progression; and the arcs Ad, Ae, Af, Ag, &c. are a series of terms in arithmetic progression; therefore these arcs may serve (I. 66) as the indices to the geometric terms, and be thus placed;

Radii of the spiral CA, CD, CE, CF, CG, &c. Geometric terms.

Corresponding arcs 0, Ad, Ae, Af, Ag, &c. Arithm. terms, or indices.

In this disposition, the first term CA is not distant from itself, therefore its index is represented by 0.

Then if the distance of the second term cp from the first term ca be expressed by the arc Ad; the distance of the third term CE, from CA, will be

expressed by the arc Ae; and so of the rest.

Consequently, if the terms in the geometric series be represented by numbers, taken as parts of the radius, then the numbers of the same kind, expressing the measures of the arcs, or indices, will be as the logarithms of the geometric terms.

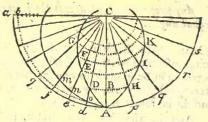
(I. 73)

227. COROL. If the difference between CA and CB was indefinitely small, or CA and CB were nearly in a ratio of equality; then might the number of proportional lines into which CA could be divided, be so many, that any proposed number might be found among the terms of this series; and if the number of parts in the circumference was increased in like manner, then would every term of the proportional division of the radius CA have its corresponding index among the equal divisions of the circumference; and consequently would exhibit the logarithms of all numbers.

228.

THEOREM XLIII.

There may be almost an infinite variety of proportional spirals, and as many different kinds of logarithms.



DEM. For with the fame equal divisions Ad, de, ef, &c. of the circumference, every variation in the ratio of CA to CB, as of Ca to Cb, will produce a different spiral, Asnm.

And with the same divisions of the radius cA, and different sets of equal parts, Ad, de, ef, &c. and Ap, pq, qr, &c. of the circumference, may be

formed different spirals ADEF, AHIK.

Also, varying at the same time both the divisions of the radius and cir-

cumference, different spirals will be produced.

But the variations in these three cases may be almost infinite: There-

fore the number of fuch spirals are almost infinite.

Now it is evident, that there is a peculiar relation between the rays of any spiral, and the corresponding arcs of the circle; that is, between the terms of a geometric progression, and its indices: Therefore there may be as many kinds of logarithms, as there are proportional spirals.

229.

THEOREM XLIV.

That proportional spiral which intersects equidistant rays at an angle of 45 degrees, produces logarithms that are of Nepier's kind.

DEM. Suppose AB, the difference between CA and CB, the first and second terms of the geometric progression, to be indefinitely small, and take Ap, the logarithm of CB, equal to AB; then may the sigure ABHP be taken as a square, whose diagonal AH would be part of the spiral AHSK, and the angle BAH would be half a right one, or 45 degrees.

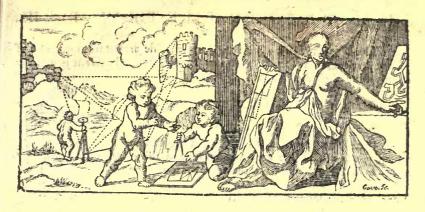
Therefore that spiral which cuts its rays cA, cH, &c. at angles of 45 degrees, has a kind of logarithms belonging to it, so related to their corresponding numbers, that the smallest variation between the first and second

numbers is equal to the logarithm of the second number.

But of this kind were the first logarithms made by Lord Nepier.

Therefore the logarithms to the spiral which cuts its equidistant rays at an angle of 45 degrees, are of the Nepierian kind.

END OF BOOK II.



THE

ELEMENTS OF NAVIGATION.

BOOK III.

OF PLANE TRIGONOMETRY.

SECTION I.

Definitions and Principles.

1. PLANE TRIGONOMETRY is an art which shews how to find the measures of the sides and angles of plane Triangles,

some of them being already known.

It will be proper for the learner, before he reads the following Articles, to turn to the definitions relative to a circle and angle, contained in the Articles 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, and 36, of Book II.

2. A Triangle confifts of fix parts; namely, three fides and three

angles.

The fides of plane triangles are denoted, or estimated by measures of length; such as Feet, Yards, Fathoms, Furlongs, Miles, Leagues, &c.

The angles of triangles are estimated by circular measures, that is, by arcs containing Degrees, Minutes, Seconds, &c. (II. 15); and for convenience these circular measures are represented by right lines, called right sines, tangents, secants, and versed sines.

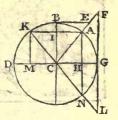
3. The

3. The RIGHT SINE of an arc, is a right line drawn from one end of the arc perpendicular to a radius drawn to the other end: Or it is half the chord of the double of that arc.

Thus AH is the right fine of the arc AG; and also of the arc DBA.

4. The TANGENT of an arc, is a right line touching one end of the arc, and continued till it meets a right line drawn from the center through the other end of that arc.

Thus GF is the tangent of the arc GA.



5. The SECANT of an arc, is a right line drawn through the center and one end of the arc, and produced till it meets the tangent drawn from the other end.

Thus CF is the secant of the arc AG.

6. The VERSED SINE of an arc, is that part of the radius intercepted between the arc and its right fine.

Thus HG is the versed fine of the arc AG.

7. The COMPLEMENT of an arc, is what that arc wants of 90 degrees.

Thus if the arc GB = 90°. Then AB is called the complement of AG; and AG is the complement of AB.

8. The SUPPLEMENT of an arc, is what that arc wants of 180 degrees.

Thus the arc ABD is the supplement of AG; and AG of ABD.

9. The Co-sine of an arc, is the right fine of the complement of that arc.

The Co-TANGENT of an arc, is the tangent of that arc's complement.

The Co-secant of an arc, is the fecant of its complement.

The Co-versed Sine of an arc, is the verfed fine of its complement.

Thus AI, BE, CE, BI, being respectively the fine, tangent, secant, and versed fine of the arc AB, which is the complement of AG; therefore AI is called the co-sine, BE the co-tangent, CE the co-secant, BI the co-versed fine, of the arc AG.

The right lines, called fines, tangents, fecants, and versed fines, are used as well for the measures of angles, as for the arcs which measure these angles: And it is as common to say the sine, tangent, &c. of an angle,

as the fine, tangent, &c. of an arc.

10. The

10. The greatest right fine, is the fine of 90°; and the fines to arcs less than 90°, serve equally for arcs as much greater than 90°.

Thus the fines of 80° and 100°; of 60° and 120°; of 40° and 140°, &c.

are respectively equal.

11. The fame tangent and fecant will ferve to arcs equally diffant from

go degrees; that is, to any arc and its supplement.

Thus if the arc BAG = 90°, and BK = BA; then the arcs GN, GA, DK. are equal; and the arcs GAK and GN, or DK, are supplements to one another: Then the fine KM, the tangent GL, the secant CL, of the arc GBK, are respectively equal to the fine AH, the tangent GF, the secant CF of the arc GA.

- 12. When an arc is greater than 90°, the fine, tangent, secant, of the supplement is to be used.
- 13. The chord of an arc is equal to twice the co-fine of half the supplemental arc.

Thus AN, the chord of the arc AGN, = 2CI, the co-fine of the arc AB,

and AB is half of the arc ABK, the supplement of AGN.

- 14. The versed fine and co-sine together, HG + CH of any arc AG, is equal to the radius; CH being equal to AI.
- 15. The fines, tangents, fecants, or verfed fines of fimilar arcs in different circles, are in the same proportion to one another, as the radii of those circles.
- 16. The angles of two triangles may be respectively equal, although their fides may be unequal.

Therefore in a triangle among the things given, in order to find the

rest, one of them must be a side.

In Trigonometry, the three things given in a triangle must be either,

1st. Two fides and an angle opposite to one of them. 2d. Two angles and a fide opposite to one of them.

3d. Two fides and the included angle.

4th. The three fides.

In either case, the other three things may be found by the help of a few Theorems, and a Triangular Canon, which is a table where is orderly inserted every degree and minute in a quadrant or arc of 90 degrees; and against them, the measures of the lengths of their corresponding sines, tangents, and fecants, estimated in parts of the radius, which is usually supposed to be divided into a number of equal parts, as 10, 100, 1000, 10000, 100000, &c.

SECTION II.

Of the Triangular Canon.

PROPOSITION L

17. To find the lengths of the Chords, Sines, Tangents, and Secants to arcs of a circle of a given radius.

Construction. Through each end of the given radius co, and at right angles to it (II. 60) draw the lines CF, DG: On c, with the radius cp, describe the quadrantal arc DA, and

draw the chord DA.

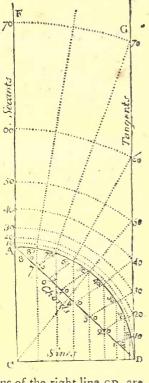
18. FOR THE CHORDS. Trifect the arc AD (II. 61.), and (by trials) trifect each part; then the arc AD will be divided into 9 equal parts of 10 degrees each; if these arcs are divided each into 10 equal parts, the quadrant will be divided into 90 degrees: But, in this small figure, the divisions to every 10 degrees only are retained, as in (II. 83).

From D, as a center, with the radius to each division, cut the right line DA; and it will contain the chords of the feveral arcs into which the quadrantal arc AD was divided.

For the distances from p to the several divisions of the right line DA, are thus made respectively equal to the distances or chords of

the feveral arcs reckoned from D.

19. FOR THE SINES. Through each of the divisions of the arc AD, draw right lines parallel to the radius AC; these parallel lines will be the right fines of their respective arcs, and cp will be divided into a line of fines, which are to be numbered from c to D, for the right fines; and from D to c for the versed fines.



For the distance from c to the several divisions of the right line co, are respectively equal to the sines of the several arcs beginning from A.

20. FOR THE TANGENTS. A ruler on c, and the feveral divisions of the arc AD, will interfect the line DG; and the distances from D to the several divisions of DG, will be the lengths of the several tangents.

21. FOR THE SECANTS. From the center c, with radii to the divifions of the tangents DG, cut the line CF; and the distances from c to the feveral divisions of cF, will be the lengths of the secants to the several arcs.

For these lengths are made respectively equal to the secants reckoned from c to the feveral divisions of the tangent DG.

22. If the figure was so large, that the quadrantal arc could contain every degree and minute of the quadrant, or 5400 equal parts; then the chord, sine, tangent, and secant to each of them could be drawn. Now a scale of equal parts being constructed (II. 81), 1000 of which parts are equal to the radius co; then the lengths of the several sines, tangents, and secants may be measured from that scale, and entered in a table called the triangular canon, or the table of sines, tangents, and secants.

But as these measures cannot be taken with sufficient accuracy to serve for the computation to which such tables are applicable; therefore the several lengths have been calculated for a radius divided into a much greater

number of equal parts; as is shewn in the following articles.

23. P R O P. II.

In any circle the chord of 60 degrees, is equal to the radius: and the fine of 30 degrees is equal to half the radius.

DEM. Let the arc CB, or ∠ CAB=60 degrees; and draw the chord CB.

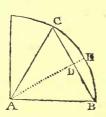
Now fince the radii Ac and AB are equal; (II. 9) Therefore $\angle c = \angle B$. (II. 104) And the $\angle c + \angle B = (180^{\circ} - (\angle A =) 60^{\circ} =)$

Therefore \angle c, or \angle B = (half 120°; or =) 60°

= $\angle A$ Confequently CB = AE = AC.

From A, draw the radius AE perpendicular to CB.
Then AE bifects the arc CB, and its chord.
And CD = fine of (the arc CE = half of 60° =) 30°.

And CD = fine of (the arc CE = half of 60° =) 30°. Consequently CD is equal to half the radius AB.



(II. 124) (3)

24. Hence, Twice the co-sine of 60 degrees is equal to the radius. For 30° is the complement of 60°, and twice the fine of 30° is equal to the radius.

PROP. III.

To find the fine of one minute of a degree.

It is evident (II. 187), that the less the arc is, the less is the difference between the arc and its sine, or half chord; so that a very small arc, such as that of one minute, may be reckoned to differ from its sine, by so small a quantity, that they may be esteemed as equal; and consequently may be expressed by the same number of such equal parts of which the radius is supposed to contain 1,00000, &c. which is readily sound by the following proportion.

As the circumference of the circle in minutes
To the circumf. in equal parts of the radius (II.196)
So is the arc of one minute
To the corresponding parts of the radius

1,
0,0002908881

So that for the fine of one minute, may be taken 0,0002908882

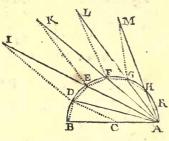
26. PROP.

PROP. IV.

In a series of arcs in arithmetic progression, the sine of any one of them, taken as a mean, and the sum of the sines of any other two, taken as equidistant extremes, are ever in a constant ratio, of radius to twice the co-sine of the common difference of those arcs.

DEM. For in a circumference, the center of which is c, and diameter AB, let there be taken a feries of arcs, ARB, ARD, ARE, ARF, ARG, ARH, &c. the common difference of which is the arc BD.

Then drawing the chords AB, AD, AE, AF, AG, AH, &c. their halves will be the fines of half the arcs ARB, ARD, &c. (3)



Also half the arc BD, is the common difference of half the arcs ARB, ARD, ARE, &c. (II. 150)

And the chord AD is twice the co-fine of half the supplemental arc

From the points, D, E, F, G, &c. with the radii DA, EA, FA, GA, &c. cut AE, AF, AG, AH, &c. produced in I, K, L, M, &c. draw ID, KE, LF, MG, &c. and BD, DE, EF, FG, GH, &c.

Then by the first part of the demonstration (II. 189), the following

triangles are congruous, namely,

ABD, IED; ADE, KFE; AEF, LGF; AFG, MHG, &c.
Therefore IE=AB; KF=AD; LG=AE; MH=AF, &c.

Also the triangles IDA, KEA, LFA, MGA, &c. being each of them isosceles, and their angles respectively equal, are similar to DCA. (II. 167)

Therefore CA: AD:: (AD: (AI =)AB + AE::) $\frac{1}{2}$ AD: $\frac{1}{2}$ AB + $\frac{1}{2}$ AE. :: (AE: (AK=)AD + AF::) $\frac{1}{2}$ AE: $\frac{1}{2}$ AD + $\frac{1}{2}$ AF. :: (AF: (AL=)AE + AG::) $\frac{1}{2}$ AF: $\frac{1}{2}$ AE + $\frac{1}{2}$ AG.

The halves being in the same ratio as the wholes. (II. 150)

27. Confequently, in a feries of arcs in arithmetic progression, viz. LARB, LARD, LARE, &c. the common difference of which is half the arc BD, it will be, (II. 164)

As (Ac) radius.

To (AD) twice the co-fine of the common difference;

So is the fine of either arc taken as a mean,

To the fum of the fines of two equidifiant extremes.

28. Hence, The fine of either extreme, subtracted from the product of the sine of the mean by twice the co-sine of the common difference, will give the sine of the other extreme.

(11. 164)

29. When

20. When the common difference of three arcs is 60 degrees; then twice the co-fine of that difference is equal to the radius.

And with any such three arcs, as 30, 90, 150; or 25, 85, 145; or

20, 80, 140, &c. it will be (27).

Here the first and second terms in the proportions being equal, the

third and fourth terms are also equal.

30. Hence, The sine of an arc greater than 60 degrees, is equal to the sine of an arc as much less than 60 degrees, added to the sine of its difference from 60 degrees.

Therefore the fines of arcs above 60 degrees are readily obtained from

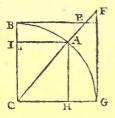
those under 60 degrees.

PROP. V. 31.

The right fine of an arc being known, to find its co-fine; and from thefe to find the tangent, secant, versed sine; and also the co-tangent, co-secant, and co-versed sine.

Let AG be any arc, and let AH be its fine, AI its co-fine; GF the tangent, BE the co-tangent; CF the secant, ce the co-secant; HG the versed sine, BI the co-versed fine.

Now if the fine AH be given, then the co-fine AI or CH, will be known (II. 113): For $CA^2 - AH^2 = CH^2$. Therefore the square root of the difference between the squares of the radius and fine, will be the co-fine.



- 32. Then the verfed fine HG = CG CH; and co-verfed fine IB = CE CI.
 And fince the triangles CHA, CGF, CBE, are fimilar,
- Therefore (II. 167) CH: HA:: CG: GF, the tangent.
 That is, As the co-fine to the fine, so is radius to the tangent.

And CH: CA:: CG: CF, the secant.
That is, As the co-fine to the radius, so is radius to the secant.

And CI: CA: CB: CE, the co-secant.
That is, As the sine to radius, so is radius to the co-secant.

- Also CI: IA:: CB: BE, the co-tangent.

 That is, As the fine to the co-fine, so is radius to the co-tangent. Or GF : CG : : CB : BE; that is, As tangent : rad. : : rad. : co-tangent.
- 37. Hence it is evident, that the tangent and co-tangent of an arc of 45° are equal to one another, and to the radius, or fine of 90 degrees.

And as the square of radius is equal to the rectangle of any tangent and its co-tangent,

Therefore tan. x cot. = tan. x cot. Therefore tan.: tan.:: cot.: cot.

Or the tangents of different ares are reciprocally as their co-tangents. Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft @38. The 38. The principles by which the lengths of the fines, tangents; fecants, &c. may be constructed, being delivered, the following examples are annexed to illustrate this doctrine.

Required the co-fine of one minute.

The fine of i minute being	0,0002908882 (25)
Its square is	0,00000008461594
Which subtracted from the square of radius	1.
Leaves	0.0000000000000000000000000000000000000
Whose square root	0,99999991538406
	0,99999999577 is the
co-fine of 1 minute; or the fine of 89° 59'.	
Now having the fine and co-fine of I minute, the	other fines may be found

twice the col. I min. × fine of I m. = fum of the fines of o' & 2'.

twice the col. I min. × fine of 2 m. = fum of the fines of i' & 3'.

twice the col. I min. × fine of 3 m. = fum of the fines of 2' & 4'.

twice the col. I min. × fine of 4 m. = fum of the fines of 3' & 5'.

twice the col. I min. × fine of 5 m. = fum of the fines of 4' & 6'.

Proceeding thus in a progressive order from each fine to its next, all the fines may be found.

But as twice the co-fine of 1 minute, viz. 1,9999999154 is concerned in each operation, therefore if a table be made of the products of this number by the nine digits, as here annexed, the computations of the fines may be performed by addition only.

For the products by the digits in the given multiplier, being taken from the table, and written in their proper order, will prevent the

trouble of multiplication.

in the following manner.

And even this operation may be very much shortened, by setting under the right hand place (viz. 4.) of the double co-sine of one minute, the unit place of the sine used as a multiplier, and reversing or placing in a contrary order, all its other figures; then the right-hand figure of each line arising by the multiplication, is to be set under one another; and in these lines, the first figure to be set down, is what arises from the figure standing over the present multiplying one; observing to add what would be carried from the places

omitted.

Now if the products of the figures in the multiplier, thus inverted, be taken from the above table of products, it is necessary to remark what number of places will arise from each digit used in the multiplier; then in the products of those digits in the table, take only the like number of places, observing to add I to the right-hand place, if the next of the omitted figures exceed 5.

Multi-Products. pliers. 1,99999999154 2 3,9999998308 3 5,9999997462 4 7,9999996616 5 6 9,9999995770 11,9999994924 7 8 13,9999994078 15,9999993232 17,99999992386

Required the fine of two minutes.

The fine of r min. placed in an inverted order under the double cos. of I min. as in the margin; the right-hand figure 2 stands under the 9 in the 6th decimal place, therefore the first 6 decimal places of the product against 2 in the table, are to be used; but I being added, because the 7th place 8, exceeds 5, makes the product 4000000: Also for 9 the next figure in the multiplier, standing under the 5th decimal place, take 17,99999 from the table of products, and I being added to the 5th place, because the 6th exceeds 5, make it 18,00000: In like manner the product by 8,

adding 1, is 16000, &c. and the sum of these products 0,0005817764

is the fine of 2 minutes, as required.

This kind of operation will be very easily conceived without farther illustration, by comparing the process in this and the following operations, with what has been already said.

Required the fines of 3', 4', 5', and 6 minutes.

	For 3 min.	For 4 min.	For 5 min.	For 6 min.		
	1,99999999154 4677185000,0			5044454100,0		
	10000000	15000000	20000000	20000000		
	1600000	1400000	2000000	8000000		
	20000	40000	1200000	1000000		
	14000	12000	60000	80000		
	1400	1200	10000	6003		
	120	80	1000	800		
	8	10	40	10		
			1 2			
	0,0011635;28	0,0017453290	0,0023271052	0,0029088810		
	0,0002908882	0,0005817764	0,0008726645	0,0011635526		
	0,0008726646	0,0011635526	0,0014544407	0,0017453284		

In each example, the fine of an arc which is 2 minutes less than that required, (28) is subtracted.

The fines being made, the tangents, secants, &c. are to be constructed as before shewn.

(33, 34)

39. There are many methods by which the triangular canon may be made; but that which is here delivered was chosen as the most easy, the best adapted to this work, and what would give the learner a sufficient notion how these numbers are to be found: For at this time there is no occasion to construct new tables of sines, and rarely to examine those already extint; they having passed through the hands of a great many careful examiners, and for a long time have been received by the learned as a work sufficiently correct.

Vol. I. H

These lines were first introduced into mathematical computations by Hipparchus and Menelaus, whose methods of performance were contracted by Ptolemy, and afterwards perfected by Regionontanus; and fince his time Rheticus, Clavius, Petiscus, and many other eminent men, have treated largely on this subject, and greatly exemplified the use of this triangular Canon, or Tables; which are now, by way of distinction, called Tables of natural sines, tangents, &c. But the greatest improvement ever made in this kind of mathematical learning, was by the Lord Nepicr, Baron of Merchiston in Scotland; who, being very fond of such studies, where calculations by the sines, tangents, &c. did frequently occur, judged it would be of vast advantage if these long multiplications and divisions could be avoided; and this he effected by his happy invention of computing by certain numbers, considered as the indices of others (I. 63), which he called logarithms; this was about the year 1614.

The tables now chiefly used in Trigonometrical computations, are the logarithms of those numbers which express the lengths of the sines, tangents, &c. and therefore to distinguish them from the natural ones, they are called Legarithmic sines, tangents, &c. (or by some artificial sines, &c.) Only those of the logarithmic sines and tangents are annexed to this treatise, because the business of Navigation may be performed by them; neither are these tables carried to more than five places beside the index, that being sufficiently exact for all nautical purposes: But it must be allowed that, for general use, such tables are the most esteemed, as con-

fift of most places.

40. These tables are at the end of Book IX. and are so disposed, that each opening of the book contains eight degrees; four of which are numbered at the top, and four at the bottom of the page; and those at the top proceed from lest to right, or forwards, from 0 degrees to 45; and those at the bottom, from right to lest, or backwards, from 45 to 90 degrees: To each degree there are four columns, titled sines, co-sines, tangents, co-tangents; and the minutes are in the marginal column of each page, signed with M; those on the lest side of the page belong to the degrees which are at the top, and those on the right-hand side, to the degrees which are at the bottom of the page.

41. A fine, tangent, co-fine, co-tangent, to a given number of degrees, is found as follows:

For an arc less than 45 degrees,

Seek the degree at the top, and the minutes in the column figned M at the top; against which, in the column figned at the top with the proposed name, stands the fine, or tangent, &c. required.

But when the arc is greater than 45 degrees,

Seek the degrees at the bottom, the minutes in the column with M at the bottom, and the proposed name at the bottom.

Example I. Required the logarithmic fine of 28° 37'.

Find 28 deg. at the top of the page; and in the fide column, marked with M at the top, find 37; against which, in the column figned at the top with the word fine, stands 9,68029, the log. sine of 28° 37', as required.

Example II. Required the logarithmic tangent of 67° 45'.

Find 67 deg. at the bottom of the page; and in the fide column, titled M at the bottom, find 45; then against this, in the column marked tangent at the bottom, stands 10,38816, which is the log. tangent required.

42. But when a logarithmic fine or tangent is proposed, to find the de-

grees and minutes belonging to it, then,

Seek in the table, among the proper columns, for the nearest logarithm to the given one; and the corresponding degrees and minutes will be found; observing to reckon them from the top or bottom, according as the column is titled, where the nearest logarithm to the given one is found.

43. It may fometimes happen that a log. fine or log. tang. may be wanted to degrees, minutes, and parts of minutes; which may be thus

found.

Take the difference between the logs, of the degrees and minutes next lefs, and those next greater than the given number.

Then for $\frac{1}{4}$, take a quarter of this difference; for $\frac{1}{3}$, take a third; for

 $\frac{1}{2}$, take a half; for $\frac{2}{3}$ take two thirds; for $\frac{3}{4}$, take three quarters, &c.

Add the parts taken of this difference to the right-hand figures of the log. belonging to the deg. and min. next lefs, and the fum will be the log. to the deg. min. and parts proposed.

EXAMPLE I. Require tang. to 60° 56' 1.	d the log.	Example II. Requ fine to 32° 15'\frac{3}{4}.	ired the log.
Log. tang. 60° 57' is Log. tang. 60° 56' is	10,25535	Log. fine 32° 16' is Log. fine 32 15 is	9,72743 9,72723
The diff. is	29	The diff. is	20
Its half is Add it to tang. 60° 56'	10,25506	Its three fourths is Add it to fine 32° 15'	9,72723
Gives tang. 60 $56\frac{1}{2}$	10,25520	Gives fine $32 ext{ } 15\frac{3}{4}$	9,72738

In most most cases the work may be done by inspection.

44. And if a given log. fine or log. tangent falls between those in the tables: then the degrees and minutes answering may be reckoned $\frac{1}{4}$, or $\frac{1}{5}$, or $\frac{1}{5}$, $\mathcal{C}c$, minutes more than those belonging to the nearest less log. in the tables, according as its difference from the given one is $\frac{1}{5}$, or $\frac{1}{5}$, or $\frac{1}{5}$, or $\frac{1}{5}$, or the difference between the logarithm next greater and next less than the given log.

SECTION III.

Of the Solution of Plain Triangles.

PROBLEM I.

In any plain triangle, ABC, if among the things given there be a fide and its opposite angle, to find the rest.

Then say, As a given side,

To the sine of its opposite angle;

So is another given side,

To the sine of its opposite angle.

(AC)

To the sine of its opposite angle.

Therefore, to find an angle, begin with a fide opposite to a known angle.

Also, As the sine of a given angle,

To its opposite side;

So is the sine of another given angle,

To its opposite side.

(B)

(AC)

(AC)

Therefore, to find a fide, begin with an angle opposite to a known fide.

DEM. Take BD=CF=radius of the tables. Draw DE, AH, FG, each perpendicular to BC.

Then DE and FG are the fines of the angles B and C. (3)

Now the triangles BDE, BAH, are fimilar, and fo are the triangles CFG, CAH.

Therefore BD: DE:: BA: AH. (II. 167)
And (CF=)BD: FG:: CA: AH. (II. 167)

But (BD × AH=) DE × BA=FG × CA. (II. 162)
Therefore DE: CA::FG: BA. Or, S, ∠B: AC::S, ∠C:BA. (II. 163)

Schol. Or, by circumfcribing the triangle with a circle, it will readily appear, that the half of each fide is the fign of its opposite angle. And halves have the same proportion as the wholes.

46. PROBLEM II.

In a right-angled plane triangle, ABC, if the two fides containing the right angle B are known, to find the rest.

Then, As one of the known sides,

To the radius of the tables (or tangent of 45°);

So is the other known side,

To the tangent of its opposite angle.

(AB)

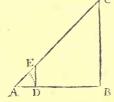
(BC)

(BC)

DEM. Take AD=radius of the tables.
Then DE, perpendicular to AD, is the tangent of the angle A.

And the triangles ADE, ABC, are fimilar.
Therefore AB: AD:: BC:DE,

(II. 167)



47. PRO-

PROBLEM III.

In any two quantities, their half difference added to their half sum, gives the greater.

The half diff. subtracted from the half sum, gives the less.

And if half the sum be taken from the greater, the remainder will be the half difference of those quantities.

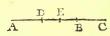
DEM. Let AB be the greater, and BC the less, of two quantities.

Take AD=BC; then BD is their difference. Bife& DB in E; then DE=EB, is the half diff.

And AD + DE = BC + BE (II. 47); therefore AE is the half fum.

Now AE + EB = AB, is the greater. And AE - ED = (AD =)BC, is the less.

Also AB-AE=BE, is the half diff.



48. PROBLEM IV.

In any plane triangle, ABC; if the three things known, be two fides, AC, CB, and their contained angle C, to find the rest.

Find the sum and difference of the given sides.

Take half the given angle from 90 degrees, and there remains half the sum of the unknown angles. Then say,

As the sum of the given sides,

AC+CB

To the difference of those sides;

t. $\frac{1}{2}B+A$

So is the tangent of half the sum of the unknown angles, To the tangent of half the difference of those angles.

t. $\frac{1}{2}B\overline{-A}$

Add the half difference of the angles to the half sum, and it will give the greater angle = B.

Subtract the half difference of the angles from the half sum, and it will give

lesser angle = A.

47.

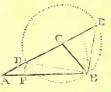
DEM. On c, with the radius cB, describe a circle, cutting AC, produced, in E and D; draw EB, and BD; also draw DF parallel to EB.

Then AE = AC + CB, is the fum of the fides.

And AD=AC—CB, is the difference of the fides.

Now $\angle CDB = \angle CBD$. (II. 104)

And $(CDB + CBD =) 2CDB = \angle CBA + \angle A. (II. 98)$



Therefore $\frac{1}{2} \angle CBA + \angle A = \angle CDB$, is half the fum of the unknown angles. And BE (II. 123) is the tangent of CDB, to the radius DB. (4) Alfo (CBA—CBD=)DBA= $\frac{1}{2} \angle CBA-\frac{1}{2} \angle A$ (47)

Therefore ½ ZCBA-ZA=ZDBA, is half the difference of the unknown

And DF is the tangent of DBA, to the radius DB. (4)

Now the triangles AEB, ADF, are fimilar, DF being parallel to EB.
Therefore AE: AD :: BE : DF. (II. 167)

Or AC + CB: AC-CB:: t. 1/2 CBA+ LA: t. 1/2 CBA- LA.

49. PRO-

PROBLEM V.

102

49

In a plane triangle, ABC, if the three fides are known, and the angles required.

From the greatest angle, B, suppose a line BD drawn perpendicular to its opposite side, or base, dividing it into two segments, AD, CD, and the given triangle into two right-angled triangles, ADB, CDB: Then say,

As the base, or sum of the segments,	AC	
Is to the fum of the other two sides;	AB + I	3 C
So is the difference of those sides,	, AB — I	3 C
To the difference of the segments of the base.	AD—I	C

Add half the difference of the segments to half the base, gives the greater segment AD. (47)

Subtract half the difference of the segments from half the base, there remains the lesser segment DC. (47)

Then, in each of the triangles, ADB, CDB, there will be known two sides, and a right angle opposite to one of them; therefore the angles will be found by Problem I.

(45)

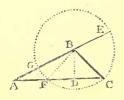
When two of the given sides are equal; then a line drawn from the included angle, perpendicular to the other side, bisects the side. (II. 103)

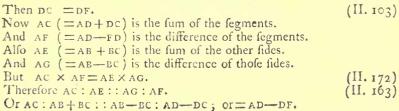
And the angles being found in one of the right-angled triangles, will also give the angles of the other.

DEM. of the foregoing proportion.

In the triangle ABC, the line BD, perpendicular to AC, divides AC into the fegments AD, DC.

On B with the radius BC, describe a circle GCE, cutting AB, continued, in G, E; and AC in F; draw BF.





In any plane triangle, ABC, the three fides being known, to find either of the angles.

Put E and F for the sides including the angle sought.

G for the side opposite to that ungle.

D for the difference between the sides E and F.

Find half the sum of G and D. And half the difference of G and D.

Then write these four logarithms under one another, namely,

The Arithmetical complement of the logarithm of E; (I. 88)

The Arithmetical complement of the logarithm of T;
The logarithm of the aforesaid half sum of G and D;
The logarithm of the aforesaid half difference of G and D.

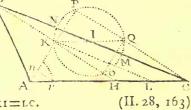
Add them together, take half their sum; which seek among the log. sines. And the degrees and minutes answering, being doubled, will give the measure of the angle sought.

DEM. In the triangle, ABC, let A be &

the angle fought.

Take $\Lambda H = \Lambda B$, draw BH; and through K, the middle of BH, draw AP, which bifects the angle A, and is perpendicular to BH. (II. 103)

Through K draw KL, KQ, parallel, to BC, AC; which will bifect AC, BC, in L and I; then KL = IC, KI = LC.



And the difference between AC and AB is HC = D; then $KI = \frac{1}{2}D$.

From I, with the radius IK, describe a circle cutting AP, BH, KQ, BC, in P, O, Q, M, N, and join CQ; now IQ=IK=LC=LH; therefore KQ=HC, and CQ=KH, as the triangles CQI, KHL, are congruous. (II. 99)

Therefore CQ parallel to KH (II. 28.) being produced, will meet AP at

right angles (II. 53), in the point P, by the reverse of (II. 130).

Then PQ=KO, as the triangles KQP, QOK, are congruous. (II. 95,100)

Now BM = $(BI + IM = \frac{1}{2}BC + \frac{1}{2}HC =) \frac{1}{2}G + D$: And BN = $\frac{1}{2}G - D$.

Also BO = CP: For BK = (KH=) CQ, and KO=PQ.

Let Ar = radius of the tables; then rn (parallel to BH) = fine of $\frac{1}{2} \angle A$. (3)

Then the triangles Anr, AKB, APC, are fimilar.

And Ar: rn: AB: EK; also Ar: rn: AC: (CP=) BO. (II. 167) Therefore $Ar^2: rn^2: AC \times AB: (BK \times BO=) EM \times BN.$ (II. 161, 172)

Or (fq. rad. $= \mathbb{R}^2$: fq. fine $\frac{1}{2} \angle A$:: $AC \times AB : \frac{1}{2} \frac{G+D}{G+D} \times \frac{1}{2} \frac{G-D}{G-D}$.

Therefore the fquare of the fine $\frac{1}{2} \angle A = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \overline{G+D} \times \frac{1}{2} \overline{G-D}}{AC \times AB} \times \mathbb{R}^2$. (II. 164)

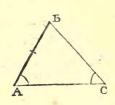
Therefore fine $\frac{1}{2} \angle A = \sqrt{\frac{\frac{1}{2}G+D}{E\times F}};$ (II. 113)

And R, the radius of the tables, being I.

Or Log.
$$s, \frac{1}{2} \angle A = \frac{\text{Log. } \frac{1}{2}\overline{G+D} + \text{Log. } \frac{1}{2}\overline{G-D} - \text{Log. } F - \text{Log. } F}{2} \begin{cases} 85 \\ 86 \\ 91 \end{cases}$$
 I. E + J. F + L. $\frac{1}{2}\overline{G+D} + \text{L. } \frac{1}{2}\overline{G-D} = \frac{85}{91}$ I.

Where L. stands for logarithm, and l. for Arith. comp. of the logarithm.

- 51. Every possible case in plane Trigonometry may be readily solved by the preceding Problems, observing the following Precepts.
- I. Make a rough draught of the triangle, and put the letters A, B, c, at the angles.
- II. Let such parts of this triangle be marked, as represent the things which are given in the question. Thus, mark a given side with a scratch across it; and a given angle by a little crooked line; as in the figure; where the side AB, and the angles A and C, are marked as given.



III. If two angles are known, the third is always known.

For if one angle is 90 degrees, the other given angle (which (II. 97)

will be acute) taken from 90 degrees, leaves the third angle.

And if both the given angles are oblique; their fum taken from 180 degrees, gives the other angle. (II. 96)

- IV. Compare the given things together, and determine to which Problem the question proposed belongs.
- V. Then according as the Problem directs, perform the preparatory work; and write down, under one another, in four lines, (or more if necessary), the literal flating; expressing each angle by a letter, or by three; each line by two letters; and the sums, or differences, of lines, by proper marks.
- VI. Against such terms as are known, write their numeral value, as given in the question, or as sound in the preparatory work; and against these numbers write their logarithms; those for the lines being sound (by I. 81) in the table of the logarithms of numbers; and those for the angles, sound (by 41) in the table of logarithmic sines and tangents: Observing that an Arithmetical complement (see I. 88) is always used in the first term: And that when an angle is greater than 90 degrees, its supplement is used.
- VII. Add these logarithms together, and seek the sum (I. 81) in the log. numbers, when a line is wanted; or (42) in the log. sines or tangents, when an angle is wanted. Then the number or degree, answering to that logarithm which is the nearest to the said sum, will be the thing required.

A SYNOPSIS.

Of the Rules in Plane Trigonometry.

32. 37 21 21					
PROB. Given. Re		Required.	SOLUTION.		
	All the angles and one fide.	Either of the other fides.	Since two angles are known, the third is known. And, As fin. of \(\triangle \text{opp. to fide given, is to that opp. fide;} \) So fin. of another angle, to its opp. fide.		
I. fee art,	Two fides and an \(\subseteq \text{oppof. to one fide.} \)	oppos. to	As one given fide is to the fine of its opp. angle; So is the other given fide, to the fide of its opp. angle. Then two angles being known, the third is known. And the other fide is found as before.		
II. art. 46	Two fides and the included right 4.	Either of the other angles.	As one of the given fides, is to the Radius; So is the other given fide, to the tangent of its opp. \(\neq\) Then two \(\neq\)s being known, the third is known. The other fide is found by opp. fides and \(\neq\)s.		
III. art. 48	Two fides and the included oblique angle.	The other angles.	Find the fum and diff. of the given fides. Take \(\frac{1}{2}\) given \(\triangle \) from 90° leaves \(\frac{1}{2}\) fum of the other \(\triangle \)s. Then, As fum fides, is to diff. of fides; So \tan. \(\frac{1}{2}\) fum other \(\triangle \)s, to \tan. \(\frac{1}{2}\) diff. those \(\triangle \)s. The \(\frac{1}{2}\) fum \(\triangle \)s \(\frac{+}{2}\) \(\frac{1}{2}\) diff. \(\triangle \)s, gives \(\frac{greater}{2}\) \(\triangle \) leffer \(\triangle \). Find the other fide by opp. fides and angles.		
IV. art. 49	The three fides.	All the angles.	Draw a line perpend, to the greatest side, from the opp. \angle , dividing that side into two parts. Then, As the longest side is to sum other two sides; So is the diff. those sides, to the diff. pt's of longest. Then \(\frac{1}{2} \long \). Side \(\left\) \(\frac{+}{2} \) \(\frac{1}{2} \) dif. pt's gives the \(\left\) \(\frac{\text{great.}}{\text{lefter}} \right\) part. Now the said perp. cuts the triangle into 2 right \(\alpha \) dones. In both, are known the Hyp. a Leg. and the right \(\alpha \). The angles are found by Problem I.		
V. art. 50	The thise fides.	Either Angle.	Having chose which angle to find; call the sides including that angle B and F. The side opp. that \angle , call G. Put D for the difference between E and F. Find the half sum, and half diff of G and D. Then write these sour Logs. under one another; Viz. { The Ar. Co. Log. of E, The Ar. Co. Log. of F, The Log. of ½ fum, And the Log. of ½ difference. Add the four logs. together, take half their sum. Seek it among the log sines; and the corresponding deg. and min. doubled, is the angle fought.		

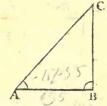
EXAMPLE I. In the plane Triangle ABC.

Given AB=195 Poles.

∠B= 90° 00'

∠A= 47 55.

Required the other parts.



FOR THE LINEAR SOLUTION.

1st. Draw AB equal to 195 poles, taken from a scale
of equal parts.

2d. From B, draw BC, making with AD an angle of 90°. (II. 84) 3d. From A, draw AC, making with AB an angle of 47° 55′; and meeting BC in the point C.

Then is the triangle ABC such, the parts of which correspond with the things given; and the sides CA, CB, being applied to the scale that AB was taken from, their measures will be found, viz. Ac=291; and BC=216.

FOR THE NUMERAL SOLUTION, OR COMPUTATION.

Since two angles are known; Therefore, From Take

From 90° 00'
Take $47 55 = \angle A$ Remains $42 05 = \angle C$

Now in this triangle, there are known all the angles and one fide; therefore among the known things, there is a fide and its opposite angle; which belongs to the first problem.

Then to find the fide Ac, begin with the angle c opposite AB.

As the fine of \angle c, To the opposite side AB; So the sine of the \angle B, To the opposite side AC.

 Or thus,	To	AB=195	po.	0,17379 Ar. Co. 2,29003 10,00000
	To	AC=291	po.	2,46382

And to find the fide BC, begin with the angle C opposite AB.

As the fine of the \angle c, To the opposite side AB; So the fine of the \angle A, To the opposite side BC.

Or thus,	To	$\angle C = 42^{\circ} \circ 5'$ $AB = 195 \text{ po.}$ $\angle A = 47^{\circ} 55'$	0,17379 Ar. Co. 2,29003 9,87050
	То	вс=216 ро.	2,33432

So that AC is 291 poles, and BC is 216 poles.

The letters Ar. Co. standing on the right of the first line, fignify the arithmetical complement of the log. sine of 42° 05'.

(I. 88)

54. Example II. In the plane Triangle ABC.

Given AB=117 miles.

_B=134° 46'

_A= 22 37.

Required the other parts.



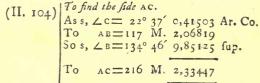
For the linear Solution, or Construction.

Make AB=117 equal parts; at A make an angle=22° 37' (II. 84); and at B make an angle of 134° 46'; then the lines which make with AB those angles, will meet in c, and form the triangle proposed. And the measure of BC will be 117, and of AC 216.

By Computation. See art. 45.

Since two angles are known,

Namely,
$$\angle B = 134^{\circ} \ 46'$$
 | Now from $180^{\circ} \ 00'$ | And from $180^{\circ} \ 00'$ | Take $157 \ 23$ | Take $134 \ 46$ | Their fum $=157 \ 23$ | Leaves $\angle C = 22 \ 37$ | The fup $\angle B = 45 \ 14$



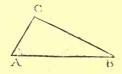
55. Example III. In the plane Triangle ABC.

Given AB=408 yards.

∠B=22° 37'

∠A=58 07.

Required the other parts.



CONSTRUCTION.

Make AB=408 yards, or equal parts; make the angle A=58° 07'; and the ∠B=22° 37'; then the lines forming these angles will meet in C; and the measure of AC is 159 yards, and of BC is 351.

COMPUTATION. See art. 45.

Two angles being known, viz
$$\angle A = 58^{\circ} \circ 07'$$
 | From 180° 00' | Take 80 44 | Leaves 99 16= \angle c.

	•		
To find the fide AC. As s, $\angle c = 99^{\circ}$ 16' To AB = 408 Y. So, s, $\angle B = 22^{\circ}$ 37'	0,00570 Ar.Co. 2,61066	To find the fide BC. As s, ∠ c=99° 10′ To AR=408 Y. So s, ∠ A=58° 07′	0,00570 Ar.Co. 2,61066 9,92897
To AC=159 Y.	2,201;3	То вс = 351 У.	2,54533

In these operations the supplement of the angle c is used.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® 56. Ex-

TRIGONOMETRY. Book III.

56. Example IV. In the plane Triangle ABC.

Given AB=195 Furlongs.

∠B=90° 00'.

Required the rest.

Construction.

Make AB=195 equal parts; draw BC, making an angle at B=90° 00'. From A with 291 equal parts cut BC in C, and draw AC.

Then the \angle A measured on the scale of chords will be about 48 degrees, and \angle c about 42°: Also BC, on the equal parts, measures about 216.

COMPUTATION.

Here being two fides, and an angle opposite to one of them, the solution falls under problem the first. See art. 45.

To find the angle c.

As AC = 291 F. 7,53611 Ar. Co.

To s, $\angle B = 90^{\circ}$ co' 10,00000

So AB = 195 F. 2,29003

So AB=195 F. 2,29003	So s, ∠ A = 4
	То вс=2
From co° oo′	

Take $42 \circ 5 = \angle c$, Leaves $47 \circ 5 = \angle A$.

t. 45.	
To find the side BC.	_
As s, LB=90° 00'	10,00000
To AC=291 F.	2,46389
So s, $\angle A = 47^{\circ} 55'$	9,87050
	-
To BC=216 F.	2.11420

Here the fine of 90° 00' or radius being the first term, its Arith. Comp. being 0, is not taken.

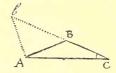
57. EXAMPLE V. In the plane Triangle ABC.

Given AC=216 Yards.

AB=117 Yards.

CC=22° 37'.

Required the rest.



Construction.

Make Ac = 216 yards; the $\angle c = 22^{\circ}$ 37'; and draw cB: Then from A, with 117 yards, cut cB in b or in B; and either of the triangles Acb or AcB will answer the conditions proposed: But the triangle to be used is generally determined by some circumstances in the question it belongs to. Thus if the angle opposite to Ac is to be obtuse, the triangle is ABC.

COMPUTATION.

The folution belongs to problem the first. See art. 45.

To find the angle B As $AB \equiv 117$ Y. To s, $\angle C \equiv 22^{\circ}$ 37 From 180° co′ 7,93181 Take | 157 23=4C+4B, 9,58497 So AC=216 Y. 2,33445 Leaves 37 L A. To s, LB=134° 46' 9,85123 And as $\angle 4 = \angle C$, LC+ LB=157 23 Therefore BC = AB, (II. 104)

If the angle required be obtuse, subtract the deg. and min. corresponding to the fourth log. from 180; the remainder is the $\angle B$ For the sourth log. gives the $\angle B$, which is the supplement to the angle B. (II. 104, 96).

itized by microsoft

Example VI. In the plane Triangle ABC.

Given AC = 408 AB = 159 $C = 22^{\circ} 37'$ Required the rest.

A C

Construction.

Make AC=408 fathoms; the $\angle C=22^{\circ}$ 37'; and draw cb; from A, with 159 fathoms, cut cb in b, or in E, and draw Ab or AE:

Then if the angle opposite to AC is to be acute, the triangle ACb is that which is required; but if the angle is to be obtuse, ACB is the triangle sought.

COMPUTATION. See art. 45.

Here being a fide and its opposite angle known, the solution falls under problem the first; the $\angle B$ is to be obtuse.

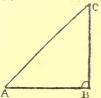
To find the angle B obtuse.		To find BC.		
As AB=159 F.	7,79860	As s, $\angle c = 22^{\circ} 37'$		0,41503
To s,∠c=22° 37′		To AB=159 F.		2,20140
So Ac=408 F.	2,61066	So s, LA=58° 04		9,92874
		_		
To s, ∠B=99° 19′	9,99423	То вс=350,9 Г.	-	2,54517
4 - 1 4 - 7 - 6	-	•		*****

Zc+ZB=121 56 Taken from 180 00

Leaves∠A=58 04

59. Example VII. In the plane Triangle ABC.

Given AB=195 Furlongs. BC=216 Furlongs. $\angle B=90^{\circ}$ 00'. Required the rest.



Construction.

Make the angle ABC = 90°; take BA = 195 equal parts, and BC = 216; and draw AC; then ABC is the triangle proposed; where the parts required may be measured by the proper scales.

COMPUTATION. See art. 46.

As two fides and the contained right angle are known, the folution belongs to problem the fecond.

To find the ang	le A		To find	AC.		
As	AB=195 F.	7,70997	As s,	LA=47°		0,12950
To Rad. or to	ang. 45° 00'	10,00000	To	BC=216	F.	2,33445
So	BC=216 F.	2,33445	So s,	∠B=90°	00	10,00000
						-
To t. 4	A=47° 55	10,04442	To	AC=291	F.	2,46395
						-

90 00 4c= 42 05

EXAMPLE VIII. In the plane Triangle ABC. 60.

Given AB=117 Yards. ∠B=134° 46'.

Required the rest.



Make the ∠ABC=134° 46'; take BA and BC, each equal to 117 equal parts, from the same scale, and draw AC; then is the triangle ABC equal to that proposed; and the parts required, measured on their proper scales, will give their values.

COMPUTATION. See art. 48.

Now as AB and BC are equal; there- To find AC. fore the angles A and c are alfo equal. As s, \(A = 22° 37' 180° 00 Take 134 46= LB.

14エムA+ムC. 45

So s, LB=134° 46' AC=216 Y.

То вс=117 Ү.

0,41503 2,06818 9,85125

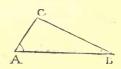
2,33446

The half 22 37= LA= LC.

Leaves

Example IX. In the plane Triangle ABC. 61.

Given AB=408 } Yards. ∠A=58° 07'. Required the rest.



CONSTRUCTION.

Make an angle CAB=58° 07'; take AC=159, AB=408, from the fame scale of equal parts; and draw CB; then will the triangle ACB be equal to that which was proposed.

COMPUTATION.

Here, there being two fides and their contained angle known, the folution belongs to art. 48.

AB=408 AC=159 The half of 58° 07' Is 29 03 1, which Taken from 90 00

AB +AC=567=fum of fides.

Leaves $60 \quad 56\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \angle C + \frac{1}{2} \angle B.$

AB-AC=249=diff. of fides.

To find the angles. To find BC. AB + AC = 567 7,24642 As s, Lc=99° 16' 0,00570 AB- AC=249 2,39620 To AB=408 Y. 2,61066 So t. 1/2 C+ LB=60° 561/2 (See 43) 10,25520 So s, LA=58° 07' 9,92897 To t. 1 _ C - _ B = 38 9,89781 To вс=351 У. Then (47) 16=∠c. (II. 105)

And 37= LB.

7,53611

2,61384

1,32222

1,47217

7,70997 10,00000

2,11628

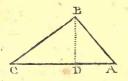
9,82625

62. Example X. In the plane Triangle ABC. Given AB=195

BC=216 AC=291

1

Required the angles.



Construction.

Make CA = 291 equal parts; from c, with 216, describe an arc B; from A with 195 cut the arc B in B; draw BC, BA, and the triangle is constructed, then the angles may be measured by the help of a scale of chords.

COMPUTATION.

The three fides being given, the folution falls under either Problem V. or Problem VI. But that the use of these Problems may be sufficiently illustrated, the folutions according to both of them are here annexed.

Solution by Problem V. (49)

From the angle B, draw BD perpendicular to CA, which will be divided into the segments CD, DA, the sum of which Ac is known.

Now BC=216 And AB=195 BC + AB = 411 = fum of fides.

BC-AB= 21=diff. of the fides.

Now the half of 291 145,5 And the half of 29,66 is 14,83

Therefore (47) the fum

 $160,33 \pm CD$; or CD = 160,3

the difference 130,67 = AD; or AD = 130,7.

Then in the triangle CDB. As BC = 216 - 7,66555 As AB = 195 - 10,00000 To s, $\angle ADB = 90^{\circ}$ Co' - 10,00000 To s, $\angle ADB = 90^{\circ}$ Oo' =160,3 ---

To s, $\angle CBD = 47^{\circ} 55' - 9.87048 | To s, \angle ABD = 42 05$

Wh.taken from 90 00

Leaves LC= 12 05

And in the triangle ADB.

To find the diff. of the Segments.

To CD-AD = 29,66 -

To BC + AB = 411 -

So BC-AB = 21 -

= 291 ---

2,20493 SO AD = 130,7

Wh. taken from 90 co

Leaves LA = 47 55, & LB = 90°0'.

Add Ar. Co. log. F. =216 - - 7,66555

And the log. $\frac{1}{2}(1+1)=135 - - 2,13033$ Also the log. 10-D= 60 - - 1,77815

Solution by Problem VI. (50) Then To Ar. Co. log. E. =291 - - 7,53611

To find the angle C. Put E=201=AC F=216=BC

> 1)=75 =E-F G=195=AB

2)270(135=2G+D

The half of this fum

Is the log. fine of $21^{\circ} 02^{\circ} 2(43) = -9.55507$

2)19,11014

2) 120(60 = G-D. Which doubled, gives 42° 05 = Lc.

The angle c being known, the other angles may be found by Prob. I.

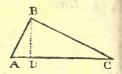
Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® 63. Ex-

63. EXAMPLE XI. In the plane Triangle ABC.

Given AC=408

BC=351

BC=351
AB=159
Required the angles.



CONSTRUCTION.

The construction and mensuration is performed as in the last Example.

Computation by Prob. V. art. 49.

From the \angle B draw the perpendicular BD; and find the fegments AD, DC; which may be done without logarithms.

Thus BC=351 Then (I. 46), As 408: 510:: 192: 240=DC-DA.

AB=159 For 192×510=97920; which divided by 408 gives 240.

BC + AB=510 Now half of 408=204; and half of 240 is 120.

BC-AB=192 Then 204+120=324=DC; and 204-120=84=DA.

In the triangle ADB. In the triangle BDC. AB=159 7,79860 BC=351 7,45469 To s, LD=90° 00' To s, LD=90° 00' 10,00000 10,00000 So AD=84 1,92428 So DC=324 2,51054 To s, LABD=31° 53' To s, 4 CBD = 67° 23' 9,96523 9,72288 And LA = 58 07 ∠c=22 37

Then ZABD+ZCBD=ZABC=99° 16'

COMPUTATION BY PROB. VI. art. 50.

To find the angle c. Then, to Ar. Co. log. E =408 7,38934 Put E=408=AC Add Ar. Co. log. F =3517,45469 F=351=BC 2G+D=108 And the log. 2,03342 Also the log. 1-G-D= 51 1,70757 D= 57=E-F. G=159=AB The half of this fum 2)18,58502 2)216(108= $\frac{1}{2}G+D$

2)210(108= $\frac{1}{2}G+\overline{D}$ Is the log. fine of 11° 18' $\frac{1}{2}$ 9,29251 2)102(51 = $\frac{1}{2}G-\overline{D}$ Which doubled, is 22° 37'= $\angle C$.

Now the angle c being known, the other angles may be found by Prob. I. But for a farther illustration of Prob. VI. the work for another angle is here repeated.

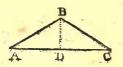
To find the angle B. Then, to Ar. Co. log. E =351 7,45469 Put E = 351 = BC Add Ar. Co. log. F =159 7,79860 F=159=AB $\frac{1}{2}G + D = 300$ And the log. 2,47712 Also the log. $\frac{1}{2}G - D = 103$ 2,03342 D=192=E-F. 6=408=AC The half of this fum 2).9,76383 2)600(300=2G+D Is the log. fine of 49° 38' 9,88191

2)216(108=1G-D | Which doubled, is 99° 16'= LB. Univ Calit - Digitized by Microsoft 8 64. Ex-

Example XII. In the plane Triangle ABC.

Given AB=117
BC=117
AC=216

Required the angles.



CONSTRUCTION.

The construction of this triangle, and the measuring of the angles, is performed as in the Xth and XIth Examples.

COMPUTATION.

In the triangle ABC, as AB=BC; therefore the angles A and C are equal (II. 104); and the perpendicular BD bifects the fide AC; fo that the right angled triangles ADB, CDB, are congruous; consequently, the angles being found in one triangle, will give those of the other.

Now in the triangle ADB, the fide AB=117; the fide AD,=1AC, is 108; and the \(\triangle\) D is 90° 00': Here, therefore, being a fide and its opposition.

fite angle given, the folution belongs to Prob. I.

To find the angle ABD.

As AB = 117 7,93181

To s,
$$\angle$$
 D = 90° 00′ 10,00000

So AD = 108 2,03342

To s, \angle ABD = 67° 23′ 9,96523

Wh. taken from 90° 00′

Leaves 22° 37′ = \angle A = \angle C.

A like process is to be used in every triangle, in which are two equalsides.

The foregoing examples contain all the variety that can possibly happen in the solutions of plane triangles, considered only with regard to their sides and angles; but besides the methods shewn of resolving such triangles by construction and computation, there is another way to find these solutions, called Instrumental; and this is of two kinds, viz. either by a ruler called a Sector, or by one called the Gunter's scale: The method by the sector, the curious reader may see in many books, particularly in a treatise on Mathematical Instruments published in the year 1775, 3d edition *: But the other method by the Gunter's scale being in great use at sea, it will be proper in this place to treat of it.

By the author of these Elements.

SECTION IV.

Description and Construction of the Gunter's Scale.

65. Mr. Edmund Gunter, Professor of Astronomy at Gresham College, sometime about the year 1624, applied the Logarithms of Numbers to a stat ruler: This he effected by taking the lengths expressed by the figures in those logarithms from a scale of equal parts, and transferring them to a line, or scale, drawn on such a ruler; and this is the line which, from his name, is called the Gunter's line: He also, in like manner, constructed lines containing the logarithms of the sines and tangents; and since his time there have been contrived other logarithmic scales adapted to various purposes.

The Gunter's scale is a ruler, commonly two feet long; having on one of its flat sides several lines or logarithmic scales; and on the other side various other scales; which, to distinguish them from the former, may

be called natural scales.

While the reader is perusing what follows, it is proper he should have a Gunter's scale before him.

66. Of the Natural Scales.

The half of one fide is filled with different scales of equal parts, for the convenience of constructing a larger, or smaller figure: The other half contains scales of Rhumbs, marked Rhu; Chords, marked Ch; Sines, marked Sin; Tangents, marked Tan; Secants, marked Sec; Semitangents, denoted by S. T. and Longitude distinguished by M. L. The descriptions and uses of these scales will be considered hereafter, in the places where they will be wanted.

67. Of the Logarithmic Scales.

On the other fide of the scale are the following lines.

I. A line marked s. R. (fine rhumbs), which contains the logarithmic fines of the degrees to each point and quarter point of the compafs.

II. A line figned T. R. (tan. rhumbs), the divisions of which correspond to the logarithmic tangents of the faid points and quarters.

III. A line marked Num. (numbers), where the logarithms of numbers are laid down.

- IV. A line-marked Sin. containing the log. fines.

V. A line of log. versed fines, marked v. s. VI. A line of log. tangents, marked Tan.

VII. A meridional line figned Mer.

VIII. A line of equal parts, marked E. P.

68. I. Of the Line of Numbers.

The whole length of this line, or scale, is divided into two equal spaces, or intervals: the beginning, or left-hand end of the first, is marked I; the end of the first interval, and beginning of the second, is also marked I; and the end of the second interval, or end of the scale, is marked with 10; Both these distances are alike divided, beginning at the left-hand ends, by laying down in each the lengths of the logarithms of the numbers 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90; taken from a scale of equal parts, such that 10 of its primary divisions make the length of one interval: And the intermediate divisions are found, by taking the logarithms of like intermediate numbers.

From this construction it is evident, that when the first I stands for I, the second I stands for IO, and the end IO denotes 100;

And the primary and intermediate divisions in each interval must be estimated according to the values set on their extremities, viz. at the be-

ginning, middle, and end of the scale.

Now the examples most proper to be worked by this scale; are such where the numbers concerned do not exceed 1000, and then the first 1 stands for 10, the middle 1 for 100, and the 10 at the end for 1000: The primary divisions in the first interval, viz. 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, stands for 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, and the intermediate divisions stand for units. In the second interval, the primary divisions signed 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, stand for 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900; each of these divisions are also divided into ten parts, which represent the intermediate tens. Between 100 and 200 the divisions for tens are each subdivided into five parts; so that each of these lesser divisions stand for two units. The tens between 200 and 500 are divided into two parts, each standing for sive units: The units between the tens from 500 to 1000 are to be estimated by the eye; which by a little practice is readily done.

From this description it will be easy to find the division representing a given number not exceeding 1000: Thus the number 62 is the second small division from the 6, between the 6 and 7 in the first interval: The number 435 is thus reckoned; from the 4 in the second interval, count towards the 5 on the right, three of the larger divisions, and one of the smaller; and that will be the division expressing 435. And the like of

other numbers.

II. For the Line of Sines.

This scale terminates at 90 degrees, just against the 10 at the end of the line of numbers; and from this termination the degrees are laid backwards, or from thence towards the left: Now feeking in a table of logarithmic fines, for the numbers expressing their arithmetic complements, without the index, take those numbers from the scale of equal parts the logs. the numbers were taken from, and apply them to the scale of fines free 90°, and they will give the several divisions of this scale.

Thus the arith. comp. of the log. fines (or the co-fecants) abating the index, of 10°, 20°, 30°, 40°, &c. are the numbers 76033, 46595, 3010 19193, &c. then the equal parts to those numbers, laid from 90°, wil give the divisions for 10°, 20°, 30°, 40°, &c. and the like for the inter-

mediate degrees.

Proceeding in this manner, the arith. comp. of the fine of 5° 45' will be about equal to 10 of the primary divisions of the scale of equal parts, or to one interval in the log. scale; so that a decrease of the index by unity, answers to one interval; then a decrease of the index by 2 answers to two intervals, or the whole length of the log. scale; and this happens about the fine of 35 min. and the divisions answering to the fine of a little above 3 min. viz. 3' 26". will be equal to 3 intervals; and the fine of about 26" will be 4 intervals, &c. fo that the fine of 90° being fixed, the beginning of the scale is vastly distant from it.

It is usual to infert the divisions to every 5 minutes, as far as 10 degrees; from 10° to 30°, the small divisions are of 15 minutes each; from 30° to 50°, contains every half degree; from 50° to 70°, are only whole

degrees; the rest are easily reckoned.

For the Line of Tangents. 70.

As the tangent of 45 degrees is equal to the radius, or fine of 90°; therefore 45° on this scale, is terminated directly opposite to 90 on the fines; and the feveral divisions of this scale of log. tangents are con-Aructed in the same manner as those of the sines, by applying their arith. comp. backwards from 45°, or towards the left-hand.

The degrees above 45, are to be counted backwards on the scale: Thus the division at 40° represents both 40° and 50°; the division 30 ferves for 30° and 60°; and the like of the other divisions, and their inter-

mediates.

IV. For the Line of Versed Sines. 71.

This line begins at the termination of the numbers, fines, and tangents: But as the numbers on those lines descend from the right to the left, so these ascend in the same direction: Now having a table of logarithmic verfed fines to 180 degrees, let each log, verfed fine be fubtracted from that of 180 degrees; then the remainders being successively taken from the faid scale of equal parts, and laid on the ruler backwards from the common termination, the feveral divisions of this scale will be obtained.

The

Bot

The numbers for each 10 deg. are in the following table.

2	D.	Numb.	D.	Numb.	D.	Numb.	Deg.	Numb.	Deg.	Numb.	Deg.	Numb.	
211	10	0,0033	40	0,0540	70	0,1732	100	0,3839	130	0,7481	160	1,5207	
70	20	0,0133	50	0,0854	80	0,2315	IIC	0 4828	140	0,9319	170	2,2194	,
mc	30	0,0301	60	0,1219	90	0,3010	120	0,6021	150	1,1740	180	10,3010	

The other scales will be described in their proper places.

能. Demonstration of the foregoing constructions.

That of the log. numbers, is evident from the nature of logarithms.

For the Sines and Tangents.

Now co-sine : rad. : rad. : secant (34). Then co-s. x secant =1 7 H : rad. : : rad. : co-fec. (35). fine \times co-fec. =1tan. x co-tan. = 1 : rad. : rad. : co-tan. (36). tan. × co-ta. The radius of the tables being supposed equal to 1.

Hence it is evident, that in either case, one of the quantities will be equal to the quotient of unity divided by the other.

But division is performed by subtraction with logarithms. And to subtract a log. is the same as to add its arith. comp.

Consequently, the logarithmic co-fine and secant of the same degrees are the arithmetical complements of one another.

And so are the logarithmic sines and co-secants: Also the logarithmic tangents and co-tangents are the arith. comp. of one another.

73. Now as the arith. comp. of any number is what that number

wants of unity in the next superior place; Therefore every natural fine and its arith. comp. together make the ra-

he

And the fines begin at one end of a radius, and end in 90° at the other end.

Therefore in a scale of fines, the arith. comp. of any fine, or its cofecant, laid backwards from 90°, gives the division for that sine. And the like must happen in a scale of log. sines.

74. Alfo, as the logarithmic tangents and co-tangents are the arith. comp. of one another; therefore in a scale of log. tangents, the divisions to the degrees both under and above 45, are equally distant from the division of 45°.

Confequently the divisions ferving to the degrees under 45, will ferve, by reckoning backwards, for those above 45.

For the Versed Sines. 75.

Although the numbers in the line of versed sines ascend from right to left, yet they are only the supplements of the real versed sines, which are numbered in the fame order as the fines, that is, from left to right: But as the beginning of the versed sines falls without the ruler, therefore it is most convenient to lay down the divisions from the point where the versed fines terminate at 180 degrees, that is, against 90° on the sines.

Now it is evident that the divisions laid off from this termination must be the differences between the log. veried fines of the feveral degrees, &c. and that of 180 degrees, II - Digitized by Microsoft &

SECTION Y.

The use of the Gunter's Scale in Plane Trigonometry.

76. When a Trigonometrical Question is to be solved by the Gunter's scale, it must first be stated by the precepts to that problem under which the question falls, whether it be by opposite sides and angles, or by two sides and their included angle, or by three sides.

77: In all proportions wrought by the Gunter's scale, when the first and fecond terms are of the same kind, then

The extent from the first term to the second will reach from the third term to the fourth.

Or, when the first and third terms are of the same kind.

The extent from the first term to the third will reach from the second, term to the fourth.

That is, fet one point of the compasses on the division expressing the first term, and extend the other point to the division expressing the second (or third) term; then, without altering the opening of the compasses, set one point on the division representing the third term (or second term), and the other point will fall on the division shewing the fourth term or answer.

In working by these directions, it is proper to observe,

78. First. The extent from one side to another side, is to be taken from the scale of numbers; and the extent from one angle to another is to be taken from the scale of sines, in working by opposite sides and angles; or from the scale of tangents, in working by two sides and the included angle.

Secondly. When the extent from the first term to the second (or third) is decreasing, or is from the right to the lest, then the extent from the third term (or second) must be also decreasing; that is, applied from the right towards the lest: And the like caution is necessary when the extent is from the lest towards the right.

These precepts being carefully attended to, what follows will be readily understood.

In Example I. See article 53. 79.

As s, \(C : AB :: s, \(LB : AC. \) Or s, 42° 05': 195 :: s, 96° 00': Q, where o ftands for the number fought.

Now the extent from 42° 05' to 90° 00', taken on a scale of fines, and applied to the scale of numbers, will reach from 195 to 291. See art 69.

Alfo. As s, Lc: AB:: s, LA: BC. Or s, 42° 05': 195:: s,47° 55': Q.

Then the extent from 42° 05' to 47° 55' on the fines, being applied to the numbers, will reach from 195 to 216. See art. 68.

In each of these operations, the first extent was from the left to the right, or increasing; therefore the second extent must be from left to right also.

80. In Example IV. See art. 56.

As Ac:s, \(B:: AB:s, \(C. \) Or 291:s,90° 00'::195:Q.

Here the extent from 291 to 195, taken on the numbers, and applied to the fines, will reach from 90° 00' to 42° 05'.

The first extent being from the right towards the left, or decreasing;

therefore the second extent must be also from the right to the left.

In Example VII. See art. 59.

As AB: Rad.:: BC: t, \(\times A.\) Or 195: t, 45° 00':: 216: Q.

Then the extent from 195 to 216 on the numbers, will reach from

45° 00' to 47° 55' on the tangents.

Here the first extent being from left to right, or increasing, therefore the fecond extent must also be increasing: Now on the tangents, this increase above 45° does not proceed from left to right, but from right to left, the same way that the decrease proceeds (70); consequently the division which the point falls on for the fourth term, must be estimated according as the first extent is increasing or decreasing.

Thus had the proportion been,

As BC: Rad.:: AB: t, \(\)C. Or, 216: t, 45° 00':: 195: Q.

Then the extent from 216 to 195 on the numbers, will reach from 45° 00' to 42° 05', estimated as decreasing.

81. When two fides and the included angle are given, and the tangent

of half the difference of the unknown angles is required.

Then, on the line of numbers take the extent from the fum of the given fides to their difference; and on the line of tangents apply this extent from 45° downwards, or to the left; let the point of the compasses rest where it falls, and bring the other point (from 45°) to the division answering to the half sum of the unknown angles; then this extent applied from 45° downwards, will give the half difference of the unknown angles: Whence the angles may be found. (47)

In Example IX: See the art. 61.

As AB + AC! AB—AC:: $t, \frac{1}{2} \angle C + \angle B$: $t, \frac{1}{2} \angle C - \angle B$. Or 567: 249:: t, 60° 56′: Q.

Now the extent from 567 to 249 on the numbers, being applied to the tangents, will reach from 45° to about 23° 40'! Let one point of the compafies rest on this division, and bring the other to 60° 56'; then this extent will reach from 45° to 38° 19', the half difference sought.

And this method will always give the half difference, whether the half

fum of the angles is greater or less than 45%.

82. But when the half sum and half difference are greater than 45°; then the extent from the sum of the sides to their difference on the scale of numbers, will (on the tangents) reach from the half sum of the angles to their half difference, reckoning from left to right.

And when the half fum and half difference are both less than 45; then the extent from the sum of the sides to their difference, taken from the numbers and applied to the tangents, will reach from the half sum of the

angles downwards to their half difference.

83. When the three fides are given to find an angle, and a perpendicular is drawn from an angle to its opposite fide. See Ex. X. art. 62.

As Ac: Bc+AB:: BC-AB: CD-AD.
Or 291: 411 :: 21 : 0.

Now the extent from 291 to 411 on the scale of numbers, will reach from 21 to 29,6 on the numbers also.

Then the extent for the angles is performed in the same manner as thewn in Ex. I. (78)

84. Or an angle may be found by Problem VI. as follows.

In the scale of numbers, take the extent from the half sum (of G and D) to either of the containing sides (as E); apply this extent from the other containing side (as F), to a fourth term: Let one point of the compasses rest on this fourth term, and extend the other to the half difference (of G and D); then this extent applied to the versed sines from the beginning, will give the supplement of the angle sought.

In Example X. See art. 62.

E = 291; F = 216; half fum = 135; half diff. = 60.

Then on the numbers, the extent from 135 to 291, will reach from 216 to 465; let the point rest there, and extend the other to 60; then this extent applied to the verted sines, will reach from the beginning to 137° 56'; which taken from 180°, leaves 42° 04' for the angle sought.

85. In Example XI. See art. 63.

Here E=408; F=351; half fum of G and D=108; half diff.=51. Then on the numbers, the extent from 108 to 408, will reach from 351 in the second interval, to a sourth number: But as the point of the compasses falls beyond the end of the scale, therefore let the extent from 108 to 408 be applied in the first interval, which will reach from 35, 1 to 132,6; let one point rest on 132,6, and extend the other point of the compasses to 51. Now as this extent of the compasses is less than it ought to be, by one interval, or half the length of the scale of numbers; therefore the last extent, when applied to the versed sines, must be from that division, on the versed sines, opposite to the middle of the scale of numbers, which is nearly at 143°; and it will reach from thence to the versed sine of 157° 23'; which taken from 180°, leaves 22° 37' for the angle sought.

86. Most of the writers on Plane Trigonometry treat of right angled, and of oblique angled triangles separately; making seven cases in the former, and six cases in the latter: But as every one of these thirteen cases fall under one or other of the foregoing Problems, therefore such distinctions are here avoided, it being conceived, that they rather tend to perplex than instruct a learner: Also in the generality of the treatises on this subject, it is usually shewn how the solutions of right angled triangles are performed, by making (as it is called) each side radius; that is, by comparing each side of the triangle with the radius of the tables: And although these considerations are here omitted, yet the inquisitive reader will find them in Book VII. near the beginning.

87. Beside the demonstration of Problem IV. at art. 48. it has been thought proper to give another demonstration; because there arises from it a Theorem useful on some occasions: Moreover, there is also added methods of deriving other rules for the solution of the case where the three sides are given to find an angle; which, if they should be found of no other use, will perhaps be agreeable exercises of Geometry to those who are delighted with these studies.

122

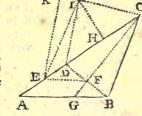
SECTION VI.

Properties of Plane Triangles.

88.

In any plane triangle ABC, Given CA, CB, and AC. Required the angles B and A.

Solution. Take CD=CB, and draw DB.
Bisect DB in F, DA in E, draw CFG, and EF,
which is parallel to AB. (II. 165)
Now DE or AE is equal to half the difference
of CA and CB.



And ce (=ca—AE) is equal to the half fum of ca and cB.

The sum of the equal angles CBD, CDB (II. 104) is equal to the sum of the unknown angles CBA, CAB. (II. 98)

Then the angle CED is the half fum, and the angle ABD is the half difference of the unknown angles CBA, CAB.

(47)
And as CFG is at right angles to DB (II. 103); CF is the tangent of ∠CBD, and GF is the tangent of ∠ABF to the rad. BF.

(4)
Then CE: EA:: CF: GF (II. 165): Or 2CE: 2EA:: CF: FG. (II. 151)

That is, $CA + CB : CA - CB : tan. \frac{1}{2} \angle CBA + CAB : tan. \frac{1}{2} \angle CBA - CAB$.

89. AGAIN. From H, the middle of CD, draw HI at right angles, and equal to CH; draw DI, and EK parallel to DI, meeting CI produced in K; and join IE.

Now HE = $(\frac{1}{2}CD + \frac{1}{2}DA)\frac{1}{2}CA$; and $CH = \frac{1}{2}CB$.

And HE=tangent of the angle HIE to the radius, HI=HC.
Then CB: CA::(2HC: 2HE:: HC: HE::) Radius: tan. ZHIE.
And ZHIE—(ZHID=)45°=ZDIE=ZKEI (II. 95) is known.

Then rad.: tan. \angle KEI:: EK: KI:: CK: KI; because \angle KCE= \angle KEC. But

:: CK: KI:: CE:ED.

:: 2CE: 2ED.

:: CA + CB: CA—CB:: $t, \frac{1}{2}$ fum \angle s:: $t, \frac{1}{2}$ diff. \angle s(48)

Confequently rad.: tan. $\angle KEI$:: tan. $\frac{1}{2} \angle \overline{CBA + CAB}$: tan. $\frac{1}{2} \angle \overline{CBA - CAB}$.

This rule is often useful in Astronomical calculations, when the logarithms of the sides AB, BC are only known, and the angles BAC, BCA, are required, without finding, from those logarithms, the sides themselves.

For the difference between the logarithms of the fides, increased by radius, gives the tangent of an arc; which are lessened by 45° leaves a second arc.

Then as rad.: tan. second arc:: tan. i sum Ls: tan. i diff. Ls.

90. In any plane triangle ABC, where the three fides are known, the measure of either angle (as the angle A, included between the fides AB, Ac) may be found several ways, as shewn in the following articles.

The letters s, t, v, fland for fine, tangent, versed fine.

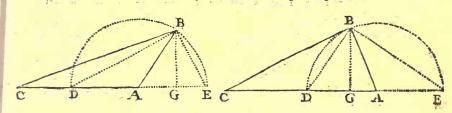
III.

Book III.

s', t', stand for co-fine, co-tangent.

v', stands for the versed fine of the supplement. Also ss, tt, stand for the squares of the fine and tangent.

Also s's', t't', stand for the squares of the co-sine and co-tangent. Radius = R = AB = AE = AD; and $H = \frac{1}{2}AB + \frac{1}{2}AC + \frac{1}{2}BC$.



91.
$$s_{\frac{1}{2}} \angle A = R \times \sqrt{\frac{H - AC \times H - BC}{AC \times AB}}$$
. Here $\angle E = \frac{1}{2} \angle A$.

For R:
$$s$$
, $\frac{1}{2} \angle A$:: (DE=)2AB: BR.
And RR: ss , $\frac{1}{2} \angle A$:: $4AB^2$: BD^2 . (45)

Now
$$ss_{,\frac{1}{2}} \angle A = RR \times \frac{ED^2}{4AB^2}$$
. (II. 164)

$$= \frac{2AE}{4AB^2} \times \frac{2H - 2AC \times 2H - 2BC}{2AC} \times RR.$$
(II. 179)
Then $s_{,\frac{1}{2}} \angle A = R \times \sqrt{\frac{H - AC \times H - AB}{AC \times AB}}$.

$$= \frac{{}^{2AB}}{{}^{4AB^2}} \times \frac{{}^{2H-2AC} \times {}^{2H-2BC}}{{}^{2AC}} \times RR.$$
 (II. 179)

92.
$$s, \angle A = \frac{2R}{AB \times AC} \times \sqrt{H \times H - CB \times H - AC \times H - AB}$$

For AB: BG:: R:s,
$$\angle$$
A.
And AB²: BG²:: RR:ss, \angle A.
(II. 161)

Now ss,
$$\angle A = \frac{RR}{AB^2} \times BG^2$$
. (II. 164)

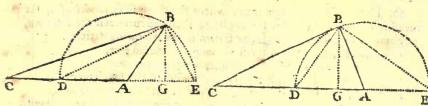
$$= \frac{RR}{AB^2} \times \frac{4}{AC^2} \times H \times \overline{H-CB} \times \overline{H-AC} \times \overline{H-AB}.$$
 (II. 180)

93. $5^{1}, \frac{1}{2} \angle A = R \times \sqrt{\frac{H \times H - CB}{AC \times AB}}$. Here $\angle E = \frac{1}{2} \angle A$; and $\angle D = \text{comp.} \angle E$.

For $R: s', \frac{1}{2} \angle A::(DE=)$ 2AB: BE. (45)And RR: 5'5, 1 (A:: 4AB2: BE2. (II. 161)

Now s's', $\frac{1}{2} \angle A = RR \times \frac{BE^2}{4AB}$ (II. 164)

 $= RR \times \frac{2AB \times 4 \times H \times H - CB}{4AB^2 \times 2AC}$ (II. 178)



94. $t, \frac{1}{2} \angle A = R \times \frac{\sqrt{H - AC} \times H - AB}{H \times H - CB}$ For $R: t, \frac{1}{2} \angle A :: BE :: BD$.

And $RR: tt, \frac{1}{2} \angle A :: BE^{2} :: BD^{2}$.

Now $tt, \frac{1}{2} \angle A = RR \times \frac{BD^{2}}{BE^{2}}$. (II. 164) $= RR \times \frac{H - AC \times H - AB}{E \times H - BC}$.

(II. 178, 179)

95. t', $\frac{1}{2} \angle A = R \times \sqrt{\frac{H \times H - CB}{H - AC \times H - AB}}$. For BD^2 : BE^2 :: $(tt, \frac{1}{2} \angle A : RR ::) RR : t't'$, $\frac{1}{2} \angle A$. (36) Then t't', $\frac{1}{2} \angle A = RR \times \frac{BE^2}{BD^2}$. (II. 178, 179)

96. v, $\angle A = 2R \times \frac{H - AC \times H - AB}{AC \times AB}$. For R: v, $\angle A: AB: GD$.

Then v, $\angle A = R \times \frac{GB}{AB} = R \times \frac{2 \times H - AC \times H - AB}{AC \times AB}$ (II. 177)

Then v, $\angle A = R \times \frac{GB}{AB} = R \times \frac{2 \times H - AC \times H - AB}{AC \times AB}$ (II. 177)

For R: v', A:: AB: GE.

Then v', $\angle A = R \times \frac{GE}{AB} = R \times \frac{2 \times H \times H - CB}{AC \times AB}$.

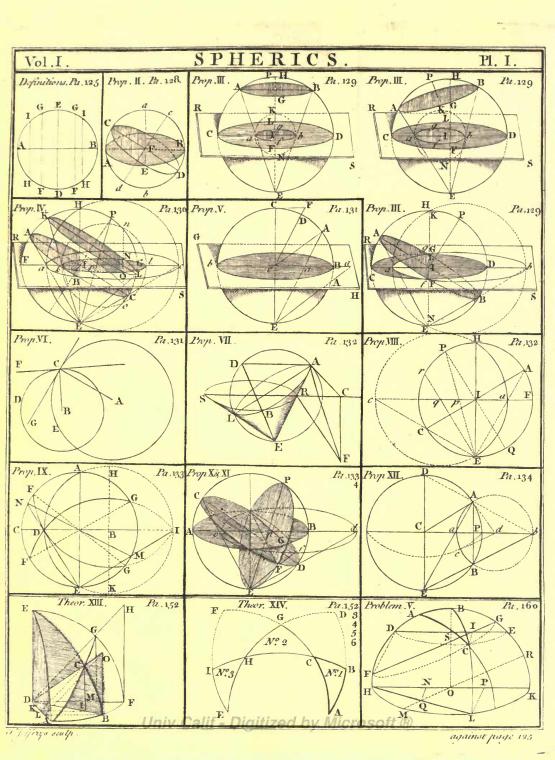
(45)

98. $s' \angle A = \frac{1}{2}R \times \frac{CB^2 - AC^2 - AB^2}{AC \times AB}$ For R: s', $\angle A:: AB: AG$.

Then s', $\angle A = R \times \frac{AG}{AB} = R \times \frac{BC^2 - AC^2 - AE^4}{2AC \times AB}$.

(II. 174)

END OF BOOK III.





THE

ELEMENTS

OF

NAVIGATION

BOOK IV.
OF SPHERICS.

SECTION I.

Definitions and Principles.

1. SPHERICS is that part of the Mathematics which treats of the position and magnitude of arcs of circles described on the surface of a sphere.

2. A SPHERE is a folid contained under one uniform round furface, fuch as would be formed by the revolution of a circle about its diameter, that diameter being immoveable during the motion of the circle.

Thus the circle AEBD revolving about the diameter AB, will generate a fphore, the furface of which will be formed by the circumference AEBD. Sec Plate I.

3. The CENTER and Axis of a sphere are the same as the center and diameter of a generating circle: And as a circle has an indefinite number of diameters, so a sphere may be considered as having also an indefinite number of axes, round any one of which the sphere may be conceived to be generated.

4. CIRCLES OF THE SPHERE are those circles described on its surface by the motion of the extremities of such chords in the generating circle as

are at right angles to the diameter, or to the axis of the sphere.

Thus by the motion of the circle AEBD about the diameter AB, the extremities of the chords ED, GF, IH, at right angles to AB, will describe circles the diameters of which are equal to those chords respectively. Plate I.

5. The

5. The Poles of a circle on the sphere, are those points on its surface equally distant from the circumference of that circle.

Thus A and B are the poles of the circles described on the sphere by the

ends of the chords ED, GF, IH. Plate I.

6. A GREAT CIRCLE of the sphere, is that circle which is equally

distant from both its poles.

Thus the circle described by the extremities E, D, of the diameter ED, at right angles to AB, being equally distant from its poles A and B, is called a great circle.

7. Lesser Circles of the sphere, or small circles, are those circles which are unequally distant from both their poles.

Thus the circles of which FG, HI, are diameters, having their poles A and B

unequally distant from them, are called lesser circles.

8. PARALLEL CIRCLES of the sphere, are those circles, the planes of which are considered as parallel to the plane of some great circle.

Thus the circles having the diameters FG, HI, are called parallel circles in

respect of the great circle of which ED is the diameter.

- 9. A SPHERIC ANGLE is the inclination of two great circles of the fphere meeting one another.
- 10. A SPHERIC TRIANGLE is a figure formed on the surface of a sphere by the mutual intersections of three great circles.
- II. The STEREOGRAPHIC PROJECTION of the sphere, is such a representation of its circles, upon the plane of one of them passing through the center, and called the Plane of Projection, as would appear to an eye placed in one of the poles of that great circle, and thence viewing the circles on the sphere.
- 12. The place of the Eye is called the Projecting Point, or lower pole: and the point diametrically opposite is called the remotest, or opposite, or upper pole.

Also, the projection of any point on the sphere, is that point in the

plane of projection, through which the vifual ray passes to the eye.

- 13. The PRIMITIVE CIRCLE is that great circle, on the plane of which the representations of all the other circles are supposed to be drawn.
- 14. An Oblique Circle is one which has its plane oblique to the eye.
- 15. A RIGHT CIRCLE is that which is perpendicular to the plane of the primitive circle, and if it be a great circle, its plane passes through the eye, and it is seen edgewise; consequently it is represented by a straight line drawn through the center of the primitive circle.

AXIOMS.

- 16. The diameter of every great circle passes through the center of the sphere; but the diameters of small circles do not pass through the same center: Also the center of the sphere is the common center of all its great circles.
- 17. Every section of a sphere, by a plane passing though its circumference, is a circle.
- 18. A sphere is divided into two equal parts by the plane of every great circle; and into two unequal parts by the plane of every small circle.
- 19. The pole of every great circle is at 90 degrees distance from it on the surface of the sphere: And no two great circles can have a common pole.
- 20. The poles of a great circle are the extremities of that diameter, or axis, of the sphere, which is perpendicular to the plane of that circle.
- 21. Lines flowing to the projecting point, or place of the eye, from every point in the circumference of a circle which it views, form the convex surface of a Cone.
- 22. A plane passing through three points on the surface of a sphere, equally distant from the pole of a great circle, will be parallel to the plane of that circle.
- 23. The shortest distance between two points on the surface of a sphere, is the arc of a great circle passing through those points.
- 24. If one great circle meets another, the angles on either fide are supplements to one another; and every spheric angle is less than 180 degrees.
- 25. A spheric angle is measured by an arc of a great circle intercepted between the legs of that angle, 90 degrees distant from the angular point.
 - 26. If two circles interfect one another, the opposite angles are equal.
- 27. Two spheric triangles are congruous, if two sides and their contained angle in one, are equal to two sides and their contained angle in the other, each to each: Or if two angles and the contained side in the one, are equal to two angles and their contained side in the other, each to each: Or if the three sides in the one are respectively equal to the three sides in the other.
- 28. All parallel circles have the same pole, and may be conceived to be concentric to the great circle which they are parallel to.
- 29. All parallel circles on the fphere, having the fame pole, are cut into fimilar arcs by two great circles paffing through that pole.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft GTION

SECTION II.

Stereographic Propositions.

30.

PROPOSITION I.

Great circles of a sphere mutually cut one another into two equal parts.

(16)DEM. Any two great circles have the fame common center. (II. 209) And their planes interfect in a right line. Now the center must lie in the line of their intersection. Therefore this right line is a diameter common to both. But every circle is bisected by its diameter.

Therefore the circles mutually bisect one another.

31. COROL. I. The circumferences of any two circles interfecting one another twice, make the angles at both fections equal.

For the planes of those circles have the same inclination at both ends of their interfection, or where the circumferences interfect,

32. COROL. II. Two great circles of the sphere will cut each other twice at the distance of 180 degrees, or in opposite points of the sphere.

33.

PROP. II.

The distance of the poles of two great circles, is equal to the angle formed by the inclination of those circles. Plate I.

DEM. Let AEB, CED, be two great circles of the sphere, their planes passing through its center F; and let a, b, be the poles of the circle AEB, and c, d, the poles of the circle CED.

Then is the arc Aa=arc cc=90°. And the arc ca is common to both the arcs Aa and cc. (19)

Therefore the arc Ac, measuring the inclination CFA of the circles, is (II. 48.) equal to the arc ac measuring the distance of the poles.

- 34. COROL. I. Two great circles are at right angles to one another, when they pass through each other's poles.
- 35. Corol. II. The pole of a great circle is 90 degrees distant from it, taken in another great circle, or in an arc of it, drawn perpendicular to the former circle.
- 36. COROL. III. Two or more great circles, at right angles to another great circle, interfect one another 90° distant from it, or in the pole of the latter circle. And the like of arcs of great circles.
- 37. Corol. IV. If feveral great circles interfect one another in the pole of another great circle; then are the former circles perpendicular to the latter, 38. PROP.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

38.

PROPOIII.

In the stereographic projection of the sphere, the representations of all circles, not passing through the projecting point, will be circles. Plate I. three figures.

Let ACEDB represent a sphere, cut by a plane Rs, passing through the center I, at right angles to the diameter EH, drawn from E, the place of the eye.

And let the fection of the fphere (17) by the plane Rs; be the circle

CEDL; its poles being H, and E.

Suppose AGB is a circle on the sphere to be projected, its pole, most remote from the eye, being P: And the visual rays from the circle AB3 meeting in E, form the cone AGBE (21) of which the triangle AEB is a section through the vertex E, and diameter of the base AB. (II. 204)

Then will the figure agbf, which is the projection of the circle BG 1,

be a circle.

DEMONSTRATION. Since the \angle Eab is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc AC $\frac{1}{2}$

Now suppose the plane Rs to revolve on the line CD, till it coincides with the plane of the circle ACEB;

Then it is evident, that the point L will fall in H, the point F in E, and the circle CFDL will coincide with the circle CEDH, which now becomes the primitive circle, where the point F, or E, is the projecting point: Also the projected circle afbg will become the circle anbk.

- 39. COROL. I. Hence the middle of the projected diameter is the center of the projected circle, whether it be a great circle or a small one.
- 40. COROL. II. Hence in all circles parallel to the plane of projection, their centers and poles will fall in the center of the projection.
- 41. COROL. III. The centers and poles of circles, inclined to the plane of projection, fall in that diameter of the primitive circle which is at right angles to the diameter drawn through the projecting point; but at different distances from its center.
- 42. Corol. IV. All oblique great circles cut the primitive circle in two points diametrically opposite.

43.

PROP. IV.

The measure of the angle which the projected diameter of any circle subtends at the eye, is equal to the distance of that circle from its pole, which is most remote from the projecting point, taken on the surface of the sphere. And that angle is bisected by a right line joining the projecting point and that pole. Plate I.

Let the plane Rs cut the sphere HFEG, as in the last.

And let ABC be any oblique great circle, the diameter of which AC is projected into ac; and KOL any small circle parallel to ABC, the diameter of which KL is projected into kl.

The distances of those circles from the pole P, being the arcs AHP, KHP, and the angles aEc, kel, are angles at the eye subtended by their

projected diameters ac, kl.

Then is the angle are measured by the arc AHP, the angle kel is measured by the arc KHP; and those angles are bisected by EP.

And it is evident those angles are bisected by the line EP.

- 44. COROL. I. Hence as the line EP projects the pole P in p; so the same line refers a projected pole to its place on the sphere, in the circumsterence of the primitive circle.
- 45. Corol. II. Hence, on the plane of the primitive circle, may be described the representation of any circle whose distance from its pole, and the projected place of that pole, are given.

For PA and PC are projected into pa and pc; and the bisection of ac

gives the center of the circle fought.

46. COROL. III. Hence every projected oblique great circle cuts the primitive circle in an angle equal to the inclination of the plane of that oblique circle to the plane of projection.

For Fa is equivalent to FA the inclination.

And Fa measures the angle FHa, fince FH, Ha, are each 90°. (9)

47. COROL. IV. The distance between the projections of a great circle and any of its parallels is equivalent to their distance on the sphere. Thus the projection as is equivalent to AK.

48. PROP. V.

Any point of a sphere stereographically projected, is distant from the center of projection, by the tangent of half the arc intercepted between that point and the pole opposite to the eye: The semidiameter of the sphere being made radius. Plate I.

Let cheb be a great circle of the sphere, the center of which is c, GH the plane of projection cutting the diameter of the sphere in b, B; E, c, the poles of the section by that plane; and a the projection of A. Then is ca equal to the tangent of half the arc Ac.

DEM. Draw CF, a tangent to the arc CD= arc CA, and join cF. Now the triangles CFC, caE, are congruous: For Cc=cE, \(C=\(Eca =right \(\angle\), \(\angle\) cea (II. 128): Therefore ca = cf. Consequently ca is equal to the tangent of half the arc CA.

PROP. VI. 49.

The angle made by the intersection of the circumferences of two circles in the same plane, is equal to the angle made by tangents to those circles in the point of section; and also is equal to the angle made by their radii drawn to that point. Plate I.

Let CE, CD, be two arcs of circles in the fame plane cutting in the point c; Ac, Bc, their radii; Gc, Fc, tangents at the point c. Then is the curve-lined angle ECD = \(\ackle \text{GCF} = \(\ackle \text{ACB}. \)

DEM. Since the radii AC, BC, are at right angles to their tangents GC, FC (II. 126); and are also at right angles to the arcs CE, CD. Therefore the position of the tangents and arcs at the point c are the fame; and confequently the LECD= LGCF.

Alfo the \(ACB + \(LBCG = (right \(L =) \) \(FCG + \(LBCG. \)

Therefore the angle ACB is equal to the angle FCG, by taking away the common angle BCG. (11.48)

Consequently \LECD = GCF = \(\text{ACB.} \)

50. Scholium. If the arcs ce, cd, were in different planes, the same would hold true with regard to their tangents.

For suppose the circle CD to revolve on the fixed radius BC, still cutting the circle CE in C: Then the tangent CF revolving with it, has still the fame inclination to BC: And as the inclination of the planes of the circles vary, so much will the inclination of the tangents vary.

Therefore the angle made by the tangents, in all politions of the circular planes, is the same as the angle made by their circumferences.

51. Corol. Hence if a plane touches a sphere, at the point where two circles of it interfect one another, the tangents to both circles will lie in that plane; and confequently, in all oblique positions, a right line perpendicular to one tangent will cut the other tangent.

52.

PROP. VII.

The angle which any two circles make, when stereographically projected, is equal to the angle which those circles make on the sphere. Plate I.

Suppose DAEL a sphere to be projected on the plane SBRCF, and ALDE a great circle passing through the projecting point E. Let LBA be any other circle, cutting the former in L and A, under the angle BAE, which will be represented by the circle SBR, (38) as the circle ELDA is by the right line sc (15). The angle BAE is equal to the angle BRC.

From the point A draw AC, AF, to touch the circles AEL, ABS in A, and meet the plane of projection in C and F; also draw RF and CF, which will be in that plane; and, in the plane of the great circle AEL, draw AD pa-

rallel to se, and join ED.

DEM. The angular point A is projected into R; (12) consequently Ac is projected into RC, and AF into RF. And fince sc is the common fection of the plane of projection with that of the great circle ELDA (II. 210) the lines Ac, sc, AD, ED, AE, lie all in the plane of that circle: Also because AD is parallel to sc, the \(ARC = \) DAE = \(ADE = \) RAC (II. 94, 104, 132) consequently AC=RC (II. 104). Now the plane passing through Ac and AF touches the sphere in A, (51) it is therefore perpendicular to the plane of the circle AED; and FC its common section with the plane of projection, is at right angles to that plane (II. 210); FC is therefore at right angles both to the lines AC and CR (II. 205): Hence, the triangles ACF, RCF, being right angled at c, having the fide FC common, and AC=CR, are congruous (II. 99), and the ZCAF= ZCRF. Confequently the ZEAB = ZFAC (51) = ZFRC. Now it is manifest that as AF touches the base, ABL, of the cone EABL, in the point A, a plane paffing through AF and AE will touch the fide of the cone in the line AE; but AF is also in that plane (II. 198); therefore AR touches the cone in the line AE; and as AR lies also in the plane of the circle SBR, it must touch that circle also; consequently (50) BRC= ZFRC= ∠FAC=∠ABE.

53. PROP. VIII.

The distance between the poles of the primitive circle and an oblique great circle, in stereog aphic projections, is equal to the tangent of half the inclination of those circles; and the distance of their centers is equal to the tangent of their inclination: The semidiameter of the primitive circle being made radius. Plate I.

Let Ac be the diameter of a circle, the poles of which are P and Q, and inclined to the plane of projection in the angle AIF.

And let a, c, p, be the projections of the points A, C, P.

Also let Hae be the projected oblique circle, the center of which is q. Now when the plane of projection becomes the primitive circle, the pole of which is 1,

Then is ip = tangent of half \(\triangle AIF \), or of half the arc AF.

And iq = tangent of AF, or of the \(\triangle FHa = AIF \).

Dem. For AH + HP = AH + AF. Therefore HP = AF.

But ip = tangent of half HP, or of half AF.

(48)

Again.

Again. As Ac is projected in ac, then q, the middle of ac, is the center of the projected circle, and of its representative HaE. (45)

Draw Eq produced to r: Then as qa = qE; the $\angle qEA = \angle qaE$. (II. 104)

But the $\angle qaE$ is measured by half the arc EFA. (II. 137)

Therefore the arc AHr=arc AFE (II. 50): And as the arc AHP=FQE;

Therefore Pr = AF = HP; and HPr = twice the arc AF.

Therefore (II. 127) the $\angle IEq = AIF$, the inclination of the circles.

But 1q is the tangent of the $\angle IEq$, EI being the radius.

54. COROL. Hence the radius of an oblique circle is equal to the fecant of the obliquity of that circle to the primitive. For Eq is the secant of the angle IEq, to the radius EI.

55. P R O P. IX.

If through any given point in the primitive circle an oblique circle be described; then the centers of all other oblique circles passing through that point, will be in a right line drawn through the center of the first oblique circle at right angles to a line passing through the given point, and the center of the primitive.

Let GACE be the primitive circle, ADEI a great circle described through pa its center being B.

HK is a right line drawn through B, perpendicular to a right line CI

passing through p, and the center of the primitive circle.

Then the centers of all other great circles FDG paffing through D will fall in the line HK.

DEM. For if E be the projecting point, the circle EDAI will be the projection of a circle, the diameter of which is NM. (38)

Therefore p and I are the projections of N, M, which are opposite

points on the sphere; or of points at a semicircle's distance.

Therefore all circles passing through D and I must be the projections of great circles on the sphere.

But DI is a chord in every circle paffing through the points D, 1.

Confequently the centers of all those circles will be found in HK drawn perpendicularly through B, the middle of DI.

(II. 125)

56. PROP. X.

Equal arcs of any two great circles of the sphere, will be intercepted between two other circles drawn on the sphere through the remotest poles of those great circles. Plate I.

Let PBEA be a sphere, on which AGB, CFD, are two great circles, the remotest poles of which are F, P; and through these poles let the great circle PBEC, and small circle PGE, be drawn, intersecting the great circles AGB, CFD, in the points B, G, and D, F.

Then are the intercepted arcs BG and DF equal to one another.

DEM. For the arcs ED + DB = arcs PB + DB; therefore ED = PB.

And the arcs EF + FG = arcs PG + FG (19); therefore EF = PG.

For the points F and G are equally diffant from their poles P, E.

Also the ZDEF=BPG; for intersecting circles make equal angles at the sections.

Therefore the triangles EFD and PGB are congruous. (27)

Therefore the arc BG = arc DF.

Univ Calif - DigRized by Microsoft PROP.

PROP. XI. 57.

If lines be drawn from the projected pole of any great circle, cutting the peripheries of the projected circle and plane of projection, the intercepted arcs of those circumferences are equal. Plate I.

On the plane of projection, AGB, let the great circle CFD be projected into cfd, and its pole P in p; moreover, draw the lines pd, pf: the arcs GB and fd are equal.

Since pd lies both in the plane AGB and APBE it is their common sec-(11.198)

But the point B is in their common section: (56)

Therefore pd passes through the point B.

And in this manner it may be proved that pf passes through G. (38)Now the points D and F are projected into d and f.

Therefore the arc fd is equivalent to the arc FD. But the arc FD is equal to the arc GB:

(56)Therefore the arc GB is equivalent to the arc fd. (II.46)

PROP. XII. 58.

The radius of any small circle, the plane of which is perpendicular to that of the primitive circle, is equal to the tangent of that leffer circle's distance from its pole; and the secant of that distance, is equal to the distance of the centers of the primitive and leffer circle. Plate I.

Let P be the pole, and AB the diameter of a lesser circle, the plane being perpendicular to the plane of the primitive circle, the center of which is c: Then d being the center of the projected lesser circle, dA is equal to the tangent of the arc PA, and dc = fecant of PA.

DEM. Draw the diameter ED parallel to AB, and through P draw cb. Now E being the projecting point, the diameter AB is projected in ab. (22)

And d, the middle of ab, is the center of a circle on ab. (39)(II. 130) Then a right line drawn from D through A, will meet b:

And draw CA, dA.

Now the right-angled triangles DCb, DAE, having the angle D common; the \Dbc=\DEA... (11.98)(II. 127)

But \DEA = \(\frac{1}{2} \) DCA; and \(\triangle Dbc = \(\frac{1}{2} \) \(Adc: \) Therefore LDCA= LAdc.

Now LDCA + LACd=a right angle.

Then $\angle Adc + \angle Acc = a$ right angle: Therefore $\angle CAd$ is right. (II. 96) Consequently dA, = radius of the circle AaB, is the tangent of the arc PA, to the radius CA. (11.126)And dc, the distance of the centers, is the secant of the arc AP.

59. Corol. Hence the tangent and secant of any arc of the primitive

circle, belongs also to an equal arc of any oblique circle; those arcs being reckoned from their intersection.

For the arc Pe of every oblique circle intercepted between P and the arc of the small circle AaB, is equivalent to the arc PA of the primitive circle: Because the arc AB is equally distant from its pole P.

SECTION

112 25 18

Tribeitet.

SECTION II.

Spherical Geometry.

Spheric Geometry, or Spheric projection, is the art of describing, or representing, such circles or arcs of circles as are usually drawn upon a sphere on the plane of any one of them; and of measuring such arcs, and their positions to one another, when projected.

60. PROBLEM I.

To describe a great circle that shall pass through two given points in the primitive circle, or plane of projection.

Let the given points be A, B; and c the center of the prim. circle.

CASE 1. When one point, A, is the center of the primitive circle.

Const. A diameter drawn through the given points A, B, will be the great circle required. (15)

CASE 2. When one point A, is in the circumference of the primitive circle.

CONST. Through A draw a diameter AD.

Then an oblique circle described through the three points A, B, D, (II. 72) will be the great circle required.

(42)

61. Case 3. When neither point is at the center, or circumference of the primitive circle.

CONST. Through one point A, and the center c, draw AG, and draw CE at right angles to AG.

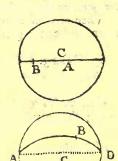
A ruler by E and A gives D; by D and C gives F; and by E and F gives G, in AC continued.

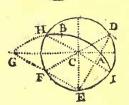
Through the three points G, B, A, describe a circumference (II. 72) cutting the primitive circle in H and I.

Then the oblique circle HBAI will be the great circle required.

For AG may be taken as the projection of the great circle FD. (12) Therefore A and G are the projections of opposite points on the sphere. (32)

Consequently, all circles passing through G and A will be the reprefentatives of great circles on the sphere.





i

E

62. PROBLEM II.

About any given point as a pole, to describe a great circle in a given primitive circle.

Let P be the given point, and I the center of the primitive circle.

CASE 1. When the given pole, P, is in the center of the primitive circle.

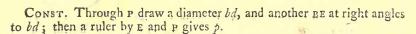
CONST. The primitive circle will be the great circle required, (13)

GASE 2. When the given pole, P, is in the circumference of the primitive circle.

CONST. Through the given pole P, draw PE a diameter to the primitive circle.

Then another diam AB, drawn at right angles to PE, will be the great circle required. (20, 15)

63. CASE-3. When the given pole, P, is neither in the center or circumference of the primitive circle.

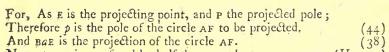


Make the arc pA=90°; a ruler by E and A gives in the diameter bd.

Then a circle described through the three points a, a, a, is the great circle required.

Or thus. Make the arc $pD \equiv arc pB$; a ruler on E and D gives C in db produced.

Then on c, with the radius ca describe BaE.



Now \angle cae is measured by half the arc Ade. (II. 137) But arc ABD = arc Ade: For Ap=(Bd=)de; and pD = Ad by confiruction.

Therefore $\angle AEC = \angle CAE$; and CE = CA. (II. 104)

Confequently C is the center required.

64. PROB.

64.

PROBLEM III.

A projected circle being given; to find its poles.

CASE 1. When the given circle AEB is the pri-

Const. Find the center c, (II. 70) and it is the pole fought.

CASE 2. When the given circle ACB is a right circle.

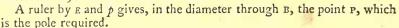
CONST. Draw a diameter ED at right angles to AB, and the ends or points, D, E, of that diameter are the poles required.

65. CASE 3. When the given circle ABE is oblique.

CONST. Through the intersections of the primitive and oblique circles draw a diameter AE, and another at right angles to AE, cutting the given oblique circle in B.

A ruler by E and B gives b; make bp, bq, each

=an arc of 90°.



And a ruler by E and q gives, in CB continued, the point of for the

other, or opposite or exterior pole.

Make pD=pA; then a ruler by E and D gives, in EC continued, the point F, which is the center of the oblique circle ABE.

THE reason of this operation is evident from that of the last Problem.



PROBLEM IV.

About any given projected pole, to describe a circle at a given distance from that pole.

Or, at a proposed distance from a given great circle, to describe a parallel circle.

Let P be the given pole, belonging to the given great circle DFE.

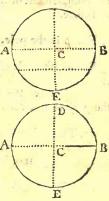
GENERAL SOLUTION. Through the given pole B, and c the center of the primitive circle, draw a diameter, and another DE at right angles to it.

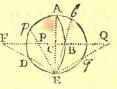
A ruler on E and P gives p in the primitive circle.

Make pA and pB, each equal to the proposed distance from the pole.

A ruler on E and A, and then on E and B, will cut the diameter CP in and b.

Bifect ab in c; and on c as a center describe a circle passing through a and b, which will be the circle required.





But

But when the parallel circle is to be at a proposed

distance from the given great circle DFE,

Find p as before; and make pA=pB, equal to the complement of the proposed distance; the rest as before.

For p is the pole, the projection of which is P.

But p is the pole of a circle, the diameter of which AB is projected in ab. (12)

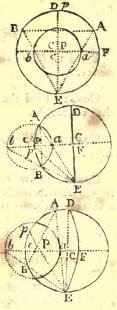
Therefore c, the middle of ab, is the center of the projected circle. (39)

67. The first case is readily done, by describing the small circle about the center of the primitive circle with the tangent of half its distance from the pole P.

68. The second case is soonest performed thus.

From the points A, B, (found as above) with the tangent of their distance from P, the pole of the right circle, describe arcs cutting in c, which is the center of a small circle parallel to the right circle DFE.

For ap is the tangent of the arc AP.

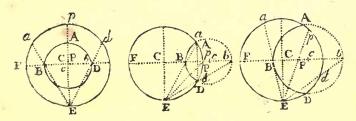


(58)

69.

PROBLEM V.

The primitive circle, and the projection of a small circle, being given; to find the pole of that small circle.



Let c be the center of the primitive circle, and ABD a projected small circle, the center of which is c, and radius cB.

GENERAL SOLUTION. Through c the center of the small circle, and c the center of the primitive, draw a diameter CF, and another, CE, at right angles to it.

Find the projected diameter Bb=20B.

Lines drawn from E through B and b, cut the primitive circle in a, d; then bifect the arc ad in p.

A ruler by E and p cuts the diameter Bb in P, the pole fought. The truth of this construction is evident by that of the last Prob.

70. PROB-

70.

PROBLEM VI.

To measure any arc of a projected great circle: Or, in a given projected great circle, to take an arc of a given number of degrees.

GENERAL SOLUTION. Find the pole of the given circle. (64)
From that pole draw lines through the ends of the proposed arc, cutting the primitive circle.

Then the intercepted arc of the primitive circle applied to the scale of

chords will give the measure sought.

Thus, if AB be the arc to be measured, and P the pole of the given circle DAF.

Then lines drawn from P through A and B, give the arc ab in the pri-

mitive circle, corresponding to AB in the projected circle.

Now if an arc of a given number of degrees was to be taken from a given point A, in the given projected circle DAF.

Draw, from the pole P, through A, the line Pa

to the primitive circle.

Apply the given number of degrees from a to b. Draw Pb, and the intercepted arc AB will contain the degrees proposed.

71. Any number of degrees is readily applied to a right circle by the scale of half-tangents. Thus

When the distance of the point A from the center c is known, and the given quantity of the arc

is to be laid from A towards F;

To the known distance CA add the proposed are
AB, the degrees in the sum taken from the scale of
half-tangents, and laid from C to B, will make the

arc AB equal to the degrees proposed.

But when the arc AB is to be laid from A to-

wards D;

Then the difference between the arcs AB and AC, taken from the scale of half-tangents and laid towards D from C to B, will make the arc AB equal to the degrees proposed.

The reason of all these operations is evident

from art. 57.

Note, The half, or femi-tangents, are only the tangents of half the arcs the scale of tangents is made to; their construction depends on art. 48. On the plane scale they are put under the Tangents, and marked s. T.



PROBLEM VII.

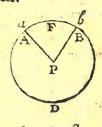
To measure any projected spherical angle.

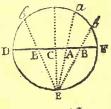
GENERAL SOLUTION. Find the poles of the two circles which form the angle (64); and from the angular point draw lines through those poles to cut the primitive circle.

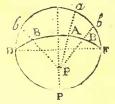
Then the measure of that angle, if acute, will be the intercepted are of the primitive circle; or the supplement of that are will be the measure

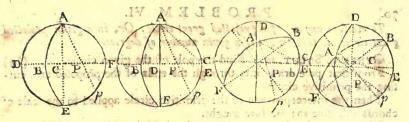
of the angle when obtuse.

Let the proposed angle DAB, formed by the great circles AD, AB, the poles of which are c and P; and lines drawn from the angular point A, through the poles c and P, cut the primitive circle in E and P.









Ist. When the angle is formed by the primitive and oblique circles.

Then the arc pe measures the acute angle DAB.

But the obtule angle BAF is measured by the supplement of pE.

2d. When the angle is formed by right and oblique circles meeting in the primitive's circumference.

Then the arc pe measures the angle DAB. WY BOY I MON 1924 34 (1)

3d. When the angle is formed by right and oblique circles meeting within the primitive circle.

Then the arc pE measures the acute angle DAB.

But the obtuse angle DAF is measured by the supplement of pE.

4th. When the angle is formed by two oblique circles meeting within the primitive circle;

Then the acute angle DAB is measured by the arc pE. But the supplement of pE measures the obtuse angle DAF.

For, as the angular point A is in both circles, and 90° distant from their poles c and P (19). Therefore a great circle described about A, as a pole, will pass through the poles c and P.

And lines drawn from A through c and P, cut off, in the circumference of the plane of projection, an arc equal to the distance of the poles c and P.

(57)

But the measure of the distance of the poles c, P, is equal to the inclination of the planes of the circles AD, AB; (33)

And confequently measures the angle DAB.

73. PROBLEM VIII.

Through a given point in any projected great circle, to describe another great circle at right angles to the given one.

GENERAL SOLUTION. Find the pole of the given circle. (64)

Then a great circle described through that pole and the given point will be at right angles to the given circle.

Let the given projected great circle be BAD; and A the given point.

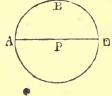
Ist. When BAD is the primitive circle, the pole of which is P.

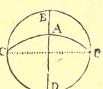
A diameter through A will be perpendicular to BAD. (II. 136)

2d. When BAD is a right circle, the poles of which are P and C.

An oblique circle described through the points (, A, P, (II. 72) will be at right angles to BAD.

Univ Calif Poligitized by Microsoft ®





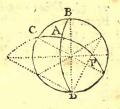
3d. When

Pa

3d. When BAD is an oblique circle, the pole of which is P.

Through the points P and A, a great circle PAC being described (61), will be at right angles to BAD.

The truth of these operations is evident from art. 34.



74.

PROBLEM IX.

Through any assigned point in a given projected great circle, to describe another great circle cutting the former in an angle of a given number of degrees.

Let P be a given point in any great circle APB.

1st. When APB is the primitive circle.'

Through the given point P draw a diameter PE, and draw the diameter AB at right angles to PE.

Draw PD cutting AB in D, fo that the angle CPD be equal to the angle proposed.

On D with the radius DP describe the great

Circle PFE.

Then will the angle APF contain the given de-

Then will the angle APF contain the given decrees.

For the \angle FPA = angle made by the radii PC, PD.

And D being equally distant from P and E, is the center fought. (49)

75. Or thus. Make CD equal to the tangent of the given angle to the radius CP.

Or, Make PD equal to the secant of that angle.

76. 2d. When APB is a right circle.

Draw a diameter GH at right angles to APB.

Then a ruler by G and P gives a in the primitive circle.

Make Hb = 2Aa; a ruler by G and b gives C in AB.

Draw CD at right angles to AB.

Draw PD cutting CD in D, fo that the & CPD=

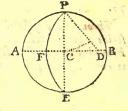
On D with the radius DP describe a circle FPE, which will be a great circle making with APB the angle APF as required.

For, c is the center of a great circle GPH, by the demonstration to art. 63.

And the centers of all great circles through P, will be in cD. (55) Now \(\text{DPE} = 90^\circ. \) (II. 136)

Therefore ZAPF or ZBPE (26), the compl. of CPD, is the angle fought.

77. 3d.



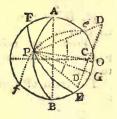
Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

77. 3d. When APB is an oblique circle.

From the given point P, draw the lines PG, PC, through the centers of the primitive and given oblique circles, and through the center of APB draw CD at right angles to PG. (II. 59)

Draw PD, making the ACPD= given degrees, and cutting CD in D. (II. 84)

From D with the radius DP, a circle FPE being described, will be a great circle cutting APB in the angle proposed.



For c, the center of APD, is in a line perpendicular to PG, drawn through P and the center of the primitive, by construction.

And the centers of all great circles through P will be in CD. (55)

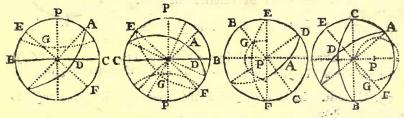
Now the \(\subseteq CPD \) made by the radii PC, PD, contains the given degrees.

Therefore the angle APF is equal to the angle required. (49)

78. PROBLEM X.

Through any point in the plane of projection, or primitive circle, to deferibe a great circle that shall cut a given great circle in any angle proposed:

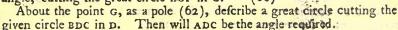
Provided the measure of that proposed angle is not less than the distance between the given point and circle.

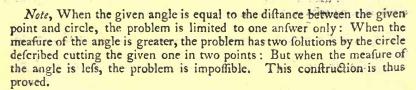


Let the given point be A, through which a circle is to be described to cut a given great circle BDC, the pole of which is P, in an angle equal to a proposed number of degrees.

GENERAL SOLUTION. About the given point A, as a pole, describe a great circle EGF. (62)

About P, the pole of the given circle BDC, deferibe a small circle at a distance equal to the given angle, cutting the great circle EGF in G. (66)





P and G are the poles of BC and AD.

And the distance of P and G is equal to the degrees in the proposed angle, by construction. But ADC = distance of P and G.

Therefore the LADC is the angle required:

79. When the required circle is to make a given angle with the primitive.

Then, from the center of the primitive, with the tang. of the given angle, describe an arc; and from the given point A, with the secant of the given angle, cut the former arc.

On this intersection, a circle being described through the given point

A, will cut the primitive circle in the angle proposed.

This depends on art. 75.

PROBLEM XI. 80.

Any great circle, cutting the primitive, being given, to describe another great circle, which shall cut the given one in a proposed angle, and have a given are intercepted between the primitive and given circles.

Let ABC be the primitive circle, the center of which is P; and the given great circle be ADC, the center of which is E.

SOLUTION. Draw a diameter EBD at right angles to ADC; and make the angle BDF equal to the complement of the given angle; suppose = complement of 35°.

Make DF equal to the tangent of the given arc (suppose 58°); and from P, with the secant of that

arc, describe an arc Gg.

Now when ADC is an oblique circle; from E the center of ADC, with the radius EF, cut the arc Gg in G.

But when ADC is a right circle; through F draw

FG parallel to ADC, cutting the arc Gg in G. From G, with the tangent DF, describe an arc,

no, cutting ADC in 1; and draw GI.

Through G and the center P draw GK, cutting the primitive circle in H, K; draw PL perpendi-

cular to GK; and IL at right angles to IG, cutting PL in L. And I will be the center of a circle passing through H, I, K, which

will be the great circle required.

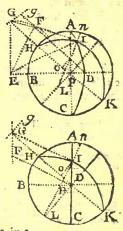
Then the $\angle AIH=35^\circ$; and arc $IH=58^\circ$, as was proposed. For GP is the secant, and GI is the tang, of the arc HI.

(59)And as the triangles EGI, EFD, are congruous; the LEIG = LEDF. (II. 101)

But the LEIG made by the tangent of the arc HI and the radius of the arc AI, is the complement of the angle made by those arcs.

Consequently the ZAIH is the complement of the ZEDF.

The center of the right circle Ac being supposed at an infinite dia stance, therefore any circle FG described from that center, will be parallel to AC.



When the given arc is more than 90°, the tangent and secant of its supplement is to be applied on the line of the contrary way, or towards the right; the former construction being reckoned to the left.

8r. PROBLEM XII.

Any great circle in the plane of projection being given; to describe another great circle, which shall make given angles with the primitive and given circles.

Let the given great circle be ADC, and its pole Q.

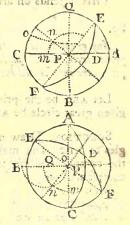
SOLUTION. About P, the pole of the primitive circle, describe an arc mn, at the distance of as many degrees as are in the angle which the required circle is to make with the primitive: Suppose 62°.

About Q, the pole of the other given circle, and at a distance equal to the measure of the angle which the required circle is to make with the given circle ADC (suppose 48°), describe an arc on, cutting mn in n. (66)

About n, as a pole, describe the great circle EDF, cutting the given circles in E and D. (62)
Then is the angle AED = 62°; and ADE = 48°.

For the distance of the poles of any two great circles, is equal to the angle which those circles make with one another.

(33)



REMARK. The 11th Problem, which is particularly useful in confiructing a spherical triangle, in which are given two angles and a side opposite to one of them, includes only two cases of a more general Problem, viz.

Any two great circles being given in position; to describe a third, which shall cut one of those given in an angle proposed, and have a given are intercepted between the given circles.

cepted between the given circles.

Also the 12th Problem, used when the three angles are given, con-

tains only two cases of another Problem; viz.

Any two great circles being given in position, to describe a third which shall cut the given circles in given angles.

The folution of these two general Problems not being wanted in any part of this work; it was not thought necessary here to annex them; more having been already delivered in the preceding pages than it is usual to meet with on this subject. However, their solution is recommended as exercises to speculative learners.

SECTION IV.

Spheric Trigonometry.

DEFINITIONS.

- 82. SPHERIC TRIGONOMETRY is the art of computing the measures of the fides and angles of such triangles as are formed on the surface of a sphere, by the mutual intersections of three great circles described thereon.
 - 83. A SPHERIC TRIANGLE confifts of three fides and three angles.

The measures of unknown sides or angles of spheric triangles are estimated by the relations between the sines, or the tangents, or the secants, of the sides or angles known, and of those that are unknown.

- 84. A RIGHT ANGLED SPHERIC TRIANGLE has one right angle: The fides about the right angle are called Legs; and the fide opposite to the right angle is called the Hypothenuse.
- 85. A QUADRANTAL SPHERIC TRIANGLE has one fide equal to ninety degrees.
 - 86. An Oblique Spheric Triangle has all its angles oblique.
- 87. The CIRCULAR PARTS of a triangle, are the arcs which measure its sides and angles.
- 88. Two spheric triangles are said to be supplements to one another, when the sides and angles of the one are respective supplements of the angles and sides of the other: And one, in regard to the other, is called the supplemental triangle.
- 89. Two arcs or angles, when compared together, are faid to be alike, or of the same kind, when both are acute, or less than 90°, or when both are obtuse, or greater than 90°: But when one is greater and the other less than 90°, they are said to be unlike.

The leffer circles of the sphere do not enter into Trigonometrical computations, because of the diversity of their radii,

SECTION V.

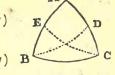
Spherical Theorems.

90.

THEOREM I.

In every spheric triangle, ABC, equal angles, B, C, are opposite to equal sides, AC, AB: And equal sides, AB, AC, are opposite to equal angles, C, B.

DEM. Since AB = AC, make AE = AD; and draw BD, CE. Then is BD = CE; and \(\text{AEC} = \text{ADB.} \) (27) For the triangles AEC, ADB are congruous, Since AB = AC; AD = AE; $\angle \Lambda$ common. Also, the triangles BEC, CDB are congruous; (27)



Therefore LEBC = LDCB.

For EC = BD; EB = (AB - AE =) DC (= AC - AD). (II.48)And LBEC = LCDB, they being the fuppl. of equal angles AEC, ADB.

Again, if LABC=LACE: Then is AB=AC. For take BE = CD; and describe the arcs CE, BD.

Then is EC = DB, \(\text{BEC} = \text{CDB} ; \text{ \text{BCE}} = \text{ \text{CBD}}.

For A* BCE = A CBD; fince BC is common, BE = CD, ∠EBC = ∠DCB.

Alfo the triangles ABD, ACE are congruous;

Since EC = DB, \(\alpha \text{ACE} = (\alpha \text{BCA} - \text{BCE}) \) \(\alpha \text{ABD} \) (\(\alpha \alpha \text{CBA} - \text{CBD} \). (II. 48)

And ZAEC = (fup. ZBEC =) ZADB (=fup. ZCDB). (II. 48) Therefore AE = AD; and AB = (AE + EB =) AC (= AD + DC). (II. 47)

91. COROL. A line drawn from the vertex of an isosceles spheric triangle, to the middle of the base, is perpendicular to the base. This is eafily proved from art. 90, 27.

92.

THEOREM II.

Either side of a spheric triangle is less than the sum of the other two sides.

DEM. For on the furface of the sphere, the shortest distance between two points, is an arc of a great circle passing through those points.

But each fide of a spheric triangle is an arc of a great circle.

Therefore either fide being the shortest distance between its extremities, is lefs than the fum of the other two fides.

THEOREM III.

93. Each side of a spheric triangle is less than a semicircle, or 180 degrees. DEM. Two great circles interfect each other twice at the distance of 180

degrees. The fides about any fpheric angle are arcs of two great circles. (10)

But a spherie triangle has three sides.

Therefore every two fides before their fecond meeting must be interfected by the third fide.

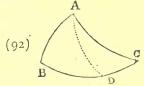
Consequently each fide is less than a semicircle.

94.

THEOREM IV.

In every Spheric triangle, ABC, the greatest side, BC, is opposite the greatest angle, A.

DEM. Make \(\text{BAD} = \(\text{ABC}. \) Then AD=BD (90); and BC=AD+DC. But AD + DC is greater than AC. Therefore BC is greater than AC.



THEOREM V. 95.

If from the three angles of a spheric triangle, ABC, as poles, be described three arcs of great circles, forming another Spheric triangle, EDF; then will the sides of the latter, and the opposite angles of the former, be the supplements of one another: Also the angles in the latter, and their opposite sides in the former, are the supplements of one another.

That is, FE and LCAB, FD and LABC, DE and \(\textit{ACB}\), are supplements to one another.

Also LE and AC, LD and CB, LF and AB, are the supplements to one another.

DEM. The intersection E of the arcs about the poles A and c, being 90° distant from them, is the pole of the arc Ac.

And for the same reason, D is the pole of CB, and F of AB.

Let the fides of the triangle ABC be produced to meet the fides of the triangle DEF in G and H, I and L, M and N.

Then FI = DL = 90°: Therefore (DL + FI = DL + FL + LI =) DF + LI = 180°. (II. 4.7)

Therefore DF and LI are supplements to one another.

But LI measures the angle ABC. (9)

Therefore LABC and DF are the supplements to one another. And in the same manner it may be demonstrated, that the \(\subseteq BAC and \) FE, ZACB and DE, are the supplements of one another.

Again, fince BI = AH = 90 degrees; (19)

Therefore (IB + AH = IB + BH + AB =) IH + AB = 180 degrees. But In measures the angle F; (9)

Therefore AB and LF are the supplements of one another.

And the same may be shewn of Ac and LE, CB and LD.

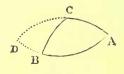
THEOREM VI. 95.

The sum of the three sules of every Spheric triangle, ABC, is less than a circumference, or 360 degrees.

DEM. Continue the fides Ac, AB, till they meet in D.

Then the arcs ACD, ABD, are each 180°. (32)But DC + DB is greater than BC. (92)

Therefore AC + AB + DC + DB is greater than AC - AB - BC.



Or the semicircles ACD + ABD is greater than AC + AB + BC. That is, 360° is greater than the three fides of the triangle ABC.

Univ Calif - Diditized by Microsoft BI HEQ-

7. THEOREM VII.

The sum of the three angles of a spheric triangle, ABC, is greater than two right angles, and less than six; or will always fall between 180 and 540 degrees.

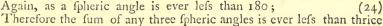
DEM. Since $\angle A$ and FE, $\angle B$ and FD, $\angle C$ and DE, are supplements to one another. (95)

Therefore the three angles A, B, C, together with the three fides FE, FD, DE make thrice 180°, or 540°.

Now the fum of the three fides FE+FD+DE, is lefs than twice 180°. (96)

Therefore the fum of the three angles A+B+C

is greater than 180°.



180°, or 540 degrees.

98. THEOREM VIII.

If one fide, Av, of a spheric triangle, ABC, be produced, then the outward angle, CBD, is either equal to, less, or greater than the inward opposite angle A, adjacent to that side; according as the sum of the other two sides, CA+CB, is equal to, greater, or less than 180 degrees.

DEM. Produce AC, AB, to meet in D.

Then are ACD=are ABD= 180° . (32) And $\angle D = \angle A$. (31)

Nowif AC + CB is equal to 180°; then CB = CD. And $\angle CBD = (\angle D =) \angle A$. (90)

If AC+CB is greater than 180°; then CB is greater than CD.

And $\angle CBD$ is less than $(\angle D=) \angle A$.

If AC+CB is less than 180°; then CB is less than CD.
And ZCBD is greater than (ZD=)ZA.

99. THEOREM IX.

In right angled spheric triangles, the oblique angles and their opposite sides are of the same kind: That is, if a leg is less or greater than 90°, its opposite angle is also less or greater than 90°.

In the right angled spheric triangle ABC, right angled at A.

If Ac is greater than 90°; then ABC is greater

than 90°.

If Ac is less than 90°; then ABC is less than 90°.

Dem. Let the leg Ac be less, AD equal, AC

greater, than 90", and describe the arc DB.

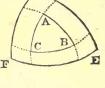
Now b being the pole of AB (37). Therefore

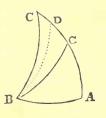
∠DBA is right.

Confequently if Ac is less than AD, the ∠CBA is less than ∠DBA.

But if Ac is greater than AD, the ∠CBA is greater than ∠DBA.

And the same may be proved of the leg AB and its opposite angle.





(94)

(94)

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft @oo. THEO-

THEOREM X.

In right angled spheric triangles, BAC, the hypothenuse, BC, is less than 90°, when the legs, AB, AC, are of a like kind: But the hypothenuse is greater than 90°, when the legs are of different kinds.

Ist. When the legs AB, AC, are both less than 90°. DEM. In BA, AC produced, take BD, AF equal to quadrants; through F and D describe an arc FD meeting BC produced in E.

Now F being the pole of BD (19). Therefore B

is the pole of ED.

Confequently BC is less than (BE=) 90°.

2d. When the legs AB, AC, are both greater than 90°.

Produce Ac, AB, till they meet in D.

Now the hypothenuse CB is common to both the right angled triangles BAC and BDC.

And the legs DC, DB, being both less than 90°. Therefore the hypothenuse BC is less than 90°,

by the first case of this Theorem.

3d. When the legs AB, AC, are one greater, the

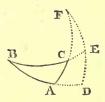
other less than 90°.

In AB, and AC produced, take RD, AF each of

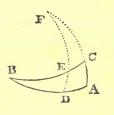
90°, and describe the arc FED.

Then B is the pole of FD; and fince F is the pole of BA, and FD is at right angles to BD. Therefore BE=90°. (37)

Confequently BC is greater than 90 degrees.







101. Corol. I. The hypothenuse is less or greater tha 90°, according as the oblique angles are of a like, or different kinds. n

For if legs are like, or unlike, the angles are like or unlike. (99)

And if legs are like, or unlike, the hypoth. is acute or obtuse. (100) Therefore if the angles are like, the hypothenuse is acute, or less than 90°; but if unlike, the hypothenuse is obtuse, or greater than 90°.

102. COROL. II. The legs and their adjacent angles are like, or unlike, as the hypothenuse is less, or greater than 90 degrees.

For like legs, or like angles, make the hypothenuse acute (by 1st and

2d of 100).

And unlike legs, or unlike angles, make the hypothenuse obtuse (by 31 of 100 and by 101).

103. Corol. III. A leg and its opposite angle are both acute, or both obtuse, according as the hypothenuse and other leg are like, or unlike.

This is evident from the three cases of this Theorem.

104. GORDL. IV. Either angle is acute, or obtuse, as the hypothenuse and the other angle are like, or unlike.

This follows from case 1st and 2d of this Theorem.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft GILEO.

THEOREM XI. 105.

In every spheric triangle, ABC, if the angles adjacent to either side, AB, be alike, then a perpendicular, CD, drawn to that side from the other angle, will fall within the triangle: But the perpendicular CD falls without the triangle, when the angles adjacent to the side AB it falls on are unlike.

DEMONST. Since in all right angled triangles the perpendicular and its opposite angle are of the fame kind.

Therefore the Ls CAD, CBD, are each like CD. Now in Fig. 1. the angles CAD, CBD, or CAB,

CBA, are angles adjacent to the base AB within the triangle, and are therefore alike.

Therefore the perpendicular falling between A

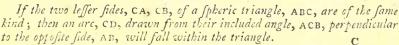
and B, falls within the triangle.

In Fig. 2. the angles CAD and CAB are the fupplements of each other, and are therefore unlike, as ca falls obliquely on AB.

Therefore LCAB is unlike to LCBA.

Confequently the perpendicular cp cannot fall between A and B: Therefore it must fall without.

THEOREM XII.



DEMONST. In AB take AF = AC; draw CF and AH at right angles to CF.

Then CH=HF (91) are each less than 90°. (93) Also take BE=BC; draw CE and BG at right

angles to CE.

Then CG=GE (91) are each less than 90°. (93) Now in the right angled triangles FHA, EGB; if the hypothenuses AF (MAC), and BE (BC), are acute, or like FH and EG;

Then the angles AFH and BEG are acute, and like AC and BC; (103) Therefore the perpendicular on falls on EF, within the triangle. (105)

Also if the hypothenuses AF and BE are obtuse, or unlike to FH and GE; Then the angles AFH and BEG are obtuse, and also like CA and CB. (103)

Confequently the perpendicular will fall on EF. Therefore in either case the perpendicular falls within the triangle.

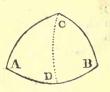
THEOREM XIII. 107.

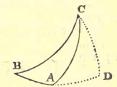
In all right angled spheric triangles,

As fine bypoth. : Rad: : fine of a leg: fine of its opposite angle. And fine a log: Rad.:: tan. other leg: tan. of its opposite angle. Pl. I.

DEMONST. Let FDAFG represent the eighth part of a sphere, where the quadrantal planes EDFG, EDBC, are both perpendicular to the quadrantal plane ADFB; and the quadrantal plane ADGC is perpendicular to the quadrantal plane FDFG: and the spheric triangle ABC is right angled at B, where CA is the hypothenuse, and BA, BC, are the legs.

To the arcs GF, CE, draw the tangents HF, OB, and the fines GM, CI, on the radii DF, DR; also draw BL, the fine of the arc AB, and CK, the fine of AC, then John II. Land LECT by MICROSOTT B





Now HF, OB, GM, CI, are all perpendicular to the plane ADFB.

And HD, CK, OL, lie all in the same plane ADGC. Also FD, IK, BL, lie all in the same plane ADFB.

Therefore the right angled triangles HFD, CIK, OBL, having the equal angles HDF, CKI, OLB, (II. 199) are fimilar. (II. 167)

Therefore CK : DG :: CI : GM.

That is, As fin. hyp. : Rad. :: fin. of a leg : fin. opp. angle.

For GM is the fine of the arc GF, which measures the angle CAB. (9)

Alfo, As LB : DF :: BO : FH.

That is, As fin. of a leg : Rad :: tan. of other leg : tan. opp. angle.

THEOREM XIV.

In right angled spheric triangles, ABC, if about the oblique angles, A, C, as poles, at 90° distance, there be described arcs, DE, FE, cutting one another in E; and the sides AB, AC, BC, of the triangle be produced to cut those arcs in D; G, F; H, I; there will be constituted two other triangles, CGH, HIE, the parts of which are either equal to, or are the complements of, the parts of the given triangle, ABC. Pl. I.

DEMONST. Now fince A is the pole of ED (19). Therefore AD, AG are at right angles to ED; and fo is ED to AD. (37)

And fince BI and DE are at right angles to AD, their intersection H is the pole of AD (36). Therefore HB, HD are quadrants. (35)

Then in the triangle CGH, right angled at G.

cg=complement of Ac.

HG=comp. ZA; For HG is the comp. of GD, which mea. ZA. (9) HC the hypoth. is the comp. of CB.

The $\angle HCG = \angle ACB$. (26)

The \(\triangle = \text{comp. ab}: \) For BD, the comp. of AB, measures \(\triangle \text{CHG}.\)
Also in the triangle EIH, right angled at I: Because CF, CI are at right angles to EF; and EF, EG being also at right angles to AF; therefore E is the pole of AF; (36) consequently EF and EG are quadrants. (35)

Then the hypoth. EXE ZA; For GH = comp. of EH and GD; and

OD measures the angle A.

HI=CB; for HC=comp. of HI and CB.

EI=comp. $\angle c$; For EI=comp. of IF, which measures $\angle c$. The $\angle H$ =comp. $\angle AB$; For BD, the comp of AB, measures $\angle H$. The $\angle E$ =AC; For $\Box F$, the measure of $\angle E$, is equal to $\angle AC$.

THEOREM XV.

In every spheric triangle, it will be, As the sine of either angle, is to the sine of its opposite side; So is the sine of another angle, to the sine of its opposite side.

Let Are be a spheric triangle, where BD is perpendicular to Ac produced; forming the two right angled triangles ADB, CDB.

Dem. New fin. ab : rad. : : fin. ab : fin. ∠ A.(107)
And fin. ac : rad. : : fin. ab : fin. ∠ C.

Therefore lin. ZA: fin. BC:: fin. ZC: fin. AB.

Therefore fin. AB × fin. ∠A = rad. × fin. BD.

And fin. BC × fin. ∠C = rad. × fin. BD.

Therefore fin. AB × fin. ∠A = fin. BI × fin. ∠C.

(II. 162)

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft GC TION

(11. 163)

SECTION VI.

Of the Solution of right angled Spheric Triangles.

In every case of right angled spheric triangles, three things beside the radius enter the proportion, of which two are given, and the third is fought.

Now the folution of every case will be obtained by the application of the two following rules to Theorem XIII. and XIV. (107, 108, 109.)

two are opposite to one another, and the third is opposite to the right angle, in one of the triangles marked 1, 2, 3, in the fig. to Theo. XIV. Pl. I. Then the thing fought will be found by the first proportion (107) either directly, or by inversion.

112. RULE II. If of the three things concerned, or their complements, two are fides, and the third is an oblique angle, in either of the three triangles marked 1, 2, 3, in fig. to Theo. XIV. Pl. I. Then the thing fought will be found by the fecond proportion (108) either directly, or by invertion.

PROBLEM I.

In the right angled spheric triangle ABC, Plate I. Theorem XIV.

Given the hypothenuse AC and one of the legs AB required the rest.

Ist. To find the angle ACB opposite the given leg AB.

Here the things concerned are AC, $\angle B$, AB, $\angle C$; which are found in the triangle, N° 1, to be opposite; and so fall under Rule I. (111)

Then sin. AC: rad.:: sin. AB: sin. $\angle ACB$. (107)

Or fin. hyp. : rad. :: fin. g. leg : fin. op. L. Like the g. leg. (99)

2d. To find the angle CAB adjacent to the given leg AB. Here the things concerned are AC, ∠B, AB, ∠A.

Now trying in the triangle, No 1, I find the things concerned will

fall under neither of the Rules.

But trying in the triangle, N° 2, the things concerned, or their com-

plements, fall under Rule II. (112)

Then sin. нg: rad.:: tan. gc: tan. ∠снд. (108)

Or co-f. \(CAB : rad. :: co-t. AC : co-t. AB. \)

Or co-f. Z CAB: co-t. Ac:: (rad.: co-t. AB):: tan. AB: rad. (III. 36)

Therefore rad.: co-t. hyp.:: tan. g. leg: co-f. adj. angle. (II. 145) Like, or unlike the given leg; as the hyp. is acute, or obtufe. (102)

Take, or unlike the given leg; as the hyp. is acute, or obtule. (102)

Here the things concerned are AC, $\angle B$, AB, BC; which in the triangle, N° 1, do not fall under either Rule: But in N° 2 they will be found to fall under the first Rule. (111)

Then fin. HE: rad.:: fin. cg: fin. \(\subseteq CHG. \) (107)

Or co-f. cB: rad.:: co-f. Ac: co-f. AB.

Therefore co-f. g. leg, AB, : rad. : : co-f. hyp. Ac, : co-f. req. leg CB. And is acute, if hyp. and given leg are like; but obtufe, if unlike. (103)

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft @4. PROB.

In the right angled spheric triangle ABC. Pl. I. Theorem XI Given the hypothenuse AC And one of the oblique angles A Required the rest.	V.
Ift. To find the leg CB opposite to the given angle A. In the triangle, No 1. the things concerned fall under Rule I. Then rad.: sin. Ac:: sin. \(\alpha \) CAB: sin. CB. Or rad.: sin. hyp.:: sin. given angle: sin. opp. side. And is like the given angle.	(111) (107)
2d. To find the leg AB adjacent to the given angle A. In the triangle, N° 2. the things concerned fall under Rule II. Then fin. HG: rad.:: tan. CG: tan. ∠CHG. Or cof. ∠BAC: rad.:: (co-t. AC: co-t. AB::) tan. AB: tan. A	(112) (108)
Therefore rad.: tan. Ac:: co-f. \(\sum_{\text{BAC}}\): tan. AB. Or rad.: tan. hyp.:: co-f. given angle: tan. adjacent leg. And is acute, if hyp. and given angle are alike; but obtufe if unlike	(III. 37)
	(108) (111. 37) (11. 145) gle.
PROBLEM III.	(104)
In the right angled spheric triangle ABC. Plate I. Theorem XI Given one of the legs AB And its opposite angle ACB Required the rest.	V.
Ist. To find the hypothenuse AC. In the triangle, N° 1. the things concerned fall under Rule I. Then fin. ∠ ACB: fin. AB:: rad.: fin. AC. Or fin. given angle: fin. given leg:: rad.: fin. hyp. And is either acute or obtuse.	(111) (107)
2d. To find the other leg CB. In the triangle, N° 1, the things concerned fall under Rule II. Then fin. CB: (rad.::) tan. AB (: tan. ∠ ACB):: co-t. ∠ ACB: rad. Or rad.: co-t. given angle:: tan. given leg: fin. req. leg. And is either acute or obtuse.	(112) (III. 36)
3d. To find the other angle CAB. In the triangle, No 3, the things concerned fall under Rule I. Then fin. En: rad. :: fin. EI: fin ZIHE.	(111)
Or fin. \(\neg BAC:\) rad.:: co-f. \(\neg ACB:\) co-f. AB. Or co-f given leg:: co-f. given angle:: rad.: fin. required a And is either acure of obtaining the difference of the particle of th	ngle. ROB-

(111)

(107)

(100)

PROBLEM IV. 116. In the right angled spheric triangle ABC, Plate I. Theorem XIV. Give one of the legs AB And its adjacent angle BAC Required the rest. Ist. To find the other angle BCA. In the triangle N° 3, the things concerned fall under Rule I. (111) Then rad.: fin. EH:: fin. ZEHI: fin. EI. (107) Or rad.: fin. ZBAC:: co-f. AB : co-f. ZACB. Therefore rad.: co-f. given leg:: fin. given angle: co-f. req. angle. (99) And is like the given leg. 2d. To find the other leg EC. In the triangle, No 1. the things concerned fall under Rule II. (112)(108) Then fin. AB: rad. :: tan. BC : tan. \(\alpha \) CAB. rad.: fin. AB:: tan. ∠CAB: tan. BC. Therefore rad. : fin. given leg :: tan. given angle : tan. req. leg. And is like the given angle. 3d. To find the hypothenuse AC. In the triangle, No 2, the things concerned fall under Rule II. (112) Then fin. GH: rad.:: tan. CG: tan. ZCHG. (108) Or co-f. \(\alpha \) CAB : rad. :: co-t. AC : co-t. AB. Therefore rad. : co-f. given angle : : co-t. given leg : co-t. hpothenuse. And is acute, if the given leg and angle are alike; but obtufe, if unlike. (102)PROBLEM V. 117. In the right angled spheric triangle ABC, Plate I. Theorem XIV. Given both the legs AB, BC. Required the rest. 1st. To find either of the oblique angles, as BAC. In the triangle, No 1. the things concerned fall under Rule II. (112) Then, as fin. AB: rad. :: tan. BC: tan. \(\subseteq BAC. \) (108)Or rad.: fin. AB:: (tan. \(\subseteq \subseteq \text{L} \) co-t. EC: co-t. \(\subseteq \subseteq \text{L} \) BAC. (III. 37) Therefore rad. : fin. one leg : : co-t. oth. leg : co-t. opp. angle. And is like its opposite leg. (99)2d. To find the hypothenuse AC.

In the triangle, No 2. the things concerned fall under Rule I.

Therefore rad.: co-f. one leg:: co-f. oth. leg: co-f. hypothenuse.

Then, As rad.: fin. HC:: fin. LCHG: fin. CG.

And is acute, if the legs are alike; but obtufe, if unlike.

Or rad.: co f. BC:: co-f AB: co-f. AC.

PROBLEM VI.

In the right angled spherical triangle ABC, Plate I. Theorem XIV. Given both the angles BAC, BCA. Required the rest.

Ist. To find either of the legs, as BC.

In the triangle, N° 2 or 3. the things concerned fall under Rule I. (111) Then, rad.: fin. HC:: fin. ZHCG: fin. HG. (107)

Or rad.: co-f. Bc:: fin. \(\times ACB: \text{co-f.} \times BAC. \)

Therefore fine of one angle: rad.:: co-s. oth. angle: co-s. opposite side.

And is like its opposite angle.

(99)

2d. To find the hypothenuse AC.

In the triangle, No 2. the things concerned fall under Rule II. (112) Then, As fin. co: rad.:: tan. ch: tan. \(\nn \text{Hcg}\). (108)

Or co-f. Ac: (rad.::) co-t.∠BAC (: tan.∠BCA):: co-t.∠BCA: rad. (III. 36)

Therefore rad.: co-t. one angle:: co-t. oth. angle: co-f. hypothenuse.

And is acute, if the angles are like.

— (101)

But obtuse, if unlike.

In these fix Problems are contained fixteen proportions, which are applicable to the like number of cases usually given to right angled spheric triangles; and these proportions being collected and disposed in a Table, will readily shew, by inspection, how any of the cases are to be solved.

The celebrated Lord Nepier, the inventor of logarithms, contrived a general rule, eafy to be remembered, by which the folution of every cafe in right angled spheric triangles is readily obtained, where the table of proportions is wanting; which rule is as follows.

GENERAL RULE.

119. Radius multiplied by the fine of the middle part, is either equal to the product of the tangents of extremes conjunct.

Or to the product of the co-fines of extremes disjunct.

Observing over to use the complements of the hypoth, and angles.

Lord Nepier called the five parts of every right angled spheric triangle, omitting the right angle, circular parts; which he thus distinguished; the two legs, the complements of the two angles, and the complement of the hypothem fe; and any two of these circular parts being given, the others are to be found by this rule, as is shown in what follows.

Now, In all the proportions about right angled spheric triangles, there are, besides the radius, three things concerned; one of which may be called the middle term in respect of the other two; and these two, in

respect of the middle term, may be called extremes.

When the two extremes are joined to the middle, they are called extremes conjunct: But when each of them is disjoined from the middle, by an intermediate term (not concerned), they are then called extremes difjunct; taking notice that the right angle does not disjoin the legs.

If the three parts under confideration do all join, the middle one of those three is readily seen, and the other two are extremes conjunct.

But if only two of the three parts are joined, these two are extremes disjunct, and the other term is the middle partier osoft ®

Thefe

These things duly observed, the practice of the Rule will appear in the following examples.

Example I. When the hypothenuse and the angles are concerned.

The hypoth is the middle term, and the two angles are extremes conjunct; then by the rule.

Rad. \times fin. hyp. = tan. one angle \times tan. other angle.

But the comp. of the hypoth. and angles are always to be used.

Therefore rad. x co-s. hyp.=co-t. one angle x co-t. other angle.

Hence rad.: co-t. one angle:: co-t. other angle: co-s. hypoth. (II.163)

From whence are deduced the 6th and 15th cases.

Exam. II. When the hypothenuse and legs are under consideration.

The hypothenuse is the middle term, and the two legs are extremes disjunct, having the angles between them and the hypothenuse.

Then by the rule. Rad. x fin. hyp. = co-f. one leg x co-f. other leg.

But the complement of the hypothenuse is to be used.

Therefore rad. × co-f. hypoth. = co-f. one leg × co-f. other leg. Hence rad.: co-f. one leg:: co-f. other leg: co-f. hypoth. (II. 163) From whence are deduced the 3d and 13th cases.

Exam. III. The legs and an angle under consideration.

Here the angle and its opposite leg are extremes conjunct; and the other leg is the middle part.

And these being resolved into a proportion by the rule, will produce the 8th, 11th, and 14th cases.

EXAM. IV. The angles and a leg under consideration.

Here one angle is the middle, and the other angle and leg are extremes disjunct, the hypothenuse and other leg intervening.

Now these being resolved into a proportion, give the 9th, 12th, and

16th cases.

Exam. V. The hypothenuse, a leg, and the angle between them, being under consideration.

Here the angle is the middle term, and the hypothenuse and leg are extremes conjunct.

And these being resolved into a proportion, will give the 2d, 4th, and

10th cases.

Exam. VI. The hypothenuse, a leg, and its opposite angle, being under consideration.

Here the leg is the middle term, and the hypothenuse and angle are extremes disjunct, the other leg and other angle falling between them and the middle.

And these being converted into a proportion, from thence the 1st, 5th,

and 7th cases are deduced.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft CTION

SECTION VII.

Of the Solution of oblique angled spheric Triangles.

triangles, except where the three fides, or the three angles are given, are most conveniently resolved by drawing a perpendicular from one of the angles to its opposite side, continued if necessary; which perpendicular will either divide the given triangle into two right angled triangles, or make two that are right angled, by joining a right angled one to the given triangle.

In drawing this perpendicular, observe,

1st. It must be drawn from the end of a given side, and opposite to a given angle.

2d. It must be so drawn, that two of the given things in the oblique

triangle may remain known in one of the right-angled triangles.

3d. This perpendicular is to be used as a known quantity; and being drawn as here directed, will either fall within or without the triangle, as the angles, next the side on which it falls, are of the same or of different kinds.

(105)

PROBLEM I.

In the oblique angled spheric triangle ABC.

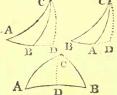
Given two sides CA, CB

And the angle opp. to one, ZCAB

Requir. the rest

Ist. To find the angle opposite to the other given side (\(CBA \)).

As sin. BC: fin. \(CAB :: \) sin. AC: fin. \(CBA \). (110)



Or, As fin. one fide: fin. opposite angle:: fin. other side: fin. opposite angle. Which may be either acute or obtuse.

2d. To find the angle between the given fides (\(\times ACB \)).

Now rad.: tan. \(\times CAB :: co-f. AC: co-t. (ACD, call it) m. \)

Or rad.: tan. given \(\times :: co-f. adj. fide : co-t. (of a fourth =) m. \)

And is acute, if AC and \(\times CAB \) are like; but obtuse, if unlike.

But rad.: tan. CD:: co-t. AC: co-f. (ACD=) m. (2d 113)

rad.: tan. CD:: co-t. CB:: co-f. (BCD, call it) n

Therefore co-t. Ac:: co-t. CB:: co-f. m:: co-f. n. (II. 155)

Or co-t. side adj. given \angle : co-t. other side:: co-s. m: co-s. n. And is like the side apposite the given angle, if that angle is acute.

But unlike that file, if the given angle is obtuse.

Then the angle fought, viz. \angle ACB= { fum of m and n, if \bot * falls within diff. of m and n, if \bot falls without.

3d. To find the other side AB. Now rad. co-f. \angle CAB:: tan. AC: tan. (AD, call it) M. Or rad.: co-f. given angle::tan. adj. side:tan. (of a fourth=) M. Acute, if the angle and its adj. side are like; but obtuse, if unlike. But co-f. cd: rad.:: co-f. Ac: co-f. (AD=) M. (3d 113) co-f. cp: rad.:: co-f. cb: co-f. (DB call it) N. (II. 155) Therefore co-f. Ac : co-f. CB : : co-f. M. : co-f. N.

Or co-s. side adj. given angle: co-s. other side:: co-s. M.: co-s. N. Like the side opposite the given angle, if that angle be acute; But unlike that side, if the angle be obtuse.

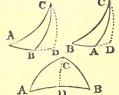
180-EC;

Then & B is like BC only.

Then $\angle ACB = m \pm n$ only; and AB = M $\pm N$ only. And if BC is unlike $\angle A$;

PROBLEM II. 122.

In the oblique angled spheric triangle ABC. Given two angles CAB, CBA Required And a fide opposite one of them Ac I the rest.



1st. To find the side opposite the other given angle, viz. CB.

Then, As fin. LCBA: fin. AC:: fin. LCAB: fin. CB. Or sin. one angle: sin. opposite side: sin. other angle: sin. opposite side. Which may be either acute or obtuse.

2d. To find the fide included by the given angles, viz. AB.

Now rad.: co-f. ∠ CAB:: tan. Ac: tan. (AD, call it) M. Or rad.: co-s. \angle adj. given side:: tan. the given side: tan. (of a fourth \equiv) M. Like the angle adj. the side given, if that side is acute; but unlike, if obtuse. But rad.: tan. cD:: co-t. \(\alpha \) CAB: fin. (AD=) M

rad.: tan. cD:: co-t. ∠CBD: fin. (DB, call it) N. (2d II5) Therefore co-t. \(CAB : co-t. \(CBD :: \) fin. M : fin. N. (II. 155)

Or co-t. \(\sigma adj.\), given fide: co-t. other angle:: fin. M: fin. N.

Which may be either acute or obtuse.

Then the fide fought AB = { fum of M and N, if the given angles are alike. diff. of M and N, if the given angles are unlike.

3d. To find the other angle, viz. LACB.

Now rad.: tan.∠CAD:: co-f. AC: co-t. (∠ACD, call it) m. (3d 114) Orrad.: tan. Ladj. side given:: co-s. of given side: co-t. (of a fourth=)m. Like \(\alpha\) adj. side given, if that side is acute; but unlike, if obtuse.

But co-f. CD: rad.:: CO-f. $\angle CAB$: fin. $(\angle ACD =)m$. co-f. cd: rad.:: co-f. \(\text{ABC} : \text{fin.} \) (\(\text{LBCD}, \text{ call it} \) n. (3d 115) Therefore co-f. \(\subseteq CAB: \text{co-f.} \(\subsete ABC:: \text{fin. m. to fin. n.} \) (II. 155) Or co-f. \(\neg adj\), side given: co-f. other angle: : sin, m: sin, n.

Which may be either acute or obtuse.

Then

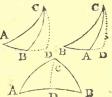
Then \angle fought ABC = { fum of m and n, if the given angles are alike. diff. of m and n, if the given angles are unlike. But if AC=BC, or to 180°—BC, or is between BC and 180°—BC. Then BC cannot be unlike its opposite angle. Neither can DB, or the \angle BCD be obtuse.

123. PROBLEM III.

In the oblique angled spheric triangle ABC.

Given two sides AC, AB
And their contained angle BAC

Required the rest.



Ist. To find either of the other angles, as LABC.

As rad.: co-f. \(\times CAB:: \) tan. AC: tan. (AD, call it) M. (2d 114)

Or rad.: co-f. given \(\times: \): tan. fide objosit: \(\times \) sught: tan. (of a fourth \(\times \)) M.

Like the fide opposite \(\times \) fought, if the given \(\times \) is acute;

But unlike that fide, if the given \(\times \) is obtuse.

Take the diff. between AB, fide adj. \(\times \) fought, and (AD \(\times \)) M; call it N.

Now rad.: co-t. CD:: fin. (AD \(\times \)) M: co-t. \(\times \) CAB.

(1st 117)

rad.: co-t. CD:: fin. (DB \(\times \)) N: co-t. \(\times \) ABC.

Therefore fin. N: fin M. :: co-t. ∠ ABC : co-t. ∠ CAB. (II. 155)
:: tan. ∠ CAB : tan. ∠ CBA. (III. 37)

Or sin. N: sin. M:: tan. given L: tan. L sought.

Like the given angle, BAC, if M is less than AB, the side adjacent the angle sought; but unlike, if M is greater.

2d. To find the other fide CB.

As rad: co-f. \(\angle ^CAB: \): tan. Ac: tan. (AD, call it) M. (2d 114)
Or rad.: co-f. given \(\angle : \): tan. of either given fide: tan. (of a fourth =) M.
Like the fide used in this proportion, if the given \(\alpha \) is acute;
But unlike that side, if the angle is obtuse.

Take the difference between the other side, AB, and (AD=) M; call it N.

Now rad.: co-f. CD:: co-f. (AD=) M: co-f. Ac. (2d 117)

rad.: co-f. CD:: co-f. (DB=) N: co-f. CB.

Therefore co-f. M: co-f. N:: co-f. Ac: co-f. CB. (II. 155)
Or co-f. M: co-f. N:: co-f. side used in sirst proportion: co-f. side required.

Like K, if the given Lis acute; but unlike K, if that Lis obtuse.

PROBLEM IV.

In the oblique angled spheric triangle ABC.

Given two angles ZCAB, ZACB

And their included fide AC

Required the rest.

Ift. To find either of the other fides, as CB.

As rad.: co-f. Ac:: tan. L CAB: co-t. (L ACD, call it) m. (3d 114)

Or rad.: co-f. given fide:: tan. L spposte fide fought: co-t. (of a fow th=)m.

Like the angle opposite fide fought, if the given side is acute;

But unlike that angle, if the given f de he obtufe

Take the diff. between \(\(\) ACB, adj. fide fought, and (\(\) ACB \(\)) m, call it n.

Then rad.: co-t. CD:: co-f. (\(\) ACB \(\)) m: co-t. AC. (3d 116)

rad.: co-t. CD:: co-f. (\(\) ECB \(\)) n: co-t. CB.

Therefore

Therefore co-f. n.: co-f. m:: co-t. CB: co-t. AC.
:: tan. AC: tan. CB.

Or co-f. n: co-f. m.:: tan. given fide: tan. fide required.
Like n, if the angle opposite the side fought be acute;
But unlike n, if the angle is obtuse.

2d. To find the other angle ABC.

As rad.: co-f. AC:: tan. \(\alpha \text{CAB} : \text{CO-t.} \(\alpha \text{ACD}, \)

As rad.: co-f. Ac::tan. \(\alpha CAB: \text{co-t.} \) (\(\alpha CD, \) call it) m. (3d 114)

Or rad.:co-f. given fide::tan. either given \(\alpha: \text{co-t.} \)

(of a fourth=) m.

Like \(\sum_{\text{ufed}}\) in this proportion, if the given fide, AC, is acute;

But unlike that \angle , if the given side is obtuse. Take the difference between the other \angle , ACB, and

L(ACD=) m, call it n.

Now rad.: co-f. cD:: fin. $(\angle ACD =) m$: co-f. $\angle CAB$. (1ft 116) rad.: co-f. cD:: fin. $(\angle BCD =) n$: co-f. $\angle ABC$.

Therefore fin. m: fin. n:: co-f. \(\alpha \) CAB: co-f. \(\alpha \) ABC. (II. 155)

Or fin. m: fin. n:: co-f. \(\alpha \) used in first prop.: co-f. \(\alpha \) sought.

Like the \(\nu\) used in both proportions, if m is less than the other \(\nu\); But unlike, if m is greater than the other angle.

PROBLEM V.

In the oblique angled spheric triangle ABC. Plate I. Problem V. Given the three sides AB, BC, AC; Required the angles. To find the angle ABC.

Let HBKLM represent the quarter of a sphere, the center of which is 0. Where the semicircular sections HBK, HLK, are at right angles to one another; and oB is perpendicular to HK.

Then, continuing the fide BC to L, the arc HML measures \angle ABC. (9) And $HQ = \frac{1}{2}$ chord HL, will be the fine of $\frac{1}{2}$ (arc HMC $= \frac{1}{2}$) \angle ABC.

Draw the radius oom; and draw LP, on at right angles to HK.

Then LP=sine, HP=versed sine, of \(\times ABC; \) And HN=NP. (II. 165) But as HQO is a right-angled triangle; oQ being perp. to HL. (II. 125)

Therefore on: HQ:: HQ: HN. (II. 170)

And oh x hn = \overline{HQ}^2 (II. 162) = square of the sine of $\frac{1}{2} \angle ABC$.

Make BD=BE=BC; and AF=AG=AC.

Then the femicircular plane DCE, which is parallel to HLK (23), will be cut by the femicircular plane FCG, drawn at right angles to the plane HBK, in the line CI (II. 209) at right angles to DE. (II. 210)

And the arc DC, and its versed sine DI, are similar to the arc HL and its versed sine HP. (29. III. 15)

Then rad. OH: rad. DS:: PH: IDE $\left(\frac{PH}{OH} \times DS = \right)\frac{2HN}{OH} \times DS$.

Draw or parallel to FG; then are AR = (90°=) are BK, and RK = AB.

Therefore \(\text{DIF} = (\(\text{LKOR} = \text{AR} = RK =) \) are AB.

Now DS = (SE = fine arc BE =) fine arc BC.

And AD = (BD - BA = BC - BA) = diff. fides about \angle fought.

Also $\angle DFI = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{arc}(DG = AG + AD =) \overline{AC + AD}$, the fine of which is $\frac{1}{2}$ ID. Schol. to art. III. 45.

And arc FD = (AF AD =) AC - AD, the fine of which is ½ DF.

Now fin. \(DIF: \) fin. \(DFI:: \) (FD: ID:: \) \(\frac{1}{2}\) FD: \(\frac{1}{2}\) ID. (Schol. III. 45)

Or fin. \angle DIF: fin. \angle DFI:: $\frac{1}{2}$ FD: $\frac{HN}{OH} \times DS$.

Therefore fin. $\angle DIF \times DS \times \frac{HN}{OH} = \text{fin.} \angle DFI \times \frac{1}{2} FD.$ (II. 163)

Therefore fin. $\angle DIF \times DS \times \frac{HN}{OH} \times OH = \text{fin.} \angle DFI \times \frac{1}{2}FD \times OH$ (II. 156)

Or fin. \angle DIF \times DS \times HN = fin. \angle DFI \times $\frac{1}{2}$ FD \times OH. (II. 149) Theref. fin. \angle DIF \times DS: fin. \angle DFI \times $\frac{1}{2}$ FD: OH: HN. (II. 163)

 $:: OH \times OH : (HN \times OH =) \frac{1}{HQ^2}. (II. 155)$ Therefore fin. $\angle DIF \times DS : fin. \angle DFI \times \frac{1}{2}FD :: OH^2 : HQ^2$.

Or fin. AB × fin. BC: fin. $\frac{1}{2}$ AC + AD × fin. $\frac{1}{2}$ AC - AD: $\frac{1}{2}$ AC - AD: $\frac{1}{2}$ AC - AD:

Theref. squ. fin. \(\frac{1}{2} \times ABC = \frac{\text{fin. AB} \times \text{fin. BC}}{\text{fin. AB} \times \text{fin. BC}} \times \text{squ. Rad. (II. 164)}

Now supposing Rad. = 1, and L. to stand for logarithm.

Then 2L, fin. $\frac{1}{2} \angle ABC = L$. fin. $\frac{1}{2}AC + AD + L$, fin. AC - AD - L. fin. AB - L. fin. BC. (I. 90, 85, 86)

And putting I for the arithmetic complement of a logarithm.

l. fin. AB + l. fin. BC + L. fin. $\frac{1}{2}AC + AD + L$. fin. $\frac{1}{2}AC - AD$

Then L, fin. ½ ∠ ABC =

That is, having determined which angle to find, To the arithmetic complement of log. sin. of one containing side,

Add the arithmetic complement of log. sin. of the other containing side, And the log. sin. of the $\frac{1}{2}$ sum of 3d side and difference of the containing sides, Also the log. sin. of the $\frac{1}{2}$ difference of 3d side and diff. of the containing sides, Then the degrees answering to half the sum of these four logarithms, sound among the sines, being doubled, will give the angle sought.

PROBLEM VI.

In the oblique angled spheric triangle ABC. Given the three angles A, B, C; Requ. the sides.

To find the side AB.

About the given angles as poles, describe arcs of great circles meeting one another, and forming the triangle FDE.

Then are the fides of FDE, the supplements of the angles A, B, C. (95)

Continue FD, FE, the supplements of the angles B, A, adjacent to the side AB required, till they meet in G.

Then in the triangle DGE, the fides GD, GE, are the measures of the angles B and A, adjacent to the fide fought.

The fide DE is the supplement of LC opposite the fide AB.

Now ZG (= ZF, by 31) is the supplement of AB.

Therefore the & G being found in the triangle DGB by PROB. V. (125)

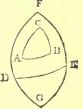
will give the supplement of the side AB required.

That is, Let the given angles be taken as the sides of another triangle, observing to use the supplement of that angle opposite to the side required.

In this new triangle find (by PROB. V.) the angle opposite to that side where the supplement is used.

Then will the supplement of the angle thus found be the side required.

Univ Calif - DigMized by Microsoft & TABLE



A TABLE containing all the cases of right angled, or Quadrantal, spheric Triangles, with the Solutions and Determinations.

Distance		_										
Determination	Like given leg.	{ ac. or ob. as hyp. is like or unl. gn. leg.	1-4-	Like given angle.	ac. or ob. as hyp. is like or unl. gn. L.	ac. or ob. as hyp. is like or unl. gn. 2.	either ac. or ob.	either ac. or ob.	either ac. or ob.	Like given leg.	Like given angle.	ac. or ob. as gn. leg like or unlike gn. L.
SOLUTION.	:: fin. gn. leg : fin. op. 2	: tan. gn. leg : eo-f. adj. L	:: co-f. Hyp. : co-f. req. leg	:: fin. gn. 2 : iin. op. leg	:: co-f. gn. 2. : tan. adj. leg	:: tan. gu. 4 : co-t. req. 4	:: Rad. : fin. Hyp.	: tan. gn. leg : sin. req. leg	:: Rad. : fin. req 2	:: fin. gn. 2 : co.f. req. 2	:: tan. gu. L : tan. req. le2	:: co-t. gn. leg : co-t. Hyp.
S O L	fin. Hyp. : Rad.	Rad. : co-t. Hyp.	co-f. gn. leg: Rad.	Rad. : fin. Hyp.	Rad. : tan. Hyp.	Rad. : co-f. Hyp.	fin. gn. L -: fin. gn. leg	Rad. : co-t. gn. 2	co-f: gn. leg : co-f. gn. 2	Rad. : co-f. gn. leg	Rad. : fin. gn. leg	Rad. : co.f. gn. Z
Required.	11	Zad.gn.leg	other leg	leg. op. gu. Z	leg. ad. gn. Z	other angle	Hypoth.	other leg	other angle	other angle	other leg	Hypoth.
Given.		Hyp.	Syr		Hyp.	angle	A leave	and its	op. 7		A leg.	adj. 2
PR	127.	128.	# 20°	0.0	131. III.	#32°	133.	134. III.	¥35°	136.	137. IV.	138.

: fin. either leg :: co-t. oth. leg : co-t. op. 2 Like opposite leg.	: co-f. cither leg :: co-f. oth. leg : co-f. Hyp. ac. or ob. as legs are like or unlike.	:: co-f. other Z : co-f. op. leg Like oppofice angle.	ac. or ob. as Ls are like or unlike.
2 : co-t. op. 2	: co-f. Hyp.	: co-f. op. leg	: co-f. Hyp.
:: co-t. oth. leg	:: co-f. oth. leg	: : co-f. other 2	:: co-t. oth. 2
: fin. either leg	: co-f. cither leg		: co-t. either Z :: co-t. oth. Z : co-f. Hyp.
Rad.	Rad.	fin. eith. 2	Rad.
either angle	legs Hypoth.	either leg fin. eith. 2 : Rad.	I.f.2. VI. angles Hypoth.
Roth	legs		Both
	>		VI.
139.	140.	1+1.	-

143. In a quadrantal triangle, if the quadrantal fide be called radius; the fupplement of the angle opposite to that fide be called hypothenufe; the other fides be called angles, and their opposite angles be called legs: Then the folution of all the cases will be as in this table; observing, that where the kind of a side or angle is determined by the hypothenufe; or the hypothenufe is to be determined; to use unlike instead of like, and like instead of unlike.

In this table, befide the contractions for fine, tangent, co-fine, co-tangent; op. stands for opposite; adj. for adpacent; oth. for other; cith. for either; ac. for acute; ob. for obtufe; gm. for given; lik. unl. for like, unlike; req. for required; ang. or 2, for angle. A TABLE containing all the cafes of Oblique angled Spheric Triangles, with the Solutions and Determinations.

Ì	102	r		O F II		A D C S.		300K 1V.
ns and Delet minations.	Determination.	either acute or obtufe.	acute or obtufe as given angle and its adjacent fide are like or unlike. [like or unlike fide op. given angle as that angle is acute or obtufe. as given fides are like or unlike.	acute or obtule as given angle and its adjacent fide are like or unlike. Ilke or unlike fide op. given angl. as that angle is acute or obtule.	either acute or obtufe.	{ like or unlike ang. adj. given fide, as that fide is acute or obtuse. either acute or obtuse. { as the given angles are like or unlike.	like or unlike ang. adj. given fide, as that fide is acute or obtuse. either acute or obtuse. as the given angles are like or un- like.	:: tan. S.op. req. L: tan. M { like or unlike fide op. req. angle, req. angle and M, call it N } { like or unlike given angle as M is :: tan. given L: tan. req. L } { lefs or greater than S. adj. req. L.
The state of the s	SOLUTION.	Lin. one side : siu. op. 2 :: sin. other side: siu. op. 2	Rad. : tan. given Z :: co-f. adj. fide: co-t. m co-t. fid.adj.gn. Z : co-t. other fide :: co-f. m : co-f. n Then req. angle is either equal to fum, or diff. of m and n	Rad. : co-f. given \(\text{::tan.adj.fide:tan.} \text{ m. co-f. S. adj. gn.} \(\text{:co-f. other S. :: co-f. m : co-f. n} \) Then required fide=fum or difference of m and n	S.op. other Z fin. one angle : fir. opposite S. :: fin. other Z : fin. op. S.	Bad. : co-f. Ladj.gn.S.:: tan.given S. : tan. M bet.gn.L's co-t.Ladj.gn.S:co-t.other angle:: fin. M Then required fide=fum or difference of M and N	Rad. : tan. Ladj. gn. S :: co-f. given fide : co-t. m co-t. Ladj. gn. S.: co-f. other angle :: fin. m : fin. n Then required angle == fum or difference of M and N	Rad. : co-f. given angle :: tan. S. op. req. Z. : tan. M Take the difference between fide adj. req. angle and m, call it m fine m :: fine m :: tan. given Z. : tan. req. Z.
0	Required.	Zop.oth. fid. lin. one fide	Zbet.gn.fid.	other fide	S.op. other Z	S. bet. gn. Zs	other angle	either of other angles
	Given.		Two files	op. to one		Two angles	op. to one	Two fides
-	P.R.					i		
			Oliv Cal	III - Digitiz	200	DY: WICK	25011	0

		2 22 25 10		105
{ like or unlike fide ufed, as given angle is acute or obtufe. } { like or unlike w, as given angle is	like or unlike angle op. req. fide, as given fide is acute or obtufe. like or unlike n, as the angle op- pofite req. fide is acute or obtufe.	:: tan.cith.gn. L: co-t. m { fide is acute or obtuse. her angle and m, call it n :: cos. L thused: co-f.req. L { like or unlike angle here used, as m is less or greater than other ang.	ofite fide call o. m and half difference of o and b. of Log. fine of r, of ½ difference of 6 and b. tong the Log. fines; give the angle fought.	le, observing to use the supplement of re the supplement is used, by the pre-
Rad. : co-f. given angle :: tan. cith. gn.S. : tan. M l'ake the difference between the other fide and m, call it n co-f. M : co-f. M illufed:co-f.req.S.	Rad. : co-f. given fide ::tan. Zop.req.S:co-t. m Take the difference between Zadj. required fide and m, call it n co f. n : co-f. m ::tan. given fide:tan.req.S	Rad. : co-f. given fide :: tan.eith.gn. L: co-t. m Take the difference between the other angle and m, call it n fine m. : fine n :: cof. L tfufed: co-f. req. L	Call the fides including the angle fought E and F; the opposite fide call G. Put D equal to difference between E and F; find the half fum and half difference of G and D. Then. To the Ar. Co. of Log. fine of E, add the Ar. Co. of Log. fine of F, And the Log. fine of ½ fum of G and D; Allo the Log. fine of ½ difference of G and D. Take half the fum of these four Logarithms, which seek among the Log. fines; And the degrees and minutes answering being doubled, will give the angle sought.	Let the given angles be taken as the sides of another triangle, observing to use the supplement of that angle opposite the side required. In this new triangle, find the angle opposite to that side where the supplement is used, by the precepts in Problem V. Then will the supplement of the angle thus found be the side required.
ciher fide	either of other fides	other angle	either angle	either fide
and their included 2	Two angles	and their included fide	Three fides	S. VI. Three angles
	Univ Calif	- Digitized	by Microso	IA I

(II. 72)

B

SECTION VIII.

The Construction and numerical Solution of the cases of right angled spheric Triangles.

156. Exam. I. In the right-angled spheric triangle ABC. Given the hypoth. Ac=64° 40′ And one leg

BC=42 12 Required the rest.

CONSTRUCTIONS.

Ist. To put the given leg on the primitive circle. Describe the primitive circle, and draw the right circle AB.

Apply the given leg (42° 12') to the primitive

circle from B to c.

About c, as a pole, at a distance equal to the hypothenuse (64° 40′) describe (68) a small circle aa, cutting the right circle AB in A; and draw the right circle co.

Through c, A, D, describe an oblique circle.

And ABC is the triangle fought.

2d. To put the required leg on the primitive circle.

Describe the primitive circle, and draw the right
circle cs; on which lay the given leg (42° 12')
from a to c. (70)

About c, as a pole (66), at a distance equal to the hypothenuse (64° 40′) describe a small circle cutting the primitive in A; and draw AD.

Through A, C, D, describe an oblique circle.

(II. 72)

Then ABC is the triangle required: Whose sides and angles are meafured by art. 70, 72.

COMPUTATION.

To find \(\text{oppof. the given leg.} \) (127)

As fin. hyp. \(\pi \) 64° 40′ 0,04391

To Rad. \(\pi \) 90 00 10,00000

So fin. gn. leg \(\pi \) 42 12 9,82719

To fin. cp. \(\pi \) =48 00 9,87110

To co-f. 2dj \(\pi \) =64 35 9,63272

This angle is acute, because it is to be This angle is acute, because the hyp. like the given leg, which is acute. and given leg are of like kinds.

To find the other leg. (129)
As co-f. gn. leg =42° to' c,13030
To Rad. =90 00 10,00000

To Rad. = 90 00 10,00000 So co-f. h, p. = 64 40 9,63133 This leg is acute, because the hypand given leg are of like kinds.

Note, In these operations, and in all the following ones, although the word co-sine, or co-tangent, is used in the proportions, yet the degrees

and minute feed Gynjare not micicomplement; but the real fides or angles.

157. Ex-

IV

Given the hyopth. Ac = 64° 40′ Required the rest.

And one angle ACB = 64 35

,40

CONSTRUCTIONS.

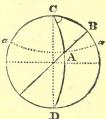
1st. To put the leg adjacent to the given angle on the primitive circle.

Through any point c, in the primitive circle, describe (75) the oblique circle CAD, making with the primitive circle the angle BCA, equal to the given angle 64° 35.

In the oblique circle CAD, take CA equal to the given hypothenuse 64° 40'. (70)

Through A describe the right circle AB.

And CAB is the triangle required.



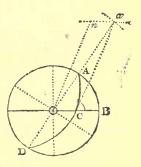
2d. To put the leg opposite the given angle on the primitive circle.

Having described the primitive circle, and

drawn the right circle on;

Describe (80) an oblique circle ACD, cutting the right circle OB in c, with the given angle 64° 35′, and having the part AC intercepted between the right circle OB and the primitive circle, equal to the given hypothenuse 64° 40′;

Then ABC is the triangle required.
The fides required are measured by art. 70.
And the required angle by art. 72.



COMPUTATION.

To find the leg o	pp. thegiv	. ∠ (130)	To find the leg adj. the giv. 4 (131)
As Rad.	=900 00	10,00000	As Rad. =90° 00′ 10,00000
To fin. hyp.			To tan. hyp. =64 40 10,32476
So fin. given Z	=64 35	9,95579	So co-f. given $\angle = 64$ 35 9,63266
To fin. op. leg	=54 43	9,91188	To tan. adj. leg =42 12 9,95742
		-	

Like the given angle.

Acute, as the hypothenuse and given angle are of like kind.

To find the other angle. (132)

As Rad. To co-f. hyp. So tan. given angle	=90° 00′ =64 40 =64 35	10,00000 9,63133 10,32313
To co-t. required angle	=48 co	9,95446

And is acute, as the hypothenuse and given angle are of like kind.

M 4 158. Exa

Given one leg CB = 42° 12′ Required the rest.

And its opp. angle CAB = 48 00 Required the rest.

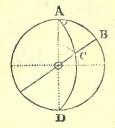
CONSTRUCTIONS.

1st. To put the required leg on the primitive circle.

Describe an oblique circle ACD (75), making with the primitive circle the angle CAB, equal to the given angle 48° 00'.

About the center o of the primitive circle defcribe (67) a small circle at the distance of the complement of the given leg 42° 12′, cutting ACD in C.

Draw the right circle ocB, and ACB is the triangle fought.



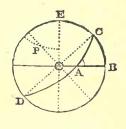
2d. To put the given leg on the primitive circle.

Draw the right circle OAB, and another OE at right angles.

Make BC equal to the given leg 42° 12'; draw the diameter CD, and another OP at right angles.

About F, the pole of AB, describe a small circle (68), at the distance of the given angle 48° 00′, cutting op in P.

About P, as a pole (62), describe the oblique circle CAD, cutting AB in A. Then CBA is the triangle required.



The fides are measured by art. 70, and the angles by art. 72.

COMPUTATION.

To find the by	pothenu	se. (133)	To find the or	ther leg.	(134)
As fin. giv. Z =	=48° 00	0,12893	As Rad.	=90° 00'	10,00000
To fin. giv. leg =	=42 12	2 9,82719	To co-t. giv. L	=48 00	9,95444
So Rad.	=90 00	0 10,00000	So tan. giv. leg	=42 12	9,95748
To fin. hyp. =	=64 40	9,95612	To fin. req. leg	=54 44	9,91192
		-			
And is either ac	ute or o	btuse.	And is either	acute or ob	tule.

To find the other angle. (135)

As co-s. given leg To co-s. given \(\triangle \) So Rad.	-	=	42° 48 90	00	0,13030 9,82551 10,0000
To fin. required \(\triangle \)	or obtu6		64	35	9,95581

159. Ex-

B

159. Example IV. In the right angled spheric triangle ABC. Given a leg

AB=54° 43′ Required the rest.

And its adj. angle CAB=48 00′

CONSTRUCTIONS.

Ist. To put the given leg on the primitive circle.

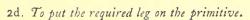
Having described the primitive, and right circle OB;

Make BA equal to the given leg 54° 43'

Draw the diameter AD.

Through A describe the oblique circle ACD (75) making with the primitive the given angle BAC 48°00', cutting OB in c.

Then is ACB the triangle required.



In the right circle ob, take (71) AB, equal

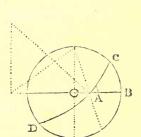
to the given leg 54° 43'.

Through the point A, describe (76) the oblique circle CAD, making with AB the angle BAC, equal to the given angle 48° 00′, cutting the primitive circle in c.

Then is ABC the triangle fought.

The fides required are measured by art. 70.

And the required angle by art. 72.



COMPUTATION.

To find the other angle.	(136)	To find the ot	her leg.	(137)
As Rad. =90° 00'	10,00000	As Rad.	=90° 00	10,00000
To co-f. giv. leg =54 43	9,76164	To fin. giv. leg	=54 43	9,91185
So fin. given∠ =48 co	9,87107	So tan. giv. L	=48 00	10,04556
To co-f. req. $\angle = 64$ 35	9,63271	To tan. req. leg	=42 12	9,95741
And is like the given and	rle.	And is like th	e given le	eg.

To find the hypothenuse. (138)

	-		-	, ,	*
As Rad.		- =	= 90°	00	10,00000
To co-f. give	n 🗸 🕒	=	= 48	00	9,82551
So co-t. give	n leg	- =	- 54	43	9,84979
To co-t. hype	oth	=	= 64	40	9,67530

And is acute, as the given leg and angle are of a like kind.

160. EXAMPLE V. In the right angled spheric triangle ABC. Given one leg BA=54° 43′ Required the rest.

CONSTRUCTION.

To put either leg on the primitive circle.

Describe the primitive circle, and draw the

right circle ob.

Then, let the given legs 54° 43', and 42° 12', be applied, one from B to A, and the other from B to c (74); and draw the diameter AD.

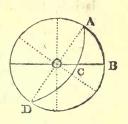
Through the points A, C, D, describe an oblique (II.72)

circle,

Then is ABC the triangle required.

The angles A and c may be measured by art. 72.

And the hypothenuse Ac by art. 70.



COMPUTATION.

To find the angle A. (139)

As Radius	= 90° 00′ 10,00000
To fin. of leg AB	= 54 43 9,91185
So co-t. other leg BC	= 42 12 10,04251
To co-t. op. angle A	= 48 00 9,95436

And is acute, as the opposite leg cB is acute.

To find the angle C. (139)

As Radius To fin. of leg CB So co-t. other leg AB	$= 90^{\circ} 00^{\circ}$ $= 4^{2} 1^{2}$ $= 54 4^{3}$	10,00000 9,82719 9,84979
To co-t. op. angle c	= 64 35	9,67698

And is acute, because the opposite leg AB is acute.

To find the hypothenuse AC. (140)

As Radius	= 90° 00'	10,00000
To co-f. either leg AB	= 54 43	9,76164
So co-f. other leg cB	= 42 12	9,86970
To co-f. hypoth. Ac	= 64. 40	9,63134

And is acute, as the legs are of the same kind.

161. Example VI. In the right angled spheric triangle ABC. Given one angle A=48° 00' Required the rest.

And the other angle c=64 35

CONSTRUCTION.

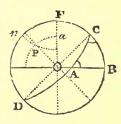
To put either leg, as CB, on the primitive circle.

Having described the primitive circle, and

drawn the right circle oB;

Then (81) describe the oblique great circle CAD, cutting the primitive circle in the given angle c, and the right circle OB in the given angle A.

The fides are to be measured by art. 70.



COMPUTATION.

To find the leg CB. (141)

As fin. \(\triangle \) adj. req. leg To Radius So co-s. other angle	C	= 64° = 9° = 48	00	0,044 21 10,00000 9.8255 1
To co-f. of its op. leg	CB	= 42	12	9,86972

And is acute, because the opposite angle is acute.

To find the leg AB. (141)

As sin.∠adj. req. leg To Radius	Α		480		0,12893
So co-f. other angle	С		9 0 64		9.63266
To co-s. of its op. leg	АВ	=	54	43	9,76159

And is acute, because the opposite \(\sigma \) is acute.

To find the hypothenuse AC. (142)

As Radius -	= 90° 00'	10,00000
To co-t. either angle as A	= 48 00	9,95444
So co-t. other angle as c	= 64 35	9,95444 9,67687
To co-f. hypoth. Ac	= 64 40	9,63131
20 co-1. hypoth.	- 0.4 40	9,03131

And is acute, because the angles are both acute, or like.

162. Example VII. In the quadrantal triangle ABC.

Given the quadrantal fide AC = 90° 00' Required the rest. And the opposite angle B = 64 40

CONSTRUCTION.

To put the quadrantal side on the primitive circle.

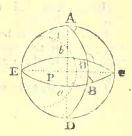
Having described the primitive circle, and drawn the diameters AD, BC, at right angles; Describe the oblique circle ABD, making with

Ac an angle of 42° 12'.

Through c describe a great circle CBE, cutting the circle ABD in an \(\triangle \text{ of 64° 40'}. \(74)

Then is ABC the triangle fought.

The angle c is to be measured by art. 72. And the fides AB, CB, are measured by art. 70.



COMPUTATION.

Imagine the given triangle ABC to be changed into a right angled triangle, where the supplement of the angle B is to represent the hypothenuse, and the angle A to be one of the legs.

Then will the folution fall under art. 127, 128, 129, in the table; and the numerical computations will be the fame as in Example I. Observing that the angles there found are, in this example, the measures of the fides AB, CB; and the fide AB in that example stands for the angle c in this.

Now in determining the value of the parts of this triangle, as they arife in the computation, the words like and unlike are to be changed one for the other, where the hypothenuse is concerned in the determination: Thus the leg AB is taken acute, because the supplement of the angle opposite to the quadrantal side, which is here used as the hypothenuse, is unlike the other given angle; and its opposite angle c is to be acute for the fame reason: But the kind of the side BC being known by the kind of its opposite angle A, it must be taken acute, as the opposite angle is acute.

In the construction there arises two triangles, either of which will anfwer the conditions in the example. For the finall circle described about P, the pole of the oblique circle ABD, cuts the diameter AD in the points, a, b; and either of these points may be taken for the pole of the oblique circle wanting to complete the triangle.

Now if a be taken for the pole, then in the triangle ABC, the measure of the things fought, will be equal to those arising from the computation:

But the angle B is the supplement of what was given.

And if b is taken for the pole; then the triangle ABC will arise from the construction; wherein the angles A and B are respectively equal to what is propounded: But then the fide AB, and the angle c, will both be obtuse.

SECTION IX.

The Construction and numerical Solution of the cases of oblique angled spheric Triangles.

163. Example I. In the oblique angled spheric triangle ABC.

AB = 114° 30′ BC = 56 40 Required the rest. Given the fide the fide And an angle opposite to one side, BCA = 125 20

CONSTRUCTION.

To put the given side, adjacent to the known angle, on the primitive circle.

Describe the primitive circle, and draw the diameter BD.

Make BC equal to the fide adjacent to the given angle = 56° 40'.

Describe the great circle CAE, making the angle D BCA equal to the given one, = 125° 20'.

Through B describe a great circle BAD, cutting AE in A, at the distance of AB, the other given fide from B, = 114° 30. (68)

Then ABC is the triangle fought.

And the parts required are measured by art. 70, 72.

COMPUTATION.

To find the angle A, opposite to the other given side. (144)

As fin. one fide AB=114°30' 0,04098' To fin. op. \(\alpha\) c=125 20 9,91158 So fin. oth. fide CB = 56 40 9,92194

Which may be either acute or obtuse from the things given: But the construction shews it to be acute.

To fin. op. \(A = 48 30 9.87450

To find the angle B between the given sides. (145)

As Rad. = 90°co' 10,000000 Asco-t.S.ad.g. \(\nabla\) BC = 56°40' 0,18197 To tan. giv. \(\nabla\) C=125 20 10,14941 To co-t.oth. fide \(\nabla\) B=114 30 9,65870 Soco-f. adj. fid. BC = 56 40 9,73497 So co-f. m =127479,78723

To co-t. m =127 47 9,88938 To co-f. n = 64539,62790

And is obtuse, as the given angle Which is acute, being unlike side opand its given adjacent side are unlike. posite given L, that L being obtuse. Then as the given fides are unlike, the diff. of m and n, or 62° 54 = LB.

To find the other fide Ac. (146) = 90° co' 10,00000 As co-f.S.ad.g. \(\subseteq \text{Bc} = 56° 40' 0,26002 \) As Rad. To co-f. giv. \angle c=125 20 9,76218 To co-f.oth. fide AB=114 30 9,61773 So tan. adj. fid. BC= 56 40 10,18197 So co-f. M =138 40 9,87557

To tan. M =138 40 9,94415 To co-f. N = 55 29 9,75332

And is obtuse, as \(\subseteq \) and CB are unl. And is acute, being unl. AB as above. Then as BC and BA, are unlike the diff. of M and N, or 83° 11 =AC.

164. Ex-

164. Example II. In the oblique angled spheric triangle ABC.

Given the angle BAC= 48° 30' 7 the angle

BCA=125 20 Required the rest.

And the fide opposite to one angle, AB=114 30

CONSTRUCTION.

To put the given side AB on the primitive circle.

Describe the primitive circle; draw the diameter DA; and through A describe the great circle ACD, making the given angle BAC=48° 30'. (75)

Make the arc AB equal to the given fide =

114° 30' (70); and draw the diameter BE.

Through B, describe the great circle BCE, cutting ACD in an angle equal to the given angle BCA = 125° 20'. (78)

Then is ACB the triangle fought.

And the parts required are to be measured by art. 70, 72.

COMPUTATION.

To find the side opposite the other given angle. (147)

As fin. one \(c=125° 20' C,08842 To fin. op. fide AB=114 30 9,95902 Which may either be acute or ob-So fin. other \angle A= 48 30 9,87446 tufe from what is given. But the con-

To fin. op. fide BC = 56 40 9,92190

struction shews it to be acute.

B

To find the side AC between the given angles.

As Rad. =90°00′ 10,00000 | As co-t. \(\alpha\) ad.g.S. A = 48° 30′ 0,05319
To co-f. \(\alpha\) ad.g.S. A = 48° 30′ 9,82126 | To co-t. other \(\alpha\) c=125 20 9,85059 So tan. gn. S. AB=114 30 10,34130 So fine M

To tan. M =124 31 10,16256 To fine N

=124 31 9,91591

= 41 19-9,81969

And is obtuse, being unlike LA, as AB is greater than 90°.

Which may be either acute or obtuse; either 41° 20' or 138° 40'.

Then as the given angles are unlike, the difference of M and N, or 83° 12', is the fide Ac. Or the fum of 138° 41', and 124° 31', lessened by 180°, leaves 83° 12'.

To find the other angle ABC. (149)

As Rad. Totan. Lad.g.S. A=48 30 10,05319 To co-f. other L c=125 20 9,76218 So co-f. gn. S. AB = 114 30 9,61773 | So fine m

=90°00' 10,00000 | Asco-f. \(\alpha\) ad.g.S. A = 48° 30' 0,17874 =115 07 9,95686

To co-t. m =115 07 9,67c92 To fine n

= 52 13 9,89778

And is obtuse, being unlike $\angle A$, Which may be either acute or obas its adj. fide AB is greater than 90°. tuse, viz. 52° 13', or 127° 47'.

Then as the given angles are unlike, the difference of m and n, or 62°54', is the angle B required. Or the sum of 115° 07', and 127° 47', lessened by 180°, leaves 62° 54'. 165. Ex-

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

165. Example III. In the oblique angled spheric triangle ABC. AB = 114° 30' 7 Given the fide

the fide Required the rest. 56 40 And the contained angle ABC = 62 54

CONSTRUCTION.

To put either of the given sides, as BC, on the primitive circle.

Describe the primitive circle; draw the diameter BD; and through B describe a great circle BAD, making the given angle ABC=62° 54'.

 $(75)_{\rm D}$ On the circles BCD, BAD, take the arcs BC, BA, respectively equal to the given sides, viz. BC=56° 40', and BA=114° 30'.

Draw the diameter CE, and through C, A, E, describe the great circle CAE; then ABC is the triangle fought. The required parts of ABC are measured by art. 70, 72.

COMPUTATION.

To find the angle C. (150)

As Rad. = 90°00′ 10,00000 To co-f. given LB = 62 54 9,65853

So t.S.op.re. \(AB = 114 30 10,34130 \)

To tan. M =135 01 9,99983 As fine N = 75° 21' 0,00904 To fine M

=135 01 9,84936 So tan. given LB = 62 54 10,29096

To tan. req. L C=125 20 10,14936

Obtuse, being like side op. req. L, the given angle being acute.

Take the difference between M and BC, and it is 78° 21'; call it N.

And is obtuse, being unlike the given angle, because m is greater than BC, the fide adjacent to the required angle.

To find the angle A. (150)

=90°00 10,00000 As Rad. To co-f. given \(B = 62 54 9,65853 Sot. S. op. re. \(BC = 36 40 10,18197

Acute, being like fide op. req. L, the given angle being acute. Take the difference between M and BA, and it is 79° 48'; call it N.

To tan. of M =34429,84050 As fine N $=79^{\circ}48' \circ 0.00692$

To fine M =3+429,75533 So tan. given L B=62 54 10,29096

To tan. req. \(A = 48 30 10,05321

And is acute, being like the given angle, as m is less than AB, the fide adjacent to the required angle.

To find the other side AC. (151)

= 90°00' 10,00000 | As co-f. M As Rad. To co-f. given LB = 62 54 9,65853 To co-f. N

=135°01'0,15039 = 78 21 9,30521So tan.eith. S. AB=114 30 10,34130 So co-s. S. used AB=114 30 9,61773

To tan. M

=135 01 9,99983 To co-f. S. req. AC = 83 12 9,07333

Obtufe, being like AB, the fide used, And is acute, being like n, because because the given angle is acute. the given angle is acute.

The diff. of M and BC, or 78° 21' = N.

166. Ex-

166. Example IV. In the oblique angled spheric triangle ABC.

Given the angle the angle BCA = 125° 20′ Required the rest.

And the included fide

83

CONSTRUCTION.

To put the given side on the primitive circle. Describe the primitive circle; draw the diameter AD; and through A describe the great circle ABD, making the given \(\alpha \text{BAC} = 48° 30'. \)

Make Ac equal to the given fide = 83° 12'.

(70)D Draw the diameter CE, and through c describe the great circle CBE, making the given angle BCA=125° 20' (75), cutting ABD in B. Then is ABC the triangle fought.

And the parts required are measured by art. 70, 72.

COMPUTATION. To find the side AB. (152)

= 90°00′ 10,00000 As Rad. Toco-s.gn.fideac = 83 12 9,07337 So ta. Lop. r.S. c=125 20 10,14941 | given side being acute.

9,22278 To co-t. M = 99 29

As co-f. n = 50°59′ 0,20097 To co-f. m = 99 29 9,21615 So tan.gn. side AC = 83 12 10,92357

Totan.req.fid.AB=114°30' 10,34139

Obtuse, being like Lop. side req. the

E

Take the diff. between m and L A, and it is 50° 59'; call it n.

And is obtuse, being unlike n, be-cause the angle opposite to the side required is obtuse.

To find the side BC. (152)

=90°00' 10,00000 As Rad. To co-fign.fid. Ac=83 12 9,07337 So tan. Lop.r.S. A=48 30 10,05319 (quired, the given fide being acute.

To co-t. of m

As co-f. n $=42^{\circ}57^{'\frac{1}{2}}$ 0,13558 To co-f. m $=82\ 22\frac{1}{2}\ 9,12283$ So tan. gn. sid. AC=83 12 10,92357

To tan.req.fid. Bc=56 40 10,18198

Acute, being like \(\sigma \) op. fide re-

Take the diff. between m and L =82 221 9,12656 c, and it is 42° 571; call it n.

> And is acute, being like n, because the angle A opposite to BC, the side required, is acute.

To find the other angle B. (153)

As Rad. = 90°00′ 10,00000 | As fine m To co-f.gn.fid.ac = 83 12 9,07337 | To fine n

To co-t. m

because the given side is acute.

Take difference of m and LA, viz. other angle A. 42° 57; and call it n.

= 99°29′0,00598 = 50 59 9,89040 So tan. either $\angle c = 125$ 20 10,14941 So co-f. \angle used, c = 125 20 9,76218

= 99 29 9,22278 To co-f. req. \(\nu \) B= 62 54 9,65856

Obtuse, being like L c here used, And is acute, being unlike the angle c here used, as m is greater than the

167. Ex-

168. F.X-

B

E

167. EXAMPLE V. In the oblique angled spheric triangle ABC.

Given the fide AB = 114° 30′ Required the rest. the fide AC = 83 13 the fide BC = 56 40

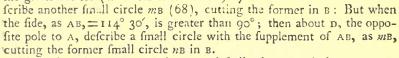
CONSTRUCTION.

To put either side, as Ac, on the primitive circle. Describe the primitive circle, and from any point in the circumference, as A, set off one of the given fides, as At, =83° 13' (70); and draw the diameters AD, CE.

About c, as a pole, and at a distance equal to the given side BC, =56° 40', describe a small circle nB.

About A, as a pole, and at a distance equal to the given fide AB (when AB is less than 90°) de-

e-penty earling and and



Thro' the points A, B, D, and C, B, E, describe the great circles ABD, CBE. Then is ABC the triangle fought, and the angles are measured by art. 72.

COMPUTATION.				
To find the angle C. (154)				
Here AC = = 83° 13'	Ar. Co fine E =83° 13' 0,00305			
CB=F= 56 40	Ar. Co. fine F = 56 40 0,07806			
g-manufacture and a second	Sine $\frac{1}{2}$ fum = 70 $31\frac{1}{2}$ 9,97441			
E-F=D= 26 33	Sine $\frac{1}{2}$ diff. = 43 $58\frac{1}{2}$ 9,84158			
AB=G=114 30				
	Sum of the four Log 19,89710			
$G+D= 141 03 70^{\circ}31^{\frac{7}{2}} = \frac{7}{2} \text{fum}$	10 10 00 10			
0.4 7.1100	$\frac{1}{2}$ fum is fin. of 62° $39\frac{1}{2}$ - 9,94855			
$G-D=$ 87 57 43 58 $\frac{1}{2}=\frac{1}{2}$ diff.				
	Which doubled gives 125° 19'=\(\alpha\)c.			
To find the an				
Here AB == = 114° 30'	Ar. Co. fine E =114° 30' 0,04098			
AC = F = 83 13	Ar. Co. fine P = 83 13 0,00305			
em-la galaci-umbri	Sine $\frac{1}{2}$ from = 43 $58\frac{1}{2}$ 9,84158			
F-F=D= 31 17	Sine $\frac{1}{2}$ diff. = 12 $41\frac{1}{2}$ 9,34184			
BC=G= 56 40	C C. C Y. c.			
0 1 2 = 0 = 0 1 = 16.m	Sum of four Log 19,22745			
$G + D = 87 57 43^{\circ} 58^{\circ} \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \text{ fum}$	I Com is Go pf a 10 15'1			
5-D- 2: 22 12 11-1 diff	$\frac{1}{2}$ fum is fin. of 24° 15 $\frac{7}{2}$ - 9.61372			
$G - D = 25 23 12 41\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \text{ diff.}$	Which doubled gives 48° 31'= LA.			
To find the angle B. (154)				
Here AB===114° 30'				
BC=F= 56 40	Ar. Co. line # = 1.4° 30' 0,04098 Ar. Co. line # = 50 40 0,0-806			
KC=1-30 40				
EF=D= 57 50	Sine $\frac{1}{2}$ fum = $70 \cdot 31\frac{1}{2} \cdot 9,97441$ Sine $\frac{1}{2}$ diff. = $12 \cdot 41\frac{1}{2} \cdot 9,34184$			
ACTGT 83 13	Sine $\frac{1}{2}$ diff. = 12 $41\frac{1}{2}$ 9,34184			
1 2 1 3	Sum of four Log 19,43529			
6+D=141 0-70°31';=1fum	7,11,13			
destruction or the second of t	fum is fin. of 3: 28' - 9,71764			
and Hoise Oblife Biblio	ard tok illianhants @ -('- / n			

168. Example VI. In the oblique angled spheric triangle ABC. Given the angle $A = 48^{\circ} 31'$ the angle B = 62 52 Required the rest.

the angle c = 125 20)

CONSTRUCTION.

To put either two angles, as c and B, at the primitive.

Describe the primitive circle, draw the diameters CD and EF at right angles to one another; and thro' c describe a great circle CAD, making the angle BCA equal to the given angle c=125° 20'. (75)

Describe a great circle BAG, cutting the given great circles CFD, CAD, in the given angles $B = 62^{\circ} 52^{\prime}$, and $A = 48^{\circ} 31^{\prime}$. (81) (81)

Then is ABC the triangle fought.

Where the sides are measured by art. 70.



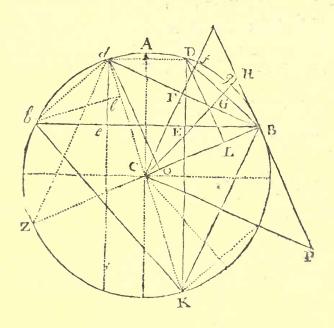
SECTION

COMPUTATION. To find the fide AB. (155)

10 Juli the flue AB. (155)				
Here $\angle B = E = 62^{\circ}52'$ $\angle A = E = 48^{\circ}31$ $E - E = 14^{\circ}21$ $Sup. \angle C = G = 54^{\circ}40$ $C + D = 69^{\circ}0 34^{\circ}30^{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{2}fum$ $C - D = 40^{\circ}19^{\circ}20^{\circ}09^{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{2}diff.$	Ar. Co. fine E = $62^{\circ}52^{\circ}$ 0,05064 Ar. Co. fine F = 4831 0,12543 Sine $\frac{1}{2}$ fum = $3430\frac{1}{2}$ 9,75322 Sine $\frac{1}{2}$ diff. = $2009\frac{1}{2}$ 9,53733 Sum of the four Log. 19,46662 $\frac{1}{2}$ fum is fin. of $32^{\circ}45\frac{1}{2}$ 9,73331 The fup. of its double is $114^{\circ}29$ = AB.			
To find the sid	le AC. (155)			
Here $\angle c = \pm 125^{\circ} 20'$ $\angle A = F = 48 31$ $E - F = D = 76 49$ $Sup. \angle B = c = 117 08$ $G + D = 193 57 \rightarrow 6^{\circ} 58 \frac{1}{2}' = \frac{1}{2} \text{fum}$ $G - D = 40 19 20 09 \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \text{ diff.}$	Ar. Co. fine E = $125^{\circ}20'$ 0,08842 Ar. Co. fine F = 48 31 0,12543 Sine $\frac{1}{2}$ fum = 96 58 $\frac{1}{2}$ 9,99677 Sine $\frac{1}{2}$ diff. = 20 09 $\frac{1}{2}$ 9,53733 Sum of four Log. 19,74795 $\frac{1}{2}$ fum is fin. of 48° 25 $\frac{1}{2}'$ 9,87397 The fup. of its double is 83° 09 = CA.			
To find the fit Here $\angle c = \underline{E} = 125^{\circ} 20'$ $\angle B = \underline{F} = 62 52$ $\underline{E} - \underline{F} = \underline{D} = 68 28$ Sup. $\angle A = \underline{G} = 131 29$ $\underline{G} + \underline{D} = 193 57 96^{\circ} 58\frac{1}{2}' = \frac{1}{2} \text{fum}$	Ar. Co. fine E			
$6 - \mathbf{p} = 69 \text{ or } 34 30\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \text{ diff.}$ Univ Calif - Digitized	I fum is the fin. of 61° 39′ 9,94452 The fup. of its double is 56° $42' \equiv 86$.			

- SECTION X.

169. The principles already delivered have been shewn sufficient for deriving methods for the solution of all the cases in spherical Trigonometry: yet as there are many other useful and curious particulars which appertain to the subject, it was thought proper to add some of them for the entertainment of speculative readers. The chief of these relations cannot, perhaps, be better investigated, than by imitating the method of the late William Jones, Esq. who published in the year 1747, in the Philosophical Transactions, N° 483, some properties of Goniometrical lines; which properties are mostly derived from a general figure which Mr. Jones improved from one communicated to him by the great Dr. Halley. See Synopsis Palmariorum Matheses, p. 245.



Let AB, AD; or Ab, Ad, be any two arcs, each less than 90 degrees, and BE, or bE and be, be the sum and difference of their right sines.

KE and DE, the sum and difference of their co-sines.

The arcs Ed, BD; or bD, bd; express the sum and difference of the arcs AB, AD. do, DL, are sines of the arcs Ed, BD, the sum and difference of arcs AB, AD: BO, BL, the versed sines of that sum and difference.

20, 21 = El, the versed sines of the supplements of their sum and diff.

Let the arcs Bf, Bg, be the half fum, and half diff. of the arcs AB, AD. BF, BG, the fines

CF, CG, the co-fines

BI, BH, the tangents

CI, CH, the secants

Bd, BD, twice the fines

KB, Kb, twice the co-fines

of the half fum and half diff. of AB and AD.

PB, PC, the co-tangent and the co-fecant of the half fum of the arcs AB, AD.

Now the following fet of triangles being fimilar,

viz. CBG, Bde, KBE, Kbl, DBL, CHB, BHG, Kdb.

Then
$$\frac{CB}{CG} = \frac{Bd}{Be} = \frac{KB}{KE} = \frac{Kb}{Kl} = \frac{BD}{DL} = \frac{CH}{CB} = \frac{BH}{BG} = \frac{Kd}{Kb}$$

$$\frac{CB}{BG} = \frac{Bd}{de} = \frac{KB}{BE} = \frac{Kb}{bl} = \frac{ED}{BL} = \frac{CH}{BH} = \frac{BH}{HG} = \frac{Kd}{db}$$

$$\frac{CG}{EG} = \frac{Be}{de} = \frac{KE}{BE} = \frac{Kl}{bl} = \frac{DL}{BL} = \frac{CB}{BH} = \frac{BG}{HG} = \frac{Kb}{db}.$$

The following fet of triangles being also similar,

viz. CBF, BDE, KbE, zdo, dBo, CIB, BIF, PCB, PIC, KdB.

There will refult,

$$\frac{\text{CB}}{\text{CF}} = \frac{\text{BD}}{\text{BE}} = \frac{\text{K}b}{\text{KE}} = \frac{\text{Z}d}{\text{ZO}} = \frac{\text{B}d}{\text{dO}} = \frac{\text{CI}}{\text{CB}} = \frac{\text{BI}}{\text{BF}} = \frac{\text{PC}}{\text{PB}} = \frac{\text{PI}}{\text{PC}} = \frac{\text{K}d}{\text{EK}}$$

$$\frac{\text{CB}}{\text{BF}} = \frac{\text{BD}}{\text{DE}} = \frac{\text{K}b}{\text{E}b} = \frac{\text{Z}d}{\text{dO}} = \frac{\text{B}d}{\text{BO}} = \frac{\text{CI}}{\text{BI}} = \frac{\text{BI}}{\text{IF}} = \frac{\text{CP}}{\text{CB}} = \frac{\text{PI}}{\text{CI}} = \frac{d\text{K}}{d\text{B}}$$

$$\frac{\text{CF}}{\text{BF}} = \frac{\text{BE}}{\text{DE}} = \frac{\text{KE}}{\text{E}b} = \frac{\text{ZO}}{\text{dO}} = \frac{d\text{O}}{\text{BO}} = \frac{\text{BF}}{\text{BI}} = \frac{\text{PB}}{\text{IF}} = \frac{\text{PC}}{\text{CI}} = \frac{\text{BK}}{\text{E}d}.$$

Now the feveral values of the radius cB being collected, are placed in annexed table; where the letters s, t, f, v, fland for the fine, tangent, fecant, and the letters s, t, f, the co-fine, co-tangent, co-fecant, of the arcs f, f, or of the arcs f, f, f, the verfed fine of the fupplement.

-	Goniometrical Properties.				
	(171) $A+s, a$ $A+s, a \times t, \frac{1}{2}A+a.$	$\frac{s^2, A+s^2, a}{s, A-s, a} \times t_{,\frac{1}{2}} \frac{(172^2)}{A-a}$	$\frac{2s, \frac{1}{2}A - a}{s, A + s, a} \times s, \frac{1}{2}A + a.$	$\frac{2s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}}{s, A+s, a} \times s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}.$	
	(175) (175) (175) (175) (175) (175) (175)	$s, A-s, a \atop \widehat{s}, A+\widehat{s}, a \times \widehat{t}, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A-a}.$	$s, \underbrace{A+s, a}_{2 \text{ s} \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}} \times f, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}.$	$\frac{s, A+s, a}{2s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}} \times f, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}.$	
	$\begin{array}{c} (179) \\$	s, $A+s$, a s, $a-s$, $A \times t$, $\frac{1}{2}A-a$.	$ \begin{array}{c} 2 s, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A-a} \\ s, a-s, A \times s, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A+a} \end{array} $	$\frac{2s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}}{s, A-s, a} \times s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}.$	
	(183) (183) (183) (183) (183)	$s, a-s, A \times t, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}.$	$s, a-s, A \times f, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}.$	$s, A-s, a \atop 2s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a} \times f, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}.$	
	$\frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{2} \frac{\overline{A+a}}{\overline{A+a}} \times t, \frac{1}{2} \frac{\overline{A+a}}{\overline{A+a}}.$	$\frac{s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}}{s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}} \times t, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}.$ (188)	$\frac{2s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}}{s, \overline{A+a}} \times s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}.$	$\frac{2s, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}A-a}}{s, \frac{1}{A-a}} \times s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}.$	
	$v, \overline{A+a} \times t, \overline{1}, \overline{A+a}.$ (191)	$\frac{v, \overline{A-a}}{s, \overline{A-a}} \times t, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A-a}.$	$\frac{2s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}}{v, \overline{A+a}} \times s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}.$	$\frac{2s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}}{v, \overline{A-a}} \times s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}.$	
	$(195) \frac{S_{5}}{A+a} \times t, \frac{1}{2} \frac{A+a}{A+a}.$	$ \frac{s, \overline{A-a}}{v, \overline{A-a}} \times t, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A-a}. $	$\frac{2s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}}{v, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}} \times s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}.$	$ \frac{2s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}}{v, \overline{A-a}} \times s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}. $	
	$\frac{t,\frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}}{\int,\frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}} \times \int,\frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}.$	$ \frac{s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}}{t, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}} \times \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}. $	$\left(\frac{s, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A + a}}{t, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A + a}} \times \int_{22}^{1} \overline{A + a}.\right)$	$ \begin{array}{c} \stackrel{\circ}{\underset{\downarrow}{,\frac{1}{2}\overline{\mathcal{A}+a}}} \times \stackrel{\circ}{\underset{\downarrow}{,\frac{1}{2}\mathcal{$	
	$\frac{t^{2},\frac{1}{2}\overline{d+a}}{r}\times t,\frac{1}{2}\overline{d+a}.$	$\frac{s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}}{r} \times f, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}.$	$\begin{cases} 5, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A+a} \\ r \end{cases} \times \int_{1}^{1} \overline{A+a}. $ (205)	$\frac{s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}}{r} \times f, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+s}.$	
	$\frac{(207)^{\frac{1}{5},\frac{1}{2}\overline{A+2}}}{ -1 ^{\frac{1}{5},\frac{1}{2}\overline{A+2}}} \times t, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+3}.$	$\frac{s, \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{4-a}}{\sqrt{-1}, \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{A-a}} \times t, \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{A-a}.$	$\left(\frac{\int_{\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+a}}}{\int_{\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+a}}} \times \frac{(2c9)}{t+t}, \frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+a}}\right)$	$\frac{\left(2.10\right)}{\int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+a}} \times t + t \cdot \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+a}} \times t + t \cdot $	

From the preceding table a very great number of properties are readily deduced; fome of which are here annexed, as examples of its use; where analogies are, in general, expressed by equal ratios.

211. The fum of the fines of two arcs tan. of half the fum of those arcs tan. of half the diff. of the arcs (171, 172)

212. The fum of the co-fin. of two arcs diff. of the co-fin. of those arcs tan. of half the fum of the arcs (175, 180)

213. The fine of the fum of two arcs = fum of the tan. of those arcs diff. of the tan. of those arcs

For $\frac{s, A+s, a}{s, A-s, a} = \frac{t, \frac{1}{2}A+a}{t, \frac{1}{2}A-a}$ (211.) And $\frac{s, A+s, A+s, A-s, a}{s, A+s, a-s, A+s, A} = \frac{t, \frac{1}{2}A+a+t, \frac{1}{2}A-a}{t, \frac{1}{2}A+a-t, \frac{1}{2}A-a}$ by Composition.

Then $\frac{t,\frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}+t,\frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}}{t,\frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}-t,\frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}} = \left(\frac{s,A+s,A}{s,a}\right) \left(\text{III. 47, 48}\right) = \frac{2s,A}{2s,a} = \left(\frac{s,A}{s,a}\right) \cdot \frac{s,A}{s,a}$. Here the arcs A, a, are the fum and diff. of the arcs $\frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}$, $\frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}$.

214. The cof. of the fum of two arcs diff. of tan. of one and cot. of other fum of tan. of one and cot. of other taking the tan. of the fame arc.

For
$$\frac{t^{2}, \frac{1}{2}A + a}{t^{2}, \frac{1}{2}A - a} = \frac{s^{2}, A + s^{2}, a}{s^{2}, a - s^{2}, A}$$
 (212. And $\frac{t^{2}, \frac{1}{2}A + a}{t^{2}, \frac{1}{2}A + a + t^{2}, \frac{1}{2}A - a} = \frac{s^{2}, A + s^{2}, a - s^{2}, a + s^{2}, a$

Then
$$\frac{t',\frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}-t,\frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}}{t',\frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}+t,\frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}} = \left(\frac{2s'A}{2s'a}\right)\frac{s',A}{s',a}$$

Here the arcs A, a, are the fum and diff. of the arcs $\frac{1}{2}A+a$, $\frac{1}{2}A-a$.

215. The fine of the fum of two arcs, into radius; is equal to the fum of the products, of the fine of the greater by the co-fine of the lefs, and the fine of the lefs by the co-fine of the greater. And,

The fine of the difference of two arcs, into radius; is equal to the difference of the products, of the fine of the greater by the co-fine of the lefs, and the fine of the lefs by the co-fine of the greater.

For $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \mathbb{R} \times \frac{1}{2} s, A + \frac{1}{2} s, a = s, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A + a} \times s^{s}, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A - a} (173) \\ \mathbb{R} \times \frac{1}{2} s, A - \frac{1}{2} s, a = s, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A - a} \times s, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A + a} (182). \end{array} \right\}$ Here $\frac{1}{2} \overline{A + a}$ and $\frac{1}{2} \overline{A - a}$ are the arcs.

Hence $\begin{cases} R \times s, A \text{ (the fum)} = s, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A+s} \times s', \frac{1}{2} \overline{A-a} + s, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A-a} \times s', \frac{1}{2} \overline{A+a} \\ R \times s, a \text{ (the diff.)} = s, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A+a} \times s', \frac{1}{2} \overline{A-a} - s, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A-a} \times s', \frac{1}{2} \overline{A+a}. \end{cases}$

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® 216. The

216. The co-fine of the sum of two arcs, into radius; is equal to the difference, between the product of the co-sines, and product of the fines, of those arcs.

The co-fine of the difference of two arcs, into radius; is equal to the fum, of the product of the co-fines, and product of the fines, of

those arcs.

For
$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} R \times \frac{1}{2}s, A + \frac{1}{2}s', a = s', \frac{1}{2}A + a \times s', \frac{1}{2}A - a' (174) \\ R \times \frac{1}{2}s', a - \frac{1}{2}s', A = s, \frac{1}{2}A + a \times s, \frac{1}{2}A - a' (181) \end{array} \right\} \frac{1}{2}A + a \text{ and } \frac{1}{2}A - a \text{ being the arcs.}$$

Then
$$\begin{cases} R \times s', A(\text{the fum}) = s', \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a} \times s', \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a} - s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a} \times s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}. \\ R \times s', a(\text{the diff.}) = s', \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a} \times s', \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a} + s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a} \times s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}. \end{cases}$$

217. Radius, less the co-fine of an arc Square the tan. of half that arc Square of the Radius

For
$$\begin{cases} R - s', \overline{A+a} = (v, \overline{A+a} =) \frac{t, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A+a}}{R} \times s, \overline{A+a}. \end{cases}$$
(195)
$$R + s', \overline{A+a} = (v', \overline{A+a} =) \frac{R}{t, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A+a}} \times s, \overline{A+a}.$$
(191)

Then $\frac{R-s', A+a}{R+s', A+a} = \frac{tt \cdot \frac{1}{2}A+a}{RR}$

218. The fum of the fine & co-fine of an arc = Radius tan. of diff. of the fine & co-fine of that arc = tan. of diff. of that arc & 45°.

The fum of Rad, and tan. of an arc Radius

diff. of Rad, and tan. of that arc tan. of diff. of that arc & 45

For if $A + a = 90^\circ$; then $\frac{1}{2}A = 45^\circ - \frac{1}{2}a$; and $\frac{1}{2}a = 45^\circ - \frac{1}{2}A$.

Also
$$s', a = s, A : s, a = s', A :$$
 and $s, A = t, A \times s', A + R$. (III. 33)

Then
$$\frac{s', A+s', a}{s', a-s', A} = \frac{t', \frac{1}{2} \overline{A+a}}{t, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A-a}}$$
 (212)

$$\operatorname{Or}^{\frac{s'}{2}, A+\frac{s}{2}, A}_{\frac{s}{2}, A-\frac{s}{2}, A} = \left(\frac{t', 45^{\circ} - \frac{1}{2}a + \frac{1}{2}a}{t_{2}A - 45^{\circ} + \frac{1}{2}A}\right) = \frac{R}{t_{2}A \cdot \alpha_{45^{\circ}}} *.$$

Again,
$$\frac{s, A+s', A}{s, A-s', A} = \left(\text{(III. 33)} \frac{t, A \times s', A+r+s', A}{t, A \times s', A+r-s', A} = \right) \frac{t, A \times s', A+s', A \times R}{t, A \times s', A+r-s', A \times R}$$

Then
$$\left(\frac{s, A+s', A}{s, A-s', A} = \frac{t, \overline{A+R} \times s', A}{t, \overline{A-R} \times s', A} = \right) \frac{R+t, A}{R \otimes t, A} = \frac{R}{t, \overline{A \otimes 45^3}}$$

N 4

219. Thè

^{*} This mark to shews the difference of the values it stands between-

219. The difference of the co-fines of two arcs, is equal to the difference of the verfed fines of those arcs.

220. The product of the fines of two arcs, is equal to the product of half the radius into the difference of the co-fines, of the fum and difference of those arcs.

That is,
$$s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a} > s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a} = \frac{1}{2}R \times s, a-s, A=s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a} + \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a} - s, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a} + \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}.$$

(181)

Or $s, z \times s, x = \frac{1}{2}R \times s, \overline{z+x-s}, \overline{z-x}$. Putting $z = \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+a}$; $x = \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-a}$.

221. The product of the fines of two arcs, is equal to the product of half the Radius into the difference between the verted fines, of the fum and difference of those arcs.

That is,
$$s, z \times s, x = (\frac{1}{2}R \times s, \overline{z+x-s}, \overline{z-x}(220) =)v, \overline{z+x-v}, \overline{z-x} \times \frac{1}{2}R$$
.

(219)

product of the fines of two arcs

diff. of ver. fines of the fum and diff. of those arcs

(221)

223. The fq. of Rad. = prod. of the squares, of the fine and cot. of an arc

= prod. of the squares of the co-fine & tan. of an arc

For
$$R = \frac{s, A \times t', A}{s', A} = \frac{s', A \times t, A}{s, A}$$
 (187.) Then $RR = \frac{ss, A \times t't', A}{s's', A} = \frac{s's', A \times tt, A}{ss, A}$

224. The product of Radius, and the co-fine of an arc, is equal to the difference of the squares, of the fine and co-fine of half that arc.

For
$$\frac{s's',\frac{1}{2}}{ss,\frac{1}{2}} = \left(\frac{v',\overline{A+a}}{v,\overline{A+a}}(193, 197) = \right)\frac{R \times s, \overline{A+a}}{R-s',\overline{A+a}}$$
. Put $z = \overline{A+a}$.

Then $\frac{R+s', z-R+s', z}{R+s', z+R-s', z} = \frac{s's', \frac{1}{2}z-ss, \frac{1}{2}z}{s's', \frac{1}{2}z+ss, \frac{1}{2}z}$. By composition and division.

$$\frac{2s',z}{z_{R}} = \frac{s's',\frac{z}{2}z - ss,\frac{z}{2}z}{RR} \text{(II. III.)} \text{ And } R \times s',z = s's',\frac{z}{2}z - ss,\frac{z}{2}z.$$

$$= \overline{s_{1,\frac{z}{2}}z + s,\frac{z}{2}z} \times \overline{s',\frac{z}{2}z - s,\frac{z}{2}z}. \text{(II. II9)}$$

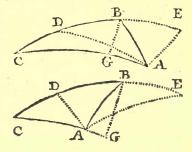
In any spheric triangle ABC, if in the side CB produced, be taken BE, BD, each equal to BA, and BG be drawn at right angles to CA.

Then CE=BC+BA is the fum of the legs including the angle at B.

CD=BC—BA is the diff. $\int CG$ and AG are the fegments of the base, or side opposite to the angle B. $\angle A$ and $\angle C$ are called base angles. $\angle CBG=a$, $\angle ABG=c$ are the vertical angles.

Now a very great number of relations may be formed between the fides and angles; fome of which are here enu-

merated.



225. The fines of the legs, are as the fines of the opposite base angles.

That is, s, BC: s, BA:: s, A: s, C.

sum of the fines of the legs

diff. of the fines of the base angles

by composition.

(110)

226. The co-fines of the base angles, are as the fines of the vertical angles.

That is, s, c:s, A::s, a:s, c.

Hence fum of co-fines of base angles diff. of co-fines of base angles by composition and division of ratios,

(3d of 122, and 2d of 124)

fum of the fines of vertical angles diff. of fines of vertical angles

227. The co-fines of the legs, are as the co-fines of the adjacent fegments of the base.

That is, s, BC: s, BA::s, CG: s, AG. (3d of 121, and 2d of 123)

Hence fum of co-fines of the legs fum of co-fines of base fegments

diff. of co-fines of the legs diff. of co-fines of base fegments

by composition and division of ratios.

228. The co-tangents of the legs, are as the co-fines of the adjacent vertical angles.

That is, t, BC: t, BA:: s, a: s, c. (2d of 121, and 2d of 124)

Hence fum of co-t. of the legs diff. of co-fines of vert. angles by composition and division of ratios.

229. The tangents of the legs, are as the co-f. of the adjacent vertical angles reciprocally.

Fonce fum of tan. of the legs fum of co-f. of vert. angles by comp. &c.

230. The fines of the base segments, are as the tangents of the ad-

jacent base angles reciprocally.

That is, s, cG:s, AG::(t', C:t', A::)t, A:t, c. (2d of 122, and 1ft of 123)

Hence fum of fines of base segments fum of tan of base angles diff. of fines of base segments diff. of tan. of base angles by composition and division.

231. The tangents of the base segments, are as the tangents of the opposite vertical angles.

That is, t,CG: t,AG: rt,a: t,c. (108)

Hence fum of tan. of base segments fum of tan. of vert. angles by composition and division of ratios.

232. The tan. of half the fum of the legs tan. of half the fum of the base ang.

For
$$\frac{s, BC + s, BA}{s, BC, BA} = \frac{s, A + s, C}{s, A - s, C} (225) = \frac{t, \frac{1}{2}BC + t, \frac{1}{3}}{t, \frac{1}{2}BC - BA} = \frac{t, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A + C}}{t, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A - C}}$$
 (211)

233. The $\frac{\tan \cdot \text{ of } \frac{1}{2} \text{ fum of base segments}}{\tan \cdot \text{ of } \frac{1}{2} \text{ fum of the legs}} = \frac{\tan \cdot \text{ of } \frac{1}{2} \text{ diff. of the base segments}}{\tan \cdot \text{ of } \frac{1}{2} \text{ diff. of the base segments}}$

For
$$\frac{\hat{s}, BA + \hat{s}, BC}{\hat{s}, BA - \hat{s}, BC} = \frac{\hat{s}, GA + \hat{s}, GC}{\hat{s}, GA - \hat{s}, GC} (227) = \frac{\hat{t}, \frac{1}{2}BC + BA}{\hat{t}, \frac{1}{2}BC - BA} = \frac{\hat{t}, \frac{1}{2}CG + GA}{\hat{t}, \frac{1}{2}CG - GA}.$$
 (212)

Then
$$\frac{t, \frac{1}{2}\overline{BC - BA}}{\overline{G - GA}} = \left(\frac{t, \frac{1}{2}\overline{BC + BA}}{t, \frac{1}{2}\overline{CG + GA}}\right)$$
 (II. 145) = $\frac{t, \frac{1}{2}\overline{CG + GA}}{t, \frac{1}{2}\overline{CB + BA}}$. (III. 37)

234. The $\frac{\text{fine of fum of legs}}{\text{fine of diff. of legs}} = \frac{\text{co-tan. of } \frac{1}{2} \text{ fum of vert. angles}}{\text{tan. of } \frac{1}{2} \text{ diff. of vert. angles}} = \frac{\text{co-tan. of } \frac{1}{2} \text{ diff. of vert. angles}}{\text{tan. of } \frac{1}{2} \text{ fum of vert. angles}}.$

For
$$\frac{s,\overline{BC+BA}}{s,\overline{BC-BA}} = \left(\frac{t,BC+t,BA}{t,BC-t,BA}(213) = \frac{s,c+s,a}{s,c-s,a}(226) = \right) \frac{t,\frac{1}{2}a+c}{t,\frac{1}{2}a-c} = \frac{t,\frac{1}{2}a-c}{t,\frac{1}{2}a+c}$$
 (212)

235. The $\frac{\cot \cdot \text{ of } \frac{1}{2} \text{ fum of vert. angles}}{\tan \cdot \text{ of } \frac{1}{2} \text{ fum of the base angles}} = \frac{\tan \cdot \text{ of } \frac{1}{2} \text{ diff. of base angles}}{\tan \cdot \text{ of } \frac{1}{2} \text{ diff. of vert. angles}}$

For
$$\frac{t,\frac{7}{2}\overline{A}+C}{t,\frac{1}{2}\overline{A}+C} = \left(\frac{s,c+s,A}{s,c-s,A}\right) = \frac{s,a+s,c}{s,a-s,c} = \frac{t,\frac{1}{2}\frac{7}{2}+c}{t,\frac{1}{2}\frac{7}{2}+c}$$
 (211)

Hence
$$\frac{t_{1}\frac{1}{2}\overline{A-C}}{t_{2}\frac{1}{2}\overline{A-C}} = \left(\frac{t_{1}\frac{1}{2}\overline{A+C}}{t_{2}\frac{1}{2}\overline{A+C}}(\text{II. 145}) = \right)\frac{t_{1}\frac{1}{2}\overline{A+C}}{t_{2}\frac{1}{2}\overline{A+C}}.$$
 (III. 37)

236. The fine of fum of the legs = $\frac{\text{fquare of co-t. of } \frac{1}{2} \text{ fum of vert. angles}}{\text{fine of diff. of the legs}} = \frac{\text{fquare of co-t. of } \frac{1}{2} \text{ fum of vert. angles}}{\text{tan. } \frac{1}{2} \text{ fum, into tan. } \frac{1}{2} \text{ diff. of base } \angle^s$

For
$$\frac{t,\frac{1}{2}\overline{A+C}\times t;\frac{1}{2}\overline{A-C}}{t;\frac{1}{2}\overline{a+c}}=t;\frac{1}{2}\overline{a-c}.$$
 (235)

Then
$$s, \overline{BC+BA} : s, \overline{BC-BA} : : t, \frac{1}{2a+c} : \frac{t, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A+C} \times t, \frac{1}{2}\overline{A-C}}{t, \frac{1}{2}a+c}$$
. (234)

$$: t t, \frac{1}{2} \overline{a+c} : t, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A+C} \times t, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A-C}.$$
 (II. 151)

237. The $\frac{\text{fine of } \frac{x}{2} \text{ the furn of legs}}{\text{fine of } \frac{x}{2} \text{ the diff. of legs}} = \frac{\text{co-tan. of } \frac{x}{2} \text{ the furn of vert. angles}}{\text{tan. of } \frac{x}{2} \text{ the diff. of the base angles}}$

For
$$\frac{t^{2}t^{2},\frac{1}{2}t+c}{t^{\frac{1}{2}}A+C} = \frac{t^{2}BC+BA}{t^{2}BC+BA}$$
 (236). And $\frac{t^{2}A+C}{t^{2}A+C} = \frac{t^{2}BC+BA}{t^{2}BC+BA}$. (232)

Then
$$\frac{t \cdot t, \frac{1}{2} + c \times t, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A} + C}{t, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A} + C \times t, \frac{1}{2} \overline{A} - C} = \frac{s, \overline{BC} + \overline{BA} \times t, \frac{1}{2} \overline{BC} + \overline{BA}}{s, \overline{BC} - \overline{BA} \times t, \frac{1}{2} \overline{BC} - \overline{BA}}.$$
 (II. 156)

And
$$\frac{t't', \frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{a+c}}{tt, \frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{A-C}} = \frac{2ss, \frac{1}{2}BC + BA}{2ss, \frac{1}{2}BC - BA}$$
 (195, 193). Then $\frac{s, \frac{1}{2}BC + BA}{s, \frac{1}{2}BC - BA} = \frac{t', \frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{a+c}}{t, \frac{1}{2}A - C}$

238. The $\frac{\text{cof. of } \frac{1}{2} \text{ fum of the legs}}{\text{cof. of } \frac{1}{2} \text{ diff. of the legs}} = \frac{\text{co-t. of } \frac{1}{2} \text{ the fum of vertical angles}}{\text{tan. of } \frac{1}{2} \text{ the fum of the base angles}}$

For
$$\frac{t t, \frac{1}{2}a + c}{t, \frac{1}{2}A + C \times t, \frac{1}{2}A + C} = \frac{s, BC + BA}{s, BC + BA}$$
 (236). And $\frac{t, \frac{\pi}{2}A + C}{t, \frac{1}{2}A + C} = \frac{t, \frac{\pi}{2}BC + BA}{t, BC + BA}$. (232)

Then
$$\frac{\hat{t}\hat{t}, \frac{1}{2}a+c \times t, \frac{1}{2}A=C}{t, \frac{1}{2}A+C \times t, \frac{1}{2}A=C \times t, \frac{1}{2}A+C} = \frac{s, BC+BA \times \hat{t}, \frac{1}{2}BC+BA}{s, BC+BA \times t, \frac{1}{2}BC+BA}.$$
 (II. 156)

And
$$\frac{t^{2}t^{2}}{tt^{2}} = \frac{2s^{2}t^{2}}{2s^{2}t^{2}} = \frac{2s^{2}t^{2}}{2s^{2}t^{2}} = \frac{2s^{2}t^{2}}{2s^{2}t^{2}} = \frac{2s^{2}t^{2}}{2s^{2}t^{2}} = \frac{t^{2}t^{2}}{t^{2}} = \frac{t^{2}t^{$$

The two last propositions solve the problem where two sides, and the included angle, of a spheric triangle, are given to find the other angles.

Or where two angles and the included fide are given, to find the other fides, using the word angles for legs; the given fide for sum of vertical angles; the other fide for base angles.

In art. 237, 238, the conclusions were gained from this principle, namely, that the fides of proportional squares, are in the same proportion as those squares.

239. The co-fine of an angle, is to Radius;
As the Radius into co-f. of the opposite side, less the product of the co-fines of the including sides,
To the product of the sines of the including sides.

For s',
$$cg = (s', AC - AG =) s', AC \times s', AG + s, AC \times s, AG \div R.$$
 (216)

And
$$(s, cg=)$$
 $\frac{s, BC \times s, AG}{s, AB}$ $(227)=s, AC \times s, AG+s, AC \times s, AG \div R$. (II.46)

Therefore
$$s$$
, $BC \times s$, $AG = \frac{s$, $AB}{R} \times s$, $AC \times s$, $AG + \frac{s$, $AB}{R} \times s$, $AC \times s$, AG .

Therefore
$$\frac{R \times s, BC - s, AB \times s, AC}{R} \times s, AG = \frac{s, AB \times s, AC}{R} \times s, AG$$
.

Then
$$\frac{R \times s, BC - s, AB \times s, AC}{s, AB \times s, CA} = \left(\frac{s, AG}{s, AG}(II. 163) = \right) \frac{t, AG}{R}$$

But
$$t_{AG} = \frac{s_{AG}}{R} \times t_{AE}$$
 (131). And $\frac{t_{AG}}{R} = \left(\frac{s_{AG}}{RR} \times t_{AE} = \right) \frac{s_{AG}}{RR} \times \frac{s_{AE} \times R}{s_{AE}}$. (187)

Then
$$\frac{s^2, A}{R} \times \frac{s^2, AE}{s^2, AE} = \frac{R \times s^2, EC - s^2, AE \times s^2, AC}{s^2, AE \times s^2, AE}$$
. And $\frac{s^2, A}{R} = \frac{R \times s^2, EC - s^2, AC \times s^2, AE}{s^2, AC \times s^2, AE}$.

240. Hence
$$R \times s$$
, $BC = \frac{s^2 A \times s, AC \times s, AB}{R} + s^2, AC \times s^2, AB$.

As the diff. of the versed sines of op. side, and diff. of including sides,
To the product of the sines of the sides including that angle.

For
$$(239)^{\frac{R\times s^2, BC-s^2, AC\times s^2, AB}{s_3AB\times s_3AC}} = \left(\frac{s^2A}{R}\right)^{\frac{R-7!}{A}}$$
.

Therefore RRX;, BC-RX;, ACX;, AB=RX;, ACX;, AB-s, ACX;, AB XV, A.

Therefore RRXs, BC+s, ACXs, AB X v, A=s, ACXs, AB+s, ACXs, AB X R. (216)

Then s, AC Xs, AB X v, A = (RR Xs, CR-RR Xs, BC=)s, C3-s, BC XRR.

And
$$\frac{v, A}{KR} = \left(\frac{\hat{s}, CD - \hat{s}, BC}{\hat{s}, AC \times \hat{s}, AB} = \right) \frac{v, CB - v, CD}{\hat{s}, AC \times \hat{s}, AB}$$
 (219)

242. Hence
$$\frac{v_{A}}{2R} = \frac{v_{BC} - v_{CD}}{v_{CE} - v_{CD}}$$
. Or $\frac{1}{2}v_{A} = \frac{v_{BC} - v_{CD}}{v_{CE} - v_{CD}}$, when $R = 1$.

For
$$(s, AC \times s, AB =)$$
 $\frac{1}{2}R \times v, CE - v, CD$ (222) $= \overline{v, CB - v, CD} \times \frac{RR}{v, A}$. (241)

Then
$$\frac{v, CB-v, CD}{v, CE-v, CD} = \left(\frac{\frac{I}{2}R \times v, A}{RR} = \right) \frac{v, A}{2R}$$
.

243. The versed fine of the sup. of an angle, is to the square of Radius; As the diff. of the versed fines of the opposite side, and sum of the including sides,

To the product of the fines of the fides including that angle.

For (239)
$$\frac{R \times s, BC-s, AC \times s, AB}{s, AC \times s, AB} = \left(\frac{s, A}{R}\right) \frac{v, A-R}{R}$$
.

Therefore RRXs, BC-RXs, ACXs, AB=s, ACXs, ABXv, A-RXs, ACXs, AB.

Therefore RR $\times s$, BC $\longrightarrow s$, AC $\times s$, AB $\times v$, A \cong R $\times s$, AC $\times s$, AB $\longrightarrow s$, AC $\longrightarrow s$,

Then RR xs, EC-RR xs, CE=s, AC xs, AB xv, A.

And
$$\frac{v, A}{RR} = \left(\frac{s, BC - s, CE}{s, AC \times s, AB}\right) \frac{v, CE - v, BC}{s, AC \times s, AB}$$
.

244. Hence $\frac{v', A}{2R} = \frac{v, CE - v, CB}{v, CE - v, CD}$. Or $\frac{1}{2}v', A = \frac{v, CE - v, CB}{v, CE - v, CD}$, when R = 1.

For
$$(s, AC \times s, AB =)_{\frac{1}{2}} R \times \overline{v, CE} = v, CD (222) = \overline{v, CE} = v, CB \times \frac{RR}{v, A}$$
 (243)

Then
$$\frac{v, CE-v, CB}{v, CE-v, CD} = \left(\frac{\frac{1}{2}R \times v, A}{RR} = \right) \frac{v, A}{2R}$$
.

245. The square of the fine of half an angle, is to the square of the Radius;

As ½ Radius into the diff. of the versed sines of the side opposite, and diff. of the sides including that angle,

To the product of the fines of the fides including that angle.

For
$$(v,A=)^{\frac{ss,\frac{\tau}{2}A}{\frac{1}{2}R}}$$
 (222) = $\frac{v,CB-v,CD}{s,AC\times s,AB}$ × RR. (241)

Then
$$\frac{ss, \frac{1}{2}A}{RR} = \frac{v, CB - v, CD}{s, AC \times s, AB} \times \frac{1}{2}R = \frac{s, CD - sCB}{s, AC \times s, AB} \times \frac{1}{2}R.$$
 (219)

246. Hence
$$\frac{ss_{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}A}}{BR} = \frac{s_{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}CB+CD} \times s_{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}CB-CD}}{s_{\sqrt{AC} \times s_{\sqrt{A}B}}}$$

$$= \frac{s_{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}CB+AC-AB} \times s_{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}CB-AC+AB}}{s_{\sqrt{AC} \times s_{\sqrt{A}B}}}; \text{ because CD} = AC-AB}$$

$$= \frac{s_{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}CB+AC-AB} \times s_{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}CB-AC+AB}}{s_{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}CB-AC+AB}}; \text{ Putting 2H} = AC+AB+BC}.$$

247. The fqu. of the co-fine of half an angle, is to the fqu. of Radius;
As ½ Radius into the diff. of versed lines of the side opposite, and fum of the included sides,
To the product of the sines of the sides including that angle.

For
$$(v', A =) \frac{s's', \frac{t}{2}A}{\frac{t}{2}R} (222) = \frac{v, CE - v, CB}{s, AC \times s, AB} \times RR$$
 (243)

Then
$$\frac{\hat{s}\hat{s}, \frac{1}{2}A}{RR} = \frac{v, CE - v, CB}{s, AC \times s, AB} \times \frac{1}{2}R = \frac{\hat{s}, CB - \hat{s}, CE}{s, AC \times s, AB} \times \frac{1}{2}R.$$
 (219)

248. Hence
$$\frac{s_s, \frac{1}{2}A}{RR} = \frac{s_s \frac{1}{2}CE + CB}{s_s AC \times s_s AB} \times \frac{1}{2}CE + \frac{CB}{CB}.$$
 (177)

$$= \frac{s, \frac{1}{2}AC + AB + CB}{s, AC \times s, AB}$$
 For $CE = AC + AB$.

$$= \frac{s, H \times s, H - CB}{s, AC \times s, AB}$$
 Putting $2H = AC + AB + BC$.

249. The square of the tan. of half an angle, is to the square of Radius;
As the diff. of ver. sines of the side op. and diff. of including sides,
To the diff. of ver. sines of the side op. and sum of including sides.

For
$$\frac{v, A}{v', A} = \frac{ss, \frac{1}{2}A}{s's', \frac{1}{2}A}$$
 (222) = $\frac{tt, \frac{1}{2}A}{RR}$ (223) = $\frac{v, CB - v, CD}{v, CE - v, CB}$. (241, 243)

250. Hence
$$\frac{tt,\frac{1}{2}A}{RR} = \frac{s,\frac{1}{2}CB+CD}{s,\frac{1}{2}CE+CB} \times s,\frac{1}{2}CE+CD}{s,\frac{1}{2}CE+CB} \times s,\frac{1}{2}CE+CD}.$$

$$= \frac{s,\frac{1}{2}CB+AC+AB}{s,\frac{1}{2}CB+AC+AB} \times s,\frac{1}{2}AC+AC+AB}$$

$$= \frac{s,\frac{1}{2}CB+AC+AB}{s,\frac{1}{2}CB+AC+AB} \times s,\frac{1}{2}AC+AC+CB}$$

$$= \frac{s,\frac{1}{2}CB+AC+AB}{s,\frac{1}{2}CB+AC+AB}.$$
(219, 181)

From the articles in the three last pages may be deduced many rules for solving the problem, where the three sides are given to find an angle; and thence, from the three angles given to find a side.

251. When

251. When two fides and the included angle are given to find the third fide: Or when the three fides are given to find an angle; for these particular cases there have been given compendiums by Sir Jonas Moore, in his Mathematics, Vol. II. page 383: Also by Nicholas Facio Duillier, in a small tract of his, which is very scarce; and by the learned Dr. Pemberton, in the Philosophical Transactions for the year 1760: The principle employed by each of them is the same as in Article 245; which will be here illustrated on account of its utility in some astronomical subjects.

In the triangle ABC, where CD = AC o AB.

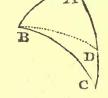
Given AB, AC, LA; required BC.

Now
$$\frac{ss, \frac{1}{2} \angle A}{R^3} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}s', CB \circ \frac{1}{2}s', CD}{s, AC \times s, AB}$$
.

And $\frac{ss, \frac{1}{2} \angle A \times s, AC \times s, AB}{R^3} = \frac{1}{2}s', CB \propto \frac{1}{2}s', CD = N$

Then 2N-s', $CD \equiv s'$, CB.

Hence the following practical Rules.



(245)

252. I. To twice the log. sine of half the given angle,

Add the log. fines of the two containing sides;

The sum, abating three radii in the index, leaves the log. sine of an arc. From twice the nat. sine of that arc; take the nat. co-sine of the diff. of the given sides,

Leaves the nat. co-fine of the third side, or of its supplement.

253. II. But the fide required may be found without the use of natural fines. Thus

To twice the log. sine of half the given angle, Add the log. sines of the two containing sides;

From half the sum of these logs, subtract the log. sine of half the diff. of the sides.

And the remainder is the log. tangent of an arc;

The log. fine of which are, fubtracted from the faid half fum of logs,

Leaves the log. fine of half the required fide.

Take the Example used in the fix cases of oblique spheric triangles.

Where $AC = 83^{\circ}$ 11', $AB = 56^{\circ}$ 40'; $\angle A = 125^{\circ}$ 20'. Required BC, which was there found to be 114 30.

	,		9
Given Z	= 125° 20'		
its half	= 62 40	application and the second	Log. fine \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \
	= 83 i1	Spinoren and the spinor	- Log. fine 9,99692
other fide	= 56 40	phonone phono	Log. fine 9,92194
Are found	$= 40 53\frac{2}{5}$ its n	at. fine 65467	(256) 9,81602
diff. fides	= 26 30 the na	s double 130934 at. co-fine 89480	
	65 30 the na	at. co-fine 41454	(257)

The fide required 114 Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

```
192
The faid Example wrought by the second Rule is as follows;
  Given 4 = 125 20
                           log. fine $ 9,94858
  its half
                  62 40
                                    19,94858
                 83 11
56 40
                           log. fine
                                     9,99692
  One fide
  Other fide
                          log. fine
                                    9,92194
                                     39,81602
 Sum logs
                                    19,90801 half fum log:
 half fum
                                                                  19,90801
                                     9,36048
  를 diff. sides =
                  13 152
                  74 10 log. tan. 10,54753 Log. fine 74 10 9,98320
                                               Log. fine of 57 15 9,92481
                                   The required fide = 114 30
  When the three fides are given to find an angle;
254. I. To the nat co-s. of the side opposite the required angle, add the nat. co-s.
  of the diff. of the sides about that angle; half the sum is the nat. sine of an arc.
  To the log. sine of that are, add the arith. comps. of the log. sines of the sides
  about the required angle and also the radius.
  The half of this sum is the log. sine of half the angle sought.
  Or without using the natural fines.
255. II. To the log. sine of half the diff. of the sides about the angle, add the
  arith. comp. of the log. fine of half the base; the sum is the log. sine of an arc.
  To the log. co-sine of this arc, add the log. sine of half the base; reject ra-
  dius from the sum, and to the double of what will then remain add the
  arith. comps. of the log. fines of the containing sides.
  Half the sum is the log. sine of half the angle.
Exam. Let the three fides be BC=114° 30', AC=80° 11', AB=56° 40'.
  Required the angle A.
                                By I. Rule
  Base BC = 114° 30'
               63 30 nat. co-fine = 41469
  Diff. sides 26 31 nat. co-s. = 89480
  Sum
                                                           Rad.
                                                                  10,00000
                                    130949
  Half sum is the nat. sine. (217)
                                     65474 arc 40° 54 log. fine
                                                                 9,81607
                               Ar. co. log. fine 83 11
                                                                   0,00308
                               Ar. co. log. fine 56 40
                                                                   0,07806
                                                                  19,89721
                          Half the angle fought 62° 40' log. fine
                                                                   9,94860
                                By II. Rule,
  \frac{5}{5} oc = 13° 15\frac{7}{2} Log. fine
                                  9,36048
  ½BC = 57 15 Ar.Co.L.fin. 0,07518
                                             log. fine
                                                               9,92482
                                             leg. co-f.15° 49½ 9,98322
  Log.fine 15 49 an arc
                                  9,43566
                                                               9,90804
                                                              19,81608
   Ar. Co. Log. fine Ac
                                                               0,00308
                                                               0,07806
   Ar. Co. Log. fine AB
                                                              19,89722
   Half sum is Log. sine of 62° 40'
                                                               9,94801
   Angle fought is
                            125 20= 4A.
```

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

As the natural fines of arcs are not contained in this work, and are on some occasions necessary, it will be proper to shew how they may be found from the Logarithmic tables contained herein.

256. First. An arc being given, to find its natural sine to five places of figures. Rule. Take out the Log. sine of the arc, rejecting the Index;

Seek these figures among the logarithms of numbers;

The corresponding number is the natural fine of the given arc; which is to be reckoned as a decimal fraction of the radius, or unity:

Prefixing the decimal comma (,) if the index of the log. fine was 9; But if the index was 8; 7; or 6; prefix, 0; ,00; or ,000; by which means the left hand digit of the natural fine will stand in the place of the firsts, seconds, thirds, or fourths. (I. 18)

Ex. I. Required the natural fine and co-fine of 4° 22'?

Log. fines fine 8,88161 Co-fine 9,99874

Num. or nat. fines 0,07614 0,99710

Ex. II. Required the natural fine and co-fine of 28° 35'?

Log. fines fine 9,67982 Co-fine 9,94355

Num. or nat. fines 0,47844 0,87812

If a given log. fine is found in the table of logs. of numbers, its natural number confifting of four places is feen at light; and its right hand place is 0 when the index of the log. fine was 9.

But if a given log, fine is not found to every figure in the tables of

log. numbers, its 5th, or right-hand place is thus found.

Take the diff. between the log. num. next greater and lefs, than the given log. fine; and also the diff. between the given log. fine and its next lefs log. numb.

Then, As 1st diff. is to 2d diff. so is 10, to the digit for the right

liand place.

Thus to 4° 22′, the nat. fine is 0,07614; and co-fine is 0,99710. But to 28° 35′, the log. fine and co-f. does not appear exactly among the log. numb.

And the above-mentioned two differences, for fine, are 9 and 3; for co-f. are 5 and 1.

Then 9:3::10:3, the 5th place. And 5:1::10:2, the 5th place.

257. On the contrary. A natural fine being given, its corresponding arc may be thus found.

In the tables of num, and logs, enter with the natural fine as a num,

and take out its log.

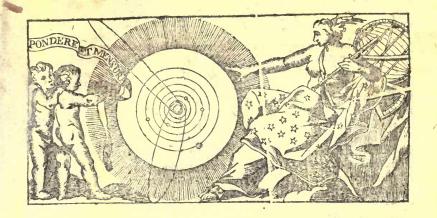
Seek this log, in the table of log, fines, and the corresponding degrees and minutes shew the arc required.

Prefixing the index 9, 8, 7, 6; according as the left hand digit flood in the place of firsts, seconds, thirds, or fourths.

What has been faid of the nat. and log. fines of arcs, is also applicable to the nat. and log. tangents of arcs.

END OF BOOK IV.

Vol. I. O THE



ELEMENTS

NAVIGATION.

BOOK V.
OF ASTRONOMY.

SECTION I.

Of Solar Astronomy.

I. STRONOMY is a fcience which treats of the motions and distances of the heavenly bodies, and of the appearances

thence arifing.

There have been great variety of opinions among the philosophers of preceding ages concerning the situation of the great bodies in the universe, or of the positions of the bodies which appear in the heavens: But the notion now embraced by the most judicious Astronomers is, that the universe is composed of an infinite number of systems, or worlds; in every system there are certain bodies moving in free space, and revolving at different distances around a Sun, placed in, or near, the center of the system; and that these sums and other bodies are the stars which are seen in the heavens.

2. The Solar System, fo called by Aftronomers, is that in which our Earth is placed; and in which the Sun is supposed to be fixed in or near the center, with several bodies similar to our Earth revolving round him at different distances. This hypothesis, which is confirmed by all the observations hitherto made, is called the COPERNICAN SYSTEM.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

from Nicholas Copernicus, a Polish Philosopher, who about the year 1500 revived this notion from the oblivion it had been buried in for many ages.

Stars are distinguished into two kinds, namely, fixed and wandering.

3. The FIXED STARS are the funs, in the centers of their fystems, shining by their own light; and are observed to preserve always the same

fituation in respect to one another.

4. The fixed stars appear of various sizes, which is doubtless occafioned by their different distances; these fizes are usually distinguished into
fix or seven classes, called Magnitudes: The largest, or brightest, are said
to be of the first magnitude; those in the next class or degree of
brightness, are called of the second magnitude; and so on to the
least, or those just discernible to the naked eye. But besides these, there
is scattered throughout the heavens a great number of other stars, called
Telescopic Stars, because they cannot be seen except through a telefcope. And indeed, it is to the affistance of that most admirable instrument,
that a great part of the modern Astronomy owes its rise; which will undoubtedly transmit with the greatest honour to the latest posterity the name
of Galileo, among whose many inventions the telescope is ranked.

5. Although the visible fixed stars are probably at very unequal distances from the center of the folar system, yet Astronomers, for their ease in computation, consider them as equally distant from our Sun, forming the surface of a sphere which incloses our system, and is called the Celestial Sphere. This supposition, with regard to the Solar System, may be strictly admitted, considering the immense distance even of the

nearest fixed stars from the center of the system.

6. A Constellation is a number of stars lying in the neighbourhood of one another on the surface of the celestial sphere, which Astronomers, for the sake of remembering them with greater ease, suppose to be circumscribed by the outlines of some animal, or other figure: by this means the motions of the wandering stars are more readily described and compared.

The number of these constellations is 80, each containing several stars of different magnitudes. The number of stars of each magnitude, and also the constellation in which they are ranged, are contained in the sollowing table; where it may be observed, that the constellations are distinguished under three heads; namely, in the zodiac, and in the northern, and southern hemispheres.

7. Constellations in the Zodiac.

Names.	Marks.	Number.	1	Magnitudes.					Names.	Marks.	Number.	Magnitudes.					_
Aries. Faurus. Gemini. Cancer. Leo. Virgo.	A SUBBRAS	46 109 94 75 91 93	C 1 1 C 2 1	1 1 2 0 2	1 3 4 0 6 5	3 9 6 13 11	8	36 71 66 61 57 52	Libra. Scorpio. Sagittarius. Capricornus. Aquarius. Pifces.	一会川は火部光	33 44 48 58 93	0 1 0 0 0	2 3 1 0 0	1 6 5 2 4 1	8 14 9 5 7	3 5 11 9 28 28	7 '

9.

8. NORTHERN CONSTELLATIONS.

Names.	Numb	Magnitudes. Names.						Num		M	ignil	gnitudes.						
Names.	nb.	I	11	111	III IV V VI		nb.	1	11	111	ıv	V.	vı					
Little Bear. Great Bear. Dragon. Cepheus. Greyhounds. Bootes. Mons Mænalus. Berenice's Hair. Charles's Heart. Northern Crown. Hercules. Cerberus. Harp. Swan. Fox. Goofe. Lizard. Caffiopea.	12 10 54 49 40 24 53 11 24 29 24 73 29 10 12 52	000000000000000000000000000000000000000	2 5 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0	0 7 0 0 0 0	8 7 1 10 6 0 6 12 3 2 15 6 0	10 7 12 0 12 28 1 8 20 11 2	1 40 5 10 32 12	Dolphin. Colt. Arrow. Andromeda.	23 50 67 8 29 34 18 12 13 66 67 81 46 55 20 10 56	0 0 0 0 0 0	0 0 3 1 3 1 0 0	0 7 6 0 5 5 6 0 0 2 5 4 1 1 1 0 0 1	9 9	5 17 3 4 7 2 1 16 14 11	3 18 20 10 7 8 35 36 54 25			

SOUTHERN CONSTELLATIONS.

Names.	Nm	Magnitudes.						Names.	Zu	Magnitudes.					
Names.	nb.	1	11	111	1 V	v	v I	Names.	nb.	1	11	111	1 V	v	ΑI
Whale.	3c	0	2	8	13	10	47	Peacock.	14	0	1	3	5	4	I
Eridanus.	72	I	C	10	24	19	18		12	0	0	0	1	3	8
Phenix.	13		1	5	5	C	2		14	0	2	1	2	9	0
American Goose.	9	0	C	4	2	3	0	Southern Fish.	15	1	0	2	9	2	1
Orion.	93	2	4				50	Hare.	25	0	0	4	9	4	8
Monoceros.	32	Ű	1	I	10	IC	11		10	0	2	0	1	6	0
Little Dog.	14	I	0	1	0	2	10	Charles's Oak.	13	0		2	6	4	0
Hydra.	53	0	1	3		13	22		48	1	6	11	13	14	
Sextans Uraniæ.	4	0	C	0	1 .				29	1	5	1	4	10	8
Cup.	1.1	0	0	0	-		1 -	Bee.	4	0	0	0	2	2	0
Crow.	8	0	0						11	0	0	0	4	3	4
Centaur.	36	2	6	6	14				12	0	0	0	4	6	2
Wolf.	36	0	0	3			9	Chamelion.	10	0	0	0	0	9	1
Altar.	15	0	0	1	6	1	1	Flying Fish.	7	0	0	0	0	6	1
Southern Triangle.	5	0	1	2	0	2	0	Sword Fish.	7	0	C	2	2	1	2.

Constellations in the zodiac 12, contain Northern constellations 36, contain Southern constellations 32, contain

Number of stars in the 80 constellations

Stars	1	11	111	ΙV	v	VI	
S ₉ 4 243 706	5		92			569 031 217	
2843	20	65	205	485	648	1420	

As these stars are sound not to alter their situation in respect to one another, they serve Astronomers as fixed points, by which the motions of Univ Calif - Digiti 23 by Microsoft 8 other

other bodies may be compared; and therefore their relative positions have been sought after with great care for many ages, and datalogues of their places have from time to time been published by those, who have been at the pains to make the observations. Among these catalogues, the most copious, and, as generally esteemed, the best, is that called the

Historia Celestis of our countryman FLAMSTEED.

may be delineated on a sphere or plane; and thus are the maps or charts of the heavens made, and the constellations drawn inclosing their respective stars. There are two maps, usually called Celestial hemispheres, which are prefixed to this book; by the help of which a person may readily become acquainted with the positions and names of some of the principal fixed stars, thus:

On a clear night, let these prints be laid so as to correspond to the north and south parts of the heavens; then the observer looking on the stars, and then on the hemispheres, will with a little practice know some of the stars in the heavens, the like positions and names of which

he has observed on the prints.

11. The WANDERING STARS are those bodies within our fystem, or celestial sphere, which revolve round the Sun; they appear luminous or bright, only by reflecting the light they receive from the Sun; and are of three kinds, namely, primary planets, secondary planets, and comets.

12. The PRIMARY PLANETS are those bodies, which in revolving round the Sun respect him only as the center of their courses; the motions of which are regularly performed in tracks, or paths, that are found by observations to be nearly circular and concentric to one another.

13. A SECONDARY PLANET, commonly called a SATELLITE or MOON, is a body, which, while it is carried round the Sun, does also re-

volve round a primary planet, which it respects as its center.

14. Comets, vulgarly called *blazing ftars*, are bodies which also revolve round the Sun; probably in as regular order as the planets, but in much longer periods of time, from what is hitherto known of them. They are in number many more than all the planets, and their tracks or courses pass among the paths of the planets in a great variety of directions.

15. The Orbit of a planet or comet is that track or path along

which it moves.

There are fix primary planets; and reckoned in order from the Sun, their names and marks are, MERCURY Q, VENUS Q, the EARTH & or Θ , MARS of, JUPITER 4, SATURN b.

Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn, are called Superior Planets, as their orbits include that of the Earth: but Venus and Mercury, the orbits of which are contained within the Earth's, are called Inferior Planets.

16. It has been discovered by the help of telescopes, that there are tenfecondary planets; the Earth being attended by one, called the Moon,

Jupiter by four, and Saturn by five.

Saturn is also observed to have a kind of circle, called his RING, which surrounds the planet at some distance from his surface: and Jupiter has certain appearances, which seem like zones or girdles round him; and these are called Jupiter's Belte.

Every

Every primary planet is supposed to have two motions, namely, annual and diurnal.

17. The Annual Motion of a planet is that whereby the planet is carried in its orbit round the Sun; which in every one is found by obser-

vation to be from west to east.

This motion is discovered by the planets changing their places in the celestial sphere; upon the surface of which they appear to move among the fixed stars; and in certain times to return to the same stars from which they were seen to depart; and so on continually.

18. The DIURNAL MOTION of a planet is that by which it turns or

Ipins about its axis, and is also from west to east.

This motion is discovered by the spots that are seen by telescopes on the surfaces of the planets. The spots appear first on the eastern margin, or side of the planet, and gradually move from thence across it, till they disappear on the western side, or *limb*; after a certain time they appear

again on the eaftern fide, and so on.

19. Each planet is observed always to pass through the constellations Aries, Taurus, Gemini, Cancer, Leo, Virgo, Libra, Scorpio, Sagittarius, Capricornus, Aquarius, Pisces; and it also appears, that every one has a track peculiar to itself; hence the paths of the six planets form among the stars a kind of road, which is called the Zodiac, the middle path of which, called the Ecliptic, is the orbit described by the Earth, with which the orbits of the other planets are compared.

As the ecliptic runs through twelve constellations, it is supposed to be divided into twelve equal parts, of 30 degrees each, called signs, having the same names with the twelve constellations which they run through.

20. The Equinoctial Points are those two points of the Ecliptic, opposite to one another, through which the Earth passes in its annual motion, when the length of the day and night is equal in all parts on the Earth. One of these points, called the Vernal Equinox, answers nearly to the 20th of March; and the other, called the Autumnal Equinox, nearly to the 22d of September.

21. The Plane of the Ecliptic is supposed to divide the celestial sphere into two equal parts, called the northern and fouthern celestial hemispheres; and any body in either of these hemispheres is said to have north or fouth latitude, according to the hemisphere it is in: So that the LATITUDE of a celestial object is its nearest distance from the ecliptic, taken on the

fphere.

The Planes of the other five orbits are observed to lie partly in the northern, and partly in the southern hemisphere; so that every one cuts the ecliptic in two opposite points, called Nodes. One called the Ascending Node, marked thus, Q, is that through which the planet passes when it moves out of the southern into the northern hemisphere; and the other called the Descending Node, marked thus, &, is that through which the planet must pass in going out of the northern into the southern hemisphere.

The right line joining the two Nodes of any planet, is called the LINE

OF THE NODES.

22. The names of most of the constellations were given by the ancient Astronomers, who reckoned that star in Aries, now marked 7, (according

to Bayer's maps) to be the first point in the ecliptic, this star being next the Sun when he entered the Vernal Equinox; and at that time each constellation was in the sign by which it was called. But observations shew, that the point marked in the heavens by the Vernal Equinox has been constantly going backward by a small quantity every year, from which cause the stars appear to have advanced forward as much; so that the constellation Aries is now removed almost into the sign Taurus, the said first star having got almost 30 degrees forwards from the equinox; which difference is called the Precession of the Equinoxes, and the yearly alteration is about 50 seconds of a degree, or about a degree in 72 years.

23. It was faid in art. 12, that the planets revolved round the Sun is orbits nearly circular and concentric; for the feveral phænomena arifing from their motions shew they are not strictly so; and the only curve they can move in, to reconcile all the various appearances, is found to be an Ellipsis: So that the orbits of the primary planets and comets are Ellipses of different curvatures, having one common focus, in which the Sun is fixed: But every secondary planet respects the primary planet round which it revolves, as the focus of its elliptic motion. For as no other suppositions can solve all the appearances that are observed in the motions of the planets, and as these agree with the strictest physical and mathematical reasoning, therefore they are now received as elementary principles.

24. The line of the nodes of every planet passes through the Sun: For as the motion of every planet is in a plane passing through the Sun, confequently the intersections of these planes, that is, the lines of the nodes,

must also pass through the Sun.

25. All the planets, in their revolutions, are fometimes nearer to, fometimes farther from the Sun: This is the confequence of the Sun not being

placed in the center of each orbit, and of their being ellipses.

26. The APHELION, or SUPERIOR APSIS, is that point of the orbit where the planet is farthest from the Sun. The Perihelion, or Inferior APSIS, is that point where it is nearest to the Sun: And the transverse diameter of the orbit, or the line joining the two apses, is called the LINE OF THE APSES, or ASPIDES.

27. The planets move faster as they approach the Sun, or come nearer to the perihelion, and slower as they recede from the Sun, or come nearer to the aphelion. This is not only a consequence from the nature of the planets motions about the Sun, but is confirmed by all good observa-

tions.

28. If a right line drawn from the Sun through any planet, usually called the Radius Vestor, is supposed to revolve round the Sun with the planet, then this line will describe or pass through every part of the plane of the orbit; so that the Radius Vestor may be said to describe the area of the orbit.

29. There are two chief laws observed in the Solar System, which re-

gulate the motions of all the planets; namely,

I. The planets describe equal areas in equal times: That is, in equal portions of time the Radius Vector describes equal areas, or portions of the space contained within the planet's orbit.

II. The squares of the periodical times of the planets are as the cubes of their mean distances from the Sun: That is, as the square of the time which a planet A takes to revolve in its orbit, is to the square of the time taken by any other planet B to run through its orbit; so is the cube of the mean distance of A from the Sun, to the cube of the mean distance of B from the Sun.

30. The MEAN DISTANCE of a planet from the Sun is its distance from him, when the planet is at either extremity of the conjugate diame-

ter; and it is equal to half the transverse diameter.

31. The foregoing laws are the two famous laws of KEPLER, a great Aftronomer, who flourished in Germany about the beginning of the 17th century, and who deduced them from a multitude of observations: But the first who demonstrated these laws was the incomparable Sir ISAAC NEWTON.

By the fecond law, the relative distances of the planets from the Sun are known; and were the real distance of any one known, the absolute

distances of all the others would be obtained by it.

32. Every thing already faid of the planets is found in a great meafure to be applicable also to the comets, as well from the observations that have been made of them, as from the physical and mathematical confiderations of their motions.

33. Were the motions of the planets to be observed from the Sun, each of them would be ever seen to move the same way, though with different velocities; those nearer to the Sun running their courses through the Zodiac in less time than those at greater distances: And hence it would happen, that some of them overtaking the others would in passing by them appear to be sometimes above, sometimes below, and sometimes as if they touched one another, according to the parts of the orbits in which those planets happened to be with respect to their nodes.

34. When two planets are feen together in the fame fign equally advanced, they are faid to be in Conjunction: But when they are in direct opposite parts of the Zodiac, they are faid to be in Opposite.

SITION.

35. As the planes of the orbits are inclined to one another, therefore when two planets happen to be in conjunction at the time they come near a node of one of them, they would be feen from the Sun apparently to touch one another; and the fartheft of those planets from the Sun would see the nearest moving over the face of the Sun like a black spot, being then directly between the Sun and the remoter planet; so the planet Venus was observed from the Earth in the transits of the years 1761 and 1769. Also, should an opposition of two planets happen near a node of one of them, the Sun, being then directly between them, would hide the light of one from the other. These obscurations, or interceptions of the light of the planets one from the other, are called Eclipses.

36. The place that any planet appears to occupy in the celeftial sphere, when seen by an observer supposed to be in the Sun, is called its *Heliocentric place*: And indeed all celestial appearances, as seen from the Sun,

are called Heliocentric phanomena.

37. The

37. The following table exhibits at once fome of the most material conclusions that have been deduced from the observations hitherto made, the mean distance of the Earth from the Sun being reckoned at 1000.

TABLE OF THE SOLAR SYSTEM.

Planets Names.	Marks.	Mean dift. compared to that of the Earth.	Eccentricity.	to the eclipt.	clin	icaointions.	periodical	of the		Diurnal ro-	True diameter.	No of moons.
Mercury	. ğ	387	81	6°	52	3 m	or.	87	d 23h	uncertain	C, 32	0
Venus.	9	724	5	3	23	8 m	. or	224		23h omos	0,87	0
Earth.	10	1000	17	0 0	00	ıy.	or	365	6	23 56 4	1,00	1
Mars.	3	1,524	141	I 4	, 2	2 y.	or	686	23	24 40 0	0,73	0
Jupiter.	4	5201	250	I	20	12 y.	or	4332	12	9 56 0	7,70	4
Saturn.	b	9538	543	2 2	20	30 y.	or	10759	8	uncertain	4,19	5

38. By all the observations made on the secondary planets, it ap-

pears,

Ist. That the fatellites revolve round their fuperior planets from west to east, in curve-lined orbits like ellipses, the primary planet being in the focus, and one of the orbit's diameters directed towards the Sun.

2d. That the planes of the orbits of the fatellites are inclined to the

plane of the orbit of their respective planet.

3d. That, like the primary planets, they describe equal areas in equal times; and the squares of the times of their revolutions are as the cubes of the mean distances from their primary planet.

In every revolution of a moon round its primary planet, there must be two conjunctions betwixt the planet, moon, and Sun: namely, once, when the moon is in that part of its orbit nearest to the Sun; and once, when in that part of its orbit farthest from the Sun: 'And an eclipse may happen at either conjunction, according as the moon's nodes happen to be possed at those times. For the plane of a moon's orbit is inclined to that of its primary, and so makes two nodes: And whenever the Sun, planet, and moon happen to be at the same time in the line of the nodes, there must be an eclipse; which would occur at every conjunction, but for the inclination of the orbit.

One of the conjunctions, namely, that made by the moon's going beyond the primary, from the Sun, is called the Superior Conjunction; and the other, made by the fatellite on the fide of the planet next the Sun, is called the Inferior Conjunction.

The following table flews the time taken by each fatellite in its revolution, and also its mean distance from the primary in semidiameters of it.

39	1	11	111	IV	v
Saturn's fatell. Dift. from Sat.	87sf.diam.	2 17 41 3 11 4 f. diam	3 12 25 ½ 15 f. diam.	36 f. diam.	79 7 48 108 f. diam.
Jupiter's fatell. Dift. from Jup. The Moon	$5\frac{2}{3}$ f. diam.	9 f. diam.	143 f.diain.	$25\frac{1}{3}$ f. diam.	1 29

40. Of the figure and light of the Planets.

That the Sun and planets are spherical bodies is evident from all the observations that have been made of them; and that the Earth is of like figure is not only deduced by analogy, but sufficiently confirmed by observation.*. Now although Astronomers generally say that the planets are spherical, yet they do not mean a Geometrical sphere, but a figure called an oblate spheroid, which is something like the sigure that a flexible sphere would be formed into by gently pressing it at its poles. Observations have determined this in Jupiter, and it is known that the Earth is of this figure both from observations and actual mensuration.

That the planets must have this oblate figure, is evident from this consideration; that as they are of matter, and violently whirled on their axes, all the parts would endeavour to fly off, like water from a trundled mop; those in the equator moving swiftest, have the greatest tendency to depart: And although the parts are retained in the sphere by the superior force of gravity, yet the equatorial diameters will be somewhat increased,

and the polar leffened.

41. The planets are all opake or dark bodies, and confequently flaine only by the light they receive from the Sun: This is known by obferving, that those bodies are not visible, when they are in such parts of their orbits as are between the Sun and Earth, or partly so. Now, as all the planets sometimes appear with a strong light, therefore the rays they receive from the Sun must convey to them a degree of warmth proportional in some measure to their distance; which proportion is reciprocally as the squares of the distances; and this must be readily inferred from the heat which the inhabitants of the Earth receive from the Sun.

42. As a planet revolves on its axis, every part of its furface will be turned towards the Sun, and so enjoy its light and heat.

^{*} Observations show, that in eclipses of the moon the darkened part is bounded by a circular curve; and consequently the body, which casts the shade, or obstructs the light, must be bounded by a like curve; but as these obscurations are caused by different parts of the Earth, consequently its surface must be limited by a circular sigure, that is, it must be globular.

SECTION II.

Of Terrestrial Astronomy.

43. TERRESTRIAL ASTRONOMY is that which confiders the motions of the celestial bodies as feen from the Earth, which is also in motion.

The motions described in the preceding section were such, as would appear to an observer viewing the heavens from the Sun: But were he placed in one of the planets, suppose the Earth, and there observed the motions of the rest, the Sun, and other planets, would appear to him to revolve round the Earth as a center; but the Sun would be the only one that moved uniformly the fame way: For the other planets would feem to move sometimes from west to east, and then to stand still; then they would feem to run from east to west; and after standing some time, they would again move from west to east, and so on continually.

44. The place in the celestial sphere that any planet appears in, when feen from the center of the Earth, is called its GEOCENTRIC

PLACE.

45. The DIRECT MOTION of a planet is that by which it appears to move from west to east, and this motion is said to be according to the order of the signs, or in consequentia. When the planet appears to stand still, it is faid to be STATIONARY; and when its motion is apparently from east to west, it is then called RETROGRADE, or has a motion in antecedentia, or contrary to the order of the figns. These different appearances follow partly in consequence of the observer being himself in motion while he is viewing the motions of the planets, and partly because he is not in the center of the motions which he observes.

46. The Phanomena of the Inferior Planets. See Fig. 1. Plate IV.

Let ABC represent an arc of the celestial sphere; EOP the Earth's orbit; LNIG the orbit of an inferior planet, as of Venus; and s the Sun: Let the Earth at first be supposed to stand still in its orbit at E: Now it is evident that the Sun will appear at the point B, and the planet always within the arc Ac. Whilst the planet moves in its orbit from I through Q to N, it will feem to move from B to A in confequentia: But passing from N to L, it will feem to an eye at E to return back from A to B, or be retrograde. While the planet is at, or near, the point N, and moving as it were in a right line towards the Earth, it will for some time seem to stand still near A, and it is then said to be stationary.

47. When the planet is in that part of its orbit N or G, which is contiguous to the tangent EA or EC, it will then appear at A or C, its greatest distance from the Sun, and is said to have then the greatest ELONGATION: This elongation is measured by the angle SEG. more distant a planet is from the Sun, the greater will its angle of elongation

tion be; that of Venus is about 48 degrees, and that of Mercury about 28

degrees.

In the space of a revolution, the two inferior planets will, with respect to the Earth, undergo two conjunctions; one when it is beyond the Sun at 1, the other when it is at L between the Sun and the Earth; the former is

called the superior, and the latter the inferior conjunction.

48. Whilst Venus goes from her superior conjunction, she appears in the arc BA always to the eastward of the Sun, and therefore sets some time after the Sun, and is called the evening star. But during the time she is going from her inferior to her superior conjunction, she will be seen somewhere in the arc BC to the westward of the Sun, and so will set before him in the evening, and rise before him in the morning; hence she is called the morning star.

Hitherto the planet only has been supposed to move while the Earth stood still; but when both move, the foregoing phænomena will be much the same, only the planet will be more direct in the farthest part of the orbit, and less retrograde in the nearest; the former arising from the sum

of their motions, and the latter from the difference.

49. Of the Phenomena of the Superior Planets.

The direct, flationary, and retrograde appearances of the superior planets are explained much after the same manner as those of the inferior ones, but with these differences.

1st. The retrograde motions of the superior planets happen oftener the flower their motions are, as the retrogradations of the inferior planets happen oftener the swifter their angular motions are: Because the retrograde motions of the superior planets depend upon the motions of the Earth, but those of the inferior on their own angular motions. A superior planet is retrograde once in each revolution of the Earth; an inferior one, in every one of its own revolutions.

2d. The fuperior planets do not always accompany the Sun as the inferior do, but are often in opposition to him; which necessarily follows from the orbit of the Earth being included in the orbits of the fuperior planets.

50. Of the apparent Motion of the Sun.

As a spectator in the Sun would see the Earth revolve through the signs in the ecliptic; so to a spectator in the Earth the Sun apparently revolves the same way, but is always in the opposite point of the ecliptic: (For it is well known to every one, especially to those who use the sea, that fixed objects appear to change their place by the motion of the observer:) So that the heliocentric place of the Earth, and the geocentric place of the Sun, are always in direct opposite points of the ecliptic.

Now although it is the motion of the Earth that really causes a great variety in the apparent motions of the other planets, yet as the motion of the Sun being known gives that of the Earth, therefore Astronomers speak

celiptic,

of the motion of the Sun; and in their computations use the quantities of

those motions as if they were real.

of the Earth, there are many refulting from its diurnal motion: For that the Earth has a daily motion round its axis must necessarily be inferred from the most strict reasoning on the motions of the planets: and the notion, that bodies so immensely distant as the stars are, really revolve round the earth in 24 hours, is now treated as a great absurdity by every one who has rightly considered these things: However, as the motions are apparent, and the speaking of them as real is customary and no way affects the conclusions; therefore Astronomers treat of those motions as they appear.

52. Any sphere revolving as on an axis, must have two points on its furface at the extremities of its axis, that do not revolve at all; these

points, with respect to the Earth, are called its poles.

53. By the Earth's rotation on its axis from west to east in a day, the surface of the celestial sphere appears to move from east to west in the same time; and all the celestial objects appear to describe circles in the heavens, which are greater or less according as they are farther from, or nearer to, the apparent centers of those motions: For there are two points in the heavens which are apparently fixed, and the nearer any stars are to these points, the slower are their motions. These points are called the Celestial Poles; the right line joining them is called the Axis of the Sphere, and passes through the poles of the Earth; the circle in the heavens, equally distant from the poles of the celestial sphere, is called the Equinoctial; the corresponding circle on the Earth is called the Equator, which is equally distant from both the poles of the Earth.

54. As the Sun's rays falling on any sphere enlighten one half of its furface; therefore one half of the Earth is always illuminated at once, and consequently the enlightened part is bounded by a great circle, which may be called the Terminator, from its property of terminating, or bounding, the verges of light and darkness. Now, by the rotation of the Earth on its axis once in 24 hours, there will be a constant succession of light on all parts of its surface as they are turned towards the Sun, and of darkness in those parts as they move out of his rays; and hence arise the

viciffitudes of DAY and NIGHT.

55. If the plane of the equator coincided with the plane of the ecliptic, and the axis of the Earth flood perpendicular to it, the terminator would always pass through the poles of the Earth, and there would be a constant equality of day and night in every part of its surface, except at the two poles, where there would be constant day. But the contrary of this is known to every one, and observations show, that the Earth's axis is inclined to the plane of the ecliptic in an angle of about $66\frac{1}{2}$ degrees; therefore the poles of the ecliptic and equator are about $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees distant from one another; consequently the ecliptic and equinoctial, which in the heavens intersect one another in the opposite points of Arics and Libra, make at those intersections angles of about $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees (IV. 33): This angle is called the Obliquity of the Ecliptic.

The axis of the Earth being thus inclined to the plane of the celiptic, and moving parallel to itself in all points of the ANNUAL ORBIT, or

ecliptic, is the occasion of the inequality of days and nights, and of the different seasons of the year; which two phænomena are explained as follows.

56. It must be observed, that the Sun will appear to be vertical to that part of the Earth, which is cut by a straight line joining the centers of the

Sun and Earth.

57. Now when the Earth is at V3, Fig. 3. Plate IV. the Sun appearing then in S will be vertical to that point of the terrestrial ecliptic, it lying in the tight line joining the centers of the Sun and Earth. And this point being in the Earth's northern hemisphere, all those who live there will enjoy summer, or the hottest time of the year, the solar rays falling more copiously, and more perpendicularly, upon their hemisphere at that time.

58. At the same time the inhabitants of the southern hemisphere will have winter, the rays of the sun falling more obliquely, and in less quan-

tity, on them, and consequently affording them less heat.

59. Again, the inhabitants of the northern hemisphere will have their days longer than their nights, in proportion as they are more distant from the equator; while those who live under the equator will have an equal share of day and night all the year round. For in this position the terminator, which is always at right angles to the plane of the ecliptic, will pass 23½ degrees beyond the north pole, and consequently will cut all the circles parallel to the equator which it meets with into two unequal parts: those that are in north latitude will have the greater portions of those parallels in the enlightened hemisphere: but the terminator being a great circle, will cut the equator into two equal parts; therefore half the equator is always illuminated.

60. Hence it necessarily follows, that those who live under the equator will have their days and nights equal: those who live within the limits of $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees round the north pole, will have no night; and the inhabitants between this limit and the northern neighbourhood of the equator will have their nights shorter than their days. In the mean time those who live in the southern hemisphere will have their nights longer than their days, in proportion as they approach nearer to the south pole; and the regions contained within the limits of $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees round the south pole.

will have no day.

61. Suppose the Earth now to move in its orbit from \$\mathcal{V}\$ through the figns \$\mathcal{W}\$, \$\mathcal{X}\$ to \$\mathcal{Y}\$, the Sun will seem to run through the figns \$\Omega\$, \$\mathcal{N}\$ to \$\mathcal{V}\$;

and this will be the place of the Sun in autumn.

While the Earth is in \mathcal{V} , the days and nights will be equal in both hemispheres, and the season is a medium between summer and winter: For at that time the Sun will appear vertical to the equator, because a right line joining the centers of the Sun and Earth will then cut the surface of the Earth in the equator; so that the terminator, the plane of which is always at right angles to the said line, will pass through the poles; consequently, all the Earth will then have an equal share of day and night. And because the rays of the Sun then sall perpendicularly upon the axis of the Earth, it will then sollow, that they must fall with an equal obliquity, and with equal number, upon either hemisphere; therefore they must enjoy an equal degree of heat and cold,

NOW

Now suppose the Earth to move from Y to 55, the Sun will seem to move from = to V, where it will be in its nearest approach to the south pole; and at this time of the year it will be winter in the northern hemisphere. For to this hemisphere the like phænomena will now happen, which did before to the fouthern, when the Earth was in v3; and by a parity of reason, when the Earth has got as far as ..., and the Sun is apparently in γ , the northern hemisphere will enjoy spring, and the southern will have autumn.

62. The four points of the ecliptic, in which the Earth has been confidered in fummer, autumn, winter, and spring, are called the four CAR-DINAL POINTS; Wand 5 are called SOLSTITIAL POINTS; & and V,

EQUINOCTIAL POINTS.

63. The first point of Cancer is called the SUMMER SOLSTICE; because when the Sun enters it, which is about the 21st of June, he has then got to the greatest extent northwards, and being about to return towards the equator, he feems for a day or two to be at a stand. fame reason, the first point of Capricorn, which the Sun enters about the 21st of December, is called the WINTER SOLSTICE, with respect to the northern hemisphere.

64. The first points of Aries and Libra are called the VERNAL and AUTUMNAL EQUINOCTIAL POINTS, from the equality of days and nights

all over the surface of the Earth, when the Sun enters those points.

65. Of the Rifing and Setting of the Stars.

There is only one half of the celestial sphere visible at one time to any observer on the surface of the Earth, the other half being hid by the Earth itself. Now the apparent plane on which the observer stands, seems to be extended to the heavens, and there marks out a circle that divides the visible from the invisible hemisphere; this circle is called the Horizon, above which all the celestial motions are feen. When this horizon is a great circle of the celestial sphere, it is called the RATIONAL HORIZON: but when by the particular fituation of the observer, he sees more or less than half the celestial sphere, then the circle bounding his view is called the SENSIBLE HORIZON.

The horizon is one of the most useful circles in Astronomy; for to this circle, which is the only apparent one, almost all the celestial motions are referred. It is the common termination of day and night; it marks out the times of the rifing and fetting of the Sun and stars, and many other

particulars, of which hereafter.

Of Parallaxes. 66.

The PARALLAX of any object is the difference between the places that object is referred to in the celestial sphere, when seen at the same time from two different places within that sphere: Or, it is the angle under which any two places in the inferior orbits are seen from a superior planet, or even from the fixed stars: But the parallaxes which are most used by Astronomers are those which arise from seeing the object from the cen-

lute

ters of the Earth and Sun; from the Surface and center of the Earth; and

from all three compounded.

67. The difference between the heliocentric and geocentric place of a planet, is called the parallax of the annual orbit (namely, that of the Earth); that is, the angle at any planet, fubtended by the diffance between the Sun and Earth, is called the parallax of the Earth's, or annual orbit.

68. The difference in the two longitudes is called the parallax of longitude; and that of the two latitudes is called the parallax of lati-

tude.

69. In the Syzigies, that is, in the oppositions or conjunctions, the Sun and planet being equally advanced in the same sign, or in like places in opposite signs, the parallax of latitude is then greatest.

70. And when the planet is in its QUADRATURES, that is, when it is 90 degrees distant from the Sun, the parallax of longitude is then the

greatest.

71. To explain the parallaxes which respect the Earth only. Fig. 2. Plate IV.

Let HSW represent the Earth, where T is the center; OR part of the Moon's orbit, Prg part of a planet's orbit, and ZaA part of a great circle in the celestial sphere. Now to a spectator at s upon the surface of the Earth, let the Moon appear in G, that is in the sensit le horizon of s, and it will be referred to A; but if viewed from the center T, it will be referred to the point D, which is its true place.

The arc AD will be the Moon's parallax; the angle sor the parallactic angle: Or the parallax is expressed by the angle under which the semidia-

meter Ts of the Earth is seen from the Moon.

If the parallax is confidered with respect to different planets, it will be greater or less as those objects are more or less distant from the Earth. Thus the parallax AD of G is greater than the parallax Ad of g. If it is confidered with respect to the same planet, it is evident that the horizontal parallax (or the parallax when the object is in the horizon) is greatest of all; and diminishes gradually as the body rises above the horizon, until it comes to the zenith, where the parallax vanishes, or becomes equal to nothing. Thus AD and Ad, the horizontal parallaxes of G and g, are greater than aB and ab, the parallaxes of R and r; and the objects o or P, seen from s or T, appear in the same place z, or the zenith.

72. By knowing the parallax of any celestial object, its distance from the center of the Earth may be easily obtained by Trigonometry. Thus, if the distance of a from T is fought; in the triangle sTa, the side sT being known, and the angle sGT determined by observation, the side TG is thence known.

The parallax of the Moon may be determined by two persons observing her from different stations at the same time, she being vertical to the one, and horizontal to the other: and it is generally concluded to be about 57 minutes of a degree; consequently her mean distance TG is about 60 semi-diameters of the Earth, or 60 times TS.

But the parallax most wanted is that of the Sun, by which his abfolute distance from the Earth would be known; and thence the absolute distances of all the other planets would be obtained from their relative

distances found by the second Keplerian Law.

Before the year 1761 fome Altronomers reckoned the Sun's parallax at 12½ feconds, others at 10; these different parallaxes gave very different distance between the Sun and the Earth; the former making the distances near 8270 diameters of the Earth, and the latter 10313 diameters.

But in the years 1761 and 1769 the planet Venus passed between the Earth and the Sun, and was seen like a black spot moving over the face of the Sun. These phenomena (which had not happened in more than 100 years before) were observed by many Astronomers from different parts of the Earth, and the result of their observations make the Sun's mean parallax about 8½ seconds, and hence the mean distance between the Sun and Earth comes very nearly to 11900 diameters of the Earth: And from what was shewn many years ago by the excellent Dr. Halley, if these observations were made with the accuracy he supposed, the distance between the Sun and the Earth might be obtained to less than a 500th part of the whole distance.

73. Of the Measure of the Earth.

The relative distances of the planets are discovered by the 2d Keplerian Law, and their relative magnitudes are gathered from the angles which they appear under (when viewed with very accurate instruments) compounded with their distances. Now as these distances and magnitudes can by means of the parallaxes be compared with the diameter of the Earth, consequently this diameter being accurately known would serve as a measure with which the magnitudes and distances of all the other planets

might be compared.

To find the measure of the Earth is a problem of such importance in Astronomy, that it has been attempted by some of the most considerable men in almost all the preceding ages. But its solution was not brought to any degree of accuracy till the year 1635, when it was very nearly ascertained by our countryman Richard Norwood, an eminent mathematician at that time. The principle he proceeded upon was this, that as 360 degrees were contained in every great circle, both of the celestial sphere and of the Earth, and as these circles are considered as concentric to the center of the Earth; therefore, were the measure of a degree known on a great circle of the Earth, corresponding to a degree of a great circle of the heavens, then, by analogy, the whole circumference of a great circle of the Earth would be known in that measure, and consequently its diameter would be obtained.

(II. 197)

Norwood folved this problem in the following manner: He chose two distant places which were know to lie nearly north and south one of the other, as London and York; and by a method like that of Traverse failing (explained in Book VII.) he found their difference of latitude, or, the distance between the parallels of latitude passing through those places; or, which is the same thing, the length of that arc of the terrestrial meridian. He also with a good instrument found the distance

between the zeniths of those places, and consequently he thence knew the quantity of the celestial arc answering to the measured terrestrial Then faying, As that celestial arc is to a great circle of the celestial sphere, or 360 degrees; so is the arc of the terrestial great circle measured in feet, to the circumference of a great circle of the Earth in feet measure.

And thus he found that about 693 English miles answered to one degree: hence the circumference of the Earth appears to be 25020 miles, and its diameter about 8000 miles.

By the fame kind of reasoning, the distances found in art: 72. from the parallaxes, were obtained

```
For 12½': 360°:: 1 femi-diam.: 103680 } the { Circumference of the Earth's orbit in femi-
        8\frac{3}{3}: 360 :: 1 femi-diam. : 149538
                                                                          diameters of the Earth.
   And 6,283185: 103680:: 1: 16539,5
6,283185: 129600:: 1: 20626,4
6,283185: 149538:: 1: 23799,8
the { Mean dift. of the Earth
from the Sun, in femi-do
of the Earth. (II. 197)
           Then 16539.5 \times 4000 = 66158000 Mean diffance of the 20020.4 × 4000 = 82505600 the Earth from the Sun, in
                     23799 \, \text{S} \times 4700 = 95199200
```

Of the Moon.

74. The Moon revolves in her orbit from west to east round the Earth.

and is carried perpetually with it through the annual orbit round the Sun, making in the space of one year 13 periodical, and 12 synodical revolutions.

75. A PERIODICAL MONTH, or REVOLUTION, is the time the Moon takes up in revolving from one point of her orbit to the same point again,

and confifts of 27 d. 7 h. 43 m.

76. A SYNODICAL MONTH, or REVOLUTION; is the time the Moon fpends in paffing from one conjunction with the Sun to another, which is 29 d. 12 h. 44 m.; being 2 d. 5 h. 1 m. longer than the Periodical Month. For whilst the Moort is passing from her former conjunction with the Sun round to it again; the Earth has proceeded forwards in its annual courfe, as it were leaving the Moon behind it; fo that, in order to complete her next conjunction with the Sun, she must not only come round to her former point again, but also go beyond it.

77. Besides this monthly motion of the Moon round the Earth, she has also a motion round her axis, which is performed exactly in the same time with her periodical revolution: Hence it comes to pass, that the same face of the Moon is always turned towards the Earth, her diurnal motion turning just as much of her face to us, as her periodical motion

turns it from us.

73. Though the same side of the Moon is ever turned towards us, yet it is not always visible, but seems daily to put on different appearances,

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

called PHASES: For the Moon being an opake body like the rest of the planets, borrows its light from the Sun, having always one hemisphere en-

lightened by the folar rays.

When the enlightened hemisphere is wholly turned from the Earth, as at her change or time of new-moon, the planet then being betwixt us and the Sun, the Moon's whole enlightened face, or disk, must needs be invisible to the Earth. When she passes from this state, and turns some little portion of the illuminated half to us, she must appear horned, the Cusps or points being turned from the Sun towards the east. When the Moon is in her quadratures, or at 90 degrees from the Sun, then half the illuminated face becomes visible: She afterwards continues to shew more than half the enlightened disk, until she comes in opposition to the Sun or time of full-moon, when the whole of the illuminated orb is presented to us; from whence receding, she must put on the like phases as before, but in an inverse order, the cusps being now turned towards the west.

79. Of Solar and lunar Eclipses.

Eclipses of the Sun and Moon can only happen about the times of the conjunctions and oppositions: those of the Sun fall out at the conjunctions, when the Moon intercepts the light of the Sun from the Earth; and those of the Sun occur in the oppositions, when the Earth getting between the Sun and Moon, the latter loses her light during the time of that

interpolition.

The cause why there is not an eclipse in every syzigie is the inclination of the plane of the Moon's orbit to that of the ecliptic, which is about 5° 18': for it is certain, that unless the Sun, Earth, and Moon, are all in the plane of the ecliptic, or nearly so, the shadows of the Earth and Moon can never fall on one another, but must be directed either above or below. Now they can never be in the same plane, and in one right line, except when the Moon is in her nodes, the nodes and Sun's center being in the same right line.

80. The folar and lunar eclipses do not happen every year in the same places of the zodiac, but in succeeding years they fall in places gradually removed backwards, or towards the antecedent signs: For since the nodes are found to go continually backwards, the eclipses must also observe the

same order.

81. Eclipses of the Moon are either total or partial: the total happen when the node falls in or near the center of the shadow: and the partial, when the node happens to be on either side the center, within or without the shadow. Now the longer the duration of a partial eclipse is, so much the greater is that part of the Moon which enters into the shadow of the Earth.

82. Hence it is usual to conceive the Moon's diameter as divided into 12 parts, called Digits, by which the greatness of partial eclipses is meafured, they being said to be of so many digits as they are parts covered by the Earth's shadow: Thus if 5 of the 12 parts are covered, it is called an eclipse of 5 digits.

83. As the planet Mars is never eclipfed by the Earth, it is plain the thadow of the latter does not reach to far as the orbit of the former,

but tapers to a point at a less distance; and consequently the Earth's shadow must be a cone, the vertex of which is extended beyond the orbit of the Moon. It naturally follows from hence, that the Sun is a much larger body than the Earth; it is indeed, in diameter, above 100 times that of the Earth.

84. If a person was placed just at the vertex, or point of this shadow, he would see nothing of the Sun but a small rim of light round his disk; and the farther the observer was removed from the vertex, the larger would the rim of light appear, and consequently the sewer rays would be intercepted by the opake body, till at last it would appear only as a spot in the Sun; in like manner as the planets Venus and Mercury appear when they are seen to pass over the Sun's disk.

85. What has hitherto been faid of the shadow of the Earth includes that of the atmosphere surrounding the Earth: for in lunar eclipses the shadow of the atmosphere is to be considered. And hence it is that the Moon is visible in eclipses, the shadow cast by the atmosphere being not

near fo dark as that cast by the Earth.

86. The Moon always enters the western side of the shadow with her eastern limb, and quits it with her western limb; and in her approach to and recess from the shadow, she must pass through a Penumbra, or im-

perfect shade, which is caused by the Earth itself.

87. In the same manner, in which it has been shewn that the Moon must come into the shadow of the atmosphere, when she is at full and at or near a node, it may also be shewn, that her shadow must fall upon the Earth at the time of new Moon, provided she is in or near a node: But the penumbra of the Moon's shadow is much more sensible in solar eclipses, than that accompanying the shadow of the Earth in lunar ones.

88. It is observed, that to determinate parts of the Earth solar eclipses are not seen so oft as lunar ones; which is owing to the shadow of the Moon being less than that of the Earth: For the Earth's shadow often covers all the Moon; but that of the Moon cannot cover all the Earth; and as it sometimes falls on one part, sometimes on another, it causes solar eclipses, in general, to be more frequent than lunar ones; yet to any determinate place on the Earth there are more eclipses of the Moon visible than of the Sun.

What has hitherto been faid, may suffice to give beginners a general idea of the motions of the bodies in the solar system, and of some of the phenomena thence prising; those who desire to be farther acquainted with particulars, may find them fully treated of in M. de la Caille's Elements of Astronomy, published in English a few years since *; and also in the works of Gregory, Keil, and others.

* Translated by the Author of these Elements.

SECTION III.

The Astronomy of the Sphere.

DEFINITIONS and PRINCIPLES.

89. By the Aftronomy of the sphere is meant the finding, from proper things given, the measure of certain arcs and angles formed on the surfaces of the celestial and terrestrial spheres, by the apparent motions of the bodies which are seen in the heavens.

The furfaces of those spheres are supposed to be concentric to the center of the Earth, and to have correspondent circles described on both spheres.

90. GREAT CIRCLES are those which divide either sphere into two equal parts.

Lesser Circles, those which divide the sphere into unequal parts.

The Poles of a circle are the points on the sphere equally distant from that circle.

An Axis is a right line supposed to connect the poles.

The CELESTIAL Axis is that right line about which the heavens feem to revolve.

The NORTH and SOUTH POLES of the world are those two points where the axis cuts the celestial sphere.

91. The Equinocrial or Equator, is the great circle of the sphere

equally distant from the poles of the world.

92. MERIDIANS, OF HOUR CIRCLES, OF CIRCLES OF RIGHT ASCENSION, OF CIRCLES OF TERRESTRIAL LONGITUDE, are great circles perpendicular to the equator, and paffing through the poles of the world.

93. The ECLIPTIC is a great circle inclined to the equator in an angle

of about $23\frac{10}{2}$, and cutting it in two points diametrically opposite.

The ecliptic is supposed to be divided into 12 equal parts, called SIGNS, beginning from one of its intersections with the equator; each sign containing 30 degrees, named and noted thus:

Aries Taurus Gemini Cancer Leo Virgo

V 8 TI 95 St.

Libra Scorpio Sagittarius Capricornus Aquarius Pifees

M 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7

The first fix are called northern, and the latter fix fouthern figns.

94. The CARDINAL POINTS of the ecliptic are the four first points of the figns γ , \mathfrak{S} , \approx , $v\mathfrak{S}$; those of γ and \mathfrak{S} are called Equinoctial Points, and those of \mathfrak{S} and \mathfrak{S} are called Solstitial Points.

95. The EQUINOCTIAL COLURE is a meridian paffing through the equinoctial points; and the SOLSTITIAL COLURE is another meridian paffing through the fellitial points. The coloures cut one another at right angles in the poles of the world.

96. CIRCLES OF CELESTIAL LONGITUDE are great circles perpendi-

cular to the ecliptic.

97. The LATITUDE of any point in the heavens is an arc of a circle of longitude intercepted between that point and the ecliptic, and is called north or fouth latitude, as the point is on the north or fouth fide of the ecliptic.

98. PARALLELS OF CELESTIAL LATITUDE are small circles parallel

to the ecliptic.

99. The LONGITUDE of any object in the heavens is an arc of the ecliptic intercepted between the first point of Aries and a circle of longitude

paffing through that point.

The RIGHT ASCENSION of any object is an arc of the equator, contained between the first point of Aries and a meridian passing through that point: Or, it is the angle formed by the equinoctial colure, and the meridian passing over that point.

101. The DECLINATION of any object is an arc of a meridian contained between that point and the equinoctial: If the point is on the north fide of the equinoctial, it is called *north declination*; but if on the fouth

fide, it is called fouth declination.

102. The Obliquity of the Ecliptic is the angle made by the interfection of the equator and ecliptic, and is measured by the Sun's greatest declination; which, according to modern observations, is about

23 28.

103. PARALLELS OF DECLINATION are finall circles parallel to the equinoctial. The TROPIC OF CANCER is a parallel of declination at 23° 28′ diffant from the equinoctial in the northern hemisphere; and the TROPIC OF CAPRICORN is the parallel of declination as far diffant in the fouthern hemisphere.

104. THE ARCTIC POLAR CIRCLE is a parallel of declination at 23° 28' diffant from the north pole; and the ANTARCTIC POLAR CIRCLE

is the parallel of declination as far distant from the fouth pole.

105. The ZENITH is the point of the heavens directly over a place;

and the Nadir is the point directly underneath.

diffant from the zmith and nadir of any place, and divides the iphere into the upper and lower hemispheres.

107. The RISING of a celeftial object is when its center appears in the caftern part of the horizon; and its Setting is when its center difap-

pears in the western quarter of the horizon.

108. AZIMUTH, or VERTICAL CIRCLES, are great circles perpendicular to the horizon, passing through its poles, which are the zenith and madir.

109. The PRIME VERTICAL is that vertical circle which passes through the east and west points of the horizon, and is at right angles to the meridian of the place, which is a vertical circle passing through the north and south points of the horizon.

110. As the meridian of a place is called the treelve o'clock hour circle, fo the hour circle at right angles to the meridian is called the fix o'clock

hour circle.

formed by the meridian of any place, and a vertical circle paffing through
Univ Calif - Digitized, by Microsoft B that

that object when it is above or below the horizon: And it is measured by

the arc of the horizon intercepted between those vertical circles.

T12. The AMPLITUDE of any object in the heavens is usually taken as an arc of the horizon contained between the eastern point of it, and the center of the object at its rising, or between the western point of it and the center of the object at its setting; or it may be taken as an angle at the zenith, included between the meridian of a place and a vertical circle passing through the object at its rising or setting.

113. The ALTITUDE of any object in the heavens is an arc of a vertical

circle intercepted between the center of that object and the horizon.

114. The ZENITH DISTANCE of any object is an arc of a vertical circle contained between the center of that object and the zenith.

The altitude and zenith distance are complements one of the other.

115. The Meridian Altitude, or Meridian Zenith Dis-

TANCE, is the altitude or zenith distance when the object is on the meri-

dian of the place.

116. The CULMINATING of any celestial object, is the time it tranfts, or comes to the Meridian. And the Medium Coeli, or Mid-Heaven, to any place, is that degree of the ecliptic, or part of the heavens, over the meridian of that place, at any time. Or the Mid-Heaven is the distance of the meridian from the first point of Aries, reckoned on the equinoctial.

117. The Nonagesimal degree is the 90th degree of the Ecliptic, reckoned from its intersection with the eastern point of the horizon, at any

given time.

Consequently the altitude or height of the nonagesimal degree above the horizon is equal to the distance of the poles of the Ecliptic and Horizon; and is the measure of the angle which the ecliptic makes with the horizon.

118. ALMICANTHERS, or PARALLELS OF ALTITUDE, are small

circles parallel to the horizon.

119. A PARALLEL SPHERE is that position of the sphere in which the circles, apparently described by the diurnal rotation, are parallel to the horizon; which can happen only at the poles.

120. A RIGHT SPHERE is that in which the diurnal motions are at right angles to the horizon: Thus it appears in all places under the

equator.

121. An Oblique Sphere has all the diurnal motions oblique to the horizon: And thus the motions appear to all parts of the Earth, except

under the poles and equator.

122. DIURNAL ARCS are those parts of the parallels of declination of celestial objects which are apparently described between the times of the rising and setting of those objects: And NOCTURNAL ARCS are the parts of those parallels apparently described from the time of setting to the time of rising.

of durnal and nocturnal arcs, are the parts of the parallels intercepted between the meridian and the horizon. The corresponding part of the equator answering to the semi-diurnal arc, gives the times between noon and the rising or setting; and the equatorial part answering to the semi-

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

nocturnal arc, shews the time between midnight and the time of setting

or rifing.

124. The OBLIQUE ASCENSION of any object in the heavens, is an arc of the equinoctial intercepted between the first point of Aries and the eastern part of the horizon when that object is rising; and the Oblique Descension is an arc of the equinoctial intercepted between the first point of Aries and the western part of the horizon at its setting.

125. The ASCENSIONAL DIFFERENCE belonging to any celeftial object is an arc of the equinoctial intercepted between the horizon and the hour-circle which the object is on when it rifes or fets; or it is the difference between the right and oblique ascension of that object. In the Sun, it is the time that he rifes or fets before or after the hour of fix.

126. The LATITUDE of any place on the Earth is an arc of a terrestrial meridian contained between that place and the equator; or it is
an arc of a celestial meridian intercepted between the zenith of the place
and the equinoctial; being north or south, according to the side of the

equator it is on.

127. The LONGITUDE of any place on the Earth is an arc of the equator contained between the meridian of that place and the meridian which is chosen for the first, where the reckoning of longitude begins: Or, it is the angle at the pole formed by the first meridian and that of the place.

128. Refraction, in an astronomical sense, is the difference between the true and apparent altitudes of celestial objects; they appearing more elevated above the horizon than they really are, on account of the density of the Earth's atmosphere, or air and vapours surround-

ing it.

129. The TWILIGHT is that medium between light and darknefs, which happens in the morning before fun-rife, and in the evening after

fun-fet.

This is occasioned by the atmosphere's refracting the folar rays upon any place, although the Sun is below the horizon of that place, and by observation it is found to begin and end when the Sun is about 18° below the horizon.

130. The CREPUSCULUM is a finall circle parallel to the horizon at

18° below it, where the twilight begins and ends.

131. The LATITUDE OF A PLACE is expressed by an arc of the meridian, shewing the distance between the zenith of that place and the equinoctial; or, by an arc of the meridian, shewing the height of the pole above the horizon.

For under the pole, or in the latitude of 90 degrees, the pole is in the zenith, or is 90 degrees above the horizon; fo that, in this case, the ho-

rizon coincides with the equinoctial.

And as many degrees as the observer goes from the pole towards the equator, so many degrees does his horizon go below the equator on one

fide, and approach the pole on the other fide.

Therefore the pole approaches the horizon just as much as the zenith approaches the equator; that is, the height of the pole above the horizon, is equal to the distance of the zenith from the equinoctial, which is equivalent to the distance of the observer from the equator, or is equal to the latitude.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® 132, As-

132. ASTRONOMICAL TABLES in general contain numbers shewing either the measure of the distances of the heavenly bodies from certain limits which are used to represent remarkable times and places; or, the times when those bodies had, or will have, given positions relative to those

Some of the chief astronomical tables are,

Solar and lunar tables for finding the places of those luminaries at given

Tables for finding the places of the other planets. Stellar tables for finding the places of the stars.

Tables shewing the Sun's place, declination, and right ascension for

given times.

Tables of refractions for correcting observations on altitudes.

Tables of the equation of time; or the difference between the times Thewn by a fun-dial and a well-regulated clock.

The aftronomical tables chiefly wanted in this work are placed at the end of this book; and are preceded by an account of their construction and use.

133. As the Earth makes one revolution on its axis in a common day of 24 hours; therefore every point of the equator will describe the circle of 360 degrees in 24 hours; and confequently, if 360 degrees give 24 hours, any other number of degrees will give its proportional hours: And if 24 hours give 360 degrees, any other number of hours will give its proportional number of degrees.

And hence are derived methods for converting arcs of circles into

measures of time, and measures of time into ares of circles.

To reduce degrees, minutes, &c. to time.

Multiply by 24, and divide by 360; or multiply by 4, and divide by 60: Or, Divide the given degrees by 15 for hours; multiply the remainder by 4 for minutes, adding to the product 1 minute for every 15' of a degree; the overplus minutes of a degree, multiplied by 4, give feconds of time, &c.

Or thus: Let the quotient of the given degrees by 60 stand for the first name; the remaining degrees for the fecond name; and the other given names in order following: Then this number multiplied by 4, will give the hours, minutes, feconds, &c. in order,

To reduce time into degrees.

Multiply the given hours by 15 gives degrees, to which add 1° for every 4 minutes of time; for every overplus minute reckon 15' of a degree;

and for every fecond of time take 15" of a degree.

Or thus: Divide the time by 4, carrying by fixties, the quotient will be in order, fixties of degrees, degrees, minutes, feconds, &c.: Then fixties of degrees and degrees being reduced, will give the degrees, &c. required.

to its corresponding time.

$$\begin{array}{r}
15) \ 69^{\circ} \ 20' \ 45'' \ (4^{\text{h}} \ 37^{\text{m}} \ 23^{\text{s}} \\
\hline
9 \times 4 + 1 = 37 \\
\hline
5 \times 4 + 3 = 23
\end{array}$$

Exam. I. Reduce 69° 20', 45", Exam. II. Reduce 4h, 37m, 231, to its corresponding degrees.

Exam. III. Reduce 237°, 44', 37', to its equivalent time.

Exam. IV. Reduce 15h,50m,58s, 28t, to its equivalent degrees.

As the Sun is constantly changing his place, the tables of his right ascension shew for every day at noon (when he comes to the meridian of the place for which the tables are made) what part of the equator is intercepted between that meridian and the equinoctial point v. The tables for the stars shew the equatorial arcs contained between the point r and the fection of circles of right ascension, passing through those stars: The measures of the arcs of right ascension are reduced to time.

There are few days when one or more stars do not come to the meridian with the Sun, and then they have the same right ascension with him: Alfo, at some time of the year, the Sun must have the same right afcension which any proposed star has; though at other times he may have a lefs, and fo precedes, or comes to the meridian before that ftar; or a greater, and fo follows the star, and comes to the meridian later. And hence is derived the following method.

OF FINDING THE CULMINATING OF THE STARS.

134. To find the time when any star in the table will be on the meridian.

Rule. Subtract the fun's right afcension for the proposed day from the right ascension of the given star; the difference will be the time of the star's culminating nearly. Say as 24h is to the daily change of the fun's right alcention, to is the time of culminating, nearly, to a fourth number; which being subtracted from the time of culminating nearly, will give the true time of the star's culminating. If this time be less than 12h it happens in the afternoon; but if more than twelve hours, the excess above 12h will shew the time next morning.

N. B. 24h must be added to the star's right ascension, if the sun's right

ascension be greatest,

Fram I. At what time will the | Ex. II. On the 26th of Feb. 1780.

star Arcturus come to the meridian of London on the 1st of September, 1780?	at what hour will the star Virgin's Spike be on the meridian of London?							
	Virg. Spike's right asc. 13h 13' 38" Sun's right ascension 22 37 10							
Time of culmin. nearly 3 21 8	Time of culm. nearly 14 36 28							
	And 14h, 365m give 2 18							
True time of star's culm. 3 20 38	True time of star's culm. 14 34 10							

If the time of the star's culminating be wanted for any other meridian than that of Greenwich, or London, add the longitude in time to the time of culminating nearly, if the longitude be west, or take their difference if it be east, and use that sum or difference instead of the time of culminating nearly: observing, only, in the latter case, that if the longitude in time be greater than the time of culminating nearly, that the min. and sec. resulting from the proportion, must be added to the time of culminating nearly, instead of being subtracted from it.

Exam. On the 26th of February, 1784, what time will Syrius be on the meridian of a place which is in longitude 166° 30' E. of London?

Rt. ascen. Syrius, 1780 Precession for 4 years	6 ^h	35	28" 11	Rt. asc. of Syrius, 1784	\mathcal{C}^{h}	35	39″
				Sun's right ascen. 2	2 2	37	10
Time of culm. nearly	7	58	36	Time of culm. nearly	7	58	29
Long. in time	11	6	00	And 3h 7m, 4 give +			29
Difference	3	7	24	True time of star's culm.	7	58	58

To find if any star in the table will be on, or near the meridian at a given time, reckoned from the preceding noon.

Rule. To the given time add the Sun's right ascension for that time; the sum (rejecting 24 hours, if above) is the right ascension of the midheaven; which being sought among those of the stars, will shew what star will be on, or near the meridian at the time proposed.

Exam. I. What star will be on the meridian of London about 10 o'clock at night on the 25th January, 1784?

Ex. II. On the 10th May, 1784, what flar will be on the merid. of Lond. about 30 min. after 4 in the morning?

Given time 16h 30°

Given time to hours P. M.		
Sun's right afcension at noon	20	31
And for 10 hours more		2
Sum (abating 24 hours)	6	33
answers to Syrius.		

Sun's right afcention at noon 3 12
And for 16 hours more 3
Right afcention mid-heaven 19 45
answers nearly to Altair.

SECTION IV. Of the Projection of the Sphere.

PROBLEM I.

To project the sphere upon the plane of the folstitial colure, or upon the plane of the meridian of any place, those planes being supposed to coincide.

For this projection, the eye is supposed to be in the first point of Aries, or the common intersection of the equator, ecliptic, and equinoctial colure; that being the pole of the plane of projection, or primitive circle. Pl. IV. Fig. 4.

1st. With the chord of 60 degrees describe a circle PESQ to represent the solstitial colure, the center of which γ is its pole. (IV. 62)

2d. A diameter EQ will be the equator, and another PS at right angles to it will shew the equinoctial colure (IV. 60), or the axis of the world,

the extremities of which P, s, will be the north and fouth poles.

3d. For the parallels of declination. On the primitive circle, beginning at E and Q, apply the chords of the given degrees of declination, suppose every 10 degrees, and also the distances of the tropics and polar circles from the equator, namely, $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ and $66\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. Then from the center Υ in the axis PS produced, apply the respective secants of the complements of the degrees laid on the primitive (IV. 58), and these will give the centers of the corresponding parallels of declination; from which centers, with the extents to the several divisions in the circumference, describe the small circles 10, 10; 20, 20; &c. and these will be the parallels of declination required: Among which $a \subseteq b$, $b \setminus b$, are the tropics of Cancer and Capricorn; and cc, dd, the arctic and antarctic polar circles.

4th. For the circles of right afcension, or hour circles. In the diameter required lay off from the center V both ways the tangents of 15°, 30°, 45°, 60°, 75°, respectively, and they will give the centers of circles to be described through P and s, and cutting the equator in the points representing the 24 hours; the solfitial colure being the 12 o'clock, and the equinoctial colure, Ps, the six o'clock hour circles. And in like manner may any other of this kind of circles be drawn. (IV. 75)

5th. The ecliptic \mathfrak{D} VS is drawn, making with the equator an angle of $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$; the poles of which c, d, are the interfections of the polar circles

with the folftitial colure.

6th. Parallels of celestial latitude are drawn parallel to the ecliptic, in the same manner as the circles of declination are drawn parallel to the

equator.

7th. Circles of celestial longitude are described through c, d, the poles of the ecliptic, in the same manner as the circles of right ascension were described through P, s, the poles of the equator; and thus were the divisions of the ecliptic found that are marked with the signs.

8th. The horizon is represented by drawing a diameter HR, making an angle with the axis PS, equal to the latitude of the place; and the poles of the horizon z, N, the zenith and nadir, are at 90° diff. from the circle HR.

9th. Azimuth, or vertical circles, making any angle with the meridian, are described like circles of right ascension: Thus zn is the prime vertical, and zan is another azimuth, 45° from the south of the

10th, Almi-

10th. Almicanthers, or parallels of altitude, are in this projection drawn parallel to the horizon, in like manner as the circles of declination were drawn parallel to the equator.

136.

PROBLEM II.

To project the sphere upon the plane of the horizon.

In this projection, the eye is supposed in the nadir, one of the poles of the horizon, or plane of projection. Plate IV. Fig. 5.

Ist. The horizon is represented by the primitive circle, where the upper XII is the north, the lower XII the south, E the west, and Q the east points.

2d. The azimuth circles are reprefented by diameters drawn through z, the center or pole of the horizon: Thus the diameter x11, x11 is for the meridian, and Ezo for the prime vertical; and other azimuth circles; forming any angle with the meridian, are readily drawn by laying off their distances in the primitive from the north or south points.

3d. Parallels of altitude are concentric to the primitive, and are described about the pole z with the half tangent of their distance from it: Thus the small circle, the diameter of which is ab, is a parallel of altitude

10° above the horizon, or at 80° distant form its pole z.

4th. The distance of the equinostial from the zenith is equal to the latitude of the place, and therefore this circle makes with the horizon an angle, which is measured by the complement of the latitude; then setting off from the center z in z xII continued, the tangent of 50° (the latitude in this example being 40°), it will give the center of the circle EAQ, representing the equinoctial; and the half tangent of 50°, set the same way from z, will give P, the pole of the world.

5th. The fix o'clock hour circle passes through the poles of the world, making with the horizon an angle equal to the measure of the latitude; therefore taking in the meridian, from z towards A, the tangent of the latitude 40°, it gives G, the center of the fix o'clock hour circle EPQ.

6th. The hour circles pass through the poles of the world, and make with one another angles of 15 degrees: Therefore (IV. 55) in a line DE, drawn through 6, at right angles to the meridian, set off on both sides of 6 the tangents 15°, 30°, 45°, 60°, 75°, to the radius PG, and they will give the centers of the several hour circles passing through P, cutting the

horizon and equinoctial in the hour points.

7th. The polar circles, tropics, and other circles of declination, are deferibed parallel to the equinoctial, about its pole P, at given distances from it, either by finding the centers of such parallels, as shewn in B. IV. 66; or by setting off on each side of z the half tangents of their greatest and least distances from z; then the middles of those intervals are the centers sought. Thus; the arctic circle is distant from P $23\frac{1}{2}$ °; then to, and from $2P = 50^{\circ}$, add and take $23\frac{1}{2}$ °; there remain $73\frac{1}{2}$ ° and $26\frac{1}{2}$ °; the half tangents of these set of from z give p and q; then a circle described on the diameter pq is the arctic circle.

In like manner will the centers of the tropic of Cancer e 55 c, and of

Capricorn d V3 d, be obtained.

8th. The northern portion of the ecliptic $\gamma \odot \Delta$ is described from a center distant from z towards P, the tangent of $73\frac{10}{2}$, $= \angle$ the ecliptic makes with the horizon. Digitized by Microsoft 8

9th. Cir-

10th. Circles of celestial latitude, VIII q IX, are described about p, as the circles of declination were described about P, the pole of the equinoctial.

137.

PROBLEM III.

To project the sphere upon the plane of the equator.

In this projection the eye is supposed to be in one of the poles of the equator, suppose in the south pole, and projecting the north hemisphere. Plate IV. Fig. 6.

1st. The equator is represented by the primitive circle, the center and

pole of which is p.

2d. The hour eircles are expressed by diameters making angles of 15° with one another; of which XII P XII is the meridian, or folfitial colure,

and VI P VI the 6 o'clock circle, or equinoctial colure.

3d. Circles of declination are circles parallel and concentric to the equator, described from its center with radii equal to the half tangents of their several distances from the pole P, or half co-tangents of their degrees of declination: Thus pq the arctic circle, and a = th tropic of Cancer, are described with the half tangents of $23\frac{1}{2}$ ° and $66\frac{1}{2}$ ° respectively; and to of the others.

4th. The ecliptic making an angle of $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ with the equator; the tangent of these degrees laid from P towards a will give the center for deferibing the ecliptic $\Upsilon = 1$, the pole of which p is in the polar circle.

5th. Circles of longitude are described through p, the pole of the ecliptic, in like manner as the hour circles were described through P, the pole of the equator in the last problem; and thus were the divisions &, II, IX, obtained.

6th. Circles of celestial latitude are projected in the same manner as the

circles of declination in the last problem.

7th. The horizon of any place, suppose of London, being inclined to the equator in an angle equal to the co-latitude, 38° 28'; the tangent of this laid from P towards S, and the half tangent laid from P to z, will give the center, and z the pole, of the horizon HOR.

8th. The prime vertical HZR making an angle with the equator equal to 51° 32′, the latitude of the place, its center is found by laving the tan-

gent of 51° 32' from P towards o.

9th. Azimuth circles, making given angles with the meridian zo, are thus described: In a line drawn through the center of the prime vertical, at right angles to the meridian, take distances from that center, equal to the tangents of the proposed azimuth angles, the semidiameter of the prime vertical being the radius, those distances give the centers sought; and thus was the azimuth circle zA described.

noth. Parallels of altitude are described about z, the pole of the horizon, at the distances of the co-altitudes, in the same manner as the circles of declination were described about p, the pole of the equator in the last problem; and thus was the small circle v b vii described at 10° distances.

tance from the horizon, or 80° distant from its pole z.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft B. PRO-

138. PROBLEM IV.

To project the sphere upon the plane of the ecliptic.

The eye is here supposed to be in one of the poles of the ecliptic, and thence viewing the northern hemisphere. Plate IV. Fig. 7.

1st. The ecliptic is here represented by the primitive circle, the center

of which p is its pole.

2d. Circles of longitude are here represented by diameters; those that make angles of 30° with one another, being drawn through the divisions marked with the signs of the zodiac.

3d. Parallels of celefial latitude are circles described about p, concentric to the ecliptic; such is the small circle, the diameter of which is ab,

representing the parallel of 10° of latitude.

4th. The equator making an angle with the ecliptic of $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$; therefore the tangent of this inclination laid from p towards \mathfrak{D} will give the center of the equator Υ XII \mathfrak{D} ; and the half tangent of $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ laid from p the same way, gives p for the pole of the equator.

5th. The equinottial colure, which here makes the fix o'clock circle, makes an angle with the ecliptic of $66\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$; therefore the tangent of $66\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ laid from p towards vp, gives the center of the 6 o'clock circle $\gamma P \simeq$.

6th. Hour circles passing through P, and making angles of 15° with one another, are described from centers, found in a right line passing through the center of Υ P $\stackrel{\triangle}{\sim}$, and drawn at right angles to the solfitial colure Υ P $\stackrel{\triangleright}{\sim}$; by laying off in that line the tangents of 15°, 30°, 45°, 60°, 75°, reckoned from the center of Υ P $\stackrel{\triangle}{\sim}$, on both sides, the semi-diameter of this circle being the radius. These hour circles cut the equator in the hour points.

7th. Parallels of declination, such as the tropic of Cancer, and the arctic circle, the diameters of which are 12, 12, and pq, are described by laying off from p the half tangents of their greatest and least distances: Thus q being distant from p 47°, makes $pq = \frac{1}{2}$ tangent of 47°, the middle of pq

will be the center of the polar circle.

8th. The horizon HOR is to make an angle with the ecliptic equal to the difference between the co-latitude and the obliquity of the ecliptic, when P is projected to the north of P; otherwise that angle is equal to the sum of those quantities. And for London, where the said difference = (38° 28′—23° 28′=) 15° 00′, the tangent of 15° 00′, gives the center of HOR, and the half tangent gives z the zenith.

9th. The prime vertical HZR is described by laying from p, towards o,

the co-tangent of pz for a center.

icth. Azimuth circles are described through z, making given angles with the meridian zo, by finding their centers in a line drawn through the center of HZR, in the manner described for the hour circles, Prob. II.

rith. Parallels of altitude are represented by describing small circles parallel to the horizon HOR, at given distances from it; or, which comes to the same, describing small circles about the pole z, at distances equal to the complements of the given altitudes: And thus the circle cdc was described for a parallel of 33° of altitude.

SECTION

SECTION V.

Problems of the Sphere.

PROBLEM V.

Pl. V.

Given the Sun's longitude, and the obliquity of the ecliptic; Required the Sun's right afcention and declination.

Exam. Let the obliquity of the ecliptic, or the Sun's greatest declination, be 23° 28', and the Sun's place 13° 16' in Taurus: Required the rest.

CONSTRUCTION.

In the primitive circle PESQ, representing the solstitial colure, the center of which is γ , draw a diameter EQ for the equator, and at right angles to EQ draw a diameter PS for the equinoctial colure: Make E $\approx 23^{\circ}$ 28%, and draw a diameter $\approx 7^{\circ}$ for the ecliptic, in which (IV. 71.) take $\gamma \approx 43^{\circ}$ 16% for the Sun's distance from the point γ : Through POs describe a circle of right ascension.

COMPUTATION. See Book IV. art. 130, 131.

In the right angled spheric triangle Y ⊕ B.

Given Sun's longitude $\gamma \odot = 43^{\circ} \cdot 16'$ Req. right afcen. γB . Obliquity of the Eclip. $\angle \odot \gamma B = 23 \cdot 28$ declin. BS.

To find the declination.

As Radius = R 10,00000

To f. Sun's lon. = 43° 16′ 9,83594
So f. ob. eclip. = 23 28 9,60012
To f. Sun's decl. = 15 50 9,43606

To t. rt. afcen. = 40 48 9,9362z

140. While the Sun is moving from γ to \mathfrak{B} , or is in the first quadrant of the ecliptic, the given longitude is the hypothenuse in the triangle $\gamma \mathfrak{D}_{\mathfrak{B}}$, the declination $\mathfrak{B} \mathfrak{D}$ is north, and γ B is the right ascension.

When the Sun has past the solftice \mathfrak{B} , and is descending towards \mathfrak{S} , he is then said to be in the second quadrant, and his longitude or distance from V being taken from 180° , the remainder \mathfrak{S} Obecomes the hypothenule, and the declination is still north; but the arc $\mathfrak{S} \cong$ found for the right ascension is only the supplement, and must therefore be taken from 180° .

The Sun having past the point \simeq , and descending towards v has got into the third quadrant; the longitude then, reckoned from v, will be greater than 180°: In this case the excess above 180°, or the distance the Sun is removed from \simeq , will be the hypothenuse \simeq ; the declination will be south; and the arc \simeq A, found for the right ascension, must be added to 180°, to give the right ascension estimated from v.

When the Sun has past the solftice γ_r , and is ascending towards γ_r , he is then in the sourch quadrant; therefore the longitude is greater than 270° , and must be taken from 360° , to give the hypothenuse $\simeq \odot$. Here the declination is south, and the right ascension $\simeq A$, found by the proportion, must be taken from 360° , to give the right ascension from γ_r .

At equal different from the equinoctial points Y or x, the Sun will have equal quantities of declination; but will be of different names, according as it is on the north or fouth fides of the equinoctial.

Pl. V.

141.

PROBLEM VI.

Given the obliquity of the ecliptic, and the Sun's declination; Required the Sun's longitude and right afcension.

Exam. The obliquity of the ecliptic, being 23° 28', what is the Sun's longisude and right afcension when he has 200 43' of north declination?

CONSTRUCTION.

Having described the solstitial colure, and drawn the equator EQ, the axis Ps, and the ecliptic 3 vp, as before; make En, Qn, equal to the given declination, and (3d 133) describe the parallel of declination nn, its interfection with the ecliptic gives of the Sun's place; through P, O, s, describe the circle of right ascension P @ s.

COMPUTATION.

In the right-angled spheric triangle $\gamma \odot B$.

Given the ob. eclip. \angle \bigcirc Υ $B = 23^{\circ} 28'$ \rceil Required Sun's long. Υ \bigcirc . OB = 20 43 5 the Sun's decl. rt. ascen. V B.

To find the Sun's longitude. To find the Sun's right afcention. 0,39988 As Radius As f. oblig. eclip. = 23° 28' 9.54869 To co-t.obl. eclip. =23° 28' 10,36239 Tofin Sun's decl. = 20 43 10,00000 So tan. Sun's dee. = 20 43 9,57772 So radius

9,94857 To fin. rt. ascen. =60 36 To fin. @ longit. =62 40

Therefore the Sun is in II 2° 40', or in \$ 27° 20', according as the time of the year is before or after the summer solflice.

PROBLEM VII. Pl. V. 142.

Given the obliquity of the ecliptic, and the Sun's right ascension; Required the Sun's longitude and declination.

Exam. When the Sun's right afcension is 60° 31', what is the longitude and present declination, the obliq. of the eclip. being 23° 28'?

CONSTRUCTION.

The folflitial colure, equator, axis, and ecliptic being described as before, make y B = given right afcention (4th 133), and describe the circle PBs, cutting the ecliptic in o the Sun's place.

COMPUTATION.

In the right-angled spheric triangle Y O B; the leg Y B and L O Y B being known, the hypoth. & O, and other leg OB, are found as in art. 137, 138. Book IV.

As Rad. ! co-f. ob. eclip. :: co-t. rt. As Rad. : tan. obl. eclip. :: fin. rt. [af.: co-t. (1) long.

As Rad.: co-f. 23° 25':: co-t. 60° 31'

As Rad.: tan. 23° 25':: fin. 60° 31' af. : tan. decl.

[: co-t. 62° 35'] [: tan. 20° 42'

Three other problems may be formed out of the four things concerned, or obliquity of the ecliptic, declination, longitude, and right afcension: But these being of little more importance than as an exercise for rightangled spheric triangles, they are therefore omitted. 143. PRO-

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

143.

PROBLEM VIII. Pl. V.

Given the latitude of the place, and the Sun's declination; Required the Sun's altitude and azimuth at 6 o'clock.

Exam. At London, in lat. 51° 32' N., on the longest day, when the Sun's declination is 23° 28': Required the Sun's altitude and azimuth at 6 o'clock in the morning or evening.

CONSTRUCTION.

Describe the meridian, draw the horizon HR, and prime vertical ZN; make RP=latitude 51° 32' N.; draw the 6 o'clock hour circle Ps, the equator EQ, the 23° 28' N. parallel of declination n m, cutting the 6 o'clock hour circle Ps in O; and through z, O, N, describe the azimuth circle z O N, cutting the horizon in A; then the things given and required fall in either of the triangles z O P or Y O A, they being supplemental triangles one to the other.

COMPUTATION. .

In the spheric triangle z O P, right-angled at P.

Given the co-latit. zp=38° 28' Required the co-altitude z O. the co-decl. OP=66 32 } the azimu Or in the spheric triangle V A O, right-angled at A. the azimuth \angle O zp.

Given the latit. A $\Upsilon \odot = 51^{\circ}$ 32' Required the altitude the decl. $\Upsilon \odot = 23$ 28 the co-azim A 0. the co-azimuth γ_A .

To find the altitude A O. To find the azimuth AR. As Radius 10,00000 As Radius 10,00000 = 23° 28' To co-f. lat. = 51° 32' To fin. decl. 9,60012 9,79383 9,89375 So tan. decl. = 23 28 So sin. lat. = 51 32 9,63761 To co-t. azim. = 74 53 To fin. alt. = 13 10 9,49387 9,43144

For the arc AR measures the \(\text{RZA} \), the azimuth.

(IV.9)

144. On the shortest day at London, the parallel of S. declination cuts the 6 o'clock hour circle below the horizon; and as the triangles YAO, Vao, are congruous, the depression below the horizon, on the shortest day at 6 o'clock, will be equal to the altitude at the fame hour on the longest day; and the azimuth will also be equal, if estimated from the fouth.

So that on the 21st of June, at London, the Sun will bear N. 74° 53' E. at 6 o'clock in the morning, and N. 74° 53' W. at 6 in the evening; but on the 21st of December, at the same hours, it will bear

S. 74° 53' E., and S. 74° 53' W.

From a due confideration of this Problem it is evident, that as the declination increases, the abiltude increases and the azimuth lessens; and the contrary happens while the declination is diminishing: So that on the days of the equinoxes, on which the Sun has no declination, the altitude at 6 o'clock will be nothing, or the Sun will be in the horizon; and the azimuth being then go degrees, the Sun will be due east in the morning, and well in the evening; that is, on the days of the equinoxes the Sun rises and fits at fix, in the east and west points of the horizon.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft & PRO-

Pl. V.

145.

Given the latitude of the place, and the Sun's declination: Required the altitude and hour when the Sun is due east or west.

Exam. At London, in latitude 51° 32' N., what is the Sun's altitude, and the hour when he is due east or west, on the longest day, or when the declination is 23° 28' N. ?

CONSTRUCTION.

 Describe the primitive circle to represent the meridian of London, draw the horizon HR, and the prime vertical ZN; make RP=51° 32', the given latitude, draw the 6 o'clock hour circle Ps, the equator EQ, the parallel of declination nm (3d 135), cutting the prime vertical in O, and through POs describe (11. 72) the hour circle POs, cutting the

Here the things concerned in the Problem fall in either of the triangles

PZO OF YAO.

COMPUTATION.

In the fpheric triangle PZO, right-angled at z.

Given the co-latit. $rz = 38^{\circ} 28'$ Required the co-altitude the co-decl. ro = 66 32 Required the hour fr. no 20 the hour fr. noon LZPO.

Or in the spherical triangle VAO, right angled at A.

Given the latit. $\angle A ? \odot = 51^{\circ} 32'$ Required the altitude the decl. $A \odot = 23 28$ Required the hour aft the hour after 6 YA.

To find the altitude YO. As f. lat. $\angle A$ y $\bigcirc = 51^{\circ}$ 32' 0,10525 As Radius = R 10,00000 So Radius $\equiv R$ 10,00000

To find the hour after 6. To fin. decl. A 0 = 23 28 9,60012 To co-t. lat. A V 0 = 51° 32' 9,90003 So tan. decl. A 0 = 23 28 9,63761

To fin. alt. γ Θ = 30 34 9,70637 To f. h. fr. 6. A γ = 20 11 9,53770

Which 20° 11' converted into time (132), gives 1 h. 20 m. 44 s. for the time after 6 in the morning, and before 6 in the evening, when the Sun will appear due east or west; which will be at 7 h. 20 m. 44 s. in the morning, and 4 h. 39 m. 16 s. in the afternoon.

Or, the compl. of 20° 11', viz. 69° 49' put into time, which gives 4 h. 39 m. 16 s., shews the time before and after noon, when the Sun

will be due cast or west.

146. This Problem worked for the shortest day, namely in the Δ γ a ⊙, which is congruous to $\gamma A \odot$, would give the Sun's depression at the time when he was east or west, which would be before 6 in the morning, and after 6 in the evening, by as much as was found above, viz.

1 h. 20 m. 44 s.

By this Problem it appears, that when the latitude of the place, and the Sun's declination, have the fame name, then, the greater the declination and latitude, the greater the altitude and time from 6: and having contrary names, the fame things happen; but with this difference, that in the former case the days lengthen on account of the increase of the latitude and declination; whereas in the latter case the days shorten on that account.

PROBLEM X.

Pl. V.

Given the latitude of a place and the Sun's declination; Required his amplitude and ascensional difference.

Exam. At London, lat. 51° 32' N. on the 21st of fune, being the longest day, when the Sun's declination is 23° 28' N. How far from the north does the Sun rise and set, at what time, and what is the length of the day and night?

CONSTRUCTION.

Let the primitive circle represent the meridian of the place, and the diameter HR the horizon; from R, the north point, take RP=51° 32′ for the latitude, draw the axis, or 6 o'clock hour circle PS, and at right angles to it draw the equator EQ; make En, $0m=23^{\circ}$ 28′, the declination, and (3d 135) describe the parallel of declination n m, cutting the horizon in \odot , the place of the Sun at its rising and setting; through which describe (II. 72) the hour-circle P \odot s.

COMPUTATION.

Now as the arc QR = co-latitude, measures the ∠QΥR.

In the spheric triangle Υ ⊙ A, right-angled at A.

Given Sun's decl. A ⊙ = 23° 28′ Required the amplitude Υ ⊙ co-latit: ∠AΥ ⊙ = 38 28 the ascen. diff. Υ A.

To find the amplitude v O.

As fin. $\Delta \gamma \odot$, co-1. $\equiv 38^{\circ}$ 28′ o, 20617 This 39° 48′ is the amplitude rection. decl. $\Delta \odot \simeq 23$ 28′ o,60012 koned from the eaft or west points of the horizon: But its complement 50° 12′ shews how far from the north the Sun rises or sets on the longest day at London.

To find the afcensional difference V A.

As Radius = 10,00000 Which 33° 07' converted into time To t. lat. $\angle P \Upsilon \odot = 51^{\circ} 32'$ 10,00991 (132) gives 2 h. 12 m. 28 s. for the 9.63761 time which the Sun rifes before, and fets after, the hour of fix on the longest day.

Suppose rs to be a parallel of declination as far fouth, as mn is north; then the hour circle pas, passing through \odot the place of the sun at its rising or setting, will form a triangle γ \odot $B = \Delta \gamma$ \odot A, where the amplitude is to the southward of the east and west points.

148. Hence it is evident, that when the latitude and declination have the fame name, the Sun rifes before, and fets after 6: But whent her are of contrary names, the Sun rifes after, and fets before 6.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® 49. And

149. And as the Sun describes the parallel of declination n m in 24 hours, being at n when it is noon, and at m when it is midnight; therefore the time in passing from m to ©, or the time of rising being doubled, gives the length of the night; and the time of setting being doubled, must give the length of the day.

Then to, and from Add and subtract the ascen. diff.	-	0 ^m	
Sum, gives o fetting	8	12	28
Diff. gives o rifing	3	47	32
Length of day is	16	24	56
Length of night is	7	35	04

But when it is the shortest day at London, which is, when the Sun has 23° 28' fouth declination; then the lengths of the day and night change places; the day being 7 h. 35 m. 04 s. long, and the night 16 h. 24 m. 56 s.

150. When the latitude and declination have the same name, the difference between the right ascension and the ascensional difference, is the oblique ascension; and their sum is the oblique descension.

But when they are of contrary names, their fum is the oblique ascension, and their difference is the oblique descension.

151. When the declination is equal to the co-latitude of any place (which can only happen to places within the polar circles), than the parallel of declination will not cut the horizon, and confequently the Sun will not fet in those places during the time his declination exceeds the co-latitude: And the same may be said of all those stars, the polar distance of which is less than the latitude of the place; or, which is the same thing, that have declinations less than the co-latitude, for those stars will never descend below the horizon of that place. But this is to be understood only when the Sun or stars are in the same hemisphere with the given place; for when the Sun or stars are in a contrary hemisphere to any place, the co-latitude of which does not exceed the declination of those celestial objects, then they will never rise above the horizon of that place, and confequently are never visible there.

OK 1.

in 2

PROBLEM XI.

Pl. V.

Given the latitude of a place, the Sun's declination and altitude; Required the hour from noon, and the Sun's azimuth.

Exam. In the latitude of 51° 32' N. the Sun's altitude was observed to be 46° 20', when his declination was 23° 28' N. What was the Sun's azimuth, and the hour when the observation was made?

CONSTRUCTION.

Let the primitive circle ZRNH represent the meridian of London, HR the horizon, ZN the prime vertical; make RP=51° 32′ the height of the pole at London; draw the axis PS, and the equator EQ; lay off the declination En, Qm, 23° 28′ N. the altitude Hr, RS, 46° 20′; and (IV. 68) defcribe the parallel of declination n m, and the parallel of altitude rs, cutting one another in \odot , the place of the Sun at that time; through Z, \odot , N, describe an azimuth circle Z \odot N, and through P, \odot , S, describe an hour circle P \odot S: Then the angles \odot ZP, \odot PZ, being measured (IV. 72), will give the azimuth and hour from noon required.

COMPUTATION.

In the oblique-angled spheric triangle P @ z.

Given the co-latitude - ZP=38° 28' Required the azim. $\angle \odot$ ZP the co-alt. or zen. dift. $\angle \odot$ =43 40 and the h. fr. noon $\angle \odot$ PZ. the co-dec. or pol. dift. \bigcirc P=66 32 See art. 167. Book IV.

To find the azimuth L @ ZP.

Then Co-ar. fin. co-lat. Here z = 43° 40' =38°28' 0,20617 Co-ar. fin. co-alt. · ZP=38 28 =43 40 0.16086 Sin. 1/2 sum co-decl. & D = 35 52 9,76782 Z → ZP = 5 12 = D Sin. 1 diff. co-decl. & D=30 40 9,70761 P(=66 32 The fum of the four logs. 2) 71 44 35° 52′ The 1/2 fum gives 56° 311/2 9,92123 61 20 30 40 - Which doubled, gives 113° 03' for the azimuth

fought, reckoning from the north.

To find the hour from noon, L @ PZ.

Here P = 660 32' Then Co-ar. fin. co-decl. =66° 32' 0,03749 PZ=38 28 Co-ar. fin. co-lat. = 38 28 0,20517 Sin. ½ fum co-alt. & p =35 52 9,76782 P - PZ=28 4=D Sin. ½ diff. co-alt. & D = 7 48 9,13263 @Z=43 40 The fum of the four logs. 19,14411 71 44 35° 52 The 1 fum gives 21° 55 9,57206

This doubled, gives 43° 50' for the measure of the hour from noon, which is 2 h. 55 m. 20 s.

Hence it appears, that the observation was made either at 9 h. 4 m. 40 s. in the morning, or at 2 h. 55 m. 20 s. in the afternoon.

The azimuth being first found, the hour from noon might have been found by the proportion between opposite sides and angles.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

Had

Had the declination and latitude been of contrary names, the same kind of operation would have been used to find the things required, only the side of p would have been obtuse; by adding the declinat to 90°, instead of subtracting it, as in the case of the lat. and decl. having like names.

PROBLEM XII.

Pl. V.

Given the latitude of the place, and the Sun's declination; Required the time when the twilight begins and ends.

Exam. At what time does the twilight begin and end at London, when the Sun's declination is 15° 12' N. the latitude of the place being 51° 32' N.

CONSTRUCTION.

Let the circle ZRNH represent the meridian of the place, HR the horizon, ZN the prime vertical, and ts the Crepusculum, or small circle parallel to the horizon described at 18 degrees below it (IV. 68); lay off the latitude RP, draw the axis PS, the equator EQ, and describe the parallel of declination nm, and where nm cuts ts in (), is the Sun's place at the time of the heginning or end of the twilight; through of describe (II. 72) the vertical circle ZON, and the hour circle POS; then the ZPO being measured (IV. 72) will give the time before or after noon as required.

COMPUTATION.

In the oblique-angled spheric triangle z @ P.

Given the co-lat. $zP = 38^{\circ} 28'$ Req. the hour from $noon = \angle zP \odot$ the polar dift. $P \odot = 74$ 48 The manner of folution is the the zenith dift. $z \odot = 108$ 00 fame as in laft Problem.

Then Co-ar. fin. polar dift. =74°48' 0,01547 Here P = 74° 48' Co-ar. fin. co-latit. PZ= 38 28 = 18 28 0,20617 Sine 1 fum. of zen. d. & D=72 10 9,97861 Sine \(\frac{1}{2}\) diff. of zen. d. & D = 35 50 9,76747 P7-PZ= 36 20=D ⊙==108 co The fum of these four logs. 19,96772 144 20 750 10 The half fum gives 74° 285 9,98386 71 40 35 50 Which doubled, gives 148° 57 for ZP ..

And 148° 57' reduced to time gives 9 h. 55 m. 48 s. either before or after noon; that is, the twilight begins at 2 h. 04 m. 12 s. in the morning, and ends at 9 h. 55 m. 48 s. in the evening on the given day, at London.

154. When the declination becomes greater than the difference between the co-latitude and 18 degrees, then the parallel of declination n m will not cut the parallel ts 18 degrees below the horizon, and confequently at that time there will be no night at that place, but the twilight will continue from Sun-fetting to Sun-tifing; and on this account it is, that from the 22d of May to the 21st of July nearly, there is no total darkness at London, the Sun's declination during that interval being greater than 20° 28′, which is the difference between 18° and 38° 28′, the complement of the latitude.

155. PRQ-

PROBLEM XIII.

Given the time of the year, the latitude of a place, and the altitude of a known fixed ftar;

Required the hour of the night when the observation was made.

Exam. Some time in the night, on the 1st of September 1780, suppose the flar Arcturus, the declination of which is 20° 30' N. should be observed at London to be 27 12' above the horizon: At what hour would the observation be made?

CONSTRUCTION.

Describe the meridian of the place, draw the horizon HR, the zenith and nadir of which are z and N, and describe the parallel of altitude rs at 27° 12' above the horizon; take P the north pole 51° 32' above the horizon for the latitude of the place, and s the fourth pole as much below the horizon; draw the equator EQ, and describe (3d135) the star's parallel of declination n m; and where this parallel n m cuts the former r s in #, is the position of the star at the time of observation; describe (II. 72) the vertical circle z * N, and the hour circle P * s, and the angle ZP * being measured (IV. 72) gives the hour from, or to, the time of the star's culminating.

COMPUTATION.

In the oblique-angled spheric triangle P * z.

Given the co-latitude PZ = 38° 28' Required \(\sim zp \times, or the hour the co-altitude z *= 62 48 the polar dist. * P = 69 30 \$ from culminating.

·		
	Then Co. ar. fin. co-lat. =38° 28	0,20617
PZ=38 28	Co. ar. fin. pol. dift. = 69 30	0,02841
	Sin. ½ sum zen. dist. & D=46 55	9,86354
FX-PZ=31 2=D	Sin. & diff. zen. dift. & D=15 53	9:43724
PX =62 48		7 137
	The fum of the four logs.	19,53536
93 50 450 55		
2)	The I fum gives 35° 51'	9,76768
31 46:5 53		-
Market Commission of the Commi	Which doubled, gives 71° 42'= LZP*	

This 71° 42' turned into time (132) gives 4 h. 46 m. 48 s. for the time which has elapfed fince the ftar was on the meridian.

Now, at the time of observation, September 1st, t The right ascension of Arctures was The right ascension of the sun at noon †	780 14 ^h	5 44	4.2" (133) 34
Time of culminating nearly And 2 th is to 3' 37' as 3h 21' is to	3	2 I	08
The flar fouths, or culminates at The time that the flar has passed the meridian	3 4	20	38 48
The fum is the hour of the night	8	07	26 P. M.

+ Alronomical tables at the end of Book V.

800

And whether to subtract or add will always be known by the star's being in the eastern part of the horizon, or ascending; or by being in the western part of the horizon, or descending.

156. PROBLEM XIV.

Pl. V.

Given the obliquity of the ecliptic, and a star's right ascension and declination;

Required its latitude and longitude.

Exam. What is the latitude and longitude of a star, its right ascension being 16 h. 14 m., its declination 25° 51' N., and the obliquity of the ecliptic 23° 28'?

CONSTRUCTION.

Let the primitive circle represent the solftitial colure, in which draw the equator Eq., mark its poles P, s, and describe (3d 135) the parallel of the star's declination n m.

The right afcension 16 h. 14 m. = 243° 30′, which being 63° 30′ above 180°, falls in the third quadrant; therefore make (IV. 75.) \(\sigma = 63° 30′, \) describe (4th 135) the circle of right ascension, cutting the parallel n m

in *, the point of the heavens representing the star.

Make $E\mathfrak{B}=23^{\circ}$ 28', the obliquity of the ecliptic, draw the ecliptic \mathfrak{S} VS, find its poles p, q, and through p, H, q describe a circle of longitude; then the arc p H measured (IV. 70) will give the co-latitude, and the $\angle PP H$ will show the longitude.

COMPUTATION.

In the oblique-angled spheric triangle pr *.

Given the obliq. ecliptic $pP = 23^{\circ} 28^{\circ}$ Required the co-lat. p *. the co-declination $P* = 64 \circ 9$ and the longit. $\angle PP *$. the right ascen. $\angle PP* = 243 \circ 30$ See art. 150, 151. B. IV.

To find the latitude.

As Radius = R	10,00000	As co-f. 4th arc=61° 34 0,32227
To co-s. rt. asc. =26° 30'	9,95179	To co-f. 5th arc=38 06 9,89594
So tan. co-decl.=64 09	10,31471	So sine decl. =25 51 9,63950
		Verning of the second
To tan, 4th arc = 61 34	10,26650	To fin. lat. =46 c6\frac{1}{2} 9.85771
Obl. eclipt. =23 28		
		Here the star's latitude is 46° 06½'N.
Fifth are = 38 06		because the declinat, is N., and greater
		because the declinaties N., and greater than the obliquity of the ecliptic.
		1 /

To find the longitude.

As fine 5th arc = 38° of o 20969 Here the longitude 144° 36' being 38° of o 20969 added to 90°, gives 234° 36' for the 9,69774 far's longitude, reckoning from the first point of Aries.

For the right ascension being in the third quadrant, the star is there also. Now in 234° 36′, are 7 signs 24° 36′; that is the star's place, or longitude is 24° 36′ in the 8th sign, or 24° 36′ in M.

By the precession of the equinoxes, the fixed stars, although they always keep the same latitudes, yet are continually altering their longitude,

right ascension, and declination; the alteration in longitude is uniformly 50 seconds and 3-10ths yearly (22), but that of the right ascension and declination is constantly varying: So that many stars, which once had north declination, come to have south; while others change from S. to N. declination.

157.

1 the

V.

PROBLEM XV.

Pl. V.

Given the right ascensions and declinations of two fixed stars; Required their distance.

Exam. What is the distance between the fixed stars, Betelguese in the east shoulder of Orion, and Aldebaran in Taurus; the former having 7°21' N. declinat. with 5 h. 43 m. 16 s. right ascension; and the other 16°03' N. declinat. with 4 h. 23 m. 20 s. of right ascension.

CONSTRUCTION.

As Aldebaran precedes Betelguese in right ascension, let the primitive circle represent the circle of right ascension passing through Betelguese; describe the circle of right ascension PAs, making with PBs an angle of 19° 59', (IV. 75) equal to the difference between the given right ascensions.

Describe the parallels of declination Bm, rs, at the given distances 16° 03' N. and 7° 21' N. (3d 133); and the intersections A, of Aldebaran's declination, and B, of Betelguese's, with their respective circles of right ascension, will be the positions of those stars from one another: Then draw a great circle BAC, through B and A, and the intercepted arc BA (meafured by art. 70. Book IV.) shews the distance of those two stars.

COMPUTATION.

(IV. 151)

In the oblique-angled spheric triangle PAB. Given the co-decl. of Ald.

PB=73° 57

n the co-decl. of Ald. PB=73° 57' the co-decl. of Betelguese PA=82 39 diff. of right ascen. ∠APB=19 39 Required their dist. AB.

Radius = 10,00000 | Co-f. 4th arc . 82° 11' 0,86645 | To co-f. diff rt. af. 19° 59 9,97303 | To co-f. 5th arc . 8 14 9,99550 | As co-t. Betelg. dec. 7 21 10,83944 | As fin. Betelg. dec. 7 21 9,10697

To tang. 4th arc 82 11 10,86247 To co-f. dift. 21 25 9,96892

Aldeb. co-dec. 73 57

158.

Remains 5th arc. 8 14

The fame refult would have come out, had the declination of Aldebaran been used in the proportions.

PROBLEM XVI. Pl. V.

Given the latitudes and longitudes of two known fixed stars; Required their distance.

Exam. Aliath, in the Great Bear, Lon. \$\mathbb{N}\$ 5° 49' Lat. 54° 18' N. Arcturus, in Bootes, Lon. \$\simes\$ 21 10 Lat. 30 54 N.

The conftruction of this Problem is like that of the last; only instead of circles of right ascension read circles of longitude, and use parallels of latitude instead of parallels of declination.

The

The computation is also like that of the last, there being given two colatitudes and the included angle, which is the difference between the given longitudes: Thus Arcturus's long. is 6° 21° 10′, and Aliath's is 5° 5° 49′; their difference is 1° 15° 21′, or 45° 21′.

Hence the distance will be found to be 39° 45'.

159.

PROBLEM XVII.

Pl. V.

Given the latitude and longitude of a fixed flar, and also the obliquity of the ecliptic;

Required the right afcension and declination of that star.

Exam. Suppose the latitude of a star is 7°09' N. its longitude Y 29°01': What is the right ascension and declination of that star, the obliquity of the ecliptic being 23°28'?

The conftruction of this Problem is much like that of Prob. XIV.; only-here the intersection of a parallel of latitude cb with a circle of longitude pag, will give the place of the star.

The computation is also as in Prob. XIV; for here are given $pp = 23^{\circ} 28'$, $pA = 82^{\circ} 51'$, and the $\angle PPA = 60^{\circ} 59'$, the longitude from the first point of \bigcirc , to find PA the co-declination, and $\angle PPA$ the right ascension.

The declination of the flar will be found to be 17° 49' N. (IV. 151) And the right ascension will be 24° 19'. (IV. 150)

160.

PROBLEM XVIII.

Pl. V.

Given the meridional altitude of any celestial object, suppose a comet, its distance from a known star, and the latitude of the place; Required the declination and right ascension of that comet.

Exam. Suppose a comet was observed on the meridian at London, when its altitude was 51° 55', and its distance from the star Arcturus was 59° 47': What was the declination and right ascension of the comet at that time?

CONSTRUCTION.

In the primitive circle, representing the meridian of the place, draw the horizon HR and prime vertical zn; lay off the given latitude RP=51°32′, draw the axis Ps, the equator EQ, and (3d x35) nm Arcturus's parallel of declination=20°21′. From the fouth point of the horizon lay off the given altitude of the comet=51°55′ from H to 0: About the point 0 as a pole, at the given distance between the comet and Arcturus, describe (IV. 68) a small circle a a cutting the parallel nm in *, the position of Arcturus at that time: Describe the circle of right ascension P * s, and a great circle through 0 and *.

COMPUTATION.

Since HE=38° 28', the co-lat. and the alt. HO=51° 55', then EO= (HO+HE=) 13° 27', is the decl. fought; which is north, as the altitude exceeds the co-lat.; confequently the polar distance or =76° 33'.

Then

Then in the triangle P*O are given the three fides to find the LOP*, the difference between the right ascensions of the comet and Arcturus. And (IV. 154) the LOP* will be found = 62° 24′ = 4h. 9 m. 36 s. which is the difference of their right ascensions: Now if Arcturus had passed the meridian, the right ascension of the comet was 18 h. 15 m. 16 s. but if Arcturus had not passed the meridian, the right ascension of the comet was 9 h. 56 m. 4 s.; it being, in the former case, equal to the sum, and in the latter to the diff. of Arcturus's right ascen. and the LOP*.

161. PROBLEM XIX. Fl.V.

Given the latitude of a place, the Sun's declination and Azimuth; Required his altitude and the time of the observation.

Exam. In the latitude of 13° 30' N. and when the Sun has 23° 28' N. declination: What is the Sun's altitude and time of the day, when he is feen on the ENE azimuth circle?

CONSTRUCTION.

Let the primitive circle represent the meridian of the place, in which HR represents the horizon, and zn the prime vertical; make RP equal to the latitude, draw the 6 o'clock hour circle PS, the equator EQ, and (3d 153) the parallel of 23° 28' of declination nm: The tangent of 67° 30' being laid from the center a towards H, gives the center of the vertical circle zdn, which cuts the parallel nm in the points A and B; and shews that at two distant times in the forenoon the Sun will have the azimuth proposed: Through the point A and B describe the hour circles PAS, PBS (II. 72); the angles zpa, zpb, shewing the times from noon, may be measured by art. 72. Book IV.; and the altitudes DA, DB, by art. 70. Book IV.

COMPUTATION. See art. 146. Book IV.

In the fpheric triangle PZA, or PZB, there are known,

The co-lat. Pz = 76° 30'; the co-decl. PA, or PB = 66° 32'; the azim, \(\text{PZD} = 67° 30'. \)

To find ZA, or ZB, and the ZZPA, or ZZPB.

As Radius: co-f. azimuth:: co-t. lat.: to tan. of a 4th arc $m = 57^{\circ}$ 54'. And as fin. lat.: fin. decl.:: co-f. M to co-f. of a 5th arc $n = 24^{\circ}$ 56'. Then $n_1 + n$, or 57° 54' + 24° 56' = 82° 50' = z.a, is the comp. of leaft alt. And n = n, or 57° 54' - 24° 56' = 32° 58' = z.s, is the comp. of the gr. alt. Therefore, when the Sun has 7° 10', or 57° 02', of alt. he is on the given azimuth.

Again, As co-f.dec.: fin.azim.:: co-f. least alt.: fin. hour fr. noon 87° 55'.

And as co-f.dec.: fin. azim.:: co-f. greater alt.: fin. h. fr. noon 33° 14'.

But 87° 55'=5h 51m 40h; and 33° 14'=2h 12m 56, the respect. times fr. noon.

Consequently the Sun will be seen on the ENE azimuth at 6h. 08m. 20s. and again at 9h. 47m 4s. both in the morning: Also, in the afternoon he will be on the WNW azimuth at 2h. 12m. 56 s. and at 5h. 51m 40s.

162. Now to find at what time, and at what altitude, the greatest azi-

muth will happen at that place on the faid day;

As the azimuth circle in this case is to touch the parallel n m, therefore the greatest distance of the azimuth from the equator will be 23° 28'; and as their poles must be at the same distance (1V. 23) therefore a small circle m described about the soles, at the distance of 23' 28 (1V. 66),

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

its interfection p with the horizon, is the pole of the circle zon; then describe an hour circle PCs through p.

Given the co-lat. Pz=76° 30', and the co-decl. pc=66° 32'.

Required the greatest azim. (Pzc=76° 27' 11').

Required the greatest azim. LPZC=70° 37', the dist. ZC=54° 08', and

the hour from noon = 56° 26' = 3 h. 45 m. 44 s.

So that the azimuth is altered only 3° 7' in 2 h. 6 m.; and confequently the variation of the compass may be observed with more certainty in the torrid zone than elsewhere.

PROBLEM XX. 163. Pl. XIV. Fig. 1.

In the latitude of 20° 00' N. stands a horizontal dial, the gnomon of which is perpendicular to the plane of the horizon: It is required to know at what hour in the afternoon on the longest day, the shadow of that gnomon shall stand fill; and how many degrees shall the shadow run back.

CONSTRUCTION. Let the circle ZRNH be the meridian of the place, MR the horizon, the poles of which are z, N; RP=20°, the latitude P and s the north and fouth poles: About P describe the tropic of Cancer aa, cutting the horizon in L; about s, a small circle being described at the dist. of 23° 28', the complement of the dist. of aa from P, its intersection p with the horizon, is the pole of the azimuth circle which will touch the parallel aa in O, the place of the Sun when he has the greatest azimuth that day: Through z, O, N, describe a vertical circle cutting the horizon in K; and through o and L describe the hour circles POs, PLS.

Then will the ZZP O be equivalent to the hour when the shadow will stand still; and ki, the difference between the measures of the azimuth

and amplitude, will shew how much the shadow will run back.

COMPUTATION. In the right-an-| In rt. angl. spheric triangle Poz. gled fpheric triangle PRL. Given 40 = 90° 00' = zP = 70 00Given ∠R = 90°00' co-lat. co-dec. = RP = 20 00 $= P \odot = 66 32$ $= PL = \frac{66 \ 3^2}{\text{Required hour}} \times \mathbb{R} = \frac{66 \ 3^2}{\text{Required hour}} \times \mathbb{R} = \frac{28}{33} \times \frac{66}{32}$ co-decl. = RL = 64 56azim. =∠⊙zP = 77 28 Requir. ampl.

Then 33° 02=2 h. 12 m. 08 s.: And 77° 28'-64° 56'=12° 32'. So that the shadow will stand still at 2 h. 12 m. 08 s. and will run back 12° 32'.

PROBLEM XXI. Pl. XIV. Fig. 2, 164.

A comet, the declination of which was 47° 00' N. was observed to be distant from a flar, to the eastward of it, 49° 00'; the star's declination was 36° 00' N. and its right ascension 45° 00': What was the latitude and longitude of that comet?

CONSTRUCTION.

On the plane of the folflitial colure, where P and E are the poles of the equator and ecliptic, put the star at A by its right ascension and declination: About P and A describe small circles, at the distances of the comet from those points, their intersection @ gives the place of the comet; defcribe great circles through A O, PO, EO, then EO will be the co-latitude, and ∠PE ⊙ the co-longitude; and their measures may be obtained from articles 70 and 72 of Book IV.

COMPU-

ty

COMPUTATION. In the triangle! APD.

Given the *'s co-dec. PA = 54° 00' comet's co-dec. P == 43 00 their distance A = 49 00

In the triangle EP . Given comet's co-decl. P 3=43°00' obliq. of ecliptic PE=23 28 comet's rt. af. ∠EP = =69 12

Reg.com.rt.af.fr. * LAP = 65 48 Then 65° 48'-45° 00=20° 48'. Andgo 00 -20 48 = 69 12 = PE V 6 18 for the long. required.

Req. comet's co-lat. E = 39 54 and co-longit. \ PE@=83 42 Which being taken from 90°, leaves

PROBLEM XXII.

At London, on the 10th of December 1780, at what time of the night will the stars Aldevaran and Rigel be on the same azimuth circle?

Aldeb. decl. = 16° 03' N.; right asc. = 4 h. 23 m. 19 s. Rigel's decl. =8° 28′ S.; right afc.=5 h. 03 m. 58 s.

Their difference of right ascensions is 40 m. 39 s. or 10° 10'.

Construction. On the plane of the equinoctial put Aldebaran at A, and Rigel at B, by their right ascensions and declinations, then a great circle through B and A will be the azimuth they are on at the time fought; and the parallel of London's lat. described about P, will cut the azimuth circle BA in zz the zenith, through which draw the meridians Pz, Pz.

Here the nearest intersection to the stars is taken for the zenith, for as the stars are both above the horizon, the greatest zenith distance is less than 90 degrees.

COMPUTATION. In the A APB. Given B's co-decl. A's co-decl. PA = 73 57

In the triangle APZ. PB = 98° 28' Given A's co-decl. PA=73° 57' the co-lat. PZ=38 28 diff. rt. afc. $\angle APB = 10 10$ | the fuppl. of BAP or $\angle PAZ = 23 02$

∠BAP=156 58 | Req. ∠APZ = 142° 35', or = 24 or Required the

Now the star Aldebaran comes to the meridian at 11h. 8 m. 27 s. in the evening; which leffened by I h. 36 m. 4 s. (24° 01') gives 9 h. 32 m. 23 s. for the time in the evening when those stars will be on the same azimuth.

166. PROBLEM XXIII. Pl. XIV. Fig. 4.

At what time in the evening will the stars Betelguese and Pollux have one common altitude above the horizon of London, on the 10th of December 1780?

Betelguese right ascen. = 5 h. 43 m. 16 s.; decl. = 7° 21' N. Pollux right afcen. = 7 h. 31m. 51 s.; decl. = 28° 32' N.

Their difference of right ascension is 1 h. 48 m. 35 s. =27° 09'.

Construction. On a primitive circle, where any point P represents the pole of the equinoctial, put the star Pollux at B, and Betelguese at A, by their declination and difference of right afcentions; through A, B, deferibe a great circle; through c, the middle of AB, deferibe a great circle at right angles to AB, and cutting PA in D; then a small circle described about P, at the distance of 38° 28', the co-lat. will cut the circle co in z the zenith.

For the stars A and B having a common altitude, are equally distant

from z.

COMPUTATION. In the triangle	ABB	Paris L
		* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *
Given A's co-decl. PA = 82° 39'	Required the ZBAP	= 47°01'
B's co-decl. PB =61 28	AB	= 33 14
B's co-decl. PB =61 28 diff. rt. asc. ∠ APB=27 09	Its half AC	= 16 37
In the triangle ACD.	4 500	
Given the $\angle c = 90^{\circ} 00'$	7 Required the ∠D	= 45° 30′
∠A =47 OI	AD	= 23 38
AC = 16 37	Theref. PA—AD=PD	= 59 01
In the triangle PDZ.		en of
Given the co-lat. Pz=38° 28'	Required / ZZPD	= 48° 56
PD=59 01	Required / ZPD Or it is	$= 75^{\circ}46$
∠PDZ=45 30)	

Now the star Betelguese comes to the meridian at 12h. 28 m. 8 s. that is between twelve and one o'clock in the morning (133); from which take 3 h. 15 m. 44 s. as the stars are to the east of the meridian, and it leaves 9 h. 12 m. 24 s. in the evening, for the time when those stars have the same altitude.

167. PROBLEM XXIV. Pl. XIV. Fig. 5.

Wanting to know the latitude and longitude of a comet C, its distance from two known stars A and B were observed, and are as follows:

A's lat. =49° 12' N. Lon. = 16° 39' \(\pm\$; distance from C=49° 05'.\)
B's lat. = 30 05 N. Lon. = 2 48 II; distance from C=45 57.

Hence the place of the comet C is required.

Construction. On the plane of the folfitial coloure, where E is the pole of the ccliptic, put the stars A and B by their latitudes and longitudes, and describe a great circle through A and B; then small circles described about A and B as poles, at the respective distances of the comet, their intersection c will give its place; describe great circles through A, C; B, C; and E c will be the co-latitude, and from ∠AEC will be obtained the longitude.

	. In the △ ABE.		ngle ABC.
Given A's co-lat.	. AE=40° 48'	Given the distance	AB= 59° 01'
	BE=59 55		AC= 49 05
diff, longit.	∠AEB=76 09	distance	BC = 45 57
			See Annual Control of the Control of
Required	AB=59 01		∠BAC = 56 27
and /	EAR -78 21	Then / FAR + / BAC-	-/ E/AC - 12/0 58

and ZEAB = 78 31 Then ZEAB + ZBAC = ZBAC = 134°58

In the triangle CEA.

Given A's co-lat. AE = $40^{\circ}48'$ Required the co-lat. EC = $81^{\circ}33'$ diffance AC = $49^{\circ}05$ diff. long. AEC = $32^{\circ}43$ and the \angle EAC = $134^{\circ}58$ Hence lat. is $8^{\circ}27'$ N.lon. $19^{\circ}22'$ in γ

168. PROBLEM XXV. Pl. XIV. Fig. 6.

The distance of the star c being observed from two stars A and B, the latitude and distance of which are known, and also the longitude of one of them; thence to find the lat. and long. of c.

Suppose A's lat. to be 5° 30′ N.; its dist. from $c=39^{\circ}$ 40′: B's lat. 9° 57′ N. its long. Taurus, 18° 16′, and dist. from c 10° $7\frac{1}{2}$ ′: And the distance of AB 44° 43′: Required the long. and lat. of c.

Con-

CONSTRUCTION. On a circle of longitude, where E is the pole of the ecliptic, put the star B by its lat.; about the points B and E describe circles at the distances of A from those points, their intersection gives the place of A: also circles described from A and B, at the distances of c respectively from them, their intersection is the place of c: Then describe the great circles EA, EC; AC, AB; BC; and EC will be the co-lat. and ∠ BEC the longitude, of c from B.

COMPUTATION. In the A AEB AE=84° 30' Given A's co-lat. B's co-lat. BE=80 03 the distance AB = 44 + 43

In the triangle ABC. Given the distance $AB = 44^{\circ} 43'$ distance AC=39 40 distance BC=10 075

∠ABE=92 14 | Required the Required the ∠ABC=55 22 In the triangle BEC. Given B's co-lat.

he distance $BE = 80^{\circ} 03'$ Required c's co-lat. $CE = 72^{\circ} 01'$ c's lon. fr. B, $\angle BEC = 6$ 22 (LABE - LABC =) LCBE = 36 52) And its absolute long. & 11 54

169. PROBLEM XXVI. Pl. XIV. Fig. 7.

From the altitudes of two known fixed stars, and the altitude of a planet when in the same azimuth with one of these stars; to find the place of the planet. Example. Observed the Moon and Cor Leonis in the same azimuth,

when the Moon's zenith diftance was 36° 37'.

Cor Leonis's zen. dift. = 45° 00'; decl. 13° 02' N.; rt. af. 9h 56m 39s. Cor Hydra's zen. dist. = 49 16; decl. 7-43 S.; rt. as. 9h 16m 47.

CONSTRUCTION. On the plane of the equinoctial, the pole of which is P, draw the colures, and in the folfitial, take E for the pole of the ecliptic; put the given stars at B and A by their declinations and right ascensions: About B and A as poles, with their respective zenith distances, describe circles cutting in z the zenith; through z and B describe an azimuth circle, and making z D equal to the D's zenith distance, it gives her place: Then describe the great circles ZA, AB, ED; and the arc ED will be the co-latitude, and ZPED the longitude from the first point of 95.

Computation. In the A APP. Given A's co-decl. PA=97° 43' Given A's zen. dist. ZA=49° 16' B's co decl. PB = 76 58 diff. rt. af. LBPA = 9 58

In the triangle AZB. B's zen. dift. ZB=4.5 00 the fide AB=22 591

∠ABP=153 57½ Required the Required the the fide AB = 22 $59\frac{1}{2}$

∠ABZ=89 38€ Then $\angle ABP - ABZ = \angle ZBP =$ 64° 19'= L DBP.

In the triangle BDP. Given B's co-decl. BP=76° 58' (BZ-ZD=) fide BD=823∠PBD=64 19

In the triangle P D E. Given obl. of eclip. PE = 23° 28' D's co-decl. PD = $73 \ 26\frac{1}{5}$ D's co-rt. af. \(EP) = 128 43

Requ. D's co-decl. pD = 73 $26\frac{1}{2}$ Requir. D's co-lat. DE = 88 ν 's rt. af. fr B, \angle BP ν = 7 53 Then 90° + L APB + LEPD = And its absolute long. is & 18 25

D's lon. fr. 90, LPED = 48 25

ZEPD = 128° 43° Calif - Digitized by Microsoff ECTION Vol. I.

SECTION VI.

Of various methods to find the Latitude.

The usual way at sea to find the latitude is from the Sun's meridional altitude and declination; the manner of doing this will be particularly shewn in Book IX. But as it frequently happens at sea, that the meridian altitude cannot be taken, therefore the mariner should be surnished with other means to come at the knowledge of this most useful article. To help him in this point, and as a farther exercise in the Astronomy of the Sphere, the following problems are collected together.

170.

PROBLEM XXVII.

Pl. V.

Given the Sun's declination and his amplitude;

Required the latitude of the place.

Exam. Being in a place where the compass had no variation, on a day when the Sun's declination was 15° 12' N., I observed him to rise 62° 30' from the north towards the east: Required the latitude of that place.

CONSTRUCTION.

Having described the primitive circle, drawn the horizon HR, and (IV. 71) taken Ro=62° 30'; then about 0 as a pole describe (IV. 66) a small circle, at the distance of 74° 48'=co-decl., cutting the primitive in P, the place of the north pole: Draw the axis Ps, the equator EQ, and the circle Pos, cutting the equator in A.

COMPUTATION.

In the spheric triangle YOA right angled at A.

Given the co-amp. $\Upsilon 0 = 27^{\circ} 30'$ Then $f. \Upsilon 0 : rad. :: f. A0 : f. \angle A \Upsilon 0$.

the declin. A 0 = 15 12

Required the co-latitude $A\Upsilon 0$.

Then $f. \Upsilon 0 : rad. :: f. A0 : f. \angle A \Upsilon 0$.

Hence the latitude will be 55°

24' N.

171.

PROBLEM XXVIII.

Pl. V.

Given the Sun's declination, and his afcentional difference;

Required the latitude of the place.

Exam. When the Sun had 20° of declination S., he was observed to

fet at 4 h. 30 m.: Required the latitude of the place.

As the alcentional difference is the time that the Sun rifes or fets before or after 6 o'clock; therefore 6 h.—4 h. 30 m.=1 h. 30 m.=22°

30/= ascensional difference.

Construction. In the primitive circle representing the meridian of the place, draw the equator Eq. the axis Ps, the parallel of declination r_0 , 20° of S.: Make γ B=22° 30′, the ascensional difference; describe the circle of right ascension PBs, cutting r_0 in 0; then a diameter HR through 0 will be the horizon, and RP the lat. sought.

Computation. In the spheric triangle \gamma Bo, right angled at B.

Given the asc. diff. \gamma B=22° 30' Then rad.:cot.ob::s. \gamma B:cot. \to \gamma B.

Or rad.:cot.dec.::fin.as.diff.:tan.lat.

Hence the lat. will be 46° 25' N.,

being contrary to the decl. when the afe. diff. falls between noon and fix.

172. PROBLEM XXIX.

PI. V.

Given the Sun's declination, and altitude at fix o'clock; Required the latitude of the place.

Exam. Being at fea, on a day when the Sun's declination was 20°04' No. his altitude at fix o'clock in the evening was 18°45': What was the latitude of the place of observation?

Construction. Having described the meridian, drawn the horizon HR, the prime vertical zn, and the parallel st of $18^{\circ}45'$ of altitude; from the center γ , with the half tangent of the declination = $20^{\circ}04'$, cut the parallel st in 0: Through o draw the axis PS, and the azimuth circle zon (II. 72), and the measure of RP will give the latitude sought.

COMPUTATION. In the fpheric triangle ΥΑΘ, right-angled at A. Given the decl. γο = 20° 04' N. [Then fin. γο : rad. :: f. Αο : f. ∠ογΑ.

the altit. Ao = 18 45

Required the lat. $= \angle o \Upsilon A$ Which is 69° 32'N., as the decl. is N.

173. PROBLEM XXX. Pl. V.

Given the Sun's declination, and his altitude when due east or west; Required the latitude of the place.

Exam. In a place where the compass had no variation, the Sun was obferved to be due east when his declination was 16° 38' N., and his altitude 20° 12': What is the latitude of that place?

Construction. In the meridian HZRN, draw the horizon HR, the prime vertical zN, and make γ on the half tan. of the alt. 20° 12′: About of as a pole, at the diffance of 73° 22′, the co-decl., defcribe (IV. 66) a finall circle, cutting the meridian in P the elevated pole; draw the axis PS, equator EQ, and through P, o, s, defcribe an hour circle POS; then the measure of PR shows the latitude.

COMPUTATION. In the spheric triangle γ A o, right-angled at A. Given the alt. γ o=20° 12′ | Then fin. γ o: rad. :: fin. Ao: fin. Δ A γ os the decl. Ao=16 38 N. Or fin. alt. : rad. :: fin. deel. : fin. lat.

Required the latit, $\pm \angle AV$ o. Which is 56° 00′ N., as the decl. is N.

But had the declination been S., the other interfection of the parallel circle and meridian must have been taken for the elevated pole, and the latitude would be fouth.

PROBLEM XXXI. Pl. V.

Given the Sun's altitude and the hour of the day on either equinox; Required the latitude of the place.

Exam. On the day the Sun entered the wornal equinox, his alt. was found to 56' at 90' clock in the morning. In what lat, was that observation made?

Construction. Describe the meridian, draw the horizon, the prime vertical, and (IV. 68) the parallel st of 22° 56' of altitude; from the center or, with the half tan. of 45°=3h., the time from 6 o'clock, cut st in o, and describe the vertical circle zon, cutting the horizon in B.

Computation. In the spheric triangle y's o, right-angled at P.

Given the time after $6.\%0 = 45^{\circ} \cos'(As f.\% o: rad. :: f. ro: f. \angle f.\%o. the altitude <math>Bo = 22.56$ Or f. time $1.6: rad. :: f. alt. : co-f. l. Which <math>16.56^{\circ} 34'$.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft @ PRO-

PROBLEM XXXII.

Pl. V.

Given the Sun's altitude, declination and azimuth; Required the latitude of the place.

Exam. Being at sea in a place where the compass had no variation, in the afternoon when the Sun was 42° 30' high, his bearing was S. 57° 45' W. and his declination 22° 30' N.: What is the latitude of that place?

Construction. Draw the meridian, the horizon HR, the prime vertical zn, and the parallel stat 42° 30' above the horizon (IV. 68): The tangent of 57° 45' fet from A towards R gives the center of the azimuth circle zon, cutting the parallel of altitude st in 0: About 0 as a pole (IV. 66), at the distance of 67° 30', equal to the co-declination, describe a small circle, cutting the meridian in P, the place of the pole; then the measure of RP gives the latitude sought.

COMPUTATION. In the oblique-angled spheric triangle zor.

Given the zenith dist. zo = 47° 30′ the polar dist. Po = 67 30 the azimuth \(\neq \text{Pzo} = 122 \) 15 Required the co-latitude PZ.

As rad. = R 10,00000 As fin. alt. = 42° 30′ 0,17032

To co-f. azim. = 122° 15′ 9,72723
So co-f. alt. = 22 30 9,58284
So co-f. alt. = 42 30 10,03795
So co-f. 4th. = 30 13 9,93658

To tan. 4th. = 30 13 9,76518 To co-f. 5th. = 60 42 9,68974

Then the difference between the 5th and 4th arcs, that is 30° 13' taken from 60° 42', the remainder 30° 29' is the co-lat. Therefore 59° 31' N. is the latitude fought.

176.

PROBLEM XXXIII.

Pl. V.

Given the Sun's declination, his altitude and the hour of the day; Required the latitude of the place.

Exam. Being at sea, the Sun's altitude was observed to be 37° 20' at 9 h. 45 m. in the morning, his declination at that time being 22° 30' N.: What is the latitude of the place of observation?

Construction. In the meridian PESQ, draw the equator EQ, axis rs, and parallel of declin. n m, 22° 30′ dift. from the equator (3d 135). Set off from the center A towards Q the tang. of 33° 45′=2 h. 15 m., the distance between the time of observation and noon, which gives the center of the hour circle Pos, cutting the parallel n m in 0: about the point of as a pole, describe (IV. 65) at the dist. of 52° 40′, the zen. dist., a small circle, cutting the meridian in z the zenith; through z o describe an azimuth circle zon; then the measure of ze will give the lat. sought.

COMPUTATION. In the oblique-angled triangle ZOP.

Given the zenith distance zo =52°40′ the polar distance po =67 30 Required the co-lat. zr. the hour from noon \(\text{ZPO} = 33 \) 45

As rad.: co-f. hour A. M.:: co-t. decl.: tan. 4th arc = 63°31'.

As fin. decl.: fin. alt.:: co-f. 4th arc: co-f. 5th arc = 45 02.

Their difference is the co-latitude 18° 29'. Therefore the lat. is 71° 31'N.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® 377. PRO-

 V_{i}

V

ę

PROBLEM XXXIV.

Pl. V.

Given the altitude of one of two known fixed stars, when they have the fame azimuth;

Required the latitude of the place.

Exam. Being at fea in an unknown latitude, I observed the star Schedar in Cassiopeia, and Almaach in Andromeda, to have the sume azimuth, when the altitude of Schedar was 37° 15': What is the latitude of that place?

Construction. Let the primitive circle represent the equator, the pole of which is P, and any point Υ the place where the right ascension begins, from whence lay off $\Upsilon a = 27^{\circ}$ 37' for Almaach's right ascension, and $\Upsilon b = 7^{\circ}$ 2' for Schedar's; draw the circles of right ascension Pa, Pb: Describe (3d 137) Almaach's and Schedar's parallels of declination, cutting Pa, Pb, in A, B; A being Almaach, and B Schedar. A great circle passing through A and B (IV. 61) will be the azimuth they are on. About B at the distance of 52° 45', Schedar's zenith distance, describe (IV. 66) a small circle, cutting the said azimuth circle in z, the zenith of the place; draw Pz, which measured on the half tangents gives the co-latitude of the place of observation.

COMPUTATION.

Ist. In the oblique-angled spheric triangle ABP.

Given Almaach's co-dec. PA=48° 44′ Required the angle of posi-Schedar's co-dec. PB=34 40′ tion ABP.

their diff. of r. asc. \angle APB 20 33 For the solution, see IV. 165.

As rad. 90° 00′ 10,00000 As fin. 5th arc 12° 11′ 0,67563
To co-f. ∠ APB 20 35 9,97135 of fin. 4th arc 46 51 9,86306
So is tan. AP 48 44 10,05676 So is tan. ∠ APB 20 35 9,57466

To tan. 4th arc 46 51 10,02811 To tan. & B 52 23 10,11335
The fide BP 34 40

The 5th arc 12 11

2d. In the oblique spheric triangle PBZ.

Given Schedar's co-dec. PB = 34° 40' | Required the co-lat. Pz. Schedar's co-alt. Bz = 52 45 | For the folution, fee IV. 165.

angle of position PBZ = 52 23 Here ∠ PBZ=sup. ∠ PBA.

To tan. 4th arc = 22 53 9,62544 Which taken from 52 45=Bz To fin. latit. = 50 44 9,88883

Leaves 5th arc 29 52

PROBLEM XXXV.

Pl. V.

Given the difference of time between the rifing of two known stars; Required the latitude of the place.

Exam. Being at sea in an unknown place, the star Aldebaran was obferved to rise 3 h. 15 m. later than the bright star in Aries: Required the latitude of that place.

Bright star in γ decl. 22° 25' N.; right ascen. 1 h. 54 m. 49 s. Aldebaran's decl. 16° 03' N.; right ascension 4 h. 23 m. 19 s.

CONSTRUCTION.

Let the primitive circle represent the equator, describe (3d 137) the parallels of declination of the two stars, that of Aries being $22^{\circ} 25' N$, and of Aldebaran $16^{\circ} 03' N$.: Draw Pa for the circle of right ascension passing through the star in Υ , which suppose in A: From a lay off ab, $=37^{\circ} 7\frac{1}{2}'=$ diff. of right ascensions; and $ac=48^{\circ} 45'=3 \, \text{h}$. 15 m., the diff. of time between their rising; draw bP, cP, cutting the parallels of declination in B, C: Through the points B, C, describe (IV. 61) the great circle HOR; draw PO at right-angles to HR; then the measure of PO will give the latitude sought.

COMPUTATION.

In the oblique-angled spheric triangle PBC.

Given B's co-decl. PB=73°57' Rad.:co-f. \(\neg \) BPC::t. PB:t.M=73°38'.

A's co-decl. PC = 67 35 $\angle APC - \angle APB = \angle BPC = 11$ 37½
Required the angle PCB.

From M take PC, leaves N = 6 03′.

As fin. N : f. M :: tan. $\angle CPB$: t. $\angle C = R$

In the spheric triangle PCO, right-angled at o.

Given c's co-decl. $PC = 67^{\circ} 35'$ | As rad.: fin. PC:: fin. $\angle PCO$: fin. and the $\angle PCO = 61$ 54 | PC | P

PROBLEM XXXVI. Pl. V.

Two known fixed flars being observed to have the same altitude; Required the latitude of the place of observation.

Exam. In the evening, the flars Capella and Procyon were observed at the same time to have each 38° 00' of altitude: Required the latitude of the place where that observation was taken.

Capella's decl. = 45° 45′ N. right afcen. 5 h. 0 m. 28 s. Procyon's decl. = 5° 47′ N. right afcen. = 7 h. 27 m. 48 s.

CONSTRUCTION.

On the plane of the equator, represented by the primitive circle, defcribe (3d 137) the parallels of the given declinations; take $ab = 36^{\circ}$ 50', the diff. of the given right ascensions; draw Pa, Pb, then A represents

Procyon, and B Capella.

About A and B as poles, describe (IV. 66) arcs of small circles, at the distance of 52°, the co-altitude, and their intersection gives z the zenith of the place: Through the points A, B; z, A; z, B; describe great circles (IV. 61) and draw zp, the measure of which will give the co-latitude of the place of observation. Gitzed by Microsoft B

COMPE-

V.

COMPUTATION.

In the oblique angled spheric triangle APB.

Given A's co-decl. AP=84° 13' Rad.: cof. ∠P::t.BP:t. M=37° 57 BP=44 15 | And M tak. fr. PA leaves N=46 16 в's co-decl.

diff. rt. asc. ∠APB=36 50 Sin. N: fin. M:: tan. ∠P: tan. ∠BAP Required the stars distance AB. $[=32^{\circ}31$

And the angle BAP. Cof.M:cof.N::cof.BP:cof.BA=51 06

In the oblique angled spheric triangle AZB.

Given a's co-alt. ZA=52°00' The angle BAZ will be found=

68° 04'. B's co-alt. ZB=52 00

ftars diftance AB=51 06 Then LBAZ-LBAP=LPAZ= 35° 33'. Required the angle ZAB.

In the fpheric triangle AZP.

Given a's co-alt. $z_A = 52^{\circ} 00'$ Rad.: cof. $\angle A$:: t. z_A : t. $M = 47^{\circ} 29'$ A's co-declin. AP= $84 ext{ 13}$ M taken from PA leaves N= $36 ext{ 44}$ the angle ZAP=35 30 Cof.M:cof.N::cof.ZA:cof.PZ=43 cof

Therefore the latitude is 46° 54' N. Required the co-lat. ZP.

180.

PROBLEM XXXVII.

Pl. V.

Given the altitudes of two known stars;

Required the latitude of the place.

Exam. The altitude of the Hydra's heart was observed to be 40° 44', and of the Lion's heart 45° 00': What is the latitude of the place of observation?

Hydra's heart, decl = 7° 43' S.; right ascen. = 9 h. 16 m. 47 s. Lion's heart, decl. = 13° 02' N.; right afcen. 9 h. 56 m. 39f.

CONSTRUCTION.

If this problem is constructed on the plane of the equator, it will be in every respect like the last; only the small circles, described about A and B, are to be unequally diffant from their respective poles A, B.

COMPUTATION.

Here, as in the last, there will be three spheric triangles to work in; namely, the triangles APB, ZAB, and ZPB.

In the triangle ABB, where AP=97° 43', BP=76° 58', ABB=

9° 58'.

As rad.: cof. \angle APB:: tan. BP: tan. M=76° 46'\frac{1}{2}. Then AP-M=11 =20° 57' ..

As fin. N: fin. M:: tan. LAPB: tan. LBAP=25° 34'. And as cof. M: cof. N:: cof. BP: cof. BA = 22 59.

In the triangle BAZ, where AZ=49° 16', BZ=45° 00', AB=22° 59'.

The angle BAZ will be found equal to 68° 56'. Then LBAZ-LBAP=LPAZ=+3° 22'.

In the triangle APZ, where AP = $97^{\circ}43$, AZ = $49^{\circ}16'$, APAZ = $43^{\circ}22'$. As rad.: cof. ZPAZ:: tan. AZ: tan. M=40 10. Then AP-M= N = 57 33'.

And as cof. M : cof. N : : cof. Az : cof. Pz = 62 39'.

Hence the latitude fought is 27° 15 N.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft & PRG.

PROBLEM XXXVIII.

Pl. V.

80

Given the Sun's declination, two altitudes, and the time between the observations;

Required the latitude of the place.

Exam. On a day when the Sun's declination was 20° 00' N., in the forenoon the Sun's altitude was observed to be 18° 30', and 3 hours after, his altitude was 44° 00': What was the latitude of the place?

CONSTRUCTION.

Let the primitive circle represent that hour circle on which the Sun was at the first observation, EQ being the equator, then Aa, the parallel of 20° of declination, gives A the Sun's place at first; and as co is the tangent of 45°, o will be the center of the hour circle PBs three hours distant from the former, its intersection B with the parallel of declination, is the Sun's place at the fecond observation: About A as a pole, at the distance of 71° 30', the first zenith distance, describe (IV. 66) a small circle; about B, as a pole, at the distance of 46° 00', the second zenith distance, describe (IV. 66) another small circle, cutting the former in z the zenith: Through z, A; z, B; A, B; P, z; describe (IV. 61) great circles; then PZ is the co-latitude required.

COMPUTATION.

Here are three triangles to work in; namely, ABP, ABZ, BPZ.

In the isosceles spheric triangle APE.

Given AP=70°00' | Suppose the perpendicular Pb is drawn.

BP=70 00 | Rad.: tan. BPb:: cof. PB: co-t. \(PBA = 81° 56'.

 $\angle APB=45$ 00 | Rad.: fin. PB:: fin. $\angle BPb$: fin. $Bb=21^{\circ} O4^{\frac{1}{2}}$.

Reg. & ABP and AB. Then Bb double gives AB = 42° 09'.

In the oblique angled spheric triangle ABZ.

Given Az=71°30' | Then working with the three fides, the angle ABZ

BZ=46 00 | will be found = 114° 11'.

AB=42 09 | And \(ABZ-\(PBA=PBZ=32^\circ 15'\).

Required LABZ.

In the oblique angled spheric triangle PBZ.

Given PB=70°00' As rad.: cof. & PBZ:: tan. BZ: tan. M=41° 13'.

BZ=46 00 And PB—M=N=28° 47'.

As cos. M: cos. N:: cos. BZ: cos. PZ=30° 59'.

Req. the co-l.t. PZ. Therefore the latitude is 54° 01' N.

182. If the Sun's altitude can be taken both before and after noon, when he has equal heights, then the time between these two observations being bisected, will give the time when the Sun was on the meridian: Now the co-declination, the co-altitude, and the time from noon at either observation being known, the latitude may be readily computed in one oblique angled triangle, in which are known two fides, and an angle opposite to one of them to find the other side, which is the co-latitude; for which fee the problem, art. 176. Unit Call - Digitized by Microsoft 483. PRO-

Pl. V.

PROBLEM XXXIX.

Given the Sun's declination, two altitudes, and the difference of the magnetic azimuths;

Required the latitude of the place.

Exam. On the 21st of May, the Sun's declination being 20° 16' N., in the morning when the Sun was on the ESE. point of the compass, his altitude was 43° 30'; and when he bore S. 20° 30' E. his altitude was 58° 30': What is the latitude of the place of observation?

CONSTRUCTION.

Let the primitive circle represent the azimuth circle which the Sun was on at the greater altitude, 58° 30′, A being the Sun's place at that time, HR the horizon, and z the zenith; draw aa a parallel of 43° 30′ of altitude, and (IV. 75) describe a vertical circle, making an angle with Az, of 47° 00′, the difference of the observed azimuths; the place where this cuts the parallel of altitude aa, gives B the Sun's place at the first observation: Then small circles being described about A and B, as poles at the distances of 69° 44′, the co-declination (IV. 66), their intersection will give P the place of the pole: Through A, B; P, A; P, B; and Z, P, describe great circles (IV. 61); then Pz is the co-latitude sought.

COMPUTATION.

Ist. In the spheric triangle AZB: Given AZ = A's co-alt. BZ = B's co-alt. AZB = diff. of az.	= 31° 30′ = 46 30 = 47 00
Required ∠ ABZ	= 45 41 = $3^2 17$
2d. In the isosceles spheric AAPB: Given AP = A's co-decl. BP = B's co-decl. AB = distance	= 69 44
Required ∠ ABP	= 83 52
3d. In the spheric triangle ZBP: Given BZ = B's co-alt. PB = B's co-decl ZZBP	
Requir. zp = co-lat. Therefore the latitude of the place is 50° 39' N.	= 39 21

PROBLEM XL.

Pl. V.

Two known stars being observed on the same azimuth, and two other known stars being observed on another azimuth, and the time between the observation being known; to find the latitude of the place.

Exam. The stars Aldebaran in Taurus, and Rigel in Orion, were obferved on the same azimuth; and 2 h. 35 min after, the stars Castor in Gemini and the Hydra's heart were also observed on another azimuth: What was the latitude of the place of observation?

CONSTRUCTION.

On the plane of the equator put the stars Aldebaran and Rigel at A, B, also the stars Castor and Hydra at c, d, by means of their right ascenfions and declinations (2d and 3d of 137): Let the stars c, d, be removed
forwards 2h 35m, or 38° 45' to c, D; through A, B, and D, c, describe
(IV. 61) great circles intersecting in z, the zenith of the place; draw
the great circles AC and PZ; then the measure of PZ gives the co-latitude
required.

COMPUTATION.

Aldebaran's declin. = $16^{\circ} \circ 3'$ N. right afcen. = $4^{\circ} \circ 23^{\circ} \circ 19^{\circ} = 65^{\circ} \circ 50'$. Rigel's = $8 \circ 28 \circ 3$ = $5 \circ 3 \circ 58 = 75 \circ 9\frac{7}{2}$. Caftor's = $32 \circ 21 \circ 10$ = $7 \circ 20 \circ 33 = 110 \circ 8$. Hydra's heart = $7 \circ 43 \circ 3$ = $9 \circ 16 \circ 47 = 139 \circ 12$.

Ift. In the triangle PAB, where PB=98° 28', PA=73° 57', $\angle APB=10^{\circ} 09^{\frac{1}{2}'}$.

Then the LPAB will be 156° 59', and the LPAZ, the fuppl. =23° 01'.

2d. In the triangle PCD, where PD=97° 43', PC=57° 39', CPD = 29° 04'.

Then the LPCD will be 140° 09', and the LPCZ, the fuppl. = 39° 51'.

3d. In the triangle APC, where AP= 73° 57', CP= 57° 39', \angle APC= 5° 33½', which is the difference between 2 h. 35 m. and the difference of the right ascensions of A and C.

Then the \(\triangle PAC\) will be 16° 12', \(\triangle PCA = 161\)° 30', and \(\triangle C = 17\)° 03'.

Now \(\triangle PAC + \triangle PAZ = \triangle CAZ = 39\)° 13'; and \(\triangle PCA = \triangle PCZ = \triangle ACZ = 121\)° 39'.

4th. In the triangle Acz, where $AC = 17^{\circ} \circ 3'$; $\angle CAZ = 39^{\circ} \cdot 13'$; $\angle ACZ = 121^{\circ} \cdot 39'$.

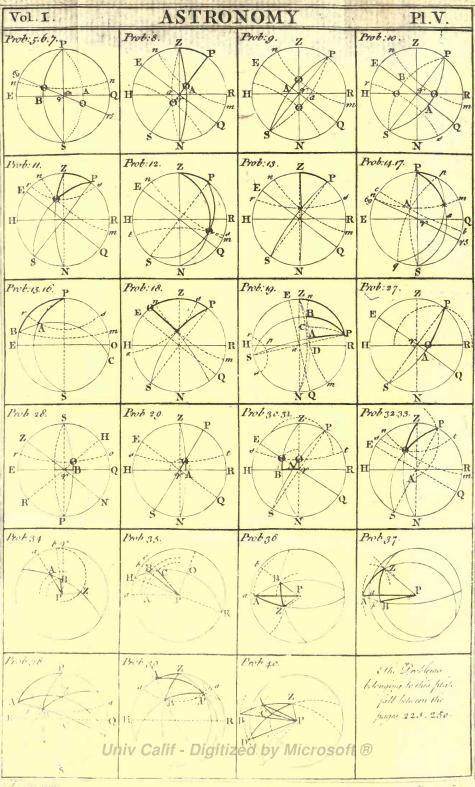
Then cz will be found equal to 28° 26'.

5th. In the triangle CPZ, where CZ = 28° 26', CP = 57° 39', ZPCZ 39° 51'.

Then Pz will be found equal to 38° 49'.

And the latitude of the place of observation is 51° 11'. N. Univ Calif - Digstized by Microsoft ®

There



There might be given a great variety of other problems to find the latitude from various circumstances; but the trouble of solving them, as well as some of the foregoing ones, is too great to render them of general use: And indeed some of them were only inserted as trigonometrical exercises for young students; it being generally allowed that the sciences are most readily learned by working many examples: And on this account it was judged, that the sew following questions might not only be entertaining to those who have a love for these matters; but on some occasions might be usefully applied at sea.

185.

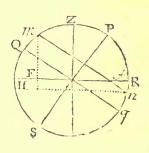
PROBLEM XLI.

Given the Sun's meridian, or mid-day altitude =62° 00'.

And its mid-night depression, below the horizon, =22 00.

Required the latitude of the place, and the Sun's declination.

Solution. Let the circle HZR be the meridian; arc Hm, the meridian alt.; its fine Fm; arc Rn, the mid-night deprefion; its fine nf; mn, the parallel of declination; Qq, parallel to mn the equator; Ps, at right angles to Qq, the axis, or 6 o'clock circle.



Now HQ + Qm = Hm And HQ - Qm = Rm For HQ = Rq; and Qm = qn.

Then HQ = $\frac{Hm + Rn}{2}$ = co-latitude = 42° 00′.

And Qm = $\frac{Hm - Rn}{2}$ = declination = 20° 00′.

In the following problems, as it was the method of computation which was chiefly intended for the information of beginners, the conftruction is supposed to be done: And the lines and letters, as here described, are to be understood to represent the same things in each figure.

PROBLEM XLII.

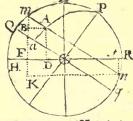
Some time in the month of May, 1780, at a place in the western ocean, the Sun's meridian altitude was observed to be 62° 00'; and 1h 48" 14° after, the altitude was found to be 54° 30': Required the latitude of that place, and the Sun's declination.

Let m and A be the Sun's places at the given

mF, AD, the fines of the observed altitudes.

the difference of those right

the given interval of time, L QPa, and Qa, the versed sine of that interval.



Now Qa: Qq:: m A: mn (II. 182). And mA: mn:: mB: MK. (II. 167)

Therefore Qa:Qg::mB:mK=mF+nf.

 $Q q \times m_B = 2 \times \text{radius} \times \text{diff. of fines of alts.}$ Q a versed fine of hour from noon

But versed fine of an arc=twice square of the fine of half that arc.

(IV. 193)

Therefore $m\kappa = \frac{2 \times R \times \text{diff. fines of alts.}}{2ss, \frac{1}{2} \text{ hour } \hat{a} \text{ noon } *} = \frac{\text{diff. of fines of alt.}}{ss, \frac{1}{2} \text{ hour } \hat{a} \text{ noon}}$ Radius

being 1.

Or L, diff. fines of alts. -2Ls, $\frac{1}{2}$ hour à noon = L, fum fines, mF + nf. Here 1h 48m 14s=27° 3' 30", (131) | Alt. 62° 00' nat. sine =0,88295(1v.256)

Alt. 54 30 nat. fine =0,81412

And 1 hour à noon = 13°31' 45". Diff. of fines of alts. =0,06882

=1,2574 the number to log. 10,09946 |

mK =0,8829 the nat. fine of 62° 00' the meridian altitude. mF

=0,3745 the nat. fine 21° 59' 36" the mid-night depr. nf Sum 83 59 36, its \(\frac{1}{2}\) 41° 59' 48"=co-lat.

Diff. 40 00 24 its \frac{1}{2} 20 00 12 =dec.

Latitude 48° 0' 12" N. observations made on the 19th of May.

* The mark à is used for the word from.

+ Here 8, is the index; because 6, the left-hand digit of 0,06881, is in the place of 2ds.

† The log. sin. of 13° 31' is 9,36871; and of 13° 32' is 9,36924; their diff. is 53; then 60": 53:: 45": 40; and 9,36871+40=9,36911; its double is 8,73822, rejecting to in the doubled index.

In subtracting 8,73822 from 8,83765; the index of the minuend is to be increased by 10 for a radius; or augment o, the index of the remainder, by 10.

11 The log. 10,09946, having 10 for its index, shews that the left-hand place of its corresponding number stands in the place of units.

To find the degrees, minutes, and seconds to a given natural right sine.

Now nf=0,3745 its log. is,57345; which fought among the log. fines, falls between those of 21° 59' and 22° 00'; the difference of their logs. is 31; and the difference between the given log. and that of 21° 59' is 19; then 31:19::60":36"; fo that nf answers to 21° 59' 36". (iv. 257.)

PROBLEM XLIII.

Being at sea, some time in July, in North lat. the Sun was observed to rise at 4 h. 24 m. 36 s. A. M.; and in the same place, his altitude at noon was 62° 00': Required the latitude of that place, and day of the month.

F

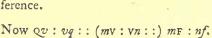
H

Let m, v, n, be places of the Sun, at noon, at rifing, and at midnight.

mF, nf, fines of mer. alt. and midnight

ov the fine of the ascensional difference. vq the versed sine of the time of setting from midnight.

Qv=radius+fine of the ascensional dif-



Then
$$nf = \frac{vq \times mF}{Qv}$$
; or is, $nf = 1$, $Qv + Ls$, $mF + Lv$, $\angle VPR$.

Or, L', Qv+Ls, merid. alt. + 2Ls, \frac{1}{2} time \hat{a} midnight+L, 2=Ls, midnight depression.

Here $ov = (s, 1 \text{ h.}35 \text{ m. } 24 \text{ f.} = s, 23^{\circ} 51' =)0,40435$; and ov = 1,4043. Time from midnight = 4 h. 24 m. 36 s. = 66° 09; its half = 33° 44.

Diff.
$$=40 \circ 20$$
; its $\frac{1}{2}=20 \circ 10$

(185.)

Page .

PROBLEM XLIV.

At a place in the northern hemisphere, some time in the month of May, the Sun was observed to have 14° $43\frac{1}{2}'$ altitude at 6 h. P. M. and to set at 7 h. 35 m. 24 s.: Required the latitude of that place, and day of the month.

Let m, N, v, n, be places of the Sun, at noon, 6 o'clock, fetting, and midnight. See the fig. to Problem 43.

mF, Nt, fines of the altitudes at m and N. ov, vq, and Qv, the same as in the last problem.

Now ov: vq:: (Nv: vn::) Nt: nf. Then L, nf = L, ov + L, Nt + L, vq. Also ov: qv:: (Nv: vm::) Nt: mF. And L, nF = L ov + L, Nt + L, qv. Here qv = s, qv = v, qv = v

Then
$$ov = s$$
, 23° 51' its L's, $o,39325$
 $Nt = s$, 14° $43\frac{1}{2}$ ' Ls, $9,40514$
 $qv = \begin{cases} ss,33^{\circ} & 4\frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$ 21s, $9,47397$
 $o,30103$
 $nf s$, 22° 0' $9,57339$

And $ov = s$, 23° 51' its L's, $0,39325$
 $Nt = s$, 14 , $43\frac{1}{2}$ its Ls, $9,40514$
 $qv = 1,40$, 43 its L, $10,14746$
 $qv = 1,40$, 43 its L, $10,14746$

Then $\frac{62^{\circ}+22^{\circ}}{2}=42^{\circ}$ the co-latitude.

And
$$\frac{62-22}{2}$$
 = 20° the declination answering to May 19th. (185.)

189. PROBLEM XLV.

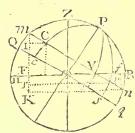
At a place in the western ocean, some time in July, the Sun's altitude was observed to be 36° at 3 h. 51 m. 49 s. P. M.; and was seen to set at 7 h. 35 m. 24 s. P. M.: Required the latitude of the place, and day of the month.

Let m, c, v, n, be the Sun's places, at noon, at 3 h. 51 m. 49 f. at fetting, and at midnight.

mf, IF, the fines of the altitudes at m, c;

nf the fine of the midnight deprefion.

oc, ov, the fines of the times from 6 h, and cv, their fum.



Now

Now cv: Qv::(cv:vm::) If: mF. Or Ls, mF = L, cv + Ls, IF + L, Qv. And cv: qv::(cv:vn::) IF: nf. Or Ls, nf = L, cv + Ls, IF + Lv, qPv. Here oc = s, 2h. 8m. IIs. = s, 32° 2' 45'' = 0, $53^{\circ}59$ cv = 0, $93^{\circ}493$; qv = s, 4s, 4s

Then L', cv=0,93493 And 1,00=0,93493 0,02022. 0,02922 Ls, IF=36° 00' 9,76922 Ls,1F=36° 00' 9,76922 L,qv { ss,33° 42' L,QU =1,4043 10,14746 9,47397 0,30103 L, mF=62° 00' 9,94590 Ls, nf 22° 00' 9,57344

Then $\frac{62^{\circ} + 22^{\circ}}{2} = 42$ the co-latitude.

And $\frac{62-22}{2}$ = 20 the declination, answering to July 23. (185.)

190. PROBLEM XLVI.

Some time in the month of May, at a place in the western ocean, the day broke at 1 h. 45 m. 36 s. A. M.; and at 8 h. 8 m. 11 s. A. M. the Sun's altitude was observed to be 36°: Required the latitude and day of the month.

Let m, c, r, n, be the Sun's places, at noon, at 8 h. 8 m. II s., at the beginning of twilight, and at midnight.

mf, if, the fines of the altitudes at mc.

FT, FK, the fines of the depressions at r, n.

oc, os, the fines of the times from 6 h., and cs their sum.

Now cs: Qs::(cr: mr::) IT: mT. And mT—FT=mF.

Also cs:qc::(cr:cn::) IT: IK. And IK—IF=nf.

Here if $\equiv s,36^{\circ}$ co'=0,58778 = s,18 co=0,30902 = s,5896\$0

oz = s, 2h. 8m. 11s.=s, 32° 2′ 45″ = 0,53059; and qz = 1,5306 os = s, 4h.14m. 24s.=s, 63 36 oo = 0,89571; and qz = 1,8957

Then cs 9.84579 cs 9.84579 mT—FT=mF=0.8829 the s, 62° 00′ iT 9.95269 iT 9.95269 iK—IF=nf=0.57458 the s, 22 00 Qs 10.27777 qc 10.18480 Hence the lat. 48° N.

тт 10,07625 1к 9,983?4 Decl. 22° 00′ N., answering to May 19th.

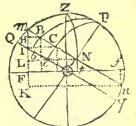
Rool

The

191. PROBLEM XLVII.

In the month of May, at some place in the western ocean, the Sun's altitude at 6^h A. M. was 14° $43\frac{1}{2}'$; and at 8h. 8 m. 11s. its altitude was 36° : Required the latitude of the place and day of the month.

Let m, c, N, n, be the Sun's places at moon, at 8 h. 8 m. 11s., at 6 h., and at midnight. mF, 1F, LF, the fines of the alts. at m, c, N. nf the fine of the midnight depression. oc the fine of 2 h. 8 m. 11s.



Now $\Theta c : OQ :: (NC : Nm ::) IL : m L. Then <math>mL + LF = mF$. And OC : CQ :: (NC : Cn ::) IL : IK. Then <math>IK - IF = nf.

Hence L, mL=L', oc+rad.+L, IL. And L, IK=L', oc+Lcq+L, IL.

Here oc=s, 2 h. 8 m. 11s. = 530° 2' 45"=0,53059; and cq=1,5306. 1F=s,36°0'=0,58778; and LF=s, 14°43½ =0,25418; fo 1L=0,3336 00=32° 2' 45" its L's, 0c=32° 2' 45" its L's, 11=0.3336 its L. 0,27524 0,27524 11=0,3336 its 1. 9,52323 9,52323 Rad. 10,00000 cq = 1,5306 its L. 10,18486 m1 =0,62874 9,79847 1K=0,96234 9,98333

Then $m_F = 0.88292$ the fine of 62° co' the meridian altitude. And $n_f = 0.37456$ the fine of 22 00 the midnight depression. Hence the latitude is 48° N. decl. 20° N. on May 19th.

(185).

192. PROBLEM XLVIII.

At a place in the western ocean, in the month of July, the Sun's altitude was found to be 46° at 2h 49m 9° P. M.; and to be 36° high at 3h 51m 49° P. M.: Required the latitude of the place and day of the month.

Let m, B, C, n, be the Sun's places at noon, at 2h. 49m. 9s., at 3h. 51m. 49s., and at midnight; and mF, HF, HF, the fines of the alts. at m, B, C. Ob, Oc, the co-fines of the time from noon; or the fines of the time to 6 O'clock.

Now bc: Qc:: (BC:mC::) HI:mI. Then mI+IF=mF. And bc: bq:: (BC:En::) HI:HK. Then HK-HF=FK=nf.

Here 0b = s, 3 h. 10 m. 51 s. = s, 47° 42′ 45″ = 0,73978 } Hencebc = 0, 20919 oc = s, 2 h. 8 m. 11 s. = s, 32° 2 45° = 0,530 c 9 } Hencebc = 0, 20919 HE = s, 46° = 0,71934; 1F = s, 36° = 0,58778; HI = 0,13156; bq = 1.7398. Alfo $qc = (ver. fine of 57° 57′ 15″ =) 2ss, <math>\frac{1}{2}$ 57° 57′ 15″ = 2ss, 28° 58′ 37″.

Thei	$b_c = 0,20919$	0,67947	And b==0,20919	0,67947
	H1= 0,13156	9,11912	н1=0,13156	9.11912
	ec= { ss,28° 58' 37"	9,37050	bq=1,7398	10,24050
	2	0,30103		-
-	-		HK=1, 0942	10,03909
	m1 = ,29520	9,47012	and page-dering-condition	1 TO 1 L.

Then mr=0,88298 the fine of 62° the mer. alt. Hence lat.=48° N. decl. And nf=0,37486 the fine of 22 the mid. depr. \$20° on July 23.

193. PROBLEM XLIX.

Being at fea in the western ocean, the Sun was observed to have 27° 24' of altitude when due W.; and to have 14° $43\frac{3}{2}$ ' alt. at 6 h. P. M.: Required the latitude of that place, and the Sun's declination.

Let c, N, be the Sun's places at W., and at 6 h. oc, Nt, the fines of their altitudes. cc=on, the arcs of declination.

\(\text{coc} = \sum \text{Not} = \text{latitude}. \)

In $\triangle o t N$. As $s, o N : R :: s, N t : s, \angle N t t = \frac{s, N t}{s, o N} \times R$.

In $\triangle o t N$. As $s, o N : R :: s, N t : s, \angle N t t = \frac{s, N t}{s, o N} \times R$.

Then $\frac{s,Cc}{s,oc} = \left(\frac{s,Nt}{s,on} = \right) \frac{s,Nt}{s,cc}$. And $ss,cc = s,oc \times s,Nt$.

Or s, alt. W. xs, alt. at 6=ss, decl. Or Ls, alt. W. + Ls, alt. at 6

2

Ls, decl.

And L's, alt. W. + Ls, decl. = Ls, lat.

 $0C = 3,27^{\circ} 24' \text{ its L,s} \qquad 9,66295$ $NI = 14 + 43\frac{1}{2} \text{ its L,s} \qquad 9,40514$ $Sum \qquad 19,06809$ $CC = 20^{\circ} 00' \qquad 9,53404$ $0C = 27 + 24 \text{ its L'} \qquad 0,33705$ $\angle 207 = 48 + 90 \qquad 9,87109$

194. PROBLEM L.

At a place in the western ocean, the Sun at rising was observed to be 59° 15' 40' from the true north point of the horizon; and at 6 h. A. M., the altitude was observed 14° 43½': Required the latitude and declination.

Let v, and N, be the places of the Sun at rifing and at 6 h. A. M. Nt, the fine of the alt. at 6. on, vv are arcs of declination. ov, the afcentional diff. \(\sum \not = \text{lat.}; \sum \nov = \text{co-latitude.} \)
ov, = co-amplitude.

9

Now

Now in
$$\triangle$$
 ovv. As $R: s_j ov :: s_i vov :: s_i vv = \frac{s_i ov \times s_i vov}{R}$

in
$$\triangle$$
 Not. As s, Not: R::s,Nt:s,ON= $\frac{R \times s,Nt}{s,Not}$

Then
$$\frac{s, \text{ov} \times s \text{vov}}{R} = \frac{s, \text{Nt} \times R}{s, \text{Not}}$$
; and $s, \text{vov} \times s, \text{Not} = \frac{s, \text{Nt}}{s, \text{ov}} \times RR$.

That is,
$$\frac{s,Nt}{s,ov} = s,Not \times s$$
, Not; hence $\frac{2s,Nt}{s,ov} = (2s,Not \times s,Not =)s,2Not$.

(IV. 189)

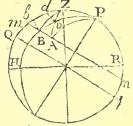
Therefore L's', ampl. + Ls, alt. at 6 + L,2 = Ls, double the latitude. If the latitude is less than 45°; otherwise it is double the co-latitude.

L's, amp Ls, alt.	ol. 59° 15′ 40″ 6 14 43 30	0,29147	Rad.	r 59° 15′ 40′ 47 59	9,70853 9,82565
Ls, Co-lat. is	84° 02' 42 01	9,99764	s, decl.	20 00	9,53418

PROBLEM LI. 195.

Being at fea in the western ocean, some time in the night, the distance of two stars when both were on the meridian, was observed to be 20°; and 1h 49" after, the difference of their altitudes was 14° 351, and the difference of their azimuths 30° 91/2: Required the latitude of the place.

As the stars were on the meridian when first observed; their distance, difference of declination, and difference of altitudes, at that time, are equal: If they are first at d, b, and in the difference of time revolve to D, B; then is known LP, LDZB, DB, and ZB-ZD. Let zB-zD=N; and find zB+zD=M.



Or (IV. 181, 174) $\frac{1}{2}$ s', $N - \frac{1}{2}$ s', $M \times s'$, $DZB + \frac{1}{2}$ s', $N + \frac{1}{2}$ s', M = s', DB. Or s, DZB $\times \frac{1}{2}$ s, N—s, DZB $\times \frac{1}{2}$ s M $+ \frac{1}{2}$ s N $+ \frac{1}{2}$ s M =s, DB.

Or s, $DZE + I \times \frac{1}{2}s$, $N + \overline{1 - s}$, $DZE \times \frac{1}{2}s$, M = s, DE.

Then s', M =
$$\left(\frac{2s', DB - I + s'DZB \times s', N}{I - s', DZB} = \right)\frac{2s', DB - v', DZB \times s', N}{v, DZB}$$
.

Or s', M = $\left(\frac{2s', DB}{v, DZB} + \frac{v', DZB \times s', N}{v, DZB} = \right)\frac{2s', DB}{2ss, \frac{1}{2}DZB} + \frac{2s', \frac{1}{2}DZB \times s', N}{v, DZB}$.

(1V. 193, 197)

Let 2L's, $\frac{1}{2}DZB + Ls$ ', DB = L, A; and 2L's, $\frac{1}{2}DZB + 2L$'s, $\frac{1}{2}DZB + Ls$ ', N = L, B. Then $J'M \equiv A = B$. $2L'J = \frac{1}{2}DZB = 1,16952$ $2L'J = \frac{1}{2}DZB = 1,16952$ Here $DB \equiv 20^{\circ}00'$ LJ',DB = 9.97290 $2LJ',\frac{1}{2}ZB = 9,96960$ L5, DE 9.97299 A=13.884 1,14251 B=13.331 ∠DZB=30 9½ 9.98576 1 LDZB=15 43 B=13,331 1,12483

ME-ZD=N=14 35 1 1, M= 0,553; and ZB+ZD=56° 251.

Then

Then $\frac{1}{2}$ fum $+\frac{1}{2}$ diff. $=zB=35^{\circ}$ $30\frac{1}{2}$; and $\frac{1}{2}$ fum $-\frac{1}{2}$ diff. $=zD=20^{\circ}$ 55'. Now s,DB: s,DZB:: s,ZB:s,PDZ; and s,ZPD:s,PDZ:: s,ZD:s,ZP 42° 1'. Hence the latitude is 47° 59' N.

196. PROBLEM LII.

By observations made at a place in the western ocean, it was found that the Sun's altitude was 36° S., when his azimuth was N. 100° 5' E. and his alt. was 46° S., when his azimuth was N. 114° 28' E. What was the latitude of the place and the Sun's declination?

Let A, B, be the Sun's places when observed. In the triangles PAZ, PBZ, where PA=PB.

By IV. 239. $\begin{cases} s, ZP \times sZA - s, PZA \times s, ZP \times s, ZA = s, PAs, \\ s, ZP \times s, ZB - s, PZB \times s, ZP \times s, ZB = s, PAs, \end{cases}$

Then s', PZB×s, ZB×s, ZP-s', PZA×s, ZA×s, ZP=s', ZB×s', ZP-s', ZA×s', ZP.

Or s', PZB×s, ZB-s', PZA×s, ZA×s, ZP=s', ZB-s', ZA×s', ZA×s', ZP.

Then $\frac{s, PZB \times s, ZB \otimes s, PZA \times s, ZA}{s, ZB - s, ZA} = \left(\frac{s, ZP}{s, ZP} = (III. 33) t, ZP = \right) s, RP$ the latitude.

Let Ls', PZB + Ls, ZB = L, A: And Ls', PZA + Ls, ZA = L, B. Then

 $\frac{A \circ B}{s'ZB-s',ZA}=t',RP.$

Here A=0,14164; B=0,28770; s',ZB=0,71933; s',ZA=0,58779. Then $\frac{0,13154}{0,14606} = ,9005 = i,42^{\circ}$. Hence lat. is 48° N. decl. 20° N.

PROBLEM LIII.

Given two altitudes of the Sun and the time from noon when those altitudes were taken; thence to find the latitude and declination.

Exam. At 8 h. 8 m. 11s. A. M., the alt. was 36°; and at 9 h. 10 m. 51 s. the alt. was 46°; at a place in the western ocean, some time in May, 1763.

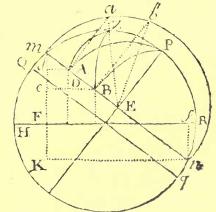
Let B, A, be the Sun's places observed;

m, n, those of noon and midnight; Fe, Fd, Fm, FK, represent the fines of the distances of those places from the horizon HR, to the diameter Qg; and dc = Fd - Fe.

On mn describe the semicircle mbn, representing half the parallel of declination, and let $\wedge a$, Bb, be at right angles to mn: Then will the angles meb, mea, represent the times from noon, at the observations B, A; and B, B, are as the versed sines of those times.

And mB - mA = AB.

Then AB : detrime : me; and me + Fe = Fm; the fine of Hm?



Also AB: de::mn:mK; and Km-Fm=FK, the fine of Rn. Hence the latitude and declination are found.

(185)

Here
$$\Delta B = (s', ma - s', mb = s, \frac{mb + ma}{2} \times 2s, \frac{mb - ma}{2} =)s, M \times 2s, N.$$

(IV. 181)

And
$$de = (s, 2d \text{ alt.} - s, 1\text{ ft alt.} = s', \frac{2d + 1\text{ ft}}{2} \times 2s, \frac{2d - 1\text{ ft}}{2} = s', w \times 2s, v.$$

(IV. 182)

Now $L, \frac{de}{\Delta R} \times mn = L, mK = Ls', M + Ls', N + Ls, W + L, sV, L, 2.$

And $L, \frac{de}{\Delta R} \times mB = L, me = L, mK + 2LS, \frac{1}{2} \angle mEb$.

In this example, the $\angle meb = 3$ h. 51 $49 = 57^{\circ} 57^{\frac{1}{4}}$; its $\frac{7}{2} = 28^{\circ} 58^{\frac{1}{8}}$.

$\angle m E a = 2 \text{ h}.$	49 9=42 174.
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	L's,M 50° 7½′ 0,1149§ L's,N 7 50 0,86553 Li',W 41 0 9,87778 Ls,V 5 0 8,94030 L,2 0,30103
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	L, Km 1,25783 10,09962 2Ls, \frac{1}{2}mb 28\circ 58\frac{5}{8}\circ 9.37050
Fm=0,88299=62° o' 19" km=1,25810 FK=0,37511=22 1 51	L,me 0,29521 9,47012
30 58 28	19 59 14 the decl. on May 20th.

198. The following is another folution, on different principles. In the triangles BPZ, APZ, are given, (fee the foregoing figure.) BZ, AZ; BPZ, APZ, hour angles; and PB=PA;

BZ, AZ; BPZ, APZ, hour angles; and PB=PA; To find PB, PZ; for whole fum and diff. put M and N. Now (IV. 239) $\begin{cases} s, PB \times s, PZ \times s, BPZ + s, PB \times s, PZ = s, BZ. \\ s, PA \times s, PZ \times s, APZ + s, PA \times s, PZ = s, AZ. \end{cases}$ Or (IV. 181. 174) $\begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}s, N - \frac{1}{2}s, M \times s, BPZ + \frac{1}{2}s, N + \frac{1}{2}s, M = s, BZ. \\ \frac{1}{2}s, N - \frac{1}{2}s, M \times s, APZ + \frac{1}{2}s, N + \frac{1}{2}s, M = s, AZ. \end{cases}$ Therefore $(\frac{1}{2}s, N - \frac{1}{2}s, M = \frac{s}{2}s, N + \frac{1}{2}s, M = \frac{1}{2}s, \frac{1}{2}s,$

Hence \hat{s} , Bz $\times \hat{s}$, APZ $-\frac{1}{2}\hat{s}$, N $+\frac{1}{2}\hat{s}$, M $\times \hat{s}$, APZ $=\hat{s}$, AZ $\times \hat{s}$, BPZ $-\frac{1}{2}\hat{s}$, N $+\frac{1}{2}\hat{s}$, M XS, BPZ.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® Therefore

Therefore
$$s$$
, $BZ \times s$, $APZ - s$, $AZ \times s$, $BPZ = s$, $APZ - s$, $BPZ \times \frac{1}{2}s$, $N + \frac{1}{2}s$, M .

Again s , $AZ - s$, $BZ = s$, $APZ - s$, $BPZ \times \frac{1}{2}s$, $N - \frac{1}{2}s$, M .

Therefore $\frac{1}{2}s$, $N + \frac{1}{2}s$, $M = \frac{s}{s}$, $APZ - s$, $APZ \times s$, $APZ \times s$, $BPZ \times s$, $APZ - s$, $APZ \times s$, $APZ - s$, $APZ - s$, $APZ \times s$, $APZ - s$

Here BPZ=57° 57½, its ½=28° 58½; APZ=42° 17½, its ½=21° 8½.

BZ=54°; AZ=44°; s, BPZ=0,53060; s, APZ=0,73978, their difference=0,20918.

SAPZ-SBPZ

2155, 28° 585'	{ 0,30103 9,88384 9,85693	ZESS,	28° 588°	9	0,30103 9,37050 9,85693
L,A 1,10104	10,04180	L,a	0,33764	00	9,52846
21.53', 21° 88' Ls', 54	{ 0,30103 9,93946 9,76922	Ls,	21° 8§′		0,30103 9,11438 9,76922
1,8 1,02260	10,00971	L,6	0,15298		9,18463
L, A-B 0.07844 Li, APZ-i, BPZ			0,18466 Z—s, BPZ	0,20918	9,26637 9,32052
Lr, M 112° 11'	9,57402	Li',N	·28° o'		9,94585

Hence the latitude is 48° 00' N.; declination 19° 59', which answers to the 20th of May.

800

clin

199. And hence is readily derived the investigation of that method, published in the year 1759, and then used by some for finding the true latitude at sea, by knowing the latitude by account (or dead reckoning), the Sun's declination, two altitudes of the Sun, and the time between the observations. Thus. See the last figure.

Let M and N represent the half sum and half diff. of the times from

noon; w and v, the half fum and half diff. of the two altitudes.

AB the diff. of the co-fines of the times from noon, to the radius Em.

AD the diff. of the fines of the altitudes.

LBAD represents the latitude; Em the co-s. of the declination.

Now (197)s, $M \times 2s$, N = AB reduced to the rad. $\frac{1}{2} Qq$; and s', $W \times 2s$, V = AD. But in the triangle ABD.

s', lat.: R:: AD: AB= $\frac{1}{s'}$, lat. × AD, to rad. Em.

And s', decl.: R:: AB: AB $\times \frac{1}{s' \text{ decl.}} = \frac{1}{s', \text{decl.}} \times \frac{1}{s', \text{lat.}} \times AD = AB$ reduced to the radius $\frac{1}{2}$ Q q.

Then $s, M \times 2s, N = \frac{1}{s, \text{decl.}} \times \frac{1}{s, \text{lat.}} \times s, W \times 2s, V$.

And $s_1 M = \frac{1}{s', \text{decl.}} \times \frac{1}{s', \text{lat.}} \times \frac{1}{s, N} \times s', W \times s, V$.

Then $M+N=\angle mEb$, the time from noon at the least altitude. And $M-N=\angle mEa$, the time from noon at the greatest altitude. Hence the versed sines of the arcs mb or ma, are known to rad. $\frac{1}{2} Q q$. Now $R:Em::v,ma:mA=Em\times v,ma$; or $mB=Em\times v,mb$.

And R:s,mAd::mA:md(::mB:me.)

Then Fm = Fd + dm, or to Fe + em, is the fine of the mer. alt.

Hence the two operations.

Iff. L's', decl. + L's', lat. + L's', N + Ls', W + Ls, V = Ls, M. Hence the times are known; viz. arcs ma, mb.

2d. Ls, decl. + Ls, lat. + L, 2 + 2Ls, \frac{1}{2}ma = L, md.

Then by the merid, alt. and declination the latitude may be found. If this latitude and that affumed are the fame, then the latitude by account, or dead reckoning, may be taken as the true latitude.

But if they differ, it is plain that the *mad*, the co-latitude, is less or

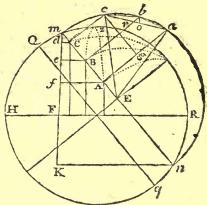
greater than was assumed.

200.

PROBLEM LIV.

Given three descending (or ascending) altitudes of the Sun, taken on the same day at unequal known intervals of time; thence to find those times, the latitude of the place of observation, and the Sun's declination. Thus, suppose in July, 1763, the altitudes were 54° 30′, 46°, and 36°; and the intervals of time 60 m. 55 s. and 62 m. 40 s.; required the rest.

Let man be the parallel of declination described on m n, and a, b, c, the places of the Sun when obferved; a A, b B, and c c the fines of the times from noon to the radius Em; m, n, the places at noon and midnight; and let f. F, e F, d F, m F, F K, represent the fines of the distances of those places from the horizon HR. Draw c g parallel to A C; then if the \(\alpha gcE, \text{ which is} equal to the \(mec\), the time from noon when the greatest altitude was taken, could be found, the times from noon when the other two were taken would be known also. Now



taken would be known and. Now cb being one interval, and ba the other, bc and ba, the chords of these
arcs, will be known, as also ca, which is the chord of their sum. Draw bo perpendicular to ac. Now in the right angled acbo, the acbo co=acbothe arc ba (II. 120), and the side acbo twice the sine of acbo, the arc bcconsequently acbo (acbo), and the side acbo twice the sine of acbo to acboconsequently acbo (acbo) and acbo the side acbo that acbo consequently acbo to acbo the side acbo that acbo the side acbo that side acbo the altitudes, are known; and the lines acbo that side acbo that side acbo the side acbo that side acbo the side acbo that side acbo side acbo that side acbo that side acbo side

Again R:s,acg:: ac: cg=Ac.

And Ac : mc :: fd : dm. Then Fd + dm = Fm, the fine of Hm. And Ac : mn :: fd : mK. Then Km - Fm = FK, the fine of Rn.

This Problem has, at times, for near a century past, exercised the talents of many ingenious persons, as well in Russia, Germany, Holland, and France, as in England; perhaps, on account of its apparent use at sea: And among the different solutions there seems none shorter or more intelligible, particularly to beginners, than that above; however, for the sake of the more inquisitive, another solution, which has been commonly given, is here subjoined.

201. In the last figure, the three triangles CPZ, BPZ, APZ, are those concerned; in which the same two sides are common in each.

s, $CPZ \times s, PC \times s, PZ + s, PC \times s, PZ = s, ZC$ s, $EPZ \times s, PC \times s, PZ + s, PC \times s, PZ = s, ZB$ by IV. 239. s, $APZ \times s, PZ \times s, PC + s, PC \times s, PZ = s, ZA$

Then $s', CPZ - s', BPZ \times s, PC \times s, PZ = (s, ZC - s', ZB =) d$. (II. 48.)

And s', CP% -s', APX x s, PC x s, PZ = (s', 2C-s', ZA=) D.

Hence $D \times s$, PZ = s, $BP' = d \times s$, CPZ = s', APZ. (II. 147)

Then DXI,CPN - 1/1,CPZ=DXI,DPZ-dXI,APZ.

Or.

```
ASTRONOMY.
264.
                                                                          Book V.
Or, D \times s'. CPZ - d \times s', CPZ = (D - d \times s', CPZ) = D \times s', BPZ - d \times s', APZ.
But, BPZ = CPZ + BPC, and APZ = CPZ + APC.
                   S', BPZ=s',CPZ Xs', BPC-s, CRZ Xs, BPC. ]
Consequently,
                   (s',APZ=s',CPZ xs',APC-s',CPZ xs,APC.
Hence D-d xs'. \ D xs', CPZ xs', BPC-D xs, CPZ xs, BPC- } by fubflitu.
                   l d \times s, CPZ \times s, APC + d \times s, CPZ \times s, APC.
Or, D-D×s', BPC-d+d×s', APC×s', CPZ = d\times s, APC-D×s, BPC×s,
CPZ. Wherefore,
                                             1-s', BPC \times D \times 1-s', APC \times d \times 3, APC \times D \times 3, BPC
D - D \times s', BPC on d - d \times s', APC
   dxs, APCODXs, BPC.
   \frac{s, \text{BPC} \times D \otimes v. \text{ APC} \times d}{s, \text{APC} \times d \otimes s, \text{BPC} \times D} = \frac{s, \text{CPZ}}{s, \text{CPZ}} = t, CPZ, the measure of the time
from noon when the greatest altitude was observed.
Here Fd = s,54^{\circ} 30' = 0,81412

Fe = s,46 00 = 0,71934 Then df = 0,22633; de = 0,09478.
       Pf = s,36 \text{ as} = 0,58779
The arc c b, or \angle CPB_1 = 1 h. 0 m. 55 f. = 15° 13\frac{1}{2}; its \frac{1}{2} = 7^{\circ} 36\frac{7}{8}.
      arc ab, or \angle BPA, = 1 h. 2 m. 40 f. = 15 40; its \frac{\pi}{2} = 7 50.
      arc ca, or \angle CPA, =2 h. 3 m. 35 f. =30 53\frac{1}{2}; its \frac{1}{2}=15 26\frac{7}{8}.
                                              To find the hour by the 2d method.
  To find the hour by the Ist method.
                                            D (= fd)
                                                                 ,22633
Radius
                     90°00'
                               10,00000
                                                                             9:35474
Is 10 s, \frac{7}{2} ba
                                                                 15° 134
                                 9,13447
                                            s, LBPC
                                                                             9,41943
                       7 50
As s, \frac{1}{2}bc
                        7 367
                                 9.12224
                                            DXs,BPC
                                                                             8,77417
                                                                 ,05945
To 1 ob
                     ,01806
                                 8,25671
                                            d (= de)
                                                                             8,97673
                                                                 ,09478
                                                                  30° 534
Radius
                      90°00'
                                10,00000
                                            s, LAPC
                                                                             9.71052
Is to s, \frac{1}{2} bc
                                 9,12224
                        7 36 $
                                                                 ,04867
                                                                             8,68724
                                            dXs,APC
Ass 1 ba
                        7 50
                                 9.99593
                                            D (= fd)
                                                                 ,22633
                                                                             9,35474
To 1 co
                                 9,11817
                                                                  15° 133
                     ,13127
                                            v, L BPC
                                                                             8,54552
As fd
                     22633A.C.O,64526
                                            DXV,BPC
                                                                 ,00795
                                                                             7,90026
Is to de
                     ,cg478
                                 8,97672
                                            d (\equiv de)
                                                                 ,09478
                                                                             8,97672
So is \frac{1}{2} ac (s, \frac{1}{2}cEa)
                                 9.42547
                      15° 267'
                                                                  30° 533'
                                            U, APC
                                                                             9,15198
To I cr
                                            dxv,APC
                     ,11154
                                 9,04745
                                                                 ,01345
                                                                             8,12870
    7 (0
                                            DXv,BPC
                                                                 ,00795
                     ,13127
                                            dxv, APC-DXv, BPC ,00550
As I ro
                                 1,70480
                     ,01973
                                                                            17,74036
                                            DXs,Brc-dXs,Arc
Is to 1 bo
                     ,01805
                                 8,25671
                                                                 ,01078
                                                                             8,03262
So is Rad.
                                10,00000
                      90 00
                                            tang.
                                                                   27° 13'
                                                                             9,70774
Tot, Lrbo
                      47 32 8
                                 0,96151
                                            Hence the h.fr.n. of 1st ob. is 1h 48' 7'
LacE
                                            Of the second observation
                                                                           2 49 2
                      74 33 8
                                 h m
48 CE= L mE (= 27
                                            Of the third observation
                          1 = 1 48
```

Here the altitudes are supposed to be descending ones, or in the afternoon.

by Problem 53.

2 48 59

3 51 39

Time of 2d observation

Time of 3d observation

202. If

Confequently from any two of thefe,

with their corresponding altitudes the

latitude and declination may be found

Bo

202. If the altitudes were taken at equal intervals of time; the two first proportions are useless: For a b and b c being equal, the point o falls in the middle of the chord ca; and bo, the versed sine, is known.

Then df:de::(CA:CB::)ca:cr; and co-cr=ro.

And bo: ro:: Rad.: t,rbo, =acg; and ate-acg=gcE=cEm.

Hence the times from noon are known; and also mc, the versed fine of cEm.

Again, in \triangle a c g. R:s, acg:: ac: cg=AC. And Ac: mc:: fd: dm. Then Fd+dm=Fm. Also Ac: mn :: fd : mK. Then Km - Fm = FK.

Here dr=0,81412, er=0,71934; fr=0,58779; df=022633; de=0,09478. Also, arc cb = 1 h. 1 m. $47\frac{1}{2}$ f. $= 15^{\circ}$ $26\frac{7}{8}$; co = 0,26636; bo = 0,03613. Then df: de:: ca: cr=0,22309; and co-cr=0,04327.

And bo: ro:: Rad.: 1, rbo=50° 83'-; then 74° 33' 3-50° 8' 3=24° 243'.

Then 24° 24 $\frac{3}{4}$ = 1 37 39 from noon at first alt. And 24° 24 $\frac{3}{4}$ +15° 26 $\frac{2}{8}$ =39° 51 $\frac{5}{8}$ =2 39 26 $\frac{7}{4}$ from noon at 2d alt. Also 39 51 $\frac{5}{8}$ +15 26 $\frac{2}{8}$ =55 18 $\frac{1}{2}$ =3 41 14 from noon at 3d alt. Here the altitudes are supposed to be ascending ones, or in the forenoon. Again, rad.: s,cag:: ac: AC = 0,34142.

And Ac: $mc::fd:dm\equiv0,05927$; then $mF\equiv0,87338\equiv s$, 60° 51'. Aiso Ac: mn:: fd: mk=1,32581; then Fk=0,45243=1, 26°54'.

Hence the latitude is 46° 7½ N. and the declin. 16° 58½; or on May 7th.

203. But the operation in this case may be much contracted. Thus, fince $(df: de:: ca:) cr = \frac{de \times ca}{df}$; thence $ro = (co - \frac{de \times 2co}{df} =)$ $\frac{df-2de\times co}{df}$

And $(b \circ : r \circ : : R :) t, rb \circ = \left(\frac{r \circ}{b \circ} = \frac{D \times c \circ}{d f \times 2 \circ s, \frac{1}{2} \circ b} = \right) \frac{D \times \frac{1}{2} \circ o}{d f \times s \circ, \frac{1}{2} \circ b};$ where $D \equiv df - 2 de$. (IV. 193, 195) But R $\times v, cb = ss, \frac{1}{2}cb = \frac{7}{2}s, cb \times t, \frac{1}{2}cb$.

Then $t, rbo = \frac{D}{df \times t, \frac{1}{2}cb}$; or $Lt, rbo = Lt, \frac{1}{2}cb + Lt, df + Lt$.

Also (R: s), acg::ac:) $AC = (s), acg \times ac = (s), acg \times 2s, cb$.

And (AC: mn : :fd:) $mK = \left(\frac{mn \times fd}{AC} = \frac{2 \times fd}{s, acg \times 2s, cb} = \right) \frac{fd}{s, acg \times s, cb}$.

And $(AC: mC:: fd:)md = \left(\frac{mC \times fd}{AC} = \frac{fd \times 2ss, \frac{1}{2}mEC}{s, acg \times 2s, cb} = \right) \frac{fd}{s, acg \times s, cb}$

 $\times ss\frac{x}{2}mEc.$ Hence L's, aeg+L's, cb+L, fdAnd L's, a c g + L's, c b + L, f d + 2Ls, m E c = L, m d.

Here df = 0.22633; 2de = 0.18955; and D = (df - 2de =) 0.03678. Also 1 cb=7° 43' 26"; and act=74° 335'.

1,1, 7° 43′ 26″ 0,86764 1,df=0,22633 0,64526 1,D=0,03678 8,56561	L's,be = 15 267 L,fd. = 22633	0,19329 0,57452 9,3547
1,1,rb0=50° 09' 10,07851 ace =74 33\frac{1}{5}	$L, mK_{7} = 1,32602$ $2Ls, \frac{1}{3}mEc = 12^{\circ} 12\frac{1}{10}'$	10,12255
mec 24 241; half is 12° 1215	l,m = d = 0,05923	8,77253

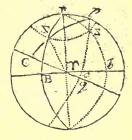
PROBLEM LV.

204. Given the obliquity of the ecliptic, the latitude of a place, and the apparent time at that place. To find the longitude of the nonagefimal degree.

CONSTRUCTION.

The given time applied to the fun's right afcension, gives the right afcension of the midheaven.

Then let the primitive circle represent the folflitial colure, where P, p, represent the poles of the equator Υ B, and ecliptic Υ C, the center Υ being their intersection. In the equator apply the right ascension of the mid-heaven from Υ to B, and the circle PZB, being described, is that meri-



ridian, the intersection of which by a parallel of latitude described about P, gives z, the place of the zenith; through z describe a circle of longitude pzc, and the point c is the nonagesimal degree, and rc its longitude.

COMPUTATION.

In the triangle Ppz. Given Pp the obliquity of the ecliptic, Pz the co-latitude.

DETERMINATION.

When the right ascension of the mid-heaven salls in the first quadrant, its quantity in degrees, increased by 90, gives the angle z P p, and the acute angle P p z is the complement of the longitude of the nonagesimal degree.

When in the fecond quadrant, the faid right ascension in degrees taken from 270, leaves the angle z p p; and the acute angle p pz, increased by 90 degrees, is the longitude of the nonagesimal degree.

When the faid right ascension falls in the third quadrant, its degrees, taken from 270, leaves the angle z p p, and the angle r p z, increased by 90 degrees, is the longitude sought.

When

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

15:

98

When in the fourth quadrant, the faid right ascension in degrees, leffened by 270, leaves the angle z p p; and the supplement of the angle, p p z, so long as it continues to be obtuse, being added to three right angles, or 270 degrees, gives the longitude of the nonagesimal degree; but after it becomes acute, its complement is the longitude required.

Note. In these determinations the latitude of the place is supposed to be

morth, and less than the distance of the tropic from the nearest pole.

Example. At Greenwich, in latitude 51° 283′ N, the obliquity of the ecliptic being 23° 28′: What is the longitude of the nonagefinal degree on the 14th of May 1780, at 1 h. 24m. 24s. P. M. at 3 h. 40 m. 2s. P. M. at 13 h. 22 m. 26 s. P. M. and at 15 h. 38 m. 4s. P. M.?

The feveral right afcensions of the mid-heaven are thus found:

1780. May 14th, at The Sun's right afcen.	h 1 3	m 24 27	s 24 36	3	40	2	13	m 22 29	26	15	m 38 29	56
Right asc. mid. hea. in time	4	52	0	7	8	0	16	52	С	19	8	0
Right afc. mid hea. in degrees	7 9	3°	00′	27	7° (00	25	3° 0	00′	28 27	7° 0	00
The angle z p p, or z p p	16	3	00	16	3 0	00	1	7 0	0	1	7	00

The two following operations are wrought by IV. 237. and 238.

P Z 38° 31 1'			
P p 23 28			
Sum 61 591, half is	300	593	Ar. co. s. 0,28823 Ar. co. s. 0,06691
Diff. $15 3\frac{1}{3}$, half is	7	313	5. 9,11729 5. 9,99624
LZPp 163 00, half is	81	30	t. 9.17450 t. 9,17450
Half diff. Lsz and p	2	102	1. 8,58002
Half fum	9	491	t. 9,23765
The angle p	11	59	
8 1	90	00	
The difference	78	01	is the long, nonag, in 1st quad.
The fum	101	59	is the long. nonag. in 2d quad.
Sum 61° 591', half	30°	593	Ar. co. s. 0,2882; Ar. co. s. 0,06691
Diff. 15 37, half			s. 9,11729 s. 9,99624
∠ ≈ P p 17 00, half	S	30	1.10,82550 1.10,82550
Half diff. ∠'s z and p			1.10,23102
	82	38	t.10,88865
The angle at p	142	12,	its supplement is 37° 48'
	90		270 0)
Long. nonag. in 3d qd.		-	Long. nonag, in 4th qd. 307 48

*** The altitude of the nonagefimal being equal to z p, the diffance of the zenith from the pole of the ecliptic, it is found by the fines of opposite sides and angles in the spheric triangle z p p: that is, sin. long. nonag.; co-s, lat.;; sin. $\angle z p p$: sin. alt. nonagefimal.

SECTION

SECTION VII.

Of Practical Astronomy.

205. Description and Use of Astronomical Instruments.

By Practical Astronomy is meant the knowledge of observing the celestial bodies with respect to their position, and time of the year; and of deducing from those observations, certain conclusions useful in calculating the time, when any proposed position of those bodies shall happen.

For this purpose the Astronomer, or Observer, should have an obser-

vatory properly furnished.

An Observatory is a room, or place, conveniently fituated, contrived, and furnished with proper astronomical instruments for observing the motions of the heavenly bodies: it should have an uninterrupted view, from the zenith, down to (or even below) the horizon, at least towards its cardinal points; and for this purpose that part of the roof which lies in the direction of the meridian, in particular, should have moveable covers, which may be easily removed and put on again: by which means an instrument may be directed to any point of the heavens between the horizon and zenith, as well to the northward as southward.

The furniture should consist of some, if not all, of the following in-

itruments.

1st. A PENDULUM CLOCK for shewing equal time.

2d. An Achromatic Refracting Telescope, or a Reflecting One, of two feet at least in length, for observing particular phænomena.

3d. A MICROMETER for measuring small angular distances.

4th. An ASTRONOMICAL QUADRANT for observing meridian altitudes of the celestial bodies.

5th. A Transit Instrument for observing objects as they pass over the meridian.

6th. An EQUATORIAL SECTOR to observe angular distances of several degrees, and the differences of right ascension and declination.

7th. An EQUAL ALTITUDE INSTRUMENT for finding when an ob-

jest has the same altitude on both sides of the meridian.

It is not intended to give in this work any other than a general account of these instruments, most of which have met with considerable improvements (if they were not contrived) by the late Mr. George Graham, F. R. S. one of the most eminent artists in mechanical contrivances that this, or any other nation has produced: those readers who are curious to see a minute description of such, and other, instruments, together with their use fully exemplified, may consult the second volume of Dr. Smith's complete Treatise of Optics, Stone's Treatise of Mathematical Instruments, the Philosophical Transactions, and the works of many writers who have treated on such subjects,

206. Of the Pendulum Clock.

A clock which shews time in hours, minutes, and seconds, should be chosen; with which the observer, by hearing the beats of the pendulum, may count them by his ear, while his eye is employed on the motion of

the celestial object he is observing.

Just before the object arrives at the position desired, the Observer should look on the clock and remark the time; suppose it 9^h 15^m 25^s; then saying 25, 26, 27, 28, &c. responsive to the beats of the pendulum, till he sees through the instrument the object arrived at the position expected, which suppose to happen when he says 38; he then writes down 9^h 15^m 38^s for the time of observation, annexing the year and day of the month.

If two persons are concerned in making the observation, one may read the time audibly, while the other observes through the instrument, the Obferver repeating the last second read, when the desired position happens.

207. Of the Telescope.

The Refracting Telescope is an inftrument with which almost every person is acquainted, especially the marine gentlemen; it will therefore be sufficient to remark here, that an assumption as the further eye; and one at the other end, usually called the object-glass, which has much the longer socal distance: such an instrument, although it inverts all objects, is yet as useful for viewing those in the heavens, as if it shewed them erect; the Observer knowing that the motions are in an opposite direction to those he sees through this telescope: But the Achromatic Refracting Telescope, which has been lately invented by Mr. Dolland, has its object-glass compounded of three glasses, and combined with two eye-glasses placed near each other. This instrument, which shews objects in their true position, need not exceed three feet and a half in length.

The Reflecting Telescope, as is generally well known, flews objects in their true politions; and as it is much shorter than the old re-

fracter, it is therefore in much greater effeem by some.

A telescope, used in astronomical observations, should have a metal frame fixed in the focus of its object-glass, carrying fine filver wires stretched at right angles to one another; one of them is to be vertical, and the other horizontal; the intersection of those wires ought to be exactly in the middle of the focus of the object-glass; a line passing through this intersection and the center of the object-glass, is called the line of fight, or line of collimation.

208. Of the Micrometer.

A MICROMETE: is an inftrument used to measure small angular diffrances by being placed in the socus of a telescope. This is effected by turning a screw, which moves a fine wire in a position parallel to itself, and also parallel to a fixed wire; both being in a plane at right angles to the line of collimation: the distance of these parallel wires is measured by the number of turns the screw has taken to cause their reges; which number of turns it shewn on a graduated circular plate (like that of a clock) by an

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

Book

e20

be

0

index, or hand, which revolves by the turning of the ferew: now the divisions on the plate, answering to a known angle or arc intercepted between the parallel wires, being known by experiment, any other distance, to which the wires can recede, may be known by proportion; and so a table of angles answering to every division on the circular plate may be formed, by which the observed angles will be readily known.

Thus in observing the diameter of a planet; when the wires are removed so far assumed, as to become parallel tangents at the same time to opposite points of the planet, the measure of the recess of the wires will

shew the diameter of the planet in minutes and seconds.

There is another micrometer published by the late very ingenious Mr. Dollond *, an account of which was given to the Royal Society by Mr. James Short, F. R. S. and published in the Philosophical Transactions for

the year 1753, which is thus.

Let a good circular object-glass be neatly cut into two semicircles; and each semicircle fitted in a metal frame, so that their diameters sliding on one another (by the means of a screw) may have their centers so brought together as to appear like one glass, and so form one image; or by their centers receding may form two images of the same object: it being a property of such glasses, for any segment, to exhibit a persect image of an object, although not so bright as the whole glass would give it.

Now proper scales being fitted to this instrument, to shew how far the centers recede, relative to the socal length of the glass, will also shew how far the two parts of the same object are asunder relative to its distance from the object-glass; and consequently give the angle under which the

distance of the parts of that object are seen.

209. Of the Astronomical Qudrant.

An ASTRONOMICAL QUADRANT is an inftrument in the form of a quarter of a circle, contained under two radii at right angles to one another, and an arch equal to one fourth part of the circumference of the circle, and confifts of the following parts.

1st. Its frame. This is usually composed of iron or brass bars, set at right angles to one another in as strong and neat a manner as a workman can contrive, to preserve the face of the instrument in the same plane, and

be as little affected by heat and cold as is possible.

2d. Its center. This center, which is a very fine point, should be contained in a separate piece of work screwed to the bars; and so contrived, that if the index, or telescope, by frequent motion in a length of time, should become irregular in its rotation, by the parts wearing, a new collar and socket may be fitted to the first center, and the instrument restored to its original accuracy.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® 3d, Its

^{*} The first notion of such a micrometer was given by Roemer, a Dane, in the year 1675; Mr. Savery, an Englishman, also thought of such a contrivance, which he communicated to the Royal Society in the year 1743; Mr. Bouguer, a Frenchman, also proposed it in the year 1748; and Mr. Dollond, an Englishman, published it in the year 1753: but the public are obliged to Mr. Short for putting the theory into execution, otherwise it might still have continued only as an ingenious thought,

3d. Its limb. This is a brass arch of about two inches broad, well fixed to the said frame-work, and generally continued a little farther at each end than the extent of 90 degrees; the two perpendicular radii may be also covered with plates of brass screwed to them; and the whole sace of the instrument is to be worked smooth, and brought into the same plane with the greatest care.

4th. Its divisions. The arcs of 60, 30, and 90 degrees, and also the intermediate degrees, together with such subdivisions as the size of the degrees will conveniently contain, are laid down by accurate methods

well known to good workmen.

5th. Its index or telescope. This, which is usually a brass tube containing the proper glasses and cross wires, is fixed near the object end to a brass plate, a little above a circular hole, or socket, in the plate: this socket goes round a collar concentric to the center, and fixed to the center-piece: so that, although the axis of the telescope does not, as a radius, pass through the center, yet it always keeps at the same distance from it in every position: to the eye-end of the tube is screwed a state plate, which slides along the limb with the telescope; this plate, called the Verneer, contains certain divisions, which, used with those on the limb, give the angle to minutes or seconds of a degree, according to the size of the instrument: the beginning of the divisions called the index, on the Vernier, is as far distant from the axis, or line of collimation, as the center is; and therefore the position of an object is given as truly, as if the line of collimation coincided with a radius.

6th. Its pedestal. This part, which should, by its construction, be very steady, may be either moveable or fixed: the moveable pedestal is commonly a strong pillar standing on a tripod, or three-footed stand; with holes through each foot, either to screw them to a floor, or to pin them to the ground: the fixed pedestal may be either a strong timber frame, or the wall of the observatory, or a stone shaft built from the ground through the middle of the floor of the observatory. On the top of the pillar, of either fort of pedestal, may be fixed a piece of machinery called the arm, which is attached by fcrews to the middle of the plane of the quadrant, on the under fide. The arm is contrived to give to the instrument, either an horizontal, vertical, or oblique motion; which motions should be steady, and free from jerks, or shakes: but when a wall, or stone shaft, is used as the supporter, the quadrant is then fixed to the wall, or fhaft (without its arm attached) and is called a MURAL ARCH; its plane is adjusted to that of the meridian, and this is the best method of fixing the quadrant for taking the meridian altitude of the flars, or planets.

7th. Its plummet. This is a sufficient ball, or weight, hanging to one end of a very fine silver wire, the upper end being fixed in the radius continued above the center. Now when the face of the quadrant is set in the plane of an azimuth circle, one of its radii is brought into a vertical position by the help of the plummet, the wire being made to bisect the center-point and the division of 90° on the arch; and to distinguish these bisections with accuracy, they are to be examined with a small prospect, or magnifying-glass: the ball should hang freely in a vessel of

water to check its vibrations.

210.

Of the transit Instrument.

This inftrument confifts of a telescope fixed at right angles to an horizontal axis, which axis must be so supported, that the line of collimation of the telescope may move in the plane of the meridian.

The axis, to the middle of which the telescope is fixed, should gradually taper towards its ends, and terminate in cylinders well turned and smoothed: and a proper balance is to be put on the tube, so that it may

stand at any elevation when its axis rests on the supporters.

Two upright posts of wood or stone, firmly fixed at a proper distance, are to sustain the supporters of this instrument: these supporters are two thick brass plates, having well smoothed angular notches in their upper ends to receive the cylindrical arms of the axis: each of the notched plates are contrived to be moveable by a screw, which slides them upon the surfaces of two other plates immoveably fixed to the two upright posts; one plate moving in a vertical, and the other in an horizontal, direction, to adjust the telescope to the planes of the horizon and meridian: to the plane of the horizon, by a spirit level hung in a parallel position to the axis, and to the plane of the meridian in the following manner.

Observe the times by the clock when a circumpolar star, seen through this instrument, transits both above and below the pole: and if the times of describing the eastern and western parts of its circuit are equal, the telescope is then in the plane of the meridian; otherwise, the notched plates must be gently moved till the time of the star's revolution is bisected by both the upper and lower transits, taking care at the same time

that the axis remains perfectly horizontal.

When the telescope is thus adjusted, a mark must be set at a considerable distance (the greater the better) in the horizontal direction of the intersection of the cross-wires, and in a place where it can be illuminated in the night-time by a lanthorn hanging near it; which mark being on a fixed object, will serve at all times afterwards to examine the position of the telescope by, the axis of the instrument being first adjusted by means of the level.

211. To adjust the Clock by the Sun's Transit over the Meridian.

Note the times by the clock, when the preceding and following edges of the fun's limb touch the crofs wires: the difference between the middle time and 12 hours, shews how much the mean, or time by the clock, is faster or slower than the apparent, or folar time for that day; to which the equation of time being applied, will shew the time of mean noon for that day, by which the clock may be adjusted.

212. Of the Equatorial Sector.

This is an instrument contrived for finding the difference in right afcension and declination between two objects, the distance of which is too

great great

great to be observed by means of a micrometer. It consists of the fol-

lowing particulars.

1st. A brass plate called a sector, formed like a T, having the shank (as a radius) of about $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet long, and 2 inches broad, and the cross piece (as an arch) of about 6 inches long, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch broad; upon which, with a radius of 30 inches, is described an arch of 10 degrees,

each being subdivided into as small parts as are convenient.

2d. Round a small cylinder, containing the center of this arch, and fixed in the shank, moves a plate of brass, to which is fixed a telescope, having its line of collimation parallel to the plane of the sector, and passing through the center of the arch and the index of a Vernier's dividing plate, which slides on the arch, and is fixed to the eye end of the telescope. This plate, with the telescope and Vernier, are moved on the cylinder, by means of a long screw which is at the back of the arch, and communicates with the Vernier through a slit cut in the brass work, parallel to the divided arch.

3d. A circular brass plate, of 5 inches diameter, round the center of which there moves a brass cross, which has the opposite ends of one bar turned up perpendicularly about 3 inches. These serve as supporters to the sector, and are screwed to the back of its radius, so that the plane of the sector is parallel to the plane of the circular plate, and revolves round

the center of that plate in this parallel position.

4th. A flat axis of 18 inches long is screwed to the back of the circular plate, along one of its diameters; so that the axis is parallel to the plane of the sector: the whole instrument is supported on a proper pedestal, in such a manner that the said axis is parallel to the axis of the earth; and proper contrivances are annexed for fixing it in that position.

Now the inffrument, thus supported, can revolve round its axis, parallel to the earth's axis, with a motion like that of the stars; the plane of the sector being always parallel to the plane of some hour circle, and consequently every point of the telescope describes a parallel of declination: and if the sector be turned round the joint of the circular plate, its graduated arch may be brought parallel to an hour circle; and consequently any two stars, between which the difference of declination is not greater than the number of degrees in that arch, may be observed by the instrument.

213. To observe their passage. Direct the telescope to the preceding star, and fix the plane of the sector a little to the westward of it; move the telescope by the screw, and observe the time shewn by the clock at the transit of each star over the cross wires, and also the division shewn by the index; then is the difference of the arches the difference of declination; and that of the times shews the difference of right ascension of

those stars.

214.

Of the Equal-Altitude Instrument.

An EQUAL-ALTITUDE INSTRUMENT is that used to observe a ccleftial object, when it has the same altitude on both the east and west sides of the meridian, or in the morning and asternoon; and consists of a telescope of about 30 inches long (with 2 vertical, and 3 or 5 horizontal, wires in its focus) supported on the end of an iron bar, or axis, of 30 inches long, and about an inch in diameter. The axis is sustained Vol. I. Univ Calif - Dickized by Microsoft ® in

in a vertical position by passing through a hole in the upper end of a brass box, whilst its lower end supports the lower point of the axis. The box, which is about 21 inches long, with ends about 4 inches square, has only two sides, which are fixed at right angles to each other. To one of these sides are fixed four flat arms, with a hole in each, by which the box is fixed in a vertical position to an upright post with screws. On the lower end of the box lies a brass plate, which slides in grooves, and can be moved gently backwards or forwards by means of a screw. In this plate a fine hole is punched to receive the smooth conical point, which the lower end of the axis is formed into. On the upper end of the box are two plates, which slide also in grooves; and, by the means of screws, can be moved gently sideways, till their angular notches embrace the axis; which, in this part, is made persectly cylindrical, and very smooth.

To the upper part of the axis is fixed, by its radius, a brass sextant (or arch of 60°, to a radius of seven or eight inches) with the arch downwards, so that the center is just above the top of the axis: also a spirit level is fixed at right angles across the axis, just under the arch, so

as to be clear of the upper end of the box.

To the under part of the telescope is fixed a brass semicircle, of the same radius with the sextant, both arches having a common center-pin. In the semicircle is a groove cut through the plate parallel to its limb, to receive two screw-pins, which go into the sextantal arch near its ends; by these screw-pins the two arches may be pressed close, and the telescope fixed in any desired elevation; which might be nearly ascertained, by graduating the semicircle, and putting a Vernier's scale on the sextant.

To use the Instrument. Fix the box to the post, put the axis into the box, letting the conical point drop into the punched hole, screw on the sevel, and annex the telescope, observing to insert the center and arch pins; then, by the help of the screw-plates at the bottom and top ends of the box, correct the vertical position of the axis, so that the same end of the air-bubble in the level may stand at the same point throughout the whole revolution of the axis, which will thereby be known to be then truely vertical, so that the telescope will describe a parallel of altitude: direct the tube to the sun, or star, and six it at the desired elevation by pressing the two arches together with the two screw pins.

Some instruments have been contrived to answer both kinds of obser-

vation; viz. cither a transit, or equal altitudes.

215. To adjust the Clock by equal altitudes of the Sun.

Having rectified the inftrument by the level, and being provided with a piece of transparently coloured or smoked glass to preserve the cye; then at any convenient time from about 6 to 3 hours before noon, direct the reletcope to the sun, and fix it by the arch, so that the whole body of the sun shall be above the upper wire (the ascent of the sun appearing through the telescope as a descent): mark the times shewn by the clock, when the preceding edge of the sun touches each of the wires; and also when

the following edge touches those wires, writing down those times; the instrument being turned horizontally on its axis to follow the Sun, and keep his center in the middle of the telescope between the vertical wires. About the same time after noon (taking care to be early enough) turn the instrument on its vertical axis, the telescope remaining fixed at the same elevation as in the morning, and rectifying its horizontal situation by the level, observe the Sun in its descent, which through the telescope apparently ascends, and write down the times, when the preceding edge touches each wire, and also when they are touched by the following edge, keeping the Sun in the middle of the telescope; and the sets of observations are made.

There are as many fets of observations, as there are horizontal wires: for the fore and afternoon contacts of the same edge of the Sun with the same wire, make one set; and the same edge which precedes in the forenoon, follows in the afternoon; and that which follows in the forenoon,

precedes in the afternoon; therefore the

Ift, 2d, 3d, &c. A. M. preceding, and the { laft, but one, laft but 2, &c. } P. M. following, make a fet.

Ift, 2d, 3d, &c. A. M. following, and the { last, but one, last but 2, &c. } P. M. preceding, make a set.

Then to each fet, or pair of observations, find the middle time, which added to the time of the morning observation, gives the time shewn by the clock when the Sun was on the meridian, if the observations were made within two or three days of the solftice, when the Sun's declination would not fensibly alter between the fore and afternoon observations: but on other days, this time must be corrected, by applying an equation to it, shewing the alteration in time, arising from the alteration in declination between the fore and afternoon observations.

The time, by the clock, of the folar or apparent noon being thus obtained, the time of the mean noon may be had by applying the proper

equation of time.

When the time of noon is fought from two or more pairs of observations, if they give different times, it is best to take the medium between them, which is found by dividing the sum of all the times by their number.

PROBLEM LV.

Given the latitude, the declination of the Sun, and interval of time between the Sun's having equal altitudes before and after noon, to find the distance from noon of the middle point of time between the observations.

1st. Find the change made in the Sun's declination during the interval between the observations; which will nearly bear the same proportion to the change made between the noon of the day, on which

21

the observations are made, and the noon of the day immediately preeeding or following, as the interval of time between the observations to

24 hours.

2dly. Add the co-tangent of the latitude to the co-fine of half the interval of time reduced to degrees and minutes of the equator; the fun, rejecting the radius, is the tangent of an arc to be taken less than a quadrant, when the interval of time is less than twelve hours, and greater than a quadrant, should the interval of time exceed twelve hours.

3dly. Add together the arithmetical complements of the fine of this arc, and of the fine of the Sun's distance from the pole at noon, the logarithmic fine of the difference of these arcs, the logarithmic co-tangent of half the interval of time in degrees, and the logarithm of half the change in the Sun's declination during the interval between the observations; the sun's declination during the interval between the observations; the sun's gives the distance of the middle point between the observations from noon, in seconds of time.

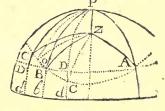
4thly. When the Sun's diffance from the elevated pole increases, this

middle point of time precedes noon, otherwife it falls beyond.

DEMONSTRATION.

Let p be the pole of the equator bd, z the zenith, A the morning place, c the afternoon place, ABD a parallel of declination, ABC a parallel of altitude.

Then the afternoon hour angle, ZPC, differs from the morning hour angle, ZPA, by the hour angle BPC, the points A and



B having the same declination and distance from the zenith; and the arc Po bisecting the ∠BPC, the ∠ZPO will be half the interval of time, which being increased or diminished by half the ∠BPC, will give the position of the meridian to A or C; also PO will be the Sun's distance from the pole at noon.

Now here the difference between PB, Po, Pc being but small, the LBPo will be to the difference between Po and PB, or PE, that is, half

PB OFC, nearly as t, Poz to s, Po *.

s, 10 U. M X 1, ZPO = s, M X 1, FOZ.

But \angle BPo: $\frac{PB \otimes PC}{2}$:: f, PoZ: s, Po:: s, M X f, PoZ: s, M X s, Pog

therefore $\angle PP0 : \frac{PB \otimes PC}{2} :: s, Po \otimes M \times f, ZP0 : s, M \times s, Po,$ conformably to the rule above laid down.

^{*} See Cotes. Estimat. Error, in Mixt. Math. Theorem 23.

DS 1)

in-lini, 12d-

Tier.

his

0.

3(

EXAMPLE. 217.

In the latitude 50° N. on the 27th of October, 1780, the Sun was observed to have equal altitudes at 9 h. 11 m. 50 s. A. M. and at 2 h. 22 m. 22 s. P. M. by a clock adjusted nearly to the true measure of time, to find what correction may be wanted to fet this clock to the true hour of the day, the Sun's distance from the pole on the 27th day at noon being 1636

6' 34", and on the 28th 103° 26' 38".

Here the interval of time is 5 h. 10 m. 32 s. its half is 2 h. 35 m. 16 s. in degrees and minutes of the equator 38° 49', and the difference in de-

clination in one day is 20' 4".

Then 24 h.: 5 h. 10 m. 32 s.:: 20' 4": 4' 20' = 260", the alteration in declination, the half of which is 2' 10"=130'.

Latitude 50° log.
$$t$$
, 9,92381 33° t 0′ $32''$ L'.s, 0,26185
 $\frac{1}{2}$ time = 38° 49′ log. t , 9,89162 103 06 34 L'.s, 0,01147
69 56 02 log. t , 9,97280
33° 10′ $32''$ log. t , 9,81543 38 49 0 log. t , 10,09447
130″ log. 2,11394
corr. = 285″ log. 2,45453
or 19 (ec. of time.

Hence, for fetting the clock to the true hour of the day, add the half interval of time 2 h. 35 m. 16 s. to 9 h. 11 m. 50 s.; the fum 11 h. 47 m. 6 s. is the middle time between the observations, as noted by the clock.

And 11 h. 47 m. 6 s. + 19 s. = 11 h. 47 m. 25 s. will be the time pointed out by the clock, when the Sun passes the meridian, and shews

the clock to be 12 m. 35 s. behind the Sun.

Though the clock should not keep time with perfect exactness, yet if the deviation is but small, the correction computed will not differ much from the truth; and the clock being examined again within a few days, will show whether it keeps time truly, or moves too fast or too slow, and its rate of going may be corrested accordingly.

218. The method here directed supposes the ship to be flationary: But the Abbé de la Caille proposes a method of correcting a watch at sea, even while the ship is in motion, by taking two equal altitudes of the Sun with

a quadrant, one before and the other after noon.

His method is this. With the common altitude observed, together with the latitudes at the time of each observation, and the Sun's correct declination to those times, the times from noon are to be computed at both observations, which times being applied to the two times of observation, give the respective times of noon: then the mean of the two noons being taken, will give the time shewn by the watch when it was the true mid-

Or. Half the difference of the computed noons being applied to either

of them, will also give the true time of noon.

And although the latitudes used in the computations be something erroneous, yet the altitudes being equal, the error in each of the computed distances from noon will be nearly the same, if the change in latitude and longitude between the observations be duly attended to.

219. Of the Vernier's dividing plate.

When the relative unit of any line is to be divided into many small equal parts, those parts may be too many to be conveniently introduced, or if introduced, they may be too close to one another to be readily estimated; and on these accounts there has been a variety of methods contrived for estimating the aliquot parts of the small divisions, into which the relative unit of a line may be commodiously divided; among those methods that is most justly preferred which was published by Peter Vernier (a gentleman of Franche Comté) at Brussels, in the year 1631; and which, by some strange statility, is most unjustly, although commonly, called by the name of Nonius: for Nonius's method is not only very different from that of Vernier's, but much less convenient.

Vernier's method is derived from the following principle.

If two equal right lines, or circular arcs A, B, are so divided, that the number of equal divisions in B is one less than the number of equal divisions of Δ ; then will the excess of one division of B above one division of A be compounded of the ratios of one of A to A, and one of B to B.

For let A contain 11 parts; then one of A to A, is as 1 to 11; or $\frac{1}{11}$.

Let B contain 10 parts; then one of B to B, is as I to 10; or I 10.

Now
$$\frac{1}{10} - \frac{1}{11} = \left(\frac{10 \times 11}{10 \times 11} - \frac{1}{11 \times 10}\right) = \frac{10 \times 11}{10 \times 11} = \frac{1}{10 \times 11} = \frac{$$

Or. If B contains n parts, and A is of n+1 parts;

Then $\frac{1}{n}$ is one part of B, and $\frac{1}{n+1}$ is one part of A.

And
$$\frac{\mathbf{I}}{n} = \frac{\mathbf{I}}{n+1} = \left(\frac{\mathbf{I} \times \overline{n+1}}{n \times n+1} - \frac{\mathbf{I} \times n}{n+1 \times n}\right) = \frac{n+1-n}{n \times n+1} = \frac{\mathbf{I}}{n \times n+1} =$$

Or thus. Let A and B be unequal right lines, or circular arcs; and let any part of A, confidered as the relative unit, be divided into n parts; and a part of B, equal to m + 1 parts of A, be divided into m parts: then will $\frac{1}{m}$ th of $B = \frac{1}{n}$ th of $A = \frac{1}{m}$ th of $B \times \frac{1}{n}$ th of A.

But n parts of A: I unit of A:: m + 1 parts of A: $\frac{m+1}{n}$ units of A.

But m parts of B = (m+1) parts of A = (m+1) units of A.

Then m parts of B: $\frac{m+1}{n}$ units of A:: 1 part of B: $\frac{m+1}{m \times n}$ units of A.

Therefore

-

Rad.

Therefore
$$\frac{m+1}{m \times n} - \frac{1}{n} = \left(\frac{m+1}{m \times n} - \frac{m \times 1}{n \times m} = \frac{m+1-m}{m \times n} - \frac{1}{n \times m} - \right)$$

The most commodious divisions, and their aliquot parts, into which the degrees on the circular limb of an instrument may-be supposed to be divided, depend on the radius of that instrument.

Let R be the radius of a circle in inches; and a degree to be divided

in n parts, each degree being $\frac{1}{p}$ th of an inch.

Now the circumference of a circle in parts of its diameter, 2R inches, is 3,1415926 x 2R inches. (II. 197)

Then $360^{\circ}: 3,1415926 \times 2R:: 1^{\circ}: \frac{3,1415926}{360} \times 2R$ inches.

Or, 0,01745379 \times R is the length of one degree, in inches. Or, 0,01745379 \times R \times p is the length of 1°, in pth parts of an inch. But as every degree contains n times fuch parts, Therefore $n=0,01745379 \times R \times p$.

The most commodious perceptible division is $\frac{1}{8}$ or $\frac{1}{10}$ of an inch.

Exam. Suppose an instrument of 30 inches radius: into how many convenient parts may each degree be divided? how many of those parts are to go to the breadth of the Vernier, and to what parts of a degree may an observation be made by that instrument?

Now 0,01745 x R = 0,5236 inches, the length of each degree.

And if p be supposed about $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch for one division.

Then 0,5236 \times p=4,188, shews the number of such parts in a degree. But as this number must be an integer, let it be 4, each being 15'. And let the breadth of the *Vernier* contain 31 of those parts, or $7\frac{3}{4}$ °, and be divided into 30 parts.

Here $n = \frac{1}{4}$; $m = \frac{1}{30}$; then $\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{30} = \frac{1}{120}$ of a degree, or 30%. Which is the least part of a degree that instrument can shew.

If $n = \frac{1}{5}$, and $m = \frac{1}{36}$; then $\frac{1}{5} \times \frac{1}{36} = \frac{60}{5 \times 36}$ of a minute, or 20%.

220. The following table, taken as examples in the inflruments commonly made from 3 inches to 8 feet radius, flews the divitions of the limb to nearest tenths of inches, so as to be an aliquot of 60's, and what parts of a degree may be estimated by the Vernier, it being divided into such equal parts, and containing such degrees, as their columns show.

Rad.	Parts in 2 deg.	Parts in Vernier.		Parts observed.	Rad, inches	Parts in a deg.	Parts in Vernier.	Breadth of Ver.	Parts observed.
3 6 9 12 15 18 21 24	1 1 2 2 2 3 3 4 4	15 20 20 24 20 30 30 36	1510 1014 104 104 104 104 104 104 104 104	4 0" 3 0 1 30 1 15 1 0 0 40 0 30 0 25	30 36 42 48 60 72 84 96	5 6 8 9 10 12 15	30 30 30 40 36 30 40 60	7 ½ 0 7 ½ 5 ¼ 3 ½ 4 9 3 ½ 0 2 ½ ½ 2 ½ 2 ½ 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	0' 20" 0 20 0 15 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 6 0 4

By altering the number of divisions, either in the degrees or in the Vernier, or in both, an angle can be observed to a different degree of accuracy. Thus to a radius of 30 inches, if a degree be divided into 12 parts, each being five minutes, and the breadth of the Vernier be 21 such parts, or $1\frac{3}{4}$ °, and divided into 20 parts, then $\frac{1}{12} \times \frac{1}{20} = \frac{1}{240} = 15''$: or taking the breadth of the Vernier of $2\frac{1}{12}$ °, and divided into 30 parts; then $\frac{1}{12} \times \frac{1}{30} = \frac{1}{360}$, or 10'': Or $\frac{1}{12} \times \frac{1}{50} = \frac{1}{600} = 6''$; where the breadth of the Vernier is $4\frac{1}{4}$ °.

SECTION VIII.

Practical Astronomy.

The ELEMENTS of the EARTH'S MOTION.

\$21. By the theory of the Sun, or Earth, is meant the knowledge of all the requifites, or elements, necessary for determining its place in the ecliptic at any proposed time.

222. MEAN MOTION, or MEAN ANGULAR VELOCITY, is a motion made uniformly in the circumference of a circle, the center of motion being the center of that circle.

The mean motion of a planet is the degree and parts shewing its distance from the first point of Aries, reckoned in the order of the figns.

223. Anomaly, or True Anomaly, is an angle made by two lines drawn from the center of motion, one to the Aphelion, or Apogee, and the other to the place of the revolving body, or planet: Or, Anomaly is the angular diffance of a planet from its Aphelion, the angular point being the center of motion.

224. MEAN ANOMALY is that made by an uniform circular motion about the center, and is the fame as mean motion, beginning at the Aphelion.

225. Ex-

225. ECCENTRIC ANOMALY is an angular distance from the aphelion, determined in a circle on the transverse axis by a normal to that axis, passing through the planet's place in its elliptical orbit.

226. The EQUATION OF THE CENTER, fometimes called the profiba-

phæresis, is the distance between the mean and true anomalies.

227. The motion of the equinoxes is the same as the precession of the equinoxes, which is backwards, or contrary to the order of the signs; by which the stars appear to have advanced forwards from the equinoctial point

Aries: this motion is about 50 feconds of a degree in a year.

228. The motion of the apfides is a flow motion of the Earth's orbit around the Sun in the order of the figns; discovered by the apogeon changing its place among the fixed stars: this motion is found, by comparing distant observations together, to be about 16 seconds of a degree in a year, in respect to the fixed stars; and about 66 seconds (=50"+16") with respect to the equinoxes.

229. A TROPICAL or SOLAR YEAR is the time elapfed between two fuccessive passages of the Sun through the same Equinoctial or Solssital

points of the ecliptic.

230. A SIDERIAL YEAR is the time the Sun takes between his depar-

ture from any fixed star to his next return to that star.

231. An Anomalastic Year is the interval of time between two fucceeding passages of the Sun through the same apsis.

232. By the annexed figure the foregoing articles may be easily comprehended.

On the line of the apfides AP describe a circle ADP, called the excentric; and an ellipsis AEP for the Earth's orbit, having the excentricity cs. Let s be the place of the Sun, c the center of the orbit, A the aphelion, P the perihelion; sA the aphelion, or apogeon distance; sP the perigeon distance.

Let E be a true place of the earth in its orbit; D a corresponding place in the excentric, in FE

continued, normal to AP.

Let the \angle ACB represent the mean anomaly; the \angle ACD is the eccentric anomaly; and the \angle ASB is the true anomaly; the difference between \angle ACB and \angle ASE is the equation of the center.

D E F

When the Earth is in the apfides, then B and E fall together in A and P, and here is no equation of the center, the mean and true anomalies being equal; but the greatest equation of the center must be, when the Earth is at its mean distance from the Sun.

233. Observations shew, that in this age the Earth passes the apogee on the 30th of June, when its daily motion is 57'12"; and passes the perigee on the 30th of December, when the daily motion is 61'12": and is at the mean distance about the 28th of March and 30th of September, when its daily motion is 59'8".

234.

PROBLEM LVI.

To find the Latitude of a Place.

SOLUTION. Select a star, the distance of which from the pole star does not exceed 8 or 10 degrees; and observe with a quadrant the greatest and least meridional altitudes; then

If both observations are on the same side of the zenith;

Half the fum of the alts. is the latitude, on the fame fide of the zenith.

If the observations are on different sides of the zenith;

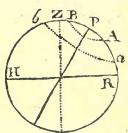
Half the difference of the altitudes is the co-latitude, on the same fide of the zenith, with the leffer altitude.

For let HZR be the meridian, HR the horizon, z the zenith, RB, RA, two altitudes on the fame fide of the zenith; Hb, Ra, two altitudes on contrary fides of the zenith.

Then, the arc AB, or ab, being bisected, will give P the position of the elevated pole.

For a flar is equally diffant from P in its revolution.

Therefore PA=PB; or Pa=Pb; and RP equal to the latitude.



Hence RP =
$$\left(RA + PA = \frac{2RA}{2} + \frac{2PA}{2} = \frac{RA + RA + AB}{2} = \right) \frac{RA + RB}{2}$$

And RP = $\left(Ra + Pa = \frac{2Ra}{2} + \frac{2Pb}{2} = \frac{Ra + Ra + ab}{2} = \frac{RPb + Ra}{2}$
= $\frac{180^{\circ} - Hb \circ RA}{2} = \frac{180^{\circ} - Hb \circ Ra}{2}$.

235. REMARKS. 1. There will be about 12 hours between the two observations.

2. This method is subject to a small error, on account of the lesser altitude being more affected by refraction, than the greater.

236.

PROBLEM LVII.

To find the Obliquity of the Ecliptic.

SOLUTION. Let the meridian altitude of the Sun's center be observed on the days of the summer and winter solftice; the difference of those altitudes will be the distance of the tropics; and half that distance will shew the obliquity of the ecliptic.

OR. The meridian altitude at the fummer folflice, lessened by the co-

latitude of the place, will give the obliquity of the ecliptic.

From good observations the obliquity of the ecliptic, about the time of

the vernal equinox 1772, was found to be 23° 28'.

Diffant observations compared together, shew that the obliquity is decreasing at the rate of about one minute in 120 years.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft 237. Remark.

237. REMARK. By the second method the declinations of the fixed stars, or of any other celestial phenomenon, may be found; observing that their declination is of the same name, viz. north or south, with the latitude of the place, when its complement is less than the altitude; otherwise, of a contrary name with the latitude.

238.

PROBLEM LVIII.

To find the Time of an Equinox.

SOLUTION. In a place the latitude of which is known, let the Sun's meridian altitude be taken on the day of the equinox, and on the day preceding, and that following it. Then the difference between those altitudes and the co-latitude will be the Sun's declinations at the times of observations.

(236)

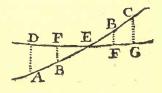
If either of the altitudes is equal to the co-latitude, that observation

was made at the time of the equinox.

But if the co-latitude is unequal to either of the altitudes, proceed

thus. Let DG represent the equator; AC the ecliptic, E the equinoctial point; the points A, B, C, the places of the Sun at the times of observation; the arcs AD, BF, CG, the corresponding declinations.

Now using either the two first, or two last observations, suppose the latter, in the right-angled spherical triangles CEG, BEF,



in which there are known the obliquity of the ecliptic, and the declinations; find EC, EB; then BC, the fund or difference of EC, EB, is the ecliptic arc described in 24 hours. Then say,

As BC to BE, so 24 hours for BC, to the time corresponding to BE.

And this time shews the distance of the equinox from the time of the middle observation.

239.

PROBLEM LIX.

To find the length of the tropical, periodical, and anomalistical revolutions of the earth.

SOLUTION. Let two observations be chosen, among the most authentic of those on record, of the time when the Sun had like positions, viz.

1st. In regard to his longitude, or place in the ecliptic. 2d. In regard to the right ascension of some noted star.

3d. In respect to the line of the apsides.

The greater the interval (suppose 80 or 100 years) between each two observations, the more accurate will be the result: then that interval being divided by the number of revolutions made during that time, will give the time of one periodical revolution.

According to Mayer's tables the numbers are thefe,

A tropical year is made in 365^d 5^h 48^m 42ⁿ. A periodical, or fiderial revolution 365 6 9 7. An anomalistic revolution 365 6 15 29.

240. REMARKS. 1. The tropical year being fhorter than the siderial by 20 m. 25 s., shews that the Sun has returned to the same point of the ecliptic, before he has made one complete revolution with regard to the stars; and consequently every point of the ecliptic must have moved in antecedentia during that tropical period, and so have produced what is called the precession of the equinoxes.

Now 365 d. 6 h. 9 m. 7 s.: 360°:: 20 m. 25 s.: 50", 3, or nearly 50",

for the precession in one year.

If there was no precession, the tropical and siderial years would be

equal.

243.

241. 2. A fiderial revolution being performed fooner by 6 m. 22 s. than the anomalistic, shews that the line of the apsides has a motion in confequentia: now 365 d. 15 h. 29 m.: 360°:: 6 m. 22 s.: 15",7, the yearly quantity by which the Sun's apogee is advanced in respect to the stars: and as the equinoxes move in antecedentia, and the apsides in confequentia, their sum 66" (=50,3+15,7) shews the motion of the apsides

from the equinoxes.

242. 3d. From the comparison of many observations it appears, that the length of the solar year, deduced from two very distant observations made at the time when the Sun was in the same point of the ecliptic near its apogee, differs by many seconds from the length of the year deduced by like observations, when the Sun was in another part of the ecliptic, near its perigee; those made near the apogee giving the revolutions less, and those made near the perigee making them greater, than the revolutions deduced from observations taken at the Sun's mean distance; this also shews, that the line of the apsides has a motion in confequentia; and that the length of a tropical revolution should be determined from very distant observations, made at the times when the Sun is at its mean distance from the Earth; or that the mean revolution should be taken between those deduced from observations made on the Sun's place, when he is in both the apogee and perigee.

PROBLEM LX.

To find the right afcension of some noted fixed star.

Having a good clock well regulated to mean or equal time, a large aftronomical quadrant fixed in the plane of the meridian, and an equal altitude or transit inftrument: then, on some day a little before or after the vernal equinox, when the daily alteration of the Sun's declination is about 18 or 20 minutes, observe the Sun's meridian altitude; and by equal altitudes find the times when both Sun and star come to the meridian; the difference of these times is their difference of right ascension.

Again. At some time a little after or before the autumnal equinox, before the Sun has passed the said declination, observe his meridian altitude; and by equal altitudes find the times of the Sun and same star's coming to the meridian, the difference of those times is also the difference of their right ascensions.

If the vernal and autumnal meridian altitudes are the fame, then those observations were made, when the Sun was on the same parallel of declination: now the sum, or diff. of the two observed differences of right afcention, thews the equatorial are described by the Sun between those times; which arc, being bisected, shews the distance of the nearest folflice from the Sun, at the time when the observations have equal altitudes; and that distance corrected and taken from 90°, shows the Sun's right ascension at the vernal observation, or its complement to 360 de-

From hence, and the first difference of right ascension between the

Sun and star, the star's right ascension will be obtained.

244. If the two meridian altitudes of the Sun are not the same, their difference shews the difference of the mid-day declinations, when those observations were taken: now from some tables of right ascension and declination take the Sun's daily alteration in declination and right ascenfion on the day the leffer altitude was taken; then fay, As the daily change of deel, is to that of right afcen.; fo is the diff. of the altitudes, to the correction in right afcension.

This correction being added to the vernal, or subtracted from the autumnal difference of right ascension, as either is least, reduces that difference of right afcention to what it would be when the declination is the same with the other; and then the difference between those two differences of right ascension, so reduced, gives the equatorial arc, as before

recited.

245. At the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, in the year 1770, obfervations were made on the Sun and the star a Aquilæ. March 15, Sun's mer. zen. dist. cleared of refraction and parallax, was

53° 28′ 29″; and their diff. of rt. afc. was 60° 30′ 7,8″.

Sep. 28th. Sun's mer. zen. dift. cleared of refraction and parallax, was

53° 36′ 26"; and their diff. of rt. asc. was 109° 59′ 22,8".

Then 7 57" is the diff. of zen. difts. or the alteration in declination. Also 23'40" and (3^m 39' or) 54' 45" are the diffs. of decl. and rt. asc. between the 15th and 16th days of March 1770.

Now 23' 40': 7' 57":: 54' 45": 18' 23,5" the increase of the difference of right ascension after the noon of the 15th of March. Then 60° 30' 07,8"-18' 23,5"=60° 11' 44,3" which is the first diff. rt. asc. when the Sun had the same decl. as at the second observation.

Here, the times of the two observations fall nearest the winter solftice. Then 60° 11' 44,3" + 109° 59' 22,8"=170° 11' 7"; its half 85° 5' 33,5"

is the distance of the winter solstice from the Sun.

Hence 270° + 85° 5′ 33,5" + 18′ 23,5" = 355° 23′ 57" is the Sun's rt. asc. on March 15th.

Also 355° 23′ 57″ -60° 30′ 7,8″ = 294° 53′ 49,2″ is the rt. asc. of α

Aquilæ.

246. The right ascension of one star being known, the right ascenfions of all the rest are found by noting the times shewn by the clock, when those stars come to the meridian: for the differences of those times, from the transit of the chosen star, are the differences of right ascension; by which the right ascension of all the observed stars will be known; taking care to augment or diminish the right ascension of the chosen star by those differences, according as the choten star is preceded, or followed by the other observed stars.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft B. PRQ.

247-

PROBLEM LXI.

To find the Sun's Place.

Solution. Let the time be observed both when the Sun, and a star (the right ascension of which is known) passed the meridian, and hence the Sun's right ascension is known.

With that right ascension, and the obliquity of the ecliptic, compute (142) the longitude, and thus his place in the ecliptic will be known.

248.

PROBLEM LXII.

To find the greatest Equation of the Center.

SOLUTION. At the times when the Sun is near his mean distance, let his longitude be found; their difference will shew the true motion for that interval of time.

. Find also the Sun's mean motion for that interval of time.

Then half the difference between the true and mean motions will shew

the greatest equation of the center.

Observation made at the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, shews that 1769 October 1st. at 23h 49m 12s mean time, olong. was 6s 9° 32' 0,6" 1770 March 29th. at 0 4 50 mean time, olong. was 0 8 50 27,5

The diff. of time 178d. 0 15 38; True diff. long. 5 29 18 27

The tropical year = 365 d. 5h. 48 m. 42 s. = 365,2421527

The observed interval=178 0 15 38 = 178,01085648.

Then 365,2421527: 178,01085648::360°:175,455948 mean motion.
So 175° 27' 21" of mean motion, answers to 179° 18' 27" true motion.

Their diff. = 3° 51' 6"; its half 1° 55' 33" is the greatest equation of the center according to these observations.

249.

PROBLEM LXIII.

To find the eccentricity of the Earth's orbit.

Solution. Say, As the diameter of a circle in degrees,
To the diameter in equal parts;
So the greatest equation of the center in degrees,
To the eccentricity in equal parts.

The greatest equation of the center 1° 55′ 33″=1°,9258333, &c.

The diam. of a circle being 1, its circums. is 3,1415926. (II. 197)

Then 3,1415926:1::360°:114°,5915609 equal to the diameter.

And 114,591609:1,00&c.::1,9258333:0,0168061 the eccentricity.

Hence 1,016806 (=1,000000+0,016806) = aphelion distance.

And 0,983194 (=1,000009-0,016806) = perihelion distance.

250.

PROBLEM LXIV.

To find the time and place of the Sun's Apogee.

SOLUTION. On each day of two fuccessive apsides let the Sun's place and the time be observed.

Then if the interval of those times and places is equal to the halves of 365d. 6h. 15 m. 29 s. and 360° 1′ 6″; those observations were made when the Sun was in the apsides.

For such intervals of time and place belong to no other points of the

Earth's orbit.

But if those observed intervals of time and place differ from the said halves, take the difference between the interval of place and 180° o' 33".

Then to the daily motion of the Sun's apogee (233), the faid diff. and 24 h. find the proportional time; which proportional time and difference, being applied to the time, and places, of the apogeon observation, gives a time and place when it is 180° o' 33'' distant from the observed perigeon place: now if the interval of these times is equal to $182 \, \text{d.} 15 \, \text{h.} 7 \, \text{m.}$ $44\frac{1}{2} \, \text{s.}$ the times and places of the apsides are known.

But if the interval of time differs from 182 d. 15 h. 7 m. $44\frac{1}{2}$ s., fay, As the diff, between the perigeon and the apogeon daily motions, is to the daily motion of the apogee; so is the diff. of the interval of time, to a second cor-

restion of the time of the apogee.

This correction applied to the apogeon time, corrected as above, will

give the true time of the Sun's apogee.

Also, to the last correction of time find the proportional motion of the Sun's apogee; and apply it to the last corrected place of the apogee, and the true place of the apogee will be obtained.

By observations made at the Royal observatory at Greenwich in the

year 1769.

July 1st. at 0^h 3^m 20^s mean time \odot long. =3^s 9^o 46^m 38,5" December 29th. at 0 2 49 mean time \odot long. =9 8 10 58,1

Interval 180 d. 23 59 29. Interval of place = 5 28 24 19,6
The Sun's motion in half an anomalific year 6 0 0 33

The Sun's place at first observation is too forward by 1 36 13,4 Then 57' 12": 1° 36' 13,4": 24 h.: 40 h. 22 m. 24 s. to be taken from the time of July 1st, to make the distance of the times answer to the half of 360° 1' 6"; and it leaves June 29 d. 7 h. 40 m. 56 s.; at which time, the sun was in 3° 8° 10', 25,1", which is distant from the December observation by 180° 0' 33": But here the interval of time is 182 d. 16 h. 21 m. 53 s.; which is greater than 182 d. 15 h. 7 m. $44^{\frac{1}{2}}$ s. the half anomalistic revolution, by 1 h. 14 m. $8^{\frac{1}{2}}$ s.; therefore the Sun has some time to run before he comes to the apogee.

Now 4'0": 57'12":: 1 h. 14 m. 8½s.: 17 h. 13 m. 14s. correction of time. And 24 h.: 17 h. 13 m. 14s.:: 57' 12": 42'6,8". correction of place.

Then June 29 d. 7 h. 4 m. 56 s. + 17 h. 13 m. 14 s. gives June 30 d. 0 h. 21 m. 10 s. for the time of the apogee.

and 3' 8' 20': 25,1"+42' 6,8" gives 3' 8' 52' 33" for the place of the space.

251. PRO-

PROBLEM LXV.

At any given time to find the Sun's mean anomaly.

Solution. Let an epocha of the Sun's passage through its aphelion be accurately determined. Then say,

As the time of a tropical revolution, or folar year, To the interval between the aphelion and given time;

So is 360 degrees,

To the degrees shewing the mean anomaly.

OR. From the tables of mean motions find the Sun's mean motion for the given time, and this will be the mean anomaly.

252. If the Sun's motion in the ecliptic was uniform, his true place for any time could be found by the tables of his mean motion; but the Sun's longitude found by those tables, called his mean longitude, must be corrected on account of his irregular motion.

As the Earth revolves in an elliptical orbit about the Sun, placed in one of its foci, its angular motion round the Sun will differ from the angular

motion it would have, were the Sun in the center of the ellipsis.

Now the table of mean motions gives the angular motions from the center of the ellipfis in a circle described on the line of the apsides, and reckoned from the first point of Aries; this motion, lessened by that of the apogee, gives the Sun's mean longitude, or mean anomaly, from the aphelion point.

But the motion of the Earth being in an elliptic orbit, its true anomaly will differ from its mean; this difference, called the equation of the center, is the correction wanted to reduce the mean motions to the

true ones.

253. To find the equation of the center, or to folve (what is called) the Keplerian problem, is the most distinct operation, particularly in orbits the eccentricity of which bears a considerable proportion to the mean distance: how to do this has been shewn by Newton, Gregory, Keil, La Caille, and many others, by methods little differing from one another: it consists chiefly in finding an intermediate angle, called the eccentric anomaly, as shewn in the following problem.

PROBLEM LXVI.

The Sun's mean anomaly being known, and the dimensions of its orbit, to find the eccentric anomaly.

Solution. Say, As the aphelion diftance,

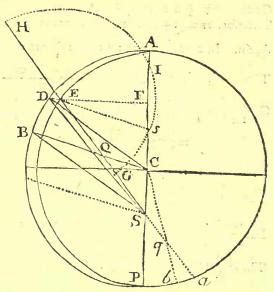
To the perihelion diftance:

So is the tan. $\frac{1}{2}$ the mean anomaly,

To the tan. of an arc. Which are added to half the mean anomaly gives the excentric anomaly.

For let ADPB be the excentric.

AEP the Earth's orbit, c the center, s the Sun A the aphelion, P the perihelion, E the true place, D the correfponding place in the excentric, and B the mean place.



Now it is evident, that the less the eccentricity is, the nearer will the elliptic orbit approach the excentric circle; the nearer will the true and mean places, E and B, approach one another; and the less will be the difference between the mean, the excentric, and the true anomalies; also the nearer will the lines CD, SB, approach to parallelism, or coincidence; so that in orbits of small eccentricities CD and SB may be taken as parallel lines, particularly in the Earth's orbit, where CS is only about to GCP.

Therefore $\angle ASB = \angle ACD$ the excentric anomaly.

Then in the triangle BCs, where the fum of the fides BC + Cs = sA; the diff. of the fides BC—Cs=sp, and \(\subseteq BCs \) (= fupplement of ACB) are known; the \(\subseteq CSB \) may be found. (III. 48)

Thus sa: sp::tan. $\frac{1}{2}$ (fum $\angle s$, csb+b=) \angle acb: tan. of an arc. Then $\frac{1}{2}$ \angle acb+that arc= \angle csb (III 47.) the excentric anomaly.

PROBLEM LXVII.

The Sun's excentric anomaly, and the dimensions of its orbit being known, to find the true anomaly.

Solution. Say, As the square root of the aphelion distance,

To the square root of the perihelion distance,
So tangent of half the excentric anomaly,
To tangent of half the true anomaly.

For let a femicircle be described from E through the other focus, sutting AP in s, I, and sE, produced, in G, H.

Then (II. 172) sh: si:; ss: sg = $\left(\frac{\text{SI} \times \text{SS}}{\text{SH}} - \frac{\text{Ss} + \text{SI} \times \text{SS}}{\text{SE} + \text{ES}}\right) \frac{2\text{CF} \times 2\text{CS}}{2\text{CA}}$

Vol. I. Univ Calif - Dig tized by Microsoft ® Qr

Or $CF \times CS = (\frac{1}{2}SG =)\frac{1}{2}SE - \frac{1}{2}ES$; $CA(=\frac{1}{2}SE + \frac{1}{2}ES)$ being radius, and EI. Therefore $SE = (I + CS \times CF (III. 47) =)I + CS \times S$, ACD. (III. 9)

Again. In \triangle sfe. As se: R:: sf:s, ASE = $\left(\frac{\text{SF}}{\text{SE}}\right) \frac{\text{SC} + \text{s}, ACD}{1 + \text{SC} \times \text{s}, ACD}$

Then I+i, AsE:I-i, $AsE::I+\frac{SC+i$, $ACD}{I+SC\times i$, $ACD}:I-\frac{SC+i$, $ACD}{I+SC\times i$, ACD

Or
$$\frac{1-s^2, ASE}{1+s^2, ASE} = \frac{1+sc \times s^2, ACD-sc-s^2, ACD}{1+sc \times s^2, ACD+sc+s^2, ACD}$$

$$= \frac{1-sc+sc \times s^2, ACD-s^2, ACD}{1+sc+sc \times s^2, ACD+s^2, ACD}$$

$$= \frac{s + cs-sc \times s^2, ACD-s^2, ACD}{s + cs-sc \times s^2, ACD-s^2, ACD}$$

$$= \frac{s + cs-sc \times s^2, ACD-s^2, ACD}{s + cs-sc \times s^2, ACD-s^2, ACD}$$

$$= \frac{s + cs-sc \times s^2, ACD-s^2, ACD}{s + cs-sc \times s^2, ACD-s^2, ACD}$$

$$= \frac{1-s^2, ACD}{s + cs-sc \times s^2, ACD-s^2, ACD}$$

$$= \frac{1-s^2, ACD}{s + cs-sc \times s^2, ACD-s^2, ACD}$$

$$= \frac{1-s^2, ACD}{s + cs-sc \times s^2, ACD-s^2, ACD}$$

$$= \frac{1-sc + sc \times s^2, ACD-s^2, ACD}{s + cs-sc \times s^2, ACD-s^2, ACD}$$

$$= \frac{1-sc + sc \times s^2, ACD-s^2, ACD}{s + cs-sc \times s^2, ACD-s^2, ACD}$$

$$= \frac{1-sc + sc \times s^2, ACD-s^2, ACD}{s + cs-sc \times s^2, ACD-s^2, ACD}$$

$$= \frac{1-sc + sc \times s^2, ACD-s^2, ACD-s^$$

But $\frac{\mathbf{r} - s^2, ASE}{\mathbf{l} + s^2, ASE} = tt, \frac{1}{2}ASE$; and $\frac{\mathbf{l} - s^2, ACD}{\mathbf{l} + s^2, ACD} \times \frac{sP}{sA} = tt, \frac{1}{2}ACD \times \frac{sP}{sA}$. (IV. 217)

Then $\frac{\$ P}{\$ A} \times tt, \frac{1}{2} ACD = tt, \frac{1}{2} ASE$. Or $\frac{\$ P}{\$ A} = \frac{tt, \frac{1}{2} ASE}{tt, \frac{1}{2} ACD}$.

Therefore $\left(\frac{\sqrt{SP}}{\sqrt{SA}} = \frac{t, \frac{1}{2}ASE}{t, \frac{1}{2}ACD}\right)$ Or $\sqrt{SA}: \sqrt{SP}::t, \frac{1}{2}ACD:t, \frac{1}{2}ASE$

256. REMARK. The \(\triangle CQS = \triangle ACB \omega \triangle ASE (II. 95)\), is the equation of the center, to be applied to the mean anomaly; and is subtractive from the aphelion to the perihelion, or in the first signs of anomaly; and additive from the perihelion to the aphelion, or in the last six signs of anomaly.

For the lines CB, SE; Cb, SE, which coincide in SA, SP, will in every other position cross one another; in Q while revolving from A to P, and in q while revolving from P to A: in the first half revolution, the mean anomaly, or the external \angle ACB, exceeds the \angle ASE, the true anomaly, by the \angle CQS (II. 96): in the latter half, the true anomaly, or external \angle PSa, exceeds the mean anomaly, or \angle PCb, by the \angle SqC.

SECTION IX.

Practical Astronomy.

Of the EQUATION of TIME.

257. Time, which of itself flows uniformly, has its parts measured by the motion of some visible object; and the Sun being the most conspicuous moving object in the heavens, its motion has been chosen as the most proper measure of the parts of time, as well for the day, as for the

year.

258. The aftronomical day, at any place, begins when the Sun's center is on the meridian of that place; and is divided into 24 hours, reckoned in a numeral fuccession from 1 to 24: the first 12 are sometimes distinguished by the mark P. M., signifying post meridiem, or afternoon; and the latter 12 are marked A. M., signifying ante meridiem, or before noon: but astronomers generally reckon through the 24 hours, from noon to noon; and what is by the civil, or common way of reckoning, called morning hours, is by Astronomers reckoned in the succession from 12, or midnight, to 24 hours.

Thus 5 o'clock in the morning of April the 10th, is by aftronomers

called April the 9th, at 17 h.

259. The Sun's daily motion in longitude is the arc of the ecliptic run through in that day; and his daily motion in right afcension is the corresponding arc of the equator; and the mean daily motion in either circle is measured by 59' 8" nearly. For 365 d.: 1 d.:: 360°: 59' 8".

260. An ASTRONOMICAL or Solar Day is the interval of time between two fuccessive transits of the Sun's center over the same meridian; and is measured by the sum of the whole equator, and an arc of it

equal to the daily motion in right afcension.

For at the end of a diurnal rotation, which by observations is known to be uniform, the meridian has returned to the same star, or point of the ecliptic, which it was against at the preceding noon; but the Sun, during this rotation, has removed from that star to another, which has a greater right ascension: therefore, before the meridian can be again opposite to the Sun, so much of another rotation must be described, as is equal to the daily motion in right ascension.

261. A SIDERIAL DAY is the interval between two successive returns of the same meridian to the same fixed star, is less than the solar day, and

is measured by 360°.

262. A MEAN or EQUATORIAL DAY is the time elapsed between two successive transits of the Sun over the meridian, and is measured by 360° 59′ 8″ nearly.

263. MEAN or EQUAL TIME is that shewn by a clock, whose 24 hours measure the time which the Sun takes to describe an equatorial arc

equal to 360° 59' 8" nearly.

264. The difference between the measures of a mean solar day and a siderial day, viz. 59' 8", reduced to time (132), gives 3 m. 56 s.; which shews, that a star which was on the meridian with the Sun on

one noon, will return to that meridian 3 m. 56 s. before the next noon; therefore a clock, which measures mean or equal days by 24 hours, will give 23 h. 56 m. 4 s. for the length of a fiderial day.

265. APPARENT, or TRUE TIME, is that shewn by a fun-dial; where 24 hours, or a day, is measured by the sum of 360°, and that day's

motion in right ascension.

266. The folar days are unequal to one another, for observations shew that the sun's daily motion in right ascension is continually varying.

The true and mean folar days are never equal, but when the Sun's daily motion in right ascension is 59'8"; which happens about February 11th, May 14th, July 26th, and November 1st: at all other times the lengths of the true and mean days differ. The accumulation of these differences produces the equation of time; and sometimes the apparent noon will precede the time of the mean noon, and sometimes fall after it; their difference amounting to above 16 minutes at the beginning of November.

267. The EQUATION of TIME is the difference between the times shewn by a cleck and a fun-dial; or between the mean and true noons; or between the Sun's right ascension and his mean longitude when turned

into time at the rate of 15° to an hour.

This difference arises on two accounts. First, because of the obliquity of the ecliptic the daily motions in longitude and right ascension are unequal. Secondly, because of the unequal motion of the Earth in an

elliptic orbit.

In the first and third quadrants, or between the signs $\gamma \, \mathfrak{S}, \simeq \mathfrak{W}$, the right ascension being less than the longitude (140), or the mean motion taken in the equator; the point of right ascension is to the west, and therefore the apparent noon precedes, or comes in *consequentia* to the meridian before the mean noon: but in the 2d and 4th quadrants, or between the signs $\mathfrak{S} \simeq \mathfrak{N} \mathfrak{N}$, the right ascension being greater than the longitude or mean motion, taken in the equator, the mean noon is westward, and therefore precedes, or comes in *consequentia* to the meridian before the apparent noon.

From the aphelion to the perihelion, or in the first fix figns of anomaly, the mean noon precedes the apparent; and in the last fix figns of anomaly the apparent noon precedes the true; their difference in either case

is the equation of the center, which convert into time.

Now because the points of Aries, and of the Sun's apoged, the places where the two parts of the equation of time commence, do constantly recede from one another; therefore the whole equation of time made up of those two parts will serve only for a few years, and requires to be corrected from time to time.

268. To calculate the equation, or difference between the mean and appa-

rent noons, for any proposed day.

Find the mean and true anomalies for that time (255); their diffe-

rence, or the equation of the center, is one part.

The true anomaly gives the Sun's longitude; with which, and the obliquity of the ecliptic, compute the right afcention (139); the difference between the longitude and right afcention gives the other part.

The fum, or diff. of the two parts, turned into time, gives the equa-

tion fought.

SECTION X.

Practical Astronomy.

To make SOLAR TABLES.

269. I. Tables of the mean motions of the Sun. (301, 302, 303, 304.)

Divide 360 degrees by a folar revolution, the quotient shews the mean

motion for one day 0° 59' 08" &c.

Take the multiples of one day's motion from 1 to 365 for every day in the year; and these properly disposed, according to the month days, will give the mean motions for every day of each month. (304)

The 24th part of one day's motion will give that for one hour, and its multiples to 24 times will shew the mean motions answering to each hour: from hence, those for the minutes of an hour, the seconds of a minute, &c. are easily obtained.

(303)

The mean motion of a year of 365 days (viz. for the last of December) being doubled, tripled, and quadrupled, those for 1, 2, 3, and 4 years will be obtained, adding one day's mean motion to the 4th year, it being leap-year, and containing 366 days: the motion for leap-year being increased by those of 1, 2, 3, and leap-gears, give those for 5, 6, 7, and 8 years: the mean motion for 8 years being increased by those for 1, 2, 3, and 4 years, give those for 9, 10, 11, and 12 years: and thus increasing the mean motion for the last leap year by those of 1, 2, 3, and 4 years, the mean motions may be continued for any number of absolute years.

270. In the following tables the numbers used were,
Length of the year
Yearly motion of the apogce,
Place of the apogee, beginning the year 1760,
Greatest equation of the Earth's orbit.

365d. 5h. 48m. 5415.

5".

155 39.

271. Now 365 d. 5 h. 48 m. 54? f. = 365,2423003472 days. Then 365,2423003472 d.: 360°:: 1 d.: 0,9856470613 degrees. Hence the mean motion for 1 day = 0° 59' 8" 19" 45' 54' 50' 5 days = 0 4 55 41 38 49 34 10 lanuary 5th 30 days = 0 29 34 9 52 January 30th 57 25 90 days = 2 28 42 29 38 52 15 March 31tt 180 days = 5 27 24 59 17 lune 29th 44 30 0 360 days = 11 24 49 58 35 29 December 26th December 31st 365 days=11 29 45 40 14 18 34 10

```
Now I year's mean motion = 111,29° 45' 40" 14" 18' 34" 10'.
    2 years
                     =11 29 31 20 28 37 8 20.
                    =11 29 17 0 42 55 42 30.
    3 years
                     = 0 0 14917 01130=3y+1y+1d.
    4, or leap year
                      =11 29 47 29 31 18 45 40=4y.+1y.
    5 years
    6 years
                      =11 29 33 9 45 37 19 50 = 4y + 2y.
                      =11 29 18 49 59 55 54 0=4y. +3y.
    7 years
    8 years B
                      = 0 0 33834 023
                                              0 = 4y. \times 2.
                      = 0 0 9 6 25
   20 years B
                                       0 57 30=4y.×5.
  100 years B
                            0 45 32 5
                                       4 47 30=20y. × 5.
                            7 35 20 50 47 55 0=100y. ×10.
 1000 years B
                      = 0
Where B stands for bissextile, or leap-year.
```

272. But to find the mean motions for the years related to any particular epocha, the mean motion for fome particular time in that epocha

must be known. Thus,

Let the mean motion of the Sun be determined by observation (or otherwise) when the Sun is in some noted point of the ecliptic, suppose near Aries: or let the time of its entrance into the sign Aries be well ascertained. Take the difference between the time of that ingress and the 31st of December at noon, in days, hours, minutes, and seconds (reckoning the end of the 31st of December to be the beginning of January at noon,) and find the mean motions for those days, hours, minutes, and seconds, and it will shew the motion from Aries, for the 31st of December, or the mean motion at the beginning of the year proposed; or the radix for that year with relation to the proposed epocha.

The relative mean motions for one year being known, those for any number of succeeding years belonging to that epocha, may be had, by adding such of the before found absolute years to the first relative year, as will make the number wanted: and the mean motions for any past year of that epocha will be found by lessening the radical years by such a number of the absolute years, as will produce the relative years required.

And in this manner are tables constructed, by which the mean motions

of the Sun for any time, past, or to come, may be computed.

273. Suppose in the year 1760, the Sun entered Aries on the 20th of March, at 13 h. 42 m. 3½s. P. M.: required the Sun's mean motion for the beginning of the year 1760.

Now 1760 being leap-year, February has 29 days, and from the equi-

nox to the commencement of the year is 80 d. 13 h. 42 m. $3\frac{1}{4}$ s.

Then 1 d.: 0,9856470613 deg.:: 80 d. 13 h. 42 m. 34 s.: 79,41444

&c. degrees.

Therefore at the beginning of the year 1760, the Sun's mean longitude was 2° 19° 24′ 52″ short of Aries; or his mean longitude was 9° 10° 35′ 8″, which is the radical mean place for the year 1760.

274. II. Of the mean motions of the Sun's apogees. (301, 302)

The yearly motion of the apogee being determined (241); the motion for any number of absolute years will be that multiple of one Univ Calg - Digitized by Microsoft ® year's

Book V.

year's motion, and so for any part of a year: the monthly motions will be 5 seconds for some months, and 6 for others, to make 65 in the 12 months.

Let the time of the Sun's passage through the aphelion be accurately determined by observation (250), and also its place in the ecliptic; then the distance of the place of the apogee from Aries will be known at that time: let this distance be lessened by the apogee's motion from the last day of the year preceding the proposed epocha to the time of the apogeon passage, and the mean motion of the apogee will be known for the beginning of that year, taken as a radix.

Then that radical mean motion, increased by the multiples of the yearly motion, will give those for succeeding years: but being diminished by

those multiples will give them for past years.

The Sun's mean motion for any time, lessened by that of the apogee for that time, gives the Sun's mean anomaly.

275. III. Of the equation of the Sun's center. (305)

To every degree of the first six signs of mean anomaly assumed, find the true anomaly (253, 254): the difference between the mean and true anomalies will be the equations of the center to those degrees of mean anomaly; which serve also for the degrees of the last six sines; as equal

anomalies are at equal distances on both sides of either apside.

Set the equations of the center orderly to their figns and degrees of anomaly, the first fix being reckoned from the top of the table downwards, and figned at top with the title fubtract; the last fix, for which the same equations serve, but taken in a contrary order, viz. from the bottom of the table reckoned upwards, are signed at bottom with the title add; and let the difference between every adjacent two equations, called tabular differences, be set in another column.

From these equations of the center, augmented or diminished by the proportional parts of their respective tabular differences for any given minutes and seconds, are deduced equations of the center to any given

mean anomaly.

276. Astronomical tables are usually computed to answer to two given denominations only; as to figns and degrees: degrees and minutes; months and days; &c.: for if made to more names, such tables would swell into a bulk so great, as to be tedious to compute, expensive to print, and of no great advantage in the use; but it generally happens in calculations, that numbers are wanted from tables to answer to given numbers of three, or more denominations as to signs, degrees, minutes, and seconds; months, days, hours, minutes, and seconds; &c.: and to obtain from the tables numbers answering to all the given names, the tabular numbers are to be increased or diminished by a proportional part of their difference.

Thus. To find the equation of the center to 4 21 44' 36"?

Now the equation to this number will fall between those belonging 4° 21° and 4° 22°; which equations are 1° 13′ 59″ and 1° 12′ 24″ (205) Their diff, is 1′ 35″=95″; the pro. pt. of which is to be taken for 44′ 36″.

And as the diff. 1° or 60': diff. 95'':: 44',6: 70'',6 = 1' 11" the proportional part.

Now to 48 21° 0′ 0″, And to 0 0 44 36, 1° 13′ 59″ is the equation of the center.

1 11 is the prop. part to be subtracted

Then to 4 21 44 36,

1 12 48 is the equation of the center.

When the tabular numbers are increasing, the proportional part is to be added; but when decreasing, the proportional part is to be subtracted.

277. IV. Tables of the Sun's true place. (308)

The Sun's true place at any proposed time is thus found.

Collect together the mean motions of the Sun, and also those of the apogee, for the given year, menth, day, (hour, minute, and second, if given); and their sum will be the mean motions of the Sun and its apogee.

The Sun's mean motion, lessened by that of the apogee, gives the mean anomaly; to which find the proper equation of the center by proportion-

ing for the minutes and feconds.

Then the Sun's mean motion, augmented or diminished by the equation of the center, as the title of its table directs, gives the Sun's true longitude, or place, for that given time.

The Sun's place thus found to every day for four fucceffive years, viz. for leap-year, and 1, 2, 3 years after; and those places ranged under their proper years, according to their respective months and days, constitute the tables of the Sun's place.

These tables find the Sun's place at noon only; but the place for any intermediate time is found by applying to the noon-place the proportional

part of the daily difference at that time.

278. To find the Sun's longitude, suppose on May 4, 1788, at the time of apparent noon?

In the table of the Sun's longitude (308) for 1788, against May 4th, stands 1° 14° 36′ 02″, which shews that the Sun's longitude, reckoned from Aries, is 44° 36′ 02″; or that his place is in \otimes 14° 36′ 02″.

But to find the Sun's place at any other hour, suppose on May 4th, at

7 h. 24 m. 36 s. apparent time, proceed thus,

The difference between the noon places of the 4th and 5th of May is 57' 59"=3479", answering to 24 hours in time. (308)
Then 24 h.: 7 h. 24 m. 36 s.:: 3479": 1074"=17' 54", the proportional part.

And 15 14° 36' 02" + 17' 54"=15 14° 53' 56", the Sun's longitude at

that time.

279. Or, the Sun's place may be found by the tables of mean motions.

From

From the apparent time 7^h 24' 36" take the equation of time (316) and to 3' 35" and the remainder, 7^h 21' 1", is the mean time.

3 33 4		
33. ⊙'s m. mot. (302)	9° 10° 47′53"	Mot. ap. 3 9 17 45 (302)
(305)		22 (307)
7 hours (303)	17 15	3 9 18 07 m. apogee.
minutes (303)	52	D'a
1 fecond (303)		Diff. 10 4 1 06 m. anom.
(3-3)		Now to 10s 4° the equation of the
a's mean longitude	1 13 19 13	center is 1° 34′ 45″ (305)
Equat. center +	I 34 44	And the diff. is 70" decreasing. 60': 70"
-		:: 1'06": 1" the proportional part.
Sun's true longitude	I 14 53 57	And 1° 34' 45"-1"=1 34 44 equa-
		tion of the center.

280. To find the Sun's longitude at any given time and place.

Seek, in the table of the longitudes of places, at the end of Book VI. for the difference of longitude between London and the proposed place;

and convert the diff. of longitude into time.

If the proposed place is to the eastward of London, take the diff. between the proposed time and diff. of longitude, and this will shew the corresponding time at London; after noon, if the proposed time is greater than the diff. of longitude; but before noon, if the proposed time is least.

If the proposed place is to the westward of London, the sum of the proposed time and diff. of longitude will be the corresponding time at London.

The Sun's place found to the corresponding time at London, will be

the Sun's longitude fought for the proposed time and place.

Thus. In a place 6 h. to the east of London, when it is 8 h. P. M. at that place, it is 2 h. P. M. at London; and when it is 4 h. P. M. at that place, it is 2 h. before noon at London.

For when it is noon at London, it is 6 h. P. M. at the other place. Also, in a place 6 h. to the west of London; when it is 8 h. P. M. at

that place, it is 14 h. P. M. at London.

For when it is noon at the proposed place, it is 6 h. P. M. at London.

231. V. Tables of the Sun's declination. (309)

With each of the Sun's longitudes, already found, and the obliquity of the ecliptic, find the declination to each day of the four years. (139)

Or thus. To each degree of the three first signs of the ecliptic, taken as longitudes, find the declination (139): and of these declinations, regularly ranged to their sign and degree, take the difference of each adjacent two, which set against them in another column; and this auxiliary table is prepared, answering to each sign and degree of longitude (306): for to equal longitudes, taken on both sides of each equinox, belong equal declinations.

Now these auxiliary declinations augmented, or diminished (according as they are increasing or decreasing, by the proportional part of their Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft difference,

difference, for the minute and feconds in any given longitude, will give

the declination for that longitude.

And this being done for every day in the four years, using the longitudes already computed, will give the declinations fought: which are to be ranged according to their year, month, and day.

282. To find the Sun's declination. Suppose on May 4, 1788, at noon. In the table of the Sun's declination (309) for 1788, against May 4, stands 16° 14' 13" for the Sun's declination, which is N. as being between the vernal and autumnal equinoxes.

283. But if the declination was wanted on May 4, 1788, at 7 h. 24 m.

36 f. P. M. proceed thus.

The difference between the noons of May 4 and 5, is 16' 59", which answers to 24 h. Then 24 h.: 17' 0":: 7 h. 24 m. 36 f.: 5' 15", the proportional part.

And as the declination is increasing; then 16° 14' 13" + 5' 15" gives

16° 19' 28" for the Sun's decl. at the proposed time.

284. But art. 311 is a table for finding the proportional part at fight.

for fitting the noon declination to any other time. Thus.

Seek in the left-hand column for a daily difference, nearest to the given one; against which, in a column marked at top with hours, nearest to those given, stands the proportional part sought.

Thus against 17' o" of daily diff. and to 7 h. 24 m. time, stand 5' 15",

the proportional part fought.

Although this table goes no farther than 8 h., yet it may be applied quite to 12 h. or 180 degrees.

285. Exam. What will be the Sun's declination at London, on the 25th of August, 1788, at 10 b. 35 m. P. M.?

In 1788, the daily diff. between the noons of the 25th and the 26th of August is 20' 58" decreasing. (309)

Now 10 h. 35 m. is equal to 2 h. 35 m. +8 h. 0 m. To the diff. 20' 58", and to 2 h. 35 m., answers 2' 16".

To the diff. 20' 58", and to 8 h. o m., answers 6' 59".

The fum 9' 15" is the proportional part, by which the decl. 10° 28'

29" to August 25th, is to be diminished; so 10° 19' 14" is the decl. fought.

Here 20' 58", is taken as if it was 21' 0".

And 2 h. 35 m. is \(\frac{3}{4}\), the interval between 2 h. 20 m. and 2 h. 40 m. Now 21' gives 2' 2" for 2h 20', and 2' 20" for 2h 40'; the diff. is 18", three fourths of which is 14": and this being added to 2' 2" gives 2' 16" for 21' with 2h 35'. Moreover 21' with 8h. gives 7' 00"; but I take one fecond less because the daily diff. in declination is 2" less than 21' 00".

286. From the table of declination, fitted to the meridian of London, or Greenwich, the declination may be found at any time, under any other meridian, at a given difference of longitude from London. Thus.

Book V.

Required the Sun's declination at noon under a meridian 110° to the west of London, on the 24th of February, 1788.

(311) Now at 110° to the west of London, it is noon 7 h. 20 m. after it is noon at London; that is, when it is 7 h. 20 m. P. M. at London, it will be noon at the proposed place; so the declination found to that

time at London (285) will be the declination fought.

In 1788, the diff. between the declinations of the 24th and 25th of February, is 22' 13" decreasing (309): and against 22' 20" of daily diff., and under 110°, or 7 h. 20 m., is 6' 49" in table, art. 311, which taken from 9° 27' 33", leaves 9° 20' 44", the declination fought.

Exam. II. What is the Sun's declination on September 2d, 1788, at 20 h. 30 m., under a meridian 100° to the eastward of London?

Now under a meridian 100° to the eastward of London, it is noon 6 h. 40 m. before it is noon at London (311); or when it is noon at London, it is 6 h. 40 m. after noon at the proposed place; and when 20 h. 30 m. after noon at that place, it is 13 h. 50 m. after noon at London; so the declination found at that time (285), will be the declination fought.

In 1788, the daily diff. at September 2d, is 22' 6" (309), against which (in tab. art. 311), and under 8 h. and 5 h. 50 m., stand 7' 21" and 5' 21", their sum 12' 42" taken from the decl. to September 2, viz. 7°

36' 30", leaves 7° 23' 48", the declination fought.

Here 5 h. 50 m. fall in the middle between 5 h. 40 m. and 6 h. 0 m. so 5' 21", the middle between 5' 12" and 5' 30", is taken.

187. VI. Tables of the Sun's right ascension. (310)

To the obliquity of the ecliptic, and each degree in the three first figns of longitude, find the right ascensions (139), and of each take

the supplement.

Range the right ascensions according to their sign and degree for the three first signs; and for the three next signs, range the supplements, so that the 4th sign begins with the least supplement, and the 6th sign ends with the greatest: because the right ascensions in the 2d and 4th quadrants are the supplements of those in the first and third.

Let the differences of these right ascensions, viz. each adjacent two, through the fix signs be taken, and set in other columns. (307)

Then this auxiliary table, used like that of declination, will give the right ascension to each day in the four years.

288. To find the Sun's right afcension, suppose on June 12 at noon, in the year 1788, at London.

In the table of the Sun's right ascension (310) for 1788, against June 12, stands 5 h. 25 m. 19 s., which is the right ascension sought, and show much later the Sun passed the meridian of London than the equinoctial point Aries.

Exam. II. Required the Sun's right afcension at London on the 2d of November, 1788, at 9 h. 30 m. P. M.?

Between the 2d and 3d of November, 1788, the daily diff. is 3 m. 58 f. which answers to 24 h. Then 24 h.: 3 m. 58 s. :: 9 h. 30 m. : 1 m. 34 f., the proportional part.

Then the right afcention on the 2d at noon, 14h. 33 m. 20 f. + 1 m. 34 f. gives 14 h. 34 m. 54 f. for the right ascension at the time required.

By this table the right afcention may also be found at any time in places that are to the eastward, or westward, of London, the difference of longitude of those places being known; by finding the time at London corresponding to the given time at the proposed place, and seeking the right ascension to that corresponding time at London.

The table at art. 311, pages 222, 223, may be applied to the tables of the Sun's longitude and right afcention, as well as to those of the declination, for finding the proportional parts of the difference between the noon of adjoining days, which shall answer to any intermediate hours.

Thus in the Ex. page 296. To find the pro. pts. of 58' to 7h. 24m. 36f. Now 4th of 58' is 14' 30"; which falls between 14' 20" and 14' 40". And the time 7 h. 24 m. 36 s. falls between 7 h. 20 m. and 7 h. 40 m. The mean of the equations under 7 h. 20 m. and 7 h. 40 m. and against 14' 20" and 14' 40", are 4' 26" and 4' 38", their diff. is 12". And 20: 12:: 4,6: $2\frac{1}{2}$: and 4' $26'' + 2\frac{1}{2} = 4'$ $28\frac{1}{2}$ the pro. pts. to $\frac{1}{4}$ of

58".

Then the proportional parts to 58', are 17' 54".

Again. In the Exam. above. To find the parts proportional to 3 m.

57 f. as 9 h. 30 m. is to 24 h.

Here 3 m. 57 s. being taken as 4m.; and 4h. 40 m. as the half of 9h. 30 m. The equation is 47"; which doubled gives 1' 34" for the proportional parts required.

289. VII. Of the right ascensions and declinations of the fixed Stars.

This table, which contains 120 of the principal fixed stars, viz. 60 naving north declination, and 60 with fouth declination, are fitted to the year 1780; and are selected partly from the catalogue which is given in the Nautical Almanac for 1773, as deduced from Dr. Bradley's Observations; and partly from that given by M. de La Caille, which, he fays, are all derived from his own observations made, during ten years atten-"tion to this business, either at Paris, or at the Cape of Good Hope; " that the politions are ascertained with all the accuracy that could be de-" rived from the modern Aftronomy; and that he had all proper helps, with regard to inftruments, affiftants, and convenience, and neither

of care or pains were wanting to perfect the work.

"The right atcentions were determined by a multitude of correspond-" ing altitudes of each, taken with a quadrant of three feet radius, to have st their passage over the meridian with the greatest exactness. Almost all "the stars in the northern hemisphere have been compared with the " bright star in the Harp; and those in the southern hemisphere, with "Syrius; that is to fay, on each day that the time of the flar's paffing " the meridian had been found by equal altitudes, that of a Lyræ and "Syrius were found in like manner; the right ascentions of these two

"flars having been fettled by a great many observations taken when they were in the properest situation for this purpose.

"The declinations have been deduced from a sufficient number of observations of their zenith distances, taken with an instrument of six

" feet radius, made with great care for this purpose."

The table confifts of nine columns; that on the left hand contains the name of the conftellation; the next shews in what part of the conftellation the star is; in the 3d are the names by which certain stars are distinguished; the 4th column shews the Greek characters by which the star is marked in the coelestial charts, or maps of the constellations; the 5th shews the magnitude of the stars; the 6th and 7th contain the right ascension in time, reckoned from Aries, and the yearly variation in right ascension; the 8th and 9th contain the declinations and the yearly variation in declination; where those which are marked + are augmented by the yearly variation; but those which have the mark — annexed, are to be diminished by the variation: by the help of these yearly variations the right ascensions and declinations of these stars may be fitted for any distant year.

Precepts for finding the culminating of the stars are at articles 133, 134.

290. VIII. Tables of the Equation of Time.

In page 318 are three tables, articles 313, 314, 315: Article 313 is a table of the Sun's right ascension in degrees, to each degree of longitude in the first quadrant of the ecliptic; and also the differences between those longitudes and right ascensions. The table, art. 314, contains the said differences turned into time (132), of minutes, seconds, and the tenth part of seconds: the numbers in this table are the differences between the mean and true noons, arising from the obliquity of the ecliptic (267); and the table, art. 315, is nothing more than the equations of the center, table art. 305, converted into time; and are the differences between the times of the mean and true noons, arising from the eccentricity of the Earth's orbit: these two equations of time, properly put together, constitute another table, art. 316, of the absolute equation of time with relation to the place of the Sun's apogee.

291. To construct the table 316, of the absolute Equation of Time.

1st. To the given time find the Sun's true place, or assume a place.
2d. The difference between that place, and the place of the apogee.

2d. The difference between that place, and the place of the apogee, gives the Sun's true anomaly.

3d. From the true anomaly find the mean. (2 4th. In table I. 314, feek the equation of time to the Sun's place.

5th. In table II. 315, feek the equation of time to the mean anomaly.

6th. The fum, or difference of these equations, according as their titles, or signs direct, will be the absolute equation of time to the Sun's

place found at first, or to the corresponding time.

The tables, articles 314, 315, are made only to whole degrees of longitude and anomaly; the proportional parts of the differences are to be taken for minutes or seconds, above whole degrees of the Sun's longitude and anomaly.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft 292. Exam.

292. Exam. I. What is the Equation of Time, when the Sun's longitude

is 7º 12°?

give the mean time of noon.

In table, art. 316, against 12° in the outside column, and under M, or 7 s., stands — 16 m. 12 s.; which shews that 16 m. 12 s. is to be subtracted from the apparent time; to give the mean time of apparent noon, or the time which should be shewn by a good clock, when the Sun's center is on the meridian.

293. Exam. II. What is the Equation of Time when the Sun's longitude is 4° 24° 30' 42"?

The difference between the equation in table, art. 316, to 4^{5} 24° and 4^{5} 25°, is 13° decreasing; and 30′ 42''=30.7'. Then $60': 30.7': 13^{6}: 6.65$ or 7^{5} , the proportional part decreasing. And +3 m. 46 s. -7 s. =+3 m. 39 s., the equation sought. So 24 h. the apparent time of solar noon, increased by 3 m. 39 s. will

If the time was given, viz. the month, day, hour, &c., to find the Equation.

To the given time find the Sun's longitude.

Then to this longitude find the equation of time, as above.

(278)

294. To find the mean anomaly from the true being given.

Solution, Say, As the square root of the perihelion distance,

To the square root of the aphelion distance;

So the tangent of half the true anomaly,

To the tangent of half the excentric anomaly,

As radius, to the sign of the excentric anomaly,

So the degrees in an arc equal in length to the eccentricity,

To the degrees, &c. in the arc of correction.

The correction added to the excentric anomaly gives the mean anomaly.

295. REMARKS. 1st. The greatest equation of the center being taken at 1° 55′ 39″, the eccentricity (249) will be 0,01682; the aphc-

lion distance will be 1,01682, and the perihelion 0,98318.

Hence the ratio of the square root of the perihelion distance to the square root of the aphelion distance will be expressed by the logarithm 0.00731; which constant logarithm, added to the logarithmic tangent of $\frac{1}{2}$ the true anomaly, will give the logarithmic tangent of $\frac{1}{2}$ the excentric anomaly.

296. 2d. In the 2d proportion, the arc equal to the length of the ec-

centricity 1682 is a constant quantity.

Now the radius, or mean distance, is equal to the length of an arc of 57°,29578 (249); then 100000: 1682::57°,29578:0°,96375, the length of the eccentricity in degrees; the constant logarithm of which is 9,98396, which added to the logarithmic fine of the excentric anomaly, abating 10 in the index of the sum, gives the logarithm of an arc, the degrees, minutes, and seconds of which being added to the excentric anomaly, give the mean anomaly.

297. IX. Table of corrections for the middle time between equal altitudes of the Sun. Art. 317.

This table, which is fitted to the latitudes of 30°, 40°, 50°, and 60°, will also serve, nearly, to all latitudes between 25° and 65°; by entering the table with the nearest latitude to that given, and the given declination in degrees. It is constructed by art. 216.

Exam. 1. In latitude 50° N., when the Sun's declination is 16° N., and the interval between the morning and afternoon observation is 5 hours: what correction must be applied to the middle time, to give the time of apparent noon?

In the table, art. 317, against 16° of declination taken in the outside column, and under 50° latitude, and 5 hours, with N. declination, stand 12 seconds; which 12 s. applied to the middle time between the observations, give the time when the Sun was on the meridian.

The correction is applied to the middle time by the precepts at the

bottom of the table.

298. Exam. II. In latitude 50° N., on November 16th, 1761, observations at equal altitudes of the Sun were taken at the following times shewn by a clock, the equal altitude instrument having three horizontal wires.

Morning observations. Afternoon observations. o preceding limb ofollowing limb • preceding limb • following limb 1 h 46m 43½" 1 50 53½ 1^h 53^m 30¹/₂ 1 57 28¹/₂ $9^h 35^m 21\frac{1}{2}''$ 9 39 $23\frac{1}{2}$ 9h 28m 55" 9 32 $46\frac{1}{2}$ $9 \ 3^{6} \ 44^{\frac{1}{2}}$ 1 54 56 the mean = 11h 45m >7,6" by the preceding limb. the mean = 11h 45m 8" by the following

The mean time of observation from both limbs is 11 h. 45 m. 7,8 s. The declination on the day of observation is 19° S. nearly; the interval between the observations is about 4 hours; and these give + 14 seconds for the correction of the middle time.

So the Sun was on the meridian when the clock shewed 11 h. 45 m. 21,8 s. The Sun's place, at that time, was 7° 24° 26′ 46″ nearly.

In table 316, to 7° 24° the tabular difference is 12°, decreasing.

Then

Then 60': 26,75': 12 f. : 5,35 f.; and $+ 14 \text{ m.} 56 \text{ f.} - 5\frac{1}{3} \text{ f.} = + 14 \text{ m.} 50\frac{1}{3} \text{ f.},$ which is the equation of time: hence 11 h. 45 m. 21,8 f. + 14 m. 50,6 f. = 12 h. 0 m. 12,4 f.

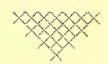
Which shews that the clock was 12 f., nearly, too fast.

299. X. Tables of Refraction and of the Sun's parallax. (318,319)

These tables are the result of the experience of some of the most eminent Astronomers. By the refraction of the atmosphere, objects appear more elevated than they really are, and therefore the apparent altitude is to be diminished by the refraction, which is greatest near the horizon, and gradually diminishes towards the zenith, where there is no restraction. The parallax in altitude is the difference between the altitude of an object, as seen from the center rand surface of the Earth, that from the center being the true altitude, and the greatest, except at the zenith, where parallax vanishes; therefore the apparent altitude is to be augmented by the parallax.

Exam. The Sun's apparent altitude was observed to be 18° 34' 48"; what was his true altitude?

Apparent altitude 18° 34′ 48″ Refraction 2′ 47″ — Correction is — 2 38 Parallax 9 + Sun's true altitude 18 32 10.



300.

ASTRONOMICAL TABLES,

Fitted, in general, to the meridian of GREENWICH.

	Art.
Is Mean motions of the Sun and Apogee for years.	(301)
	(302)
	(303)
	(304)
	(305)
	(306)
	(307)
VIII. Sun's longitude to each day for the years 1792, 1793,	(30/)
	(308)
	(309)
	(310)
XI. To fit the tables VIII. IX. X. to any meridian.	(311)
XII. Right ascensions and declinations to 120 fixed stars.	(312)
XIII. Sun's right ascension in degrees, &c. to signs and de-	
grees of longitude.	(313)
XIV. Equation of time on the obliquity of the ecliptic.	(314)
XV. Equation of time on the eccentricity of the Earth's orbit.	(315)
XVI. Absolute equation of time, to the Sun's longitude.	(316)
XVII. Correction of the middle time between equal altitudes.	(317)
XVIII. Correction of altitude for refractions.	(318)
XIX. Correction of the Sun's altitude for his parallax.	(319)

The tables of the Sun's place, declination, and right ascension, are fitted to the years 1792, 1793, 1794, 1795; and will serve in most nautical operations as well for the four years preceding, viz. 1788, 1789, 1790, 1791, and also for the four years following, viz. 1796, 1797, 1798, 1799, as is mentioned at the heads of those tables. But as a Nautical Almanack is published yearly under the direction of the commissioners of longitude, the tables contained therein should be consulted in cases where the utmost precision is necessary.

TABLES OF the MEAN MOTIONS of the Sun and his Apogee to Mean Solar Time.

303	For hours, minutes, and fecs.	Lon. O Lon. O	" " "	2 27 51 31 1 16 2	4 55 42 32 I 18 5	7 23 32 33 1 21 1	9 51 23 34 1 23 4	12 19 14 35 I 26 I	14 47 5 36 I 28 4	7 14 56 37 1 31 1	19 42 47 38 1 33 3	22 IO 37 39 I 36	24 38 28 40 1 38 3	27 6 19 41 1 41	29 34 IO 42 I 43 3	32 2 1 43 1 45 9	34 29 52 44 I 48 2	36 57 42 45 1 50 5	639 25 33 46 1 53 2	741 53 24 47 1 55 4	844 21 15 48 1 58 1	9 6 49 2 0	049 16 56 50 2 3 1	151 44 47 51 2 5 4	2 54 12 38 52 2 8	3 50 40 29 53 2 10 3	4 59 8 20 54 2 13	5 61 36 11 55 2 15 3	664 4 1 56 2 17 5	7 66 31 52 57 2 20 2	8 68 59 43 58 2 22 5	971 27 34 59 2 25 2	0173 55 2511 60 2 27 5	
		M.lon.ap.	" , o s	I	7	3 2		ςΩ. (V)	4	4	14C.	5 6	н	c)	13 H	4 I	25 23	6 2	7 3	3	9 4	3 9 30 45	52 2	4	5	57 2	6	40 4	12, 2 3		45 4	7 2	4 55 4	

	ap	-							4				W.	IC	H	120	- 61	3	3	4	4	. 4	1 101		6)		4					
				32				91	L	00	61	13	63	63	24	tr ri	56	13	28	50	000	25	14	35	57	19	9	14		45		23
	0		6						10				•	•	3			•		•	0		a			м	1	ex	- 13		3	4
1	5		١												i								I	0		H					m	-
1	-	1,0	100	_	(1)	743	+	170	31		50	10	61	6)	1 6	_		bes.		-2	9 12	_	3	_	co	10	1 27	_	10	H c		_
	0	-	(A)		•		d	4		(1)											-							4	5		~	2
	Ď.	`	15	H		31		3		50		4	49	35	2.1	9	1/	13	23	00			12					00	7	LI	50	12
Aile	<u> </u>	0	OI	01	10	10	CZ	10	0	10	OI	01	01	OI	OI	10	φĪ	01	ୁ	01	0		OI			or	9	6		OI		
3	Z	en	6						6						0						40						6					
ne		S	23	53	77	35	36	27	80	39	30	H	32	93	94	5	36	1.	ω,	30	18	07	9	20	Sc	8	ž	0	0	00.	V .	20
1 00	1	ear	17		1	33	0.0		17				17		L		1	•			00	00	00 I	00	00	0	0	9	61		Ō	Ä I
100		>		1	22				8				22		Ť		éd										m					
2	b	1	15					01	2	0	175	30	35	0	12"	0	150	0	w	0	5	0	10	0	35	0	45	0	in	0	un.	0
Ca	cs		00																							- 1	4			~	_ '	
pe.	ä	`	,	35	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	14	W	LC:	5	5	in	V	15	10			11		1	4,	-		٠,١	ĭ
e r	10	0	20						30						00						>0		9				2					1
£	\mathbb{Z}	LO	3						50						~						(1						2					
For	0	:	39						39			30		30	57	37	3.7	30	46	26							25			25		
	9		I						4	0	10	0	9	13	36						2						(1)	20	42	6	4	6
	0	- 1	0				3							- 1												- 1	4					11
	8	С	H				ı		ĭ	Ų,	H	ĭ	ř		Ħ	ĭ	Ē	O t	Ä		H		H			0			ĭ		-	
	3	ca]	0				_	_	0						0			_	_		6	_				- 1	0		- 100			_
		ars.	752	2	5	5	750	25	55	55	700	6	9	9	764	9	99	9	705	69	70	71	773	73	1.	75	226	7	7	75	0	0
		2	н				н				н				н	1			н				-				Н				7	
			20				2	_!			_	_			to	_			5		_	- (23		_	-	22		_	0	_	_]

dolete.	O W. Ion. ap.	" ' 0	7	2 1	3 1	4	5 5	0 3	50 7 35	8 4	9 4	S or	9 11 5	S 1.3	8 14	151	1 91 6	7 17 2	18 2	8 S	8 20 3	6 21 4	32 3	3 43 2	1 54 I	9 I	8 I I S	6 1 26 4		2 1 48 2	1 6 O
P 34	n.	,	10	pod.		н	1	**	S.E	(0)	6	4	0	5	1	9	c1	~	010	00	4	6		10	141	1		9		w,	1
2 -	<u> </u>	С		2.9	25	0	29	20	29		29			0		29			23		29		23		67	0	0	0	0	0	3
i E	<u> </u>	s	1-4	I	II	0	Ξ	Ξ	=	0	H	H	7	0	17	II		0	II	I	Ξ	0	lmi suf	٥ :	7_	0	0	0	0	0	0
	1	rars.	I	et	(0)	4	W	9	7	00	0	C	3 1	1.2	13	I	1 5) I	LI	2I	E I		30				70				50c

TABLE of the MEAN MOTIONS of the SUN and Apogre to Months and DAYS.

	=	Da	vs.	1 -	61	3	4	3	9	7	oc	0	0	m	7	3	4.	2	9	17	10	0		e)	3	41	5	9	1/0	0	60	310	
-	Ľ	id	2	2	39	11	55	4	7	2	6	37	151	541	61	0	16	271	35	45	0	9	7 2	52	342	12	30	392	7	5	200	0	2
	pe	S																		57 4												45	н
	EB	į	0	1.0	_	2	~	**	10		_	~	•	0	_	~	~	3 5	1.5	15 5	1					- 1							
	Decem											~	٠,	ĭ	=	=	н	Н	17	H F	15	100	ĭ	7	61	22	61	7	17	77	9 6	29	
- 1	-	(0)	v.	-	_						_	_		100	_						1									_			
	per.	lon.	1						- 1							0	6	17	25	34	- 6	59	1	H.5	24	32	4C	45	57	2	14	1	59
1	2		-	37																23													0
	ve	\geq	0	0	Т	63	m	4	5	9	<u>_</u>	00	6	10	II	12	13	14	15	17	100	61	00	21	13	23	4	2	50	57	0 0	7	
	Novem	•	co	0	F										1																		
11-	_	ė	À	63	-	Σ	27	30	4	52	H	C)	17	2	34	24	51	55	1	10	32	40	64	57	rt)	7	17	30	39	47	55	17	54
	October.	lon																		50													
1	10																			15 5	-												
	5	(0)						•			_				ň	I	H	ī	H		1	18	H	61	4	61	4	6	4	64	4 0	29	
L.		90	S	51	_	12.	F- 1	_		- >			-		-			-	-	0 -	_	_	-		_					_	_	-	
	September.	lon	- 1						- (9						- 1							49
1	H			29												19	130	17	91	16	1 4	13	12	II	10	01	00	90	20	٥	1 0 •	4-	0
	ote	Z	0	0	-	e)	'n	4	5	9	7	00	9	o"	1	12	13	14	15	17	18	19	50	2 1	22	23	24	22	20	2	200	7	
1	Sel	3	C.	.0																						-							
- 11"	- 1	ċ	3	34	1	2 2	89	1	9	7	35	+1	6	57	0	14	77	31	39	47	14	. 2	2 j	62	37	5	54	63	H	C.	27	4	13
11:	uguit.	0	- 1						- 1						- 1					42 4						- 1							
	50	M.																		15 4												2 62	
-	T	(0)	- 4	9 1											~	1	-	н	H	-	-	I	H	7	4	2	6	4	Cl	63	61 6	4 61	
-	-	-	- 1			(5)	-	CD 3	0	9	₹-	C1	I	000	0	9	-JL	3	н	000	19	4	3	1-1	000	0	9	4	10		0 1	19	100
		on																		2000													
1	uly.	•	1	23	1	2.1	20	5	2	201	17	10	15	4	13					0000						- 1							0
-	=	\geq	0	50)	M	el ·	3	4	5	9	~	20	6	0	H	12	13	14	15	17	18	19	50	7	22	23	24	57	50 20	1 0	100	
		0	CE	v.v	0																1					-							
	Ī	ū.	1	9	+ +	23	3 1	39	4	98	4	13	5	29	30	46	3	3	II	19	36	44	53	н	000	2	26	34	43	SI	200	0	32
	ne.	0																		35													0
	5	M.																		15											7 × ×		
11		9		4 1												I		I	I	пп	1-	I	I	61	61	7	63	64	63 (7	61 6	1	
-		-	- 1			++ 0	2	_	071	, XO 1	3	7	(7	н	61	0	3	**	53	но	100	9	4	54.4	-	6	00 1	0	4	2	-	2000	_
		on	- 1						- 1																								
	B	:	`	15	1	Ξ,	H 1	H		OI					- !					7 H												49	
1	A	\geq	9	50) (-	10	5	4	10	9	-	×	6	្ន	11	13	13	14	15	17	17	13	19	20	77	2 2	23	27	2	1 0	18	
		•	S	c1 •	4				-																								
1	1	n.	=	300	f- 1	55	5		20	28	36	4	53	-	2	13	3.0	35	43	0	00	91	25	33	4	0.	500	0	15	23	3 1	-	2.1
1	=	2		41	2 0	33	500	20	27	36	22	34	3	33	25	3 1	30	62	00	27	97	25	4	23	27	1 2	50	0	00	0	17		0
1	April	Ξ.		6																15													
115	4	9	- 1	c) c												П	_	_	Н		-	П	_	14	61 1	"	14	64	(4 (21 (14 6		
11-						0 1	0		- 1	0 :	7 30	5	in.	(5)	1	0 0	20 .	9	10	£ 4	10	00	9	5	5	-1	Ų :	0 4	0	50	2	30	9
	:	lon	- 1	200					- 1						- 1						1					- 1							1
	March		-1	1 00					- 1	50				- '						2 4	1	5 1			7	16		-			-	42	
1	M	2	0	29) +	٠ (1 0	. 0	4	201	0	10	00	3 (2.	OI	11	1 2	13	1,4	16	17	100	19	17	2	61	23	() (1 0	1 6	200	
		0	17	H 6	1																												
	-1			1 - 1 11 t	50	7	5.5	20	0	91	25	33	+1	200	35	9	15	23	31	0.5	56	w	13	21	3 0	5	40	5.5	140 T	1			10
	ar	lon		4 5						11	20	0	4	23	7.7					17	0.	10	10	+ (1	11	2 5	2	7			0
	cornary	Z	20	н ,					- 1	1						3	4	S	0 1	~00	t	0				- 1	in	3 0					
1	2	0	20	н									- '	-		Н	н	-	Η '	I	-	61	64 (61 (A (c) (•			
1	Ť		- 1			0	2		01	50	1-1	V/ 1	m (1 (1	OF)	1 -	4	(0)	0 17	100	1 -	10	(2)	N (0 10	0 1	- 1	45		1 0	00	5
1	-	lon.		20 i						3 58						848															Н	-	0
	na.		- 1	62					- 1	53								+7		44	4	42	4	4 4	4 ,						34		. 11
	ancary.	Ĭ.	9	1	1	1 /	2.	4	1	10	5-0	0	6		-	ie.	T d	7	5		STIC.	61	20	12 2	1 6	i	4	1 6	3 6	100	1 61	0	ap.
-	_	•)	v	2	11	V	U	d	18	1		J,	19		- 1				-		7					- 1						. 1	Z
-	1	Day	1.	- (1 6	· .	+ ,	4 1	0	1 -0	11	5	2	7 .	11	10	+	12	0 1	SI	10	OF	7 I	2 10	5.	11	10 1	7 6	- 00	7 (7 0	3 1	Ž.
7	-		-			-		-	-			-		-	-	-					-	-	-	-	-	-			-	-	-	-	

305. TABLE of the EQUATION of the SUN'S CENTER to each fign and degree of mean Anomaly.

																									_
Deg.	00	2000	27	25	24	23	7 17	20	600		17	15	41	12	11	0 4	2000	7	9	2	4 (n 6	н	0	
Diff.		1 46	50	51	1 52	54	.55	55	57	1 58	28	2 0			7	61	61	61 (n .	v 4	- 65	4	3	4	Diff.
V. Subt.	0	55 53 57 7 55 19								- 1												0 11		- 1	VI. Add.
Diff.		0 6 7	+90	90 0	7 1	13	15	12	20	1 21	23	200	282	30	1 31	20	35	37	30	40	42	43	45	46	Diff.
IV.Subt.		1 41 12 40 12 39 10						-		- 6	25 48									7 29					VII. Add.
Diff.		0 1 1	2 50	r 0	2 5	12	15	18	21	0 24	56	2 2	33	34	0 36	40	43	\$	47	0 40	125	54	57	0 5%	Diff.
III. Subt.	8	1 55 37 55 39 55 38			- 1								-		1		-			1 .					VIII. Add.
Duff.	-	I I o 59	56	53	3,5	200	46	45	447		36	35	22	000	0 27	44	50	18	91	0 I4	10	00	9	3	Diff.
II. Subt.	"	1 39 6 40 7 41 6												52 8										1 55 37	1-0
Duff.	"	1 43	14 4	39	30	1 37	34	33	3 0 6		200	26	2 6 6 7 6 7 6 7	22	1 2 1	5 1	91	14	13	III	000	9	4	H (7)	Diff.
11		0 56 47 58 30 1 0 12								- 4				23 22)		-		1 32 24					39 6	X. Add.
Duff.	//	1 59	2,00	200	200	200	57	57	57	7 7	200	55	55	53	I 53	7 6	15	50	46	200	2 4	94	45	4	Diff.
o Subt.		1 59				ı .	15 46			- 1				0 33 9					0 46 9.	47 57				55 5	XI. Add.
Deg.	1	0 H 6				1									T			-		İ			-	30,0	Ì

307. TABLE of the Sun's RIGHT ASCENSION to each fign and degree of longitude. 306. TABLE of the Sun's DECLINATION to each fign and degree of longitude.

21		Deg.		V8 60 H 4	1842018	100 H 4 K 4	30 28 60	D
		± 5	444444	444444	244444	444444	4 4 4 4 4 4	#.
	-	JE		<u></u>	ù w w w w w	~~~~~~	mmmmmm	ā
	D=0	- i	22 35 480	404 20 22	0 20 0 0 0	4 20 2 2 8 8	00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00	Π
	X.	E E	8 4 9 6 7 7 5 7 7 5 7 5 7 5 7 5 7 5 7 5 7 5 7	48 444 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	2 4 4 8 5 1 Z	340 0 4 7	25 50 0	
18	*	ا <u>نہ</u> و	0	2	0 1	=	1 2	
		÷ +	0000000	N44000H	H 0 0 600 T	23 24 458	2001123	Œ.
	6		44444	444444			กละคย	Oif
11.	of c	. ·	245	2 4 4 4 5 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	4502333	440 88 8 9 8 9	0 4 4 6 6 6	
	4		8 1 1 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2		H 70 6 H 1	4 333		
	3		99	∞	6	6	0	
1	Ч		2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	00000		2000	000000	lu:
	2		444444	44444			44444	15
117	9		0 2 2 2 2 4	123 123 1	10000041	8 40 50 48	74 2 4 4 5 4	-
	≻',	E E	0 48 87 44	0 4 0 00 1 1	90 100 000	MOONOM	V 4 10 0 400	
1	9 (3 .	9 7 7 7 7	www44.	7 2	99 60 60 4	455	
12		4	OHRRE	400000	1	00000	H 0 H 0 H 10	-
): fr	3 6	44444	44444			444444	Diff
0	ō ,		20000000	10 400 40	0 4 2 H 0 6	100000 A	1442500	-
	×	4 .	1 4 50 4 4 4	04000	904000	MONMON	100 H Q H Q0	
41.			NNN HH	444664	4 20 20 20	ны чичи с	w4400	
1 5	= 0	1	001126	W4420V	7 00 0 H	1 2 2 4 4 2 7	200000	_
	4	¬ •	מי הו הי הי הי הי		n n n			Oiff.
11-	-			M 60 05 H 7 H		444444	444444	
11 -	7,7	g '-'	27 17 17 17 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18	- ппинин	-		W4420 H	
			H 20 600 0 4	H 00 40 0 40			1 0 4-00 t) P H	
	- :	ا ۾ خ	N N N H F	HHHHMMM	44 22 2	9 1 4 8 1 2 9 2 9 2 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9	0 4 8 8 4 7 4 8 4 4 4 8 4 4 4 4 8 4 4 4 4	
-	0	□	H 4	4 4 4 5 5 5	44 20 20 20 11	нннии	100 00 4 4 N	
-	D C	اغاق		4 4 6 6 6 6	4 4 4 5 5 6 W	W W W W W W W W W W W W W W W W W W W	ico .	ff.
-	0	94	######################################	4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	2 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	64444444444444444444444444444444444444	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	Diff.
7	0 0 0 C	C.m. C.h.	4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	2 4 4 1 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2	2 4 4 4 4 4 4 5 5 5 5 5 5 6 5 6 5 6 5 6 5	64444444444444444444444444444444444444	£ 44444	Diff.
٠٠٠ الم	000000000000000000000000000000000000000	f. f. m. f. h.	1 2 4 4 0 1 1 4 4 0 1 1 4 4 0 1 1 4 4 0 1 1 4 4 0 1 1 4 1 1 1 1	244 244 244 244 244 244 244 244 244 244	2 2 2 3 3 4 4 2 2 4 4 4 2 3 3 4 3 4 3 4	64444444444444444444444444444444444444	2 2 2 0 8 7 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	Diff.
٠٠٠ الم	000000000000000000000000000000000000000	m. f. m. f. h.	240 340 341 340 1340 141 340 140 140 140 140 140 140 140 140 140 1	24 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	2 2 2 3 3 4 4 2 2 4 4 4 2 3 3 4 3 4 3 4	0 2 7 1 2 8 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	24 0 0 4 7 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	Diff.
- X - X -	TO I O I O	m. f.m. f.h.	240 340 341 340 1340 141 340 140 140 140 140 140 140 140 140 140 1	0 2 2 4 2 3 3 4 4 0 4 0 4 4 0	5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	0 2 7 1 2 8 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	1 32 38 3 47 3 40 12 3 40 12 3 47 48 3 48 47 48 3 49 47 48 3 49 47 48 3 49 47 48 3 49 47 48 3 49 49 47 48 3 49 49 47 48 3 49 49 47 48 3 49 49 47 48 3 49 49 47 48 3 49 49 47 48 48 48 48 48 48 48 48 48 48 48 48 48	Diff.

1.						_	_		_		_			_	_							_											
		D	eg.	30	50	100	17	20	2	24	23	13	2 1	20	19	00 14,	17	16	15	14	13	7	II	0	0.7) c	-9	15	4	3	63 1	0	0
		H.	1	cl	0	48	V	-	∞	-	+ 0	V () =	4 4) ·	4 1	0		20	7 6	7 1	-	4	- 1	50	24	57	30	1 4			14	111
		0				II				9	2 0	20 0	۶ م	ν×	0	•	1	~4	9	9	15	14	J 4	4	3	3	64	4	4 -	H	0	0	
	0		3	10	F-	-	5	0	-					30		17	100	1 +	8	17	0 1	7	300	63	33	2 5	50	10	5	57	50	0 0	3
	S	ec								- 1								0	7	5	6	~							-			~00	189
	61	po	Ì			0	-					-	٠,			-				-	4	- 1						1				2	6
-	H	0	_0	6.9	63	61	61	ч	ч	41	63	63	63	ы	Ы	61	14	6-5	c1	14	61 6	١ ب	41	H	63 6	1 0	4 4	14	4	63	63 6	1 11	>
		Ħ.	3	I		30			0		4 6					5					.53						0	40					#
		Ď.	_			50					1 5	, ,	7	40	200	0	0 0	1 0	1.7	17	16	91	91	Y	14	15	15	41	4 5	13	13	1 2	a.
,		_:	1	100		50																										23 0	4
	III					01																					34		97	30	# !	10	Co
	$\frac{1}{\infty}$	P O		ы	н	4	e1	el						•			1 7					- 1		•				1			-		33
	2		-\1		2 -1	- (1	prod	0	× ×											H (5		- i	H	19	02 H ,	0	1 1					2 20	
)		##		V	2 0	2	1	100	. 4		4 4	+ -	† 5		7 (2	61	4 5	1 .		30		4	. (0	6.5	64	Н	ri e	ς) <	- 60	14	н	#
	-	A		61	- ci	-62	14	(1)	e 2	_ e	4 6	1 0	1 0	9 6	1 6	1	1 1	1 e	63	2		~	l el	61	61	et	63	63 6	1 6	-1	63	63	
	0	C.	- 3	0	53	4	33	3	64	20	54	3	17	3	27	57	22	4	57	9	0,1	١,	57	41	17	4,	2 2	15	12	56	3	53	E
	SI	de		0	13	17		35	59	23	46	2	34	57	2 I	#	00	H	54	SC	41	4	56	49	12	4	19	4	۳.	44	40	29	=
	2	0	0	0	0	0	-	-	н	63	4	~	Š	5	4	4	V	1	S	9	0	-	۲,	1-0	00	3 0	0 0	0	0	0	Q !	II	X
	-	- 100	9.	0	47	4	m	ŧ	S	Q	1	U	6	0	H	7	1 64	4	by	9	1-0	2 1	6	9)	2 1	1 (7	100	92			30,0	
1	=			-	_	_		_			_	_	_	-	-	-	-	-		=	-			-		-		-		-			

A TABLE of the Sun's Longitude for the Years 1788, 1792, and 1796, being Leap Years.

									_																			
Da	ys.	H	63	3	4	S	9	7	0	6	10	11	12	¥ 4	15	91	12	101	20	21	2 5	242	25	5 6	201	1 8	30	37
-	1	3	59	26	56	55	54	55	57	H 1	5	6 4	20	27	34	41	000	1	17	50	37	57	00	200	5 6	53	200	S
December.														16	17	00	61	22	23	74	2 5	12	50	30	3.4	33 6	33	30
Le n												2 5					20					1 00						
å	0	_	H	H	H	H	-	-	H	-	-	4 6	14	cl	ef	4	4 (1 4	64	_					j		,	I
		0	H	Vή	0	9	S	9	00	س و	0	45	नंद	- 1-	0	S	m	0	13	4	0	+ I	00	00 0	0 1	4	00	-
Do.	1						_																					
E	1											40					52					57						
November.	0	6	10	II	12	13	14	15	16	17	10	61	27	22	23	24	25	27	90	29	0 ,	4 14	3	4	ומי	~00	6	
Z	tes	7	_	_						_			1_					1_			90		1_					_
1	:	5	59	HO	24	39	57	100	39	4	29	57	2 2	327	30	47	1 19	1 2	41	29	61	9	63	× ,	- (20	12	1 b
October.		55	54	54	53	52	21	51	20	20	46	200	1 5	47	47	46	46	4 4	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	45
G	0	20										× ×					47					0 H				on		
0		10		н	H	H	H	-	H	7	-		16	(1	н	н	61 6	1 6	61	61	64							
1	. :	39	0	щ	17	5	H	77	33	27	3	52	15	V	6	36	I S	10	4	0	6	50	20	30	4	V100	4	-
September.		ì											- 1				II					2,4						
en)											199	- 1															
cp	0	6	IO	II	12	13	14	IS	16	17	I S	19	1 6	22	23	24	174	2 2	13	29	0	- 62	100	4	4	9	7	
37	Co	25	mle	-	and-	-1		0	16		_	-	1	0.1	0	-	-	1		~	9	10.0	10	00	-	- 10	- 63	0
	1	27										54					II					12						
ung		45	42	40	37	35	32	30	50	25	23	200	100	13	II	9	7	4 6	0	58	56	5.4	50	40	40	4 4	6	50,
Auguf	۰,					13			91	17	20	61	3 :	63	3	42	200	1 0	00	00	62	0 1	14	3	4	9	1	00
	S	4											1									5						
	1 :	32	10	36	6	2 I	33	1	59	13	25	37	مار	0 0	34	20	-1	200	20	16	35	55	36	200	20	400	34	0
1 :	1	6										4 4					25					0 0				52		
July.	1	í						1	-	•	-	-	- 1					- 1								60		
	0	l C	I	12	H	н	14	H	16	I	H	19	4 6	1 6	4	2	25	2 6	1 7	2		H 61	\ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \	7	4	-,-	1-1	~
	1 00	1 61	_	63	L/	7	- 65	1 0	0	C)	0)	9	+1 -	1 60	~~	200	(1)	10	9	0	4	55	16	23	4	200	0	_
	1					52						56	- 1					- 1							-			
June	1	15	00	2	C)	23	00	1 2	H 3	IC		4	1 3	7 4	7	2	\$4					31				17		
1	9	1=	13	73	14	H 2	16	17	18	61	50	2 H	7 6	1 6	0 4	2	26	× ×	29	0	I	11 m	4	50	9	00-1	6	
-	to	10																		3								
	1	I S	56	0	4	314	59	57	53	4	39	30	19	1	39	24	. 00	5 8	1	44	61	3.5	7	34	9	35	300	57
1 3	1.	1=	39	20	36	34	3 I	6	27	52	23	2.1										53				4 I		
May.	10	1				15		(21					27					61 tr						
		-	I	Ε	-	I	-	-	14	H	61	4 (1 0	1 6	1 2	4	61	7 6	١.				1					Ä
-	1	100	100	~	1 1-	9	0	1 00	H	6	d	200		200	. 73	9	300	13	61	1	0)	580	15	-	4	202	4	
		1						1					- 1					- (94				-		
April.	1	2.5						(H 1	- 1				. 60	- 6				56	1			47		
Y	9	12	13	14	1	16	LI	18	19	20	2 I	19	2 3	1 6	26	61	20	67) H	H	61	ω 4	. ~	9	1	× 0	1º	
-	l es	10	200		-	200		1							h. # *			-			- and a	0.1	_		1.0			_
						100		32	61	1 2		47		4 %	. (*	, 5	43	- 1		-		25	1			40		
l é		200	000	300	000	300	30	30	CC	33.	33	00	5	300	36	36	3	5	34	33	33	3 23	3.1	30	500	2 2 2 2 2 2 2	13	56
March.	-	1	el	**	4	- 17	9	1	00	6	0	53	1 .	2 -	- 1/	20	27					ω 4				× 0		
1			-	_		-	_	1	H	H	6.1	61	" "	1 0	. (1	61	64	61 6										-
-	1 4	19	4.	10	1 61	0	16	10	-	c:	П	CD	011	-1	- 10	-1	2	1 1 1 2	7 7	57	10	(n 0	15	20	0	0 00		
17.		1				30		l .	-			39					. 56					13 OF	4 .					
Tu a		61	4	()	26	27	13					31		0 (0 (34	34	2 3	36	36	36	37						
February	19	12	· ·	TT.	- 17	91	-	20	10	C	L C	13	1 2	4 6	100	12	53	50) 1	43	3	4 v	9	7	00	6 0		,
-		0												,					4									
	1	10	0	-	7	**	7	1 40	1/	-j-	+	(2)	H [0	0 1	0.13	00	3	-1-	000	0	3	5.5	1 10	н	r-	(200	23	4
1 :																		1								43		
dary.																	6					15				20		
Janus	10	IO	I	12	1 3	14	- 10	16	17	19	0	65	22	500	1 (1	26	6)	0 0	0 0	I	2	ω 4	12	9	1-0	0 0	OI	II
	0	0	^																0									
1	1445	1-	1		2 4	r -/	7.0	14	00	31	Į,	-	c.	0 4	+ 4	. 4	1/0	PIO	200	7	C)	2 2 2	-1 00	9	17	0/1 C	0	-
1					-	-		7		-	-	- 1	-	-			-	- 1	. cj	61	4	4 6	1 61	6.1	4	61 6	-	50,

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

6.0
5
5
. e
-
er
T.
60
4
4
e
#
8.0
E
be
797,
797
-
77
and
1793,
20
)—(
-
8
7
Н
LS
ea
1
.00
P
-
0
DE
GITUD
-
CI
Z
0
hand
S
Z
ST
6)
he
Sa.
0
fe:
H
22
K
-
_
4
00
80

					_																									
Da	ys.																	17		a.	20	2.1	22	247			27		29	31
-	1	16	II	00	9	5	10							50	35	43	20	59	٥	14	2	3	44	0 4			39		- C	7 H
December.		84	49	50	5.5	52	53	54	3	56	57	200	59	0	H	7	3	4	٥	7	00	6	2 ;	13	41	15°	91	17	61	2 K
200	С	0	10	I	12	13	14	15	91	17	18	61	50	22	23	24	25	56	27	20	50	0	H (3 60	4	5	9	50	010	60
a	CO.	∞									3	v	0									6			i			- 1-		
er.	1	53	4	17	32	84	9	27	84	12	300	4	32	61										14				31		
mb		3	31	31	31	31	32				33													42		43	4	45	0 1	4
November.	0	6	0	11	12	13	14	1.5	16	17	13	6x	20	2.5	22	33	24	57	20	27	50	50	0 1	et et	2	4	N	9	r 0	0
Z	40	7	~	_	~		10		16	~	_	_				_				100	= .	C	0	2 -4	<u> </u>	_		_		
r.	"	30						1			4							59						4 6						37
October.	_ `						37				35			1				31	- 1					300	30	30	30	30	30	30
0.8	0	00	6	10	II	1.2	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	2 1	61	23	24	25	26	27	500	29) H	4	3	4	S	0, 1	~ ×
	co.	9	4	7	-	_	-to	1	0.0	00	<u>~</u>	_	0	10	200	200	-L	~		100	0	10	1		L	00	10			
ber.	-						44				13			1				3	- 1					2007				91		
September.	`						13	í			7			1				57	- 8					484	4	46	45	4	43	4
ept	0	្ន	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	2.1	22	22	23	24	25	26	27	200	29) H	14	3	4	S	0 1	
S	97	2	0	0	0	0	2	1 1	6	-	0.1	00	_		00	н	33	_		2	10	0	9	> H	100	10	7	0	200	0.10
ني.	-	32						1			20							6						11	1					
Auguft.	`						19	í			6		1	í				53	- 6					3.60						2 4
Au	0	6	10	II	12	13	14	15	16	17	100	19	20	21	21	22	23	44	25	26	27	200	29	⊃ ∺	61	3	4	S	0 1	~00
	Ç.o.	4	2	_	0	п	200	99	00	1	30	1	7	_	Q	30	п	9		0	9	30	d+ (2 4	1 4	9	0	7 5	0 .	7 (
	"	5 42										•						91						24						
July.	`	55				-		38										II	- 1					52	ı					
	0	6	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	2 I	22	23	24	25	5	27	4	29	50) H	14	3	4	501	0 1	00
	Co.	2 3	10	0	3	4.	7	48	00	00	9	4	0	38	9	п	7	7	2	0	201	00	7	171	16	- 61	4	00	0 0	3
	,																		- 1	1	2	3	i O o		2	4	, C	+	4 6	~
June.	`	17					1				53		- 1					34	- 1	20	26	4	27 ,	15	12					
-	0	II	17	13	44	H	16	17	17	200	19	67	21	22	23	47	61	26	27	200	29	0	н (4 60	4	5	9	1-0	00	0
	en	47 2	(0)		6	0	6.	9	н	9	39	-	0	8	9	7	9	6	-	0	0	3	4 (5 +	1	6	0	0	64	30
								1											- 1									-		
May	`	27									6 0							54	- 1					37						20 20
-	10	1 1	17	H	14	н	1	1	I	E,	130	e1	12	61	24	25	63	56	67	61	2		,	4 m	1	4 1	•	1-0	i i	10
-	SO .	54 1	_	r.	3	0	+	7	7	7	7	50	9	9	10	1	150	13		9	(1)	12		2 1	16	2	6	21	N +	-
-		0 5					1	4	3	7	I	90	20					51 2	- 1					40 5						
April.		-					- {						- 1						- (4 6	4	4	4 .	4 4	5 3			8 33		
A	0	1,	н	14	н	1(H	13	I	61	c)	61	èì	63	ci	4	ć1	170	5	7				. 4		•	4 40		-	Ť
	S	57.0	CI V	0 \	٥	S	ч	2	20	11	50	9	H	主	92	40	12	17	51	0 0	25	9 :	1 (24	+3	65	4	97	2 3	25
4		23 5	-+	+	4	-}-	4.				23.2		~			53		21 1	- 1					17 2	1			14 2		
March													- 1						- 1											
Z		-	н	н	I	-	-	н	П	F	0	C\$	61	53	ci	63	2	270	17	13	-			o 4					-	-
	co	1 1	0.0	-	15	0	150	200	00.1	0	_	4	0	C1	100	0	50	0.12		6)	0	0 -	- p			53	C3	н		
>.	~													4										7			42			
uary.	*	10					- 1							100										23			23			
eb.	22	13	14	1.5	91	17	22	19	20	2 1	61	13	24	25	20	27	50	29	0	I	61	w 4	4- 1	9	7	×	6	O		
1	CA	5											- 1						:											
	1	20	39	50	0	12	23	32	7	52	0	01	17	26	33	39	4	SI.						2 4						
Try.	10	1-1												51										1						
Janus	_	PH 841					- 1				50			23					- 1					- 6						
-	-	1 6		-	7	-		-	-	~	(4	6.4	4	64	et t	£.1	(4	()	1		0									
12	ys.		d	(0	T	ur,	0	1.	S	6,	U	н	c1	(r)	4		-	1 .0	0 1		100		1 0	12 1	1471	9	1 0	2 0) U	, H.
174	10.	-	-	Berry	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		-	-	Design Fre	NO PERSON		-	-	-	61	64	4 (. ,,	1 (*)
		-	-	Berry	-	-	-	if	-	-	10	-	-	-	-	-		-	-	Design Fre	NO PERSON		-	ft	(R)			-		

A TABLE of the Sun's Longitude for the Years 1790, 1794, 1798, being the second after Leap. Year,

308

(a. D.		H 6	3	4	90	10	00	0	5 -	. 4	3	4	5	0 0	-00	6	0	- 6	3	41	L/N	0 1	~00	6	0 H	
Complete Co.	ys.	00.5	20	00	17	19	7		4 0	V 4	P	5 1	H	0 0	2 10						5	5 2	/ 60 / 60	102	H 6	
December.	"					1	1	4	4 6	3 (1)	4	4	5		-			43					4 4) m	4 4	
I E		33	2 %	36	307	39	4	4	4 4	4	45	4	4	4	51						59	0	- 161	4	500	
3	0	6	1 1	7	13	15	16	17	0 0	50	2.1	22	3	4	5 7	27	90	50	-	61	3	S	2 0	-00	60	
	on.	00				ı												0	•							
2	:	17	41	55	0 00 7	47	6	33	57	533	12	53	56	00	30	55	35	Ø C	45	30	17	0	50	104	33	
<u>۾</u>					17										5 5 5					- 1				31		-11
5																								2 60		
November.	°	-	. 14	H	13	-	1	H	-	207	61	6	4	6	26	14	7	29		**		4	- 10			
	to.	0	000	н	55	-	Н	4	0 1	19	9	Ó	4	н	3 1	19	61.0	× ×	6	61	00	2	W 1	000	20	5-1
1 :	1									36					31											- 11
October.	1	27	1 6	4	23	22	2	2 1	2 6	19					17			10							16	
000	0	00 0	10	II	12	4	15	91	10	61	8	21	22	23	2 4 5	26	27	2 5	0	H	4	3	4 "	9	r_00	٥
	Ca					1					ł								1							_
i	1	29	51	1	20 00	120	00	40	5,5	30	S	3	36	12	30	12	56	41	200	11	5	I	59	υ 1	5	
nb		00 4	4	3	1 68	27	26	54	53	20	2	47	45	4	7 1	9	38	37	2 00	34	33	32	30	50	00.	
ter					13																			90		
September.	0	,, ,	• 11	I	нн	-	m	н	PH P		12	61	4	4	4 4	14	4	c1. c								
-	1 3	64	4	2	35	16	เก	00	4.	1 0	0	H	40	0	200	15	9	1	5 6	6	9	4	44	0	4 -	-
نے																										- 51
ngr					1 v																					
Auguft.	0	6.5	I	12	13	15	16	10	178	19	3	2 1	22	23	24 2 2 2 5 5	26	27	200	y 0	H	4	3	4,	no	r 00	°
	CO	4	-					- 1			_		- 1	0		-			W.							_
11	1	5	100	30	55																				47	
July.		4 t	367	33	30	25	22	61	9 5	11	∞	S	ч	0	54	12	49	46	4 4	38	35	33	30	2 4	25	2
l n	0	60	2 =	63	13										24 2			0 0							100	
	5					1	_			. 64	"	64	64	64	C1 C1	1"	64	61 6	' -+							
	1	30	27	Si	3 2	201	17	37	55	35	1 6	3	22	37	5 4	100	30	43	7.0	6	31	+1	52	4	27	-
- J		5			53						1				2021	Ł		00						54		
June.		1				1 1					1					1	-			_	5	5	20 1	v 4	4	
	°	Ε:	H 10	H	14	F	I	N H	H .	2 2	67	61	24	61	2 2 7	a	2	0 -	. 64			4	4,4	, ,	00	
	Co	101	D ++	- (2)	77	130	-	300	x0 (2 0	-	9	sto	200	н «	1 00	50	20 0	N 4	. 6	1.0	44-	LO V	2 10	4:	_
	1	1 '	-		5.7			-			1		-								ı			-	-	- 11
May.		13	19	1	S	1	59	57	35	51	16	46	4	42	34						2 1	, w	10	11	200	2
2	0	1 : :	13	14	15	17	17	20	61	5 6	22	23	24	52	2 7 2 7	28	29	0 -	4 61	3	4	S	0 1	~00	6	2
	S	н							ľ							1		4								
	1	36	30	37	34	21	12	-	40	34	52	33	6	#	17	17	4	10	54	4	32	48	my	27	38	
æ		95	24	23	52						1				357	4	7	- 0	1	9	4	7	H (21	,vo	
April.	0	1			15 9		-		-															6		
1		-	- 11	H	н н	-	Н	Н	9 0	22	64	4	2	61	7 %	12	•	`		1		_			IC	
	1 >	m 0	7 -	3	325	14	00	6	6	350	150	7	7	4	23	150	4	н (. 6	н	0	7	н 1	2 10	000	7
					9 3										6 5			4 4								
March.	1	1				1					1					ı					"		0 0	25	1 200	3
M	0] = :	1 1	14	15	17	100	19	200	22	23	24	25	20	2 2 2	29	0	H (3 60	4	2	9	r 00	00	6	2
	50	H															0									
	1	12	1 61	65	30	100	33	34	3	9	m	4	2	4	7 00 H	14	7	00 00	4	0	5	10	1 00	-		-
ry.		1			58	1									9											
L a	(1				1															1					
February	0	H	T I	1	16	15	. 11	21	22 6	24	2.5	26	27	2	29	-	ч	w .	1. (1)	0	1	00	6	4		
	Ca	0													H4	-										
	1 :	35	0 00	OI	2 1	42	51	0	01	507	34	42	50	55	0 4	100	II	17	12	14	63	II	0 0	200	20	1
ry.	1				12 27																				53 5	
January		1				1																				
Te.	0	-		I	15	-	H	П	તે (2 2 2	12	4	4	2	N 21	12	0	(4	30	-	00	. 6	01	
	60	10				L					1_						10									
D	ays.	-	4 6	J 4	. 100	1	.00	6	01	11	12	14	5	16	18	19	50	21	1 6	24	25	26	207	29	30	7
-	-	-		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		-		_		-	-	-	-	-	-			

308. A TABLE of the Sun's Longitude for the Years 1791, 1795, and 1799, being the third after Leap Year.

	F	Da	vs	н	63	3	4	5	0 1	1	00	6 0) H	71	3	4.	20	1 0	-8	6	0 .	1 0	3	41	50.5	7 (-00	5	0 -	=1	
		-																												4213	
		emp																		37	38	39	42	43	4;	46	48	49	50	2	
Performance	1	Dec	0 8	8	10	II	17	13	-	15	91	- 00 - 1	19	20	21	64 6	2 6	1 6	150	27	200	67		4	m.	+ w	9	200	00 0	7	
Murch. Februay. Murch. April. May. June. July. Augulf. September. October.		er.							- 1					- 1																	
Murch. Fébruay. Murch. April. May. June. July. Adjulf. September. October.	1	emp							- 1					- 1						6	6	2 -	: :	12	13	4 7	1 2	16	17		
March. February. March. April. May. June. July. Augult. September. October July. June. July. Augult. September. October July. June. July. June. July. June. July. June. July. June. July. June. July. July		Nov	O US	7	10	I	12	H	7	-	3	/ N		22								00									
1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1		T.	*						1				-	- 1											24	2 2	1 6	22	27	331	
1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1		tobe	`																	1		-			7		4 1/	, C	-		
Performance		Ŏ	co	9					- 1											1			-	.							
March. February. March. April. May. June. July. August.		er.	"	1.										-						1				- 1							
March. February. March. April. May. June. July. August.		ternh					-		1																						
Minch. Februay. Mirch. April. May. June. July. Auguft.		Sep	on.	2		ĭ	-	. 13	-											1			9								
Junuary February March April May June July June July June July		نہ		1		-		-	- 1	-				-			-			1										1.5	
Junuary February March April May June July June July June July		ngn													0 34	1 32	2 20	3 27	4 6	6 20	31 /	2 1	6 0	1 10	27	· ·	4.0	0	5.8	7 56	
Much. Pebruary. March. April. May. June. July.		A	cs	4					•											1			¥	1						- !!	
Murch. Pebruary. Murch. April. Muy. June.															1																
Munuty. Pedrumy. March. April. May. Junc.		July																													
1 1 1 2 2 2 4 4 1 1 5 4 8 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1			to	5						_								_					-	+						-	
1 11 12 12 12 13 14 15 15 15 15 15 15 15			1	1					-	1		-	-												1 .					1	
1 11 12 12 13 14 15 15 14 15 15 14 15 15		June	1	1											1					000	8	9 5	0 -	2 4	4	4 4	50 C	2 to	, w		
1 1 1 2 2 2 2 3 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4			s	1-1						_													3								
1 11 12 12 13 14 15 15 15 15 15 15 15			1	1						1	-	-			1																
1 1 1 1 2 2 2 2 3 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4		May		1						1 .										1	1 6	0 1	77 7	3 (7)	4	2	9 9	1 5	~ % ? ? ?	9 52	
1 1 1 1 2 2 2 2 3 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4			S																			cl								1	
1 1 1 1 2 2 2 2 2 2										1					1						30	7	5 25	2 47 8	0 26	8 42	6 57	0 6	33		
1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1		Apri	1	1 '	-															ı											
March. Pebruny. March.			l on	10						1					1					1	н									10	
1										1 .															7			•			1
1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1		arch		-						1										- 1											1
1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1		2	1				Н	_	1	1	-	н	- (:1 61	100	c)	c1	c:	cı c	1	1 (1	0								1	
1		-	T	1	- 64	ر . اه دا	()		44	100	10	5.	53	46	0	25	10	4	50	4 -	3 1	יעור	51	30	000	12	32	+			
1			1	- 1						4.5	46	46	47	4 A	0,	49	50	50	51	2 5											
1		Febr	15	1 2	1 2	1.1	1	16	17	S	19	20	el e	1 6	15.5	61	26	27	24 6	2 0) =	c1	(C)	4 v	9	7	00	6			
23 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2		-	1	115	-	rı	- 0	. 0	0	10	0 0	C	or. 0	ç 9	10	2 =	or.	60	0,1	1 7	-	40	10	W 1/	11/	. 61	Ç	-17° -1	0 11	2 0	
Dayler wet a less gottes a services de la contrata del contrata de la contrata de la contrata del contrata de la contrata del la contrata de		7.																													-
		10.13																													
		-			5		_		_									_			10				1						
Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®	0) "	41		11		7 1	- 2	1	· /	0	0		1 9	-	-		-	2 3	J. (.	1 61	61	11 1	1 1	56	61	11	2, 5	3.5	

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

· ss																			+								_
ears.	Da					500											19	0 1	2 2 2	23	47	27	1 0	20	29	3 3	
2	P Per	"				13			50							24			2 2		- 4				65		1
Leap	December	•	00	1 7	23	31	1	50	50	9	01	14	17	20	23	26	27	27	27	26	25	23	181	, M	II.	2 4	1
	Dec	0	2 1	7					,	7													_				
60	9 :	1	91	12	19	29					48					5,5											
eii	Novemb.		45	4 6	77	59	35	52	64	2.0	28	14	30	4	0 :	50+	42	26	22	34	46	57	6	20	40	49	
3,1	SoS	0	14	ture		91	1		17			81			61				50			_	2 1				
and 1796, being	h :	1	39	57	22	300	35	30	20,	200	100	46	rv2	10	13 6	1			45							42	- 1
H	October South.	,	32	22	42	4000	51	14	37	22 0	45	7	30	52	44	500	19	4	2 6	4	2	26	40	27	47	92	
nd	OS	0	3	•	4-	5		9		_		00			6		0		Ξ_		12			1.3		41	
	ii .	- 1	29	30	44	47							32	22	6 (33	14	50	20			18	4	25	200	20	
792,	embe orth.	-	58	30	22	50	14	61	59	30	200	27	4	4	2 2	31	00	\$	4	6	48	12	35	23	45	6	
17	September. North.	0	7		9		~		4	6	2			c1	•	4		0				н		6	1	3	
တ်	S													_					z v								_
788,	guft.	1				49																				4 1	
			49	540	C +1	45	12	55	37	6 6	43	25	9	43	67	50 9	30	10	50	0	40	28	7	2 4 7	0 00	4.2	
cars	AN	c	17			91		12			14	L		3		12			H H		01			6		00	
Ke	, s	1	3,			00 0					: 3	ŧ.				040			1 9		50					43	
	July. North.		4	0 1	55	43,	31	4	91	6	52	43	34	2 5	15	4 4	43	31	1 0	V	42	29	10	1 00	34	19	r
the	TZ	0	61	,	1						2 1					20				10				%			
for		1	26	40	0	3,	177	5-	61	23	37	51	4	9	9	52	38	59	54	2 2	15						
7.	June. North.		11	19	3 2	39	1 1	56	H	w (13	91	19	61	24	26	27	27	0 13	26	2	23	21	0 1	12	00	
TION	Z	0	73 77						23																		
AT		1	38	61	5.	12	2 5	33	36	0 [16	57	18	61	(3)	31	15	39	42	2.4	4	22	30	3, 4	+ +	1 7 Z	
2.	May forth		2.5	39	50	. I.	4	20	36	52	75	36	51	~	19	32	58	10	2 2	34	26	7	17	27	46	55	
ECLIN	Z	0	1.5		91		17			0	•			19				0				2.1				23	
	- -	1	84	5¢ (427	13	181	40	54	59	9	27	200	5	29	2 1	0	53	4:	447	21	47	н	1 4	19	37	
s D	April.	-	54	1.7	٠ ا	26	1 1	33	5	17	33	23	44	9	23	0 6			0 0						45	()	
Z	Z	0	4		9		1-			0	6			0		ם '			6		3	\ <u>``</u>		4	1	25	
SUN'S	T	1	17	50	5 1	59	7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7	57	50	27	1 10	12			0	4 4	100	300	00 4	200	200	10	01	30	17	31	
the	4					39					55		00			33			37						45		
÷	Ma ch.	0	1			10	4			3	61			7 F		0	1			4	4	14	(-1		J 1 4	4 ,	
Jo	2 3																	ż									
(d)	21 2	1	0	46	14	Too !	17	. 61	+	SI	7 7	16	500	27	45	0,4	100	0	(2)	200	3	107	57	1 13	20.4	-	-
52	Millian South		0	cc T	31	52.			40							2 2			53						717		
<	1 2	9	17					14			33			13		_		10		c			00	t			
[-	.1	1	12	00 :	2 5	40	16	51	м	51	7 4	152	54	63			35	41	00 (53	000	28	57	36	2 2	W 100	2
V	uch.										39					325			54							39	- 1
	100			e1			1			H	4	1			0	4	1		6	4 (,	20	4	11 1	7 5	(m) (
	D	275			(1)	+ un	C E	-00	6	10	7	100	7	5	162	13	10	0	III	7 0	24	5.5	9	10	5	0 -	7
60			-			-	-	-	-			-	_	-			1 -	61	61 (4 ((6)	1 61	61	c1 c	1 61	2	2

ear																								-					19
7		D	ays	.[-	4	3	4,	9	1	-00	6	01:	12	12	14	15	91	7	1 9	20.0	21	22	23	12	30	27	200	300	3+
SUN'S DECLINATION for the Years 1789, 1793, and 1797, being the first after Leap	Novemb, December	ء	1	4	34	58	50	32	S	22	9	23	36	3	500	280	90	31	12	20	0	41	39	35				12	43
H	100	South.	1	56		13	21	364	43	49	55	0 4	0	13	16	19	22	24	27	27	200	27	1 6	12	21	19	12	00 0	
Ę.		S	1	177	22		od. a					73				_			1							-			
4	1 6	÷	1	£			54,					9 6				42		15	1				4 65		11		4 2		
frf	0 0 0	South	ľ		59		3,0		3			20 17	2 2	P	26	4		11	3.0	2 5		2 .	43			17	37	47	
he	Z	1	0	410	7	3 15	5 4	916	-	2	2 17	4.0	0	816	н	2		3 19	19	0	420		1 1/2	1	7 2 1	2	200	1/1	-
- -	October.	ë					45					7 16						2 23					45		57		91 2		
in	9	South.		3 2		4	30	. 51 . 52		9	ξŲ 1	7 17			4		6	31	0	3	S	200		12	41	5 5	4 4		•
po	113		0	1			333				50		91	1	s ·			31	H	30	٧.	41	1 12	37	4	29 I	34	40 14	-
97,	September.	orth.					57 3				4 5		£6 I				23						43.4			53 2			
17	le n	Nor	0	∞		-) H	5 5			4- 4-⊢	5.7	1	_	9	64	1 3	7	0 5	4	-	4	-	m		1 4		
nd.	Ser																					ż oʻ							
ਰ	÷.	19	1				V 84					2 6						22				10						18	
93	Auguff.	North		53	37	22	49	33	91		4	4,4		30			33	4.5	35	15	55	35	54	33) 00 T	47	
17	1	1	0	17	_		91			15	_		14			13		12		_	Ξ	S	01			6		∞ .	1
6	1.	orth	1		17		4 4	- 1	43		10		-				22			30		53		1		14 L		S 5	
7	Iuly.	Nor	`				4 4	39	32	200	11		54	46	ę,	27	17	26	45	34	23	2 00		32	19			2000	
S. I			0	2 2 3	20	22 2	. 9	251	П	23	2 5	+ 14	621	1	2	m (20 0	13	10	9 0	× 1	201		(5)	-1	18	140	10	_
ear	une.	orth.	"					‡ IS				2 2		9 r				3 (1			55 9		1			3 25		
>	13	No			Н	4 (300	4	2		ກ	10	н	н	-	11	100	26	7	27	7	1 4	25	ct	2 1	19	H	•	-
the	-		0	7 22	10	4 <	-00	2	9		4	37	0	10	-	5 1		24	10	н.	27.4	2 2	9	O.	н ,	187	(4)	5 C.	-
OF	May.	Ę					27	- 1			104 104							42 2				43.						52 5	
7	Σ	North		5 1	(A)	9		4	7	- (n 4	8		(r)		6		4		0	- (0.4	-	н	- (4 60	, 4-	13	
0	-		:	121	4	5 0	4	21	521	15	30	37	29	12	0 4	2, 5	2 6	15		37	700	25.	30	9	2 6	91	5 1	12	-
ΑT	pril.	North.		49		000			500		12		- 1	18	39			4	25	4.	2 2	45	5	52	4 6		40	59	
Z	A	Z	c	4			9		7		8			6	2			II		9			13		2		•		
CL			`	51	50	25	3 -			2	-		- 4			1 1			48	53	33	49	26				36	5.	
Q	March.	South.		1 1	54	100	45	22	59	30	48	2.5	-	37	4- 6	26	Co	39	15	,	1 1/2	18	42	50	67	16	39	262	
s	Ma	Soil	0	2	0		S		4		6.3	+		17	-	4		0		•		H		63	į	ť٦	'n.	41	
CN	-		1	6 -	-1 1,	23.0	25	01	59	+ +	- 6	73	01	1 21	-00	9	C1	S	3.5		. 0	<u></u>	101	41		6	-	-	
S	February.	South.	- 1				41 2		W 4					5 55					PE 0			2 56		48 24					
of the	cbr	Sor	- 1	0 0	∩ -	10	4	61	4				12				1 4	c)			5 6		- 1	8 4 c	1	7 4			ı
Jo			- 1	-	+ 1	-	00	1		•	6	46 13	0 0	23		v	I 15	1/	50				_ !		9		35	1 6	
BLE	anuary.	South,					32 2		N [∵ 0			41 4		101			10	00	100								43 3		
13	Janı	So		13 13	0.4	r (1)	(1)	,	7		н	4.6		r1 H	0	ा च	643	7	- 0		. (17	×		0	7 =	7 5	4,	-	
1	1	Day	5.	- (1	40	4	200	1	-00	0	102	11		2	152	10	17	2	0.0	2 1	17	(2)	TI:	26	17	50	3.0	-	
ċ				-	-	-	-	=	-	-	-	-			-			==			=								•
309.																													

309. A TABLE of the SUN's DECLINATION for the Years 1790, 1794, and 1798, being the fecond after Leap Year.

	_			_	_		_	_	_	_	_			_	-	_	_	_				_	_	_		_		_		_	_	_	
	Da	ys.						- 1	1	00	0	2	II	12	13	14	2	16	17	28	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	17	120	29	30	131
pe	ė	"			200				36								91				58											17	
December	South	-	54	6	1	61	27	34	41	47	53	59	4	00	12	16	19	2.1	4	25	26	27	77	27	27	2	24	43	19	91	13	6	4
اد	S	0	2 H	2.5									23							e i							-						
nb.	:	- 2	59	m	51	44	41	43	50	200	I	2	41	0	59	40	П	3	4	4	4	43	0	\$	25	35	20	43	42	17	200	13	
Novemb	South.	•	35	55	13	35	20	00	56	43	= 0	100	34	SI	9	22	38	53	7	22	36	49	3	25	9	9	52	3	14	13	35	45	
No	S	0	14		15			2			7				81				19				20					2 1					
:		1	2 1	0	98	0	2	23	26	24	16	4	47	23	53	17	34	43	43	37	12	57		30	46	4	27	0	22	33	29	13	43
October	South.		2 1	4	~	31	24	17	40	es	50	46	II	34	56	61	41	3	2 5	47	6	30	23	13	34	55	91	37	57	17	37	57	91
90	So	0	3		4			2	٠,	9			-			00		6		Ì	0			M		-	7	-		22			4
1	i	1	5	0	1	20	300	4	43	23	27	39	45	20	47	44	36	4.	6	2 1	31	6	47	1 2	4	2	57	23	49	14	300	0	-
September.	÷.		6								OI				-		25			-					14	- 1						200	-
pter	North	0	20				9		5			4			50		4	"		I 4		0	4-1		-	Ì	-	64	7	4		~,	
Sc								1															:	ż	ŝ						ı		-
انے	:	1	59						30	200	II	38	SI	48	32	Н	17	2C	6	47	OI	22	24	12	20	18	36	42	39	25	2	32	53
ngn	orth.	,	56	41	25	01	53	37.	50	(c)	46	200	0	52	34	91	27	00	19	59	04	50	0	40	61	29	300	17	26	35	14	25	30
A	Z	0	17				91				15			14			3			5			3	H		0			6			00	
		:	42	20	33	23	84	49	200	43		7	7	51	01	6	43.	57	49	191	28	91	43	49	36	=	7	54	22	30	61	49	4
ulv.	North.	,						40													84											26	
-	ž	0	23		22	- 1	7	4	.,	64				н	1	(-)	. 64			0	4	4.3				9 6		6.4		00	4	"	
-				2.5		34	33	00	40	7	0	0	4	10	H	61	0	2	6	1 2	18	I	0	F3	PH	15	15	6	6	241	15	=	_
une.	orth								48 4								2 I				4				27					17 2			
-	ž	0	13		64	61	(~1	4	4	-	L/S	3		Н	"		н	C1	cı	64	2	Cŝ	64	ч	64	2	6	64	61	ы	н	-	
-	1	1 2	79	1	6	33	H	60	28	9	9	0	9	"	[0]	F.	36	00	-	1S	100	7	2	1	18	7	9		100	-	1	49	4
1.	orth.							39 5									583								40 1							50 4	
May.	SZ	,	-	6.2		S	61	3	2	7 1	13	4			2	4	. 20	1 6		3	5	0	H	64	4	5	-		ų	(1)	4	2	5
-	1	1 .	1	Ó	37	H	4	3	1 20	H	20	00		3 13	58	-1	- 6	-		9	H	4	7	7	9	ы	4	4	0	43	7	7	_
=	orth.)							1																		1						
April	Nor	1	1		29			60		63	45		7	5	i		7 7		38	3	1	4		c;	41		ĕ	3	10		3	54	
_		0	4	2			9	-	10	_		00		10	0			7 10	9	4	110	0	9 12	-	9	2 13		7	-	7 14	0	_	0
:		1	23						1 .		53														9 5		F	47		37		H	36
March	South					1	51	61	4		17	54	3	-	4	10	19	200	000		2	61	61	4	13	36	0	23	47			57	20
M	So	0	1	. 9			~)		4		617)		4		I			С					H		¢1			(1)	1		4
	-	-	L	~	10	7	- 60	2 61	19	- LC	2 6	7	- 13	~	1 0	1	> 0	н	lest.	-6	1	Z	0	00	20	20	10		0	10	_	_	
February	اغ	1							3 26																8 18		l .						
- Pru	South	1	15	300	2 6	4		27	133			, 2			P			. 0	4	5	1		64	0	330	1		1 50	, ~	46	•		
1 F	las	0	12				H		1	14			17		L	12	•		I		100	2	-		9	00	100	10	10	10	-4	110	
r.	P.		1		(c)			57	4		34						16								37							, 70	
anuary	outh.		133	2 2	77	17	- 4	100	IO	II	2	7	44	- 67	24	1 2	٠ ₁	0	000	5.6	13	. 0	47		19	2	50	2	E C	, 60	47	3.1	14
175	٦.	1	5									2 1						20			1		61	`			20				17		-
-	D	ays	.1 -		. 64	4	. 4	2	11.	-30	0	0	II	12	15	17	15	16	17	25	12	20	12	22	5	24	12	36	67	25	20	30	31
					-												•																-

A TABLE of the Sun's Declination for the Years 1791, 1795, and 1799, being the third after Leap Year, 300.

17	-	_			-	-		_		_	-	-	-		-		-				-		-	_		-		-	-		-	-
7.	Da	ıys.	П (00	00	I C	II	E.	13	14	1.5	3 16	I Z	8 1 8							25	50	127	28	29	30	31
December	÷	1	19					ı					65				18		- 1					20							17	
cen	Sout	`	52	0	100	25	33	9	46	52	57	4	7	1	15	80	2 1	23	25	26	27	27	27	27	2	4	7,	50	17	14	0	V
ğ	100	0	21	1								33		_											_[į.	
je.	1	ì	200	200	55	15	22							00						42	27	4	47	25	9	31	59	3	45	12	53	
ovemb.	South.		31	0	27	46	4	22	39	57	4	30	47	3	20	34	4.9	4	20	32	46	59	12	25	37	49	0	12	53	33	45	
SZ.	Š	С	14	5)		9				12			00				9					0		1		1				•	
1		=	42	17	3 1	1 1	20	2.5	So	15	32	91	22	261		0	0	77	6	30	33	=	3C	39	2	5	H .	97	39	00'	26	0
October.	th.		15 4						57					51.							-			29	- 1							
e e	South	0	3 1	√ √		4	2	(2)		6 2	4	7	73	1	8	3	S	9 2	4		6	4	н	4	\sim	2 I	3	5	3	3	V)	1
1						33	0	-			н		=+	<u> </u>		2	н (-	H	10	0	_	23	23	<u> </u>	2005	23	6	3 13	_		711
oer.			23						37										31					23								
September	orth	1	45				23	-	33			30	-			200	35	I	48	25	Η (33	SI	00	~	55	200	4	W)	20	52	
epti	Z	0	20 6	` .		9			2		4			3		63			-			0			-		-		6			
11	-							-				_					_						Z			_						
Auguft.	4	-	39																													
ngn	orth.		0 4	29	13	57	4	24	7	50	3	15	57	38	20	Ι	42	23	4	4	5	S	45	24	4	43	22	mq	9	19	57	36
Y.	Z	0	17			91				5.5			4				13			12			Ξ		1	10			6	(00	
		=	4 6	45	39	11	61	c1	23	50	53	5	53	19	21	3	22	2	54	00	0	32	44	35	2	91	00	40	52	46	22	40
uiy.	orth		r "					36						50						51					- 1	39						-
1	ž		3	61	, 4,	4	4	(-,		(4			Н	,	4		64			Q	7	(4			6	.,	64	Ξ,	00	4	(*)	
-			39 2	5 - 2	4	6	0	7	20	6	4	Lr.	2	3	H	3		4	3	17	9.	0	6	4	41	00	6	2	5 1	63	4	-
une,	orth.						* .		52 5		-																					
15	Z		5 12	13	61	w	4	4	5	2			н	Ē.	H	4	22	ci	7	2	63	61	61	7	17	24	63	7	-	H	H	
_		0	61	-10				00.	0	10	47		_		10		-0 1	0	_	rie	-7	0	P.	000		-7				_		_
	=	1	55.55		-		- 1)				-	- 1					33								
Man	OLL	`	26.00	4	П (SI	35	53	20	24	40	56	1	36	40	55	6	C3 ,	36	49	н	14	25	37	64	59	0	0	30	39	48	57
-	Z	0	15		91				17				120				19				20						12					
1		2	H 1/	0 4	57	43	25	25	5	4	56	0	26	42	7 1	49	7	5.	14	0	37	cs ,	10	16	0	42	4	14	10	52	0	
April.	North	,	38	4:	46	6	33	+5	17	39	-	47	5	7	50	20	13	33	4	15	17,1	20	10	30	20	15	35	54	13	3 1	20	
A	Z	c	4 11			9			~		00			6			0			m			ct		-	3			4			
-	-		10 6	7) ===	н	53	7	61	0	+	20	33	6	12	H	(5)	7	c	9	161	25	20	Ī	mo	0	33	5	4	0	61 0	0	9
=	غا		S .2						47											27 1											513	-
Mirch	ont			6 4		5 5			4 4		3	SW)		7 4	£3		3		0	61		4	4				2	4		22	5	- -
12	ń	0		_					4												y. 1	ż			1					. ,		4
1	-		C1 (1	7 4	8-d		en		10	0	C1	-	25		10	b 1	٥	1-0	20	00	000	77	0	H	7	2	н	0	н	_	-	-
chiuary	-=						- 1		54										31 5						- 1			-	-			
Tig.	S. ut	1	I		•	Š		н		(7)	н	5	cr	-		en	I,	50	3	ī	4	73		43	- 1	59	3	-	2			
=		1	14	10	_	1 2			1			11	15		1.2	_	_			-	2			6	- 1	0	0	47.	0	61		_
7	1	,	0						"										30					ir,								
January	=		0 7	S	-1. cj	500	2.5	51	13	4	V	40	3.0	20	15	4	53	41	29	17	4	20	37	20	0	53	30	23	7	51	100	0
-	1	3	000								17						Ci					65				2				13		
1	10		1- (17	2	1	.1	٥.		=			4	, ·	-	brd .	2	6	130	74	et	ei ei	7	13	56	1-1	er.	53	0	
			-	_	a artificación	-	-	-		_	-	-	_	-	-		-	-			_	-	-			-		-	-	-	and the real	hough

310. A TABLE of the SUN'S RIGHT ASCENSION for the Years 1788, 1792, and 1796, being Leap Years.

	-					_	_	_		_	_	-				_			-		_	-	-	-	-				_		_
1)	15.	- 0	-	4	10	9	7	∞	6	2	-	12	H	14	15	91	17	00	9	63	2 I	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	2 1
Del	603	39	200	42	4	26	49	13	36	-	25	50	16	42	7	31	0	27	53	50	46	13	40	7	33	0	26	52	18	43	0
cember	g	33	15	91	15	55	29	4	00	13	17	- 2	9	30	35	39	#	00	25	27	H 1	9	0	2	6	4	00	32	27	H	91
,	h	9	, 4	V	-			17			-		1"			(.,	4	4	3 1		60				[61	64	(*)	(-)	4	
0		H ST O	00	9	4	4	10		G	(*)	0	H	E	4	н	O	0	Cr.	0		\vdash	9	0	40	0	1	- ST	. 7	Ô	0	_
ovemb.	60	24						17								0					53				50						
Ve	8	29	37	41	45	49	53	57	hel	5	6	33	1	2 1	2 5	30	34	30	42	46	50	55	59	60	7	12	16	20	25	29	١.
N	h,	14							53														,	91							
er.		49	. 50	43	22	17	42	2.1	3	44	26	00	12	34	17	6	4.7	32	19	9	53	41	30	19	Ic	H	53	45	38	33	000
ppe	10.	32				1		200					9	0	4	65	1	v	39									13			
Octobe		20 6	14	4	4	~	01		10				1	61	cı	cı	(*)		(4)	4	4	4)	u ;	4	4			-		61	c
	ے	pret .	20	33	0	_	500	>9	SI	н	_	77	8	4	9	45	0	9	н	7	0.0	00	2	н	7 I.	~	0	7	2	н	_
Septemb.	5	19																- 1	31									57			
i i	8	448	51	55	59	"	9	5	H	17	21	24	12	3	3	30	4	4	49	53	26	0	(4)		I	74	- CO	21	25	29	
Se	ے	01																				12									
	S.	49	33	52	15	5	54	43	31	19	9	52	39	47	6	53	37	20	3	45	27	6	50	30	oI	50	29	00	47	26	-
Juff.	- 70	2 4 2				- 1	II									45			2	0	40	00	=	2	6	61	9	30	22	7	-
Augu	h. 5	00 4. n	נים נ	6		- 1				Çŧ	E	()		4-1	4	4	4			0						ч	64	(*)	61	413	
	-		00		2	61	20	H \	9	H	9	o	2	9	6	32	3	41	10	2	4	~	63	6	92	3	6	</td <td>00</td> <td>2</td> <td>-</td>	00	2	-
	S.	14															7	- 1						- 4							
July.	8	444	52	26	0	4	00	13	17	7	2	29	33	37	4	45	4	23	57	_	5	5	H	-	2 1	2	29	33	37	4	VV
	ء	9			7															×											
	s.	56	6	15	22	29	37	45	53	e)	II	19	28	38	46	20	S	14	24	34	43	53	3	12	2 I	30	39	84	26	5	_
June.	Ė	39					40	×0 .	7	~		S				41					2 4	0		S	6	3	1	31	2	9	
5	ä	4	4	٠,	- 1	S							"	4. 1		7	7	-	- 1		0					64	61	(-)	**1	4	
!		7 15	p=c	73	57	2	7	0	(2)	-1	61	-1	100	0	9	24	7	-	20	0	0 1	-	7	41	9	6	3	37	н	2	0
2	S		-			- 1	0 .					- 1	1											- 1							
May.	Ε.	37	4	4	50,1	~		4		-	H	F	C\$	61	3	35	5	4	47	3	3				H	H	ĭ	23	61	3	"
		4				- 1	w																4								
	s.	41	53	36	15	4	34	13	53	33	13	53	34	16	57	39	2.1	4	47	31	15	5,5	44	2	15	61	49	37	24	12	
April.	Ë	45	4	20	0 (m	7	- :	40	0 :	6	52	29	53	30	g :	40	١	2 1	5	5,0	4 4	> 9	2	41						
A	. !	0	٠,	,	-							"		. ,		4	4	1			,	4	ľ				60	64		,	
	4	17	4-1	7	5 -	7	(2)	+ 1	7	<u> </u>	V) 1	<u>ا</u> ک	2	4	m,	- (3 6	÷	Vi V	5 ,	+ -	4 (0 0	+	1 S	3	-	0) 1	<u></u>	57 (3
4	- 1											- 1						- 1						- 1							
March	8	52	25	, [1	4	44	, ,	1 6	4 (N	m	36	4	4	4	7	7	S,		,, (-	1 1	-	61	rì	27		34	3	4
4	- 1	12		23										_					(_				-							
ry.	3	33	37	39	4	4	4	3 6	200	5	32	29	45	C I	12	2 8	2	1	39	2,5	200	2	, ,	21	31	17	65.0	40	33		
rua	=	59	_	7 1	2 5		100	7 .	1 1	200	33	2	47	1 2	22	5,7	1 4		0 5	+ ∝	2 6	L	200		33	2	-	40	10		
February	- 1	20 21											•				1								. , ,		7	4	•		
-i	- 1	3003	¢1 I		, C	210	0 00	5 0) ,		13 (1 19	41	0 0	0 1	5	1 0	17	40	2 0	1 4	10	~oc	-	6	5 1	-	0 0	200	2 1	3
uary												- 1																			
		51	5	,	9 0		H H	1 6	1 6	4 6	m (m	39	4.	4	3	ົ		50 0	, ,	1 1-	22	26		30	5	ě,	4	+ 1	0 5	5
Te .	وإغ	13 1		5		1	-						Option will be				20														
		not #1	20	in 1	15	1 1	1	- 0	20 () ,	-	1 17	50	7- 1	OV	1 6	-00	1 1	7	2 6	. 0	(7 7	-1	MIL	2 1	~ ~	9 /	20 5	1	_

D.	ys.	1 =	4	3	4	10	9	11	00	6	0	I	N	100	4	· 10	9	7	00	6	0	_	7	3	41	25	9	7	00	6	0	-
	J si	36	56	91	300	0	22			32			SII	II	37 I	3 1	28 I	55 I	2 I I	481	152	412	20	342	- 1	282	552	212	47 2	13 2	39 3	43
ecember	Ė	32	36	41	45	20	54	50	3	1.	II	91	50	25	29	34	300	42	47	51	26	0	2	6	4	18	22	27	31	36	40	45
9	Ė	91		0				Ļ	17			F-	_		-	0	_	~	~		0	128	16	_	1	-			-	_	_	
ovemb	. 6.			5 20										6 37											- 1	5 48						
Nov	h. m	4	'n	36	4	4	4	ß	5	2	1	••	I	91	ñ	4	61	3	3	4	4	4	Ś	52		9	I	П	I	ėĩ	c)	
	S.	5.5	34	51	50	30	6	164	29	1 6	50	32	14	26	39	24	7	52	300	25	II	28	46	34	2.5	15	2	57	49	42	36	31
October.	ŝ	31	35	39	42	94	20	53						1			27							23	- 4				12			
30	ė	17								13																14						
mb.	S	į.						30																					4	-		-
Septemb.	Ε.	0 43	47	51	54	20	_	-	5	12	16	19	61	27	30	34	37	4	4	48	52	5.5	58	~1		IC	Ē	17	23	124	22	10
	s.	H	12	37	62	61	9	59	17	36	4	11	200	14	62	41	65	12	92	6	12	34	15	20 I	37	17	27	36	9	55	33	Ξ
uguft.	Ė			55						81				1			44							OI		18						
A	ė	00				6										İ						01			-							
у.	S.							56																	- 1	29						
July	Ε.	6 43	47	5 1	55	59	7	7	12	16	50	4	700	3.2	36	4	44	45	52	ŀ	~	4.0	90	12		20	24	72	33	36	40	44
	3	1 -	(1)	6	5	7	6	3.7	FS.	22	н	0	0	000	37	91	92	2	5	2.3	-	7	25	6	-	20	00	6	00	9.		_
June.	Ë.			47						II				200										01	- 1	18						
	Ŀ	4						S													,	9	_									_
	S.			45										36										24								
May.	E	36	39	43	47	5.	55	59	50	9	IC	14	18	2.2	26	30	34	(U)	42	46	50	54	20			oi,	14	20	13	136	30	34
	E S	S	9	5	主	(1)	н	2	0	0	39	61	0	40	2.2	4	91	200	0	53	37	0 0	9	20	2	17	1	22	14	6	1	-
pril.	ė			52										200										2		13			-			
₹,	غ	0					-												1				61									-
r.	30	1						39																								
March	E.	5.1	55	58	ξ.) ()	9	6	13	17	2	61	c1	32	35	39	43	46	50	53	57	0	40	20	12	-	19	23	56	30	53	37	4
	s.	5 23	00	41	61	13	4	13	1	00	9	H	17	.2	5	00	н	25	C.	34	_	7	0 0	0	5	61	0	501	00	_	-	_
bruary	۳. s			401						34 3				50 2					- 1					200	- 1	36 2						
chr	 	2.1															13								1		•	•	•			
ry.	s.							55																			57	9	13	Ö,	25	30
inua	Ξ.	50	54	59	(00	00	1,2	16	2.1	23	29	34	38	42	47	5 I	55	0	4	00	12	17	2 1	64 6	67	33	37	45	46	20	4.	53
Days	=	1.18	61	23	4 19	S	0	7	00	6	0	1	el [Ē	+	5	9	7 50	2	6	0	н (17	٠ ١٠	41	201	9	1	00	6	0	
17358		_	_		-	_	_		_		н	-		9-4	-	Н	-	Н	-	les,	7	2 1	63 6	7 (1	4	7	7	(1)	7	(1)	5

310. A TABLE of the Sun's RIGHT ASCENSION for the Years 1796, 1794, 1798, being the second after Leap Year.

				`										_			-	_	_		_	_			_			
Da			3	4	S	01	10	0	2 5	1	12	13	14	15	10	17	1	61	7 7	22	23	14	25	20	27	0 0	200	31
December	20	33				- 1					41						- 8	-	210			- 1						0
cen	m.	31	40	4	40	53	57	4 4	9 0	2 1	19	24	500	32	37	4 1	+	20	55	4	00	12	17	21	20	300	35	44
Ď	ج	91						17									1			8								
op.	40	29	22	200	2 7	2	130	19	2 2	+00	33	38	44	51	59	1	7	100	39	4	17	31	46	61	19	30	55	-
Novemb.	ü.	27	0 60	39	43	4	51	25	53	2 6	II	15	19	23	27	2 23	2	40	4%	53	57	-	5	10	14	2 0	7 17	-
ž	÷	14							1,	0											,	0						
-1	00	50	10	500	37	9	55	35	10	200	200	10	4	29	13	200	7	29	0 0	21	39	58						34
October.	E.	31	300	41	45	49	52	20	0 4	2 5	11	15	38	22	50	29	\tilde{z}	37	4 1	100	52	99	0	40	2	H	15	7 6
06	ė	12							13														14					
lb.	3.	56	11	48	2 5	61	30	14	0,70	2 6	100	14	49	5	0	36	1	47	4 L	34	6	42	21	200	35	11	42	27
Septemb.	Ė	27	0	53	57	-	+	20	11	2	2 7	92	62	23	37	0 5	#	47	22	100	d	3	6	12	91	50	53	-
Sep	ė	0				-					**							•			63							
	00	57	7 -1	33	53	14	4	53	4	57	1 (1	160	35	20	2	49	32	151	53	7 7	3	4	24	4	43	63	61	18
Auguft.	E.					- 1			-		200						- 1		22				ı.					35 4
Au	ı	20	., 4	1 4 1	6				_ (, (1		(-,	4	7	4		- '	,					14	69		.,,	,
	S.	13	02	36	+3	0	26	40	0	mox	22	25	62	22	34	30	2	39	39	200	36	34	31	62	5 2	0	15	2 4
July.	E	24									2 4 5					F	- 1		59									39
Ju	h.	9	2 0	, (,				П	-	7 (1 11		6.1	(+)	4	4		3	α,	,				61	64	4*)	6-11	m 4
-	S	56	20	19	3	6	300	15	23	N C	0	000	98	4	55	5	4	3	23	1 6	1	0	6	50	37	9	5	4
June.	m.	37												-		40	- 1		20	-			1			-	233	0
-	h. n	4 3	1 4	. 10	40	~	2		н '	-	4 61	1"	(1)	(1)	(e)	4.	4	47	2			_	-	23	7	64	ęn i	(4)
	S	1 0	0 0	0	1	7.7	4	7	0	40	4 4	10	. 22	32	63	7	2	4	4	+ 4	- 30	7	6	25	50	00	50	47
May.	Ė	0.6	-	-												37	- 1		49 2				6					29 4
Z	h. n	2	J 4	4	7	~	5	3		,	-	61	61	64	60	CO (4	4	4,	U V	, 4			H	H	61	61	71 67
	8	55	2 -	00	00 0	0	20	9	5	Q 4	2 1	-	20	0		47	0	6	4 5	0	30	0	9	61	6	9.	4	
April.	١.	43 5									2 4 4 5 7					42 3	- 1		53 4				ł.				27 3	
Ap	8	4.	4 v	יאי ר	2	_			-	н (1 4	19	~	m	(J	4.	4	4	W) I	ر م			-	-	1-4	c1	61 '	3
	-=	28	7 9	6	-	4	5	1	× 0	0 0	00	100	00	7	9	47	~	7	00	0 0	10	7	0	1	-25	60		39
ch.	s.		54 2								7 1 2				-		- 1		0				1					
March.	H.		200	رى			-	H	61	14 6	1 4	1 6	5	4	4	4	2	150	Q		н	-	-	4	61	17	3	30
_	4		39	1	5	25	4	3	HO	0 4	34	14	7	н	4	9	1	50 1	00 1) V	2 (0	-	11	3	20	4		
February.	l. S.																. 1					-	1					
prd	E		S C	I	H	7	12	2	3	· .	4 4	14	5	5	-1	40		1	0 I	7 6	12	3	3	3	4	4		
	1=	12	d- co	- 63	10	6		~	5	Un v	2 1/	11 1/2		-	8 22	4	6	5	0	7 5	-10	1	110	7	2	57	0	10 -
January.	8		400														- 4						1					22 2
nun	E	1	200			11	1	1	ci	લે હ	33	4	46	5	54	55	21	-	II	20	2	7	33	3	4	4	4	53
1	1=	25	-1 -	10				~	_			1		16			20	-	0.	m 61	-	-	116	10	-	~~		0
I D	ays.	1-		. 4		9	1	.00	0,	ĭ	12	1-	14	1 5	16	17	~	-	5	4 6	C)	cl	el	17	c1	7	25	3

A TABLE of the SUN'S RIGHT ASCENSION for the Years 1791, 1795, 1799, being the third after Leap Year. 310,

																									li.						
D:	ays.	-	63	3	4	10	9	7	20	6	0	н	61	3	4	2	9	17	0 0	2 0) H	61	3	4	150	9	27	20	6:	3c	31
11	100		20					37	0	23	8	12	371	19	28	54	161	46	1 9	3	25	592	25	517	19	45	12	38	3	3c	551
December	Ė	0	34	6	5	7	7	ł	н		-			1				40	- 1			4			91	-					- 1
900	1		(4)	(4)	4	4	~	5	_			H	П	2	61	es	3	4	1	+ 4	0 0	00		-	_	64	61	cı	60	m.	4
1	-	101	00	25	3	0	6	6	0	73	-50	00	3	100	4	н	00	7	1	7 0	\ 0	17	15	0	14	0	9	4	14	J	-
Novemb.	· S	1																													
ove	E	56	30	34	3	4	4	55	54	25		v	ï	14	31	22	74	31	7	2 4	F 4	52	5		4	-	13	17	2	5	
-	4	1 4			_						15							_	1	_				16	_	_		_			
October.	s,	=	48	27	S	43	22		42					1				3					-								- 1
Pob	Ė	30	33	37	41	44	48	52	55	59	3	9	01	41	17	2 I	25	29	7 6	300	44	4	5 1	55	59	3	7	10	14	18	2.5
10	Ŀ	12									13															4					
_ <u></u>	v:	3	41	19	99	33	6	46	55	58	34	01	45	21	57	32	00	44	7	400	9	42	17	53	29	9	42	19	57	33	
E II	E	1	45						1									39	- 6												
Septemb.	1:	0	4	4	41	41	н			-	_		64	"	64	(-)	۲٠,	(-)	1	4 4	, 9	, .	4						(4	64	
	s.	10	3	9	7	30 (× ×	223	7	3	4	7	00	14	0	3	0	54	2) 6	7 4	-0	28	1 6	0	-	I	0	0	00	47	19
Auguft.		5																				. 2								-	
1 ug	8	+	49	50	3				12	7	ñ	7	13	0	3	3	4	46	^ ·	חי	0			1-4	-	6	ы	4	3	34	3
-	庄	20				9						_		_		_	_								_		_	_			_
	s,	1	2.1			-												300				- 64								13	
July.	E	4 1	45	4.9	53	57	м	5	10	14	180	22	26	200	34	38	42	46	2 :	400	9 4	9	01	4	18	13	56	30	34	38	45
1	=	9					1														00										
1	°s l	58	4	6	91	23	29	37	45	53		6	19	100	36	45	55	4:	113	2,3	23	52	7	II	20	29	38	47	56	4	-
June.	Ë	9	41	15	6	33	7	-	2	6	4	00	5	9	00	4	000	43	: 1:	4 4	0 0	, ~	00	7	i .		24				
1	-	4	4	4	4	4,	-	2						1"	(.,	(-1	.,	4	1		, 4	,					64	94	(-)	(*)	
-	1	2	4	4	4	5	7	6	н	4	~	-	46	-	00	5	3	0,3	14	9 9	9	56	1	6	-	23	9	6	3	47	3
1 3	8												-												I						
May.	=	50	50	4	4	4	5	5	-		-	Η	Ħ,	7	ci	4	è	36	1	7 7	r ir	56		4	33	I	ř	લ	24	50	3
	교	61		_		_			(42)					_	10		_		1			-	4		_			_	_		_
-:	S.		40						33									39							31						
April.	E	43	46	20	53	57	-	4	00	12	15	19	23	26	30	34	37	41	2 3	7 2	56	0	4	-	11	15	6.1	22	56	30	
4	غ	0					-															4							-		Ì
1	1		17					51	5	14	55	35	15	55	35	14	53	31	100	1 2 7	. 10	43	21	н	37	15	53	31	00	40	24
March	m.	6+	53	27	0	40	x	II	15	61	27	92	30	33	37	41	1:	43	2	20	500	9	01	+						35.	
M	h. 1	63			5											,	4			. 7	0				,	4.4	44	, 4	4-3		
1	5.1	62	40	3	57	0	1 -	9	25	33	0	_	3	7	61	mo	0	0 5	10	1 61	Н	0	00	9	32	200	4	0			-
nary							- 1	-	-	- 1	-								1					1							
February	E I		40		904	н .	13	C1	200	3	'n	4	4	4	2	2		41	-	H	I	23	7	~	45	'n	4	4			
(in	اغا	7 1		-4	_		1	Pr	<u> </u>		-	-		- 1	^	_	67								_					-	
ry.	3	26						4.7										6 00							4.	20	2	12	61	2 0	34
January.	Ė	48	13	57	H (9	0	+1	19	3	27	32	36	40	45	49	50	50	9	10	15	19	57	27	31	35	40	4:	43	25	20
Jar	٤	SI			19													0													
Da	lvs.	н	65	(2)	4	W V	0	1 -5	20	5	0		1.2	13	+	5	0 !	200	13	0	1 7	61	23	7	t/ 15	25	0 ~ 1	· ·	6.0	0 :	7
			-	-	_		_	-	_		_	-	-	-	-	-	==		-		-		-		-	_	,,,	_			

INTERE for fitting the TABLES of the SUN'S LONG. DECL. OF Rt. ASCEN. to any meridian: Or, for finding either quantity at any Daily 024004 0000 13 10 20 10 h. m. 8 120D. ы 4 4 h.m. 29 1 H. I I OD. 2400044 p. 7 Il. desor Or, time before and after noon. 5 14 p. 1 h. m. rood. 55 4 33 40 9 h.m. 20 D.175 D.180 D.185 D.190 D.195 9 h. in. 9 h. m. h. m. h. пп. 0 485 of longitude from the Meridian of London: v ä 50 D.155 D.160 D.105 D.170 4 h.m. 4 h. na. h.m. 40 40 h. m. 20 0 to D. | 14 D. h. m. ~ h, m. 40 c: h. m. C) h. m. D. 0 Degrees 30 19 D. 25 D. 24 h. m. 40 30 2 2 2 h. m. hour. D. 120 I m. 19 h. m. 000 0 10 D. 0 0000011111 E. 20 Univ Calif

R/		Daily		"	0	20	0.4	. 0	20	04	0	50	4	0	20	40	0	20	40	0	9	0.4	5 6	40	0	20	4.0	200	40	0	20	40	0 0	40	0	27	54
,	Ļ	1 .	0	`	0 12	7		. M	7		41	-1	33	15	F>	- de	91	_	- la	11	_	-0,	0		610	-		2 2		21	7	500	55	× 1,1	23	Gio	- O
	115D. 120D	h. m.				4	land		بر د	4	4	4	1 5	5	2	7 5	5 20	5 27	5 34	5 40	5 4	52	2 10	9	6.9	6 2	9 3	4	5 2	7	1	7	7	7 6	4	4	7 5
continued	7:1	15	40	*	1	57	2	7	, W	2	00	15	7 1.	1	4		15	3	0	9	e1 :	20 1	5	- 00	1/2	П	7	20	19	6	6	20	20	3 4	- 3	0,0	0
ini	151	b. m	74		1	· (~)	4	. 4	4 I	· 4.	4 2	4	4	4 4	4 5	2	2	5 1	5 2	5 2	5	101	ر 4 ر	2 L	70	1 9	1 9	9 6	9	6 4	6 4	9	r 1	7 1	7 2	7	7 3
DO.		i	0	"	18	9.6	25	00	4		- 1	2	62	35	+1	47	23	29	9	2	20	42	2 2	2 5	6	55	P4	7 /	200	20	31	37	23	5 4	100	0,0	121
	HOD.	-i-		,	5	3	617) (m	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	2	2	2	N 1	~ r	v v	2	7	9 4	ی د	9	9	9	9	9 4	9 9	7		7
meridian,		Ė	0	1	30	35	41	47	23	59	10	II	17	22	200	34	40	46	52	28	3	0)	15	77	33	38	4	200	-	7	13	19	25	3 2	42	40	50
ridi	D. I tooD, 105D.		-	-	~	~	~	60	e	~	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	2	ו רע	٠ ·	un u	10	2	100	ς u	9	9	9	9	9 4	9	9	9	0
me	OD.	1	9		20	25	6	37	42	47	53	59	4	10	16	2.1	37	32	300	44	49	55	2	I I	17	22	200	33	4	50	55	П		1000	23	30	33
any	I O	٠ <u>.</u>	9	`	3	10	3	. ~	ce	5 60	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4 ,	0	~ ·	2 50	2	240 1	<i>A V</i>	200	10	201	9 0	2 4	9 0	9	9	0
an	5 D.	ın.		11	ĭ	3 1 5	200	36	3.1	3,	1 42	146	53	57	(4.3)	٠.	B-1	51 7	24	56	34	36	4,	2 2	, 0		10	2 2	2	33	3	4	4	2,00	, 4	2	II C
to	0	1-	0	-	0	10	0	10	0	25	0	70	0	1/.	0	5.4	0	5	0	20	4	200	2 z	20	2	0	50) V	0	40	0	2	0 1	500	15	40	2
Z'	90 D.	=	5	,	3	~	3 1	3 6	23	3	3 3	3	4	3.4	3 5	3 5	4	4	4	4	4	4 4	9 4	4 4 2 4	. 4	4 5	4 5	~ u	H 15	5 1	5 2	5 2	50 1	2 A	4	25	5 5
SIC	9.6		40		0.0	55	6.0	4	0	4	00	500	200	2	1/2	5	17		90	0	5	0 1	0	5 4	- 5	4	60	200	00	1	63	-1	1 13	\ I	9	24.0	9
EN	85 D.	1	2	,	61		2	دی	10	3 1	3 1	3.2	3 2	50	50	65	60	50	50	4	4	4	- ·	4 4	4	4	4	4 4	- 4	4	2	S	70 r	√ r.	2	ומי	2
ASCENSION,	0.	E.	072	1	04	45	49	53	200	3	7	II	15	20	5	53	33	300	42	4.3	23	20	> <	40	4	SI	1 5	7 7	35	40	44	248	200	0 (1	7	12	191
A	So D.	-	~	`.	2	7	73	63	63	3	~	3	3	3	m	3	3	3	3	3	3	رب ء	†	4 4	4	4	4	† 4	4	4	4	4	4 .	4 v	, 10	1	2
ght	D.	:	٥١	-	30	34	38	42	47	51	55	59	3	7	12	9 1	20	24	500	32	37	A. 4	40	2,5	000	4	0	IA	18	22	27	31	35	3.5	47	53	591
Right	75	÷ '	1	-	63	63	13	63	4	63	63	4	3	~	m	m	3	m	3	3	3	(n) (2 (2 4	. 60	4-	4.	4 4	- 4	4	4	4	4.	4 4	4	4	4
or	D.	11.	4	17	30	24	67	32	35	39	43	47	S I	55	56	(4)	- 3	H	P.	Y)	61	200	2 (1.00	42	4.5	49	200	7	2	6	13	17	77	28	33	30
	70		4		23		13	4	7	63	63	7	6.1	63	61	8	~	~	3	3	(n)	<i>m</i> (2 C	2 4		3	m 1	20 60	4	4	4.	4	4 4	4 4	. 4	4	4
IOI	SD.	m.	- 1	*	OI	7	Н	2 1	24	200	32	35	39	42	40	. 20	53	57	-	4.0	χ.			2 6	26	20,	33	2,04	. 4	4	51	5	53		. 6	14	5
AT	. 65	.d ·		1	0	63	7	20	22	2	0	4	17	0	57	13	0	2	1/	0	3	<u> </u>	. c	2 10	. (0	60	m c	- C.	. ~	i m	50	60	O 4	1 4	4	4	914
ECLINATION,	60 D.	h. m.			7	63	6)	2 10	I 2	7	2 20	7 5	2	3	6) (U)	65	4	7	4	2	6	ν, ₍	0.0	n re	m H	3 1	; .	5 6	.63	33	33	3	ω . 4 -	2 K	3	100	3 5
TO	D.16	m. h		1	0	3	0	6	2	V.	20	-	-j-	-3	0	4		0	(0)	9	C.	er L	000	-	4	15	0 (200	5	61	20	6	N 1	100	Н.	Vr.	5
DE	55 I	ll n	- 1		H	H	2	1 5	61	63	2	2 I	~ c1	el .	61	61	7	2	eri eri	et i	4	4 C	3 C	\$ 63 12 D	52	63	~ ~	4) (1	· ~	3 1	3 I	3 1	() (2 K	(C)	(0)	3
12	2	12	3 1	-	0,	43	un:	00	511	54	5.7	65	13	ورما	10		۲.,	9	5,		+	7 0	0 0	0 40	50		4 1	\ O	12	10	00	0	inc	0	. 7	400	6
ONGITUDE,	50	7. 1	- 1		-	I	, m	1	-	н	per	н	C 3	c1 .	c1	c)	c1	c1	c1	c)		7 6	, c	1 67	c)	C)	64 6	3 (3	63	¢1	13	en 1	m e	J (C	ະເຕ	50 6	123
TI	5	Ė (1	-	3	57	34	3,1	4.0	4.3	53	7:	o v	57	ur.c	25	0	6:	v.	(-	9	1 1	0 1	200	23	57	27	33	3 10	53	4.0	43	5.5	1	52	in a	551
CI	45	<u> </u>		-	-	-	-	proof	-	I	Н	p==1	н	_	-	Н	63	63	ci ·	et 1	1	13 6		(1)	63	cı .	63 6	(1	2	61	7	ct (e c	1 61	61	63 (1
O	2	ë :	-	3	02	(4	13	63	20	·	10	1210	20	5	4	45	4	43	5.1	23	50	000	0 6	1 4	- 3	97	1 7	01	30	٥ ۲	61	4	1 6	1 (0)	6	36	3.5
S	200	<u>.</u> ; •	1		-	2001	-		н	н	-	-	-	-	-	н	-	н	_		-	- 0	0	1 61	et	c)	c1 c	1 01	c5	C.I	63	63 (9 6	1 (1	61	64 6	-1
Z	0	11.		-	10	E3	17	91	200	20	C1	4	7	4	50	31	50	(*)	5	39	14	+ 4	- 17	49	51	10.1	10 r	200		4	4	00	0 0	1 5	14	17	61
Su	35	= :	1	1	H	-	-		-		~	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10.		4 F		. м	H	-		-	71	6,		61 6	3 6	1 4	63	c) c	1
the	D.	H.		-	0	6.4		4 .		~	-	=	-	-	i	-	c1	61	C:	cl (1	1 6	n E	, (1)	(1)	(1)	in K	- 4	4	4	4	4. 1	3 6	, ,	5	5	5
	30	. h.	1	-	0	-1	(6)	-r	10	150	2	6	0 0	1	0	2		0	5 .			+ 15	٠.	55	0	0	- (-	710	1 9	1	60	0 .	4 6) ¥	9	00 0	7
ting	믮	1, III.			Ú,	5	4	ur,	ur.	2	W [*] i	٠ د			_	_		_	H 1				-	п	1	63 (1 2	F1	1 2	1 5	H .	200	u iş	0	(C (
‡	2 (. 0			2	-	el	50	1	v.		0	6	0 .		17	· 0	4	0 1	2	9 9	20	-	¢1	3	4 1	01	-00	6	0	(7 (2	+ W:	1-1	00 0	5 !
Or	9	1	-		4	4	7	4	4	4	4	4	4	411	4	W 1	ur,	LIF1	L .	ur j	, ,	^) ⊨	-	н	_	. .	- H	-	П	1	I			H	1		
ш		<u> </u>	1	-	30	5	31	13	ró co	34	171	3 1	2	0	0 0	0.1	j .	-	- (1 0	2 :	I S	9	F :	1-0	0	200	0	T.	4	101	+ +	nic.	T.	00	50	5
ABLE	12	in. m.																																		•	.
	5 Deg. 15 D. 15 D	i 6	-	,	0	0	c1	13	61	53	2 3	44 4	7 1	1 6	7.9	0 1	7 1	N	0 0	2 6	7 0	0.00	()	15	50	11	0 6	33.0	3.4	5	5	5	1 (100	23	39	
	10	.i 0		-																																	
311.	eg.	h. m. ii. m.			0	10	-	I	1 1	1	-3	61 6		3 6	7 1	0	1 3	+	+ .		ý- L	11/	17	I	0 0	2 4	1	-	I =	P - 2	CO	3 30	30	PI	19	102	
		<u> </u>		1			_	,			2		_	_			_		_	_																	
	-	duff.			,	e4 //	4	0	2	4		1	+	,		1	2	1	4	,	1	h	ei	NA.	-	1 .	1	30		6	1	*	ei	+	23	(d)	
	-	3	1	1		-	11	71	V	-	10		/ :	-	7	14	11	11	4	Ç (1	O.	_	IVI	10	7 6	위	U	-	32	-	23			61	-	1

312. TABLE of the RIGHT ASCENSIONS and DECLINATIONS of fixty STARS in the Northern Hemisphere; for the Year 1780.

Pegalius				_					
December Schedar A 2 0 28 8 3,3 55 19 46 19.91 1 3 20 34 45 10.95 88 75 19.96 91 19.45 1 4 10.95 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 2 3 3 1 3 2 5 1 9.45 1 9.45 1 4 2 3 3 3 3 3 3 1 1 1 1	Constellations.		Names.	Marks	ar e	in time.	Var.	North.	
December Schedar A 2 0 28 8 3,3 55 19 46 19.91 1 3 20 34 45 10.95 88 75 19.96 91 19.45 1 4 10.95 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 2 3 3 1 3 2 5 1 9.45 1 9.45 1 4 2 3 3 3 3 3 3 1 1 1 1	7)	Ending of the Wing		7	2	0 1 16	2.08	12 57 26	20.04+
All Star All All All All All All All All All A	regatus		Salvadan			0 19 50		55 10 46	10.01-
Andromeda Andres Anies Anies Preceding Horn Anies Anies Preceding Horn Fool Anies Preceding Horn Following in the Cheek Haw Medufa Head Medufa Head Medufa Head Medufa Head Algol Al		preare					3,3,	25 .9 40	
Aries Preceding Horn Almaach \$\beta\$ \$\frac{1}{2}\$ \$1\$ \$42\$ \$32\$ \$32\frac{1}{2}\$ \$47\frac{1}{2}\$ \$15\frac{1}{2}\$ \$15		0: "				12 13	10,05	100 06 56	
Anisomeda Foot Almaach			wirgen			0, 0	3,30	34 20 50	
Viris								19 43 32	10,10+
Whale	Anitomeda	Foot	Almaach	7	2	1 50 29	3,02	41 15 54	17,80+
Medufa	Aries	Following Horn		a	3	I 54 40	3,34	22 24 5	17,64+
Medufa Head Algol Berighteft Algonib Berighteft Berigh	Whale			2				2 17 50	15,86+
Medufa Head Algel Algel Brighteft Algenib Brighteft Algenib Brighteft Algenib Brighteft Algenib Brighteft Algenib Brighteft Algenib Brighteft Brighteft Brighteft Algenib Brighteft			Menkar			2 50 48	3,13		14,80+
Perfeus Brighteft Algenib Algenib Algenib Pleiades Algenib A	MeduG			3	2	2 53 56	3,85		
Taurus									
Perfeus First of the Hyades \$\frac{1}{2}\$ 3 3 43 08 3,94 3 21 24 15,41 15 24 15 24 15 24 15 24 15 24 25 25 24 24 25 25 2	- 4.0								
Taurus Firf of the Northern Eye Southern Eye Southern Eye Southern Eye Southern Eye In the Goat Capella a 1 5 0 28 3,4818 40 32 8,590+ Taurus Northern Horn				-	-		-		
Northern Eye Southern Eye Southern Eye Southern Eye In the Goat Capella				-			3,94	30 21 2	
Auriga	Taurus		Hyades				3,39	15 4 5	
Auriga				Ε			3,42	18 40 3	
Taurus				а		1 - 3	3:43	11 3	
Taurus	Auriga	In the Goat	Capella		1	5 0 28			
Orion West Shoulder East Shoulder East Shoulder East Shoulder East Shoulder In the Hand Gremini Foot of Pollux Knee of Pollux Knee of Pollux Brightest in the Head Caftor 2 7 20 33 347 10 36 1,404 37 10 36 1,404 37 10 36 1,404 37 10 36 1,404 37 10 36 1,404 37 38 34 40 32 10 38 3,88 32 21 8 6,78	Taurus	Northern Horn		B	2		3,79	28 24 1	3 4,26+
Eaft Shoulder Betelguefe a 1 5 43 16 3,25 7 20 56 1,58 1,40		Wag Shoulder	Rollatria	-	-				the Contract of the last
Auriga	Orion					3 3			
Gemini Foot of Pollux Rane of Poll	A		Detei Bueie		1		3,2	7 20 3	6 1,30
Knee of Pollux Brighteft in the Head Caftor				ŧ.			3 4,00	3/ 10 3	
Brighteft in the Head Caftor	Gemini			17			3,4	7 10 34	
Dittle Dog Gemini						. 5-	3,5	8 20 52 3	
Gemini Great Bear North Paw Acubens A		Brightest in the Head	Caftor	a	2	7 20 3	3,8	8 32 21	8 6,78-
Gemini Head of Pollux North Paw Cancer In the Claw Preceding Knee North in the Head North in the Tail North in the North	Little Dog	brighteft	Procyon'	a	1	7 27 4	8 3,20	5 46 5	6 7,40-
Great Bear Cancer In the Claw Preceding Knee North in the Head Preceding Knee North in the Knie		Head of Pollux			1		3,7	5 28 32 2	
Cancer Great Bear In the Claw Preceding Knee North in the Head In the Head In the Head In the Head In the Tail In the Following Thigh In the Head In			1				1 4.2	5 48 52 2	<1
Great Bear Preceding Knee 0 3 9 18 5 4,23 52 40 21 15,18			Acubens				7 2.2	1 12 41 6	
Leo			1.10.00						
In the Heart Lower Pointer Dubhe A 1 9 56 39 3,24 13 2 6 17,16				1 -		1 -		727 1	
Great Bear Lower Pointer Dubhe β 2 10 48 27 37,4 57 33 25 19,905	Leo			-	-		_		
Upper Pointer In the Tail Still of the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Tail Ladt in the Tail Ladt in the Tail Ladt in the Tail Benetnach Skirt of the Coat Stillowing Thigh Skirt of the Coat Stillowing Thigh Stillowing Stillowing at the Side Stillowing at t			Regulus						
Upper Pointer In the Tail Still of the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Square Stillowing in the Tail Ladt in the Tail Ladt in the Tail Ladt in the Tail Benetnach Skirt of the Coat Stillowing Thigh Skirt of the Coat Stillowing Thigh Stillowing Stillowing at the Side Stillowing at t	Great Bear			16		2 10 48 2	7 3,7	4 57 33 2	5 19,05-
Great Bear			Dubhe			2 10 50	0 3.8	8 62 56 0	
Great Bear Stellowing in the Square				6	:	2 11 37 5	0 3,1	0 15 48	8 19,95-
Caft in the Square	Great Bear	S following in the Squar	c	12		2 11 42 1			4 19,99-
First in the Tail Middle of the Tail Latt in the Tail Latt in the Tail Latt in the Tail Benetnach	1	Luft in the Square		13					5 20,05-
Middle of the Tail		and a recommendation of the second property o	Alioth	- -	- -		_	-	
Dragon Laft in the Tail In the Tail Senetnach			. Illoch						
Bragen In the 1 at Skirt of the Coat In the following Thigh Mirach E 114 5 40 2,82 20 20 39 17,16- Crown The brighteit In the Neck In the Neck It the Neck It the Neck It the Side The Head Raf. Allgethi Raf. Allague A 114 5 20 20 39 17,16- Crown The brighteit In the Neck It the Neck Preceding Shoulder Following at the Side The Head Raf. Allague A 115 22 23 2,54 27 28 00 12,60- Crown The brighteit Raf. Allagethi Raf. Allague A 116 20 48 2,59 11 58 28 8,51- Cophicus The Head Raf. Allague A 117 24 43 2,75 12 44 8 3,15- In the Head Rafaben Y 2 17 51 31 1,37 51 31 21 0,78- Following in Lozange Preceding Wing A 2 19 40 2 2,90 8 17 58 8,40- Swan The brighteft A 2 2 4 2 2 2 33 34 3 1,00- Copheus Preceding Shoulder Preceding Shoulder Preceding Shoulder Alderaimin A 3 21 13 19 1,44 61 39 32 14,95- Copheus Preceding Shoulder Pr	1		Panatural			3 15	2 2,4		
Crown	H		benethach	- 1	- 1	2 3 3 5	2 2,4		
In the following Thigh Mirach E 3 4 35 28 2,63 28 0 37 15,67 Crown			1.0	1 -	1				
Crown The brightest Aiphacca	Dootes								
Serpent In the Neck Preceding Shoulder Following in Lozange Eagle Preceding Wing The brighteft Proceding Shoulder Pro			Mirach	_ 8	١.	3 14 35 2	8 2,6	3 28 0	37 15,67-
Serpent In the Neck Preceding Shoulder Following in Lozange Eagle Preceding Wing The brighteft Proceding Shoulder Pro	Crown	The brightest	Alphacca	1		2 15 25 2	3 2.5	427 28	00 12,60-
Hercules	Serpent	In the Neck							
Cophicus						1 2 23		0 21 58	
The Head Raf. Algethi α 2 17 4 38 2,74 4 4 39 18 4,87	1					٧ .			12 5.06-
Ophicous The Head Raf. Allague α 217 24 43 2,75 12 44 8 3,15 − Dragen In the Head Raitaben γ 217 51 31 1,37 51 31 21 0,78 − The brig's f Vega α 118 29 29 2,02 38 35 14 2,52 − Following in Lozange Preceding Wing λ 219 14 24 3,02 2 41 22 6,31 − The brighteit Atair π 219 40 02 2,90 8 17 53 8,40 − Swan The Breath γ 3 20 14 20 2,16 39 33 43 11,00 − Cepleus The Neck Alderaimin π 321 13 19 1,44 61 39 32 14,95 − Preceding Shoulder The Neck γ 322 30 29 2,99 9 41 18 18,46 − Preceding Shoulder Σ 322 30 29 2,99 9 41 18 18,46 − Preceding Shoulder Σ 322 30 29 2,99 9 41 18 18,46 − Preceding Shoulder Σ 322 30 29 2,99 9 41 18 18,46 − Preceding Shoulder Σ 322 30 29 2,88 26 53 32 19,18 − Preceding Shoulder Σ 225 53 8 2,88 26 53 32 19,18 − Preceding Shoulder Σ 225 53 49 Σ 2,88 26 53 32 19,18 − <td></td> <td></td> <td>Raf Alacthi</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>18 4 87</td>			Raf Alacthi						18 4 87
Dragon In the Head Raitaben 7 2 17 51 31 1,37 51 31 21 0,78	Onlinens				- 1		2,7		
Harp	1				-	_	Personal Company of the		37-3
Eagle	Diagon				2	2 17 51 3			21 0,78-
Exple Preceding Wing The brightest Sman The Breast Deneb	! Harp		Vega				29 2,0	2 38 35	14 2,52
Engle	-	Following in Lozange			ĉ	3 18 46 4		1 36 37 .	
The brightest Atair	Engle	Preceding Wing			3	3 19 14 2		2 41	
Stean The Breat 7 3 20 14 20 2,16 39 33 43 11,000		The brightest	Atair		2			0 8 17	1 1
The Tail Copieus Preceding Shoulder Alderaimin A 3 21 13 19 1,44 61 39 32 14,95 The Neck Play Thich School A 422 53 8 2,88 26 53 32 19,18 A 422 53 8 2,88 26 53 32 19,18 A 422 53 (43 2) (43 19 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18	5.00.17			- 1	- 1	1 /		' . ['	
Copieus Preceding Shoulder Alderaimin			Desil				-		
The Neck	Carlons			- 1	- 1				
The Thigh School \$\beta \ \beta \ \b			Alderaimin	- 1				4 61 39	32 14,95+
. The Wing alif - D Mikibod ha 222 53 49 2,98 14 1 30 19,20-	1118 145	The Neck			51		29 2,9	99 9 41	
The Head The Head a 222 57 3 3,0727 52 22 20,05-	F.	1 bg I high							
a 223 57 3 3,0727 52 22 20.05-		Man Calif - I	Harkiped	b	2	2 22 53		8 14 1	30 19,20+
	Animacli	The Head	3.0.200	1	a l	2 2 3 5 7			

312. TABLE of the RIGHT ASCENSIONS and DECLINATIONS of fixty STARS in the Southern Hemisphere; for the Year 1780.

					D.	A.C.		V	I D	-11	- 1	Yearly
Constellations	Places of the Stars in the	Names.	Ma	Ма		tim		Year. Var.		eclin outh		Var.
Conitellations	Conflellations.	wantes.	arks.	agn.		m.	- 1	f.	3	ouu		v a1.
			_	-	-				0		"	"
Phenix	The Head		a	2		15		3,01		29	43	20,00-
Whale	Brightest in the Tail		B	2	0	32					50	19,86-
Phenix	Thigh		B	3	0	56	15	2,73	47	54	58	19,46-
	Following Wing		7	3	I	18		2,67	44	26	52	18,90 -
Eridanus	Source of the River	Achernar	a	I	I	29	31	2,25			35	18,56-
Whale	Preceding Jaw	-	8	3	2	28	13	3,07	0	37	50	16,00-
Eridanus	Near the Whale		360	3	3	5	10		9	38	55	13,92-
	The following		8	3	3	32	44	2,88	10	31	30	12,08-
	The fourth Bend		17	3	3		46	2,80	14	8	47	11,01-
Goldfish	In the Tail		a	3	4	29	15	1,28	55	30	20	7,76-
Orion	Bright Foot	Rigel	B	1	5	- 3	58	2,89	8	28	11	4,94-
	Preceding in Belt		8	2	5	20	47	3,07	0	28	40	3,50-
	Middle of Belt		Ē	2	5	25	4	3,05	1	21	30	3,13-
	Last in the Belt		ζ	2	5		41		2	4	27	2,77-
Dove	Preceding of the brightest		a	2	5	31	43		34	12	6	2,56-
Orion	In the Knee		ж	3	5	37	20			45	35	2,10-
Dove	Following of brightest		B	3	5	43	13			51	51	1,65-
Argo	The brightest	Canopus	a	1	6	19	5	1,34		34	57	1,60+
Great Dog	The brightest	Syrius	a	1	6	35	28	2,69	16	25	8	3,10+
	In the Back		8	2	6	59	27	2,45		3	37	5,08+
	In the Tail		75	2	7	15	24	2,38	28	53	5	6,42+
Argo	In the Poop		3	2	7 8		52			23	28	9,62+
	Preceding in the Hull		28	2		2	46	1,85	46	41	40	10,16+
	Brightest in the Middle		8	2	8	38	36		53	54		12,73+
	Bright among the Oars		B	I	9	10	44	0,75		48	50	14,79+
Female Hydra		Alphard	a	2		16	47	2,96	7	42		15,13+
Argo	Northern in Section	•	27	2		36	34	2,27		31	59	18,68+
Centaur	Preceding in the Crupper		8	3	11	57	3	3,06	49	29	40	20,04+
Crofs	Preceding Arm		8	3	12	3	35		57	31		20,04-
	The Foot		α		12	14	33	3,22	61	52	48	20,01+
	The Heart		12	2	12	19	4	3,24	55	52	4.2	19,98+
Centiur	Top of the Crupper		17	2	12	29	30	3,27	147	44		19,89+
Crofs	Following Arm		B	2	12	35	2	3,42	58	29	3	19,83+
Female Hydra	The Tail		12	3	13	7	00	3,22	22	Ó		19,22+
Virgo	The Sheaf	Virgins Spike	6.	1	13	13	38			0	24	19,00+
Centaur	Preceding Lag		E	2	13	48	30			17		17,91+
	South in the Shield		n	3	1.4	21	37	3,75	11	10	42	16,43+
	Bright in the Foot		a	1	14	25	2	4,41		55		16,26+
Libra	Southern Scale	Zubenesch	a			38	45			6		15,50+
Centaur	Following in the Head		ж	3			56	3,84	41	12	21	15,17+
Libra	Northern Stale	Zubenelg.	B		15	5	12	3,22	8	33	31	13,93+
Southern A	The Vertex		B			35	56	5,12	62	43	31	11,884
Scorpio	Middle of the Forehead		8	3	15	47	21	3,53	_	58		11,007
	N. in the Forehead		13		15	52	41	3,47		11	14	
Ophiucus	Preceding Hand		8	3		2	50		3	6	45	9,89+
Scorpio	The Heart	Antares.	a			15	57	3,66			32	8,90+
	First Joint in the Tail		a	3	16	35	58			52	21	7,34+
Ophiucus	Following Knee		n		16	57	47	3,44	15	26	14	5,52+
Altar	In the Middle		a	2	17	14	52	4,61	-	40	36	4,12+
Scorpio	Bright at Tail's End		2		17	18	42	4,08	36	55	22	3,77+
	Sixth Knot in the Tail		1			32	13	4,18	40) j	7	2,60+
Sagistarius	S. End of the Bow		5	2	18	9	35	4,00	3.1		58	0,72-
	Preceding Shoulder		0	3	18	41	37	3,73	26	32	57	3,54-
	Following in the Head		72	3	18	55	41	3,73 3,58	21	21	1.7	4,80-
Capricorn	In the following Horn		a	-	20	5				12	45	10,10-
Percock	The Eve		a		20	8	54	4:89	57	25	14	10,44-
Cipr cern	In the Frichead		3		20	8	37	3,35	15	27	13	10,60-
Cranc	Preceding Wing		α	2	21	54	18			0		17,00-
Aquatio	1- Alleying Amalif - 1	Digitized	12	0 %	22			3310				17,76-
Sath on Fish	Write Dalif - L	Digitized	α	1	22	45	27					18,97-
			-			1)		3,73	,	7	,,	7,9/

24 12 21 22

50

9

0 58

0 0 0 0

8 5 5 63

4040

2 49

2 32 2

314. TABLE I. of the Equat. of Time on the Diff. betw. 3:3. TABLE of the Sun's Right Afcension, in Degrees, &c. to each Deg. of Long. And of the Diff. between

315. TABLE II. of the Equation of Time on the Sun's Anomaly; or the Equation the Sun's Lon. and Rt. Afc.

G Sign Sign Sign Sign Sign Sign Sign Sign Sign Sign Sign of the Center turned into Time. d: m. f. 50 4 0 32 An. m. f. Sign 24 C3 34,2 20 Deg. 4 30,5 13 0,026 47,2 25 514/11 31,4 ILII 0 21,7 0,0 E. 3 0 0 9 50,6 9 48,2 9 45,1 9 36,7 9 52,8 41,3 9 29,3 9 39,5 9 23,1 9 34,7 4 0 m. ** 00 00 6 00 99 6 6 6 20,2 3000 36,0 39,5 45,9 22,0 3,2 7 22,0 7 35,2 7 47,7 8 0,0 8 11,6 8 22,7 0,0 56,1 0 6 m. f. 4 4 4 9 9 601 7

0 (180(e) shong.	8 48 2 11 12 3	2 5 39 2	200	00	262	9 562	6 17 2	2000	300	200	16	-	-	7	37 13	1 -	I	- 1	0 1	9 11	100	10	0		2.0	1 6	1.1
0 " ' ' ' ' ' ' ' ' ' ' ' ' ' ' ' ' ' '	8 48 2 11 1	4 4 4 8 8	(t)	56 4	3 2	9 5	9	4 0	0 0							1:	H	- 1	0 1	- 14	13	50	6	0 4	20	100	1:
75(0)0817	8 48 2 1	H 4	61	150	53			P) CK							4	1 "	91	4.	en e	A bet	1 ",	643		4 4		1 2	
120	8 48	н 4		C5 14				4.	20 0	3.0	12	61	м	Н	1 61	5	5	4	4	32/	26	2.1	16	0 4	0	무닉	3
7 18	4			0 0						1 1	1				H H	1				0 0	1			0 0		A C	- 1
			5	н	(3)		4	eve	4 6	4 4		C)	S	3	12 12			I	4 0	2		4	4	- "	າ ັ	180	5
- 0	14.	51		0 (0					29					52		7	12	17	27	33	300	43	49	-0	100	-
2 1				63	64	65	99	62	00 4	70	71				75					3 60				827		Sub.	۱ ۱
18		17		+ Y		47	19	4	5.2	53	24	53	12	20	7 4	39	(1)			52				47		to to	
3	100			15						502					58 2	27	27	50	25	22				13		200	
·	eş.	(1 (1)	61	es es	65	11	7	(1 (f:	t1 t3	c1	61	61	63	4 61	63	61	64	61 (9 61	12	ct	e1	4 4	61	Ad	
Sc	20	43	56	46	54	13	4	000	0 1	16	36				45.0				41	200	38	19	II	10 E	48	000	
~	5.4	51	40	4-7	9	39	37	36	20	3 5	32	()	31	31	31	32	32	33	34	37	30	40	42	44	48	-	
2 0	27	2 5 K	30	31	33	34	55	36	20	39	04	4 1	42	43	4 4	46	47	48	49	51	52	53	54	55	57	sub.	
3	0	10 4	25	452	35	26	1/1 H	~ ~	7 6	50 61	13	4	10	4.8	13 0	11	I 5	~	53	2 2	30	200	0 0	2 2	0	C 60	oĺ
Tor	0	40	14	19	20							7	н	15	2 4	S	3.2	30	33	17	0,5	571	0	5 61	v	200	١
000	0	0 0	0	0 0	O	0	0	0 0	0	0 0	-	I				1								1 63	63	Ad.	
7	10	N 4		63 CG	27	34	4	200	0 0	200	14	56	55	12	57.4	43					30	12	61 () W	20	80	
- ,						12	0	15	7 7) H	57	25	Sis	4	21.00						6	9	60 C			~~	- 6
\sim	10	0 4	6.5	er of	- 50	5	1	000	2	2 11			3		ورد						2	ele i	inic			. E	
ء د	10									- H			н	Bert 1					3 0							2 5	1
1 1 000 000	on Sucres C	2 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	55 2 0 4 58 28 5 5 5 6 0 0 5 5 6 5 6 5 6 5 6 5 6 5 6 5	5 5 2 2 5 5 5 6 6 5 5 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	5 5 2 0 0 5 2 2 5 5 5 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	55 2 0 4 58 25 55 2 0 4 58 25 55 2 0 19 55 29 45 8 0 14 52 30 440 12 0 24 48 31 35 15 0 24 48 33 35 25 0 29 55 39	5 5 2 0 0 5 5 2 5 5 5 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	5 5 5 6 6 6 7 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	25 2 0 0 0 55 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	255 2 0 4 5 8 2 2 4 4 8 3 2 4 4 8 3 2 4 4 8 3 3 4 4 4 8 3 3 4 4 4 8 3 3 4 4 4 8 3 3 4 4 4 8 3 4 4 4 8 3 4 4 4 8 3 4 4 4 8 3 4 4 4 8 3 4 4 4 8 3 4 4 4 8 3 4 4 4 8 3 4 4 4 8 3 4 4 4 8 3 4 4 4 8 3 4 8 4 4 8 3 4 8 4 4 8 3 4 8 4 8	25 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 3 3 3 3 4 4 5 5 3 3 3 1 5 5 5 4 4 5 3 3 1 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	25.5 2 0 0 4 6 0 1 4 5 6 2 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	25 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	25 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3	25 2 2 2 2 3 2 4 4 5 8 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 2 5 8 2 2 2	25.5 2 0 0 4 4 5 8 2 2 2 6 2 2 3 2 2 6 2 3 3 2 2 6 2 3 3 3 2 2 6 2 3 3 3 3	25 2 2 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 2 2 4 5 8 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	25 2 2 2 2 2 2 3 3 3 4 4 5 5 2 2 3 2 4 4 5 5 3 2 2 3 2 4 4 5 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3	25 2 2 2 2 2 3 4 4 5 2 2 3 4 4 5 3 3 4 4 5 3 3 4 4 5 3 3 4 4 5 3 3 4 4 5 3 3 4 4 5 3 3 4 4 5 3 3 4 5 3 4 5 3 3 4 5 3 3 4 5 3 3 3 4 5 3 3 3 4 5 3 3 3 4 5 3 3 3 4 5 3 3 3 4 5 3 3 3 4 5 3 3 3 3	25 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	55 2 0 0 0 55 2 0 0 4 5 6 2 0 0 0 5 5 2 0 0 0 5 5 2 0 0 0 5 5 2 0 0 0 0	55 2 0 0 0 55 2 0 0 4 5 6 2 0 0 0 5 5 2 0 0 0 5 5 2 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	55 2 5 6 6 6 7 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8	25 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2

316. TABLE of the Absolute Equation of Time, fitted to each Sign and Degree of the Ecliptic.

Place of the Apogee \$ 9°. Obliquity of Ecliptic 23° 28'.

-		-			-				-				-		-			-					100	-	100
Deg	Y	0	४	1	11	2 +	7		51	4	攻	5	win	6	m	7	2	8	VS	9+	***	10	大	11	Deg
99	+	f.	m	. ſ.	m.	- 1	ňı.		m.		m.	ſ.	m.	ſ.	m.	ſ.	m.	ſ.	m.	ſ.	m.	ſ.	mi.		3.4
0	7	36	I	9	3	51	I	13	5	57	2	20	7	38	15	31	13	33	1	11	11	28	14.	19	0
I	7	17	1	23	3	47	1	26	5	59	2	4	7	58	15	39	13	17	0	42	11	45	14	13	1
2	6	58	I	36	3	41	I	40	6	0	I/I	48	8	19	15	4.6	13	0	1	12	12	17	14	59	2
3 4	6	39	1 2	48	3	37 32	2	53 7	6	1	I	31	9	40	15	5 ²	12	42	70	46	12	32	13	51	3
5	6	I	2	11	3	26	2	20	6	Q	0	56	9	21	16	2	12	4	I	16	12	46	13	43	5
6	5	42	2	22	3	19	2	33	5	59	0	38	9	41	16	6	II	44	I	45	12	59	13	34	6
7 8	5	24	2	32	3	12	2	45	5	57	0		10	1	16	9	II	23	2	14	-	12	13	24	7
9	5	5 47	2	42 51	3 2	56	3	58	5	54	+	18	10	39	16	11	11	39	3	43	13	24 35	13	14	8
10	4	28	3	0	2	47	3	23	5	47	0	37	10	57	16	13	10	16	3	39		45	12	51	9
11	4	9	3	8	2	38	3	35	5.	42	0	57	I-I	15	16	13	9	53	4	7	13	54	12	39	11
12	3	50	3	16	2	29	3	46	5	37	1	17	11	33	16	12	9	29	4	35	14	2	12	27	12
13	3	32	3	23	2	19	3	58	5	31	I	38 58	1 I 1 2	51	16	10	9	5	5	2	14	16	12	14	13
14	3	13 55	3	30 36	2 I	57	4	19	5	17	1 2		12	25	16	7	8	40	5	2g 56	14	22	11	46	14
16	2	37	3	41	1	46	4	29	5	9	2	40	12	41	16	0	7	48	6	22	14	27	11	31	16
17	2	19	3	46	I	35	4	39	5	1	3	1	12	57	15	55	7	22		48	14	31	11	16	17
-	2	1	3	50	1	23		48	4	52	3	22	13	12	15	49	6	55	7	13	14	35	II	1	18
19	I	43	3	53	1	11 59	4 5	57	4	43	3 4	44-5	13	27 42	15	42 35	6	28	7	37	14	38	10	46	19
21	1	9	3	58	0	46	5	13	4	22	4		13	56		26	5	32	8	24		41	10	14	2 I
22	0	52	4	0	0	34	5	20	4	11	4	47	14	9	15	17	5	4	8	47	14	42	9	58	22
23	0	36	4	1	0	21	5	27	3	59 46	5	30	14	33	15	56	4	36 8	9.	31	14	41	9	41	23
24	+		4	-	-	-	5	33	3	<u> </u>	-	_	14		<u> </u>			_		_	14	40	-	6	24
125	7	4	4	0	+0	5	5	39	3	33	5	52 13	14	53	14	44 31	3	39	9	53	14	39 37	9	48	² 5
27	0	26	3	59	0	31	5	48	3	4	6	35	15	5	14	17	2	41	10	34	14	34	8	30	2.7
28	0	40	3	57	0	46	5	52	2	50	6	-	15	14		.3	2	11	10	53	14	30	S	12	28
30	0	53	3	54	0	59	5	55	2 2	35	7	17	15	31	13	48	1	41 11	II	28	14	25	7	36	30
130		9	3	51		1 5.)	3/)	1-3) ⁴		33	1	- 1	- 1	20	-4	1.91		3	30]

The equations with +, are to be added to the apparent time, to have the mean time; those with -, are to be subtracted from apparent for mean time.

The preceding mark, whether + or —, at the head of any column, belongs to all equations in that column until the fign changes; and those columns having two figns at the head, shew that the preceding fign changes to the following somewhere in that column,

317. TABLE of Corrections for the Middle Time between the Equal Altitudes of the Sun.

Deg. of Declin.	N (ec. 999888877776	dec (cc. 99888777766666	4 1. fec. 888 777 6666 555	6 S. fec. 9 9 9 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	5 de fec. 9 9 9 9 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	er. 4 cl. 6c. 8 9 9 9 10 10 10 10 10 10	H 6 N 16 14 13 13 12 12 12 11 11	13 13 13 12 12 11 11 11 10	13 12 12 12 11 11 11 10 10	14 14 14 14 15 15 15 15	Obi de 13 13 14 14 14 14 14 15 15	Ger. 4 4 14 14 14 14 14 14	H 6 N 20 19 19 18 18 18 17 17 17 16 16 16	19 18 18 17 17 16 16 15 15	17 16 16 16 15 15	20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 2	Obb de lec. 19 19 19 19 19 20 20 19 19	fer fer	N 28 28 28 27 27 27 26 26 26 26 22 24 23	28 27 27 27 26 26 25 24 23 22 22	rs t cl. 27 27 26 26 25 24 24 23 23 22 22	28 29 29 29 29 29 29 29 29 29 29 29 29 29	Ob 5 . de 28 28 29 29 28 28 28 28 28 28 27	fer. 27 27 27 27 28 28 28 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 27	eg. of Declin. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 11	
5 6 7 8 9 10	8 7 7 7 7	8 7 7 7 7 6 6 6 6 5 5 4 4	776666655555	10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	10 10 10 10 10 10	9 10 10 10 10 10	13 12 12 11 11	12 11 11 11 10 10	12 11 11 11 10 10	14 15 15 15 15 15 15 14 14 14 14 14 14	14 14 14 15 15 14 14 14 14 14 12	13 14 14 14 14 14 14 14	18 18 17 17 16 16 15 15 14	17 17 16 16 15 15 15 14 14 13 12 12	17 17 16 16 16 15 15 14 14 13 12 12 11	20 20 20 20 20 20 19	19 20 20 20 20 19 19 18 18 18	19 19 19 19 19 18 18 18 17 17	27 27 26 26 26 25 24 23 22 21 20 19 18	26 26 25 25 24 23 22 21 21 20 19 18	25 24 24 23 23 22 21 20 19	29 29 29 29 29 28 28	29 29 28 28 28 27 27 26 25	28 28 27 27 27 27 27 26 26 25 24 23	4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16	
19 20 21 22 23	3 3 2 1 0	3 2 2	2 1 0 0	9 9 8 7 6 3	8 7 7 6 3	8 7 7 5 3	6 5 4 3 2	5 5 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 0	11	11		9 8 7 5 3	98 6 5 2	9 8 7 6 5 2	14	14	14	15 14	14	13 12 10 8 4			19 17 14		

The correction is subtractive from December 22 to June 21, or in ascending signs; and additive from June 21 to December 22, or in descending signs.

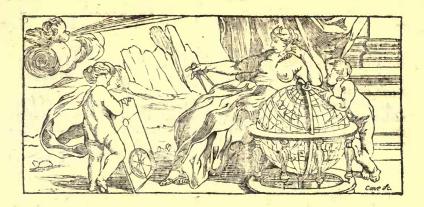
318. A TABLE OF REFRACTIONS.

	Alt. Deg.	Re min.	fr. fec.	Alt. Dcg.	R min.	efr.	Alt. Deg.	Re min.	efr.	Alt. Deg.	Romin.	fr. fec.	Alt. Deg.	R min.	efr.	Alt. Deg.	R B	efr.	Alt. Deg.	R min.	efr.
	0	33	00	4	11	51	14	3	45	26	I	56	38	1	13	50	0	48	62	0	30
	OI 0122	28	35	4½ 5	10	48 54	15	3	30	27	I	51 47	39	I	10	51 52	0	46	63 64	0	29
1	03	26	2 1	51/2	9	8	17	3	4	29	1	42	41	I	5	53	0	43	65	0	26
	I	24	29	6		28	18	2	54	30	i	38		1	3	54	0	41	66	0	25
	14	22	_	7	7	20	19	2	44	31	I	35	43	1	1	-	0	40	67	_	24
- []	$\frac{1\frac{1}{2}}{1\frac{3}{4}}$	21	1.5	8	6	29		2,	35		1	31	44	0	59	56	0	38	68	0	23
11		19	51	9	5	48	2.1	2	27	33	1	28	45	0	57	57	0	37	69	0	22
H	2	18	3.5	10	5	15	22	2	20	34	1	24	46	0	55	58	0	35	70	0	21
()	21/2	16	24	11	4	47	23	2	14	35	1	18	47	0	53	59	0	34	71	0	19
-11	3	14	36	12	4	23	24	2	7	36		- 1	48	0	51	60	0	33	72	0	18
	3 2	13	0	13	4	3	25	2	2	37	I	16	49	0	49	61	0	32	73	0	17

Of the Sun's Parallax.

319.

Altitudes 0°. 10° 20° 30° 40° 50° 60° 70° 80° 90°. Parallax 9" 9" 8" 8" 6" 5" 3" 2" 1" 0". Univ CaliE-N Ditiord BOOKSVft ®



THE ELEMENTS NAVIGATION.

BOOK VI. GEOGRAPHY. OF

SECTION Ι.

Definitions and Principles.

EOGRAPHY is the art of describing the figure, magnitude, I and positions of the several parts of the surface of the Earth.

2. The EARTH is a spherical or globular figure *, and is usually called

the terraqueous globe.

3. There are two points on the surface of the terraqueous globe, called the Poles of the Earth, which are diametrically opposite to one another: one is called the north pole, and the other, the fouth pole.

* For in ships at sea the first parts of them that become visible are the upper fails; and as they approach nearer, the lower fails appear; and fo on until they shew their hulls.

Also ships in failing from high capes, or head lands, lose fight of those emi-

nences gradually from the lower parts, until the top vanishes.

Now as these appearances are the objects of our senses in all parts of the Earth,

Therefore the furface of the Earth must be convex.

And this convexity is, at fea, observed to be every where uniform.

But a body, the surface of which is every where uniformly convex, is a globe.

In

Therefore the figure of the Earth is globular by Microsoft ® VOL. I.

In order to describe the positions of places, Geographers have found it necessary to imagine certain circles drawn on the surface of the Earth, to which they have given the names of Equator, Meridian, Horizon, Parallels of latitude, &c.

4. The EQUATOR is a great circle on the Earth, equally distant from each pole, dividing the terraqueous globe into two equal parts; one called the northern hemisphere, in which is the north pole; and the other, containing the south pole, is called the southern hemisphere.

5. MERIDIANS are imaginary circles on the Earth passing through

both the poles, and cutting the equator at right angles.

Every point on the furface of the Earth has its proper meridian.

6. LATITUDE is the diffance of a place from the equator, reckoned in degrees and parts of degrees on a meridian.

On the north fide of the equator it is north latitude; and on the fouth

fide it is fouth latitude.

As latitude begins at the equator, where it is nothing; fo it ends at the poles, where the latitude is greatest, or 90 degrees.

7. PARALLELS OF LATITUDE are circles parallel to the equator.

Every place on the Earth has its parallel of latitude.

DIFFERENCE OF LATITUDE is an arc of a meridian, or the least distance of the parallels of latitude of two places; shewing how far one of them is to the northward, or southward, of the other.

The difference of latitude can never exceed 180 degrees.

8. In north latitudes, if about the middle of the months of March and September a person looks towards the Sun at noon, the south is before him, the north behind, the west on the right hand, and the east on the left: and in south latitudes, if the sace is turned toward the Sun at the same times, the north is before, the south behind, the east to the right, and the west on the left.

In latitudes greater than 23½ degrees, these positions, found at noon, will

hold good on any day of the year.

o. LONGITUDE of any place on the Earth is expressed by an arc of the equator, shewing the east or west distance of the meridian of that place from some fixed meridian, where longitude is reckoned to begin.

10. DIFFERENCE OF LONGITUDE is an arc of the equator, intercepted between the meridians of two places, flowing how far one of them

is to the eastward, or westward, of the other.

As longitude begins at the meridan of fome place, and is counted from thence both eastward and westward, till they meet at the same meridian on the opposite point of the equator; therefore the difference of longitude

can never exceed 180 degrees.

11. When two places have latitudes both north, or both fouth; or have longitudes both east, or both west, they are said to be of the same, or of like name: but when one has north latitude, and the other south; or if one has east longitude, and the other west, then they are said to have contrary, or different, or unlike names.

12. The Horizon is that apparent circle which limits, or bounds, the view of a spectator on the sea, or on an extended plain; the eye of the

spectator being always supposed in the center of his horizon.

When the Planets or Stars come above the eastern part of the horizon, they are faid to rife; and when they descend below the western part, they

are said to set.

When a fhip is under the equator, both the poles appear in the horizon; and in proportion as the falls towards either, or increases her latitude, that pole is seen proportionally higher above the horizon, and the other disappears as much: but when a ship is failing towards the equator, or decreases her latitude, she depresses the elevated pole; that is, its distance from the horizon decreases.

Of the division of the Earth into Zones.

13. A Zone is a broad space on the Earth, included between two parallels of latitude.

There are five zones: namely, one Torrid, two Frizid, and two Temperate; these names arise from the degree of heat or cold, to which their situations are liable.

14. The TORRID ZONE is that portion of the Earth, over every part

of which the Sun is perpendicular at one time of the year or other.

This zone is about 47 degrees in breadth, extending to about $23\frac{7}{2}$ degrees on each fide of the equator; the parallel of latitude terminating the limits in the northern hemisphere, is called the *Tropic of Cancer*; and in the southern hemisphere, the limiting parallel is called the *Tropic of Cappricorn*.

15. The FRIGID Zones are those regions about the poles, where the

Sun does not rife for some days, nor set for some days, of the year.

These zones extend round the poles to the distance of about $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees: that in the northern hemisphere is called the north frigid zone, and is bounded by a parallel of latitude, called the Artic polar circle: and the other, in the southern hemisphere, the south frigid zone; the parallel of latitude bounding it, being called the Antartic polar circle.

16. The TEMPERATE ZONES are the spaces between the Torrid

and the Frigid zones.

Of the division of the Earth by Climates.

17. A CLIMATE, in a geographical sense, is that space of the Earth contained between two parallels of latitude, when the difference between

the longest day in each parallel is half an hour.

These climates are narrower the farther they are from the equator; therefore, supposing the equator to be the beginning of the fast climate, the polar circle will be the end of the 24th climate; for afterwards the longest day does dot increase by half hours, but by days and months.

SECTION II.

Of the natural division of the Earth.

18. By the natural division of the Earth is meant the parts on its furface formed by nature; fuch as Continents, Oceans, Islands, Seas, Rivers, Mountains, &c.

The furface of the Earth is naturally divided into Land and Water.

Land is divided into { 1. Continents. 2. Islands. 3. Peninfulas. 4. Isthmuses. 5. Promontaries. 6. Mountains. Water is divided into { 1. Oceans. 2. Seas. 3. Gulfs. 4. Straits. 5. Lakes. 6. Rivers.

19. A CONTINENT, or, as it is frequently called, the main land, is a very large track, comprehending feveral contiguous Countries, Kingdoms, and States.

20. An Ocean is a vast collection of falt water, separating the conti-

ments from one another.

21. An ISLAND is a part of dry land, furrounded with water.

22. A SEA is a branch of the Ocean, flowing between fome parts of the Continent, or separating an Island from the Continent.

23. A PENINSULA is a part of dry land encompassed by water, except

a narrow neck which joins it to some other land.

24. An ISTHMUS is the neck joining the peninfula to the adjacent

land, and forms the passage between them.

25. A MOUNTAIN is a part of the land more elevated than the adjacent country, and to be feen at a greater distance than the neighbouring lower

26. A Promontory is a mountain stretching itself into the sea; the extremity of which is called a Cape, or Head-land.

27. A HILL is a small kind of mountain: A Cliff is a steep shore, hill, or mountain: And Rocks are great itones, rifing like hills above the dry land, or above the bottom of the fea.

28. A Guif, or Bay, is a part of the Ocean, or Sea, contained between two thores: and is every where environed with land, except at its entrance, where it communicates with other Bays, Seas, or Oceans.

29. A STRAIT is a narrow passage, by which there is a communication between a Gulf and its neighbouring fea, or which joins one part of the iea, or ocean, with another.

30. A LAKE is a collection of Waters contained in some hollow or cavity, in an inland place, of a large extent, and every where furrounded

with land, having no visible communication with the Ocean.

31. Rivers are streams of Water, flowing chiefly from the Mountains, and running in long narrow channels, or cavities, through the land, 'till they fall into the fea, or into other rivers, which at last run into the fea.

32. There are generally reckoned four Continents, namely, EUROPE, ASIA, AFRICA, and AMERICA.

To these may be added the Terra arctica, or nothern continent, and the Terra antarctica, or lands detached from Asia, towards the south.

The continent of America is usually divided into two parts, called North and South America; they are joined together by the Isthmus of Darien-Also the continents of Asia and Africa are joined together by the Isthmus of Sues.

The Terra arctica, Europe, and Asia, lie all within the northern hemisphere; and also part of Africa and America: The other parts of these two continents, together with the Terra antarctica, lie in the southers; hemisphere.

33. There are five Oceans, namely, the Northern, the Atlantic, the Pacific, the Indian, and the Southern.

The Atlantic ocean is usually divided into two parts, one called the narth Atlantic ocean, and the other the fouth Atlantic, or Ethiopic ocean.

The Northern ocean stretches to the northward of Europe, Asia, and America, towards the north pole.

The Atlantic ocean lies between the continents of Europe and Africa on the east, and America on the west.

That part of the north Atlantic ocean, lying between Europe and America, is frequently called the Western ocean.

The Pacific ocean, or, as it is fometimes called, the South Sea, is bounded by the western and north-west shores of America, and by the eastern and north-east shores of Asia.

The Indian ocean washes the shores of the eastern coasts of Africa, and the south of Asia; and is bounded on the east by the Indian islands, New Holland, and New Zeeland.

The Southern ocean extends to the fouthward of Africa and America towards the fouth pole.

The northern and fouthern continents not being fufficiently known to Geographers, all that need be faid of them is, that the Terra Arctica, or land to the northward of Hudfon's Bay and Greenland, is in general too cold for the refidence of mankind; and that the lands formerly supposed to be parts of the fouthern continent, are found to be very large islands; viz. New Zeland is much larger than Great Britain, and has a strait dividing it into two islands. New Holland is an island as large as Europe, New Guinea is a very large island; and New Britain is a cluster of large and small islands, and are thought by some to be the islands hitherto called the Solomon's islands.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

SECTION III.

Of the Political division of the Earth.

34. By the political division of the Earth is meant the different Countries, Empires, Kingdoms, States, and other denominations established by men, either from the ambition of tyrants, or for the sake of good government.

OF EUROPE.

Europe is bounded on the north by the northern, or frozen, ocean; on the east by Asia; on the south by the Mediterranean Sea, separating Europe from Asrica; and by the north Atlantic, or western ocean, on the west. It lies between the latitudes of 36 and 72 degrees of north latitude; and between the longitudes of 10 degrees west, and 65 degrees east from London; is about 3000 miles long, reckoning from the N. E. to the S. W. and about 2500 miles broad.

35. The countries, their polition, with regard to the middle parts of Europe, the chief cities, principal rivers, with their courfes, and the most noted mountains, and what quarter of the country they are in, are exhibited in the following table; where E. stands for empire, K. for king-

dom, R. for republic, Nd. for northward, &c.

Countries.	Position.	Chief Cities.	Rivers.	Courfe.	Mountains.
E. Turky	S. E.	Constantinople	Danube	E.	Argentum Nd.
K. Poland	Mid.		Vistula	N. N. W.	
E. Muscovy 7	NI E	Moscow	Volga	E. to S.	Boglowy Sd.
E. Russia	N. E.	Petershurg	Niaper	S.	Riphean Wd.
K. Sweden	N.	Stockholm	Dalecarlia	Ε.	Dofrine Wd.
K. Norway	N. N. W.	Bergen	Glama	S.	Dofrine Ed.
K. Denmark		Copenhagen	Eyder	W.	
K. Hungary	Mid.	Presburg	Danube	S. E.	CarpathianNd.
E. Germany	Mid.	Vienna	Danube	E.	Alps Sd.
Italy	s.	Rome	{ Po Tyber	E. S.	Alps Nd. Apennine Mid.
R. Switzerland	Mid.	Bern	Rhine	w.	Alps Sd.
Netherlands	W.	Bruffels	Maefe	N.	p. ou.
R. Holland	W.	Amsterdani	Rhine	N. N. W.	
K. France	w.	Paris		N. to W.	Pyrenees S. W.
tr. Trance		1 4115	? Rhone	S.	Alps Ed.
K. Spain		Madrid	Tagus	w.	Pyrenees N. E.
K. Portugal		Lifbon	Tagus		C. Rocca W.
K. England		London	Thames		Malvern N.W,
K. Scotland		Edinburgh	Forth		Grampian Nd.
K. Ireland	W.	Dublin	Shannon	S. W.	Knockpatric W

There are in Europe four Kingdoms beside those enumerated above; but they are contained in the forenamed Countries.

The Kingdom of Prussia, which is part of Poland; the King's resi-

dence is at Berlin, a city in Germany.

The

The Kingdom of Bohemia, a part of Germany; the chief city is Prague. The Kingdom of Sardinia, an Italian island; the King relides at Turin, a city in Italy.

The Kingdom of the Sicilies, appending to Italy; the King refides at

Naples, a city in Italy.

In some of the forenamed countries are several dominions independent

one of the other; particularly in Germany and Italy.

The principal states in Germany are the following 12; where D. stands for duchy, El. for electorate, P. for principality.

States	D. Auftria	K. Bohemia	El. Bavaria	El.Brandenbu rg
Ch.cities	Vienna	Prague	Munich	Berlin
States	El. Saxony	El. Hanover	El. Palatine	El. Mentz
Ch.cities	Drefden	Hanover	Manheim	Mentz
States	El. Triers	ElCologne	P.HeffeCaffel	D.Wurtemburg
Ch.cities	Triers	Cologne	Caffel	Stutgard

The principal states in Italy are the following 12.

States	D. Savoy	P. Piedmont	D. Milanefe	D. Parmefan
Ch.cities	Chamberry	Turin	Milan	Parma
States	D.Modenese	D. Mantuan	R. Venice	R. Genoa
Ch.cities	Modena	Mantua	Venice	Genoa
States	D. Tufcany	Patriarchate	R. Lucca	K. Naples
Ch.cities	Florence	Rome	Lucca	Naples

36. The principal Seas, Gulfs and Bays in Europe, are

The Mediterranean Sea, having Europe on the N. and Africa on the S.

The Adriatic Sea, between Italy and Turky.

The Euxine, or Black Sea, in Turky, between Europe and Afia. The White Sea, in the N. N. W. parts of Muscovy.

The Baltic Sea, between Sweden, Denmark, and Poland. The German Ocean, or Sea, between Germany and Britain.

The English Channel, between England and France. St. George's Channel, between Britain and Ireland.

The Bay of Bifcay, formed between France and Spain.

The Gulf of Bothnia, in the N. E. parts of Sweden.

The Gulf of Finland, between Sweden and Russia.

The Gulf of Venice, the N. W. end of the Adriatic Sea

37. The principal Islands in Europe, are The British Isles, viz. Great Britain, Ireland, Orkneys, and Western Ifles.

The Spanish Isles; Majorca, Minorca, Ivica, in the Medit. Sea. Turkish Isles; Sicily, Sardinia, Corfica, Lipari, in the Medit. Sea.

Italian Ifles; Candia, Archipelago Isles, in the Medit. Sea.

Swedigh Isles; Gothland, Oeland, Alan, Rugen, in the Baltic Sea. Dunish Isles; Zeland in the Baltic Sea; and Iceland, Faro Isles, E. and W. Greenlands in the Northern ocean.

Azores Isles in the Atlantic ocean, belonging to Portugal.

OF

OF ASIA.

38. The continent of Asia is bounded on the north by the Northern or frozen ocean, on the east by the Pacific ocean, on the fouth by the Indian ocean, and by Africa and Europe on the west. It lies, including its Islands, between the latitudes of 10 degrees south, and 72 degrees north; and is between the longitudes of 25 and 148 degrees east of London; its length, exclusive of the isles, being about 4800 miles, and breadth about 4300 miles.

39. The positions and names of the chief countries, cities, rivers, and

mountains, are contained in the following table.

Countries.	Position.	ChiefCities.	Rivers.	Course.	Mountains.
E. China	S.E.	Pekin Naukin Canton	Yellow R. Kiam Γa	E S. E.	Ottorocoran Nd. Damasian Wd.
K. Korea Chinese Tartary	E. E.	Kingkitau Chynian	Yalu Yamour	S. N.E.to E.	Shanalin Fongwanshan
Mengalia		Kudak	Yellow R.		6.4.4.4.4.4.4.4.4.4.4.4.4.4.4.4.4.4.4.4
K. Thibet	Mid.	Eskerdu	Yaru	E.	Kantes
Bukharia, or Ulbecs	} Mid.	Samarkand	Amu	N.W.	Belurlag
Karazm	Mid.	Urjenz	Amu	S. W.	Irder
Kalmucks E. Siberia	Mid.	{ Tobolski Astracan	Tekis Oby Jeniska	N. N.N.W.	Fabratubusluk Stolp
E. Turky	W.	Smryna	Euphrate	S. E.	Taurus
K. Syria	. W.	Aleppo	Euphrates		Lebanon
A rabia	S. W.	Medina	Euphrates		Gabel el ared
E. Persia	S.	lspahan	{ Oxus Araxes	w. s. w.	Caucafus Taurus
India West of the Ganges	{ s.		Indus Ganges		Caucafus Balagate
the Ganges	C	Ava	Domea	S	Dalagate
India East of	0		Mecon	S.	DonoGono
the Ganges	3 S.		Menan	S.	Damascene
	L	Cambodia	Ava	S.)

Some of these countries contain several others.

Afiatic Turky contains

2 Milatic 1	arky comains)		
Countries	Georgia N.	Turcomania E.	Curdistan E.	Diarbec E.
545	en 01			36 61
Ch. cities	Teffis	Erzerum	Betlis	Moufol
Countries	Eyraca S.E.	Arabia desert S.	Natolia W.	Syria W.
Ch. cities	Bagdat		Smyrna	Aleppo

Ch. cities

Cambodia

India west	of the Gar	iges contains	о"н		
Northern	Countries	Indostan N.	Cambaya S. W. or Guzarat	Bengala S.E.	
Danes	01	75 111	or Guzarat	7	
	Ch. cities		Surat	Patna -	
Malabar	[Countries		Bisnagar W.	The Little of	
00		or Visapour Goa	or Carnate	1 11012	
Court	Ch. cities	Goa	Calcut and Cochin	- 1	
Coromandel	Countries	Bifnagar	K. Golconda	K. Orixa	
Coast		Carnate, E. side	4 1		
Coan	Ch. cities	Madras	Golconda	Orixa	
2 1022 6					
India east	of the Gang	ges contains			
Countries K. Ava N. W. K. Pegu W. K. Siam S. K. Malacca S.					
Ch. cities	Ava	Pegu	Siam M	lalacea	
Countries K.	Cambodia S	K. Cochin Chir	a E.K. Laos N.K. 7	Conquin N. E.	

40. The principal Seas, Gulfs and Bays in Asia, are

Thoanoa

Caspian Sea, quite surrounded by Siberia on the north, Korazm east, by Persia on the south, and by Georgia on the west.

Korean Sea, between Korea and the islands of Japan.

Lanchan

Keccio

Yellow Sea, between China and the Japan isles.

Gulf of Cochin China, on the borders of Tonquin and Cochin China. Bay of Siam, formed by the countries of Siam and Malacca.

Bay of Bengal, between India east, and India west of the Ganges. Gulf of Persia, having Persia on the N. E. and Arabia on the S. W.

41. The principal Islands belonging to Asia, are Ladrone, or Marian Isles, whose chief island is Guam.

Japan Isles	Ch. ifles Ch. cities	Japan Jeddo	Bongo Bongo	Tonfa Tonfa
Philippines	{ Ch. isles Ch. cities	Luconia Manilla	Mindanao Mindanao	Samar
Chinese Isles	Ch. isles Ch. cities	Formosa Taywanfu	Ainan Tan	Makao Makau
Moluccos	{ Ch. ifles Ch. cities	Celebes Macasser	Gilolo Gilolo	Ceram Ambay
Sunda Isles	{Ch. ifles Ch. cities	Borneo Banjar	Sumatra Achin	Java Batavia

The Andaman Isles to the west of Siam.

Nicobar Islands west of Malacca. Maldive Islands to the S. W. of Bisnagar.

The Island of Ceylon S. E. of Bisnagar; the chief city is Candy, or Candy Uta.

OF AFRICA.

42. This large continent is a peninfula, joined to Afia by the Ishmus of Suez. On the N. E. it is separated from Afia by the Red Sea; it has the Indian Ocean on the east, the Southern on the south, the Atlantic on the west, and the Mediterranean Sea on the north, which separates it from Europe. It is situated between the latitudes of 37 degrees N. and 35 degrees S; and between the longitude of 18 degrees W. and 50 degrees E. from London; is about 4300 miles long, and 4200 miles broad.

43. The positions and names of the chief countries, cities, rivers, and

mountains, are contained in the following table.

Countries.	Polition.	Chief Cities.	Rivers.	Courfe.	Mountains.
E. Morocco	N. W.	Fez	Mulvia	N.	Atlas
K. Algiers		Algiers	Saffran	N.	Atlas
K. Tunis	N.	Tunis !	Megrada	N.	Atlas
K. Tripoli	N.	Tripoli	Salines	N. E.	Atlas
K. Barca		Docra			Meies
K. Egypt		Cairo	Nile	N.	Gianadel
E. Abyssinia } or Ethiopia }	E.	Ambamarjam	Nile	N.	
Ajan	E.	Adea	Madadoxa	S.	1100
Zanguebar	E.	Melinda	Cuama	E.S.E.	
Sofala	S.E.	Sofala	Amara	E.	Amara
Terra de Natal	S.E.	Natal	St. Esprit	E.	Amara
Cafraria	S.	Cape Town	St. Christopher	E.	Table
Mataman	S. S. W.		Angri	W.	Sunda
K. Benguela	S.S.W.	Benguela	Negros	W.	Sunda
K. Angola	S. W.	Loando	Coanza .	W.	Sunda
K. Congo	S. W.	St. Salvador	Zaara	S. W.	Sunda
K. Loango	S. W.	Loango	Zette	S. W.	St. Esprit
Biafara	S. W.	Biafara	Camerones	S. W.	St. Esprit
K. Benin	S. W.	Benin	Formofa	S. W.	•
Guinea	S. W.	Cape Coaft	Volta	S.	Sierra Leon
Mandinga	W.	James Fort	Gambia	W.	C. Verd
Sanhaga		Sanhaga	Senegal	N. W.	
Bildulgerid	Mid.N.		Dara	S.	Atla s
Zara	Mid.	Zuenzega	Nubia	E.	
Nubia	Mid.	Nubia	Nubia	E.	
Negroland	Mid.	Tombute	Niger	W.	
Ethiopia inter-	Mid.	Chaxumo	Niger	W.	Luna
-Monomugi	Mid. S.	Merango .	Cuama	E.S.E	Luna
E. Monomotapa	Mid. S.	Morgar	Amara	S.E.	Amara

Many parts of the coasts of Africa are subject to the European nations: Thus the Kingdoms of Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, Barca, and Egypt, are either subject to the Ottoman, or Turkish empire, or acknowledge themselves under its protection.

Abyffinia is governed by its own Emperor.

Ajan or Anian is peopled by a few wild Arabs.

In Zanguebar and Sofala, the Portuguese have many black Princes

tributary to them.

Cafraria, or the country of the Hottentots, belongs to the Dutch.

The fea coasts of Guinea are usually distinguished by the names of the Slave Coast, Gold Coast, Ivory Coast, Grain Coast, and Sierra Leon.

The English, Dutch, French, Portuguese, and others, have several settlements along these coasts, and even many miles up the country, par-

ticularly the English on the rivers Gambia and Senegal.

In the general table the countries are taken in a very large fense; for many of them contain a great number of states independent one of the other, the particulars of which are not known to Geographers.

44. The principal Seas, Gulfs, and Bays in Africa, are

The Red Sea, between Africa and Afia: It washes the coast of Arabia on the Asiatic side, and the coasts of Egypt and Abyssinia on the African side.

Mosambique Sea, between Africa and the island of Madagascar eastward. Saldanna Bay in Castraria, on the Ethiopic Ocean.

Bight of Benin on the coast of Guinea, in the Ethiopic Ocean.

45. The principal African Islands, are

2.	Chief isle.	Chief Town.	Situation.
Madeira isles Canary isles C. Verd isles Ethiopian isles Komora isles Sokotora isles Almirante isles	Madeira Canaria St. Jago St. Helena Johanna Zocotora But little	Funchal Palma St. Jago Demani Calanfia	N. Atlantic Ocean N. Atlantic Ocean N. Atlantic Ocean Ethiopic Ocean Indian Ocean Indian Ocean Indian Ocean Indian Ocean

The island of *Madagascar*, one of the largest in the world, lies in the Indian Ocean: It is divided into a multitude of little states; some of them formed by the European privateers, and their successors descended from a mixture with the natives.

The islands of Bourbon and Mauritius lie in the Indian Ocean, to the

east of Madagascar: these belong to the French.

The Madeiras, and Cape de Verd Isles, belong to the Portuguese.

The Canary Isles to Spain; St. Helena to England.

OF AMERICA.

46. This vast continent, called by some the new world, having been discovered by the Europeans since the year 1492, is usually divided into two parts, one called North, and the other South America, being joined

to one another by the Isthmus of Darien.

North America lies between the latitudes of 10 degrees and 80 degrees north; and chiefly between the longitudes of 50 degrees and 130 degrees west of London; is about 4200 miles from north to south, and about 4800 from east to west. It is bounded on the east by the north Atlantic Ocean, by the Gulf of Mexico on the south, on the west by the Pacific Ocean, and by the Northern continent and ocean to the northward.

South America is bounded on the east by the south Atlantic Ocean, by
the Southern Ocean to the south, by the Pacific Ocean on the west, and
on the north by the Caribbean Sea. It lies between the latitudes of 12
degrees north, and 56 degrees south; and between the longitudes of 45
degrees and 83 degrees west from London; is about 4200 miles long,
and about 2200 miles in breadth.

47. The positions and names of the chief countries, cities, rivers, and

mountains, in North America, are in the following table.

Countries.	Polition	Chief Cities.	Rivers.	Courfe.	Mountains.
Countries.	z ontion.	Chief Cities.	Tervers.	Courter	1770untarus.
California	W.	St. Juan.	N. I.		
New Mexico	S.	Sante Fe	N. River	S. S. E.	
Old Mexico	S. W.		Panuco	E.	
Louisiana	S.	New Orleans	Missipi	S.	
Florida	S.	St. Augustine	St. John	N. to E.	Apalachian
Georgia			Alatamaha	E. S. E.	Apalachian
Carolina	S. E.	Charles Town	Afhly	S. E.	Apalachian
Virginia		James Town	Powtomack		Apalachian
Maryland			Powtomack	S. E.	Apalachian
Penfylvania			Delawar		Apalachian
Jerseys			Albany	S.	
New England			Connecticut	S.	
Nova Scotia			St. John	S. S. E.	Ladies
Canada		Quebec	St. Lawrence	N.E.	
New Britain			Rupert .	W.	
New Wales	N.	York Fort	Nelfon	W.	

California, Old Mexico, and New Mexico, belong to Spain.

Louisiana, to the west of the river Mississippi, was possessed by the French at the end of the late war; but is now transferred to Spain.

All the other countries are in the hands of the English.

In South America the position and names of the chief countries, cities, givers, and mountains, are as follow:

Countries.	Position.	Chief Cities.	Rivers.	Course.	Mountains.
Terra Firma. Peru Chili Patagonia La Plata Paraguay Brafil Amazonia Guiana	W. S. W. S. E. Mid. E. Mid.	Lima St. Jago Buenos Ayres Affumption	Valparifo Defaguadero	S.	Andes Andes Andes

Terra Firma, Peru, Chili, La Plata, and Paraguay, are in the possession of the Spaniards.

Brafil belongs to the Portuguese.

Patagonia, Amazonia, and Guiana, are possessed by the native Indians, except some parts of the coasts of Guiana, in the hands of the Dutch and French.

48. The principal Seas, Gulfs, and Bays in America.

The Caribbean Sea, bounded by Terra Firms on the fouth, and a range of islands on the north and east.

Gulf of Mexico, formed by Old Mexico, Louisiana, and Florida.

Buy of Campeachy, part of the Gulf of Mexico, on the Mexican coaft.

Buy of Honduras, part of the Caribbean Sea, next to Mexico.

Bay of Panama, in the Pacific Ocean, next the Ishmus of Darien.

Bay of California, in the Pacific Ocean, having California on the west.

Bay of Fundy, in Nova Scotia, north Atlantic Ocean.

Gulf of St. Lawrence, in the North Atlantic Ocean, bounded by Nova Scotia, New Britain, and some islands eastward and south-eastward.

Hudfon's Bay, between New Britain E. and New Wales W.

49. The chief American Islands in the Atlantic Ocean.

Newfoundland, and Cape Breton, east of the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

Bermudas, or Summer Islands, east of Carolina.

Bahama Isles, fouth cast of Florida.

Great Antilles Cuba ch. town Havanna
Hispaniola ch. town St. Domingo Mexican Gulf, and Jamaica ch. town Kingston

N. of the Car. Sea.

Caribbee Isles, bounding the Caribbean Sea on the E. and N. E. Lesser Antilles, on the N. N. E. of Terra Firma, in the Caribbee Sea. Terra del Fuego on the south of Patagonia, in the Southern Ocean. Gallipago Isles, lying N. W. of Peru in the Pacific Ocean.

SECTION IV.

Geographical Problems.

50. PROBLEM I. Given the latitudes of two places: Required their difference of latitude.

CASE I. When the latitudes of the given places have the fame name:

RULE. Subtract the lesser latitude from the greater, the remainder is the difference of latitude.

EXAM. I. What is the difference of latitude between London and Rome?

London's lat. Rome's lat.

51° 32' N. 41 .54 N.

Diff. lat.

9 38 60 578 miles.

EXAM. II. What is the difference of latitude between the Lizard and the

Island of Madeira? Lizard's lat. Madeira's lat.

49° 57′ N. 32 36 N.

Diff. lat.

17 21=1041m.

Exam. III. What is the difference of latitude between the Island of St. Helena and the Cape of Good Hope?

C.GoodHope's lat. 34° 29' S. St. Helena's lat. 15 55 S.

Diff. lat.

18 34=1114m.

Exam. IV. A ship from the latitude of 43° 18' N. is come to the lat. of 34° 49' N. Required the diff. of latitude.

Lat. from Lat. in

43° 18' N. 34 49 N.

Diff. lat.

8 29=509m. Diff. lat.

CASE II. When the latitudes of the given places have contrary names:

RULE. Add the latitudes together, and the fum will be the difference of latitude.

EXAM. I. Required the diff. of lat. between C. Finisterre and C.St. Roque.

C. Finisterre lat. 42° 57' N. C. St. Roque lat. 5 00 S.

Diff. lat.

2877 miles.

EXAM. II. What is the difference of latitude between the Island of Barbadoes and G. Negro?

I.of Barbadoes'slat. 130 00' N. C. Negro's lat. 16 30 S.

Diff. lat.

29 30=1770m.

Exam. III. Required the difference of latitude between Cape Horn and Cape Corientes in Mexico.

Cape Horn's lat. 55° 59' S. C. Corientes's lat. 20 18 N.

Diff. lat.

76 17=4577m.

Exam. IV. A ship from the lat. of 8° 28' S. has failed north to the lat. 6° 45' N. Required the diff. of latitude.

Lat. from Lat. in

8° 28' S. 6 45 N.

15 13=913m.

The fituation of about 1500 particular places are contained in a Geographical Table, art. 137, at the end of this book; where the latitudes and longitudes of places are to be fought, as they follow in alphabetical order.

Given the latitude of one place and the difference of 51. PROBLEM II. latitude between it and another place: Required the latitude of the latter place.

fame name:

RULE. To the given latitude add the degrees and minutes in the diff. of latitude, that fum is the other latitude of the same name.

Exam. I. A ship from the latitude of 38° 14' N. sails north till her difference of latitude is 12° 32': What latitude is she come to?

38° 14' N. Lat. from Diff. lat. 12 32 N.

50 46 N. Lat. in

Exam. II. A ship from the island of Ascension runs south till her diff. of Ascension runs north till her diff. of latitude is 5° 37': What is the lat. is 5° 37': What is the present present latitude of the ship?

7° 59′ S. 5 37 S. I. Ascension's lat. Diff. lat. 13 36 S. Ship's lat.

Exam. III. A ship from the island of Madeira fails N. 675 miles: What Leon fails S. 839 miles: What latilat. is she in?

I. Madeira's lat. 32° 36' N. Diff. lat. $\frac{675}{60}$ (I. 22)=11 15 N.

43 51 N. Ship's lat.

Exam. IV. Three days ago we fent latitude?

C. Good Hope's lat. 34° 29' S. Diff. lat. $\frac{92 \times 3}{69}$ (I. 22) = 4 36 S.

Present latitude 39 o; S.

CASE I. When the given latitude | CASE II. When the given latiand difference of latitude have the tude and difference of latitude have contrary names:

> RULE. Take the difference between the given latitude and the degrees and minutes in the diff. of latitude, the remainder is the other latitude, of the same name with the greater.

> EXAM. I. A ship from the latitude of 38° 14' N. sails south till her dif-ference of latitude is 12° 32': What latitude is she come to?

Lat. from 38° 14' N. Diff. lat. 12 32 S. Lat. in 25 42 No

Exam. II. A ship from the island latitude of the ship?

7° 59′ S. 5 37 N. I. Ascension's lat. Diff. lat. 2 22 S. Ship's lat.

Exam. III. A ship from Sierra tude is she in?

Sierra Leon's lat. Diff. lat. $\frac{839}{co}$ (I. 22)=13 59 S.

5 29 S. Ship's lat.

Exam. IV. Four days ago we were in the latitude of the Cape of were in the latitude of the island of Good Hope, and have run each day St. Matthew, and failed due north 6 92 miles directly S. What is our pre- miles an hour: What latitude is the Ship in?

St. Matthew's lat. 1° 23'S. Diff. lat. $\frac{6 \times 24 \times 4}{99}$ (I. 22) = 9 36 N:

8 13 N. Ship's latitude

52. PROBLEM. III. Given the longitudes of two places: Required their difference of longitude.

RULE. If the longitudes are of the same name, their difference is the difference of longitude required.

But if the longitudes are of different names; their fum gives the difference of longitude.

And if this fum exceeds 180 degrees, take it from 360 degrees, and there remains the difference of longitude.

Exam. I. Required the difference of longitude between London and Na- of longitude between St. Christopher's ples?

00000 London's long. Naples' long. ·14 19 E. Diff. longitude 14 19 60

\$59 EXAM. II. A ship in longitude 14° 45' W. is bound to a port in longitude 48° 18' west: What diff. of longitude

must she make? 14° 45' W. Ship's long. Long. bound to 48 18 W. Diff. longitude 33 33 60 2013 miles.

Exam. III. What is the difference of longitude between Cape Gardafuir and Cape Comorin?

C. Gardafuir's long. 50° 25' E. C. Comorin's long. 78 17 E.

Diff. longitude 52 60 1672 miles.

Exam. IV. Required the difference and Cape Negro.

St. Christopher's long. 62° 54' W. C. Negro's long. 11 30 E.

Diff. longitude 74 24 60

4464 miles.

Exam. V. A ship in longitude 140° 20' W. is bound to a place in longitude 139° 25' E. what diff. of longitude must she make?

140° 20' W. Ship's long. Long: bound to 139 25 E. 279 55 360 00 Diff. longitude 80 05

EXAM. VI. What is the difference of longitude between Cape Horn and Manila?

67° 26' W. Cape Horn's long. Manila's long. 120 25 E. 187 51 360 00 Diff. longitude 172 09

Sometimes the diff. Ion. between two places is estimated by the diff. of time, allowing an hour to every 15 degrees of longitude, and one min. of time for every 15 min. of a deg. or a deg. for every 4 min. of time.

Exam. At 6 h. 48 m. P. M. having observed at sea a certain appearance in the heavens, which I knew was feen the same instant at 3 h. 25 m. P. M. in London: Required the diff. longitude between the places of observations

6h. 48 m. From 3 h. = 45 deg. Take 3 35 13 m. = 3 15

Remain 3 13 = diff. time. Sum 48 15 = Diff. long.

And because the hour of appearance at London was least, therefore I know myfelf to be to the castward of London, by Microsoft ® 53. PRO- 53. PROBLEM IV. Given the longitude of one place, and the difference of longitude between that and another: Required the longitude of the second place.

RULE. If the given longitude and difference of longitude are of a contrary name, their difference is the longitude required; and is of the same name with the greater.

But if the given longitude and difference of longitude are of the same name, the fum is the longitude fought, of the fame name with

the given place.

And if the fum is greater than 180 degrees, take it from 360 degrees, remains the longitude required, of a contrary name to that of the given place.

gitude of 41° 12' E. fails westward Finisterre fails westward, and finds until her difference of longitude is she has altered her longitude 587 15° 47': What is her present longitude ?

Ship's langitude 41° 12 E. Diff. long. 15 47 W. Pref. long. 25 E.

Exam. II. A Ship from Cape Charles in Virginia fails eastward until she has altered her longitude 22°

53': What longitude is she in? C. Charles's long. 76° 07' W. Diff. long. 22 53 E. 14 W. Ship's long. 53

Exam. III. Four days ago I departed from C. St. Sebastian in Madagafear, and I have made each day 75 miles of east longitude; Required the longitude the ship is in?

4 C. Sebaf. long. 49° 13' E. ___ Diff. long. 5 co E. 6,0)30,0 ---- Ship's long. 5.4 13 E. 50

EXAM. I. A ship from the lon- | EXAM. IV. A ship from Cape miles: What longitude is she arrived in?

C. Finisterre's long. 9° 36' W. Diff. lon. $\frac{587}{60}$ 47 W.

Long. in. 23 W. 19

Exam. V. A ship from Cape St. Lucar in California has made 87° 18' of west longitude: What longitude is she in?

C. St. Lucar's long. 109° 40' W. Diff. long. 18 W. 87 58 W. 196

360 00 Ship's longitude 163 02 E.

Exam. VI. Seven days ago my longitude was 172° 17' W. and I have made each day 132 miles of west longitude: Required my present longitude?

132 Departed long. 172° 17' W. 7 Diff. long. 15 24 W. 6,0)92,4 157 4 I 360 co Prefent long. 19 E. 1-2

54.

SECTION V.

Of the Use of the Globes.

By the globes are here meant two spherical bodies, called the Terrestrial and Celestial Globes, the convex surfaces of which are supposed to to give a true representation of the earth and heavens.

The TERRESTRIAL GLOBE has delineated on its convexity the whole furface of the earth and fea in their relative fize, form, and fituation.

The CELESTIAL GLOBE has drawn on its furface the images of the feveral constellations and stars; the relative magnitude and position which the stars are observed to have in the heavens, being preserved on this globe.

The globes are fitted up with certain machinery, by means of which a

great variety of useful problems are neatly solved.

The Brazen Meridian is that ring, or hoop, in which the globe hangs on its axis; which is represented by two wires passing through its poles. This circle is divided into four quarters, of 90° each; in one semicircle the divisions begin at each pole, and end at 90°, where they meet: In the other femicircle, the divisions begin at the middle, and proceed thence towards each pole, where they end at 90 degrees. The graduated fide of this brazen circle ferves as a meridian for any point on the furface of the earth, the globe being turned about till that point comes under the circle.

The Hour Circle is a small circle of brass, which is divided into 24 hours, the quarters and half quarters. It is fixed on the brazen meridian, equally distant from the north end of the axis, to which an index is fitted, that points out the divisions of the hour circle as the globe is turned about.

The Horizon is represented by the upper furface of the wooden circular frame encompassing the globe about its middle. On this wooden frame is a kind of perpetual calender, contained in several concentric circles: The inner one is divided into four quarters, of 90 degrees each; the next circle is divided into the twelve months, with the days in each according to the new style; the next contains the 12 equal signs of the zodiac, each being divided into 30 degrees: the next is the 12 months and days according to the old flyle; and there is another circle, containing the 32 winds, with their halves and quarters. Although these circles are on all horizons, yet their difposition is not always the same.

The QUADRANT of ALTITUDE is a thin streight slip of brass, one edge of which is graduated into 90 degrees and their quarters, equal to those of the meridian. To one end of this is fixed a brass nut and screw, by which it is put on, and fastened to the meridian: and if it is fixed to the zenith, or pole of the horizon, then the graduated edge reprefents a

vertical circle passing through any point.

Befides these, there are several circles described on the surfaces of both globes; fuch as the equinoctial, ecliptic, circles of longitude and right ascension, the tropics, polar circles, parallels of lat. and decl., on the celeftial globe; and on the terrestrial, the equator, ecliptic, tropics, polar circles, parallels of latitude, hour circles, or meridians to every 15 degrees, and the spiral rhumbs flowing from several centers, called Flies.

55. PRO.

55.

PROBLEM I.

To find the latitude and longitude of any place on the terrestrial globe.

Ist. Bring the given place under that side of the graduated brazen meridian where the degrees begin at the equator, by turning the globe about.

2d. Then the degree of the meridian over it shews the latitude.

3d. And the degree of the equator under the merid., shews the long.

On some globes the longitude is reckoned on the equator from the meridian where it begins, eastward only, until it ends at 360°: On such globes, when the longitude of a place exceeds 180°, take it from 360, and call the remainder the longitude westward.

56. PROBLEM II.

To find any place on the globe, the latitude and longitude of which are given.

1st. Bring the given longitude, found on the equator, to the meridian.

2d. Then under the given latitude, found on the meridian, is the place fought.

57. PROBLEM III.

To find the distance and bearing of any two given places on the globe.

1st. Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both places, the beginning, or o degree, being on one of them, and the degrees between them shew their distance; these degrees multipled by 60 give sea miles, and by 70 give the distance in land miles nearly; or multiplied by 20 give leagues.

2d. Observe, while the quadrant lies in this position, what rhumb of the nearest fly, or compass, runs mostly parallel to the edge of the qua-

drant, and that rhumb flews the bearing fought, nearly.

58. PROBLEM IV.

To find the Sun's place and declination on any day.

rst. Seek the given day in the circle of months on the horizon, and right against it in the circle of figns is the Sun's place.

Thus it will be found that the Sun enters

The fpring figns, Aries, March 20. Taurus, April 20. Gemini, May 21.
The fummer figns, Cancer. June 21. Leo, July 23. Virgo, Aug. 23.
Autumnal figns, Libra, Sept. 22. Scorpio, Oct. 23. Sagittar. Nov. 22.
The winter figns, Capric. Dec. 21. Aquarius, Jan. 20. Pifces, Feb. 18.
2d. Seek the Sun's place in the ecliptic on the globe, bring that place

2d. Seek the Sun's place in the coliptic on the globe, bring that place to the meridian, and the division it stands under is the Sun's declination on the given day.

On the globes, the ecliptic is readily diffinguished from the equator, not only by the different colours they are stained with, but also by the ecliptic's approaching towards the poles, after its intersection with the equator. The marks of the figns are also put along the ecliptic, one at the beginning of every successive 30 degrees.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsofs PRO.

59. PROBLEM V.

To restify the globe for the latitude, zenith, and noon.

Iff. Set the globe upon an horizontal plane with its parts answering to those of the world; move the meridian in its notches, by raising or depressing the pole, until the degrees of latitude cut the horizon; then is the globe rectified for the latititude.

2d. Reckon the latitude from the equator towards the elevated pole, there forew the bevil edge of the nut belonging to the quadrant of alti-

tude, and the rectification is made for the zenith.

3d. Bring the Sun's place (found by the last problem) to the meridian, set the index to the XII at noon, or upper XII, and the globe is rectified for the Sun's fouthing, or noon.

60. PROBLEM VI.

To find where the Sun is vertical, at any given time, in a given place.

1st. Bring the Sun's place, found for the given day (58), to the meridian, and note the degree over it.

2d. Bring the place, for which the time is given, to the meridian, and

fet the index to the given hour.

3d. Turn the globe till the index comes to 12 at noon, then the place under the faid noted degree has the Sun in the zenith at that time.

4th. All the places that pass under that degree, while the globe is turned round, will have the Sun vertical to them on that day.

61. PROBLEM VII.

To find on what days the Sun will be vertical, at any given place, in the torrid zone.

1st. Note the latitude of the given place on the meridian.

2d. Turn the globe, and note what two points of the ecliptic pass un-

der the latitude noted on the meridian.

3d. Seek those points of the ecliptic in the circle of figns on the horizon, and right against them, in the circle of months, stand the days required.

In this manner it will be found, that the Sun will be vertical to the Island of St. Helena on the 6th of November, and on the 4th of February. And at Barbadoes on the 24th of April, and the 18th of August.

62. PROBLEM VIII.

At any given hour in a given place, to find what hour it is in any other place.

1st. Bring the place where the time is given to the meridian, and set the index to the given hour.

2d. Bring the other given place to the meridian, and the index flews the hour corresponding to the given time.

63. PRO.

63. PROBLEM IX.

At any given time to find all those places of the Earth where the Sun is then rising or setting, and where it is mid-day or midnight.

Find the place where the Sun is vertical at the given time (60), rectify the globe for the latitude of that place, and bring it to the meridian.

Then all those places, that are in the western half of the horizon, have

the Sun rifing; and those in the eastern half have it setting.

Those under the meridian, above the horizon, have the Sun culminating, or noon; and those under the meridian, below the horizon, have midnight.

Those above the horizon have day; those below it have night.

64. PROBLEM X.

To find the angle of position of two places, or the angle made by the meridian of one place, and a great circle passing through both places.

Rectify for the latitude of one of the given places, and bring it to the meridian; there fix the quadrant of altitude, and fet its graduated edge to the other place: then will that edge of the quadrant cut the horizon in the degree of position fought.

Thus, the angle of position at the Land's End to Barbadoes is south $71\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ westerly: but the angle of position at Barbadoes to the Land's End

is north 371 degrees easterly.

Hence neither of those positions can be the true bearing; for the rhumb passing through both places, will be opposite one way to what it is the other.

65. PROBLEM XI.

The latitude of any place not within the polar circle being given, to find the time of fun-rifing and fetting, and the length of the day and night.

Rectify for the latitude and the noon; bring the Sun's place to the eaftern fide of the horizon, and the index fhews the time of rifing: the Sun's place being brought to the western fide of the horizon, the index gives the setting.

Or, the time of rifing taken from 12 hours gives the time of fetting. The time of fetting being doubled gives the length of the day.

And the time of riling being doubled gives the length of the night. Thus, at London, on April 15th, the day is 13½ hours; the night 10½ hours.

66. PROBLEM XII.

To find the length of the longest and shortest days in any given place.

Rectify for the latitude; bring the folfitial point of that hemisphere to the eastern part of the horizon, set the index to 12 at noon, turn the globe till the folfitial point comes to the western side of the horizon, the hours past over by the index give the length of the longest day, or night; and its complement to 24 hours gives the length of the shortest night, or day.

Univ Calif - Digibited by Microsoft BP R O-

67.

PROBLEM XIII.

A place being given in either frigid or frozen zone, to find the time when the Sun begins to appear at, or depart from, that place: also how many successive days he is present to, or absent from, that place.

Rectify for the latitude, turn the globe, and observe what degrees in the first and second quadrants of the ecliptic are cut by the north point of the horizon, the latitude being supposed to be north.

Find those degrees in the circle of figns on the horizon, and their corresponding days of the month; and all the time between those days the

Sun will not fet in that place.

Again. Observe what degree in the third and sourth quadrants of the ecliptic will be cut by the south point of the horizon, and the days answering: then the Sun will be quite absent from the given place during the intermediate days; that day in the third quadrant shews when he begins to disappear; and that in the sourth quadrant shews when he begins to shine in the place proposed.

Thus at the North cape, in lat. 71°, the Sun never fets from May 15 to July 28, which is 74 days; and never rifes from November 16 to

January 24, which is 69 days.

68. PROBLEM XIV.

To find the antæci, periæci, and antipodes of any place.

Bring the given place to the meridian, tell as many degrees of latitude on the contrary fide of the equator, and it gives the place of the antæci; that is, of those who have opposite seasons of the year, but the same times of the day.

The given place being under the meridian, fet the index to 12 at noon, turn the globe until the index points to 12 at night, and the point under the meridian in the given latitude is the place of the perieci; that is, of those who have the same seasons of the year, but opposite times of

the day.

The globe remaining in this position, seek on the contrary side of the equator for the degrees of latitude given, and the point under the meridian, thus found, will be the antipodes to the given place; that is, there the seasons of the year and times of the day are directly opposite to those of the given place.

69. PROBLEM XV.

To find the beginning and end of the twilight in any place.

Rectify the globe for the latitude, zenith, and noon.

Seek the point of the ecliptic opposite to the Sun's place, turn the globe and quadrant of altitude, till the said opposite point of the ecliptic stands against 18 degrees on the quadrant of altitude; then will the index shew the beginning or end of the twilight; that is, the beginning in the morning, when those points meet in the western hemisphere; or the end in the evening, when the said points meet in the eastern hemisphere.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® 70. PRO-

70. PROBLEM XVI.

The latitude of a place and day of the month being given, to find the Sun's declination, previdian altitude, right afcension, amplitude, oblique ascension, ascensional difference; and thence the time of rising, setting, length of the day and night.

Rectify for the latitude and noon. Then,

The degree of the meridian over the Sun's place is the declination.

The meridian altitude is shewn by the degrees the Sun is above the horizon; and is equal to the sum or diff. of the co-lat. and decl.

The Sun's right ascen. is that degree of the equator under the meridian. Bring the Sun's place to the eastern part of the horizon. Then,

The amplitude is that degree of the horizon opposite the Sun.

The oblique afcension is that degree of the equator cut by the horizon. The ascen. diff. is the diff. between the right and oblique ascensions.

The ascen. diff. converted into time, will give the time the Sun rises before or after the hour of six, according as his amplitude is to the northward or southward of the east point of the horizon.

71. PROBLEM XVII.

Given the latitude of the place and day of the month, to find the Sun's altitude and azimuth, either when he is due east or west, at 6 o'clock, or at any other hour while he is above the horizon.

Rectify the globe for the latitude, zenith, and noon.

Set the quadrant of altitude to the east point of the horizon, turn the globe till the Sun's place comes to the quadrant's edge, and it shews the altitude, his azimuth being now 90°, and the index shews the hour.

Turn the globe till the index points at 6, there ftay it, and move the quadrant until its edge cuts the Sun's place; then the degrees at the Sun shew its altitude, and the degrees cut by the quadrant in the horizon shew the azimuth, reckoning from the north.

In like manner, the globe being turned till the index is against any

other hour, suppose 10 in the forenoon; then,

72.

The graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude being turned to cut the Sun's place, will give both the altitude and azimuth at that time.

PROBLEM XVIII.

Given the latitude, day of the month, and Sun's altitude, to find the azimuth and hour of the day.

Rectify the globe for the latitude, zenith, and noon.

Turn the globe and quadrant, until the Sun's place coincide with the

altitude on the graduated edge of the quadrant.

Then will that edge of the quadrant cut the degrees of azimuth on the horizon, reckoned from the north; and the index will show the hour of the day.

75.

73. PROBLEM XIX.

To represent the appearance of the heavens at any time in a given place.

Rectify the celestial globe for the latitude, zenith, and noon, and turn the globe till the index points at the given hour. Then,

The stars in the eastern half of the horizon are rising; those in the

western are setting: and those on the meridian are culminating.

The quadrant being fet to any given star will shew its altitude, and at

the fame time its azimuth, reckoned on the horizon.

Now by turning the globe round it will readily appear, what stars never set in that place, and what never rise: those of perpetual apparition never go below the horizon, those of perpetual absence never come above it.

74. PROBLEM XX.

To find the latitude and longitude of any star.

Put the center of the quadrant of altitude on the pole of the ecliptic, and its graduated edge on the given star. Then,

The latitude is shewn by the degrees between the ecliptic and star. The longitude is the degrees cut on the ecliptic by the quadrant.

PROBLEM XXI.

To find the declination and right afcension of a star.

Bring the star to the meridian, the degree over it is the declination; and the degree of the equator under the meridian is the right ascension.

76. PROBLEM XXII.

On any day, and in any given place, to find when a proposed star rifes, fets, or culminates.

Rectify the globe for the latitude and noon.

Bring the star to the eastern side of the horizon, and the index shews

the time of its rifing.

Turn the globe till the flar comes to the meridian, and the index flows the time of its culminating; and in like manner when it fets, the time will be flown by the index.

Its meridian altitude, oblique ascension, and ascensional difference, are

found in the same manner as for the Sun, at art. 70.

SECTION VI.

Of Winds.

77. A FLUID is a body, the particles of which readily give way to any impressed force; and by this readiness of yielding, the particles are easily put into motion.

Thus, not only liquids, but streams or vapours, smoke or sumes, and

others of the like kind, are reckoned as fluids.

From all parts of the Earth vapours and fumes are constantly arising to

some distance from its surface.

This is known by observation; it is caused chiefly by the heat of the Sun, and sometimes by subterraneous fires arising from the accidental mixing of some bodies.

78. Air is a fine invisible fluid furrounding the globe of the Earth,

and extended to fome miles above its furface.

The Atmosphere is that collection of air, and of bodies contained in it, which circumferibes the Earth.

79. From a multitude of experiments, air is found to be both heavy and

fpringy.

By its weight it is capable of supporting other bodies, such as vapours

and fumes, in the same manner as wood is supported by water.

By its springiness or elasticity a quantity of air is capable of being expanded, or of spreading itself so as to fill a larger space *; and of being compressed or confined in a smaller compass +.

80. Air is compressed or condensed by cold, and expanded or rarefied

by heat.

This is evident from a multitude of experiments.

An alteration being made by heat or cold in any part of the atmosphere, its neighbouring parts will be put in motion, by the endeavour which the air always makes to restore itself to its former state.

For experiments show, that condensed or rarefied air will return to its natural state, when the cause of that condensation or rarefaction is re-

moved.

81. WIND is a stream or current of air which may be felt; it usually

blows from one part of the horizon to its opposite part.

82. The horizon, befide being divided into 360 degrees, like all other circles, is by mariners supposed to be divided into four quadrants, called the north-east, north-west, south-east and south-west quarters; each of these quarters they divide into eight equal parts, called points, and each point into sour equal parts, called quarter-points.

So that the horizon is divided into 32 points, which are called *rhumbs*, or *winds*; to each wind is affigned a name, which shews from what point

of the horizon the wind blows.

The points of North, South, East, and West, are called *cardinal* points; and are at the distance of 90 degrees, or 8 points, from one another.

^{*} Near 14000 times. Wallis's Hydrof. p. 13.

[†] Into the co part. Phil. Trans. No 181.

83. Winds are either constant or variable, general or particular.

Constant winds are such as blow the same way, at least for one or more days; and variable winds are such as frequently shift within a day.

A general wind is that which blows the same way over a large tract of

the Earth, almost the whole year.

A particular wind is that which blows in any place, fometimes one

way, and fometimes another, indifferently.

If the wind blows gently, it is called a breeze; if it blows harder, it is called a gale, or a stiff gale; and if it blows very hard, it is called a storm *.

84. The following observations on the wind have been made by skill-

ful seamen; and particularly by the great Dr. Halley.

1st. Between the limits of 60 degrees, namely, from 30° of north latitude to 30° of fouth latitude, there is a constant easterly wind throughout the year, blowing on the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans; and this is called the trade-wind.

For as the Sun, in moving from east to west, heats the air more immediately under him, and thereby expands it; the air to the eastward is constantly rushing towards the west to restore the equilibrium, or natural state of the atmosphere; and this occasions a perpetual easterly wind in those latitudes.

2d. The trade-winds near the northern limits blow between the north and east; and near the southern limits they blow between the south and

east.

For as the air is expanded by the heat of the Sun near the equator; therefore the air from the northward and fouthward will both tend towards the equator to reftore the equilibrium. Now those motions from the north and fouth, joined with the foregoing easterly motion, will produce the motions observed near the said limits between the north and east, and between the fouth and east.

3d. These general motions of the wind are disturbed on the continents,

and near their coasts.

For the nature of the foil may cause the air to be either heated or cooled; and hence will arise motions that may be contrary to the foregoing general one.

4th. In fome parts of the Indian ocean there are periodical winds, called Monsoons; that is, fuch as blow one half the year one way, and

the other half-year the contrary way.

For air that is cool and dense, will sorce the warm and rarefied air in a continual stream upwards, where it must spread itself to preserve the equilibrium: So that the upper course or current of the air shall be contrary to the under current; for the upper air must move from those parts where the greatest heat is; and so, by a kind of circulation, the N. E. trade-wind below will be attended with a S. W. above; and a S. E. below with a N. W. above: And this is confirmed by the experience of seamen, who, as soon as they get out of the trade-winds, immediately find a wind blowing from the opposite quarter.

The swiftness of the wind in a storm is not more than 50 or 60 miles in an hour; and a common brisk gale is about 15 miles an hour.

5th. In the Atlantic Ocean near the coasts of Africa, at about 100 leagues from the shore, between the latitudes of 28° and 10° north, seamen constantly meet with a fresh gale of wind blowing from the N. E.

6th. Those bound to the Caribee Islands, across the Atlantic Ocean, find, as they approach the American side, that the said N. E. wind becomes easterly; or seldom blows more than a point from the east, either

to the northward or fouthward.

These trade-winds, on the American side, are extended to 30, 31, or even to 32° of N. latitude; which is about 4° farther than what they extend to on the African side. Also to the southward of the equator, the trade-winds extend 3 or 4 degrees farther towards the coast of Brasil on the American side, than they do near the Cape of Good Hope on the African side.

7th. Between the latitudes of 4° North, and 4° South, the wind always blows between the fouth and east: On the African side the winds are nearest to the fouth; and on the American side nearest to the east. In these seas Dr. Halley observed, that when the wind was eastward, the weather was gloomy, dark, and rainy, with hard gales of wind: but when the wind vecred to the southward, the weather generally became serene with gentle breezes next to a calm.

These winds are somewhat changed by the seasons of the year; for when the Sun is far northward, the Brasil S. E. wind gets to the south, and the N. E. wind to the east; and when the Sun is far south, the S. E. wind gets to the east, and the N. E. winds on this side of the equator yeer

more to the north.

8th. Along the coast of Guinea, from Sierra Leon to the Island of St. Thomas (under the equator) which is above 500 leagues, the southerly and south-west winds blow perpetually. For the S. E. trade-wind having passed the equator, and approaching the Guinea coast within 80 or 100 leagues, inclines towards the shore, and becomes south, then S. E. and by degrees, as it comes near the land, it veers about to south, S. S. W. and in with the land it is S. W. and sometimes W. S. W. This tract is troubled with frequent calms, violent sudden gusts of wind, called Tornadoes, blowing from all points of the horizon.

The reason why the wind sets in west on the coast of Guinea, is, in all probability, owing to the nature of the coast, which being greatly heated by the Sun, rarefies the air exceedingly; and consequently the cool air from off the sea will keep rushing in to restore the equilibrium.

9th. Between the 4th and 10th degrees of north latitude, and between the longitudes of Cape Verd, and the eastermost of the Cape Verd Isles, there is a tract of sea which seems to be condemned to perpetual calms, attended with terrible thunder and lightnings, and such frequent rains, that this part of the sea is called the Rains. Ships in failing these 6 degrees have been sometimes detained whole months, as it is reported.

The cause of this seems to be, that the westerly winds setting in on this coast, and meeting the general easterly wind in this tract, balance each other, and so cause the calms; and the vapours carried thither by each wind meeting and condensing, occasion the almost constant rains.

The last three observations shew the reason of two things which mariners experience in sailing from Europe to India, and in the Guinea trade

First. The difficulty which ships in going to the southward, especially in the months of July and August, find in passing between the coast of Guinea and Brasil, notwithstanding the width of this sea is more than 500 leagues. This happens, because the S. E. winds at that time of the year commonly extend some degrees beyond the ordinary limits of 4° N. latitude; and besides come so much southerly, as to be sometimes south, sometimes a point or two to the west; it then only remains to ply to windward. And if, on the one side, they steer W. S. W. they get a wind more and more easterly; but then there is a danger of falling in with the Brasilian coast, or shoals; and if they steer E. S. E. they fall into the neighbourhood of the coast of Guinea, from whence they cannot depart without running easterly as far as the island of St. Thomas; and this is the constant practice of all the Guinea ships.

Secondly. All fhips departing from Guinea for Europe, their direct course is northward; but on this course they cannot go, because the coast bending nearly east and west, the land is to the northward: Therefore as the winds on this coast are generally between the S. and W. S. W. they are obliged to steer S. S. E. or south, and with these courses they run off the shore; but in so doing they always find the winds more and more contrary; so that when near the shore, they can lie south, at a greater distance they can make no better than S. E., and afterwards E. S. E.; with which courses they commonly setch the island of St. Thomas and Cape Lopez, where finding the winds to the eastward of the south, they sail westerly with it, until they come to the latitude of 4 degrees south, where they find the S. E. wind blowing perpetually.

On account of these general winds, all those who use the West India trade, even those bound to Virginia, reckon it their best course to get as soon as they can to the southward, that so they may be certain of a sair and fresh gale to run before to the westward. And for the same reason the homeward bound ships from America endeavour to gain the latitude of 30 degrees, where they first find the winds begin to be variable; though the most ordinary winds in the north Atlantic Ocean come from between the south and west.

10th. Between the fouthern latitudes of 10 and 30 degrees in the Indian Ocean, the general trade-wind about the S. E. by S. is found to blow all the year long in the fame manner, as in the like latitude in the Ethiopic Ocean: and during the fix months from May to December, these winds reach to within 2 degrees of the equator; but during the other fix months, from November to June, a N. W. wind blows in the tract lying between the 3d and 10th degrees of southern latitude, in the meridian of the north end of Madagascar: and between the 2d and 12th degree of south latitude, near the longitude of Sumatra and Java.

11th. In the tract between Sumatra and the African coast, and from 3 degrees of south latitude quite northward to the Asiatic coasts, including the Arabian Sea and the Gulf of Bengal, the Monsoons blow from September to April on the N. E.; and from March to October on the S. W. In the former half year the wind is more steady and gentle, and the weather clearer than in the latter six months; and the wind is more strong and steady in the Arabian Sea than in the Gulf of Bengal.

12th. Between the Island of Madagascar and the coast of Africa, and thence northward as far as the equator, there is a tract, where from April to October there is a constant fresh S. S. W. wind; which to the northward changes into the W. S. W. wind, blowing at that time in the Arabian Sca.

13th. To the eastward of Sumatra and Malacca, on the north of the equator, and along the coasts of Cambodia and China, quite through the Phillippines as far as Japan, the Monsoons blow northerly and foutherly, the northern setting in about October or November, and the southern about May; the winds are not quite so certain as those in the Arabian Seas.

14th. Between Sumatra and Java to the west, and New Guinea to the east, the same northerly and southerly winds are observed; but the first half year Monsoon inclines to the N. W. and the latter to the S. E. These winds begin a month or six weeks after those in the Chinese Seas set in, and are quite as variable.

15th. These contrary winds do not shift from one point to its opposite all at once; in some places the time of the change is attended with calms, in others by variable winds. And it often happens on the shores of Coromandel and China towards the end of the Monsoons, that there are most violent storms, greatly resembling the hurricanes in the West Indies; when the wind is so vastly strong, that hardly any thing can result its force.

All navigation in the Indian Ocean must necessarily be regulated by these winds; for if mariners should delay their voyages till the contrary Monsoon begins, they must either sail back, or go into harbour, and weit for the return of the trade-wind.

SECTION

SECTION VII.

Of the Tides.

85. A Tipe is that motion of the waters in the feas and rivers, by which they are found regularly to rife and fall.

The general cause of the tides was discovered by Sir Isaac Newton,

and is deduced from the following confiderations.

86. Daily experience shews, that all bodies thrown upwards from the Earth, fall down to its surface in perpendicular lines; and as lines perpendicular to the surface of a sphere tend towards the center, therefore the lines, along which all heavy bodies fall, are directed towards the Earth's center.

As these bodies apparently fall by their weight, or gravity; therefore the law by which they fall, is called the LAW OF GRAVITATION.

87. A piece of glass, amber, or sealing-wax, and some other things, being rubbed against the palm of a hand, or against a woollen cloth, until they are warmed, will draw bits of paper, or other light substances, towards them, when held sufficiently near those substances.

Also a magnet, or loadstone, being held near the filings of iron or steel, or other small pieces of these metals, will draw them to itself; and a piece of hammered iron or steel, that has been rubbed by a magnet, will have a like property of drawing iron or steel to itself. And this property is

called ATTRACTION.

88. Now as bodies by their gravity fall towards the Earth, it is not improper to fay the Earth attracts those bodies; and therefore in respect to the earth, the words gravitation and attraction may be used one for the other, as by them is meant no more than the power, or law, by which bodies tend towards its center.

And it is likely, that this is the cause, why the parts of the Earth adhere

and keep close to one another.

89. The incomparable Sir Isaac Newton, by a sagacity peculiar to himself, discovered from many observations, that this law of gravitation or attraction was universally distinct throughout the solar system; and that the regular motions observed among the heavenly bodies were governed by this same principle; so that the Earth and Moon attracted each other, and both of them are attracted by the Sun. He discovered also that the force of attraction, exerted by these bodies one on the other, was less and less as the distance increased, in proportion to the squares of those distances; that is, the power of attraction at double the distance was four times less, at triple the distance nine times less, at quadruple the distance fixteen times less, and so on.

oc. Now as the Earth is attracted by the Sun and Moon, therefore all the parts of the Earth will not gravitate towards its center in the fame manner, as if those parts were not affected by such attractions. And it is very evident that, were the Earth entirely free from such actions of the Sun and Moon, the ocean being equally attracted towards its center, on all sides, by the force of gravity, would continue in a perfect stagnation without ever ebbing or flowing. But since the case is otherwise, the water in the ocean must needs rise higher in those places where the Sun and

Moon diminish its gravity, or where the Sun and Moon have the greatest attraction.

As the force of gravity must be diminished most in those parts of the Earth to which the Moon is nearest, that is, where she is in the Zenith, or vertical, and, consequently, where her attraction is most powerful; therefore the waters in such places will rise highest, and it will be full sea or flood in such places.

91. The parts of the Earth directly under the Moon, and also those in her-NADIR, viz. such places as are diametrically opposite to those where the Moon is in the Zenith, will have the flood, or high water, at the same time.

For either half of the Earth would gravitate equally towards the other

half, were they free from all external attraction.

But by the action of the moon, the gravitation of one half-earth towards

its center is diminished, and of the other is increased.

Now in the half-earth next the Moon, the parts in the zenith being most attracted, and thereby their gravitation towards the Earth's center diminished, the waters in these parts must be higher than in any other part of this half-earth.

And in the half-earth farthest from the Moon, the parts in the nadir being less attracted by the Moon than the parts nearer to her, gravitate less towards the Earth's center, and consequently the waters in these parts must be higher than they are in any other part of this half-earth.

92. Those parts of the Earth, where the Moon appears in the horizon, or is 90 degrees distant from the zenith and nadir, will have the ebbs or lowest

waters.

For as the waters in the zenith and nadir rife at the fame time, the waters in their neighbourhood will press towards those places to maintain the equilibrium; and to supply the places of these, others will move the same way, and so on to places of 90° distant from the said zenith and nadir; consequently, in those places where the Moon appears in the horizon, the waters will have more liberty to descend towards the center; and therefore in those places they will be the lowest.

93. Hence it plainly follows, that the ocean, if it covered the furface of the Earth, must put on a spheroidal, or egg-like figure; in which the longest diameter passes through the place where the Moon is vertical; and the shortest diameter, will be, in the horizon of that place. And as the Moon apparently shifts her position from east to west in going round the Earth every day, the longer diameter of the spheroid following her motion, will occasion the two sloods and ebbs observable in about every 25 hours, which is about the length of a lunar day, or the time spent between the Moon's leaving the meridian of any place, and coming to it again.

94. Hence the greater the Moon's meridian altitude is at any place, the greater those tides will be which happen when she is above the horizon; and the greater her meridian depression is, the greater will those

tides be which happen while the is below the horizon.

Moreover the fummer day, and the winter night-tides have a tendency to be highest, because the Sun's summer altitude and his winter depression are greatest, but this is more ospecially to be noted when the

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® .Mos.

Moon has north declination in summer, and south declination in winter.

95. The time of high water is not precifely at the time of the Moon's

coming to the meridian, but about an hour after.

For the moon acts with some sorce after she has past the meridian, and by that means adds to the libratory, or waving motion, which she had put the water into, whilst she was in the meridian; in the same manner as a small sorce applied upwards to a ball, already raised to some height, will raise it still higher.

96. The tides are greater than ordinary twice every month; that is, about

the times of new and full Moon: these are called Spring-Tides.

For at these times the actions of both Sun and Moon concur to draw in the same right line; and therefore the sea must be more elevated. In conjunction, or when the Sun and moon are on the same side of the Earth, they both conspire to raise the water in the zenith, and consequently in the nadir. And when the Sun and Moon are in opposition, that is, when the Earth is between them, whilst one makes high water in the zenith and nadir, the other does the same in the nadir and zenith.

97. The tides are less than ordinary twice every month; that is, about the times of the first and last quarters of the Moon: and these are called NEAP

TIDES.

BECAUSE in the quarters of the Moon the Sun raifes the water where the Moon depresses it; and depresses where the Moon raises the water;

to that the tides are made only by the difference of their actions.

It must be observed, that the spring tides happen not directly on the new and sull moons, but rather a day or two after, when the attractions of the Sun and moon have conspired together for a considerable time. In like manner the neap-tides happen a day or two after the quarters, when the moon's attraction has been lessened by the Sun for several days together.

98. When the Moon is in her Perig Eum, or nearest approach to the Earth, the tides increase more than in the same circumstances at other times.

For according to the laws of gravitation, the Moon must attract most

when she is nearest to the Earth.

99. The spring-tides are greater about the time of the EQUINOXES, that is, about the latter ends of March and September, than at other times of the

year; and the neap-tides then are less.

Because the longer diameter of the spheroid, or the two opposite floods, will at that time be in the Earth's equator; and consequently will describe a great circle of the Earth; by the diurnal rotation of which those shoods will move swifter, describing a great circle in the same time they used to describe a lesser circle parallel to the equator, and consequently the waters being thrown more forcibly against the shores, must rise higher.

100. The following observations have been made on the rise of the

tides.

1ft. The morning tides generally differ in their rife from the evening-tides.

2d. The new and full Moon fpring-tides rife to different heights.

. In winter the morning-tides are highest.

4th. In

4th. In fummer the evening-tides are highest.

So that after a period of about fix months the order of the tides are inverted; that is, the rife of the morning and evening-tides will change places, the winter morning high-tides becoming the fummer evening

high-tides.

Some of these effects arise from the different distances of the Moon from the Earth after a period of six months, when she is in the same situation with respect to the Sun; for, if she is in perigee at the time of new moon, in about six months after she will be in perigee about the time of full Moon.

These particulars being known, a pilot may chuse that time, which is most convenient for conducting a ship in or out of a port, where there is

not sufficient depth at low-water.

Small inland feas, such as the Mediterranean and Beltic, are little subject to tides; because the action of the Sun and Moon is always nearly equal at both extremities of such seas. In very high latitudes the tides are also very inconsiderable. For the Sun and Moon acting towards the equator, and always raising the water towards the middle of the torrid zone, the neighbourhood of the poles must consequently be deprived of those waters, and the sea must, within the frigid zones, be low, with relation to other parts.

whole furface of the Earth covered with fea. But fince it is not fo, and there being a multitude of islands, besides continents, lying in the way of the tide, which interrupt its course; therefore in many places near the shores, there arises a great variety of other appearances beside the foregoing ones which require particular solutions, in which the situations of the shores, straits, shoals, winds, and other things, must necessarily be consi-

dered. For instance:

102. As the sea * has no visible passage between Europe and Africa, let them be supposed to be one continent, extending from 78 degrees north to 34 degrees south, the middle between these two would be in latitude 19 degrees north, near Cape Blanco, on the west coast of Africa. But it is impossible that the slood-tide should set to the westward upon the western coast of Africa (for the general tide following the course of the Moca must set from east to west), because the continent, for above 50 degrees, both northward and southward, bounds that sea on the east; therefore if any regular tide, proceeding from the motion of the sea, from east to west, should reach this place, it must come either from the north of Europe southward, or from the south of Africa northward, to the said latitude upon the west coast of Africa.

103. This opinion is further corroborated, or rather fully confirmed by common experience, which fliews that the flood-tide fets to the fouthward along the well coast of Norway, from the north cape to the Naze, of entrance of the Baltie Sea, and so proceeds to the fouthward along the case of the Great Desirain, and in its puffice supplies all those ports with the tide of a commonter, the coast of Sectional having the tide field, be-

cause it proceeds from the northward to the southward; and thus on the days of the full, or change, it is high-water at Aberdeen at 12 h. 45 m. but at Tinmouth Bar, the same day, not till 3 h. From thence rolling to the fouthward, it makes high-water at the Spurn a little after 5 h.; but not till 6 h. at Hull, by reason of the time required for its passage up the river; from thence paffing over the Welbank into Yarmouth Road, it makes high-water there a little after 8 h. but in the Pier not till 9 h., and it requires near an hour more to make high-water at Yarmouth town; in the mean time fetting away to the fouthward, it makes high-water at Harwich at 10 h. 30 m., at the Nore at 12, at Gravefend 1 h. 30 m., and at London at 3 h. all on the same day. And although this may seem to contradict that hypothesis of the natural motion of the tide being from east to west, yet as no tide can flow west from the main continent of Nortway or Holland, or out of the Baltic, which is furrounded by the main continent, except at its entrance, it is evident that the tide we have been now tracing by its feveral stages from Scotland to London, is supplied by the tide, the original motion of which is from east to west; yet as water always inclines to the level, it will in its passage fall towards any other point of the compass, to fill up vacancies where it finds them, and yet not contradict, but rather confirm, the first hypothesis.

along the east coast of England, it also sets to the southward along the east coast of England, it also sets to the southward along the west coasts of Scotland and Ireland, a branch of it salls into St. George's channel, the slood running up north-east, as may be naturally inferred from its being high-water at Waterford above three hours before it is high-water at Dublin, or thereabout, on that coast; and it is three quarters of an hour ebb at Dublin before it is high-water at the Isle of

Man, &c.

But not to proceed farther in particulars than to our own, or the British channel, we find the tides fet to the fouthward from the coast of Ireland, and in their passage a branch falls into the British channel between the Lizard and Ushant; this progress to the southward may be eafily proved, by its being high-water on the day of the full and changes at Cape Clear a little after 4 h., and at Usbant about 6 h., and at the Lizard after 7 h. The Lizard and Ushant may properly be called the chaps of the British channel, between which the flood sets to the eastward along the coasts of England and France, till it comes to the Goodwin or Galloper, where it meets the tide before mentioned, which fets to the fouthward along the eastern coast of England to the Downs, where these two tides meeting, contribute very much towards fending a powerful tide up the river Thames to London. And when the natural course of these two tides has been interrupted by a fudden shift of the wind, by which means that tide was accelerated which had before been retarded, and that driven back which was before hurried in by the wind, it has been known to occasion twice high-water in 3 or 4 hours, which, by those who did not confider this natural cause, was looked upon as a prodigy.

to5. But now it may be objected, that this course of the flood-tide, cast, or east-north-east, up the channel, is quite contrary to the hypotensis of the general motion of the tides being from east to west, and consequently of its being high-water where the moon is vertical, or any

where elfe in the meridian.

In answer. This particular direction of any branch of the tide does not at all contradict the general direction of the whole; a river, with a western course, may supply canals which wind north, south, or even east, and yet the river keep its natural course; and if the river ebbs and flows, the canals supplied by it would do the same, although they did not keep exact time with the river, because it would be flood, and the river advanced to some height, before the flood reached the farther part of the canals; and the more remote the canals are, the longer time it would require; and it may be added, that if it was high-water in the river just when the moon was on the meridian, she would be far past it before it could be high-water in the remotest part of those canals, or ditches, and the flood would fet according to the course of those canals that received it, and could not fet west up a canal of a different position; and as St. George's channel, the British channel, &c. are no more in proportion to the vast ocean, than these canals are to a large navigable river; it will evidently follow, that among those obstructions and confinements the flood may fet upon any other point of the compass as well as west, and may make high-water at any other time as well as when the Moon is upon the meridian, and yet no way contradict the generaltheory of the tides before afferted.

106. When the time of high-water at any place is, in general, mentioned, it is to be understood on the days of the fyzygies, or days of new and sull Moon, when the Sun and Moon pass the meridian of that place at the same time. Among pilots it is customary to reckon the time of flood, or high-water, by the point of the compass the Moon is on at that time, allowing \(\frac{3}{4}\) of an hour for each point: Thus on the sull and change days, in places where it is flood at noon, the tide is said to flow north and south, or at 12 o'clock; in other places, on the same days, where the Moon bears 1, 2, 3, 4, or more points to the east or west of the meridian, when it is high-water, the tide is said to flow on such point: Thus, if the Moon bears S. E. at flood, it is said to flow S. E. and N.W., or 3 hours before the meridian, that is, at 9 o'clock; if it bears S. W., it flows S. W. and N. E., or at 3 hours after the meridian; and in like

manner for other points of the Moon's bearing.

vhile the tide continues to flow in the flream, or offing; and according to the length of time it flows longer in the flream than on the fhore, it is faid to flow tide, and fuch part of tide; allowing 6 hours to a tide; Thus 3 hours longer in the offing than on the fhore, make tide and half-tide; an hour and half longer makes tide and quarter-tide; three quar-

tees of an hour longer make tide and half-quarter tide; &c.

108. Along an extent of coast next to the ocean, such as the western coast of Asrica, and the eastern and western coasts of South America, it is generally high-water about the same hour. But ports on the coasts of narrow seas, or within land, have the times of their high-water sooner or later on the same day, according as those ports are farther removed from the tide's way, or have their entrances more or less contracted.

after a period of 15 days nearly, which is the time between one fpring-

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ®

tide and another: and during that period, the times of high-water fall

each day later by about 48 minutes.

110. From the observations of different persons, the times when it is high-water on the days of the new and sull Moon, on most of the seacoasts of Europe, and many other places, have been collected. These times are usually put in a table against the names of the places, digested in an alphabetical order; the like is followed in this work, only they are not given in a table by themselves, but make a column in the table of the latitudes and longitudes of places; which column is not filled up against many of the names in that table, for want of a sufficient collection of observations. This may be supplied by those who have opportunity and inclination.

The use of such a table is to find the time when it is high-water at any of the places mentioned in it. But as this depends upon knowing the time when the Moon comes to the meridian, and this on the Moon's age, and this on the knowledge how to find some of the common notes in the Calendar; therefore it was thought convenient to introduce in this place a compendium of Chronology, containing the several articles

above mentioned.

SECTION VIII.

Of Chronology.

111. CHRONOLOGY is the art of estimating, and comparing together, the times when remarkable events have happened, such as are related in history.

An ÆRA, or EPOCHA, is a time when fome memorable transaction occurred; and from which fome nations date and measure their com-

putations of time.

	the Julian Period.	before Christ.
Some have dated their events from the creation of the world, and suppose it to have happened Others, from the deluge, or flood — The Greeks, from their Olympiads of 4 years	710 2366	4004 2348
The Romans, from the building of Rome — The Altronomers, from Nabonafiar king of Babylon	3938 3961 3967	776 753 747
Some Historians, from the death of Alexander the Great The Christians, from the birth of Christ The Mahometans, from the flight of Mahomet, called the Hegira	4390 4713 5335	324 A. D. 622

In order to affign the distance between these, and other events, the ancients found it necessary to have a large measure of time, the limits of which were naturally pointed out to them by the return of the seasons

and this interval they called a year.

the returns of the new Moon; and as they observed 12 new moons to happen within the time of the general return of the seasons, they therefore first divided the year into 12 equal parts, which they called months; and as they reckoned about 30 returns of morning and evening between the times of the new moon and new moon, therefore they reckoned their month to consist of 30 days, and their year, or 12 months, to contain 360 days; and this is what is generally understood by the lunar year of the ancients.

with the course of the sun, the seasons gradually falling later in the year than they had been formerly observed; this put them upon correcting the method of estimating their year, which they did from time to time, by taking a day or two from the month, as often as they found it too long for the course of the moon; and by adding a month, called an intercalary month, as often as they found 12 lunar months to be too short for the return of the four seasons and fruits of the Earth. This kind of year, so corrected from time to time by the priests, whose business it was, is what is to be understood by the sun-splar year; which was anciently used in most nations, and is still among the Arabs and Turks.

As a great variety of methods was used in different countries to correct the length of the year, some by intercalating days in every year, and others by inferting months and days in certain returns, or periods of years; and these different methods being observed by some eminent men to create a considerable difference in the accounts of time kept by neighbouring nations, introducing a consusion in the chronological order of times, they therefore invented certain periods of years, called cycles, with

which they compared the most memorable occurrences.

114. At length Julius Cuefar observing the confusion which this variety of accounts occasioned, and knowing that his order, as Emperor of the Romans, would be followed by a very considerable part of the world; he therefore, about 40 years before the birth of Christ, decreed that every fourth year should consist of 366 days, and the other three of 365 days each. This he did in consequence of the information given him by Sossaces, an eminent mathematician of Alexandria in Egypt; for at that time the philosophers of the Alexandrinian school knew from a length of experience, that the year consisted of about 365 days and a quarter; and this was the reason of ordering every sourth year to consist of 366 days, thereby compensating for the quarter day omitted in each of the preceding three years. This method, called the Julia: Account, or Old Stile, continued to be used in most Christian states until the year 1582.

The Astronomers, fince the time of Julius Casur, have found that the true length of the solar year, or common year, is 365 days, 5 hours, 48 minutes, 55 seconds, marly; being less than the Julian, of 365 days, 6 hours, by about 11 minutes, 5 seconds, which is about the 130th Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® part

part of 86400, the seconds contained in a day; so that in 130 Julian years there would be one day gained above 130 solar years; and in 400 Julian years there would be gained 3 days, 1 hour, 53 minutes, 20 seconds; consequently one day omitted in every 130 common years, would bring the current account of time to agree very nearly with the

motion of the Sun.

115. In the year of our Lord 325, when the Council of Nice settled the day for the celebration of Easter, the Vernal Equinox (that is, the day in the spring when the Sun rose at fix and set at fix) happened on the 21st of March; but about the year 1580 the Vernal Equinox fell on the 11th of March, making a difference of about 10 days. Now Gregory the XIIIth, who was Pope at that time, observing that this difference of time in the falling out of the Equinox would affect the intention of the Nicene Council, concerning the time of the year appointed by them for the celebration of Easter; he therefore, in the year 1581, published a Bull, ordering that in the year 1582, the 5th of October should be called the 15th, and so on; thus the 10 days taken off would cause the time of the Vernal Equinox to fall on the 21st of March, as at the time of the Nicene Council: and because a little more than three days were gained in every 400 years by the Julian account; therefore to prevent any future difference, every century, or number of 100 years, not divisible by 4, fuch as 17 hundred, 18 hundred, 19 hundred, &c., should contain only 365 days, which, by the fulian account, should have contained 366; and the centuries divisible by 4, such as 16 hundred, 20 hundred, 24 hundred, &c. should be leap-years of 366 days; and thus the three days would be omitted, which the anticipation of the equinoxes would gain in 400 years; the small excess of 1 hour, 53 minutes, 20 feconds, not amounting to a whole day in less than 5082 years, being rejected as inconfiderable; the intermediate years to be reckoned as they ased to be in the Julian or Old Stile. This Pope's alteration, called the Gregorian or New Stile, was received in most of the Christian states: But some at that time chose to continue the Julian; among whom were the English; and they, in the year 1752, reformed their account, and introduced among themselves a new one, that nearly corresponds with the

A certain length of the year being once fettled, and a regular account of time in confequence of it being fo fitted, as to conform invariably to the feafons; it was natural for the States who received fuch account, to fit to it a register of the days in each month, and to note the days when any remarkable occurrence was to be commemorated; and such register

has obtained the name of Calendar.

116. The Calendar now in use among most of the Christian states consists of 12 months, called January, February, March, April, May, June, July, August, September, October, November, December; these months are called civil, the number of days in each may be readily remembered by the following rule.

117. Thirty days has September, April, June, and November;

February has twenty-eight alone: All the rest have thirty-one; When the year consists of 365 days: But in every fourth, which consists of 366 days, February has 29. This additional day was intercalated

lated after the 24th of February, which in the Old Roman Calendars was called the fixth of the calends of March, and being this year reckoned twice over, the year was called Biffextilis, or LEAP-YEAR.

Befide the months, time is also divided into weeks, days, hours, minutes, &c. a year containing 52 weeks, a week 7 days, a day 24 hours, an

hour 60 minutes, &c.

In the Calendars it has been usual to mark the seven days of the week with the seven first letters of the alphabet, always calling the first of January A, the 2d B, the 3d C, the 4th D, the 5th E, the 6th F, and the 7th G, and so on, throughout the year: and that letter answering to all the Sundays for a year, is called the Dominical Letter.

According to this disposition, the letters answering to the first day of

every month in the year, will be known by the following rule:

118. At Dover Dwells George Brown, Esquire, Good Caleb Finch, and David Frier;

Where the first letter of each word answers to the letter belonging to the

first day of the months in the order from January to December.

119. A year of 365 days contains 52 weeks and 1 day; and a leap-year has 52 weeks and 2 days; therefore the first and last days of a common year fall on the same week-day, suppose it Monday; then the next year begins on a Tuesday, the next year on Wednesday, and so on to the eighth year, which would be on Monday again, did every year contain 365 days; also the Dominical letter would run backwards through all the seven letters. But this round of seven years is interrupted by the leap-years; for then February having a 29th day annexed, the first Dominical letter in March must fall a day sooner than in the common year; so that leap-year has two Dominical letters, the one (supposing G) serving for fanuary and February, and the other, which is the preceding letter (F) serves for the rest of the Sundays in that year.

120. The SOLAR CYCLE, or cycle of the Sun, is a period of 28 years, in which all the varieties of the Dominical letters will have happened, and they will return in the fame order as they did 28 years before. At the

birth of Christ q years had past in this cycle.

For the changes, were all the years common ones, would be 7; But the interruptions by leap-year being every fourth year;

Therefore the changes will be 4 times 7, or 28 years.

This return of the Dominical letter is conftant in the Julian account. But in the Gregorian, where among the complete centuries, or hundredth years, only every fourth is leap-year; the other three hundred years, which according to the Julian, would be leap-years, are by the Gregorian only common years of 365 days: in these all the letters must be removed one place forwards in a direct order; and either year, instead of having two Dominical letters (as suppose D, C), will have only one (as D), the Dominical letters moving retrograde.

121. The LUNAR CYCLE, or cycle of the Moon (and sometimes called the *Metonic Cycle*, from *Meton*, an Athenian who invented it about 432 years before the time of *Christ*), is a period of nineteen years. containing all the variations of the days on which the new and full Moons happen; after which they fall on the same days they did 19 years

before.

The PRIME, or GOLDEN NUMBER, is the number of years elapfed in this cycle.

At the birth of Christ the golden number was 2.

For many years after the Nicene Council, it was thought that 19 folar years, or 228 folar months, were exactly equal to 235 fynodical, or lunar, months: and that the fame yearly golden number fet in their calendars against the days when the new Moons happened throughout one lunar cycle, would invariably ferve for the new Moons of corresponding years throughout every successive lunar cycle. But later observations shew, that this cycle is less than 19 years, by a little more than one hour, twenty-eight minutes; therefore, the new Moons will, in a little less than 311 years, happen a day earlier than by the Metonic account; and confequency all the festivals depending on the new Moons, will in time be removed into other feafons of the year than those which they fell in at their first institution: thus the new Moons in the year 1750 hapgened above 41 days earlier than the times shewn by the calendar. were the golden numbers, when once prefixed to the proper new Moon days in a Metonic period, to be fet a day earlier at the end of every 310,7 years, a pretty regular correspondence might be preserved between the folar and lunar years.

122. The EPACT of any year is the Moon's age the beginning of that

year; that is, the days past fince the last new Moon.

The time between new Moon and new Moon is in the nearest round numbers 29½ days; therefore the lunar year consisting of 12 lunations must be equal to 354 days, which is 11 days less than the solar year of 365 days. Now supposing the solar and lunar years to begin together, the epact is 0; the beginning of the next solar year, the epact is 11; the 3d year the epact is 22; the fourth 33, &c. But when the epact exceeds 30, an intercalary month of 30 days is added to the lunar year, making it consist of 13 months; so that the epact at the beginning of the 4m year is only 3, the 5th 14, the 6th 25, the 7th 36, or only 6, on account of the intercalary month; and so on to the end of the cycle of 19 years; at the expiration of which the same epacts would run over again, were the cycle perfect; and the epact would always be 11 times the prime.

123. By the Nicene Council it was enacted,

1st. That Easter-day should be celebrated after the vernal equinox,

which at that time happened on the 21st of March.

2d. That it should be kept after the full, or 14th day of that Moon which happened first after the 21st of March in common years, and first after the 22th of March in leap-years.

3d. That the Sunday next following the 14th, or day o full Moon, should be Easter-Sunday: which must always fall between the 20th or

21st of March, and 25th of April.

124. The Moon's Southing at any place is the time when the comes to the meridian of that place, which is every day later by about $\frac{4}{3}$ of an hour; because 24, the hours in a day, being divided by 30, the number of times which she passes the meridian between new Moon and new Aloon, will give $\frac{4}{3} = 48'$ for the retardation of her passage over the meridian in one day.

The Sun and Moon come to the meridian at the same time on the day of the change, or at new Moon; also the Moon comes to the opposite part of the same meridian, when she is in opposition, or at sull Moon. Hence between new and sull she comes to the meridian in the afternoon; at sull she comes to the meridian at mid-night; and when past the sull, after mid-night, or in the morning.

125. The ROMAN INDICTION is a cycle of 15 years, used by the ancient Romans for the times of taxing the provinces. Three years of this

cycle were elapsed at the birth of Christ.

The DIONYSIAN PERIOD is a cycle of 532 years, arising by multiplying together 28 and 19, the folar and lunar cycles; it was contrived by Dionysius Exiguus, a Roman abbot, about the year of Christ 527, as a period for comparing chronological events.

The JULIAN PERIOD contains 7980 years; it arises by multiplying together 28, 19, 15, the cycles of the Sun, Moon, and Indiction. This was also contrived as a period for chronological matters; and its begin-

ning falls 710 years before the usual date of the creation.

On the principles laid down in the preceding articles depend the folution of the following problems.

126. PROBLEM I. To find whether any given year is leap-year.

Rule. Divide the given year by 4; if o remains, it is leap-year; if 1, 2, or 3 remains, it is fo many years after.

Observing that the years 1800, 1900, 2100, &c. are common years.

Exam. I. Is 1788 leap-year? 4)1788(447

Exam. II. Is 1787 leap-year? 4)1787(446

Remains 3 years past leap-year.

Remains o, so it is leap-year.

127. PROBLEM II. To find the years of the felar, lunar, and indiction cycles.

Rule. To the given year add 9 for the folar, 1 for the lunar, 3 for the indiction: Divide the fums in order by 28, 19, 15; the remainder in each shows the year of its respective cycle.

Exam. Required the years of the folar, lunar, and indiction cycles for the year 1757?

1787 9 1 1787 3 28)1790(64 19)1788(94 15)1790(119

Remains 4=folar cycle. z=lunar cyc. or golden No. 5=indift. cycle.

Whereby it appears { 4th year of the 65th folar cycle that the year 1787 } 2d year of the 95th lunar cycle 5th year of the 12cth indiction cycle } 6th the foliar

128. PROBLEM III. To find the Dominical letter till the year 1800.

Rule. To the given year add its fourth part, divide the fum by 7; the remainder taken from 7 leaves the index of the letter in common years, reckoning A I, B 2, C 3, &c.

But in leap-year, this letter and its preceding one (in the retrograde order

which these letters take), are the Dominical letters.

Exam. I. For the year 1787.

4)1787

446.

7)2233(319

Remains o. Then 7—0=7=G.

So g is the Dominical letter.

So F

Exam. II. For the year 1788.
4)1788
447
7)2235(319

Remains 2. Then 7-2=5=8
So F and E are the Dominical letters.

And in this manner were the following numbers computed.

For the Dominical letters during the 18th century. Solar cycles 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 1 9 10

5 8 9 10 11 12 13 3 4 7 Dom. letters DC AG F G FE D В Α A Solar cycles 15 16 17 18 26 27 28 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 Dom. letters G F ED C В A GF E D C BA G E

The year 1800 being a common year, stops the above order, and the following are the Dominical letters for the 19th century.

Solar cycles I 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 II 12 13 14. Dom. letters ED C B A GF E D C BAG F E DC B

Solar cycles 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 Dom. letters A G FE D C B AG F E D CB A G F

129. PROBLEM IV. To find the Epast till the year 1900.

Rule. Multiply the golden number for the given year by 11, and divide the product by 30; from the remainder take 11, and it will leave the epact.

If the remainder is less than 11, add 19 to it, and it gives the epact

Ex. II. To find the epact for 1786. Ex. I. To find the epact for 1783. The Golden number is 17. (127) The Golden number is or Multiply by Multiply by 30)187(6 1 I 180 Subtract 11 Remains Remains the Epact =00 Add 19

Consequently the Epact is 26

And thus might the following numbers be found.

Gold. N° 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19. Epacts 29 11 22 3 14 25 6 17 28 9 20 1 12 23 4 15 26 7 18. The epacts here proceed by the difference 11, rejecting thirties.

Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® 130. Pro-

130. PROBLEM V. To find the Moon's age.

RULE. To the epact add the number and day of the month; their fum, if under 30, is the Moon's age;

but if it be above 30, take 30 from it, and the remainder will be the

Moon's age, or days fince the last conjunction.

The numbers of the months, or monthly epacts are the Moon's age at the beginning of each month, when the solar and lunar years begin together;

Andare { O 2 I 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10. Jan. Feb. Mar. Apr. May, June, July, Aug. Sept. Oct. Nov. Dec.

Exam. I. What is the Moon's age on the 14th of October, 1787?

The epact is 2 (129)
The N° of month 8
The day of the month 14
The fum is 24 the Moon's age.

Exam. II. What is the Moon's age on the 29th of March, 1786?

The epact is 0. (129)
Then 0+1+29=30 is the sum of the epact, number and day of the month.

And 30—30=0 is the Moon's age.

131. The day of next new Moon is readily found by taking her age from 30.

The day of new Moon in any month is equal to the difference between the fum of the year's and month's epacts, and 30. Thus;

On March 29, the Moon is 0 days old.

So that new Moon is on the 29th.

Now 0+1=1, is the fum of the epacts.

Then 30-1=29, the day of new Moon, as it should be.

132. PROBLEM VI. The day of the month in any year being given, to know on what week-day it will fall.

Rule. Find the Dominical letter (128): also the week day on which the first of the proposed month falls (118); and hence the name of the proposed day of the month will be known; observing that the 1st, 8th, 15th, 22d, and 29th days of any month fall on the same week-days.

Ex. I. On what day of the week does the 14th of Oct. fall, in 1787?
The Dominical letter is c. (128)
The 1st of October is A, (118)
Therefore October 7th is Sunday.
Confequently 14th is also Sunday.

And so March 20th is Thursday.

(128)

(130)

133. PROBLEM VII. To find when Easter-day will fall in any year between 1700 and 1899.

RULE. Find what day that new Moon falls on which is nearest to the 21st of March in common years, or to the 20th in leap-years; then the Sunday next after the full, or 15th day of that new Moon, will be Easter-day.

If the 15th day fall on a Sunday, the next Sunday is Easter-day.

Ex. I. When does Easter-day fail Ex. II. Required the time of Easterday in the year 1788? in the year 1787? The Dominical letter is E. The Dominical letter is G. (128) March 21, Moon's age is 3. (130) March 20, Moon's age 13. New Moon on March 7th. New Moon on March 18. Full Moon on March 22. The 15th day is April 2. April the 1st is G, on Sanday. March ift is p, on Saturday. Then Easter-Sunday is April 8th. Then Easter-Sunday is March 23d.

134. Eafter-day is always found by the Paschal full Moons, and these are readily found in the following curious table, which was communicated to the Royal Society in the year 1750, by the Earl of Macclesfield, and published in the Philosophical Transactions for the same year; and its use shewn in the following precepts.

"To find the day, on which the Paschal limit, or full Moon, falls in " any given year; look, in the column of golden numbers belonging to " that period of time wherein the given year is contained, for the golden

- " number of that year; over-against which, in the same line continued 66 to the column intitled Paschal full Moons, you will find the day of the
- "month, on which the Paschal limit, or full Moon, happens in that " year. And the Sunday next after that day is Easter-day in that year,

" according to the Gregorian account."

His Lordship also gave with the following table an account of the principles upon which he constructed it; and which the more inquisitive readers may confuir, if they pleafe,

A Table, shewing, by means of the Golden Numbers, the several days on which the Paschal limits, or full Moons, according to the Gregorian account, have already happened, or will hereafter happen; from the Reformation of the Calendar in the year 1582, to the year 4199, inclusive.

Golden Numbers from the year 1583 to 1699, and fo on to 4199, all inclusive. Paichal full Moons. 1583 1700 1900 2200 2300 2400 2500 2600 2900 3100 3400 3500 3600 3700 3800 4100 Days off the to to to to to to to to to to to to to																		
to to<		Golde	n Nu	mbers	from	the y	ear 1	583 to	169	, and	fo of	n to 4	199,	all inc	lusive			
to to to to to to to to to to to to to t	1583	1700	1900	2200	2300	2400	2500	2600	2900	3100	3400	3500	3600	3700	3800	4100	Days	of the
3 14 — 6 17 6 17 — 9 — 1 12 1 12 — 4 March 21 C 22 D 11 — 3 14 — 16 17 — 9 — 9 — 1 12 — 22 D 23 F — 11 — 3 14 — 6 17 — 9 — 9 — 1 12 D 24 F 24 F 24 F 24 F 29 D — 1 12 D 24 F 24 F 24 F 24 F 29 D — 1 24 F 25 G 3 3 14 — 6 17 — 9 — 1 24 F 25 G 3 14 — 6 17 — 9 — 24 F 24 F 24 F 25 G 3 3 14 — 6 17 — 9 — 24 F 27 F			to	to	to	to										to	mont	h and
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	1699	1899	2199	2299	2399	2499	2599	2899	3099	3399	3499	3599	3699	3799	4099	4199	Sun. 1	etters.
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	3	14	_	6	17	6		-	9	-	I	12	I	12	_	4	March	2 I- C
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	-		14		6	-	6		_	9	-	I		I	12		10.7%	
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	11		3	14	-	14	-	6			9	-	9		1	12	1.00	
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	-	11						1	i -								1	
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	19		11		3		3		_	ь			_		9	-		
16 — 8 19 — 19 — 11 — 3 14 — 14 — 6 17 28 C 29 D 5 16 — 8 19 — 11 — 3 14 — 6 17 28 C 29 D 13 — 5 16 — 8 19 — 11 — 2 12 — 11 — 2 11 13 — 10	8	19	-	11	-	11	-	3			6		6		-	9		,
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	1	8			II			l					-	6		-	2	
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	1				_		ļ.							_	6			
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		1		-			19	į					3			0		
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	_	5			-		-											
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		1	_	1					19								١, ,	
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	2		l	1		1				19	,					3	April	
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	-						-				19	i .	19			1.1	2.3	
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Į.		-	1			1)			8	_					,
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$			-	-				1.2	-		16						-	
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	1	1		i i							1					13		6 F
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	1		1													_	-	
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	15			18		18	-	10			13	_	13	_	5	16		
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	1	15	1	7	18	7	18	-	10			13		13	-	5		9 A
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	=	4	15	-	7	_	7	18		.0	_	2	_	2	13	_		-
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	12			15		15		7	18		10	-	10			13		
9 — 1 12 — 12 — 4 15 — 7 18 7 18 — 10 14 F — 9 — 1 12 1 12 — 4 15 — 7 — 7 18 — 15 G 17 — 9 — 1 — 1 12 — 4 15 — 7 — 7 18 — 15 G 6 17 17 9 — 9 — 1 12 12 4 15 — 15 7 18 16 A	I	12	_	1	15	4	15		7			01		10	_	2		12 D
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	-	1			4	-	1						1					
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	9	_	1	12		12		4	15		7	18	7			iO		14 F
6 17 17 9 — 9 — 1 12 12 4 15 4 15 15 7 17 B	-	9		I	12	1		1	4		_							
		-		-	I		1		Ĭ.	,		1						
114 0 0 17 9 17 9 9 1 1 12 4 12 4 15 18 (1		1 1		-		_	1										
	111	1 6	()	17	9	17	. 9	1 9	1	,	12	4	12	2-	4.	15	1	19 C

135. PROBLEM VIII. To find the time of the Moon's feuthing on a given day.

Rule. The Moon's age in days, multiplied by 0,8, gives the time of her fouthing, nearly, in hours and tenth parts.

That time, if less than 12 hours, is the time after mid-day. But if greater, the excess is the time after last midnight.

Ex. I. At what time does the Moon come to the meridian of London, on the 14th of October, 1787?

The Moon's age is 3 days. Which multiplied by 0,8

Moon So. 21 24 = 2,4

Ex. II. Required the time of the Moon's fouthing on the 20th of March, 1788?

The Moon's age 13 days. (130) Which multiplied by 0,8

Moon So. $10^{h} 24^{n} = 10,4$

Each tenth part of an hour being 6 minutes, any number of such tenth parts multiplied by 6, produces minutes.

Univ Calift- Digitized by Microsoft ® 136. Pro-

136. PROBLEM IX. To find the time of high-water at any place.

RULE. To the time of the Moon's fouthing add the time the Moon has passed the meridian on the full and change days to make high-water at that place; the fum shews the time of highwater on the given day.

The time of high-water, on the full and change days, is found in the right-hand column of the geographical table, art. 137, against the name

of the place.

Ex. I. On the 14th of October | Ex. II. Required the time when it 1787, at what time will it be high-will be high-water at Ushant on March water at London? (135) Moon fouths at 2h. 24m. o on fyzygies H.W. at Lond. 3 Snm 5 24 5h 24m. P. M. on the day proposed.

20th, 1788. Moon fouths at 10h. 24m. (135) High-water at Ushant 4 Subtract 00 High-water at 54 A. M. on the day proposed.

The v. vIII. IX. problems preceding have folutions, fuch as are common in books of pilotage, and which in some cases will produce conclusions considerably wide of the truth; it has therefore been judged neceffary to confider these articles in a more accurate manner in Book IX. of Days works.

SECTION IX.

A Geographical Table. I37.

Containing the latitudes and longitudes of the chief towns, islands, bays, capes, and other parts of the sea-coasts in the known world, collected from the most authentic observations and charts extant; with the times of high-water on the days of the new and full Moon.

The longitudes are reckoned from the meridian of London. By the latitude and longitude of an island, or harbour, is meant the middle of

that place.

Note. B. stands for bay; C. for cape; R. for river; P. for port; Pt. for point; I. for Isle; St. for faint; G. for gulf; M. for mount; Eu. for Europe; Am. for America; Atl. for the Atlantic; Ind. for Indian; Med. Sea for Mediterranean Sea; Wh. Sea for White Sea; Archip. for Archipelago; Nov. Sco. for Nova Scotia; Phil. I. for Philippine Isles; Adriat. for Adriatic; Eng. for England; D. Neth. for the Dutch Netherlands: Besides other contractions which will be easily understood.

Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Coast.	Latitude.	Longitude.	H.Water
A Abacco, S N. point		D.1	441 0	\$ 27 12 N.	77 05 W.	
. Abacco, S. point or Lucayos S. point	Am.	Baharna I.	Atl. Ocean	26 15 N.	77 OI W.	
Abbreviak	Eu.	France	Eng. Channel	48 32 N.	4 15 W.	4h. 30n
t. Abbshead	Eu.	Scotland	Germ. Ocean	55 55 N.	1 56 W.	
. Abdeleur	Africa	Anian	Indian Sea	11 55 N.	51 45 E.	
Aberdeen	Eu.	Scotland	Germ. Ocean	57 06 N.	01 44 W.	0 45
Abo	Eu.	Finland	Baltic Sea	60 27 N.	22 15 E.	
Abrolhos Bank	Am.	Brafil	Atl. Ocean	18 22 S.	38 45 W.	
Abrollo Bank, N. part	Am.	Bahama	Atl. Ocean	21 33 N.	69 50 W.	
Achen	Afia	I. Sumatra	Indian Ocean	5 22 N.	95 40 E.	-
Aden	Afia	Arabia	Indian Sea	12 55 N.	45 35 E.	
. Admiralties	Eu.	Nova Zem.	North Ocean	75 05 N.	52 50 E.	
Adventure Island	Afia	Soc. Ifles	Pacif. Ocean	17 6 S.	144 18 W.	
. Agalega, or Gallega	Africa	Madagascar	Indian Ocean	10 15 S.	54 46 E.	
C. St. Agnes	Am.	Patagonia	S. Atl. Ocean	53 55 S.	66 29 W.	
Agra	Afia	India	Mogul's	26 43 N.	76 49 E.	1
. St. Agusta	Eu.	Dalmatia	Adriatic Sea	42 40 N.	18 57 E.	
C. Ajuga	Am.	Peru	Pacif. Ocean	6 38 S.	80 50 W.	
3. Alagoa		Caffers	Indian Ocean	25 30 S.	33 33 E.	
f. Aland	Eu.	Sweden	Baltic Sea	60 20 N.	21 30 E.	
	Am.	NewS. Wales		52 35 N.	85 18 W.	2
R. Albany		Algiers	Medit. Sea	36 co N.	2 ·27 W.	
. Alboran	Eu.	England	Germ. Occan	52 20 N.	1 25 E.	0 4
Aldborough	Eu.			52 20 N.		9 45
. Alderney		England	Eng. Channel	49 48 N.	2 11 W.	12 00
Aleppo	Afia	Syria	Medit. Sea	35 45 N.	37 25 E.	1
Alexandretta	Afia	Syria	Medit. Sea	36 35 N.	36 20 E.	
Alexandria	Africa		Medit. Sea	31 11 N.	30 17 E.	
. Algeranca		Canaries	Atl. Ocean	29 23 N.	15 53 W.	
Algiers		Algiers	Medit. Sea	36 49 N.	2 18 E.	
Alicant	Eu.	Spain	Medit. Sea	38 34 N.	0 07 W.	
[. Alicur, Lipari If.	Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sea	38 31 N.	14 37 E.	1
Alkofir	Africa	Egypt	Red Sea	26 20 N.	34 41 E.	
B. All Saints, or ?	Am.	Brafil	Atl. Ocean	13 05 S.	38 45 W.	
Todos Sanctos S	Eu.	Spain	Medit. Sea	36 51 N.	2 15W.	
If. Almirante, }	Africa	Zanguebar	Indian Sea	5 5 45 S.		
limits	1	T Jal Fusas	Pacif Oren	2 4 30 S.		
St. Alphonfo's If.	Am.		Pacif. Ocean	55 51 S. 28 20 N.	69 28 W.	
Altur	Afia	Arabia	Red Sea	28 20 N.		
R. Amazons, mouths	Am.	Terra Firms	Atl. Ocean	0 30 S.	{47 35 W. 49 20 W.	6 00
I. Amboyna	Afia	Molucca I.	Indian Ocean	4 25 N.	127 25 E.	
Ambrym	Afia		Pacif. Ocean	16 10 S.		
If. Ambrofa	Am.	Chili	Pacif. Ocean	26 40 S.		
	Eu.	D. Neth.	Germ. Ocean	53 30 N.		
I. Ameyland	Afia	China	Pacif. Ocean			
I. Amoy	Eu.	D. Neth.	Germ. Ocean	24 30 N.		1
Amtterdam	1			52 23 N.		
I. Amsterdam	Afia	Madagascar	Indian Ocean	37 55 S.	75 15 E.	
I. Amiterdam, or } Tonga-Tabu	Afia	Friendly If.	Pacif. Ocean	21 09 S.	174 41 W.	8 30
I. Anabona	Africa	Eth. Coaft	Atl. Ocean	2 36 S.	5 35 E.	
Ancona	Eu.	Italy	Mediterran.	43 38 N.	13 31 E.	
If. Andaman, 7		1		5 14 00 N.	93 03 E.	
limits {	Afia	India	B. Bengal	10 08 N.		
I. Andaro	Afia	India	Indian Ocean			
			Atl. Ocean			
1.St. Andero, Sotovento		Mexico		12 30 N.		
C. St. Andrea		Madagascar		15 46 S.		
St. Andrews	Eu.	Scotland	Germ. Ocean	56 18 N.		2 15
if. Androfs { N.poin		Bahama I.	Atl. Occan	\$ 25 00 N.	77 58 W.	
	No.		1	23 30 N.	77 co W.	1
(5. poin	1	3 4 1 0	7 15 65		-0	
If. Angafay C. St. Angelo	Africa Eu.	Madagafear Turkey	Indian Ocean Archipolago		58 40 E.	

	0	0	0.4			
Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Coaft	Latitude.	Longitude.	H. Wate
Mount St. Angelo	Èu.	Italy	Medit. Sea	41 42 N.	16 16 E.	(6.6)
R. d'Angra			N. Atl Ocean	01 00 N.		
C. d'Anguilhas		Caffers	Indian Ocean	34 50 S.	9 35 E. 20 06 E.	
I. Anguilla	Am.		Atl. Ocean	18 15 N.	62 57 W.	
C. Anguille	Am.		Atl. Ocean	47 55 N.	59 11 W.	11111
I. Anholt	Eu.	Denmark	Sound	56 40 N.	12 00 E.	oh.001
C. Anne	Am.	New Eng.	West. Ocean	42 50 N.	70 27 W.	011.001
C. Queen Anne	Am.	Greenland	North Ocean	64 15 N.	50 30 W.	
Q. Anne's Foreland	Am.		Hudfon's Str.	64 15 N. 64 08 N.	74 36 W.	
Annamocka, or 3						
Rotterdam	Afia		Pacif. Ocean	20 16 S.	174 30 W.	
Annapolis Royal	Am.	Nova Scotia		44 52 N.	64 00 W.	·
I. Antego	Am.		Atl. Ocean	16 57 N.	61 56 W.	
Antibes	Eu.	France	Medit. Sea	43 35 N.	7 09 E.	
I. Ante- \ W. point	Am.	Canada	SB. St. Lau-	49 52 N.	64 04 W.	-
cost E. point			2 rence	49 10 N.	61 42 W.	
Antiochetta	Afia .	Syria	Medit. Sea	36 os N.	36 17 E.	
C. d'Antiser	Eu.	France	Eng. Channel		0 34 E.	
C. Antonio	Am.	Isle Cuba	Atl. Ocean	21 45 N.	84 05 W.	
I. St. Antonio		Cape Verd	Atl. Ocean	17 00 N.	25 02 W.	
C. St. Antony	Am.	Magellan	Atl. Ocean	54 46. S.	63 42 W.	21 [
Antwerp	Eu.	Flanders	R. Scheld	51 13 N.	4 24 E.	6 00
B. Apalaxy	Am.	Florida	G. Mexico	30 00 N.	83 53 W.	
I. Apalioria	Afia	India	Indian Ocean	9 08 S.	79 40 E.	
Aquapulco	Am.	Mexico	Pacif. Ocean	17 10 N.	101 40 W.	
Aquatulco	Am.	Mexico	Pacif. Ocean	15 27 N.	96 03 W.	
Archangel	Eu.	Ruffia	White Sea	64 34 N.	38 59 E.	6 00
I. d'Areas	Am.	Mexico	G. Mexico	20 45 N.	92 35 W.	
Arica	Am.	Peru	Pacif. Ocean	18 27 S.	71 05 W.	
I. Arran	Eu.	Ireland	St. Geo. Ch.	54 48 N.	8 59 W.	11 00
I. Afcention	Am.	Brafil	Atl. Ocean	7 56 S.	14 13 W.	
I. Affinaria,	Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sea	41 06 N.	8 36 E.	
Sardinia 5	Δ	Carolina	Atl. Ocean	1 '		
R. Ashley	Am.	Guinea		33 22 N.	79 50 W.	0 45
R. Aflene			Atl. Ocean	5 30 N.	2 20 W.	100
I. Afteres		Madagascar	Indian Ocean	10 22 S	53 25 E.	
Athens	Eu,		Archipelago	38 5 N.	23 52 E.	
Atkin's Key	Am.	Bahama Isles Bahama Isles		22 07 N.	74 26 W.	
Atwood's Keys	Am. Afia	_	Pacif. Ocean	21 22 N.	72 04 W.	12
C. Ava	Am.	Japan Terra Firma		3+ 45 N.	141 00 II.	
If. Aves, Sotovento	L	Brafil	Atl. Ocean	15 26 N.	66 15 W.	
C. St. Augustine	Am. Afia	Mindanao	Pacif. Ocean	8 48 S.	35 co W.	1
C. St. Augustine	Am.	Florida	Atl. Ocean	6 40 N.	126 25 E.	
St. Augustine	Afia		Pacif. Ocean	30 10 N.	81 29 W.	7 30
Autora		Egypt	Red Sea		168 17 E.	
Aydhab	Afia	Arabia	Red Sea	21 53 N. 29 08 N.	36 26 E. 35 41 E.	
Aylah	, ila	a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a a	accu sca	29 00 11.	35 41 1.	
Babelmondel Straits	Africa	Abyffinia	Red Sea	12 50 N.	43 50 E.	
C. Bala	Afia	Natolia	Archipelago		26 22 E.	
I. Bachian	Afia		Pacif. Ocean	39 33 N.	123 00 E.	
I. Bahama	Am.	Bahama Hles		26 45 N.	78 35 W.	
Bahama Bank, N. pt.		Bahama Itle	Atl. Ocean	27 50 N.	78 43 W.	
C. Bajador	Africa	Negroland	Atl. Ocean	26 29 N.	14 36 W.	0 00
Baker's Dozen	Am.	Labrador	Hudfon's Bay		14 30 11.	1
Balafor	Afia	India	B. Bengal	21 20 N.	\$6 00 E.	
Baldivia	Am.	Chili	Pacif. Ocean	39 38 5.	73 20 W.	
I. Bali	Afia	Sunda Isles	Indian Ocean	\$ 05 S.		
Baltimore	Eu.	Ireland	Weit. Ocean	51 16 N.	9 26 W.	1 20
			I Occum			4 30
	1.		1	1 2 12 S	107 TO F	
	Afia	Sunda Isles	Indian Ocean	3 15 S.	107 10 E.	
S. end	Afia Afia	1	Indian Ocean Indian Ocean	3 15 S. 1 50 S. 4 30 N.	107 10 E. 105 30 E. 127 25 E.	

Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Coaft.	Latitude.	Longitude.	H.Wate
				0	0	
Banjar	Afia	I. Borneo	Indian Ocean	2,27 S.	113 50 E.	
Banks's Ifle	Afia	N. Zealand	Pacif. Ocean	43 45 S.	172 40 E.	'
Bantam	Afia	I. Java	Indian Ocean	6 15 S.	106 25 E.	
B. Bantry	Eu.	Ireland	Atl. Ocean	51 45 N.	10 46 W.	
I. Barbadoes ?	Am.	Caribbee Ifles	Atl. Ocean	13 05 N.	59 36 W.	
Bridge-town 5 C. Barbas	Africa	Sanaga	N. Atl. Ocean	21 50 N.	16 26 W.	
I. Barbuda	Am.	CaribbeeIfles	Atl. Ocean	17 46 N.	61 47 W.	
C. Barcam	Eu.	Greenland	North Ocean	78 18 N.	20 06 E.	
Barcelona	Eu.	Spain	Medit. Sea	41 26 N.	2 18 E.	
C. Barfleur	Eu.	France	Eng. Channel	49 38 N.	1 16 W.	7h. 30
Bargazar Point	Eu.	Iceland	North Ocean	66 30 N.	17 12 W.	
I. Bardfey	Eu.	Wales	St. Geo. Cha.	52 44 N.	5 co W. 38 oo E.	141
C. Barío	Eu.	Ruffia	White Sea	66 30 N.	38 00 E.	
I. Bartholomew	Am.	CaribbecIses	Atl. Ocean	17 56 N. 48 50 N.	63 11 W.	
I. de Bas	Eu.	France	Eng. Channel	48 50 N.	4 co W.	3 45
Baffora	Afia	Arabia	Perfian Gulf	29 45 N.	47 40 E.	
C. Baffos, or Baxos	Africa	Anian	Indian Sea	4 12 N.	47 07 E.	
Baffos de Banhos	Africa	Zanguebar	Indian Ocean	5 00 S.	48 08 E.	
Bassos de Chagos	Afia	India	Indian Ocean	6 42 S.	68 20 E.	
I. Baffus des Indes	Africa		Indian Ocean	21 19 S. 6 12 S.	41 43 E.	12
Batavia	Afia	I. Java	Indian Ocean		106 45 E.	
Bayonne	Eu.	France	B. Bifcay Atl. Ocean	43 30 N.	1 30 W.	3 30
Bayona Ifles	Eu.	Spain England	Eng. Channel	41 45 N. 50 44 N.	9 01 W.	0 00
Beachy Head Bear-bay	Eu.	Greenland	North Ocean	50 44 N. 79 10 N.	0 25 E.	0 00
N. Bear ?	A. U.			54 40 N.	24 15 E.	
S. Bear	Am.	Labradore	Hudson's Bay	54 25 N.	{80 oW.	12 00
I. Beerenberg	Eu.		North Ocean	71 45 N.	4 30 E.	
Pelcher's Ifles	Am.	Labradore	Hudfon's Bay	56 0 N.	83 4 W.	
Betfaft	Eu.	Ireland	Irith Sea	54 43 N.	5 52 W.	10 0
Bellife	Eu.	France	B. Bifcay	47 21 N.	3 13 W.	3 30
Bellific	Am.	Newfound.	Atl. Ocean	51 55 N.	55 25 W.	
Bembridge Point	Eu.	Ifle Wight	Eng. Channel	50 41 N.	1 5 W.	
Straits of Bellifle	Am.	Newfoundl.	Atl. Ocean	51 48 N.	56 co W.	
Bell Sound	Eu. Afia	Greenland I. Sumetra	North Ocean Indian Ocean	77 15 N.	12 40 E.	
Bencolin Boncol	Afia	Indla	B. Bengal	3 49 S. 22 00 N.	102 5 E.	
Bergal Bergan	Eu.	Norvay	Western Oc.	60 10 N.	92 45 E.	
Berlin	Eu.	Germany	R. Elbe	52 33 N.	6 14 E. 13 26 E.	
L. Bermad M.	Am.	Bahe maifle	Atl. Ocean	32 35 N.	63 23 W.	7 00
I. Bermaja	Am.	Mexico	G. Mexico	21 40 N.	92 53 W.	7 00
Berwick	Eu.	England	Germ. Ocean	55 45 N.	1 50 W.	2 30
Berry Point	Eu.	England	Eng. Channel	50 57 N.	3 49 W.	_ 50
Bir f. Hland	Am.	Acadia	G. St. Lawr.	47 44 N.	60 24 W.	
Bilboa	Eu.	Spain	B. Bifeay		3 18 W.	
I. du B'c	Am.	Acadia	R. St. Lawr.	43 26 N. 48 30 N.	68 36 W.	2 0
Blackney	Eu.	England	Germ. Ocean	53 20 N.	0 55 E.	6 co
Black Point	Eu.	Greenland	North Ocean	78 co N.	10 50 E.	
Black Ifle	Eu.	Nova Zem.	North Ocean	72 52 N.	52 35 E.	
C. Branco	Africa		Atl. Ocean	20 55 N.	17 5 W.	9 45
C. Blanco	Am.	Patagonia	Atla Ocean	47 ::0 S.	64 37 W.	
C. Blanco	Lu.	Greenland	North Ocran	77 58 N.	20 04 E.	
C. Bare.	Am.	Mexico	Pacif. Ocean	9 42 N.	85 55 W.	
I. Blanco, S. tovento		Terra Firma	Atl. Ocean	11 42 N.	64 20 W.	
Blooms Ruce	Eu.	France	Eng. Channel	49 42 N.	2 C3 W.	0 00
Blacet, or Port Louis	Eu.	Ireland	Atl. Ocean	52 00 N.	10 56 W.	
Docachica	Am.	Terra Firma	B. Bifcay Carib. Sca	47 45 N.	3 13 W.	3 0
Bala' na	Afia	Society If.	Pacif Ocean	10 20 N. 16 33 S.	75 30 W.	
R. Bellhara	Afia	S India	Pacif. Ocean	52 48 N.	151 52 W.	
I. Bambas	Afia		Tambier Cecili	18 57 N.	171 40 1.0	

Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Coaft.	Latitude.	Longitude.	H. Water
Bena	Africa'	Tunis	Mediterran.	37 08 N.	7 10 E.	
C. Bona	Africa		Mediterran.	37 10 N.	10 00 E.	
C. Bona vista	Am.		Atl. Ocean	48 54 N.	52 33 W.	
I. Bena vista		C. Verd Ifics		16 05 N.	22 42 W.	
C. Bona fortuna	Eu.	Ruffia	White Sea	65 35 N.	38 25 E.	
I.Bonayre, Sotovento	Am.	Terra Firma		11 52 N.	67 20 W.	
B. Bonaventura .	Am.		Pacif. Ocean	3 18 N.	76 50 W.	
C. Bon Esperance		Caffers	Indian Ocean	34 29 S.	18 23 E.	3h. oom
73 1	Eu.	France	B. Bifcay	44 50 N.	0 30 W.	3 00
			Dr. Dillon,	(1 12 N.	117 10 E.	,
E SEast point }				3 15 N.	108 57 E.	
m North point (Afia		Indian Ocean	7 05 N.	113 40 E.	
South point				(3 32 S.	112 05 E.	
I. Bor- 7 Borneo 7				5 5 00 N.	112 15 E.	
I. Bor- Borneo }	Afia		Indian Ocean	1 0 50 S.	108 35 E.	
I. Bornholm	Eu.	Sweden	Baltic Sea	55 12 N.	15 50 E.	
Bofton	Eu.	England	Germ. Ocean	53 10 N.	0 25 E.	
Borton	Am.	New Eng.	Atl. Ocean	42 25 N.	70 32 W.	
Botany Ifle	Aña		Pacif. Ocean	22 27 S.	167 12 E.	
Bot my Bay	Aña		Pacif. Ocean	34 00 S.	151 28 E.	
Boulogne	Eu.	France	Eng. Channel	50 44 N.	1 40 E.	10 30
1. Pourbon, St. Den.			Indian Ocean	20 52 S.	55 35 E.	,
I. St. Brandon			Indian Ocean	16 45 S.	64 48 E.	
B. Brandwyns	Eu.	Greenland	North Ocean	79 50 N.	26 20 E.	3
I. Bravas		C. Verd	Atl. Occan	14 54 N.	24 45 W.	100
Bremen	Eu.	Germany	R. Wefer	53 30 N.	9 00 E.	6'00
Breefound, a fand	Eu.	D. Neth.	Germ. Ocean	53 12 N.	5 15 E.	4 30
Breflau	Eu.	Sileña	R. Oder	51 03 N.	17 13 E.	T 3"
Breft	Eu.	France	B. Bifcay	48 23 N.	4 26 W.	3 45
P. Broft	Am.		Weit. Oceau	52 10 N.	52 30 W.	3 73
Cape Bret	Afia		Pacif. Ocean	35 07 S.	173 52 E.	
Bridge Town	Am.	I. Barbadoes		13 05 N.	59 36 W.	
Bridlington Bay	Eu.	England	Germ. Ocean		00 04 E.	3 45
Brill	Eu.	D. Neth.	Germ. Ocean		4 10 E.	1 30
Brion Ifle	Am.	Acadia	G. St. Lawr.	47 50 N.	60 47 W.	1
Bristol	Eu.	England	St. Geo. Ch.	51 28 N.	2 30 W.	6 45
C. Briftol	Am.	Sandwich L.		59 2 S.	26 46 W.	1 43
Louisbourgh		Danid Wiess Z		(45 54 N.	59 55 W.	
JE } I. Scateri	Am.	Acadia	Atl. Ocean	3 46 of N.		
North Cape	1			47 05 N.	61 57 W. 60 8 W.	
I. Mathias				(2 00 S.	147 50 E.	=
North point				2 30 S.		
S. W. point	1.0		D	6 co S.	146 37 E.	
Strait Dampier	Afia	New Guinea	Pacif. Ocean	6 15 S.	146 15 E.	
C. St. George				5 30 S.	150 55 E.	
I. St. John				4 20 S.	152 40 E.	
Luchanels	Eu.	Scotland	Germ. Ocean	- 1	1 23 W.	3 00
Puenos Ayres	Ant.	Brafil	Atl. Ocean	34 35 S.	58 26 W.	
C. Buller	Am.	S. Georgia	Atl. Ocean	53 58 S.	37 40 W.	
Bargaford point	Lu.	Iceland	North Ocean	66 03 N.	16 34 W.	
Burgeo, Irles	Am.	Newfoundl.	Atl. Ocean	47 36 N.	57 31 W.	
Durlings, rocks	Eu.	Portugal	Atl. Ocean	39 20 N.	9 32 W.	
Burlington	Eu.	England	Germ. Ocean		0 08 E.	
Buston's Hiles	Am.	New Britain	Hudf. Straits	60 35 N.	65 20 W.	6 50
Cape Byron	Afia	N. Zealand	Pacif. Ocean	28 39 S.	153 31 E.	
Byron's Ifle	Afia		Pacif. Ocean	1 18 S.	170 6W.	
C						
I. Cabrera	Eu.	Italy	Mediterran.	43 10 N.	9 17 E.	
Chaiz	Eu.	Spain	Atl. Ocean	36 31 N.	6 07 W.	4 30
Cien	Hu.	France	Eng. Channel		0 17 W.	9 00
Cagliari, I. Sardinia	Fu.	Italy	Medit. Sea	39 25 N.	9 38 E.	
	Eu.	Finland	Bultic Sea	64 13 N.		1

	Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Coast.	Latitude.	Longitude.	H. Water.
						0	
	Isles Caicos, or Cankross, from	Am.	BahamaIsles	Atl. Ocean	{21 27 N. 22 5 N.	71 24 W. 72 15 W.	
	Calabar {Old New }	Africa	Guinea	Eth. Ocean	\$ 4 30 N. 5 00 N.	8 10 E. 7 00 E.	
	C. Calaberno Calais	Afia Eu.	Natolia France	Archipelago Eng. Channel	38 42 N. 50 58 N.	26 44 E.	11h. 30m.
	C. Calamadon	Afia	India	B. Bengal	10 22 N.	01 51 E. 80 40 E.	1111. 3011.
	Calcutta Caldera	Afia Afia	India I. Mindano	B. Bengal Pacif. Ocean	22 35 N. 7 co N.	88 34 E. 121 25 E.	
	I. Caldy	Eu. Afia	England India	St. Geo. Ch. Indian Ocean	51 33 N.	5 14W.	5 15
	Calecut Cairo	Africa	Egypt	R. Nile	30 02 N.	75 39 E. 31 26 E.	=
	Callao 1. Great Camanis	Am.	Peru West Indies	Pacif. Ocean Atl. Ocean	12 2 S. 19 18 N.	76 53 W. 80 29 W.	
	I. Little Camanis	Am.	West Indies	Atl. Ocean	19 42 N.	79 20 W.	
	Camboida Cambridge	Afia Eu.	India England	Indian Ocean	10 35 N. 52 13 N.	104 45 E. 0 9 E.	
	Cumbridge	Am.	N. England		42 25 N.	71 5 W.	
	Carbon 5		Algiers	Medit. Sea	37 18 N.	4 58 E.	
	C. Cameron R. Camerones	Am. Africa	New Spain Guinea	Atl. Ocean Atl. Ocean	15 35 N 3 30 N.	83 29 W. 9 10 E.	
	B. Camerones	Am. Eu.	Magellan D. Neth.	Atl. Ocean Germ. Ocean	44 50 S.	67 10W.	I 30
-	Camfer, a fund Camin	Eu.	Germany	Baltic	54 04 N.	5 30 E. 15 40 E.	1 30
-	C. Campbell Compeachy	Atia Am.	N. Zealand Yucatin	Pacif. Ocean Atl. Ocean	41 51 S. 19 36 N.	174 41 E. 90 53 W.	
-	I. Canaria	Africa	Canaries	Atl. Ocean	28 of N.	15 oW.	3 0
	C. Candenofe C. St. John, W.	Eu.	Ruffia	North Ocean	69 25 N.	45 30 E.	
	end Candia	Eu.	Turkey	Medit. Sea	$\begin{cases} 35 & 12 & N, \\ 35 & 19 & N, \end{cases}$	23 54 E. 25 23 E.	
	C. Selemon, E.				34 57 N.	27 06 E.	
	Candia	Afia		Indian Ocean		81 53 E.	
-	Candlemas Ifles 1. Candu		Sandwich L. India	Atl, Ocean Indian Ocean	57 10 S. 7 30 S.	27 13 W. 77 55 E.	
	C. Canio	Am.	Nova Scotia	Atl. Ocean	45 18 N.	60 48 W.	
	Canfo Paffage C. Cantin	Am. Africa	Nova Scotia Barbary	Atl. Ocean	45 30 N. 32 41 N.	61 coW.	0 00
	Cantire, Mul Cantin	Eu. Afia	Scotland China	West Ocean Pacif. Ocean	55 22 N. 23 08 N.	5 45 W.	
1	Cape Town	Africa	Caffers	Atl. Ocean	33 55 S.	18 23 E.	2 30
į	I. Capri I. Caprava		Italy Italy	Medit. Sea Medit. Sea	40 34 N. 43 03 N.	14 11 E. 10 15 E.	
	C. C	Afia		B. Bengal	19 22 N.	86 05 E.	
	Carie, or Linearits the.	Am. Am.	Greenland	Baffin's Bay	10 06 N. 77 15 N.	66 45 W. 62 00 W.	
	Carrer Parit Caleton n	Am. Eu.	California Sweden	Pacif. Ocean Baitic	38 24 N. 56 20 N.	124 25 W. 15 31 F.	
	Carllille	Eu.	England	Irith Sea	54 47 N.	2 35 W.	
	C. Carrel	Afia Afia	Syria	Levant Pacif Ocean	5 7 10 N.	35 35 E. 137 25 E.	
-	C. Cartilles, limite		Barbary	Pacif. Ocean Medit. Sea	12 00 N. 36 52 N.	127 25 il.	
	Carringenic	Am.	Terra Firma	Caribbean Sca	10 27 N.	75 22 W.	
	forms time Carriers life		Spain New Britain	Medit, Sea Pacif, Ocean	37 37 N. 8 26 S.	1 03 W.	
1	Car. Swan's Ned Caketa	Am. Eu.		Hudfon Bay Eng. Channel	62 20 N. 49 50 N	83 30 W. 2 26 W.	8 15
1	C. Calinder	Eu.	Turkiy	Archirel.go	40 cz N.	23 41 E.	•)
	I. St. Catherine's	.1.71.	Brafil	Atl. Occur	27 35 N	49 12 W.	

	Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Coast.	Latitude.	Longitude.	H. Water.
	Cat Ine { N. point S. point	Am.	Bahama	Atl. Ocean	24 50 N. 23 48 N.	75 38 W. 75 35 W.	
	Cathness Point }	Eu.	Scotland	West. Occan	58 42 N.	3 17 W.	gli. com.
	Catenea C. Catocha	Eu. Am.	I. Sicily New Spain	Medit. Sea Caribbean Sea	42 40 N. 20 48 N.	20 30 E. 86 35 W.	
	I. Cayenne	Am.	Terra Firma		4 56 N.	52 10 W.	
	N. E. point W. point		·		1 43 N. 3 00 S.	124 37 E. 117 55 E.	•
	S. W. point Ma- caffer	Afia	Spice Ifles	Indian Ocean	5 11 S.	117 50 E.	
	S. point				5 40 S. 5 20 S.	119 55 E. 121 58 E.	ac i
	I. Cephalonia	Eu.	Turkey	Medit. Sca	38 20 N.	20 11 E.	
	Ceuta (Infanapatam, N.	Africa	Barbary	Medit. Sea	35 49 N.	5 25 W. 80 55 E.	
	point Trinquemale, S.	A.C	India	Indian O		_	
	Trinquemale, S. E. end C. Gallo, S. West	Afia	India	Indian Ocean	S 40 N. 6 27 N.	31 40 E. 32 10 E.	
	end	100	C IC	D. 16 O	(6 15 N.	80 20 E.	192
-	Chain Island Chandenagar	Afia Afia	Bengal	Pacif. Ocean River Ganges	17 25 S. 22 51 N.	145 30 W. \$8 34 E.	
	Charles Town C. Charles	Am.	Carolina Virginia	Ashley River Atl. Ocean	33 22 N. 37 11 N.	79 50 W. 76 07 W.	3 0
	I. of East end Charles West end	Am.	Labradore	Hudson's Str.	5 62 46½N. 62 48 N·	74 15 W. 75 30 W.	10 15
	C. Charles	Am. Alia	New Britain		51 50 N.	51 10 W.	
	Charlotte's Isles C. Charlotte	Am.	S. Georgia	Pacif. Ocean Atl. Ocean	11 0 S. 54 32 S.	164 o E. 36 12 W.	
	Q. Charlotte's Sound Q. Charlotte's Foreld.	Afia Afia		Pacif. Ocean Pacif. Ocean	41 6 S. 22 15 S.	174 19 E. 167 13 E.	9 00
	I. Charlton Chatteaux Bay	Am.	New Walcs Labradore	Hudíon's Bay Atl. Ocean	52 03 N. 52 1 N.	79 00 W. 55 50 W.	
	B. Chebucto	Am.	Nova Scotia	Atl. Ocean	44 45 N.	63 18 W.	
	Cheignedo Cherbourgh	Am. Eu.	Nova Scotia France	Eng. Channel		63 11 W. o1 33 W.	7 30
	Cherry Ide Cheffer	Eu.	Greenland England	North Ocean Irish Sea	74 35 N. 53 10 N.	18 05 E. 2 25 W.	
	Chiddock C. Chidley	Eu. Am.	England	Eng. Channel Hudf. Straits	50 47 N. 60 22 N.	3 co W· 65 oo W.	
	L Childe S N. point	Am.	Patagonia	Pacif. Ocean	5 41 45 S.	73 05 W.	
	C. Chiekothago	Afia	Siberia	North Ocean	64 co N.	174 45 W.	
	Christiana Christianople	Eu.	Norway Sweden	Sound Baltic Sea	59 25 N. 55 55 N.	10 30 E.	
	Christianstadt Christmas Sound	Eu. Am.	Sweden T. del Fuezo	G. Bothnia Pacif. Ocean	62 47 N. 55 22 S.	22 50 E. 70 01 W.	2 30
	I. St. Christopher's	Am.	Carib. Ifles Caffers	Atl. Ocean	17 15 N.	62 38 W.	_ 30
	R. St. Christopher's C. Chukchente		Siberia	Indian Ocean North Ocean	32 47 S. 66 30 N.	30 00 E. 171 10 W.	
	R. Churchill	Am.	New Wales	Hudfon's Bay	\$ 58 48 N. 53 47 N.	93 10W. 94 03W.	7 20
	I. Chofan Civita Vecchia	Afia Eu.	China Italy	Chinese Sea Medit. Sea	30 00 N.	121 50 E. 11 51 E.	
	C. Clear	Eu. Am.	Ireland S. Georgia	West. Ocean	51 18 N.	9 50 W.	4 30
-	1. Cloate	Afia	India	Indian Ocean	22 CO S.	34 37 W. 95 40 E. 76 05 E.	
	Cookin	Afia Afia	India India	Indian Ocean Indian Ocean	9 50 N. 12 20 S.	9S 10 E.	
Partie de	Cocos	Am.	Mexico New Eng.	Pacif. Ocean Atl. Openn	5 CO N. 42 15 N.	83 45 W. 69 27 W.	
				00.11	4- 15	09 2/ 11.	

Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Coast.	Latitude.	Longitude.	H. Wate
7				0 ,	0.,	
Colchefter	Eu.	England	Germ. Ocean	52 00 N.	o 58 E.	
C. Cold	Eu.	Greenland	North Ocean	79 00 N.	10 00 E.	
					-66 E	
C. Colnet	Afia	N. Caledonia	Pacif. Ocean	20 30 S.	164 56 E.	
R. Colerado	Am.	New Spain	G. California	31 40 N.	115 25 W.	
I. Colgau	Eu.	Ruffia	North Ocean	69 20 N.	45 00 E.	1
	F					
Collioure			Medit. Sea	42 31 N.	3 10 E.	
C. Colone	Eu.	Turkey	Archipelago	37 43 N.	24 41 E.	
C. Colone	Afia	Natolia	Archipelago	39 10 N.	27 04 E.	
C. Colonni			Medit. Sea	38 56 N.	13 05 E.	
C. Colville	Afia	N. Zealand	Pacif. Ocean	36 27 S.	174 48 E.	i
Comana	Am.	Terra Firma	Atl. Ocean	10 00 N.	65 o7 W.	
			Indian Ocean		78 7 E.	
C. Comarin						
C. Comfort	Am.	New Wales	Hudfon's Bay	64 45 N.	82 30 W.	
Concarneau	Eu.	France	B. Bifcay	47 54 N.	3 50 W.	3h.00
	1					3
C. Conception		Calefornia	Pacif. Ocean	35 40 N.	120 01 W.	
B. Conception Entra	Am.	Newfoundl.		48 25 N.	50 07 W	
Conception	Am.	Chili	Pacif. Ocean	36 43 S.	- 73 13 W.	
				1 3 13 6		
R. Congo		Congo	Eth. Ocean	5 45 S.	11 53 E.	
I. Coningen	Afia	N. Zealand	Pacif. Ocean	34 30 S.	164 25 E.	
Coningsburgh	Eu.	Poland	Baltic Sea	54 44 N.	21 53 E.	
	Eu,			19 TT	33 31	
Conquet			Eng. Channel		4 35 W.	2 15
C. Conquibaco	Ain.	Terra Firma	Atl. Ocean	12 15 N.	69 57 W.	
Constantinople	Eu.		Archipelago	41 00 N.	28 53 E.	
Cook's Straits			Pacif, Occan	41 6 S.	174 30 E.	
Copper's lile	Am.	S. Georgia	Atl. Ocean	54 57 S.	36 o W.	
Copenhagen	Eu.	Denmark	Baltic Sea	55 41 N.	12 40 E.	1
Coperwic	Eu.	Norway	Sound	59 20 N.	10 10 E.	
I. Copland	Eu.	Ireland	Irish Sea	54 40 N.	6 40 W.	
. Coquet	Eu.		Germ. Ocean	55 20 N.	1 25 W.	3 00
	Am.					3
R. Coquimbo	-		Pacif, Ocean	29 54 S.	71 10 W.	
C. Corbau	Afia	Natolia	Archipelago	38 03 N.	26 58 E.	
Cordoue			B. Bifcay		01 10 W.	
	23 (4 6	a Tance	D. Direny	45 30 N.		
Corea, South limit	Afia	China	Pacif. Ocean	34 50 N.	§ 124 25 E.	
,				3. 3	2 127 25 E.	
I. Corfu	Eu.	Turkey	Mediterran.	39 50 N.	19 48 E.	
C. Corientes	Africa	Caffres	Indian Ocean	39 30 6		
					36 49 E.	
C. Corientes	Am.	Mexico	Pacif. Ocean	20 18 N.	103 00 W.	
Corinth	Eu.	Turkey	Archipelago	37 30 N.	23 00 E.	
Corke	Eu.	Ireland	St. Gco. Ch.			6 30
				51 54 N.	8 30 W.	0 30
C. Coronation			Pacif. Ocean	22 5 S.	167 8 E.	
C. Corfe	Arrica	Guinea	Eth. Sea	5 12 N.	0 23 W.	3 30
~ C. Corfe, North				,		, , , ,
E) _ point	Eu.	Italy	Mediterran.	5 42 53 N.	9 40 E.	
5) Bonfacio, South		- casy	2.2CditcHall.	(41 22 N.	9 26 L.	
point					,	
I, Corvo	E .		1.1.0			
	Fu.		Atl. Ocean	39 42 N.	31 02 W.	
I. Cosmoledo	Africa.	Madagafcar	Indian Ocean	10 28 S.	51 40 E.	
I. Coudre	Am.	Canada	R. St. Lawr.			
				47 3u N.	69 2 W.	
Cow and Calf	Eu.	Ireland	West. Ocean	51 22 N.	10 30 W.	
l. CozumeI	Am.	Yuchtan	Atl. Occin	19 36 N.	86 35 W.	
R. Crocei			B. Nankin			
				34 06 N.	120 10 E.	
Cromer		England	Germ. Ocean	53 05 N.	0 56 E.	7 00
Crooked I. N. point	Am.	Ballama	Atl. Ocean	22 47 N.	73 50 W.	
Crof, Inc			White Sea			
	Y			66 31 N.	36 33 E.	
Crist Point	Eu.	Nova Zem.	North Ocean	72 00 N.	53 12 E.	
Cruz	Africa	Barbary	Atl. Ocean	30 36 N.	9 35 W	
I. St. Cruz	Anı.		Atl. Occan		61 55 117	
	- 111/-	· Attendes I.	Att, Octan	17 53 N.	64 55 W.	
C. Antonio, W.				(a		
i joint				21 45 N.	S4 05 W.	
D { P. de Mais, E.	Am.	Antilles I.	A+1 ())		
	- 41111	ranteniico 1.	Atl. Ocean	1 20 03 N.	74 52 W.	
point point						
Harley Cape				(19 42 N.	77 25 W.	
Carried and						

Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Coaft.	Latitude.	Longitude.	H. Water.
St. Jago St. Mary Le St. Efprit Havannah B. Hondy Cubbs Ifles Cubello C. Cumberland Cumberland Cumberland Curaffoa I. Cuzzola Cufco C. Baffa, W. end	Am. Afia Afia Afia Am. Eu. Am.	Ind. Malab. N. Hebrides Society Ifles	Atl. Ocean Hudfon's Bay Indian Ocean Pacif. Ocean Davis's Str. Atl. Ocean Medit. Sea Inland		75 51 W. 78 10 W. 79 50 W. 81 45 W. 82 40 W. 82 34 W. 71 55 E. 140 36 E. 65 20 W. 68 20 W. 16 55 E. 73 35 W. 33 04 E.	
C. St. Andr. E. end C. de Gaffe, S. point C. Grego, S. E.	Afia	Syria	Medit. Sca	35 40 N. 34 35 N. 34 57 N.	35 08 E. 33 41 E. 34 36 E.	
Dabu! Dahlak Iffes of Danger	Afia Afia Afia	India Arabia Society Isles	Arabian Sea Red Sea Pacif. Ocean	18 24 N. 15 50 N. 10 15 S.	73 33 E. 41 44 E. 165 50 W.	
I. Dageroort Light-house Dantzic Str. Dardanels Gulph Darien Dartmouth	Eu. Eu. Am. Eu.	Livonia Poland Turkey Terra Firma England	Baltic Sea Baltic Sea Archipelago Caribbean Sea Eng. Channel	58 55 N. 54 22 N. 40 10 N. 8 45 N. 50 27 N.	22 32 E. 18 36 E. 26 26 E. 76 35 W. 3 36 W.	6h. 30m.
T. Dauphin St. David's Head Fort St. David's L. Defeada C. Defeada	Am.	Louisiana Wales India Carib. Isles	G. Mexico St. Geo. Ch. Corom. Coaft	29 40 N. 51 55 N. 12 05 N. 16 36 N. 53 4 S.	87 53 W. 5 22 W. 80 55 E. 61 10 W. 74 13 W.	6 00
C. Defire C. Defolation Devil's Ifles Dewpoint	Eu. Am. Eu. Afia	Nova Zem. Greenland Greenland India	North Ocean North Ocean North Ocean B. Bengal	77 45 N. 61 45 N. 80 00 N. 16 07 N. 5 0 45 S.	79 20 E. 47 00 W. 11 43 E. 81 47 E.	=
I. Diego Rayes I. Diego Garcia Str. Diemen I. Dieu Dieppe	Africa Afia Eu.	India Japan Isles France	Indian Ocean Indian Ocean Pacif. Ocean Bay of Bifcay Eng. Channel	0 30 N. 8 45 S. 31 12 N. 46 26 N. 49 55 N.	70 25 E. 68 10 E. 130 55 E. 2 20 W. 1 12 E.	10 30
Digge's, or Dudley's } Cape C. Diggs Po. Diu C. Dobbs	Am. Afia Am.	Greenland Labradore India NorthWales	Baffin's Bay Hudfon's Bay Indian Ocean Hudfon's Bay	76 48 N. 62 45 N. 21 37 N. 65 10 N.	59 07 W. 78 50 W. 70 28 E. 86 25 W.	
Doface St. Domingo Hispatiola I. Dominio a Dordrecht	Am.	Antilles Caribbee	Indian Ocean Atl. Ocean Atl. Ocean R. Maes	16 24 N. 18 25 N. 15 18 N. 52 00 N.	53 40 E. 69 30 W. 61 28 W. 4 26 E.	en de de la companya del la companya de la companya
I. Dofel	Eu. Eu.	Turkey D. Neth. Livonia	Indian Ocean Archipelago Germ, Ocean Baltic Sea Indian Ocean	10 15 N. 38 02 N. 51 47 N. 58 20 N. 5 15 N.	50 44 E. 25 12 E. 4 40 E. 23 00 E. 49 24 E.	3 00
Doner	Eu.	England	Eng. Channel Germ. Ocean	51 07 N. 51 25 N.	1 19 E. 1 1 27 E.	I 30 I 15

Ī	Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Coaft.	Latitude.	Longitude.	H.V	Vater.
-					0		-	
I	o. Dradate	Africa	Egypt	Red Sea	19 56 N.	37 40 E.		
	o. Drake, fir Francis		California	Pacif. Ocean	38 45 N.	37 40 E. 128 35 W. 11 08 E.		
I	Prontheim	Eu.		North Ocean	63 26 N.	11 08 E.		
	Dublin	Eu.		Irish Sea	53 21 N.	6 5 W.		.15m
		Eu. Eu.		Germ. Ocean Irish Sea	55 58 N.	2 22 W. 6 28 W.	2	30
				Germ. Ocean	53 57 N. 56 26 N.	2 48 W.	2	15
			Ireland	Atl. Ocean	51 57 N.	7 55 W.	4	30
		Eu.	England	Eng. Channel	50 53 N.	o 59 E.	9	45
Ī		Eu.	Scotland	Germ. Ocean	58 40 N.	2 57 W.	1	
I	Dunkirk	Eu.	France	Germ. Ocean	51 02 N.	2 27 E.	0	00
10	Dunnose	Eu.	I. White	Eng. Channel	50 34 N.	1 15 W.	9	45
	Durazzo	Eu. Afia	Turkey N. Zealand	Medit. Sea Pacif. Ocean	41 58 N. 45 47 S.	25 00 E. 166 23 E.		
L	Dufky Bay	Alla	N. Zicarand	acii. Occaii	45 47 S.	100 23 2.	10	57
0	C. East	Am.	Statenland	Stra. le Maire	54 54 S.	64 47 W.		
	Eafter Iff.	Am.	Chili	Pacif. Ocean	27 7 S.	109 42 W.	2	00
	Edinburgh	Eu.	Scotland	Germ. Ocean	55 58 N.	3 7 W.	4	30
	Edyftone	Eu. Afia	England	Eng. Channel Pacif. Ocean	50 8 N.	4 20W.	5	30
	Egmont Ifle C. Egmont	Afia	N. Zealand	Pacif. Ocean	19 20 S.	172 15 E		
	. Elba	Eu.	Italy	Mediterran.	42 52 N.	173 45 E. 10 38 E.		
	R. Elbe mouth	Eu.	Germany	Germ. Ocean	54 18 N.	7 10 E.	0	00
	Elbing	Eu.	Poland	Baltic Sea	54 12 N.		1,000	
	Elfingburgh	Eu.	Sweden	Baltic Sea	56 00 N.	13 35 E.	1	
	Elfinore	Eu.	Denmark	Baltic Sea	56 00 N.	13 23 E.		
I	. Elutheria { N.point S. point	Am.	Bahama	Atl. Ocean	{25 45 N. 24 57 N.	75 53 W.		
	Embden	Eu.	Germany	Germ. Ocean	53 05 N.	7 26 E.		00
	R. Emes mouth	Eu.	Germany	Germ. Ocean	53 10 N.		7	30
	Enchuyfen	Eu. Afia	D. Neth. N. Holland	Zuyder Sea Pacif. Ocean	52 43 N. 15 26 S.		0	00
	Endeavour R. Engano, or 7							
^	Trompouse }	Am.	Sumatra	Indian Ocean	6 00 S.	102 35 E.		
	3. Enhora	Eu.	Greenland	North Sea	78 45 N.			
	Sphefus	Afia	Natolia N. Hebrides	Archipelago Pacif. Ocean	38 00 N.			
	Erramanga Frances	Afia Eu.	France	Eng. Channel	18 44 S. 50 34 N.	169 20 E. 1 42 E.	1.7	00
	Estaples Enstatia	Am.	Caribbee	Atl. Ocean	17 30 N.	63 14 W.	1.	00
	Exuma F	Am.	Baliania	Atl. Ocean	23 25 N.	75 35 W.		
١,	Fairhead	Eu.	Ireland	West. Ocean	55 19 N.	6 20 W.		
	C. Falcon		Barbary	Medit. Sea	36 03 N.	0 14 W.		
	(E. end				551 05 S.	56 40 W.		
	. Falkland III. A-nifant	Am.	l'atagonia	Atl. Ocean	1 52 27 S.	61 53 W.		
	Falmouth	Eu.	England	Eng. Channel	50 8 N.		5	30
	C. Falo	Eu.	Turkey	Archipelago	40 12 N.			
	C. Falfo		Carfors	Indian Ocean	34 16 S.			
	C. Falfo Falfterbom	Eu.	Zanguebar Sweden	Indian Ocean Baltic Sea	8 52 S.			
	raliterdom L. Fana	Eu.	Turkey	Medit. Sea	55 20 N. 40 14 N.			
	R. Farite		Egypt	Red Sea	21 40 N.			
	Fare Heal	Eu.	Scotland	Weil. Ocean	58 40 N.		}	
	C. Frewell	Afia	N. Zealand	Pacif. Ocean	40 35 S.	172 47 E.		
111	C. Farwed	Am.	Greenland	North Ocean	59 37 N.	42 37 W.		
	C. Frenck	Afla	Arabia	Indian Ocean	15 41 N.			
	C. Feli:	Am.	Carolina	Atl. Ocean	34 C4 N.			
	I Descript No. 1	Δ	Pestel	Ant Change	0 06 6	0 0 0 13/		
	I. Fernand Normal v	Am.	Brafil	Atl. Occur Medit. Sea	3 56 S.	32 23 W.		
	 Fernand Normal u Fondar, Lapan the: Fernana 	Am. Eu.	Brafil Turkey	Atl. Ocean Medit. Sea Archipelago	3 56 5. 35 33 N. 37 24 N.	14 51 E.		

Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Coaft.	Latitude.	Longitude.	H. Water.
		0 11	4.1.0	0 627	0 ,	
I. Ferro	Africa	Canarics	Atl. Ocean	27 48 N.	17 40 W.	
C. Finisterre	Eu.	Spain	Atl. Ocean	42 52 N.	9 16W.	
I. Fironda	Afia	Corea	Pacif. Ocean	33 30 N.	127 25 E.	
Flamborough Head	Eu.	England	Germ. Ocean	54 08 N.	0 11 E.	4h.oom.
I. Flores	Eu.	Azores	Atl. Ocean	39 34 N.	30 59 W.	-
C. Florida	Am.	Florida	G. Mexico	25 50 N.	80 20 W.	7 30
Flushing	Eu.	D. Neth.	Germ. Ocean	51 33 N.	3 20 W.	0 45
I. Fly	Eu.	D. Neth.	Germ. Ocean	53 16 N.	5 35 E.	7 30
Forbisher's Straits	Am.	Greenland	Atl. Ocean	62 05 N.	47 18 W.	
North Foreland	Eu.	England	Germ. Ocean		1 25 E.	9 45
South Foreland	Eu.	England	Eng. Channel		1 24 E.	9 45
Foreland Fair	Eu.	Ireland	North Ocean	55 05 N.	6 30 W.	
Foreland Fair	Eu.	Greenland	North Ocean	79 18 N.	10 50 E.	
Foreland Merchants	Am.	Greenland	North Ocean	63 20 N.	17 05 W.	
I. Formentaria	Eu.	Spain	Medit. Sea	38-33 N.	1 15 E.	
I. Formigas	Eu.	Azores	Atl. Ocean	37 17 N.	24 43 W.	
C. Formela		Guinca	Eth. Sea	4 22 N.	5 43 E.	
R. Formofa		Guinea	Eth. Sea	6 10 N.	4 49 E.	
I. Formofa $\begin{cases} N_{\bullet} \text{ point} \\ S_{\bullet} \text{ point} \end{cases}$	Afia ·	China	Indian Ocean	\$21 25 N. 22 00 N.	121 25 E. 120 40 E.	
I. Forteventura, S. W. end	Africa	Canaries	Atl. Ocean	28 35 N.	14 04 W.	4
Foulness	Eu.	England	Germ. Ocean	52 57 N.	0 58 E.	6 45
Foulfound	Eu.	Greenland	North Ocean	77 30 N.	12 50 E.	
Fowey	Eu.	England .	Eng. Channel	50 25 N.	4 30 W.	5 15
I. France, P. Louis	Africa	Madagascar	Indian Ocean	20 10 S.	57 33 E.	
C. St. Francis	Am.	Peru	Pacif. Ocean	0 30 N.	80 35 W.	1
I. St. Francisco	Africa	Zanguebar	Indian Ocean	6 23 S.	53 22 E.	
R. St. Francisco	Am.	Brafil	Atl. Ocean	10 55 S.	36 30 W.	1
C. Francois	Am.	Domingo	Atl. Occan	19 47 N.	72 15 W.	
Frederickstadt	Eu.	Norway	Sound	59 00 N.	11 10 E.	
French Keys	Am.	Bahama	Atl. Ocean	21 30 N.	72 10 W.	
Fretum Borough	Eu.	Ruffia	North Ocean	70 00 N.	61 20 E.	
C. Frio	Am.	Brafil	Atl. Ocean	23 00 S.	40 11 W.	
R. Fugor		Zanguebar	Indian Ocean	00 10 N.	42 05 E.	
I. Fuego		De Verd	Atl. Ocean	14 55 N.	24 28 W.	
Furneaux Island	Afia	Soc. Ifies	Pacif. Ocean	17 11 S.	143 07 W.	
B. Fushan	Afia	China	Pacif. Ocean	23 00 N.	112 35 E.	
I. Fyal	Eu.	Azores	Atl. Ocean	38 32 N.	28 36 W.	2 20
G						
I. Galla	Am.		Pacif. Ocean	2 40 N.	79 35 W.	
R. Gallega	Am.	Patagonia	Atl. Ocean	51 37 S.	65 35 W.	
I. Gallego	Am.		Pacif. Ocean	1 40 N.	104 35 W.	
Gallipoli	Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sca	40 19 N.	18 08 E.	
Gallipoly	Eu.	Turkey	Archipelago	40 36 N.	27 02 E.	
I. Gallita	Africa	Barbary	Medit. Sea	37 42 N.	9 03 E.	
C. Gallo	Afia	I. Ceylon	Indian Ocean	6 15 N.	80 20 E.	
Is. Gallepago	Am.	Peru	Pacif. Ocean	{ 2 00 N. 2 00 S.	89 00 11.	l .
Gally Head	Eu.	Ireland	West. Ocean	52 40 N.	9 30 W	
Galway	Eu.	Ireland	West, Occan	53 10 N.	10 03 W.	
R. Gambia	Africa		Atl. Ocean	13 00 N.	14 58 W.	
I. Gamo	Afia	India	Indian Ocean	3 05 S.	77 25 E.	
C. Gardafui	Africa		Indian Ocean	11 48 N.	50 25 E.	
R. Garronne	Eu.	France	P. Bifcay	45 30 N.	1 05 W.	3 00
Gaspey Bay	Am.	Acadia	G. St. Lawr.	48 49 N.	63 34 W	
C. de Gatt	Eu.	Spain	Medit. Sea	36 32 N.	2 05 W.	
C. Gear	Africa	Barbary	Atl. Ocean	30 35 N.	10 01 W.	1
Genoa	Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sea	44 25 N.	8 41 E.	
C. St. George	Am.	Newfoundl.		44 25 N. 48 28 N.	57 43 W.	
C. George	Am.	S. Georgia	Atl. Occan	54 17 S.	36 33 W.	
P. St. George	Am.	Newfoundl.	lAtl. Ocean	48 19 N.	57 30 W.	
1						

Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Coaft.	Latitude.	Longitude:	H.Water.
		27 . 1	A 1: 1	0 ,	0 ,	
I. St. George	Afia	Natolia	Archipelago	38 47 N.	25 07 E.	
	Fit.		Atl, Ocean	38 39 N.	23 00 W.	
St. George's Fort	Afia		B. Bengal	13 05 N.	80 34 F.	1
Gibraltar -	Eu.	Spain	Medit. Sea	36 05 N.	5 17 W.	oh.oom.
Gilbert's Island	Am.	T. del Fuego	Pacif. Ocean	55 13 S.	71 4W.	
I Gilolo S N. point	Afia	Saine In to	Tallian Ossan	5 2 30 N.	128 00 E.	
I. Gilolo S. point	Alla	Spice Islands	Indian Ocean	2 1 30 S.	129 25 E.	- 1165
Glafgow	Eu.	Scotland	R. Clyde	55 52 N.	4 10 W.	
Gloucester Isles	Afia	Society Ifles	Pacif. Ocean	19 11 S.	140 4 W.	
Gloucester Isles	Afia	Society Ifles	Indian Ocean	20 36 S.	146 7W.	
Goa	Afia	India	Malabar	15 31 N.	73 50 E.	# 11 =0
Goes	Eu.	D. Neth.	Germ. Ocean	51 39 N.	4 05 E.	
Golfe trifte	Am.	Terra Firma	Carrib. Sea	10 20 N.	67 40 W.	
Gombroon	Afil	Perfia	Perfian Gulf	27 40 N.	55 20 E.	
I. Gomero	Africa		Atl. Ocean	28 c6 N.	17 03 W.	
	Afia	India	B. Bengal	16 55 N.		8 5
C. Gondewar	Africa		Indian Ocean			3 00
C. Good Hope		i				3 00
I. Gorea	Africa		Atl, Ocean	14 40 N	17 20 W.	1
I. Gorgona	Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sca	43 21 N.		1
I. Goth- N. end	_	C .	D 1: 0	58 co N.		
I.Goth- N. end S. end	Eu.	Sweden	Baltic Sca	3 56 58 N.		
Wilby				6 57 40 N	. 19 50 E.	
I. Goto	Afia	Corea	Pacif. Ocean	34 25 N		
Gottenberg	Eu.	Sweden	Sound	57 42 N	. 11 44 E.	
Gottingen	Eu.	Germany	Inland	51 32 N	9 58 E.	
Gower's Ife	Afia	N. Britain	Pacif. Ocean	7 56 S	. 158 56 E.	1 9
R. Grand	Am	Paraguay	Atl. Qcean	31 58 S	. 50 35 W.	
A Granville	Eu.	France	Eng. Channel		. 1 32 W	7 00
C. De Grat	Am.	Newfoundl,	Atl. Ocean	51 36 N	. 55 33 W	
1. Gratiofa	Afric:		Atl. Ocean	2.9 15 N		
I. Gratiofa	Eu.	Azores	Atl. Ocean	39 02 N		
C. Gratios a Dios	Am.	New Spain	Carribbe. Sea		. 82 15 W	1 12
Graveline	Eu.	France	Eng. Channel			
Gravefend	Eu.	England	R. Thames		. 0 20 E	
I. Grenada	Am.	Carribbee	Atl. Ocean	0 01		
Greenwich	Eu.	England	R. Thames			
C. Gremia	1	Turkey		2 2		
	Eu.		Archipelago	40 33 N		
Gripfwald	Eu.	Germiny	Baltic Sea	54 04 N		1
Grinceflay	Eu.	England	Germ. Occan	1 33 30 27		
Groin, or C. Corunn.		Spain	B. Bifcay	43 28 N		
I. Gray	Am.	Newfoundl.	Atl. Ocean	50 56 N		
I. Guadaloupe	Am.	Carribbee	Atl. Ocean	16 00 N		
Guayaquil	Am.	Peru	Pacif. Ocean	2 10 8		
I. Guernfey	Eu.	England	Eng. Channe	1 1 2 2 .		
Gulf	Eu.	Frigund	St. Geo. Ch.	50 06 N		
Gurjef	Afia	Aftracan	Caspian Sea	47 7 N	52 02 E	
H						
Hacluit's Headland	En.	Greenland	North Ocean	79 55 N		
1.Hai- N. E. poin nam S. W. poin	Afia	China	Indian Ocean	\$ 19 45 1	1. 110 13 E	
nam S.W. Join	t rina			1 2 18 22 N	108 13 L	
Halifax	Am.	Nova Scotis		44 46 N	1. 63 20 W	. 3
I. H.II	Am.	Greenland	Atl. Occan	63 56 N	1. 44 26 VV	
Hallitard	Eu.	Iceland	North Ocean			
H m orgh	Eu.	Germany	R. Flbe	53 34 N		
Hart 1 le	Am.	Canada	R. St. Lawr.			
Harlen	1Eu.	D. Neth.	Germ. Ocean		4 10 1	.1 6
Hart, and Point	Fu.	England	Brittol Ci-an.		4 35 4	
Hartley of	Eu.	England	Germ. Occas	54 40	0 50 5	
Harwich	Eu.	England	Gerin. Ocea		1 13	
C. Hoteris	A:n.	Carolina	Atl. Ocean		10 2	
Harmah	Am.		Atl. Ocean			
Harrie le Grace	Eu.	Franci	Eng Clara			
	1 4-11		11.08 (. (1)	1 49 35 7	•	

	_			100		
Names of Places,	Cont.	Countries.	Coaft.	Latitude.	Longitude.	H. Water.
Hawke's Bay I. St. Helena Helie's Sound Is. Heligh's Land C. Henlopen C. Henrighta Maria C. Henry Hervey's Isle I. Heys High Mount Hinchingbrook I.	Afia Africa Eu. Eu. Am. Am. Afia Eu. Eu.	France Greenland	Pacif. Ocean Atl. Ocean North Ocean North Ocean Atl. Ocean Hudfon's Bay Atl. Ocean Pacif. Ocean B. Bifcay North Ocean Pacif. Ocean	39 30 S. 15 55 S. 79 15 N. 38 48 N. 55 10 N. 37 00 N. 19 17 S. 46 24 N. 83 23 N. 17 25 S.	177 6 E. 5 44 W. 12 50 E. 9 30 E. 75 08 W. 84 00 W. 76 23 W. 158 43 W. 214 W. 26 40 E. 168 38 E.	12h. oom
C. Tiberoom, W. pt. S. Louis				18 17 N. 18 19 N.	74 24 W. 73 11 W.	
Po. Grave St. Domingo	Am.	Antilles	Atl. Ocean	19 50 N. 18 28 N. 18 25 N.	73 18 W. 72 42 W. 69 30 W.	
C. Raphael N. E. pt. Hoghies W. limit	Am.	Bahama	Atl. Ocean	19 05 N. 21 41 N. 25 30 S.	68 30 W. 73 25 W.	-
N. Ditto N. Ditto S. Ditto H E. Ditto	Afia	C:1	Indian Ocean	12 35 S. 43 38 S. 27 10 S.	141 31 E. 146 00 E. 153 39 E.	
Holy Cape Holy Head C. Honduras B. Hondy, I. Cuba	Afia Eu. Am.	Siberia Wales New Spain Antilles	North Ocean Irish Sea Caribbean Sea Atl. Ocean	72 32 N. 53 23 N. 16 18 N. 22 54 N.	179 45 E. 4 40 W. 85 23 W. 82 40 W.	1 30
Honfleur Hood's Isle Hope Isle	Eu. Afia Eu.	France Marquefas Greenland	R. Seine Pacif. Ocean North Ocean	49 24 N. 9 26 S. 76 22 N.	o 20 E. 138 47 W. 23 40 E.	9 00
C. Horn Hornfound La Hogue Howe's Isle	Am. Eu. Eu. Afia	Greenland France	Pacif. Ocean North Ocean Eng. Channel Pacif. Ocean	55 59 S. 76 41 N. 49 45 N. 16 46 S.	67 21 W. 13 36 E. 1 52 W. 154 2 W.	
C. How R. Hughly Hull	Afia Àfia Eu.	N. Holland India England	Pacif. Ocean B. Bengal R. Humber	37 24 S. 21 45 N. 53 50 N.	150 00 E. 89 15 E. 0 28 W.	6 00
R. Humber, Ent. I. Hyneago	Eu. Am.	England Bahama	Atl. Ocean	53 55 N. 21 27 N.	0 24 E. 73 29 W.	5 13
Jado C. Jaffanapatan I. Jago Jakutikoi	Afia Afia Africa Afia	Japan I. Ceylon C. Verd Siberia	Pacif. Ocean Indian Ocean Atl. Ocean Pacif. Ocean	36 co N. 9 47 N. 15 07 N. 62 2 N.	139 40 E. 80 55 E. 23 30 W. 129 52 E.	
West end Port Royal East End	Am.	West Indies	Atl. Ocean	18 45 N. 18 co N. 17 58 N.	78 00 W. 76 40 W. 76 05 W. 76 00 W.	
James Town R. Janeiro Japan Isles	Am. Am.	Virginia Brafil	B. Chefapeak Atl. Ocean Pacif. Ocean	37 30 N. 22 54 S. \$40 40 N.	42 40 W.	
East limit	Afia	Siam	Indian Ocean	31 45 N. 6 50 S. 7 00 S. 8 30 S.	126 10 E. 105 15 E. 115 55 E.	
Ice Cove Ice Point Ice Sound	Am. Eu. Eu.	Nova Zem. Greenland	Hudf. Straits North. Ocean North Ocean	62 20 N. 77 40 N 78 13 N.	69 00 W. 69 10 E. 12 00 E.	10 00
I. Jerfey Jerufalem I. Hay, S. pt.		England Palestine Scotland	urg. Channel Inland Wee. Ocean	49 07 N. 31 55 N. 55 39 N.	2 26 W. 35 25 E. 6 20 W.	

						-
Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Coast.	Latitude.	Longitude.	H. Water.
The Table	Afia		To I'm O	0 / N	0 , E	
R. Indus		India	Indian Ocean		66 33 E.	
Inverness	Eu.	Scotland	Germ. Ocean		4 02 W.	
I. Joanna Juddah	Afia	Zanguebar Arabia	Indian Ocean Red Sea	12 05 S. 22 00 N.	45 45 E.	- 1
	Am.	Newfoundl.	Atl. Ocean	50 08 N	39 27 E.	
C. St. John		Maiumbo	Eth. Ocean	750 00 IV.	55 32 W.	
C. St. John	Am.		Atl. Ocean	1 17 N. 47 34 N.	9 34 E. 52 18 W.	6h. om.
St. John's			Bay St. Lau-	47 34 N. 46 30 N.	62 03 W.	0116 01116
I. St. John E. pt. N. pt.	Am.	Canada }	rence	4	64 05 W.	
I. St. John de Nova	Africa	Madagascar	Indian Ocean	47 07 N.	44 02 E.	
St. John de Luz	Eu.	France	B. Bifcay	43 10 N.	1 38 W.	3 30
Cape Jones	Am.		Hudfon's Bay	58 50 N.	79 00 W	2 20
Joppa	Afia	Syria	Levant	32 45 N.	36 00 E.	
Jones Sound	Am.	Greenland	Baffin's Bay	3	91 30 W.	
St. Joseph	Am.	California	Pacif. Ocean	71 07 N. 23 3 S.	109 35 W.	,
Ipfwich	Eu.	England	Germ. Ocean	52 14 N.	1 00 E.	
Ifpahan	Afja	Perfia	R. Zenduro	32 25 N.	52 55 E.	
C. St. Juan	Am.	Statenland	Atl. Occan	54 47 S.	63 42 W.	
I. Juan Fernandez	Am.		Pacif. Ocean	2 1 17	78 37 W.	
Port. St. Julian	Am.	Patagonia	S. Atl. Ocean		66 10 W.	4 45
I. Ivica	Eu.	Spain	Medit. Sea	49 10 S. 38 54 N.	1 15 E.	T T3
K K	2.4.	-Paris		20 24 14.	1 12 2.	
Kalmer	Eu.	S:weden	Baltic Sea	56 40 N	17 25 E.	
Kambaya	Afia	India	Indian Ocean		72 50 E.	
CLower				23 36 N. 56 11 N.	159 25 E.	
Kamtschatka Lower Upper	Asia	Siberia	Pacif. Ocean	\$ 56 II N. 2 54 48 N.	157 25 E.	
L Karaghinfkoy	Afia	Siberia	Pacif. Ocean	58 00 N.	162 10 E.	
I. St. Katharine's	Am.	Brafil	Atl. Ocean	27 35 S.	49 12 W.	
Keco	Afia	Tonquin	Indian Ocean	21 55 N.	100 10 E.	
Kegor	Eu.	Muscovy	North Ocean	21 55 N. 70 18 N.	34 00 E.	
R. Kennebeck	Am.	N. England	Atl. Ocean	44 00 N.	69 45 W.	
Kentish Knock, a ?		-		2pp 00 141	09 45 110	
fand	Eu,	England	Germ. Ocean	51 42 N.	1 45 E.	0 00
I. St. Kilda	Eu.	Scotland	West. Ocean	57 44 N.	8 18 W.	
I. Kilduin	Eu.	Lapland	North Ocean	69 30 N.	31 20 E.	7 35
Kinfale	Eu.	Ireland	Atl. Ocean	51 32 N.	9 0: W.	5 15
Klip	Eu.	Greenland	North Ocean	80 10 N.	12 22 E.	2 ,2
R. Keli	Eu.	Larland	North Ocean	68 53 N.	33 c8 E.	
C. Kol	Eu.	Sweden	Sound	56 50 N.	12 13 E.	
Port Komel	1		Red Sea	22 30 N.	36 17 E.	
11				5 10 48 S.	44 45 E.	
Komero Ifles	Africa	Zinguebar	Indian Ocean	213 10 S.	44 45 E.	
R. Kowimia	Afia	Siberia	North Ocean	70 40 N.	159 co E.	
				10 40 111	- 29 20 20	
Ladrone, or Marian }	1.0		2 10 0	521 00 N.	144 00 E.	
liles	Afia.		Pacif. Ocean	213 15 N.	142 55 E.	
C. L'Algulle	Africa	Caffraria	Indian Ocean	34 50 S.	20 c6 E.	
Lancaster	Eu.		St. Guo, Ch.	54 42 N.	4 36 W.	
I. Lancerota			Atl. Ocean	29 10 N.	13 20 W.	
Land's End	Eu.		St. Geo. Ch.	50 06 N.	5 50 W.	7 30
Langeness	Eu.		North Occan	74 40 N	53 36 E.	/ 30
I. Lambay			Irith Sea	53 24 N	7 30 W.	S 15
I. Lumpallofa	Africa		Medit. Sea	35 32 N.	12 45 E.	- "
B. St. Lazarus			Pacif. Ocean	48 42 5.	73 35 W.	
C. Leis	Africa.		Atl. Ocean	9 2.1 8.	12 55 E.	
Leith	Eu.		Germ. Ocean	55 50 37.	2 69 W.	4 30
Leghorn	Eu.		Medit. Sea	43 33 N.	10 25 E.	1 2 .
1. Lemin e	Ana		Archinelaro	40 02 N.	25 36 E.	
C. Lengua	Eu.		Medit, and	40 44 N.	19 26 F.	
Leaftort	Eu.		Gorm. Occ. r		1 54 L.	9 45
Leganto	Eu.	Turkey	Melit Sat	52 38 N	22 03 E.	2 -13
Laper's life	Afia	N. Hebrides		15 23 5	11.7 5; E.	
	-			-		-

1		-				-	
1	Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Coaft.	Latirude.	Longitude.	H. Water
				Sound	57 of N.	0 6 E.	
				Irish Sea	53 22 N.		11h.15m
			Scotland	West. Ocean	58 35 N.	6 37 W.	6 30
				Pacif. Ocean	29 58 N	120 23 E.	
		Am. Eu.		Pacif. Ocean	12 01 S.	76 44 W.	7 00
		Eu.	Ireland	Eng. Channel R. Shannon	50 45 N.	3 15 W.	7 00
		Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sea	52 22 N. 36 oS N.	13 01 E.	
		Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sea	33 35 N.	15 31 E.	
	I. Liqueo	Afia	Japan	Pacif. Ocean	28 00 N.	127 30 E.	
	Lifbon	Eu.		R. Tagus	38 42 N.	9 4 W.	2 15
	Lifbon Rock	Eu.	Portugal	West. Ocean	38 42 N.	9 25 W	
	C. Lisburne	Afia		Pacif. Ocean	15 41 S.	166 57 W.	
- 0	I. Liffa	Eu.	Dalmatia	Adriatic Sea	42 56 N.	18 32 E.	
	Lizard	Eu.	England	Eng. Channel	49 57 N.	5 10 W.	7 30
	ifles S.W. end Loffout N.E. end	Eu.	Norway	North Ocean	5 68 15 N.	10 20 E.	
	R. Loire, Ent.	Eu.	France	B. Bifcay	69 00 N. 47 07 N.	2 05 W.	1
	London	Eu.	England	R. Thames	51 32 N.	0 00	3 00
	New London	Am.		Weit. Ocean	41 50 N.	72 14 W	1 3
	Londonderry	Eu.	Ireland	Weit. Ocean	55 OI N.	7 31 W	
-11	Long Ifle	Am.	N. England		41 co N.	{71 59 W 74 20 W	
1	I. Longo	Eu.	Dalmatia	Adriat. Sea	43 45 N.	17 58 E.	. 3 00
	Longfand Head	Eu.	England	Germ. Ocean	1		
	Lookout Point	Eu.	Greenland	North Ocean	51 47 N. 76 40 N.	16 25 E	
	C. Lopas		Loango	Atl. Ocean	0 47 S.	8 30 E.	
	B. St. Louis	Am.	Louifiana	G. Mexico	28 50 N.	97 08 W	
	Louisbourg	Am.	C. Breton	B. St. Law.	45 54 N.		
	Lubec	Eu.	Germany	Baltic Sea	54 GO N.		
	C. St. Lucar	Am.	California	Pacif. Ocean	23 15 N.	109 40 W	
	R. Lucia		Caffers	Indian Ocean	27 52 S.	33 25 E	
	I. St. Lucia	1	C. de Verd	Atl. Ocean	16 43 N.	24 33 W	
	I. St. Lucia	Am.	Caribbee	Atl. Ocean	13 25 N.	60 46 W	
1	N. E. point	1		1	19 25 N.		
	E C. Bajador	1.	101.11.50	D 14 0	18 50 N.		•
	Manilla C W mine	Afia	Phil. Ifles	Pacif. Ocean	14 36 N.		
	S. W. point E. point		1		13 30 N.		
	Lunden	F		Dalata Car	14 CO N.		
	I. Lundy	Eu Eu.	Swelen England	Baltic Sea St. Geo. Ch.	55 42 N		
	Lupis's Head	Eû.	England	West. Ocean	51 20 N 52 24 N	4 04 W	
	Lynn	Eu.	England	Germ. Ocean			
	M	1.00	Distand	Joenne Oct.al	32 40 1	1 32 5	. 6 45
	C. Mabo	Afia	New Guine	a Pacif. Ocean	0 40 S.	130 05 E	
	Macao, or Makau	Afia	China	Pacif. Geenn	22 12 N		
	Macailar	Afia	I. Celebes	Pacif. Ocean			
	C. Machian	Eu.	Spain	B. Bifcay	43 44 N		
	C. St. Mary, S.				25 24 5		
	p int			1	1 1		
	B. St. Augustine				7 /		1
	Terra de Gada C. St. Andrew			1	10 36 5		
	C. St. Andrew	16.		Jelles O.	15 46 5		
	Terra de Gada C. St. Andrew C. St. Schallian C. de Ambre ?	Afric		Indian Ocea			•
	N. point				12 15 8	. 50 15 E	-
	B. d'Antongil			1	16 cc S	. 44 40 E	
	Antavare	4 .			20 57 5		1
	Po. Dauphin			1		·] . 48 00 \$	
	T. Ma- { Funchal W. ond	Afric	Canaries	Att. Green	1532 38 N		,
	Madrafs W. ond				232 25 N		
	MINISTRIS	Alia	India	Ja Hai Occas	13 5 N	. 50 34 F	

Madrid

Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Coaft.	Latitu de.	Longitude.	H. Water
				0		
Madrid	Eu.	Spain	R. Manzana	40 25 N.	03 21 W	
Madura		India	Indian Ocean	10 15 N.	78 35 E.	
R. Maes, Mouth	Eu,	D. Neth.	Germ. Ocean	52 06 N:	3 50 E.	1h. 30m
Str. Le Maire	Am.	Patagonia	Atl. Ocean	54 51 S.	65 00 W.	
Magadoxa	Africa		Indian Ocean	2 53 N.	45 25 E.	
etr. Ma- CE. ent.	Am.		Atl. Ocean	52 30 S.	67 50 W.	
Str. Ma- { E. ent. gellan } W. ent.		Patagonia	Pacif. Ocean	52 55 S.	74 18 W.	-
Magifiland			Malabar Coa.	12 10 N.	74 14 E.	
I. Maguana	Am.	Bahama I.	Atl. Ocean	22 36 N.	72 25 W.	
P. Mahon, Isle Minorca	Eu.	Spain	Medit. Sea	39 51 N.	3 53 E.	
Majorca, M. Ma-	Eu.	Spain	Medit. Sea	39 35 N.	2 35 E.	
jorca , S C. Mala	Eu.	Turkey	Archipelago	37 20 N.	24 07 E.	
Matacca	Afia	India	Str. Malacca	2 12 N.	102 10 E.	
Malaga	Eu,	Spain	Medit. Sea	36 43 N.	4 02 W.	
Isles Mal- 7 N. end	Afia	India		7 20 N.	73 03 E.	
Isles Mal- N. end dive S. end	Alla	India	Indian Ocean	2 0 20 S.	76 10 E.	
Maleitroom Whirl-	Eu.	Norway	Weat. Ocean	68 os N.	10 40 E.	
I. Malique	Afia	Maldive I.	Indian Ocean	7 45 N.	72 40 E.	
St. Maloes	Eu.	France	Eng. Channel	7 45 N. 48 39 N.	1 57 W.	6 00
I. Malta	Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sea	35 54 N.	14 28 E.	
I. Man, W. end	Eu.	England	Irish Sea	53 45 N.	5 00 W.	
Mangalore	Afia	India	Indian Ocean		75 10 E.	
Manilla	Afia	I. Luconia	Pacif. Ocean	14 36 N.	120 58 E.	
I. Mansfield, N. pt.	Am.	New Britain	Hudion's Bay	62 38 N.	80 33 W.	
I. Manfia	Africa	Zanguebar	Indian Ocean	8 36 S.	40 40 E,	
I. Mardou	Eu.	Norway	Sound	58 14 N.	8 55 E.	
I. Margarita	Am.		Atl. Ocean	11 15 N.	63 35 W.	
R. Maragnon	Am.	Brafil	Atl. Ocean	1 48 S.	44 17 W.	
Margate	Eu.	England	Eng. Channel	51 29 N.	1 10 E.	11 15
C. St. Maria	Eu.	Portugal	Atl. Ocean	36 45 N.	7 45 W.	
C. St. Maria, or Luci-	Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sea	40 04 N.	18 31 E	
Marian or 7 N. lim.	10.5		D 11.0	(21 00 N.	144 00 E.	
Ladrone >	Afia	hetrodropa-terropas	Pacif. Ocean	13		
Itles JS. lim.	C.	1	1.1.0	L 13 15 N.	142 55 E.	
I. St. Maries	Eu,	Azores	Atl. Ocean	37 CO N.		
St. Maries	Eu.	West Indie:	Eng. Channel			
I. Marigallante	Am. Eu.	India	Atl. Ocean	16 GO N.		
I. Maritimo, Sicily Marquela H.	Afia	111111	Medit. Sea Pacif. Ocean	38 04 N.		
C. Martelo	Eu.	Tuckey	Medit. Sea	9 56 N. 38 00 N.	139 00 W.	
St. Martha	Am.		Atl. Ocean	11 26 N.		
I. St. Martin		West Indies		18 c6 N.		
C. St. Martin		Caffers	Atl. Ocean	32 08 S.		
C. St. Martin	hu.	Spain	Medit. Sea	38 44 N.		
I. Martinique, Port }	Am.		Atl. Ocean	14 36 N.	1	1
Marfeller	Eu.	F: ance	Medit, Sea	1 .	-	
C. St. Mary	Ain.	Newfoundl.		43 18 N. 46 52 N.) '	
C. St. Mary	Ain.	Brafil	Atl. Ocean	34 52 5	52 55 W.	
C. St. May	Afia	Natolia	Archipelago	37 46 N	27 21 E.	
C. St. Mark	Eu,	Spain	N. Atl. Ocean	36 46 N	7 40 W	
C. Vinsin Mary	Am.		S. Atl. Ocean		7 49 W. 63 10 W.	
Mid torre		Chili	Pacif. Quan			
I. Matter Lie		Z aguebar	Indian Ocean			
L. Makerall	An.	Pen	P. Lif. Ocean			
1000	After	Arabia	Indian Ogia			
				,		
Madeline His	Mi	N. Hetrita	Pacif Occar	16 32 S	167 59 E.	
	Mr.	N. Hebride Sweden	Pacif Ocean Sound	16 32 S 57 57 N		

Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Coaft.	Latitude.	Longitude.	H. Water.
				0,,	0 ,	
C. Matapan	Eu.	Turkey	Archipelago	36 25 N.	22 40 E.	1
I. Mathare	Afia	Japan	Pacif. Ocean	26 30 N.	137 00 E.	
1. St. Mathew's		Guinea	Eth. Ocean	1 23 S.	6 11 W.	
I. Mauritius		Madagafcar	Indian Ocean		57 33 E.	The second
Maurua L. May	Africa	C. Verd	Pacif. Ocean	16 26 S. 15 10 N.	152 33 W.	
C. May	Am.	Penfilvania	Atl. Ocean	39 15 N.	23 00 W.	= -
I. Mayette			Indian Ocean		74 43 W. 46 10 E.	
Mecca	AGa	Arabia	Red Sea	21 40 N.	41 00 E.	
Medina	AGa	Arabia	Red Sea	24 58 N.	39 53 E.	
I. Melada	Eu.	Dalmatia	Adriat. Sea	42 40 N.	19 34 E.	
Melinde	Africa	Zanguebar	Indian Ocean	3 07 S.	39 40 E.	100
I. Melo	Eu.	Turkey	Archipelago	36 41 N.	25 05 E.	
Memel	Eu.	Courland	Baltic Sea	55 48 N.	22 23 E.	
Memiffan	Eu.	France	B. Bifcay	44 20 N.	1 23 W.	3h.30m.
I. Menado	AGa	I. Celebes	Pacif. Ocean	1 36 N.	122 25 E.	
C. Mendozin	Am.	California N. Zooland	Pacif. Ocean	41 20 N.	130 15 W.	
Mercury Bay	Afia	N. Zealand Bahama	Pacif. Ocean Atl. Ocean	36 50 S.	175 12 E.	
R. Metaparvous Messina	Am. Eu.	1. Sicily	Medit. Sea	21 58 N.	74 13 W.	
C. Mesurato		Tripoli	Medit. Sca	38 21 N. 32 18 N.	16 21 E.	
C. Sigre	2211103	Lipon	Micare, oca	39 21 N.	16 36 E. 26 08 E.	
I. Mety- C. Sigre Metylene	Afia	Natolia	Archipelago	39 11 N.		
lene SPo. Olivie			The same of the sa	39 00 N.	26 47 E. 26 50 E.	
I. Meun	Eu.	Denmark	Baltic Sea	55 00 N.	13 15 E.	= 1
Mexico	Am.	Mexico	Inland	19 54 N.	100 of W.	
Miatea	Afia	Society Ifles	Pacif. Ocean	17 52 S.	148 1 W.	
1. St. Michael	Eu.	Azores	Atl. Ocean	37 45 N.	25 38 W.	
Middleburgh	Eu.	D. Neth.	Germ. Ocean	51 37 N.	3 58 E.	
Middleburgh, or ?	Afia	Friendly Iff.	Pacif. Ocean	21 21 S.		
Eaoowe 5				1	174 34 W.	
Milford	Eu.	Wales	St. Geo. Ch.	51 45 N.	5 15 W.	5 15
Milo, I. Milo	Afin	Turkey	Archipelago	36 41 N.	25 05 E.	
Mill Ifles	Am.	rvorth iviain	Hudson's Bay	64 36 N.	80 30 W.	
N. point				9 40 N.	124 25 E.	6.
S. E. pt. C. St. Augustine S. W. pt. Cal- dera	Afia	Spice Idands	Pacif. Ocean	6 40 N.	126 as E	
S. W. pt. Cal-		opice situates	acii. Occaii	0 40 11.	126 25 E.	
Z dera				7 00 N.	121 25 E.	
- (S. point				3 50 N.	124 43 E.	
I. Mindora	Afia	Philip. Ifles	Pacif. Ocean	13 00 N.	119 37 E.	
I. Mi- 7 N. W. pt.				§ 39 58 N.	3 54 E.	
norca S. E. pt.			Mediterran.	240 24 N.	4 18 E.	
G. Miquelon	Am.		Atl. Ocean	47 3 N.	56 13 W.	9
L. Miquelon	Am.		Atl. Ocean	46 50 N.	56 13 W.	
I. Mifco	Am.		G. St. Lawr.	48 04 N.	64 19 W.	
C. Miferata		Guinea	Atl. Ocean	6 25 N.	9 35 W.	
R. Mississippi, mouth		Louisiana Ireland	G. Mexico	29 00 N.	89 17 W.	
Mizen Head Mocha	Eu. Afia	Arabia	Atl. Ocean Red Sea	51 16 N.	10 20 W.	
Modon	Eu.	03 4	Medit. Sea	13 45 N.	44 04 E.	
I. Mohilla	Africa		Indian Ocean	3 33 . 1	21 03 E. 45 00 E.	
I. Monferat	Am.		Atl. Ocean	11 55 S. 16 48 N.	62 12 W.	
Montagu Isle			Pacif. Ocean	17 26 S.	163 36 E.	
Montreal	Am.	Canada	R. St. Lawr.	45 52 N.	73 11 W.	
I. Monte Christo			Medit. Sea	42 17 N.	10 28 E.	
C. Monte Sancto	Eu.	Turkey	Archipelago	40 27 N.	24 39 E.	
Monument		N. Hebrides	Pacif. Ocean		168 38 E.	
Mount St. Michael			Eng. Channel	17 14 S. 48 39 N.	1 35 W.	
I. Mergo			Archipelago	36 55 N.	26 30 E	
Morlaix Mort Point			Eng. Channel	48 30 N.	3 50 W.	
Mort Point	Eu.	England .	St. Geo.Ch.	51 12 N.	4 40 W.	

Mofambique

Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Coast.	Latitude.	Longitude.	H. Wat
				0 ,	0	
Molambique		Zanguebar	Indian Ocean	15 00 S.	41 40 E.	
Moscow	Eu.	Ruffia	R. Mofcow	55 45 N.	37 5: E.	
Mosquitos Bank	Am.	Mexico	Atl. Ocean	14 45 N.	80 05 W.	41
C. Mount	Africa	Guinea	Atl. Occan	7 12 N.	10 44 W.	
Mount's Bay	Eu.	England	Eng. Channel		5 45 W.	4h. 30
Mouse River	Am.	New Wales	Hudfon's Bay	51 25 N.	83 15 W.	
C. Mufaldon	Afia	Arabia	Perfian Gulf	26 04 N.	55 22 E.	
N	-				33	
C. Nabo	Afia	Japan	Pacif. Ocean	40 35 N.	141 25 E.	
	Afia	fanan	Pacif. Ocean	32 32 N.	128 50 E.	
Vangafack.	Afia	Japan China	Pacif. Ocean	32 32 N	120 30 L.	10
Vankin	Eu.			32 c7 N.	118 35 E.	2 00
Vantes	1		B. Bifcay	47 13 N.	1 29W.	3 00
Vantucket Ise	Am.	New Eng.	West. Ocean	41 34 N.	69 40 W.	
Vaples	Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sea	40 51 N.	14 19 E.	
Varhonne	Eu.	France	Medit. Sea	43 11 N.	3 05 E.	
Varlinga	Afia	India	B. Bengal	18 05 N.	85 20 E.	
Varva	Eu.	Livonia	G. Finland	59 08 N.	29 18 E.	- 4
. Naffau	Afia	Sumatra	Indian Ocean	3 co S.	100 25 E.	
. Naffau	Am.	Terra Firma		7 53 N.	58 07 W.	
laffau Str.	Eu.	Ruffia	North Ocean	69 55 N.	57 30 E.	
. Natal		Caffers	Indian Ocean	29 25 S.	33 10 E.	
Naxos	Eu.	Turkey	Archipelago	37 06 N.	25 58 E.	
	Eu.	Norway	West. Ocean	57 50 N.	7 32 E.	11 15
aze					7 32 1.	
leedles	Eu.	England	Eng. Channel	50 41 N.	1 28 W.	10 15
. Negrailles	Afia		B. Bengal	16 20 N.	94 15 E.	
. Negro		Caffers	Atl. Ocean	16 30 S.	11 30 E.	
. Negro	Africa	Barbary	Medit. Sea	37 17 N.	9 09 E.	
Tegropont	Eu.	Turkey	Archipelago	38 30 N.	24 05 E.	
ort Nelfon	Am.	New Wales	Hudlon's Bay	57 07 N.	92 37 W.	
ort Nelfon's Shoals	Am.		Hudfon's Bay	57 35 N.	92 07 W.	8 20
Nevis	Am.	Caribbeelfles		17 11 N.	02 52 W.	
Tewcastle	Eu.		Germ. Ocean	55 03 N.	1 28 W.	3 15
. Nicaragua	Am.		Atl. Ocean	11 40 N.	82 47 W.	, ,
lice	Eu.		Medit. Sea	43 42 N.	7 22 E.	
f. Nicobar	Afia		B. Bengal	7 22 N.	94 40 E.	
St. Nicholas			Atl. Ocean		24 06 W.	
	Eu.			16 35 N.		
licotera			Medit. Sea	38 33 N.	16 30 E.	
leuport	Eu.		Germ. Ocean	51 08 N.	2 50 E.	12 00
linhay	Afia		Pacif. Ocean	37 10 N.	122 25 E.	
lingpo, or Liampo	Afia		Pacif. Ocean	29 58 N.	120 23 E.	
Nio	Eu.		Archipelago	36 48 N.	26 02 E.	
Noel .	Afia	Indla	Indian Ocean	10 30 S.	105 25 E.	
. Noir	Am.	T. del Fuego	Pacif. Ocean	54 32 8.	73 3 W.	
forfolk Ifle	Afia		Pacif. Ocean	29 2 S.	168 15 E.	
de Non	Africa		Atl. Ocean	28 04 N.	10 32 W.	
ombre de Dios	Am.		Carribbe. Sea		73 35 W.	
inte	Eu.		R. Thames	9 43 N. 51 28 N.	0 48 E.	0 00
loriton	Am.	Penfylvania		40 10 N.	75 17 W.	0 00
. North	Am.	Terra Firma			49 co W.	
. North	Am.		Atl. Ocean	1 45 N.	60 8 W.	
	1 1			47 5 N.		
. North	Ann.	S. Georgia	Atl. Ocean	54 5 5.	38 10 W.	
. Cape, I. Maggoron	Eu.	Lapland	North Ocean North Ocean	71 10 N.	26 02 E.	3 00
forth Police	Eu.	Narway	North Ocean	62 15 N.	6 15 E.	
in the fill of	Am.	North Main	Hudfon's Str.	62 30 N.	70 59 W.	
Northanham, E. pt.	Am.	New Britain	Hudíbn's Str.	63 35 N.	77 48 W. 1	00 0
()						
Dalte Pella Bay	Afia	Oraheite I	Pacif. Ocean	17 46 S.	149 9 W.	
Terskow			Black Sea	45 12 N.	34 40 E.	
(5,001	1	-		5 56 15 N.	13 35 E.	
Certains } v. and	Eu.	Sweden [1	Baltic Sea	257 23 N.	17 95 E.	
				16 46 S.		
Biv	Afia	Society Mes 1	1 2 2 2 2 2 2	16 46 S.	111 ; W. 1	1 20

Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Coaft.	Latitude.	Longitude.	H. Water.
		Y	D. Dic.	0	° , v .	
I. Oleron		France	B. Bifcay	46 o3 N.		100-1100
Olinde	Am.	Brafil	S. Atl. Ocean	8 13 S.	35 00 W. 18 30 E.	
Oliva	Eu.	Germany	Baltic Sea	54 20 N.	18 30 E.	
Ollone	Eu.	France	B. Bifcay	46 32 N.	1 30 W.	3h.45m.
Onegka	Eu.	Ltaly	Medit. Sea	43 57 N.	7 52 E.	
Oporto	Eu.	Portugal	Atl. Ocean	41 10 N.	8 22 W.	
Oran		Barbary	Medit. Sea	35 45 N.	0 00	
C. Orange	Am.	Terra Firma		4 27 N.	50 50 W.	
Orbitello	Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sea	42 30 N.	12 00 E.	
I. Orchillo	Am.	Terra Firma		11 32 N.	65 25 W.	
Orenburg	Atia	Aftracan	Inland	51 46 N.	55 14 E.	
Orfordness	Eu.	England	Germ. Ocean	52 17 N.	1 11 E.	9 45
Orkney Isles, limits	Eu.	Scotland	West. Ocean	\$59 24 N. 58 44 N.	3 23 W. 2 11 W.	3 00
New Orleans	Am.	Louisiana	R. Missispi	30 00 N.	89 54 W.	
I. Ormus	Afia	Perfia	G. Perfia	27 30 N.	55 17 E.	
C. del Oro, or Olerada	Africa.	Negroland	Atl. Ocean	23 30 N.	14 31 W.	*
R. Oronoque	Am.	Terra Firma	Atl. Ocean	8 08 N.	59 50 W.	
C. Oropeio	Eu.	Spain	Medit. Sea	40 20 N.	0 49 E.	
Orfk	Afia	Aitracan	Inland	51 12 N.	58 37 E.	
C. Ortegal	Eu.	Spain	B. Bifcay	43 47 N.	8 32 W.	3.0
Ortona	Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sea	42 19 N.	14 37 E.	
I. Oruha	Am.	Terra Firma	Caribbean Sea	12 03 N.	69 03 W.	4.
Ofnaburg Isle	AGa	Society Ifles	Pacif. Ocean	22 00 S.	141 34 W.	
Oftend	Eu.	Flanders	Germ. Ocean	51 14 N.		12 00
C. Otranto	Eu.	I-aly -	Medit. Sea	40 23 N.	17 41 E.	
Owharre Bay	Afia	Huabeine	Pacif. Ocean	16 44 S.	151 3W.	
Ozaca	Afia	Japan	Pacif. Ocean	35 10 N.	134 05 E.	2
C. Padron	Africa	Congo	Atl. Ocean	6005	F	
Paita	Am.	Peru	Pacif. Ocean	6 00 S.	11 40 E.	
C. Faillouri	Eu.	Turkey	Archipelago	5 20 S.	80 35 W.	
Palerme, I. Sielly	Eu.	Italy	Medit Sea	39 59 N. 38 10 N.	24 03 E.	
Puliakate	Afia	India	B. Bengal	13 40 N.	13 43 E.	
Pullifer's Iffes	Afia	Society Ifles	Pacif. Ocean		So 50 E.	Ī
C. Pallifer	Afia	N. Zealand	Pacif. Ocean	15 38 S. 41 40 S.	175 28 E.	}
I. Palma		Canaries	Atl. Ocean	28 36 N.		1
I. Palmaria	Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sea	41 00 N.	17 45 W.	W 1
Faimeriton's Ifle	Aba	Society Ifles	Pacif. Ocean	18 00 S.	13 03 E.	1
C. Palmiras	Afia	India	B. Bengal	20 40 N.	162 52 W.	
C. Palmas		Guinea	Atl. Ocean	4 06 N	87 35 E.	
Panama	Am.	Mexico	Pacif. Ocean	4 26 N.	5 56 W.	
I. Panaria	⊉u.	Italy	Medit. Sea	8 45 N. 38 40 N.	80 16 W.	
Panorma	Eu.	Turkey	Medit. Sea			
I. Pantalaria	Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sea	40 05 N.	21 40 E.	
R. Pantaiana	Am.	Mexico	G. Mexico	36 55 N.	12 31 E.	
	Am.	Brafil	Atl. Ocean	24 02 N.		
R. Paraiba	Eu.	France	R. Seine	21 26 S.		-
Saris C. Passero	E.i.	I. Sicily	Medit. Sea	48 50 N.	2 25 E.	
	Afia	Malacca	Indian Ocean	36 35 N.	15 22 F.	
C. Ratam I. Patrnos		Natolia	Archipelago	, , ,	101 20 E.	
R. Patrahan	Afia Afia	I. Sumatra	Str. Malacca	37 22 N.		
C. Paul			Medit. Sea			
I. St. Paul	Eu.	Spain	B. St. Lawr.	37 50 N.	0 15 W.	
	Am.	Newfoundl.		47 12 N.	59 59 W.	
I. St. Paul	Afia For	Madagascar	Indian Ocean		77 53 E.	
St. Paul de Leon	Eu.	France	Eng. Channel Pacif. Ocean		3 55 W.	4 00
I. Paxeros	Am.	California West Indics			120 45 W.	
I. Pearl, or Scrans	Am.		Atl. Ocean	i4 55 N.	79 co W	
Pegu	Afia	India	B. Bengal	17 00 N.		
Pekin	Afia	China	Inland	39 55 N.	116 29 E.	
1. Pelugofa	Eu.	Italy	Adriatic Sea	42 20 N.	18 32 E.	
I. Pemba	Afric	'Zanguebar	Indian Ocean	1 5 38 S.	40 09 E.	,

C. Pembroke Am. New Wales France Am. New Wales Am. New Foundl. Atl. Ocean At	Longitude.	H. Water.
C. Pembroke I. Pengwin Penmark R. Penobícot Pernambuco Am. Penmark R. Penobícot Pernambuco Am. Brafil S. Atl. Ocean At		
I. Pengwin Penmark Penmark Penmark Penmark Penmark Penmark Pennambuco Petapoli Am. Brafil Afia	0 ,	- Car
Penmark R. Penobícot Pernambuco Pernambuco Pernambuco Pernambuco Pernambuco Petapoli I. St. Peter Am. Newfoundl. I. St. Peter Afia India Baltic Sea 39 S. S. Atl. Ocean R. Petersfourg C. Petra Petersfourg C. Petra Peverel Point Philadelphia Afia Am. Newfoundl. Eu. England Am. St. Philip Afia Am. Afia Eu. Italy Afia Atl. Ocean 12 22 S. Atl. Ocean 12 22 S. Atl. Ocean 39 57 N. 70 Medit. Sea Atl. Ocean 12 22 S. Atl. Ocean Atl. Ocean 38 29 N. S. Georgia Atl. Ocean Atl.	82 54 W.	19
R. Penobfoot Am. Brafil S. Atl. Ocean 3 0 S. 6 0	56 56 W.	14.6
Petapoli	4 20 W.	3.6
Petapoli	68 52 W.	
I. St. Peter Peterfburg C. Petra Afia Newfoundl. Atl. Ocean Spain Archipleago Spot N. Spain St. Philip Africa Eu. Eu. Afia Azores Atl. Ocean Spain Spain Atl. Ocean Spain Sp	35 07 W.	
Petersburg C. Petra	81 10 E.	
Petersburg C. Petra Asia Asia Asia Archipelago C. Petra Asia Asia Archipelago C. Petra Asia Asia C. Petra Asia Asia Archipelago C. Pinas Asia Archipelago C. Pinas Asia Archipelago C. Pinas Asia Asia Archipelago C. Pinas Asia	56 5 W.	
C. Petra Peverel Point Philadelphia St. Philip Africa England R. Delawar Atl. Ocean Medit. Sea Atl. Ocean Atl. Oc	30 24 E.	3
Peverel Point	27 38 E.	
Philiadelphia St. Philip Africa L. Pianofa L. P	1 22 W.	
St. Philip L. Pianofa Eu. Italy Medit. Sea 42 46 N. Ifle of Pines Afia N. Caledonia Pacif. Ocean 38 29 N. 2	75 8 W.	
R. Pianofa Function Functio	13 20 E.	
	10 34 E.	
R. Pico (Pike) C. Pinas Pickerfgill's I. Am. Am. S. Georgia Atl. Ocean Atl. Ocea		
C. Pinas Pickerfgill's I. Mo. Pintados, or St. Martin Pifcadore Isles Pitcairn's Isles Placentia Am. Am. Chiii Pacif. Ocean Pacif. Oce	167 43 E. 28 19W.	: 10
Pickerfgill's I. Am. S. Georgia Atl. Ocean 54 42 S.		92
Mo. Pintados, or St. Martin Pifcadore Isles	6 14 W.	
St. Martin	36 53 W.	
Afia	117 15 W.	
Pictairn's Isles	7 7 3 110	
Pitcairn's Isles	119 25 E.	-
Placentia Am. Newfoundl. Atl. Ocean Af 15 N. Atl. Ocean	133 21 W.	
R. Plata Am. La Plata Adi. Ocean 36 00 S. Adi. Ocean Adi	53 43 W.	9h. oom.
R. Platewrack Am. Eu. England Eng. Channel 50 22 N. 60 61 61 61 62 62 63 64 61 62 63 64 64 64 64 64 64 64	57 40 W.	
Plymouth	63 37 W.	
Policastro Is. Políapate II. Poma II. Poma Pontorfon Ponoi II. Ponza Pontor Port Port Mahon Port I'Orient Port I'Orient Porto Bello Port O Parya Port O Parya Port O Parya Port O Parya Port France Port France Port Mahon Port I'Orient Port O Port Port Bello Port O Praya Port O Pr	4 10W.	6 00
Is. Polfapate Afia Cambaya Indian Ocean 9 45 N; 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 1	15 45 E.	0 00
I. Poma	15 45 E	221
Pondicherry Pontorfon Eu. Pontorfon Eu. Pontorfon Eu. Pontorfon Pontorfon Eu. Pontorfon Eu	109 55 E.	
Pontorson Ponoi Lapland I, Ponza Pot Port Port Port Mahon Portland Port l'Orient Porto Bello Porto Praya Port Port Rico W. point I. Porto Sancto Portfall Po	18 14 E.	1
Ponoi	79 58 E.	
I. Ponza Eu. Italy England Sea Honor Port Eu. England Sea Honor Port Spain Medit. Sea Spain Atl. Ocean Medit. Sea Spain Medit. Sea Spain Medit. Sea Spain Atl. Ocean Medit. Sea Spain Medit. Sea Spain Atl. Ocean Medit. Sea Spain Atl. Ocean Medit. Sea Spain Atl. Ocean Medit. Sea Spain Medit. Sea Spain Atl. Ocean Medit. Sea Spain Me	1 27 W.	
Pool Port Port Eu. England Portugal Spain Eng. Channel Atl. Ocean Atl. Ocean Spain Port Praya Spain Port Praya Spain Port Rico W. point I. Porto Sancto Portfall Portfmouth.R. Aca-Praken Princes C. Prior Eu. England Africa Spain Cape V. Carrib. Sea Spain Atl. Ocean Spain Spain Atl. Ocean Spain Spain Spain Atl. Ocean Spain Spain Spain Atl. Ocean Spain Atl. Ocean Spain Spain Atl. Ocean Spain Spain Atl. Ocean Spain Spain Atl. Ocean Spain	38 48 E.	
Porto Port Port Mahon Port Mahon Port Mahon Port Portand Port l'Orient Porto Bello Porto Praya Porto Praya Port Rico W. point I. Porto Sancto Portfall Eu. England Adhica England Adhica England En	13 c9 E.	
Port Mahon Port Mahon Port Mahon Port l'Orient Port o Bello Port o Praya Port o Praya Port fico W. point I. Porto Sancto Portfall Eu. England Afia Coch. Chi. Livonia Praken Pranau Li. Princes C. Prior Eu. Spain England Adl. Ocean Adl. Ocean 14 54 N. 18 35 N. 18 35 N. 18 35 N. 18 35 N. 18 35 N. 18 35 N. 18 36 N. 19 Channel Eng. Channel Eng. Channel For Adl. Ocean 17 15 N. 10 Coch. Chi. Livonia Baltic Sea S8 26 N. 21 47 N. 29 N. 20 14 54 N. 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 2	1 50 W.	1
Portland Port l'Orient Porto Bello Porto Praya Porto Praya Port Rico W. point I. Porto Sancto Portfall Portfmouth.R, Aca- Praken Prenau L. Princes Africa Africa Eu. Princes Africa Cape Vcrd Am. Antilles Atl. Ocean	8 22 W.	
Portland Port l'Orient Porto Bello Port o Praya Porto Praya Porto Rico W. point I. Porto Sancto Portfall Portfmouth.R.Aca. Praken Prenau L. Princes C. Prior Porto Bello Am. Africa Cape Vcrd Am. Antilles Atl. Ocean Atl. Ocean Spain Atl. Ocean Atl. Ocean Spain Atl. Ocean	3 53 E.	
Port l'Orient Porto Bello Porto Praya E point Porto Praya E point Port Rico W. point I. Porto Sancto Portfall Portfmouth.R, Aca- Praken Prenau I. Princes C. Prior Eu. Spain Eu. France New Spain Africa Cape Vcrd Adt. Ocean Adt. Ocean Sancto Eu. England Coch. Chi. Livonia Baltic Sea Adt. Ocean Indian	2 48 W.	8 15
Porto Bello Porto Praya Porto Praya Porto Praya Porto Praya Porto Praya Porto Praya Africa Am. Antilles Atl. Ocean Atl. Ocean Portfall Eu. England Afia Coch. Chi. Livonia Praken Praken Praken Pranau Li. Princes Co. Prior Africa Spain Atl. Ocean	3 13 W.	- 5
Porto Praya E. point Port Rico W. point I. Porto Sancto Portfall Portfall Portfmouth.R. Aca. Praken Prenau L. Princes Princes C. Prior Africa Cape Vcrd Atl. Ocean Atl. Ocean 14, 54 N. 18 35 N. 18 29 N. 18 34 N. 18 34 N. 18 29 N. 18 36 N. 18 29 N. 18 36 N. 18 29 N. 18 36 N. 18 29 N. 18 36 N. 18 29 N. 18 36 N. 18 29 N. 18 36 N. 19 Cocan 19 Cocan 10 Cocan 10 Cocan 11 15 N. 10 Baltic Sea 10 Cocan 11 4 7 N. 10 Cocan 11 4 7 N. 10 Cocan 11 4 54 N. 18 29 N. 18 29 N. 18 29 N. 18 36 N. 18 29 N. 18 36 N. 18 29 N. 18 36 N. 18 29 N. 18 36 N. 18 29 N. 18 36 N. 18 29 N. 18 36 N. 18 29 N. 18 36 N. 18 29 N. 18 36 N. 18 29 N. 18 36 N. 18 29 N. 18 29 N. 18 36 N. 18 29 N. 18 29 N. 18 36 N. 18 29 N. 18 36 N. 18 29 N. 18 36 N. 18 29 N. 18 36 N. 18 29 N. 18 29 N. 18 36 N. 18 29 N. 18 29 N. 18 29 N. 18 29 N. 18 29 N. 18 29 N. 18 29 N. 18 20 N. 18 29 N. 18 20 N. 18 20 N. 18 20 N. 18 20 N. 18 20 N. 18 20 N. 18 20 N. 18 20 N. 18 20 N. 18 20 N. 18 20 N. 18 20 N. 18 20 N. 18 20 N. 18 20	79 45 W.	
E. point Port Rico W. point I. Porto Sancto Portfall Portfmouth.R. Aca Praken Prenau L. Princes C. Prior Portor Am. Antilles Atl. Ocean Spain Atl. Ocean Atl. Ocean Spain Atl. Ocean Is 35 N. Is 35 N. Is 35 N. Is 35 N. Is 35 N. Is 35 N. Is 36 N. Is 36 N. Is 36 N. Is 36 N. Is 36 N. Is 36 N. Is 36 N. Is 36 N. Is 36 N. Is 36 N. Is 36 N. Is 36 N. Is 37 N. Is	23 24 W.	11 00
I. Porto Sancto Portfall Portfall Portfomouth.R.Aca. Praken Prenau L. Princes L. Princes C. Prior Africa Suinca Spain Atl. Ocean	65 58 W	1. 00
I. Porto Sancto Portfall Portfall Portfomouth.R.Aca. Praken Prenau L. Princes L. Princes C. Prior Africa Suinca Spain Atl. Ocean	65 58 W. 66 35 W.	
I. Porto Sancto Portfall Portfall Portfomouth.R.Aca. Praken Prenau L. Princes L. Princes C. Prior Africa Suinca Spain Atl. Ocean]
Portfall Portfmouth.R.Aca. Praken Prenau L. Princes C. Prior Eu. France England Afia Livonia Livonia Spain Atl. Ocean	67 51 W.	
Portimouth, R. Aca. Eu. England Coch. Chi. Indian Ocean Baltic Sea Sea N. In 15 N. In 16 Sea Sea Sea Sea Sea Sea Sea Sea Sea Sea	16 20 W.	
Praken Afia Coch. Chi. Indian Ocean 17 15 N. 10 Prenau Eu. Livonia Baltic Sea 58 26 N. 2 I. Princes Africa Guinca Atl. Ocean 1 47 N. C. Prior Eu. Spain Atl. Ocean 43 29 N.	4 43 W.	
Prenau Eu. Livonia Baltic Sea 58 26 N. 2 I. Princes Africa Guinca Atl. Ocean 1 47 N. Spain Atl. Ocean 43 29 N.	I OIW.	11 15
I. Princes Africa Guinca Atl. Ocean 1 47 N. C. Prior Eu. Spain Atl. Ocean 43 29 N.	106 15 E.	
C. Prior Eu. Spain Atl. Ocean 47 N. Atl. Ocean 43 29 N.	24 58 E.	
	6 39 E.	-
1. Providence Am. Bahama Atl. Ocean 24 51 N. 7 Providence or Am. Mexico Atl. Ocean 12 26 N.	8 15 W.	
I. Providence, or Am. Mexico Atl. Ocean 12 26 N. S	77 01 W.	
Il Co Coshoring FlAm. INICXICO IAtl. Ucean 1 12 26 N.1	_	
	80 42 W.	
1 D	164 46 E.	6 00
T Dill and law in the	107 25 E.	000
Quaqua, or Ivory Africa Guinea Eth. Sea 5 00 N.	4 00 W.	
Coart		
1200 23111	69 48 W.	7 30
	100 12 E.	
11. Quelpert Afia Korea Pacif. Ocean 33 32 N. 12	128 04 E.	
	39 cg E.	

Vol. I. Univ Calif - Digitized by Microsoft ® Quimper

Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Coaft.	Latitude.	Longitude.	H.Water.
		r1	n n:	0 6 34	0 ,	
Quimper	Eu.	France	B. Bifcay	47 58 N.	4 02 W.	112.00
Quinam	Afia	Coch. Chi.	Indian Ocean	12 52 N.	109 10 E.	- 45.5
Quiraba Isles		Zanguebar	Indian Ocean	11 00 N.	41 39 E.	201 (2)
C. Quiros	Afia	N. Habrides	Pacif. Ocean	14 56 S.	167 15 W.	- × 31
Quito	Ain.	Peru . ·	Inland	o 13 S.	77 50 W.	5 1 1 mg 2
R		NT C 11	110	. 37		-
C. Race	Am.	Newfoundl.	Atl. Ocean	46 40 N.	52 38 W.	
Ragufa	Eu.	Dalmatia	Medit. Sca	42 45 N.	20 00 E.	100
Rajipour	Afia	India	Indian Ocean	17 19 N.	73 50 E.	
Ramigate	Eu.	England	Downs	51 20 N.	1 22 E	
Ramhead	Eu.	England	Eng. Channel	50 19 N.	4 15 W.	
C. Rafalgate	Afia	Arabia	Indian Ocean	22 46 N.	58 48 E.	
Ravenna	Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sca	44 26 N.	12 21 E.	fall set
C. Ray	Am.	Newfoundl.	Atl. Ocean	47 37 N.	59 8 W.	
I. Rhee	Eu.	France .	B. Biscay	46 15 N.	1 28 W.	3h. 00m.
Regio	Eu.	Italy N. Main	Mediterran.	38 22 N.	16 37 E.	
Cape Resolution	Am.	N. Main	Hudfon's Str.	61 29 N.	65 10 W.	
Resolution Bay	Afia	Marquefas	Pacif. Ocean	9 55 S.	139 4 W.	-
Resolution Island	Afia	Society Isles	Pacif. Occan	17 23 S.	141 40 W.	
Revel	Eu.	Livonia	Baltic Sea	59 22 N.	25 33 E.	
Rhodes, N.				36 27 N.	28 36 E.	-
end end	Afia	Natolia	Archipelago	3/	3. 2.	
C. Tranquil,			1 6 .	35 55 N.	28 23 E,	
0.0170	-		211 0			
Riga	Eu.	Livonia	Baltic Sea	56 55 N.	24 51 E.	
Ripraps, a fand	Eu.	England	Straits Dover	51 53 N.	1 25 E.	
Robin Hood's Bay	Lu.	England	Germ. Ocean	54 25 N.	o 08 W.	3 00.
I. Rocca	Am.	Terra Firma		11 21 N.	66 17 W.	
Rochefort	Eu.	France	B. Bifcay	46 03 N.	0 54 W.	4 15
Rochel	Eu.	France	Bay Bifeay	46 10 N.	1 5 W.	3 45
Rechefter	Eu.	England	R. Medway	51 26 N.	o 30 E.	0 45
I. Rodrigue	Afia	Madagascar	Indian Ocean	19 41 S.	62 45 E.	
C. Romain	Am.	Terra Firma		11 40 N.	69 05 W.	
Rome	Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sea	41 54 N.	12 34 E.	
I. Roncadore	Am.	Mexico	Atl. Ocean	13 30 N.	78 53 W.	
Rood Bay	Eu.	Greenland	North Ocean	79 53 N.	14 co E.	
C. Roque	Am.	Brafil	Atl. Ocean	5 00 S.	35 43 W.	
I. Roquepiz		Madagascar	Indian Ocean	9 51 S.	64 30 E.	
G. Rofes	Eu.	Spain	Medit. Sea	42 10 N.	3 18 E.	
Roftock	Eu.	Germany	Bultic Sea	54 10 N.	12 50 E.	
I. Rotterdam	Afia	Friendly Is.	Pacif. Ocean	20 16 S.	174 25 W.	
Rotterdam	Eu.	D. Neth.	Germ. Ocean	51 56 N.	4 33 E	3 00
Rouen	Eu.	France	R. Seine	49 27 N.	1 10 E.	1 15
C. Roxant	fu.	Portugal	Atl. Ocean	38 45 N.	9 30 W.	10
C. Roxo		Negroland	Atl. Ocean	11 42 N.	14 33 W.	
Po. Royal	A:n.	I. Jamaica	Caribbean Sea	17 40 N.	76 37 W.	190
C. Rezier	Am.	Nova Scotia	G. St. Law.	48 55 N.	63 36 W.	7
I. Rugen	Eu.	Germany	Baltic Sea	54 32 N.	14 30 E.	
I. Rum Key, or ?	Am.	Bahama	Atl. Ocean	23 00 N.	74 20 W.	
Samana 5						
R. Rupert	Am.		Hudson's Bay	51 45 N.	78 40 W.	
C. Rufeto		Barca	Medit. Sea	32 53 N.	20 41 E.	
Ruft Ifles	Eu.	Norway	North Sea	67 40 N.	10 25 E.	
Rye	Eu.	England	Eng. Channel	51 03 N.	0 45 E.	11 15
S						
C. Sable	Am.	Nova Scotia		43 24 N.	65 35 W.	
I. Sable, W. and	Am.	Nova Scotia	Atl. Ocean	44 09 N.	60 29 W.	
I. Saddle back	Am.	North Main	Hudf. Straits	62 07 N.	68 13 W.	10 00
		Barbary	Atl. Ocean	32 30 N.	8 50 W.	
	Africa		Red Sca	27 05 N.	34 40 E.	24
B. Saldanna	Arrica	Carlers	Atl. Ocean	32 35 S.	19 30 E.	
			1			

Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Coaft.	Latitude.	Longitude.	H. Water
				0	0 ,	E18 E
I. Sal		C. Verd	Atl. Ocean	16 38 N.	22 51 W.	
Salerno	£u.	Italy	Medit, Sea	40 39 N.	14 48 E.	
I. Salini, Lipari Ift.	Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sea	38 39 N.	15 24 E.	3.0
I. Salifbury	Am.	N-Main	Hudson's Bay	63 29 N.	76 47 W.	-
Sallee	Africa	Barbary	Atl. Ocean	33 58 N.	6 20 W.	
		•		(5 50 S.	171 05 W.	
Solomon Isles	Afia		Pacif. Ocean	211 15 S.	178 35 W.	
Salonechi	Eu,	Turkey	Archipelago	40 41 N.	23 13 E.	15
I. Salvages	Africa		N. Atl. Ocean		15 49 W.	
(Unner)				561 48 N.	66 20 W.	gh.oom
I. Salvages { Upper } Lower }	Am.	North Main	Hudf. Straits	62 32 N.	70 48 TW	
I. Samos	Afia	Natolia	Archipelago	37 46 N.	27 13 E.	11 10
C. Sambrough	Am.		Western Oc.	44 33 N.	63 20 W.	
Sandwich		England	Downs	51 20 N.	1 20 E.	
	Eu.					11 30
Sandwich Island	Afia		Pacif. Occan		168 38 E.	A
Sandwich Harbour	Afia	Malicola St. Cassais	Pacif. Ocean	16 25 S.	167 58 E.	
Sandwich's Bay	Am.		Atl. Ocean	54 42 S.	36 4W.	
I. Sanguin	Afia		Pacif. Ocean	3 50 N.	122 30 E.	
I. Sanien	Eu.	Norway	North Ocean	69 30 N.	14 30 E.	
Santa Cruz	Africa	Barbary	Atl. Ocean	30 30 N.	9 35 W.	
N. limit				41 15 N.	9 31 E.	
S. pt. C. Tavo-				38 54 N.	9 15 E.	l
laro Cagliari	Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sea			
Cagliari				39 25 N.	9 38 E.	
-i Oristagni				1. 39 53 N.	9 or E.	
Sarena	Am.	Chili	Pacif. Ocean	29 40 S.	71 15 W.	
Saunders's Isle	Am.	Sandwich L.	Atl. Ocean	58 00 S.	26 53 W.	1
C. Saunders	Am.	St. Georgia	Atl. Ocean	54 6 S.	36 53 W.	
Scanderoon	Afia	Syria	Levant	36 35 N.	36 25 E.	
Scarborough head	Eu.	England	Germ. Ocean	54 18 N.	00 00	3 45
I. Scarpanto	Afia	Natolia	Archipelago	35 45 N.	27 40 E.	3 73
I. Scatarie, N. E. pt.	Am.	Acadia	Weit. Ocean	46 of N.	61 57 W.	
Scave	Eu.	Denmark	Sound	57 34 N.	10 54 E.	
P C 1 114	Eu.	D. Neth.	Germ. Occan	53 27 N.	5 °30 E.	
Schelling C. St. Nicholas Scio	2.4.	2 Country	Geim. Occan	(38 38 N.	26 12 E.	
Scio	Afia	Natolia	Archipelago	38 24 N.	26 29 E.	
-: C. Blanco	71114	1 acoma	ratemperago	38 08 N.	26 20 E.	115
Scilly Ifles	Eu.	England	St. Gco. Ch.			
Scolt Head	Eu.	England	Germ. Ocean		6 45 W.	3 45 6 20
Scots Settlement					0 44 E.	6 20
1. Sea	Am.	Turkey	Carribbe. Sea	8 45 N. 37 38 N.	76 35 W.	
	Eu.	Turkey	Archipelago	37 38 N.	24 53 E.	
Seames L. C. Latelan	Eu.	France	B. Bifeay	48 00 N.	4 51 W.	
1. Sebaldes	Am.	Patagonia	S. Atl. Ocean		59 35 W.	
C. Sebutian	Am.	California	Pacif. Ocean	43 00 N.	126 00 W.	
C. St. Schaftian	Africa		Indian Ocean	12 30 S.	46 30 E.	
St. Schaffian	Eu.	Spain	B. Bifcay	43 16 N.	2 05 W.	
Port Segura	Am.	Brafil	Atl. Ocean	16 57 S.	39 45 W.	
R. Senegal		Negroland	Atl. Occan	15 53 N.	16 26 W.	10 30
1. Seranilha	Am.	West Indics	Atl. Ocean	16 20 N.	79 40 W.	
I. Serigo	Eu.	Turkey	Archipelago	36 cg N.	23 24 E.	
1. Sertes		Canaries	Atl. Ocean	32 35 N.	16 20 W.	
R. Seftos		Guinea	Atl. Occan	5 48 N.	8 13 W.	
		Barbary	Medit. Sea	37 30 N.	6 15 W.	
Seven Capes	Eu.	England	St. Geo. Ch.	50 10 N.	6 40 W.	4 30
Seven Stones, or Isles	A. U.			51 41 N.	3 05 W.	6.0
Seven Stones, or Isles R. Severn, Ent.	Eu.	England	St. Geo. Ch.			
Seven Stones, or Isles			St. Geo. Ch. Hudfon's Bay			
Seven Stones, or Isles R. Severn, Ent. R. Severn	Eu.	New Wales	Hudson's Bay	56 12 N.	88 57 W.	9 00
Seven Stones, or Isles R. Severn, Ent.	Eu. Am. Eu.	New Wales France	Hudfon's Bay Eng. Channel	56 12 N. 49 36 N.	88 57 W.	9 00
Seven Stones, or Ifles R. Severn, Ents R. Severn R. Seyn, Ent. Seynhead	Eu. Am. Eu. Eu.	New Wales France France	Hudson's Bay Eng. Channel Eng. Channel	56 12 N. 49 36 N. 49 44 N.	88 57 W. 0 30 E. 0 34 E.	
Seven Stones, or Ifles R. Severn, Ent. R. Severn R. Seyn, Ent. Seynhead Sheernefs	Eu. Am. Eu. Eu. Eu.	New Wales France France England	Hudson's Bay Eng. Channel Eng. Channel R. Thames	56 12 N. 49 36 N. 49 44 N. 51 25 N.	88 57 W. 0 30 E. 0 34 E. 0 50 E.	9 00
Seven Stones, or Ifles R. Severn, Ents R. Severn R. Seyn, Ent. Seynhead	Eu. Am. Eu. Eu.	New Wales France France England	Hudson's Bay Eng. Channel Eng. Channel	56 12 N. 49 36 N. 49 44 N.	88 57 W. 0 30 E. 0 34 E. 0 50 E. 163 47 E.	

F 1 2

Siera

Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Ceast.	Latitude.	Longitude.	H. Water.
Siara E. end, Messina Catanca	Am.	Brafil	Atl. Ocean	3 18 S. (38 10 N. 37 22 N.	39 50 W. 15 58 E. 15 21 E.	
Syracuse S. end, C. Pas-	Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sea	37 04 N. 36 35 N.	15 31 E. 15 22 E.	
Alicata W.end, C. Bocco				37 11 N 37 51 N. 38 10 N.	14 07 E. 21 43 E. 13 43 E.	
Sierra Leona Sillabar Road Str. Sincapore	Africa Afia Afia	Guinea I. Sumatra Malacca	Atl. Ocean Indian Ocean Indian Ocean	8 30 N. 4 00 S. 1 00 N.	12 07 W. 102 50 E. 104 30 E.	8h. 15m.
R. Sinda, or Indus, mouth Po. Shabak Shark, or Seahorfe 7	Afia Africa	India Abystinia	Indian Ocean Red Sea	\$24 30 N. 25 45 N. 18 58 N.	63 10 E. 62 40 E. 38 24 E.	
point Shields	Am. Eu.	New Wales England	Hudson's Bay Germ. Ocean	64 05 N. 55 02 N.	82 12 W. 1 20 W.	
Shelvock's Isle Shillocks	Am. Eu.	California Ireland	Pacif. Ocean West. Ocean	23 15 N. 51 30 N.	117 35 W.	5 0
I. Shetland, limits Shoreham	Eu.	Scotland England	West. Ocean Eng. Channel	59 54 N. 50 55 N.	0 10 W. 1 31 W. 00 17 E.	
I. Sky { N. point S. point Sleepers Isles	Eu.	Scotland	West. Ocean	\$ 57 50 N. 57 15 N.	6 30 W. 6 16 W.	5 30
Great Sleeper	Am.	New Britain	Hudfon's Bay	60 00 N. 58 35 N. 60 10 N.	81 30 W. 82 00 W.	
The Sleepers lie in a chain from the Great Sleeper down to Lat. 58° 50° N & Long. 82° 20° W.					angelish an in angelish and angelish and angelish and angelish and angelish and angelish and angelish and angelish angelish and angelish and angelish ange	
Sline Head R. Slude	Eu. Am.	Ireland New Britain	West. Ocean Hudson's Bay		2 15 W. 78 50 W.	
Sluyee C. Smith	Eu. Am.	D. Neth. Labradore Natolia	Germ. Ocean Hudfon's Bay	51 19 N. 60 48 N.	3 50 E. 80 55 W.	
Smyrna I. Socatora C. Solomon	Afia Africa Eu.	Anian I. Candia	Archipelago Indian Ocear Medit. Sea	38 28 N. 12 15 N. 34 57 N.	52 55 E.	
R. Somme Sound Royal	Eu. Eu.	France Iceland	Eng. Channel North Ocean	50 18 N. 66 22 N.	1 40 E.	
Southampton C. Southampton South Cape	Eu. Am. Afia	England New Wales Diemen's la	Eng. Channe Hudson's Ba Pacif. Ocean	61 54 N	86 14 W	
C. Spartivento		Italy Barbary	Medit. Sea. Atl. Ocean	37 50 N 35 46 N	16 41 E.	
Spurn Stampalia	Am. Eu. Afia	Brafil England Natolia	Atl. Ocean Germ. Ocean Archipelago	20 24 S 53 35 N 36 25 N	0 30 E	5 15
I. Stancho	Afia Eu.	Natolia England	Archipelago Eng. Channe	36 50 N 50 09 N	27 30 E 3 46 W	6 45
C. St. John C. St. Bartho- lomew	Am.	Pafagonia	Atl. Ocean	\$ 54 45 S 55 08 S	60 45 W	
Stavenger C. Stephens	Eu. Afia Eu.	Norway N. Zealand Germany	West. Ocean Pacif. Ocean Baltic Sea	40 36 S	174 05 E.	
Stetin C. Stillo Port Steven	Eu. Am.	Italy Chili	Medit. Sea Pacif. Ocean	38 23 N	17 07 E	
]					

Names of Place	cont.	Countries.	Coast.	Latitude.	Longitude.	H. Water.
	-			0 .		
Stockholm	Eu.	Sweden	Baltic Sea	59 22 N.	18 12 E.	
Stockton	Eu.	England	Germ, Ocean	54 33 N.	1 15 W.	sh sam
Straelfund	Eu.	Germany	Baltic Sea	1 31 33	14 10 E.	5h. 15m.
Strangford Bay	Eu.	Ireland	Irish Sea			
	Eu.		Medit. Sea	54 23 N.		10 30
I. Stromboli	3	Italy		38 42 N.	15 48 E.	-
Success Bay	Am.	T. del Fuego	Att. Ocean	54 50 S.	65 20 W.	
Suez Town	Africa	Egypt	Red Sea	29 50 N.	33 27 E.	
Sukadana	Afia	I. Borneo	Indian Ocean	1 00 S.	110 40 E.	
I. Suma- S NW. e	nd Afia	India	Indian Ocean	\$ 5 15 N.	95 55 E.	
tra [SE. en	d	*110110		1 5 07 S.	106 20 E.	
Sunderland	Eu.	England	Germ. Ocean	54 55 N.	1 00 W.	3 30
Str. Sunda	Afia	Siam	Indian Ocean	6 10 S.	105 35 E.	
Surinam	Am.	Terra Firma	Atl. Ocean	6 30 N.	55 30 W.	
Surat	Afia	India	Indian Ocean	21 10 N.	72 25 E.	
I. Surroy	Eu.	Lapland	North Ocean	71 00 N.	22 00 E.	5
Swaken	Africa		Red Sea	19 30 N.	37 38 E.	
Swally Road .	Afia	India	Arabian Sea	21 55 N.	72 00 E.	
Swanfey	Eu.	Wales	St. Geo. Cha.	51 40 N.	4 25 W.	Ų.
Sweetnose	Eu.	Lapland	North Ocean	68 08 N.		
			Ent. Thames		34 42 E.	
Swin, a fand	Eu.	England	Medit. Sea	51 37 N.	1 12 E.	12 00
Syracuse	Eu.	I. Sicily		37 04 N.	15 31 E.	
Syriam	Afia	Pegu	B. Bengal	16 00 N.	96 40 E.	
T		~	D C -			
Tadoufac Fort	Am.	Canada	R. St. Lawr.	48 00 N.	67 35 W.	
I. Tamarica	Am.	Brafil	Atl. Ocean	7 56 S.	35 05 W.	
Tamarin Town	Africa	I. Socatora	Indian Ocean	12 30 N.	53 14 E.	9 00
B. Tanasfarin	Afia	Malacca	B. Bengal	12 00 N.	98 48 E.	-
I. Tandoxima	Afia	Japan	Pacif. Ocean	30 30 N.	130 40 E.	1 8 1
Tangier	Africa	Barbary	Atl. Ocean	35 55 N.	5 45 W.	
Tanna	Afia	N. Hebrides	Pacif. Ocean	19 32 S.	169 45 E.	3 00
Taoukaa	Afia	Society Ifles	Pacif. Ocean	, ,		3 00
Tarento	Eu.		Medit. Sea	1 2		7)
C. Tat'nam	Am.	Italy New Wales	Hudson's Bay	1 13 22	17 31 E.	
			Germ. Ocean		91 30 W.	. 6. 1
R. Tees, mouth	Eu.	England		54 36 N.	0 52 W.	3 00
Tegoantepec	Am.	Mexico	Pacif. Ocean	14 45 N.	96 23 W.	
Tellichery	Afia	India	Malabar Coast	11 42 N.	75 30 E.	
C. Telling I. Tenedos	Eu.	Ireland	West. Ocean	54 40 N.	10 07 W.	
	Afia	Natolia	Archipelago	39 57 N. 28 13 N.	26 14 E.	5 3
I. Teneriff (Peak)	Africa	Canaries	Atl. Ocean	28 13 N.	16 24 W.	3 00
C. Tenes	Africa	Barbary	Medit. Sea	36 26 N.	1 53 E.	
I. Tercera	Eu.	Azores	Atl. Ocean	38 45 N.	27 OI W.	
Terra Nieva	Am.	N- Main	Hudf. Straits	62 4 N.	67 2 W.	9 50
Tervere	Eu.	D. Neth.	Germ Ocean	51 38 N.	3 35 E.	0 45
Tetuan	Africa		Medit, Sea	35 27 N.	4 50 W.	13
I. Texel	Eu.	D. Neth.	Germ. Occan	33 /		7 20
C. St. Thadæus	Afia		North Ocean	53 10 N. 62 10 N.	4 59 E.	7 30
R. Thames, mouth	Eu.	England	Germ. Ocean		175 05 E.	
C St Thomas				J	1 10 E.	1 30
C. St. Thomas		Catfers	Atl. Ocean	24 54 S.	15 25 E.	
	Africa		Atl. Ocean	00 00	I co E.	
St. Thomas	Afia		B. Bengal	13 00 N.	So 00 E.	
C. Three Points	Am.	Terra Firma		10 51 N.	62 41 W.	
C. Three Points	Africa		Atl. Ocean	4 48 N.	1 21 W.	
South Thale	Am.	Sandwich la.	Atl. Ocean	59 34 S.	27 45 W.	
I. Tidore	Afia	Molucca Is.	Indian Ocean	0 35 N.	126 40 E.	
I. Timor { NE. p	Afia	Molucca Is.	Indian Ocean	\$ 8 20 S.	127 40 E.	
Tinmouth Tinmouth	Le			10 23 S.	123 55 E.	
	Eu.	England	Germ. Ocean	55 03 N.	1 17 W.	3 00
I. Tino	Eu.	Turkey	Archipelago	37 33 N.	25 43 E.	
I. Tobago	Am.	Carribbee	Atl. Ocean	11 15 N.	60 27 W.	
Tobolíki	Afia	Siberia	Inland	58 12 N.	68 20 E.	
B. Todos Sanctos	Am.	Brafil	Atl, Ocean	13 05 S.	38 45 W.	
11						

Univ Calit - Digitized by Microsoft ® Tonquin

Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Coast.	Latitude.	Longitude.	H. Wat
F	Afia	India	Pacif. Ocean	0 , N	0.,	
Tonquin	Eu.	Norway	Sound	20 50 N.	105 55 E.	1.84.3
l'oniberg	Eu.			58 50 N.	10 05 E.	61
Fopfham -	Eu.	England	Eng. Channel Eng. Channel	50 37 N.	3 27 W.	6h.00
Forbay Fornea	Eu.	England	G. Bothnia		3 36 W. 24 16 E.	5 15
R. Tortofa	Eu.	Sweden	Medit. Sea	65 51 N.		- /
	Am.	Spain Antl. Isle	Atl. Ocean	40 47 N.	1 03 E.	
. Tortola	Eu.	Ireland		18 24 N.	65 00 W. 8 20 W.	G F
· Tory Foulon	Eu.	France	West. Ocean Medit. Sea	55 09 N. 43 07 N.	8 30 W. 6 02 E.	5 30
	Eu.		Atl. Ocean	43 07 N. 36 08 N.	5 58 W.	
	Eu.	Spain Italy	Medit. Sea	42 09 N.	3 50 W.	
			Medit. Sea	42 09 N	15 40 E. 2 11 W.	
C. de Tres forcas	Africa	Barbary		35 30 N.		
. Trailles		India	Indian Ocean	, , ,	101 25 E.	_
. Trinity	Am.	Brafil	Atl-Ocean	20 25 S.	23 35 W.	
. Trinidada, E. pt.	Am.	Terra Firma		10 38 N.	60 27 W.	11
Crinity Bay, Ent.	Am.		Atl. Ocean	48 30 N.	52 35 W.	
rieft	Eu.	Carniola	Adriat. Sea	45 51 N.	14 03 E.	
Trinquemali	Afia	I. Ceylon	Indian Ocean	8 50 N.	83 24 E.	
Tripoli	Afia	Syria	Levant	34 53 N.	36 07 E.	-
Cripoly	Africa	Barbary	Medit. Sea	32 54 N.	13 10 E.	
G. Trifte	Am.	Terra Firma	Atl. Ocean	10 19 N.	67 41 W.	
. Triftian d'Acunha	Africa	Caffers	S. Atl. Ocean	37 12 S.	13 23 W.	
f. Tromfound	Eu.	Lapland	North Ocean	70 20 N.	19 00 E.	
ruxilla	Am.	Peru	Pacif. Ocean	8 00 S.	78 35 W.	
Tunder	Eu.	Denmark	West. Ocean	55 00 N.		-
Cunis		Barbary	Medit. Sea	36 47 N.	9 35 E. 10 16 E.	
Curin	Eu.	Italy	R. Po	45 05 N.	7 45 E.	
. Turks	Am.	Bahama	Atl. Ocean	21 18 N.	71 05 W	100
Furtle Island	Afia	Danama	Pacif. Ocean	_	71 05 W.	
Turne Inana	Alla		racii. Ocean	19 49 S.	177 52 W.	
Valencia	Eu.	C	Madie Ca	N	317	
St. Valery	Eu.	Spain	Medit. Sea	39 30 N.	0 40 W.	
Valona	Eu.	France	Eng. Channel	50 11 N.	1 42 E.	10 30
		Turkey	Medit. Sea	40 55 N.	21 15 E.	
Valpariso	Am.	China	Pacif. Ocean	33 03 S.	72 14 W.	
Jan Diemen's land	Afia		Indian Ocean	43 38 S.	146 27 E.	
Vannes	Eu.	France	B. Biscay	47 39 N.	2 41 W.	3 45
C. Vela	Am.	Terra Firma		12 15 N.	71 20 W.	
. Venus	Afia	Otaheite	Pacif. Ocean	17 29 S.	149 31 W.	10 38
Venice	Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sea	45 27 N.	12 9 E.	
Vera Cruz	Am.	New Spain	G. Mexico	19 12 N.	97 25 W.	
C. Verd	Africa	Negroland	Atl. Ocean	14 45 N.	17 28 W.	
Ihma	Eu.	Sweden	G. Bothnia	63 45 N.	21 10 E.	
Vicegapatam	Afia	India	B. Bengal	17 30 N.	84 02 E.	
C. Victory	Am.	Patagonia	Pacif. Ocean	52 15 S.	74 28 W.	
/ienna	Eu.		R. Danube	48 11 N.	16 28 E.	i
/igo	Eu.	Spain	Atl. Ocean	42 14 N.	S 23 W.	
3. St. Vincent	Am.	Paraguay	Atl. Ocean		15 11 W	
St. Vincent	Eu.	Portugal	Atl. Occan		45 11 W. 8 58 W.	
. St. Vincent		C. Verd	Atl. Ocean	37 01 N.	24 44 337	
. St. Vincent	Am.			17 47 N.	24 44 W	
R. St. Vincent		Carribbee	Atl. Occan	13 05 N.	61 05 W.	
			Eth. Ocean	4 50 N.	7 41 W.	
C. Virgins	Am.	Patagonia	Atl. Ocean	52 23 S.	67 50 W.	
. Virgins	Am.	Antil. Isle	Atl. Ocean	18 18 N.	64 14W.	
Firgin Rocks	Am.		Atl. Ocean	46 30 N.	51 30 W.	
Imba	Eu.	Ruffia	Inland	66 40 N.	34 15 E.	
C. Volo	Eu.	Turkey	Archipelago	39 07 N.	23 23 E.	
		Guinea	Atl. Ocean	5 52 N. 28 04 S.	1 10 E.	
₹, Voltas		0 0	Atl. Ocean	28 04 S.	16 18 E.	
R. Voltas C. Voltas	Africa			20 02 01	- 0 , 0 Li	
R. Voltas C. Voltas	Africa Eu.	Sweden	R. Sala	59 52 N.	17 47 E.	
C. Voltas C. Voltas Jpfal				59 52 N.	17 47 E.	
₹, Voltas	Eu.	Sweden	R. Sala	59 52 N. 55 54 N.	17 47 E.	4 3

Names of Places.	Cont.	Countries.	Coaft.	Latitude.	Longitude.	H. Wate
	77		M. F. C	38 43 N.	0 , 5	
I. Ustica	Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sca	38 43 N.	13 33 E.	3 3
. Vulcano W	Eu.	Italy	Medit. Sea	38 29 N.	15 33 E.	Par I
Prin. Wales's Isles	Afia		Endeavour St.	10 26 S.	141 00 E.	
R'. Wager	Am.	New Wales	Hudson's Bay	65 28 N.	87 25 W.	6h. 00
Wallis's Isle	Afia		Pacif. Ocean	13 18 S.	176 20 W.	
C. Walfingham	Am.	New Britain	Hudson's Str.	62 39 N.	77 48W.	12 00
Wardhus	Eu.	Lapland	North Ocean	70 23 N.	51 12 E.	200
Warfaw	Eu.	Poland	R. Vistula	52 14 N.	21 5 E.	
Waterford	Eu.	Ireland	St. Gco. Ch.	52 07 N.	7 42 W.	6 30
Watling Isle	Am.	Bahama	Atl. Ocean	23 42 N.	74 22 W.	
Wells	Eu.	England	Germ. Ocean	53 07 N.	1 00 E.	6 00
Western Isles	Afia	Diemen's la.	Pacir. Ocean	43 36 S.	147 00 E.	
Weitern S. point	Eu.	Scotland	West. Ocean	56 A6 N.	7 40 W.	
Ifles N. point				2 58 35 N.	6 37 W.	
lf. Westmania	Eu.	Iceland	West. Ocean	63 55 N.	17 30 W.	
f. Weitrol	Eu.	Lapland	North Ocean	69 15 N.	24 00 E.	
Wexford	Eu.	Ireland	St. Geo. Ch.	52 13 N.	6 56 W.	.33
Weymouth	Eu.	England	Eng. Channel	52 40 N.	2 34 W.	7 20
Whale's Back	Eu.	Iceland	West. Ocean	63 44 N	17 05 W.	
Whale's Head	Eu.	Greenland	North Ocean	77 18 N. 38 50 N.	21 30 E.	
Whale Rock	Eu.	Azores	Atl. Ocean	38 50 N.	24 41 W.	
Whitby	Eu.	England	Germ. Ocean	54 30 N.	0 50W.	3 00
Whitchaven	Eu.	England	Irish Sea	54 25 N.	3 15 W.	
Whitfuntide I.	Afia	N. Hebrides	Pacif. Ocean	16 44 S.	168 25 E.	
Wicklow	Eu.	Ireland	St. Geo. Cha.	52 50 N.	6 30 W.	
Willis's Isles	Am.	S. Georgia	Atl, Ocean	54 00 S.	38 25 W.	
Windaw	Eu.	Courland	Baltic Sea	57 oS N.	22 20 E.	
N. end S. end				50 47 N.	1 11 W.	-
≦ S. end	Eu.	T	Ena Chanal	50 24 N	1 10W.	
L. CHU	Eu.	England	Eng. Channel) 50 41 N.	1 00 W.	0 00
- W. end				C 50 41 N.	1 23 W.	
f. Prince William	Afia		Pacif. Ocean	16 45 S.	177 55 E.	
Wiliam Henry I.	Afia	Society Ifles	Pacif. Ocean	19 00 S.	141' 6 E.	
Winchelfea	Eu.	England	Eng. Channel	50 58 N.	0 50 E.	0 45
Wintertoness	Eu.	England	Germ. Ocean	53 02 N.	1 22 E.	9 00
Withuy in 1. Gotland		Sweden	Baltic Sea	57 40 N.	19 50 E.	
C. Wrath	Eu.	Scotland	West. Ocean	58 40 N.	4 50 E.	
Wyhourg Y	Eu.	Finland	G. Finland	60 55 N.	30 20 E.	
Yamboa	Afia	Arabia	Red Sea	24 25 N.	38 54 E.	
Yarmouth	En.	England	Germ. Ocean		1 40 E.	9 45
Yas de Amber		Zanguebar	Indian Ocean	0 60	47 15 E.	
Yellow River	Alia	China	Pacif. Ocean	34 06 N.	120 10 E.	
Ylo	Am.	Peru	Pacif. Ocean	17 36 S.	71 08 W.	
Jape York	Afin		Endeavour St.	10 41 S.	141 39 E.	
York Fort	Am.	New Wiles	Hudfon's Bay	57 02 N.	92 47 W.	9 10
York, New	Am.	N. England	Atl. Ocean	40 43 N.	74 04 W.	3 0
Youghal!	Full.	lre'and	St. Geo. Ch.	51 46 N.	8 06 W.	4 30
7						
Zacatela	Am.	Mexico	Pacif Ocean	17 10 N.	105 00 W.	
Zachee	Am.	Antilles	Atl. Ocean	18 24 N.	67 52 W.	
I. Lant	F 11.	Italy	Adriatic Sea	37 50 N.	21 30 E.	
. Lanzebar	Africa	Zanguebar	Indian Ocean	6 55 S.	40 10 E.	
Zuro	Iu.	Dalm. itia	Medit. Sca	44 15 N.	16 65 E.	
da (NW. point	10			44 15 N. (34 28 S.	172 44 E.	
7.07	Afia.	-	Pacif. Ocean	<		
2 = (\$. pint				(47 20 S.	167 50 E.	
Zenan ()	Afin	Arabia	Inland	16 20 N.	47 44 E.	
Zunic Sea	fou.	D. Neth.	Germ, Ocean			3 00

Besides the times of high-water in the preceding table, the following times serve for coasts of considerable extent, and will serve nearly for the places on those coasts.

Finmark, or NNW. coast of Lapland, 1h. 30 m. Jutland Isles oh.om. Friesland coast 7h. 30 m. Zealand coast 1h. 30 m. Flanders coast 0h. 0m. Picardy and Normandy coasts 10h. 30 m. Biseay, Gallician, and Portugal coasts 3h. 00 m. Irish W. coast 3h. 00 m. Irish S. coast 5h. 15 m. Africa W. coast 3h. 0m. America W. coast 3h. 0m. America E. coast 4h. 30 m.

END OF BOOK VI. AND OF VOL. I.

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA LIBRARY Los Angeles

This book is DUE on the last date stamped below.

