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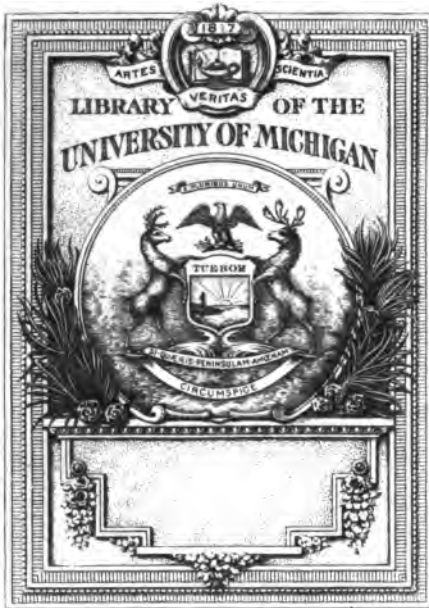
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S O M E
GENERAL THEOREMS

Of considerable use in the

H I G H E R P A R T S
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M A T H E M A T I C S.

By MATTHEW STEWART Minister at *Rosneath*.

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P R E F A C E.

*T*HE theorems contained in the following sheets are given without being demonstrated, excepting the first five: And as they are entirely new, save one or two at most, the author expects their being published even in this way may be agreeable to those that are not unaccustomed to speculations of this kind. Such will easily allow, that to explain, in a proper way, so many theorems, so general, and of so great difficulty as most of these are, would require a greater expence of time and thought than can be expected soon from one in the author's situation. He therefore thought it was better they should appear in the way they now are, than lie by him till an uncertain hereafter. If any give themselves the trouble to explain some of these theorems, they will find their time and pains sufficiently rewarded, by the discovery of several new and curious propositions that otherwise might have escaped their observation.

EDINBURGH, Oct. 1.

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S O M E
GENERAL THEOREMS

Of considerable use in

The higher parts of Mathematics.

PROPOSITION I. *Fig. 1.*

IF from A, the vertex of any triangle ABC, there be drawn AD to any point D in the base, and DE, DF be drawn parallel to AC, AB meeting AB, AC in E, F, the sum of the rectangles BAE, CAF will be equal to the square of AD together with the rectangle BDC.

About the triangle ABC let there be a circle described, and let AD meet the circle in G; join BG, CG; and from the point E draw EH making the angle AHE equal to the angle ABG, and produce AB to any point K.

Because the angles AHE, ABG are equal, the points E, B, G, H are in a circle; therefore the rectangle BAE is equal to the rectangle

A angle

angle GAH. The angle EHD will also be equal to the angle GBK, that is, to the angle ACG. And because AC, DE are parallel, the angles EDH, GAC will be equal; therefore the triangles EDH, GAC will be similar; and therefore AC will be to AG, as DH to DE: Therefore the rectangle contained by AC, DE, that is, the rectangle CAF, is equal to the rectangle contained by AG, DH. But because the rectangle BAE is equal to the rectangle GAH, and likewise the rectangle CAF equal to the rectangle contained by AG, DH, the sum of the rectangles BAE, CAF will be equal to the rectangle GAD, that is, equal to the rectangle ADG together with the square of AD. But the rectangle ADG is [35. 3.] equal to the rectangle BDC; therefore the sum of the rectangles BAE, CAF is equal to the square of AD together with the rectangle BDC.

Q. E. D.

PROPOSITION II. *Fig. 2. 3.*

In the right line AB take any point C between the points A, B; and from the points A, B, C let there be drawn right lines to any

any point D; the square of AD together with the space to which the square of BD has the same ratio that BC has to CA, will be equal to the rectangle BAC together with the space to which the square of CD has the same ratio that BC has to BA.

1. When the point D [Fig. 1.] is not in the line AB.

Draw AE, DF parallel to CD, AB meeting BD, AE in E, F.

Because the square of BD is to the rectangle BDE as BD to DE, that is, as BC to CA, the rectangle BDE will be the space to which the square of BD has the same ratio that BC has to CA. And because the square of AF, that is, the square of CD, is to the rectangle EAF as AF to AE, that is, as BD to BE, or BC to BA, the rectangle EAF will be the space to which the square of CD has the same ratio that BC has to BA. But [1.] the square of AD together with the rectangle BDE, is equal to the rectangle BAC together with the rectangle EAF; therefore the square of AD together with the space to which the square of BD has the

same ratio that BC has to CA; is equal to the rectangle BAC together with the space to which the square of CD has the same ratio that BC has to BA. *Q. E. D.*

2. When the point D [*Fig. 2.*] is in the line AB,

Draw CE perpendicular to AB, and let CE be equal to AC; join AE, BE; draw BF parallel to CE meeting AE in F; and draw DG parallel to CE or BF meeting AE, BE in G, H; and join GC, HC.

Because AC is equal to CE, AD will be equal to DG; therefore the square of AD will be equal to twice the triangle ADG. And because the square of BD is to the rectangle BDH, that is, twice the triangle BDH, as BC to CE, or CA, twice the triangle BDH will be the space to which the square of BD has the same ratio that BC has to CA. Again, because AC, CE are equal, the rectangle BAC will be equal to twice the triangle AEB; and because EG is to EF, that is, CD to CB, as GH to BF, or AB, CD will be to GH as BC to AB: Therefore the square of CD will be to the rectangle contained by CD, GH, that is, twice the triangle

angle

angle GCH, or GEH, as BC to AB. Therefore twice the triangle GEH will be the space to which the square of CD has the same ratio that BC has to AB. But it is evident, that twice the sum of the triangles ADG, BDH is equal to twice the sum of the triangles AEB, GEH; therefore the square of AD together with the space to which the square of BD has the same ratio that BC has to CA, is equal to the rectangle BAC together with the space to which the square of CD has the same ratio that BC has to AB.

Q. E. D.

COROLLARY. If from the vertex of any triangle there be drawn a line bisecting the base, the sum of the squares of the sides of the triangle will be equal to twice the square of the line bisecting the base together with the sum of the squares of the segments of the base.

PROPOSITION III.

THEOREM I. *Fig. 4.*

Let there be any regular figure ABC circumscribed about a circle, and from any point D within

within the figure let there be drawn DE, DF, DG perpendicular to the sides of the figure; the sum of the perpendiculars DE, DF, DG will be equal to the multiple of the semidiameter of the circle by the number of the sides of the figure.

Join DA, DB, DC. The figure ABC will be divided into as many triangles as there are sides in the figure; and because every one of the triangles is equal to half the rectangle contained by the base and the perpendicular drawn from the vertex to the base, and all the bases are equal, because the figure is regular; therefore the sum of all the triangles will be equal to half the rectangle contained by the sum of the perpendiculars and one of the sides of the figure; and therefore twice the figure will be equal to the rectangle contained by the sum of the perpendiculars and one of the sides of the figure. But the rectangle contained by the semidiameter of the circle and the sum of the sides of the figure, is equal to twice the figure: Therefore the rectangle contained by the sum of the perpendiculars DE, DF, DG and one of the sides of the figure, is equal to the rectangle

angle contained by the semidiameter of the circle and the sum of the sides of the figure; and therefore the sum of the perpendiculars DE, DF, DG will be to the semidiameter of the circle, as the sum of the sides of the figure to one of the sides of the figure, that is, as the number of the sides of the figure to one. Therefore the sum of the perpendiculars DE, DF, DG is equal to the multiple of the semidiameter of the circle by the number of the sides of the figure. $\mathcal{Q}. E. D.$

L E M M A I. *Fig. 5.*

Let there be any circle ABC, and let AD be a tangent to the circle in the point A; from the point A let there be drawn AB to any point B in the circle, and let BD be perpendicular to AD; the square of AB will be equal to the rectangle contained by BD and the diameter.

Let AC be the diameter of the circle, and join BC. Because the angles ACB, BAD are [32.3.] equal, and the angles ABC, ADB likewise

likewise equal, because both right, the triangles ABC, ADB will be similar; therefore AC will be to AB as AB to BD: Therefore the square of AB is equal to the rectangle contained by BD, AC. $\mathcal{Q}, E. D.$

PROPOSITION IV.

THEOREM II. *Fig. 6.7.*

Let the circumference of a circle be divided into any number of equal parts in the points A, B, C, &c. and from the points A, B, C, &c. let there be drawn right lines to any point D; the sum of the squares of AD, BD, CD, &c. will be equal to the multiple of the square of the line drawn from the centre of the circle to the point D by the number of the points A, B, C, &c. together with the multiple of the square of the semidiameter by the same number.

I. When the point D [*Fig. 6.*] is in the circumference of the circle, it is to be shewn, that the sum of the squares of AD, BD, CD, &c. is equal to twice the multiple of the square

square of the semidiameter by the number of the points A, B, C, &c.

Let there be a regular figure circumscribed about the circle, touching the circle in the points A, B, C, &c. and draw DE, DF, DG perpendicular to the sides of the figure. Because the square of AD is [*Lem. 1.*] equal to the rectangle contained by DE and the diameter, and likewise the square of BD equal to the rectangle contained by DF and the diameter, and so on; it is evident, that the sum of the squares of AD, BD, CD, &c. will be equal to the rectangle contained by the sum of the perpendiculars DE, DF, DG, &c. and the diameter. But because [3.] the sum of the perpendiculars DE, DF, DG, &c. is equal to the multiple of the semidiameter by the number of the sides of the circumscribed figure, that is, by the number of the points A, B, C, &c. the rectangle contained by the sum of the perpendiculars DE, DF, DG, &c. and the diameter, will be equal to twice the multiple of the square of the semidiameter by the number of the points A, B, C, &c. Therefore the sum of the squares of AD, BD, CD, &c. will be equal to twice the multiple

of the square of the semidiameter by the number of the points A, B, C, &c. \mathcal{Q} , E. D.

2. When the point D [Fig. 7.] is not in the circumference of the circle, it is to be shewn, that the sum of the squares of AD, BD, CD, &c. is equal to the multiple of the square of the line drawn from the centre of the circle to the point D by the number of the points A, B, C, &c. together with the multiple of the square of the semidiameter by the same number.

Let E be the centre of the circle, and join DE; let DE meet the circle in the point F on the other side of the centre E, and join AE, BE, CE, &c. AF, BF, CF, &c. The square of AD together with the space to which the square of AF has the same ratio that EF has to ED, will [2.] be equal to the rectangle EDF together with the space to which the square of AE, or EF; has the same ratio that EF has to FD, that is, together with the rectangle EFD: And therefore the square of AD together with the space to which the square of AF has the same ratio that EF has to ED, will be equal to the square of DF. The same way it is shown, that the square of

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BD together with the space to which the square of BF has the same ratio that EF has to ED, is equal to the square of DF, and so on: Therefore the sum of the squares of AD, BD, CD, &c. together with the space to which the sum of the squares of AF, BF, CF, &c. has the same ratio that EF has to ED, will be equal to the multiple of the square of DF by the number of the points A, B, C, &c. But because the sum of the squares of AF, BF, CF, &c. is equal [by the first part of this] to twice the multiple of the square of EF by the number of the points A, B, C, &c. the space to which the sum of the squares of AF, BF, CF, &c. has the same ratio that EF has to ED, will be equal to twice the multiple of the rectangle FED by the number of the points A, B, C, &c.: Therefore the sum of the squares of AD, BD, CD, &c. together with twice the multiple of the rectangle FED by the number of the points A, B, C, &c. is equal to the multiple of the square of DF by the same number: And therefore the sum of the squares of AD, BD, CD, &c. is equal to the multiple of the sum of the squares of DE, EF by the number

ber of the points A, B, C, &c. *Q. E. D.*

COR. I. Let there be two circles having the same centre, and let the circumference of one of the circles be divided into any number of equal parts, and from the points of division let there be drawn right lines to any point in the circumference of the other, the sum of the squares of these lines will always be the same.

COR. II. Let there be two regular figures inscribed in a circle, and from all the angles of both figures let there be drawn right lines to any point, the sum of the squares of the lines drawn from the angles of the one, will be to the sum of the squares of the lines drawn from the angles of the other, as the number of the sides of the one to the number of the sides of the other.

LEMMA II. *Fig. 8, 9.*

Let there be any number of right lines AB, AC, AD, AE, &c. intersecting each other in the point A, and making all the angles about the point A equal; let there be any circle passing through the point A; the circumference

circumference of the circle will be divided by the lines intersecting each other in the point A into as many equal parts as there are lines.

1. When the circle does not touch any of the lines intersecting each other in the point A. [Fig. 8.]

Let AB, AC, AD, AE, &c. meet the circle in B, C, D, E, &c. Because the angles BAC, CAD, DAE, &c. are equal, the segments BC, CD, DE, &c. will be equal. Let BE be the segment in which the point A is; draw BD, ED to any point D in the circle; the angle BDE will be equal to the angle adjacent to the angle BAE, that is, to the angle BAF, or BAC; therefore the segment BAE is equal to the segment BC.

2. When the circle touches one of the lines intersecting each other in the point A. [Fig. 9.]

Let it touch AB, and let AC, AD, AE meet the circle in C, D, E. Because the angle CAD is equal to the angle DAE, CD will be equal to DE, &c. Join CD; and because the angle ADC is equal to the angle CAB, that is, to the angle CAD, or DAE, the

the segment AC will be equal to the segment CD, or DE. The same way it is shown, that the segment AE is equal to the segment DE, or DC. Therefore the Lemma is evident.
Q. E. D.

PROPOSITION V.

THEOREM III. *Fig. 10. II.*

Let there be any regular figure circumscribed about a circle, and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figure, and likewise a right line to the centre of the circle; twice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars to the sides of the figure, will be equal to the multiple of the square of the line drawn to the centre by the number of the sides of the figure, together with twice the multiple of the square of the semidiameter by the same number.

1. When the number of the sides of the figure circumscribed about the circle is even,
 [*Fig. 10.*]

Let ABCDEF, &c. be any regular figure of an even number of sides circumscribed about

A circle, and from any point G let there be drawn GH, GK, GL, GM, GN, GO perpendicular to the sides of the figure, and let a be the centre of the circle, and join Ga ; twice the sum of the squares of $GH, GK, GL, GM, GN, GO, \&c.$ will be equal to the multiple of the square of Ga by the number of the sides of the figure, together with twice the multiple of the square of the semi-diameter of the circle by the same number.

Let the circumscribed figure touch the circle in $P, Q, R, S, T, V, \&c.$ and join $GP, GQ, GR, GS, GT, GV, \&c.$ join $aP, aQ, aR, \&c.$ and draw $GX, GY, GZ, \&c.$ perpendicular to $aP, aQ, aR, \&c.$

Because the number of the sides of the circumscribed figure is even, it is plain, that $aP, aQ, aR, \&c.$ will pass through the opposite points of contact, that is, through the points S, T, V ; and therefore the number of lines intersecting each other in the point a will be half the number of the sides of the figure, and all the angles round the point a will be equal. Because the sum of the squares of GH, GX is equal to the square of GP , and the sum of the squares of GK, GY equal to the

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the square of GQ , and so on; it is evident, that the sum of the squares of GH , GK , GL , GM , GN , GO , &c. together with twice the sum of the squares of GX , GY , GZ , &c. is equal to the sum of the squares of GP , GQ , GR , GS , GT , GV , &c. that is, [4.], equal to the multiple of the square of Ga by the number of the sides of the figure together with the multiple of the square of the semidiameter of the circle by the same number: Therefore twice the sum of the squares of GH , GK , GL , GM , GN , GO , &c. together with four times the sum of the squares of GX , GY , GZ , &c. will be equal to twice the multiple of the square of Ga by the number of the sides of the figure together with twice the multiple of the square of the semidiameter of the circle by the same number. Again, Because the angles GXa , GZa , GYa are right, the points X , Y , Z will be in the circumference of the circle whose diameter is Ga ; and because the circle passes through the point a , the circumference will be divided into equal parts in the points X , Y , Z as many in number as there are right lines aP , aQ , aR , &c. [Lem. 2.]. Bisect Ga in b ; the sum of the squares of GX , GY ,

$GY, GZ, \&c.$ will [4.] be equal to twice the multiple of the square of Gb by the number of the lines $aP, aQ, aR, \&c.$ that is, (because the number of the lines $aP, aQ, aR, \&c.$ is equal to half the number of the sides of the figure), equal to the multiple of the square of Gb by the number of the sides of the circumscribed figure; and therefore four times the sum of the squares of $GX, GY, GZ, \&c.$ will be equal to the multiple of the square of aG by the number of the sides of the figure. Therefore twice the sum of the squares of $GH, GK, GL, GM, GN, GO, \&c.$ together with the multiple of the square of Ga by the number of the sides of the circumscribed figure, will be equal to twice the multiple of the square of Ga by the number of the sides of the figure together with twice the multiple of the square of the semidiameter by the same number: And therefore the sum of the squares of $GH, GK, GL, GM, GN, GO, \&c.$ will be equal to the multiple of the square of Ga by the number of the sides of the figure together with twice the multiple of the square of the semidiameter by the same number.

a. When the number of the sides of the figure

C

figure

gure circumscribed about the circle is odd;
 [Fig. 11.]

Let ABCDE, &c. be any regular figure of an odd number of sides circumscribed about a circle, and from any point F let there be drawn FG, FH, FK, FL, FM, &c. perpendicular to the sides of the figure, and let a be the centre of the circle, and join Fa ; twice the sum of the squares of FG, FH, FK, FL, FM, &c. will be equal to the multiple of the square of Fa by the number of the sides of the figure together with twice the multiple of the square of the semidiameter of the circle by the same number.

Let the circumscribed figure touch the circle in the points N, O, P, Q, R, &c. and join FN, FO, FP, FQ, FR, &c. join aN , aO , aP , aQ , aR , &c. and draw FS, FT, FV, FX, FY, &c. perpendicular to aN , aO , aP , aQ , aR , &c. Because the sum of the squares of FG, FS is equal to the square of FN, and the sum of the squares of FH, FT equal to the square of FO, and so on; it is evident, that the sum of the squares of FG, FH, FK, FL, FM, &c. together with the sum of the squares of FS, FT, FV, FX, FY, &c. is equal to the sum

sum of the squares of FN, FO, FP, FQ, FR;
 &c. that is, [4.] equal to the multiple of the
 square of Fa by the number of the sides of the
 figure together with the multiple of the square
 of the semidiameter by the same number;
 therefore twice the sum of the squares of FG,
 FH, FK, FL, FM, &c. together with twice
 the sum of the squares of FS, FT, FV, FX,
 FY, &c. is equal to twice the multiple of the
 square of Fa by the number of the sides of the
 figure together with twice the multiple of the
 square of the semidiameter of the circle by the
 same number. Again, Because the angles FSa,
 FTa, FVa, FXa, FYa, &c. are right, the
 points S, T, V, X, Y, &c. will be in the cir-
 cumference of the circle whose diameter is Fa;
 and because the circle passes through the
 point a, and the lines aN, aO, aP, aQ, aR,
 &c. make all the angles round the point a
 equal, the circumference of the circle will be
 divided into equal parts in the points S, T, V,
 X, Y, &c. as many in number as there are
 right lines aN, aO, aP, aQ, aR, &c. [Lem.2.].
 Bisect Fa in b; the sum of the squares of FS,
 FT, FV, FX, FY, &c. will be equal to twice
 the multiple of the square of Fb by the num-

ber of the lines $aN, aO, aP, aQ, aR, \&c.$
 [4.] that is, by the number of the sides of
 the circumscribed figure; and therefore twice
 the sum of the squares of $FS, FT, FV, FX,$
 $FY, \&c.$ will be equal to the multiple of the
 square of Fa by the number of the sides of the
 figure. Therefore twice the sum of the squares
 of $FG, FH, FK, FL, FM, \&c.$ together with
 the multiple of the square of Fa by the num-
 ber of the sides of the figure, will be equal to
 twice the multiple of the square of Fa by the
 number of the sides of the figure together with
 twice the multiple of the square of the semi-
 diameter of the circle by the same number;
 And therefore twice the sum of the squares of
 $FG, FH, FK, FL, FM, \&c.$ will be equal to
 the multiple of the square of Fa by the num-
 ber of the sides of the figure together with
 twice the multiple of the square of the semi-
 diameter of the circle by the same number?

Q. E. D.

COR. I. Let there be any regular figure cir-
 cumscribed about a circle, and from any point
 in the circumference of the circle let there be
 drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figure;
 twice the sum of the squares of the perpen-
 diculars

diculars will be equal to thrice the multiple of the square of the semidiameter of the circle by the number of the sides of the figure.

COR. II. Let there be two circles having the same centre, and from any point in the circumference of the one let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of any regular figure circumscribed about the other; the sum of the squares of these perpendiculars will always be the same.

COR. III. Let there be two regular figures circumscribed about a circle, and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of both figures; the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the one, will be to the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the other, as the number of the sides of the one to the number of the sides of the other.

PROPOSITION VI. *Fig. 12. 13.*

Let A, B be two points in the semidiameter of a circle whose centre is C, and let the rectangle ACB be equal to the square of the semidiameter; bisect AB in D, and draw
DE

DE perpendicular to AB; from the point A draw AF to any point F in the circle, and draw FE perpendicular to DE; the square of AF will be equal to twice the rectangle contained by AC, FE.

Let CG be equal to AC, and join GF; let EF meet the circle in H, and join AH, GH, AE, CE, CF, CH; and let CE meet the circle in K, L.

The square of CD is equal to the rectangle ACB together with the square of AD, that is, equal to the square of the semidiameter together with the square of AD. Add the square of DE to both; and the square of CE will be equal to the square of the semidiameter together with the square of AE. Take away the square of the semidiameter from both; and the square of AE will be equal to the rectangle KEL, that is, equal to the rectangle FEH: And therefore FE is to AE, as AE to EH; Therefore the triangles AEF, AHE are similar, and the angle EAF will be equal to the angle AHE, that is, equal to the angle HAG. Again, Because the angle ACF is equal to the angle CFH, that is, equal to the

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the angle CHF, or GCH, the angle ACH will be equal to the angle GCF; and because AC, CH are equal to GC, CF, the triangles ACH, GCF will be every way equal, and the angle CGF will be equal to the angle HAG, that is, equal to the angle EAF; and because the angles EFA, FAG are equal, the triangles AEF, FAG will be similar; and therefore EF will be to AF, as AF to AG: Therefore the square of AF is equal to the rectangle contained by EF, AG, that is, equal to twice the rectangle contained by FE, AC. Q. E. D.

PROPOSITION. VII.

THEOREM IV. Fig. 14. 15.

Let there be any circle whose centre is A, and let BCD be a segment of the circle, and BD the chord of the segment; about the segment let there be any equilateral figure circumscribed touching the circle in the points E, F, G, &c. and let the two sides of the figure next to BD meet BD in H, K; bisect the segment BCD in F, and join AF; in AF take the point L on the same side the centre

centre *A* with the point *F*, and let the sum of the sides of the figure circumscribed about the segment be to *HK* as the semidiameter to *AL*; draw *LM* perpendicular to *AL* meeting the circle in *M*. If from the points *E, F, G, &c.* the points of contact of the circumscribed figure, and the point *L*, there be drawn right lines to any point *N*, the sum of the squares of *EN, FN, GN, &c.* will be equal to the multiple of the sum of the squares of *LM, LN* by the number of the sides of the figure.

1. When the point *N* is in the circumference of the circle. [Fig. 14.]

In *AF* take the point *O*, and let the rectangle *LAO* be equal to the square of the semidiameter of the circle, and let *OP* be perpendicular to *AF*; draw *NP* perpendicular to *OP*; bisect *LO* in *Q*, and let *QR* parallel to *OP* meet *NP* in *R*; let *NP, AO* meet *BD* in *S, T*, and join *AH, AK, NH, NK*; and join likewise *AM*, and draw *NV, NX, NY, &c.* perpendicular to the sides of the figure meeting the sides of the figure in *V, X, Y, &c.*

Because

7. 24

Fig. 9

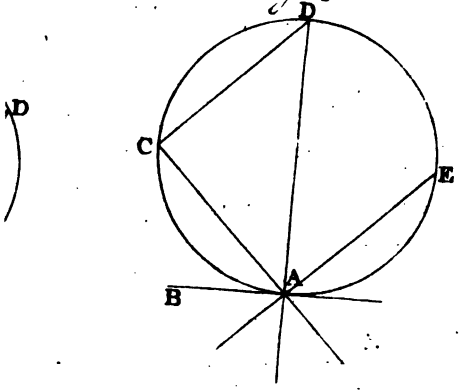
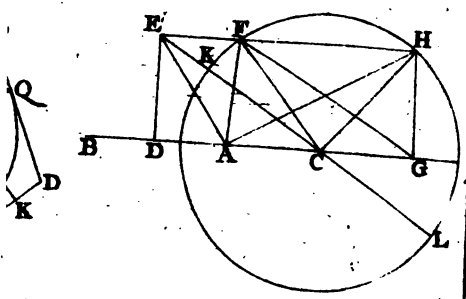


Fig. 12



Because the rectangle LAO is equal to the square of the semidiameter of the circle, that is, equal to the square of AF; AO will be to AF, as AF to AL, that is, as the sum of the sides of the figure circumscribed about the segment to HK; and therefore the rectangle contained by AO, HK will be equal to the rectangle contained by AF and the sum of the sides of the figure, that is, will be equal to twice the figure AHEFGKA. And because the rectangle contained by AT, HK is equal to twice the triangle AHK, the rectangle contained by OT, HK will be equal to twice the figure HEFGKH, that is, the rectangle contained by PS, HK will be equal to twice the figure HEFGKH. Again, Because the rectangle contained by NS, HK is equal to twice the triangle NHK, the rectangle contained by NP, HK will be equal to twice the figure NHEFGKN. But the rectangle contained by the sum of the perpendiculars NV, NX, NY, &c. and one of the sides of the figure, is equal to twice the figure NHEFGKN; therefore the rectangle contained by NP, HK is equal to the rectangle contained by the sum of NV, NX, NY, &c.

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and one of the sides of the figure : And therefore NP will be to one of the sides of the figure, as the sum of the perpendiculars NV, NX, NY to HK, that is, the multiple of NP by the number of the sides of the figure, will be to the sum of the sides of the figure, as the sum of the perpendiculars NV, NX, NY, &c. to HK : Therefore the multiple of NP by the number of the sides of the figure, will be to the sum of the perpendiculars NV, NX, NY, as the sum of the sides of the figure to HK, that is, as AF to AL, or twice AF to twice AL : Therefore twice the multiple of the rectangle contained by NP, AL by the number of the sides of the figure, is equal to the rectangle contained by the sum of the perpendiculars NV, NX, NY, &c. and twice AF. But because [*Lem. 1.*] the square of NE is equal to the rectangle contained by NV and twice AF, and the square of NF equal to the rectangle contained by NX and twice AF, and the square of NG equal to the rectangle contained by NY and twice AF, and so on; the sum of the squares of NE, NF, NG, &c. will be equal to the rectangle contained by the sum of the perpendiculars
 NV,

NV, NX, NY, &c. and twice AF, that is, will be equal to twice the multiple of the rectangle contained by NP, AL by the number of the sides of the figure. Again, Because the rectangle OAL is equal to the square of AM, the rectangle OLA will be equal to the square of LM, that is, twice the rectangle contained by PR, AL will be equal to the square of LM. And because [6.] twice the rectangle contained by NR, AL is equal to the square of LN, twice the rectangle contained by NP, AL will be equal to the sum of the squares of LM, LN: Therefore twice the multiple of the rectangle contained by NP, AL by the number of the sides of the figure, will be equal to the multiple of the sum of the squares of LM, LN by the same number: And therefore the sum of the squares of NE, NF, NG, &c. will be equal to the multiple of the sum of the squares of LM, LN by the number of the sides of the figure. Q. E. D.

2. When the point N is not in the circumference of the circle. [Fig. 15.]

Join NA, and let NA meet the circle in the point O on the other side the centre A

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with the point N ; and join EO , FO , GO , &c. LO ; join likewise EA , FA , GA , &c. and join AM ; let LO meet the circle in P , and draw NQ parallel to AL meeting OL in Q .

Because [2.] the square of EN together with the space to which the square of EO has the same ratio that OA has to AN , is equal to the rectangle ANO together with the space to which the square of AE has the same ratio that AO has to ON , and the square of AE is equal to the sum of the squares of AL , LM ; the square of EN together with the space to which the square of EO has the same ratio that OA has to AN , will be equal to the rectangle ANO together with the space to which the square of AL has the same ratio that AO has to ON together with the space to which the square of LM has the same ratio. But [2.] the rectangle ANO together with the space to which the square of AL has the same ratio that AO has to NO , is equal to the square of NL together with the space to which the square of LQ has the same ratio that OA has to AN . Therefore the square of EN together with the space to which the square

Square of EO has the same ratio that OA has to AN, is equal to the square of NL together with the space to which the square of LO has the same ratio that OA has to AN together with the space to which the square of LM has the same ratio that OA has to ON. Because the square of LO is to the rectangle OLQ as OL to LQ, that is, as OA to AN, the rectangle OLQ will be the space to which the square of OL has the same ratio that OA has to AN. And because the rectangle OLP is to the rectangle contained by LP, OQ as OL to OQ, that is, as OA to ON, and the square of LM is equal to the rectangle OLP, the square of LM will be to the rectangle contained by LP, OQ as OA to ON: Therefore the rectangle contained by LP, OQ will be the space to which the square of LM has the same ratio that OA has to ON. And therefore the square of EN together with the space to which the square of EO has the same ratio that OA has to AN, is equal to the square of NL together with the rectangle OLQ together with the rectangle contained by LP, OQ. But because the rectangle contained by LP, OQ is equal to the rectangle OLP together

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ther with the rectangle contained by LP, LQ; therefore the rectangle OLQ together with the rectangle contained by LP, OQ is equal to the rectangle OLP together with the rectangle contained by OP, LQ, that is, equal to the square of LM together with the rectangle contained by OP, LQ. Therefore the square of NE together with the space to which the square of EO has the same ratio that OA has to AN, is equal to the sum of the squares of LM, LN together with the rectangle contained by OP, LQ. The same way it is shewn, that the square of FN together with the space to which the square of FO has the same ratio that OA has to AN, is equal to the sum of the squares of LM, LN together with the rectangle contained by OP, LQ; and likewise, that the square of GN together with the space to which the square of GO has the same ratio that OA has to AN, is equal to the sum of the squares of LM, LN together with the rectangle contained by OP, LQ; and so on. Therefore the sum of the squares of EN, FN, GN, &c. together with the space to which the sum of the squares of EO, FO, GO, &c. has the same ratio that OA has to AN,

AN, is equal to the multiple of the sum of the squares of LM, LN by the number of the sides of the figure together with the multiple of the rectangle contained by OP, LQ by the same number.

Again, Because the sum of the squares of EO, FO, GO, &c. is (by the first part of this) equal to the multiple of the sum of the squares of LM, LO by the number of the sides of the figure, and the square of LM is equal to the rectangle OLP; the sum of the squares of EO, FO, GO, &c. will be equal to the multiple of the rectangle LOP by the number of the sides of the figure. And because OA is to AN as OL to LQ, that is, as the rectangle LOP to the rectangle contained by OP, LQ, that is, as the multiple of the rectangle LOP by the number of the sides of the figure to the multiple of the rectangle contained by OP, LQ by the same number, and the sum of the squares of EO, FO, GO, &c. is equal to the multiple of the rectangle LOP by the number of the sides of the figure; the sum of the squares of EO, FO, GO, &c. will be to the multiple of the rectangle contained by OP, LQ as OA to AN. And therefore the multiple

multiple of the rectangle contained by OP , LQ by the number of the sides of the figure, will be the space to which the sum of the squares of EO , FO , GO , &c. has the same ratio that OA has to AN : Therefore the sum of the squares of EN , FN , GN , &c. together with the multiple of the rectangle contained by OP , LQ by the number of the sides of the figure, is equal to the multiple of the sum of the squares of LM , LN by the number of the sides of the figure together with the multiple of the rectangle contained by OP , LQ by the same number. And therefore the sum of the squares of EN , FN , GN , &c. will be equal to the multiple of the sum of the squares of LM , LN by the number of the sides of the figure. *Q. E. D.*

PROPOSITION VIII.

THEOREM V. *Fig. 16.*

Let there be any circle whose centre is A , and let BCD be a semicircle, and BD the diameter of the circle; about the semicircle let there

there be any regular figure described, and let the sides of the figure next to BD meet BD in E, F; bisect the semicircle in G, and join AG; and in AG take the point H on the same side the centre A with the point G, and let AG be to AH as the sum of the sides of the figure to EF; and let the rectangle HAK be equal to the square of the semidiameter, and let HL be equal to AH: If from any point M there be drawn MN, MO, MP, &c. perpendicular to the sides of the figure circumscribed about the semicircle, and likewise there be drawn ML to the point L; twice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars MN, MO, MP, &c. will be equal to the multiple of the square of ML by the number of the sides of the figure together with the multiple of the rectangle KLA by the same number.

Let the figure touch the semicircle in the points Q, R, S, &c. and join AQ, AR, AS, &c.; draw MT, MV, MX, &c. perpendicular to AQ, AR, AS; join MA, MH, and draw HY perpendicular to AH meeting
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the circle in Y, and join MQ, MR, MS, &c.

Because [7.] the sum of the squares of MQ, MR, MS, &c. is equal to the multiple of the sum of the squares of HM, HY by the number of the sides of the figure circumscribed about the semicircle, twice the sum of the squares of MQ, MR, MS, &c. will be equal to twice the multiple of the sum of the squares of HM, HY by the number of the sides of the figure: Therefore twice the sum of the squares of MQ, MR, MS, &c. together with twice the multiple of the square of AH by the number of the sides of the figure, is equal to twice the multiple of the sum of the squares of HM, HA by the number of the sides of the figure together with twice the multiple of the square of HY by the same number. And because twice the sum of the squares of HM, HA is equal to the sum of the squares of ML, MA, twice the multiple of the sum of the squares of HM, HA by the number of the sides of the figure, will be equal to the multiple of the sum of the squares of ML, MA by the same number: Therefore twice the sum of the squares

squares of MQ , MR , MS , &c. together with twice the multiple of the square of AH by the number of the sides of the figure, is equal to the multiple of the sum of the squares of ML , MA by the same number. But because twice the sum of the squares of MN , MO , MP , &c. together with twice the sum of the squares of MT , MV , MX , &c. is equal to twice the sum of the squares of MQ , MR , MS , &c.; therefore twice the sum of the squares of MN , MO , MP together with twice the sum of the squares of MT , MV , MX , &c. is equal to the multiple of the sum of the squares of ML , MA by the number of the sides of the figure together with twice the multiple of the square of HY by the same number.

Again, Because the angles MTA , MVA , MXA are right, the points T , V , X will be in the circumference of the circle whose diameter is AM ; and because AQ , AR , AS , &c. make all the angles about the point A equal, the circumference of this circle will be divided into equal parts in the points T , V , X , &c. [*Lem. 2.*] as many in number as there are lines AQ , AR , AS , &c. that is, into as

many equal parts as there are sides in the circumscribed figure : Therefore twice the sum of the squares of $MT, MV, MX, \&c.$ will be equal to the multiple of the square of MA by the number of the sides of the figure : Therefore twice the sum of the squares of $MN, MO, MP, \&c.$ together with the multiple of the square of MA by the number of the sides of the figure together with twice the multiple of the square of AH by the same number, is equal to the multiple of the sum of the squares of ML, MA by the number of the sides of the figure together with twice the multiple of the square of HY by the same number : And therefore twice the sum of the squares of $MN, MO, MP, \&c.$ together with twice the multiple of the square of AH by the number of the sides of the figure, is equal to the multiple of the square of ML by the number of the sides of the figure together with twice the multiple of the square of HY by the same number.

Again, Because the rectangle HAK is equal to the square of the semidiameter of the circle, that is, equal to the sum of the squares of AH, HY ; the rectangle KHA , that is, the
rectangle

rectangle KHL, will be equal to the square of HY : And therefore twice the multiple of the rectangle KHL by the number of the sides of the figure, will be equal to twice the multiple of the square of HY by the same number : Therefore twice the sum of the squares of MN, MO, MP, &c. together with twice the multiple of the square of AH or HL by the number of the sides of the figure, is equal to the multiple of the square of ML by the number of the sides of the figure together with twice the multiple of the rectangle KHL by the same number. Therefore twice the sum of the squares of MN, MO, MP, &c. is equal to the multiple of the square of ML by the number of the sides of the figure together with the multiple of the rectangle KLA by the same number. *Q. E. D.*

COR. Let there be any equilateral figure inscribed in a semicircle; a point is given, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figure, and likewise a right line to the given point, twice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars will be equal to the multiple of the square of the line drawn to the given point

point by the number of the sides of the figure together with a given space.

Let ABCD [Fig. 17.] be an equilateral figure inscribed in a semicircle; let AD be the diameter, and F the centre; bisect the semicircle in G, and join FG; let FH be perpendicular to AB one of the sides of the figure; in FG take the point K, and let FH be to FK as the sum of the sides of the figure ABCD to AD; let KL be equal to FK, and let the rectangle KFM be equal to the square of FH: If from any point N there be drawn NO, NP, NQ, &c. perpendicular to AB, BC, CD, &c. the sides of the figure, and likewise there be drawn NL to the point L, twice the sum of the squares of NO, NP, NQ, &c. will be equal to the multiple of the square of NL by the number of the sides of the figure together with the multiple of the rectangle MLF by the same number.

The second and fourth theorems are but particular cases of one more general; which is this.

PROPOSITION IX.

THEOREM VI.

Let there be any number of given points; a point may be found, such, that if from all the given points there be drawn right lines to the point found, and from all the given points and the point found there be drawn right lines to any point, the sum of the squares of the lines drawn from the given points, will be equal to the sum of the squares of the lines drawn from the given points to the point found together with the multiple by the number of the given points of the square of the line drawn from the point found.

For example: Let the number of the given points be three, and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be three given points; a point may be found, such, that if from the three given points there be drawn right lines to the point found, and from the three given points and the point found there be drawn right lines
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to any point, the sum of the squares of the lines drawn from the three given points, will be equal to the sum of the squares of the lines drawn from the three given points to the point found together with thrice the square of the line drawn from the point found.

This theorem may be made more general thus.

PROPOSITION X.

THEOREM VII.

Let there be any number of given points A, B, C, &c. [Fig. 18.] and let a, b, c, &c. be given magnitudes as many in number as there are given points; a point X may be found, such, that if from the given points A, B, C, &c. there be drawn right lines to the point X, and from the given points and the point X there be drawn right lines to any point Y, the square of AY, together with the space to which the square of BY has the same ratio that a has to b, together with the space to which the square of CY has the same

same ratio that a has to c, and so on; will be equal to the square of AX, together with the space to which the square of BX has the same ratio that a has to b, together with the space to which the square of CX has the same ratio that a has to c, and so on, together with the space to which the square of XY has the same ratio that a has to the sum of a, b, c, &c.

Let the number of the given points be three, and let a, b, c be equal to 1, 2, 3; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let A, B, C be three given points; a point X may be found, such, that if from the points A, B, C there be drawn right lines to the point X, and from the points A, B, C and the point X there be drawn right lines to any point Y, the square of AY together with twice the square of BY together with thrice the square of CY, will be equal to the square of AX together with twice the square of BX together with thrice the square of CX together with six times the square of XY.

COR. I. Let there be any number of circles given by position, and about each of the circles

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let

let there be an equilateral figure circumscribed, a point may be found, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of all the figures, and likewise there be drawn a right line to the point found, twice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars will be equal to the multiple of the square of the line drawn to the point found by the number of the sides of all the figures together with a given space.

Suppose, for example, two circles to be given by position, and about one of the circles let there be an equilateral triangle circumscribed, and about the other let there be a square circumscribed; a point may be found, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the triangle and the square, and likewise there be drawn a right line to the point found, twice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars will be equal to seven times the square of the line drawn to the point found together with a given space.

COR. II. Let there be any number of semicircles given by position, and about each of the semicircles let there be an equilateral figure circumscribed; a point may be found, such,

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let there be an equilateral figure circumscribed; a point may be found, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of all the figures, and likewise there be drawn a right line to the point found, twice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars will be equal to the multiple of the square of the line drawn to the point found by the number of the sides of all the figures together with a given space.

Suppose, for example, two circles to be given by position, and about one of the circles let there be an equilateral triangle circumscribed, and about the other let there be a square circumscribed; a point may be found, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the triangle and the square, and likewise there be drawn a right line to the point found, twice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars will be equal to seven times the square of the line drawn to the point found together with a given space.

COR. II. Let there be any number of semicircles given by position, and about each of the semicircles let there be an equilateral figure circumscribed; a point may be found, such,

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let there be an equilateral figure circumscribed; a point may be found, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of all the figures, and likewise there be drawn a right line to the point found, twice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars will be equal to the multiple of the square of the line drawn to the point found by the number of the sides of all the figures together with a given space.

Suppose, for example, two circles to be given by position, and about one of the circles let there be an equilateral triangle circumscribed, and about the other let there be a square circumscribed; a point may be found, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the triangle and the square, and likewise there be drawn a right line to the point found, twice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars will be equal to seven times the square of the line drawn to the point found together with a given space.

Cor. II. Let there be any number of semicircles given by position, and about each of the semicircles let there be an equilateral figure circumscribed; a point may be found, such,

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such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of all the figures, and likewise there be drawn a right line to the point found, twice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars will be equal to the multiple of the square of the line drawn to the point found by the number of the sides of all the figures together with a given space.

Suppose, for example, two semicircles to be given by position, and about each of the semicircles let there be an equilateral figure circumscribed, and let the number of the sides of the one be three, and the number of the sides of the other be four; a point may be found, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of both the figures, and likewise there be drawn a right line to the point found, twice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the figures, will be equal to seven times the square of the line drawn to the point found together with a given space.

COR. III. Let there be any number of circles given by position, and likewise any number of semicircles given by position; and about each of the circles let there be an equilateral

teral figure circumscribed, and likewise about each of the semicircles let there be an equilateral figure circumscribed: a point may be found, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of all the figures, and likewise a right line to the point found, twice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars will be equal to the multiple of the square of the line drawn to the point found by the number of the sides of all the figures.

Suppose, for example, two circles to be given by position, and likewise two semicircles to be given by position; and about each of the circles let there be an equilateral figure circumscribed, and likewise about each of the semicircles let there be an equilateral figure circumscribed; and let the number of the sides of the figure circumscribed about one of the circles be three, and the number of the sides of the figure circumscribed about the other be four; and let the number of the sides of the figure circumscribed about one of the semicircles be three, and the number of the sides of the figure circumscribed about the other be five: a point may be found, such,
that

that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of all the figures, and likewise there be drawn a right line to the point found, twice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the figures, will be equal to fifteen times the square of the line drawn to the point found together with a given space.

From the two last theorems the two following theorems may be easily derived.

PROPOSITION. XI.

THEOREM. VIII.

Let there be any number of given points, two points may be found, such, that if from all the given points and the two points found there be drawn right lines to any point, twice the sum of the squares of the lines drawn from the given points, will be equal to the multiple by the number of the given points of the sum of the squares of the lines drawn from the two points found.

Let the number of the given points be three, and the theorem will be as follows.

Let

Let there be three given points, two points may be found, such, that if from the three given points and the two points found there be drawn right lines to any point, twice the sum of the squares of the lines drawn from the three given points, will be equal to six times the sum of the squares of the lines drawn from the two points found; and so on,

PROPOSITION XII.

THEOREM IX.

Let there be any number of given points, and let $a, b, c, \&c.$ be given magnitudes, as many in number as there are given points; two points may be found, such, that if from all the given points and the two points found there be drawn right lines to any point, the square of the line drawn from one of the given points, together with the space to which the square of the line drawn from another of the given points has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the space to which the square of the line drawn from another of the given points has the same ratio that a has to c ,

to c, and so on, will be equal to the space to which the sum of the squares of the lines drawn from the two points found has the same ratio that twice a has to the sum of a, b, c, &c.

Let the number of the given points be three, and let a, b, c be equal to 1, 2, 3; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be three given points, two points may be found, such, that if from the three given points and the two points found there be drawn right lines to any point, the square of the line drawn from one of the given points together with twice the square of the line drawn from another of the given points together with thrice the square of the line drawn from the third given point, will be equal to the space to which the sum of the squares of the lines drawn from the two points found has the same ratio that two has to six, that is, will be equal to thrice the sum of the squares of the lines drawn from the two points found; and so on.

PROPOSITION XIII.

THEOREM X.

Let there be any number of right lines given by position, and parallel to each other; a right line may be found parallel to the lines given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn a perpendicular to the right lines given by position and to the line found, the sum of the squares of the lines intercepted between the point and the right lines given by position, will be equal to the multiple of the square of the line intercepted between the point and the right line found, by the number of the right lines given by position, together with a given space.

Let the number of the lines given by position be three, and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be three lines given by position, and parallel to each other; a line may be found parallel to the right lines given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn a perpendicular to the right lines given by position

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tion and to the line found, the sum of the squares of the lines intercepted between the point and the three lines given by position, will be equal to thrice the square of the line intercepted between the point and the line found, together with a given space. And so on.

PROPOSITION XIV.

THEOREM XI.

Let there be any number of right lines intersecting each other in one point, and making all the angles round the point of intersection equal; and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines, and likewise let there be drawn a right line to the point of intersection: twice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars will be equal to the multiple of the square of the line drawn to the point of intersection by the number of the lines.

Let the number of the lines be three, and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be three right lines intersecting

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each

each other in a point, and making all the angles round the point of intersection equal; and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the three lines, and likewise let there be drawn a right line to the point of intersection: twice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars will be equal to thrice the square of the line drawn to the point of intersection.

Again, Let there be five right lines intersecting each other in one point, and making all the angles round the point of intersection equal; and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines, and likewise let there be drawn a right line to the point of intersection: twice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars will be equal to five times the square of the line drawn to the point of intersection. And so on.

This theorem is very easily deduced from *Prop. 4. by Lem. 2.*

COR. If there be any number of right lines intersecting each other in a given point, and making all the angles round the point of intersection equal; and from a point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines, and the sum of the
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the squares of the perpendiculars be equal to a given space; the point from which the perpendiculars are drawn will be in the circumference of a given circle.

PROPOSITION XV.

THEOREM XII.

Let there be any number of right lines given by position intersecting each other in a point; two right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to all the right lines given by position, and likewise perpendiculars to the two right lines found, twice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines given by position, will be equal to the multiple of the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the two lines found by the number of the lines given by position.

Let the number of the lines given by position be three, and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be three right lines given by position

fition intersecting each other in a point; two right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the three lines given by position and to the two lines found, twice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the three lines given by position, will be equal to thrice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the two lines found. And so on,

PROPOSITION XVI.

THEOREM XIII.

Let there be any number of right lines given by position, that are neither all parallel, nor intersecting each other in one point; two right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise perpendiculars to the two right lines found, twice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines given by position, will be equal to the multiple of the sum of the
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the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the two right lines found by the number of the right lines given by position, together with a given space.

Let the number of the lines given by position be three, and the theorem will be as follows,

Let there be three right lines given by position, that are neither all parallel, nor intersecting each other in one point; two right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the three lines given by position and to the two lines found, twice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the three lines given by position, will be equal to thrice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the two lines found, together with a given space. And so on.

COR. If the right lines given by position be so situated, as to form an equilateral figure circumscribed either about a circle or semi-circle; or, if the number of the lines given by position be even, and each two and two of the lines intersect each other at right angles; the

any point there be drawn right lines in given angles to all the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the two lines found, the sum of the squares of the lines drawn in given angles to the right lines given by position, will be equal to the space to which the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the two lines found has a given ratio.

PROPOSITION XX.

THEOREM XVII.

Let there be any number of right lines given by position, that are neither all parallel, nor intersecting each other in one point, and let $a, b, c,$ &c. be given magnitudes as many in number as there are right lines given by position; two right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the two right lines found, the square of the perpendicular drawn to one of the lines given by position

position, together with the space to which the square of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the space to which the square of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be equal to the space to which the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the two lines found has the same ratio that twice a has to the sum of a, b, c , &c. together with a given space.

Let the number of the lines given by position be three, and let a, b, c be equal to 1, 2, 3; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be three right lines given by position, that are neither all parallel, nor intersecting each other in one point; two right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the three lines given by position and to the two lines found, the square of the perpendicular drawn to one of the right lines given by position, together with twice the square of the perpendicular drawn
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to another of the lines given by position, together with thrice the square of the perpendicular drawn to the third line given by position, will be equal to thrice the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the two lines found, together with a given space. And so on.

COR. Let there be any number of right lines given by position, that are neither all parallel, nor intersecting each other in one point; two right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn right lines in given angles to all the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the two lines found, the sum of the squares of the lines drawn in given angles to the right lines given by position, will be equal to the space to which the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the two lines found has a given ratio, together with a given space.

P R O-

PROPOSITION XXI.

THEOREM XVIII.

Let there be any number of right lines given by position, and let a , b , c , &c. be given magnitudes as many in number as there are right lines given by position; three right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to all the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the three lines found, the square of the perpendicular drawn to one of the lines given by position, together with the space to which the square of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the space to which the square of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be equal to the space to which the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the three lines found has the same ratio that thrice a has to the sum of a , b , c , &c.

Let the number of the lines given by position

tion be four, and let a, b, c, d be equal to 1, 2, 3, 4; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be four right lines given by position; three right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the four lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the three lines found, the square of the perpendicular drawn to one of the lines given by position, together with twice the square of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position, together with thrice the square of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position, together with four times the square of the perpendicular drawn to the fourth line given by position, will be equal to the space to which the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the three lines given by position has the same ratio that three has to ten.

COR. Let there be any number of right lines given by position; three right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn right lines

lines in given angles to all the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the three lines found, the sum of the squares of the lines drawn in given angles to the right lines given by position, will be equal to the space to which the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the three lines found has a given ratio.

PROPOSITION XXII.

THEOREM XIX.

Let there be any regular figure of a greater number of sides than three circumscribed about a circle, and from any point in the circumference of the circle let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figure; twice the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars, will be equal to five times the multiple of the cube of the semidiameter of the circle by the number of the sides of the figure.

Suppose, for example, a square to be circumscribed about a circle, and from any point in the circumference of the circle let there be

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drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the square; the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars, will be equal to ten times the cube of the semidiameter of the circle.

Again, Suppose a pentagon to be circumscribed about a circle, and from any point in the circumference of the circle let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the pentagon; twice the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars will be equal to twenty five times the cube of the semidiameter of the circle. And so on.

PROPOSITION XXIII.

THEOREM XX.

Let there be any regular figure circumscribed about a circle of a greater number of sides than three, and from any point within the figure let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figure, and likewise let there be drawn a right line to the centre of the circle; twice the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the figure, will be equal to twice the multiple of the cube

cube of the semidiameter of the circle by the number of the sides of the figure, together with thrice the multiple by the same number of the solid, whose base is the square of the line drawn to the centre, and altitude the semidiameter of the circle.

Suppose, for example, a square to be circumscribed about a circle, and from any point within the square let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the square, and likewise let there be drawn a right line to the centre of the circle; the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the square, will be equal to four times the cube of the semidiameter of the circle, together with six times the solid, whose base is the square of the line drawn to the centre, and altitude the semidiameter of the circle.

Again, Let there be a pentagon circumscribed about a circle, and from any point within the pentagon let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the pentagon, and likewise let there be drawn a right line to the centre of the circle; twice the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the pen-

For example, Let the number of the sides of the figure be five ; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any five-sided figure given by position ; four right lines may be found, such, that if from any point within the figure there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figure, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the four lines found, four times the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the figure, will be equal to five times the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the four lines found,

Again, Let the number of the sides of the figure be six ; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be a six-sided figure given by position ; four right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point within the figure there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figure, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the four lines found, four times the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the figure, will be equal to six times the sum of the cubes of
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of the perpendiculars drawn to the four lines found. And so on.

PROPOSITION XXV.

THEOREM XXII.

Let there be any figure given by position of a greater number of sides than three, and let a , b , c , &c. be given magnitudes as many in number as there are sides in the figure; four right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figure, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the four lines found, the cube of the perpendicular drawn to one of the sides of the figure, together with the solid to which the cube of the perpendicular drawn to another of the sides of the figure has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the solid to which the cube of the perpendicular drawn to another of the sides of the figure has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be equal to the solid to which the sum of
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the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the four lines found has the same ratio that four times a has to the sum of $a, b, c,$ &c.

For example, Let the number of the sides of the figure be four, and let a, b, c, d be equal to 1, 2, 3, 5; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any quadrilateral figure given by position; four right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the quadrilateral figure, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the four lines found, the cube of the perpendicular drawn to one of the sides of the figure, together with twice the cube of the perpendicular drawn to another of the sides of the figure, together with thrice the cube of the perpendicular drawn to another of the sides of the figure, and so on, will be equal to the solid to which the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the four lines found has the same ratio that four has to eleven.

Again, Let the number of the sides of the figure

figure be five, and let a, b, c, d, e be equal to 1, 3, 5, 7, 9; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any five-sided figure given by position; four right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point, there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figure, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the four lines found, the cube of the perpendicular drawn to one of the sides of the figure, together with thrice the cube of the perpendicular drawn to another of the sides of the figure, together with five times the cube of the perpendicular drawn to another of the sides of the figure, and so on, will be equal to the solid to which the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the four lines found has the same ratio that four has to twenty five. And so on.

COR. Let there be any figure of a greater number of sides than three; four lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point within the figure there be drawn right lines in given angles to the sides of the figure, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the four lines found, the

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sum of the cubes of the lines drawn in given angles to the sides of the figure, will be to the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the four lines found in a given ratio.

PROPOSITION XXVI.

THEOREM XXIII.

Let there be any regular figure inscribed in a circle, and from all the angles of the figure let there be drawn right lines to any point in the circumference of the circle; the sum of the fourth powers of the chords will be equal to 6 times the multiple of the fourth power of the semidiameter of the circle by the number of the sides of the figure.

Suppose, for example, an equilateral triangle to be inscribed in a circle, and from the angles of the triangle let there be drawn right lines to any point in the circumference of the circle; the sum of the fourth powers of the chords will be equal to 18 times the fourth power of the semidiameter of the circle.

Again, Suppose a square to be inscribed in

a circle, and from all the angles of the square let there be drawn right lines to any point in the circumference of the circle; the sum of the fourth powers of the chords, will be equal to 24 times the fourth power of the semidiameter of the circle. And so on.

PROPOSITION XXVII.

THEOREM XXIV.

Let there be any regular figure inscribed in a circle, and from all the angles of the figure and the centre of the circle let there be drawn right lines to any point; the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the angles of the figure, will be equal to the multiple by the number of the sides of the figure of the fourth power of the semidiameter of the circle, together with 4 times the multiple by the same number of the fourth power of the line whose square is equal to the rectangle contained by the semidiameter and the line drawn from the centre, together with the multiple by the same number of the

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fourth power of the line drawn from the centre.

Suppose, for example, an equilateral triangle to be inscribed in a circle, and from all the angles of the triangle and the centre of the circle let there be drawn right lines to any point; the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the angles of the triangle, will be equal to 3 times the fourth power of the semidiameter of the circle, together with 12 times the fourth power of the line whose square is equal to the rectangle contained by the semidiameter and the line drawn from the centre, together with 3 times the fourth power of the line drawn from the centre.

Again, Suppose a square to be inscribed in a circle, and from all the angles of the square and the centre of the circle let there be drawn right lines to any point; the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the angles of the square, will be equal to 4 times the fourth power of the semidiameter of the circle, together with 16 times the fourth power of the line whose square is equal to the rectangle contained by the semidiameter and the line
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drawn from the centre, together with 4 times the fourth power of the line drawn from the centre.

COR. I. Let there be two circles about the same centre, and from all the angles of any regular figure inscribed in one of the circles let there be drawn right lines to any point in the circumference of the other; the sum of the fourth powers of these lines will be invariable.

COR. II. Let there be two regular figures inscribed in a circle, and from all the angles of both figures let there be drawn right lines to any point; the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from all the angles of one of the figures, will be to the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the angles of the other figure, as the number of the sides of the one to the number of the sides of the other.

Suppose, for example, an equilateral triangle and a square to be inscribed in a circle, and from all the angles of both figures let there be drawn right lines to any point; the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the angles of the triangle, will be to the sum of the

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any point there be drawn right lines in given angles to all the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the two lines found, the sum of the squares of the lines drawn in given angles to the right lines given by position, will be equal to the space to which the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the two lines found has a given ratio,

PROPOSITION XX.

THEOREM XVII.

Let there be any number of right lines given by position, that are neither all parallel, nor intersecting each other in one point, and let $a, b, c, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are right lines given by position; two right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the two right lines found, the square of the perpendicular drawn to one of the lines given by position

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line whose square is equal

the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the angles of the square, as three to four. And so on.

PROPOSITION XXVIII.

THEOREM XXV.

Let there be any regular figure of a greater number of sides than four circumscribed about a circle, and from any point in the circumference of the circle let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figure; 8 times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars, will be equal to 35 times the multiple by the number of the sides of the figure of the fourth power of the semidiameter of the circle.

Suppose, for example, a pentagon to be circumscribed about a circle, and from any point in the circumference of the circle let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the pentagon; 8 times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars, will be equal to 175 times the fourth power of the semidiameter of the circle.

Again,

Again, Let there be a hexagon circumscribed about a circle, and from any point in the circumference of the circle let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the hexagon; 4 times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars, will be equal to 105 times the fourth power of the semidiameter of the circle. And so on.

PROPOSITION XXIX.

THEOREM XXVI.

Let there be any regular figure of a greater number of sides than four circumscribed about a circle, and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figure, and likewise a right line to the centre of the circle; 8 times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars, will be equal to 8 times the multiple by the number of the sides of the figure of the fourth power of the semidiameter of the circle, together with 24 times the multiple by the same number of the fourth power of the line whose square is equal to

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to the rectangle contained by the semidiameter and the line drawn to the centre, together with 3 times the multiple of the fourth power of the line drawn to the centre of the circle by the number of the sides of the figure.

Suppose, for example, a pentagon to be circumscribed about a circle, and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the pentagon, and likewise a line to the centre of the circle; 8 times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the pentagon, will be equal to 40 times the fourth power of the semidiameter of the circle, together with 120 times the fourth power of the line whose square is equal to the rectangle contained by the semidiameter and the line drawn to the centre of the circle, together with 15 times the fourth power of the line drawn to the centre. And so on.

COR. I. Let there be two circles about the same centre, and about one of the circles let there be any regular figure of a greater number of sides than four circumscribed; if from any point in the circumference of the other there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the

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the figure, the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars will be invariable.

COR. II. Let there be two regular figures circumscribed about a circle, and let the number of the sides of each figure be greater than four, and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of both figures; the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of one of the figures, will be to the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the other, as the number of the sides of the one to the number of the sides of the other.

Suppose, for example, a pentagon and hexagon to be circumscribed about a circle, and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of both figures; the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the pentagon, will be to the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the hexagon, as 5 to 6. And so on.

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PROPOSITION XXX.

THEOREM XXVII.

Let there be any number of given points; two right lines may be found that will be given by position, and likewise a point may be found, such, that if from all the given points and the point found there be drawn right lines to any point, and from the point to which the right lines are drawn there be drawn perpendiculars to the two right lines found, the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the given points, will be equal to the multiple by the number of the given points of the fourth power of the line drawn from the point found, together with the fourth power of the line whose square is a mean proportional between the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars and a certain given space, together with the fourth power of a certain given line.

Let the number of the given points be two; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let

Let there be two given points; two right lines may be found that will be given by position, and likewise a point may be found, such, that if from the two given points and the point found there be drawn right lines to any point, and from the point to which the lines are drawn there be drawn perpendiculars to the two right lines found, the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the two given points, will be equal to twice the fourth power of the line drawn from the point found, together with the fourth power of the line whose square is a mean proportional between the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars and a certain given space, together with the fourth power of a certain given line.

Let the number of the given points be three; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be three points given; two right lines may be found that will be given by position, and likewise a point may be found, such, that if from all the three given points and the point found there be drawn right lines to any point, and from the point to which the right lines are drawn there be drawn perpendiculars

fourth power of the line drawn from the centre.

Suppose, for example, an equilateral triangle to be inscribed in a circle, and from all the angles of the triangle and the centre of the circle let there be drawn right lines to any point; the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the angles of the triangle, will be equal to 3 times the fourth power of the semidiameter of the circle, together with 12 times the fourth power of the line whose square is equal to the rectangle contained by the semidiameter and the line drawn from the centre, together with 3 times the fourth power of the line drawn from the centre.

Again, Suppose a square to be inscribed in a circle, and from all the angles of the square and the centre of the circle let there be drawn right lines to any point; the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the angles of the square, will be equal to 4 times the fourth power of the semidiameter of the circle, together with 16 times the fourth power of the line whose square is equal to the rectangle contained by the semidiameter and the line drawn

drawn from the centre, together with 4 times the fourth power of the line drawn from the centre.

COR. I. Let there be two circles about the same centre, and from all the angles of any regular figure inscribed in one of the circles; let there be drawn right lines to any point in the circumference of the other; the sum of the fourth powers of these lines will be invariable.

COR. II. Let there be two regular figures inscribed in a circle, and from all the angles of both figures let there be drawn right lines to any point; the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from all the angles of one of the figures, will be to the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the angles of the other figure, as the number of the sides of the one to the number of the sides of the other.

Suppose, for example, an equilateral triangle and a square to be inscribed in a circle, and from all the angles of both figures let there be drawn right lines to any point; the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the angles of the triangle, will be to the sum of the

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the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the angles of the square, as three to four. And so on.

PROPOSITION XXVIII.

THEOREM XXV.

Let there be any regular figure of a greater number of sides than four circumscribed about a circle, and from any point in the circumference of the circle let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figure; 8 times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars, will be equal to 35 times the multiple by the number of the sides of the figure of the fourth power of the semidiameter of the circle.

Suppose, for example, a pentagon to be circumscribed about a circle, and from any point in the circumference of the circle let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the pentagon; 8 times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars, will be equal to 175 times the fourth power of the semidiameter of the circle.

Again,

Again, Let there be a hexagon circumscribed about a circle, and from any point in the circumference of the circle let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the hexagon; 4 times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars, will be equal to 105 times the fourth power of the semidiameter of the circle. And so on.

PROPOSITION XXIX.

THEOREM XXVI.

Let there be any regular figure of a greater number of sides than four circumscribed about a circle, and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figure, and likewise a right line to the centre of the circle; 8 times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars, will be equal to 8 times the multiple by the number of the sides of the figure of the fourth power of the semidiameter of the circle, together with 24 times the multiple by the same number of the fourth power of the line whose square is equal to

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to the rectangle contained by the semidiameter and the line drawn to the centre, together with 3 times the multiple of the fourth power of the line drawn to the centre of the circle by the number of the sides of the figure.

Suppose, for example, a pentagon to be circumscribed about a circle, and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the pentagon, and likewise a line to the centre of the circle; 8 times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the pentagon, will be equal to 40 times the fourth power of the semidiameter of the circle, together with 120 times the fourth power of the line whose square is equal to the rectangle contained by the semidiameter and the line drawn to the centre of the circle, together with 15 times the fourth power of the line drawn to the centre. And so on.

COR. I. Let there be two circles about the same centre, and about one of the circles let there be any regular figure of a greater number of sides than four circumscribed; if from any point in the circumference of the other there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the

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the figure, the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars will be invariable.

COR. II. Let there be two regular figures circumscribed about a circle, and let the number of the sides of each figure be greater than four, and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of both figures; the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of one of the figures, will be to the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the other, as the number of the sides of the one to the number of the sides of the other.

Suppose, for example, a pentagon and hexagon to be circumscribed about a circle, and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of both figures; the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the pentagon, will be to the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the hexagon, as 5 to 6. And so on.

PROPOSITION XXX.

THEOREM XXVII.

Let there be any number of given points; two right lines may be found that will be given by position, and likewise a point may be found, such, that if from all the given points and the point found there be drawn right lines to any point, and from the point to which the right lines are drawn there be drawn perpendiculars to the two right lines found, the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the given points, will be equal to the multiple by the number of the given points of the fourth power of the line drawn from the point found, together with the fourth power of the line whose square is a mean proportional between the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars and a certain given space, together with the fourth power of a certain given line.

Let the number of the given points be two; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let

Let there be two given points; two right lines may be found that will be given by position, and likewise a point may be found, such, that if from the two given points and the point found there be drawn right lines to any point, and from the point to which the lines are drawn there be drawn perpendiculars to the two right lines found, the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the two given points, will be equal to twice the fourth power of the line drawn from the point found, together with the fourth power of the line whose square is a mean proportional between the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars and a certain given space, together with the fourth power of a certain given line.

Let the number of the given points be three; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be three points given; two right lines may be found that will be given by position, and likewise a point may be found, such, that if from all the three given points and the point found there be drawn right lines to any point, and from the point to which the right lines are drawn there be drawn perpendiculars

diculars to the two right lines found, the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the three given points, will be equal to thrice the fourth power of the line drawn from the point found, together with the fourth power of the line whose square is a mean proportional between the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars and a certain given space, together with the fourth power of a certain given line.

This theorem may be made more general thus.

PROPOSITION XXXI.

THEOREM XXVIII.

Let there be any number of given points, and let $a, b, c,$ &c. be given magnitudes as many in number as there are given points; two right lines may be found that will be given by position, and likewise a point may be found, such, that if from all the given points and the

the point found there be drawn right lines to any point, and from the point to which the lines are drawn there be drawn perpendiculars to the two right lines found, the fourth power of the line drawn from one of the given points, together with the power to which the fourth power of the line drawn from another of the given points has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the power to which the fourth power of the line drawn from another of the given points has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be equal to the power to which the fourth power of the line drawn from the point found has the same ratio that a has to the sum of a , b , c , &c. together with the fourth power of the line whose square is a mean proportional between the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars and a certain given space, together with the fourth power of a certain given line.

For example, Let the number of the given points be two, and let a , b be equal to 1, 2 ; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be two given points ; two right lines may be found that will be given by position,

tion, and likewise a point may be found, such, that if from the two given points there be drawn right lines to any point, and from the point to which the right lines are drawn there be drawn perpendiculars to the two right lines found, the fourth power of the line drawn from one of the given points together with twice the fourth power of the line drawn from the other given point, will be equal to thrice the fourth power of the line drawn from the point found, together with the fourth power of the line whose square is a mean proportional between the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the two lines found and a certain given space, together with the fourth power of a certain given line.

Again, Let the number of the given points be three, and let a, b, c be equal to 1, 2, 3; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be three given points; two right lines may be found that will be given by position, and likewise a point may be found, such, that if from all the given points and the point found there be drawn right lines to any point, and from the point to which the lines are drawn

drawn there be drawn perpendiculars to the two right lines found, the fourth power of the line drawn from one of the given points, together with twice the fourth power of the line drawn from another of the given points, together with thrice the fourth power of the line drawn from the last of the given points, will be equal to six times the fourth power of the line drawn from the point found, together with the fourth power of the line whose square is a mean proportional between the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the two lines found and a certain given space, together with the fourth power of a certain given line.

PROPOSITION XXXII.

THEOREM XXIX.

Let there be any number greater than three of given points; three points may be found, such, that if from all the given points and the three points found there be drawn right lines to any point, thrice the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the given points,

points, will be equal to the multiple by the number of the given points of the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the three points found.

Let the number of the given points be four; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be four points given; three points may be found, such, that if from the four given points and the three points found there be drawn right lines to any point, thrice the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the four given points, will be equal to four times the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the three points found.

Again, Let the number of the given points be five; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be five given points; three points may be found, such, that if from the five given points and the three points found there be drawn right lines to any point, thrice the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the five given points, will be equal to five times the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the three points found. And so on.

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PROPOSITION XXXIII.

THEOREM XXX.

Let there be any number greater than two of given points, and let $a, b, c, d, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are given points; three points may be found, such, that if from all the given points and the three points found there be drawn right lines to any point, the fourth power of the line drawn from one of the given points, together with the power to which the fourth power of the line drawn from another of the given points has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the power to which the fourth power of the line drawn from another of the given points has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be to the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the three points found, as the sum of $a, b, c, \&c.$ to thrice a .

For example, Let the number of the given points be three, and let a, b, c be equal to 1, 2, 4; and the theorem will be as follows.

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Let

Let there be three given points; three points may be found, such, that if from the three given points and the three points found there be drawn right lines to any point, the fourth power of the line drawn from one of the given points, together with twice the fourth power of the line drawn from another of the given points, together with four times the fourth power of the line drawn from the third given point, will be to the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the three points found, as seven to three.

Again, Let the number of the given points be four, and let a, b, c, d be equal to 1, 2, 4, 6; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be four given points; three points may be found, such, that if from the four given points and the three points found there be drawn right lines to any point, the fourth power of the line drawn from one of the given points, together with 2 times the fourth power of the line drawn from another of the given points, together with 4 times the fourth power of the line drawn from another of the given points, together with 6 times the fourth power of the
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Let there be two given points; two right lines may be found that will be given by position, and likewise a point may be found, such, that if from the two given points and the point found there be drawn right lines to any point, and from the point to which the lines are drawn there be drawn perpendiculars to the two right lines found, the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the two given points, will be equal to twice the fourth power of the line drawn from the point found, together with the fourth power of the line whose square is a mean proportional between the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars and a certain given space, together with the fourth power of a certain given line.

Let the number of the given points be three; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be three points given; two right lines may be found that will be given by position, and likewise a point may be found, such, that if from all the three given points and the point found there be drawn right lines to any point, and from the point to which the right lines are drawn there be drawn perpendiculars

round the point of intersection equal, and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines, and likewise let there be drawn a right line to the point of intersection; 8 times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars, will be equal to 9 times the fourth power of the line drawn to the point of intersection.

Again, Let the number of the lines be five; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be five right lines intersecting each other in a point, and making all the angles round the point of intersection equal, and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines, and likewise let there be drawn a right line to the point of intersection; 8 times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars, will be equal to 15 times the fourth power of the line drawn to the point of intersection. And so on.

COR. Let there be any number of right lines intersecting each other in a given point, and making all the angles round the point of intersection equal, and from a point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines, and
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the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars be invariable; the point from which the perpendiculars are drawn, will be in the circumference of a given circle.

PROPOSITION XXXV.

THEOREM XXXII.

Let there be any number greater than three of right lines given by position, that are either all parallel to each other, or all intersecting each other in one point; three right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the three lines found, 3 times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines given by position, will be equal to the multiple of the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the three lines found by the number of the lines given by position.

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tion, and likewise a point may be found, such, that if from the two given points there be drawn right lines to any point, and from the point to which the right lines are drawn there be drawn perpendiculars to the two right lines found, the fourth power of the line drawn from one of the given points together with twice the fourth power of the line drawn from the other given point, will be equal to thrice the fourth power of the line drawn from the point found, together with the fourth power of the line whose square is a mean proportional between the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the two lines found and a certain given space, together with the fourth power of a certain given line.

Again, Let the number of the given points be three, and let a, b, c be equal to 1, 2, 3; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be three given points; two right lines may be found that will be given by position, and likewise a point may be found, such, that if from all the given points and the point found there be drawn right lines to any point, and from the point to which the lines are drawn

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drawn there be drawn perpendiculars to the two right lines found, the fourth power of the line drawn from one of the given points, together with twice the fourth power of the line drawn from another of the given points, together with thrice the fourth power of the line drawn from the last of the given points, will be equal to six times the fourth power of the line drawn from the point found, together with the fourth power of the line whose square is a mean proportional between the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the two lines found and a certain given space, together with the fourth power of a certain given line.

PROPOSITION XXXII.

THEOREM XXIX.

Let there be any number greater than three of given points; three points may be found, such, that if from all the given points and the three points found there be drawn right lines to any point, thrice the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the given points,

points, will be equal to the multiple by the number of the given points of the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the three points found.

Let the number of the given points be four; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be four points given; three points may be found, such, that if from the four given points and the three points found there be drawn right lines to any point, thrice the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the four given points, will be equal to four times the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the three points found.

Again, Let the number of the given points be five; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be five given points; three points may be found, such, that if from the five given points and the three points found there be drawn right lines to any point, thrice the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the five given points, will be equal to five times the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the three points found. And so on.

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PROPOSITION XXXIII.

THEOREM XXX.

Let there be any number greater than two of given points, and let $a, b, c, d, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are given points; three points may be found, such, that if from all the given points and the three points found there be drawn right lines to any point, the fourth power of the line drawn from one of the given points, together with the power to which the fourth power of the line drawn from another of the given points has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the power to which the fourth power of the line drawn from another of the given points has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be to the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the three points found, as the sum of $a, b, c, \&c.$ to thrice a .

For example, Let the number of the given points be three, and let a, b, c be equal to 1, 2, 4; and the theorem will be as follows.

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Let

Let there be three given points; three points may be found, such, that if from the three given points and the three points found there be drawn right lines to any point, the fourth power of the line drawn from one of the given points, together with twice the fourth power of the line drawn from another of the given points, together with four times the fourth power of the line drawn from the third given point, will be to the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the three points found, as seven to three.

Again, Let the number of the given points be four, and let a, b, c, d be equal to 1, 2, 4, 6; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be four given points; three points may be found, such, that if from the four given points and the three points found there be drawn right lines to any point, the fourth power of the line drawn from one of the given points, together with 2 times the fourth power of the line drawn from another of the given points, together with 4 times the fourth power of the line drawn from another of the given points, together with 6 times the fourth power of the
line

line drawn from the fourth given point, will be to the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the three points found, as thirteen to three. And so on.

PROPOSITION XXXIV.

THEOREM XXXI.

Let there be any number greater than two of right lines intersecting each other in a point, and making all the angles round the point of intersection equal, and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines, and likewise let there be drawn a right line to the point of intersection; 8 times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines, will be equal to 3 times the multiple of the fourth power of the line drawn to the point of intersection by the number of the right lines.

Let the number of the lines be three; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be three right lines intersecting each other in a point, and making all the angles

round the point of intersection equal, and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines, and likewise let there be drawn a right line to the point of intersection; 8 times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars, will be equal to 9 times the fourth power of the line drawn to the point of intersection.

Again, Let the number of the lines be five; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be five right lines intersecting each other in a point, and making all the angles round the point of intersection equal, and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines, and likewise let there be drawn a right line to the point of intersection; 8 times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars, will be equal to 15 times the fourth power of the line drawn to the point of intersection. And so on.

COR. Let there be any number of right lines intersecting each other in a given point, and making all the angles round the point of intersection equal, and from a point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines, and
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the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars be invariable; the point from which the perpendiculars are drawn, will be in the circumference of a given circle.

PROPOSITION XXXV.

THEOREM XXXII.

Let there be any number greater than three of right lines given by position, that are either all parallel to each other, or all intersecting each other in one point; three right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the three lines found, 3 times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines given by position, will be equal to the multiple of the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the three lines found by the number of the lines given by position.

Let

Let the number of the lines be four ; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be four right lines given by position, that are either all parallel to each other, or all intersecting each other in a point ; three right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the four lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the three lines found, 3 times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the four lines given by position, will be equal to 4 times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the three lines found.

Again, Let the number of the lines be five ; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be five right lines given by position, that are either all parallel to each other, or all intersecting each other in one point ; three right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the five right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the three lines found, 3 times the

the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the five lines given by position, will be equal to 5 times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the three lines found, And so on,

PROPOSITION XXXVI.

THEOREM XXXIII.

Let there be any number greater than two of right lines given by position, that are either all parallel, or all intersecting each other in one point, and let $a, b, c, d, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are right lines given by position; three right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the three lines found, the fourth power of the perpendicular drawn to one of the lines given by position, together with the power to which the fourth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given

ven by position has the same ratio that a has to b, together with the power to which the fourth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to c, and so on, will be to the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the three lines found, as the sum of a, b, c, d, &c. to thrice a.

Let the number of the right lines given by position be three, and let a, b, c be equal to 1, 2, 5; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be three right lines given by position, that are either all parallel to each other, or all intersecting each other in one point; three right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the three right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the three right lines found, the fourth power of the perpendicular drawn to one of the lines given by position, together with 2 times the fourth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position, together with 5 times the fourth power of the perpendicular drawn to the third
line

line given by position, will be to the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the three lines found, as eight to three.

Again, Let the number of the lines given by position be four, and let a, b, c, d be equal to 1, 2, 3, 4; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be four right lines given by position, that are either all parallel to each other, or all intersecting each other in one point; three right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the four right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the three lines found, the fourth power of the perpendicular drawn to one of the lines given by position, together with 2 times the fourth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position, together with 3 times the fourth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position, together with 4 times the fourth power of the perpendicular drawn to the fourth line given by position, will be to the sum of the fourth powers of the per-

pendiculars drawn to the three lines found, as ten to three. And so on.

COR. Let there be any number greater than two of right lines given by position, that are either all parallel to each other, or all intersecting each other in one point; three right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn right lines in given angles to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the three lines found, the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn in given angles to the right lines given by position, will be to the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the three lines found in a given ratio.

PROPOSITION XXXVII.

THEOREM XXXIV.

Let there be any number greater than five of right lines given by position, that are neither all parallel to each other, nor all intersecting each other in one point; five right lines may be found that will be given by position, such,

such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the five lines found, five times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines given by position, will be equal to the multiple of the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the five lines found by the number of the right lines given by position.

Let the number of the lines given by position be six; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be six right lines given by position, that are neither all parallel to each other, nor all intersecting each other in one point; five right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the six lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the five lines found, five times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the six lines given by position, will be equal to six times the sum of the

the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the five lines found.

Again, Let the number of the lines given by position be seven; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be seven right lines given by position, that are neither all parallel to each other, nor intersecting each other in one point; five right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the seven lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the five lines found, five times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the seven lines given by position, will be equal to seven times the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the five lines found. And so on.

PROPOSITION XXXVIII,

THEOREM XXXV.

Let there be any number greater than four of right lines given by position, that are neither all parallel to each other, nor intersecting each

each other in one point, and let $a, b, c, d, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are right lines given by position; five right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to all the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the five lines found, the fourth power of the perpendicular drawn to one of the lines given by position, together with the power to which the fourth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the power to which the fourth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be to the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the five lines found, as the sum of $a, b, c, d, \&c.$ to five times a .

Let the number of the lines given by position be five, and let $a, b, c, d, \&c.$ be equal to 1, 2, 3, 4, 6; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let

Let there be five right lines given by position, that are neither all parallel to each other, nor intersecting each other in one point; five right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the five right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the five lines found, the fourth power of the perpendicular drawn to one of the lines given by position, together with 2 times the fourth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position, together with 3 times the fourth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position, and so on, will be to the sum of the fourth power of the perpendiculars drawn to the five lines found, as sixteen to five.

Again, Let the number of the lines given by position be six, and let $a, b, c, d, \&c.$ be equal to 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be six right lines given by position, that are neither all parallel to each other, nor all intersecting each other in one point;

point; five right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the six lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the five lines found, the fourth power of the perpendicular drawn to one of the lines given by position, together with 3 times the fourth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position, together with 5 times the fourth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position, and so on, will be to the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the five lines found, as thirty six to five. And so on.

COR. Let there be any number greater than four of right lines given by position, that are neither all parallel to each other, nor all intersecting each other in one point; five right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn right lines in given angles to all the lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the five lines found, the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn in given angles to the right lines given by position, will

will be to the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the five lines found in a given ratio.

PROPOSITION XXXIX.

THEOREM XXXVI.

Let there be any regular figure circumscribed about a circle; and let the number of the sides of the figure be m , and let n be any number less than m ; let r be the semidiameter of the circle; and from any point in the circumference of the circle let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figure, the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars will be equal to $m \times \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \dots 2n-1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \dots n} \times r^n$

The numbers in the numerator are to be continued till the last number be $2n-1$, and are to be continually multiplied into one another; the numbers in the denominator are to be continued till the last number be n , and are to be continually multiplied into one another.

For

For example, Let $m = 6$, and $n = 5$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be a hexagon circumscribed about a circle, and from any point in the circumference of the circle let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the hexagon, and let r be the semidiameter of the circle; the sum of the fifth powers of the perpendiculars will be equal to $6 \times \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 9}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5} \times r^5 = \frac{189}{4} r^5$.

Again, Let $m = 8$, and $n = 6$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be an octagon circumscribed about a circle, and from any point in the circumference of the circle let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the octagon, and let r be the semidiameter of the circle; the sum of the sixth powers of the perpendiculars will be equal to $8 \times \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 9 \cdot 11}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 \cdot 6} \times r^6 = \frac{231}{2} r^6$.

And so on.

PROPOSITION XL.

THEOREM XXXVII.

Let there be any regular figure circumscribed about a circle, and let m be the number of

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the sides of the figure; let n be any number less than m , and let r be the semidiameter of the circle; and from any point (within the figure if n be an odd number, but if even, from any point either within or without) let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figure; and likewise let there be drawn a right line to the centre of the circle, and let v be the line drawn to the centre; let a be the coefficient of the third term of a binomial raised to the n power, b the coefficient of the fifth term, c the coefficient of the seventh term, and so on; let $A = a \times \frac{1}{2}$, $B = b \times \frac{1 \cdot 3}{2 \cdot 4}$, $C = c \times \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6}$, and so on: the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars will be equal to $mr^n + mA v^2 r^{n-2} + mB v^4 r^{n-4} + mC v^6 r^{n-6} + \&c.$

For example, Let $m = 6$, and $n = 5$; and because the coefficients of the terms of a binomial raised to the fifth power are 1, 5, 10, 10, 5, 1, therefore $a = 10$, $b = 5$; and therefore $A = 5$, $B = \frac{1}{4}$. Therefore the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be a hexagon circumscribed about

a circle, and from a point within the hexagon let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the hexagon, and likewise a right line to the centre of the circle, and let r be the semidiameter of the circle, and v the line drawn to the centre; the sum of the fifth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the hexagon will be equal to $6r^5 + 30r^3v^2 + \frac{45}{2}rv^4$

Again, Let $m = 8$, and $n = 6$; and because the coefficients of the terms of a binomial raised to the sixth power are 1, 6, 15, 20, 15, 6, 1, therefore $a = 15$, $b = 15$, $c = 1$; and therefore $A = \frac{1}{2}^5$, $B = \frac{4}{8}^5$, $C = \frac{5}{16}^5$. Therefore the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be an octagon circumscribed about a circle, and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the octagon, and likewise a right line to the centre of the circle, and let r be the semidiameter of the circle, and v the line drawn to the centre; the sum of the sixth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the octagon, will be equal to $8r^6 + 60r^4v^2 + 45r^2v^4 + \frac{5}{2}v^6$. And so on.

COR. I. Let there be any regular figure

circumscribed about a circle, and let m be the number of the sides of the figure, and n any number less than m ; and from a point (within the figure if n be an odd number, but if n be even, from any point either within or without) let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figure, and the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars be invariable; the point from which the perpendiculars are drawn, will be in the circumference of a given circle.

COR. II. Let there be two regular figures circumscribed about a circle, and let the number of the sides of each figure be greater than n ; and from any point (within both figures if n be an odd number, but if n be even, from any point either within or without) let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of both figures; the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of one of the figures, will be to the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the other figure, as the number of the sides of the one to the number of the sides of the other.

PROPOSITION XLI.

THEOREM XXXVIII.

Let there be any regular figure inscribed in a circle, and let the number of the sides of the figure be m ; and let n be any number less than m ; let r be the semidiameter of the circle; and from all the angles of the figure let there be drawn right lines to any point in the circumference of the circle: the sum of the $2n$ powers of the chords, will be equal

$$\text{to } m \times \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \dots 2n-1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \dots n} \times 2^n r^{2n}.$$

The numbers in the numerator are to be continued till the last number be $2n-1$, and are to be continually multiplied into one another; the numbers in the denominator are to be continued till the last number be n , and are to be continually multiplied into one another.

For example, Let $m = 4$, and $n = 3$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be a square inscribed in a circle, and from all the angles of the square let there be drawn right lines to any point in the circumference

Again, Let $m = 5$, and $n = 4$; and because the coefficients of the terms of a binomial raised to the fourth power are 1, 4, 6, 4, 1, therefore $a = 4$, $b = 6$, $c = 4$, $d = 1$; and therefore $a^2 = 16$, $b^2 = 36$, $c^2 = 16$, $d^2 = 1$. Therefore the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be a pentagon inscribed in a circle, and from all the angles of the pentagon and the centre of the circle let there be drawn right lines to any point; let r be the semidiameter of the circle, and v the line drawn to the centre: the sum of the fourth powers of the lines drawn from the angles of the pentagon, will be equal to $5r^4 + 80v^2r^2 + 180v^4r^0 + 80v^6r^2 + 5v^8$. And so on.

COR. I. Let there be any regular figure inscribed in a circle, and let m be the number of the sides of the figure, and n any number less than m ; and from all the angles of the figure let there be drawn right lines to a point, and the sum of the $2n$ powers of the lines drawn from the angles of the figure be invariable; the point to which the lines are drawn, will be in the circumference of a given circle.

COR. II. Let there be two regular figures inscribed

inscribed in a circle, and let the number of the sides of each figure be greater than n ; and from all the angles of both figures let there be drawn right lines to any point: the sum of the $2n$ powers of the lines drawn from the angles of one of the figures, will be to the sum of the $2n$ powers of the lines drawn from the angles of the other, as the number of the sides of the one to the number of the sides of the other.

PROPOSITION XLIII.

THEOREM XL.

Let there be any number of given points, and let m be their number; let n be any number less than $m - 1$: there may be found $n + 1$ points, such, that if from all the given points and the points found there be drawn right lines to any point, the sum of the $2n$ powers of the lines drawn from the given points, will be to the sum of the $2n$ powers of the lines drawn from the points found, as m to $n + 1$.

For example, Let $n = 3$; and the theorem will be as follows.

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Let there be any number greater than 4 of given points; and let m be the number of the given points: 4 points may be found, such, that if from all the given points and the 4 points found there be drawn right lines to any point, the sum of the sixth powers of the lines drawn from the given points, will be to the sum of the sixth powers of the lines drawn from the 4 points found, as m to 4.

Again, Let $n = 4$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 5 of given points; and let m be their number: 5 points may be found, such, that if from the given points and the 5 points found there be drawn right lines to any point, the sum of the eighth powers of the lines drawn from the given points, will be to the sum of the eighth powers of the lines drawn from the 5 points found, as m to 5. And so on.

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PROPOSITION XLIV.

THEOREM XLI. -

Let there be any number of given points, and let m be their number; let n be any number less than m , and let $a, b, c, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are given points: there may be found $n+1$ points, such, that if from all the given points and the points found there be drawn right lines to any point, the $2n$ power of the line drawn from one of the given points, together with the power to which the $2n$ power of the line drawn from another of the given points has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the power to which the $2n$ power of the line drawn from another of the given points has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be to the sum of the $2n$ powers of the lines drawn from the points found, as the sum of $a, b, c, \&c.$ to $n+1 \times a$.

For example, Let $n = 3$; and the theorem will be as follows.

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Let there be any number greater than 3 of given points; and let $a, b, c, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are given points: 4 points may be found, such, that if from all the given points and the 4 points found there be drawn right lines to any point, the sixth power of the line drawn from one of the given points, together with the power to which the sixth power of the line drawn from another of the given points has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the power to which the sixth power of the line drawn from another of the given points has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be to the sum of the sixth powers of the lines drawn from the four points found, as the sum of $a, b, c, \&c.$ to $4a$.

Again, Let $n = 4$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 4 of given points; and let $a, b, c, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are given points: 5 points may be found, such, that if from the given points and the 5 points found there be drawn right lines to any point, the eighth power of the line drawn from one
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of the given points, together with the power to which the eighth power of the line drawn from another of the given points has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the power to which the eighth power of the line drawn from another of the given points has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be to the sum of the eighth powers of the lines drawn from the 5 points found, as the sum of a , b , c , &c. to $5a$.

PROPOSITION XLV.

THEOREM XLII.

Let there be any number of right lines intersecting each other in a point, and making all the angles round the point of intersection equal; let m be the number of the lines, and let n be any number less than m ; and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines, and likewise a right line to the point of intersection; let v be the line drawn to the point of intersection: the sum of the $2n$ powers of the perpendiculars

diculars drawn to the right lines will be equal to $m \times \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \dots 2n-1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \dots n \cdot 2^n} \times v^{2n}$.

The numbers in the numerator are to be continued till the last number be equal to $2n-1$, and are to be continually multiplied into one another; the numbers in the denominator are to be continued till the last number be equal to n , and are to be continually multiplied into one another, and their product by 2^n .

For example, Let $n = 3$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 3 of right lines intersecting each other in a point, and making all the angles round the point of intersection equal; and let m be the number of the lines; and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines, and likewise let there be drawn a line to the point of intersection, and let v be the line drawn to the point of intersection: the sum of the sixth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines, will be equal to $m \times \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 2^3} \times v^6 = m \times \frac{5}{16} v^6$.

Again,

Again, Let $n = 4$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 5 of right lines intersecting each other in a point, and making all the angles round the point of intersection equal; and let the number of the lines be m ; and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines, and likewise let there be drawn a right line to the point of intersection, and let v be the line drawn to the point of intersection: the sum of the eighth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines, will be equal to $m \times \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 2^4} \times \pi v^8 = m \times \frac{3 \cdot 5}{1 \cdot 2} v^8$. And so on.

COR. If there be any number of lines intersecting each other in a given point, and making all the angles round the point of intersection equal; and m be the number of the lines, and n any number less than m ; and from a point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines; and the sum of the $2n$ powers of the perpendiculars be invariable: the point from which the perpendiculars are drawn, will be in the circumference of a given circle.

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PROPOSITION XLVI.

THEOREM XLIII.

Let there be any number of right lines given by position, that are either all parallel to each other, or intersecting each other in one point; and let m be the number of the lines, and n any number less than $m-1$: there may be found $n+1$ right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the lines found, the sum of the $2n$ powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines given by position, will be to the sum of the $2n$ powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the lines found, as m to $n+1$.

For example, Let $n = 3$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 4 of right lines given by position, that are either all parallel to each other, or intersecting each other in one point; and let m be the number of
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of the right lines given by position : there may be found 4 right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the lines found, the sum of the sixth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines given by position, will be to the sum of the sixth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the lines found, as m to 4.

Again, Let $n = 4$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 5 of right lines given by position, that are either all parallel to each other, or intersecting each other in one point; and let m be the number of the right lines given by position : there may be found 5 right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the 5 lines found, the sum of the eighth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines given by position, will be to the sum of the eighth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the 5 lines found, as m to 5. And so on.

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PROPOSITION XLVII.

THEOREM XLIV.

Let there be any number of right lines given by position, that are either all parallel to each other, or intersecting each other in one point; let m be the number of the right lines given by position, and let n be any number less than m ; let $a, b, c, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are right lines given by position: there may be found $n + 1$ right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the lines found, the $2n$ power of the perpendicular drawn to one of the lines given by position, together with the power to which the $2n$ power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the power to which the $2n$ power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be the

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the sum of the $2n$ powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the lines found, as the sum of $a, b, c, \&c.$ to $\overline{n+1} \times a.$

For example, Let $n = 3$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 3 of right lines given by position, that are either all parallel to each other, or intersecting each other in one point; and let $a, b, c, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are right lines given by position: 4 right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the 4 lines found, the sixth power of the perpendicular drawn to one of the right lines given by position, together with the power to which the sixth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the power to which the sixth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to c , and

Let there be any number greater than 3 of given points; and let $a, b, c, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are given points: 4 points may be found, such, that if from all the given points and the 4 points found there be drawn right lines to any point, the sixth power of the line drawn from one of the given points, together with the power to which the sixth power of the line drawn from another of the given points has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the power to which the sixth power of the line drawn from another of the given points has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be to the sum of the sixth powers of the lines drawn from the four points found, as the sum of $a, b, c, \&c.$ to $4a$.

Again, Let $n = 4$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 4 of given points; and let $a, b, c, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are given points: 5 points may be found, such, that if from the given points and the 5 points found there be drawn right lines to any point, the eighth power of the line drawn from one
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of the given points, together with the power to which the eighth power of the line drawn from another of the given points has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the power to which the eighth power of the line drawn from another of the given points has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be to the sum of the eighth powers of the lines drawn from the 5 points found, as the sum of a , b , c , &c. to $5a$.

PROPOSITION XLV.

THEOREM XLII.

Let there be any number of right lines intersecting each other in a point, and making all the angles round the point of intersection equal; let m be the number of the lines, and let n be any number less than m ; and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines, and likewise a right line to the point of intersection; let v be the line drawn to the point of intersection: the sum of the $2n$ powers of the perpendiculars

diculars drawn to the right lines will be equal to $m \times \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \dots 2n-1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \dots n \cdot 2^n} \times v^{2n}$.

The numbers in the numerator are to be continued till the last number be equal to $2n-1$, and are to be continually multiplied into one another; the numbers in the denominator are to be continued till the last number be equal to n , and are to be continually multiplied into one another, and their product by 2^n .

For example, Let $n = 3$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 3 of right lines intersecting each other in a point, and making all the angles round the point of intersection equal; and let m be the number of the lines; and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines, and likewise let there be drawn a line to the point of intersection, and let v be the line drawn to the point of intersection: the sum of the sixth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines, will be equal to $m \times \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 2^3} \times v^6 = m \times \frac{5}{16} v^6$.

Again,

Again, Let $n = 4$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 5 of right lines intersecting each other in a point, and making all the angles round the point of intersection equal; and let the number of the lines be m ; and from any point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines, and likewise let there be drawn a right line to the point of intersection, and let v be the line drawn to the point of intersection: the sum of the eighth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines, will be equal to $m \times \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 2^4} \times n v^8 = m \times \frac{3 \cdot 5}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 4} v^8$. And so on.

COR. If there be any number of lines intersecting each other in a given point, and making all the angles round the point of intersection equal; and m be the number of the lines, and n any number less than m ; and from a point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines; and the sum of the $2n$ powers of the perpendiculars be invariable: the point from which the perpendiculars are drawn, will be in the circumference of a given circle.

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PROPOSITION XLVI.

THEOREM XLIII.

Let there be any number of right lines given by position, that are either all parallel to each other, or intersecting each other in one point; and let m be the number of the lines, and n any number less than $m-1$: there may be found $n+1$ right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the lines found, the sum of the $2n$ powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines given by position, will be to the sum of the $2n$ powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the lines found, as m to $n+1$.

For example, Let $n = 3$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 4 of right lines given by position, that are either all parallel to each other, or intersecting each other in one point; and let m be the number of
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of the right lines given by position : there may be found 4 right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the lines found, the sum of the sixth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines given by position, will be to the sum of the sixth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the lines found, as m to 4.

Again, Let $n = 4$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 5 of right lines given by position, that are either all parallel to each other, or intersecting each other in one point ; and let m be the number of the right lines given by position : there may be found 5 right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the 5 lines found, the sum of the eighth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines given by position, will be to the sum of the eighth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the 5 lines found, as m to 5. And so on.

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PROPOSITION XLVII.

THEOREM XLIV.

Let there be any number of right lines given by position, that are either all parallel to each other, or intersecting each other in one point; let m be the number of the right lines given by position, and let n be any number less than m ; let $a, b, c, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are right lines given by position: there may be found $n+1$ right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the lines found, the $2n$ power of the perpendicular drawn to one of the lines given by position, together with the power to which the $2n$ power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the power to which the $2n$ power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be to the

the sum of the $2n$ powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the lines found, as the sum of $a, b, c, \&c.$ to $\overline{n+1} \times a.$

For example, Let $n = 3$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 3 of right lines given by position, that are either all parallel to each other, or intersecting each other in one point; and let $a, b, c, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are right lines given by position: 4 right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the 4 lines found; the sixth power of the perpendicular drawn to one of the right lines given by position, together with the power to which the sixth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the power to which the sixth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to c , and

so on, will be to the sum of the sixth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the 4 lines found, as the sum of $a, b, c, \&c.$ to $4a$.

Again, Let $n = 4$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 4 of right lines given by position, that are either all parallel to each other, or intersecting each other in one point; and let $a, b, c, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are right lines given by position: 5 right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the 5 lines found, the eighth power of the perpendicular drawn to one of the lines given by position, together with the power to which the eighth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the power to which the eighth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be to the sum of the eighth powers of

of the perpendiculars drawn to the 5 lines found, as the sum of $a, b, c,$ &c. to $5a$. And so on.

COR. Let there be any number of right lines given by position, that are either all parallel to each other, or intersecting each other in one point; let m be the number of the right lines given by position, and let n be any number less than m : there may be found $n+1$ right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn right lines in given angles to all the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines found, the sum of the $2n$ powers of the right lines drawn in given angles to the right lines given by position, will be to the sum of the $2n$ powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the lines found in a given ratio.

PROPOSITION XLVIII.

THEOREM XLV.

Let there be any number of right lines given by position, that are neither all parallel to each other,

other, nor intersecting each other in one point; and let the number of the right lines given by position be m , and let n be any even number less than $m - 1$: there may be found $n + 1$ right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to all the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines found, the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines given by position, will be to the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the lines found, as m to $n + 1$.

For example, Let $n = 6$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 7 of right lines given by position, that are neither all parallel to each other, nor intersecting each other in one point; and let m be the number of the right lines given by position: there may be found 7 right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the 7 lines found, the sum
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of the sixth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines given by position, will be to the sum of the sixth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the 7 lines found, as m to 7.

Again, Let $n = 8$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 9 of right lines given by position, that are neither all parallel to each other, nor intersecting each other in one point; and let m be the number of the right lines given by position: there may be found 9 right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the 9 lines found, the sum of the eighth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines given by position, will be to the sum of the eighth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the 9 lines found, as m to 9. And so on.

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PROPOSITION XLIX.

THEOREM XLVI.

Let there be any number of right lines given by position, that are neither all parallel to each other, nor intersecting each other in one point; let m be the number of the right lines given by position, and let $a, b, c, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are right lines given by position; let n be any even number less than m : there may be found $n - 1$ right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines found, the n power of the perpendicular drawn to one of the lines given by position, together with the power to which the n power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the power to which the n power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be to the

the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the lines found, as the sum of $a, b, c,$ &c. to $n + 1 \times a$.

For example, Let $n = 6$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 6 of right lines given by position, that are neither all parallel to each other, nor intersecting each other in one point; and let $a, b, c,$ &c. be given magnitudes as many in number as there are right lines given by position: there may be found 7 right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the 7 lines found, the sixth power of the perpendicular drawn to one of the lines given by position, together with the power to which the sixth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the power to which the sixth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be to the sum of

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the sixth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the lines found, as the sum of $a, b, c, \&c.$ to $7a$.

Again, Let $n = 8$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 8 of right lines given by position, that are neither all parallel to each other, nor intersecting each other in one point; and let $a, b, c, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are right lines given by position: there may be found 9 right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the lines found, the eighth power of the perpendicular drawn to one of the lines given by position, together with the power to which the eighth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the power to which the eighth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be to the sum of the eighth powers of the perpendiculars

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lars drawn to the lines found, as the sum of a , b , c , &c. to ga .

COR. Let there be any number of right lines given by position, that are neither all parallel to each other, nor intersecting each other in one point; let m be the number of the lines given by position, and let n be any even number less than m : there may be found $n + 1$ right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn right lines in given angles to all the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines found, the sum of the n powers of the lines drawn in given angles to the right lines given by position, will be to the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines found in a given ratio.

PROPOSITION L.

THEOREM XLVII.

Let there be any figure given by position; let m be the number of the sides of the figure, and let n be any odd number less than $m - 1$:

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there may be found $n+1$ right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point within the figure there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figure, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the lines found, the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the figure, will be to the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the lines found, as m to $n+1$.

For example, Let $n = 5$; and the theorem will be as follows,

Let there be any figure given by position of a greater number of sides than 6; and let m be the number of the sides of the figure; there may be found 6 right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point within the figure there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figure, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the 6 lines found, the sum of the fifth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the figure, will be to the sum of the fifth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the 6 lines found, as m to 6.

Again,

Again, Let $n = 7$; and the theorem will be as follows,

Let there be any figure given by position of a greater number of sides than 8; and let m be the number of the sides of the figure; there may be found 8 right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point within the figure there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figure, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the 8 lines found, the sum of the seventh powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the figure, will be to the sum of the seventh powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the 8 lines found, as m to 8. And so on,

PROPOSITION LI.

THEOREM XLVIII.

Let there be any figure given by position; and let m be the number of the sides of the figure, and let n be any odd number less than m ; and let $a, b, c, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are sides in the figure: there may be found $n+1$ right lines that

that will be given by position, such, that if from any point within the figure there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figure; and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the lines found, the n power of the perpendicular drawn to one of the sides of the figure, together with the power to which the n power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the sides of the figure has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the power to which the n power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the sides of the figure has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be to the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the lines found, as the sum of a, b, c &c. to $n + 1 \times a$.

For example, Let $n = 5$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any figure given by position of a greater number of sides than 5; and let $a, b, c,$ &c. be given magnitudes as many in number as there are sides in the figure: there may be found 6 right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point within the figure there be drawn perpendiculars

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lars to the sides of the figure, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the lines found, the fifth power of the perpendicular drawn to one of the sides of the figure, together with the power to which the fifth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the sides of the figure has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the power to which the fifth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the sides of the figure has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be to the sum of the fifth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the lines found, as the sum of $a, b, c, \&c.$ to $6a$.

Again, Let $n = 7$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any figure given by position of a greater number of sides than 7; and let $a, b, c, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are sides in the figure: 8 lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point within the figure there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figure, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the 8 lines found, the seventh power of the perpendicular drawn to one

one of the sides of the figure, together with the power to which the seventh power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the sides of the figure has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the power to which the seventh power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the sides of the figure has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be to the sum of the seventh powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the lines found, as the sum of $a, b, c, \&c.$ to $8a$.

COR. Let there be any figure given by position; and let m be the number of the sides of the figure, and let n be any odd number less than m : there may be found $n + 1$ right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point within the figure there be drawn right lines in given angles to the sides of the figure, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the lines found, the sum of the n powers of the lines drawn in given angles to the sides of the figure, will be to the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the lines found in a given ratio.

N. B. In the following theorems by taking

a point always on the same side the right lines given by position, we are to understand that the point must not be taken on different sides any one of the right lines given by position.

The two last theorems may be made more general thus.

PROPOSITION LII.

THEOREM XLIX.

Let there be any number of right lines given by position; and let m be the number of the lines, and n any odd number less than $m-1$: there may be found $n+1$ right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point always taken on the same side the right lines given by position there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the lines found, the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines given by position, will be to the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the lines found, as m to $n+1$.

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For example, Let $n = 3$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 4 of right lines given by position; and let m be the number of the lines: 4 right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point always taken on the same side the right lines given by position there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the 4 lines found, the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines given by position, will be to the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the 4 lines found, as m to 4.

Again, Let $n = 5$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 6 of right lines given by position; and let m be the number of the lines: 6 right lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point always taken on the same side the right lines given by position there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the 6 lines found, the sum
of

of the sixth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the right lines given by position, will be to the sum of the sixth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the 6 lines found, as m to 6. And so on.

PROPOSITION LIII.

THEOREM L.

Let there be any number of right lines given by position; and let m be the number of the lines, and n any odd number less than m ; and let $a, b, c, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are right lines given by position: there may be found $n+1$ right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point always taken on the same side the right lines given by position there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the lines found, the n power of the perpendicular drawn to one of the lines given by position, together with the power to which the n power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines gi-

ven by position has the same ratio that a has to b, together with the power to which the n power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to c, and so on, will be to the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the lines found, as the sum of a, b, c, &c. to $n + 1 \times a$.

For example, Let $n = 3$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 4 of right lines given by position; and let $a, b, c, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are right lines given by position: 4 lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point always taken on the same side the right lines given by position there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the lines found, the cube of the perpendicular drawn to one of the lines given by position, together with the solid to which the cube of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to b ,

to b , together with the solid to which the cube of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to c , and so on, will be to the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the lines found, as the sum of $a, b, c, \&c.$ to $4a$.

Again, Let $n = 5$; and the theorem will be as follows.

Let there be any number greater than 6 of right lines given by position; and let $a, b, c, \&c.$ be given magnitudes as many in number as there are right lines given by position: 6 lines may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the lines found, the fifth power of the perpendicular drawn to one of the lines given by position, together with the power to which the fifth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has to b , together with the power to which the fifth power of the perpendicular drawn to another of the lines given by position has the same ratio that a has

a has to c , and so on, will be to the sum of the fifth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the lines found, as the sum of $a, b, c, \&c.$ to $6a$. And so on.

COR. Let there be any number of right lines given by position; and let m be the number of the lines, and n any odd number less than m : there may be found $n + 1$ right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point always taken on the same side the right lines given by position there be drawn lines in given angles to the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the lines found, the sum of the n powers of the lines drawn in given angles to the right lines given by position, will be to the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the lines found in a given ratio.

PROPOSITION LIV.

Let there be any number of right lines given by position, and parallel to each other; and let n be any given number; and from a point let there be drawn right lines in given angles
to

to all the right lines given by position; and let the sum of the n powers of the lines drawn in given angles be invariable: the point from which the lines are drawn, will be in a right line given by position.

For example, Let $n = 2$; and the proposition will be as follows.

Let there be any number of right lines given by position; and parallel to each other; and from a point let there be drawn right lines in given angles to the right lines given by position; and let the sum of the squares of the lines drawn in given angles be invariable: the point from which the lines are drawn, will be in a right line given by position.

Again, Let $n = 3$; and the proposition will be as follows.

Let there be any number of right lines given by position, and parallel to each other; and from a point let there be drawn right lines in given angles to the right lines given by position; and let the sum of the cubes of the lines drawn in given angles be invariable: the point from which the lines are drawn, will be in a right line given by position.

PROPOSITION LV.

Let there be any number of right lines given by position, that are not all parallel to each other; let $n + 1$ be the number of the lines; and from a point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position; and let the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars be invariable: the point from which the perpendiculars are drawn, will be in an oval figure that is a line of the n order, or a line of an inferior order.

This is a locus not only to all the various oval figures of lines of the n order, but likewise to all the various oval figures of lines of any lower order; that is, the various cases of this locus will comprehend all the various oval figures of lines of the n order, and likewise all the various oval figures of lines of any lower order.

For example, Let $n = 3$; and the proposition will be as follows.

Let there be four right lines given by position, that are not all parallel to each other;
and

and from a point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position ; and let the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars be invariable : the point from which the perpendiculars are drawn, will be in an oval figure that is a line of the third order, or will be in an ellipse or circle ; and the various cases of this locus will comprehend all the oval figures that are lines of the third order, and likewise the ellipse and circle.

If the right lines given by position be the sides of a square, and the point from which the perpendiculars are drawn be within the square, the point will be in a circle. But

If the right lines given by position be the sides of a parallelogram, and the point from which the perpendiculars are drawn be taken within the parallelogram, the point will be in an ellipse.

Again, Let $n = 4$; and the proposition will be as follows.

Let there be five right lines given by position, that are not all parallel to each other ; and from a point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position ; and let the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars

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perpendiculars be invariable: the point from which the perpendiculars are drawn, will be in an oval figure that is a line of the fourth order, or will be in an oval figure that is a line of an inferior order.

This is a locus not only to all the various oval figures of lines of the fourth order, but likewise to all the oval figures of lines of the third and second order; that is, the various cases of this locus will comprehend all the various oval figures of lines of the fourth order, and likewise all the various oval figures of lines of the third order, and also the ellipse and circle. And so on.

PROPOSITION LVI.

Let there be any number p of right lines given by position, and likewise let there be any number q of right lines given by position; and let all the lines be either parallel to each other, or all intersecting each other in one point; and let n be any number; and from a point let there be drawn right lines in given angles to all the right lines given by position;

fition ; and let the sum of the n powers of the lines drawn in given angles to the first number of right lines given by position be to the sum of the n powers of the lines drawn in given angles to the second number of right lines given by position in a given ratio : the point from which the lines are drawn, will be in a right line given by position.

For example, Let $n = 2$; and the proposition will be as follows.

Let there be p number of right lines given by position, and likewise let there be q number of right lines given by position ; and let all the right lines be either parallel to each other, or all intersecting each other in one point ; and from a point let there be drawn right lines in given angles to all the right lines given by position ; and let the sum of the squares of the lines drawn in given angles to the first number of right lines given by position be to the sum of the squares of the lines drawn in given angles to the second number of right lines given by position in a given ratio : the point from which the lines are drawn, will be in a right line given by position.

Again, Let $n = 3$; and the proposition will be as follows.

Let there be any number p of right lines given by position, and likewise let there be any number q of right lines given by position; and let all the right lines be either parallel to each other, or all intersecting each other in one point; and from a point let there be drawn right lines in given angles to all the right lines given by position; and let the sum of the cubes of the lines drawn in given angles to the first number of right lines given by position be to the sum of the cubes of the right lines drawn in given angles to the second number of right lines given by position in a given ratio: the point from which the lines are drawn in given angles, will be in a right line given by position.

PROPOSITION LVII.

Let there be any even number of right lines given by position; let $2n + 2$ be the number of the lines; and from a point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given

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ven by position; and let the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars drawn to half the number of right lines given by position be to the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the remaining number of right lines given by position in a given ratio: the point from which the perpendiculars are drawn, will be in a line of the n order, or will be in a line of an inferior order.

This is a locus not only to all the various lines of the n order, but likewise to all the various lines of any lower order; that is, the various cases of this locus will comprehend all the various lines of the n order, and likewise all the various lines of any inferior order.

For example, Let $n = 3$; and the proposition will be as follows,

Let there be 8 right lines given by position; and from a point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position; and let the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to four of the lines given by position be to the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the other 4 lines given by position in a given ratio; the point from
which

which the perpendiculars are drawn, will be in a line of the third order, or will be in a line of the second order, or in a right line.

This is a locus not only to all the various lines of the third order, but likewise to all the lines of the second order, and likewise to a right line; that is, the various cases of this locus will comprehend all the lines of the third order, and all the lines of the second order, and a right line.

Let there be two parallelograms given by position; and from a point within both figures let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of the figures; and let the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the one be to the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the other in a given ratio: the point from which the perpendiculars are drawn, will be in a conic section; and if the figures be both squares, the point will be in a circle, or in a right line.

In many other cases of this proposition, the point will be in a conic section, and also in a circle, or in a right line.

Again, Let $n = 4$; and the proposition will be as follows.

Let

Let there be ten right lines given by position; and from a point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the right lines given by position; and let the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to five of the right lines given by position be to the sum of the fourth powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the other five lines given by position in a given ratio: the point from which the perpendiculars are drawn, will be in a line of the fourth order, or will be in a line of the third or second order, or will be in a right line.

This is a locus not only to all the various lines of the fourth order, but likewise to all the various lines of the third and second order; that is, the various cases of this locus will comprehend all the lines of the fourth order, and likewise all the lines of the third and second order, and also a right line.

PROPOSITION LVIII.

Let there be any number of right lines given by position, that are not all parallel to each other; and let n be any number; and from a point let there be drawn right lines in given angles

angles to the right lines given by position ; and let the sum of the n powers of the lines drawn in given angles be invariable : the point from which the lines are drawn, will be in an oval figure that is a line of the n order, or a line of an inferior order.

If the number of the right lines given by position be greater than n , there may be found [by Cor. to 49. & 53.] $n+1$ right lines that will be given by position, such, that if from any point there be drawn right lines in given angles to all the right lines given by position, and likewise there be drawn perpendiculars to the lines found, the sum of the n powers of the lines drawn in given angles to the right lines given by position, will be to the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the lines found, as the number of the lines given by position to $n+1$; and because the sum of the n powers of the lines drawn in given angles to the right lines given by position is invariable, therefore the sum of the n powers of the perpendiculars drawn to the $n+1$ lines found will be invariable : Therefore [54.] the point from which the perpendiculars are

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are drawn, will be in an oval figure that is a line of the n order, or a line of an inferior order : And therefore the point from which the lines are drawn in given angles to the right lines given by position, will be in an oval figure that is a line of the n order, or a line of an inferior order.

Let $n = 2$; and the proposition will be as follows.

Let there be any number of right lines given by position that are not all parallel to each other ; and from a point let there be drawn right lines in given angles to all the right lines given by position ; and let the sum of the squares of the lines drawn in given angles be invariable : the point from which the lines are drawn will be in an ellipse.

Again, Let $n = 3$; and the proposition will be as follows.

Let there be any number of right lines given by position that are not all parallel to each other ; and from a point let there be drawn right lines in given angles to all the right lines given by position ; and let the sum of the cubes of the lines drawn in given angles be invariable : the point from which the lines are

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drawn in given angles, will be in an oval figure that is a line of the third order, or will be in an ellipse or circle.

PROPOSITION LIX.

Let there be any number p of right lines given by position, and likewise let there be any number q of right lines given by position, and let n be any given number; and from a point let there be drawn right lines in given angles to all the right lines given by position; and let the sum of the n powers of the lines drawn in given angles to the first number of right lines given by position be to the sum of the n powers of the lines drawn in given angles to the second number of right lines given by position in a given ratio: the point from which the lines are drawn will be in a line of the n order, or will be in a line of an inferior order.

Let $n = 2$; and the proposition will be as follows.

Let there be any number p of right lines given by position, and likewise let there be any
any

any number q of right lines given by position ; and from a point let there be drawn right lines in given angles to all the right lines given by position ; and let the sum of the squares of the lines drawn in given angles to the first number of right lines given by position be to the sum of the squares of the lines drawn in given angles to the second number of right lines given by position in a given ratio : the point from which the lines are drawn, will be in a line of the second order, or in a right line ; that is, the point will be in a conic section.

Let there be two circles given by position, and about each of the circles let there be a regular figure circumscribed ; and from a point let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of both figures ; and let the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of one of the figures be to the sum of the squares of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the other figure in a given ratio : the point from which the perpendiculars are drawn, will be in a circle, or in a right line. If the given ratio be the same with that of the number of the sides of the first figure to the number of the sides of the second, the point from

which the perpendiculars are drawn, will be in a right line given by position.

In many other cases of this proposition, the point will be either in a circle, or in a right line.

Again, Let $n = 3$; and the proposition will be as follows.

Let there be any number p of right lines given by position, and likewise let there be any number q of right lines given by position; and from a point let there be drawn right lines in given angles to all the right lines given by position; and let the sum of the cubes of the lines drawn in given angles to the first number of right lines given by position be to the sum of the cubes of the lines drawn in given angles to the second number of right lines given by position in a given ratio: the point from which the lines are drawn, will be in a line of the third order, or in a line of the second order, or in a right line.

For example, Let there be a parallelogram given by position, and likewise let there be a regular figure of a greater number of sides than three circumscribed about a circle given by position; and from a point within both figures

gures let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of both figures ; and let the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of one of the figures be to the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the other figure in a given ratio ; the point from which the perpendiculars are drawn, will be in a line of the second order, or will be in a right line ; that is, the point will be in a conic section,

Let there be two circles given by position, and about each of the circles let there be a regular figure of a greater number of sides than three circumscribed ; and from a point within both figures let there be drawn perpendiculars to the sides of both figures ; and let the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of one of the figures be to the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the other in a given ratio : the point from which the perpendiculars are drawn, will be in a circle, or in a right line.

If the multiple of the diameter of the first circle by the number of the sides of the figure circumscribed about it be to the multiple of the diameter of the second circle by the number

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ber of the sides of the figure circumscribed about it in the given ratio, that is, as the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the figure circumscribed about the first circle to the sum of the cubes of the perpendiculars drawn to the sides of the figure circumscribed about the second circle; the point from which the perpendiculars are drawn, will be in a right line.

In many other cases of this proposition, the point from which the lines are drawn, will be in a circle, or in a right line.

The following propositions are a few properties of the circle that occurred when considering some of the foregoing propositions.

PROPOSITION LX. *Fig. 19.*

Let there be a circle given by position, and let A, B be two given points; a point C may be found within the circle, such, that if through the point C there be drawn any line meeting the circle in D, E, and AD, BD, AE, BE be joined, the rectangle ADB will be to the rectangle AEB as CD to CE.

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PROPOSITION LXI. Fig. 20.

Let there be a circle given by position, and two points A, B given; two right lines DE, DF may be found, such, that if from the points A, B there be drawn AG, BG to any point G in the circumference of the circle, and from the point G there be drawn GH, GK perpendicular to DE, DF, the sum of the squares of GH, GK will be to the rectangle AGB as the rectangle AGB to a certain given space; that is, the rectangle AGB will be a mean proportional between the sum of the squares of GH, GK and a certain given space.

PROPOSITION LXII. Fig. 21.

Let there be a circle given by position, and let there be two right lines AB, AC given by position; and let a, b be two given magnitudes: a point D may be found, such, that if through the point D there be drawn any right line meeting the circle in E, F, and from the point E there be drawn EG, EH perpendicular

perpendicular to AB, AC, and from the point F there be drawn likewise FK, FL perpendicular to AB, AC, the square of EG together with the space to which the square of EH has the same ratio that a has to b , will be to the square of FK together with the space to which the square of FL has the same ratio that a has to b , as the square of ED to the square of DF.

PROPOSITION LXIII. Fig. 22. 23.

Let there be a circle given by position, and let AB, AC be two right lines given by position, and let the angle BAC be equal to two angles of an equilateral triangle; two right lines DE, DF may be found that will be given by position, such, that if from any point G in the circumference of the circle within the angle BAC there be drawn GH, GK perpendicular to AB, AC, and likewise there be drawn GL, GM perpendicular to DE, DF, the sum of the cubes of GH, GK will be equal to a solid whose base is the sum of the squares of GL, GM, and altitude a given line.

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PROPOSITION LXIV. Fig. 24.

Let there be a circle given by position, and AB, AC two right lines given by position, and let the angle BAC be equal to two angles of an equilateral triangle, and let the circle be contained within the angle BAC; a point D may be found, such, that if through the point D there be drawn any line meeting the circle in E, F, and from the point E there be drawn EG, EH perpendicular to AB, AC, and likewise there be drawn FK, FL perpendicular to AB, AC, the sum of the cubes of EG, EH, will be to the sum of the cubes of FK, FL, as the square of DE to the square of DF.

There are many properties of the circle and conic sections similar to these, that will naturally occur to such as consider some of the foregoing propositions, and that may be of considerable use in solving several problems, that at first view would seem to require a line of a high order, when the solution may be easily had by a conic section.

For example, Fig. 20. Let there be a cir-

cle given by position, and two points A, B given; and let it be required to draw from the given points A, B right lines to a point G in the circumference of the circle, such, that the rectangle AGB may be equal to a given space.

The solution of this problem, at first view, would seem to require the Cassinian curve, a line of the fourth order; but it may be solved by the intersection of an ellipse and circle.

Because [61.] two right lines DE, DF are given by position, such, that if from the given points A, B there be drawn right lines to any point G in the circle, and from the point G there be drawn GH, GK perpendicular to DE, DF, the sum of the squares of GH, GK, will be to the rectangle AGB as the rectangle AGB to a given space; and because the rectangle AGB is equal to a given space, the sum of the squares of GH, GK, will be equal to a given space: Therefore the point G will be in a given ellipse. And therefore the point G may be found by the intersection of a given ellipse and circle.

If the given points A, B be in the diameter, or if they be equally distant from the centre, or if the rectangle contained by their distances
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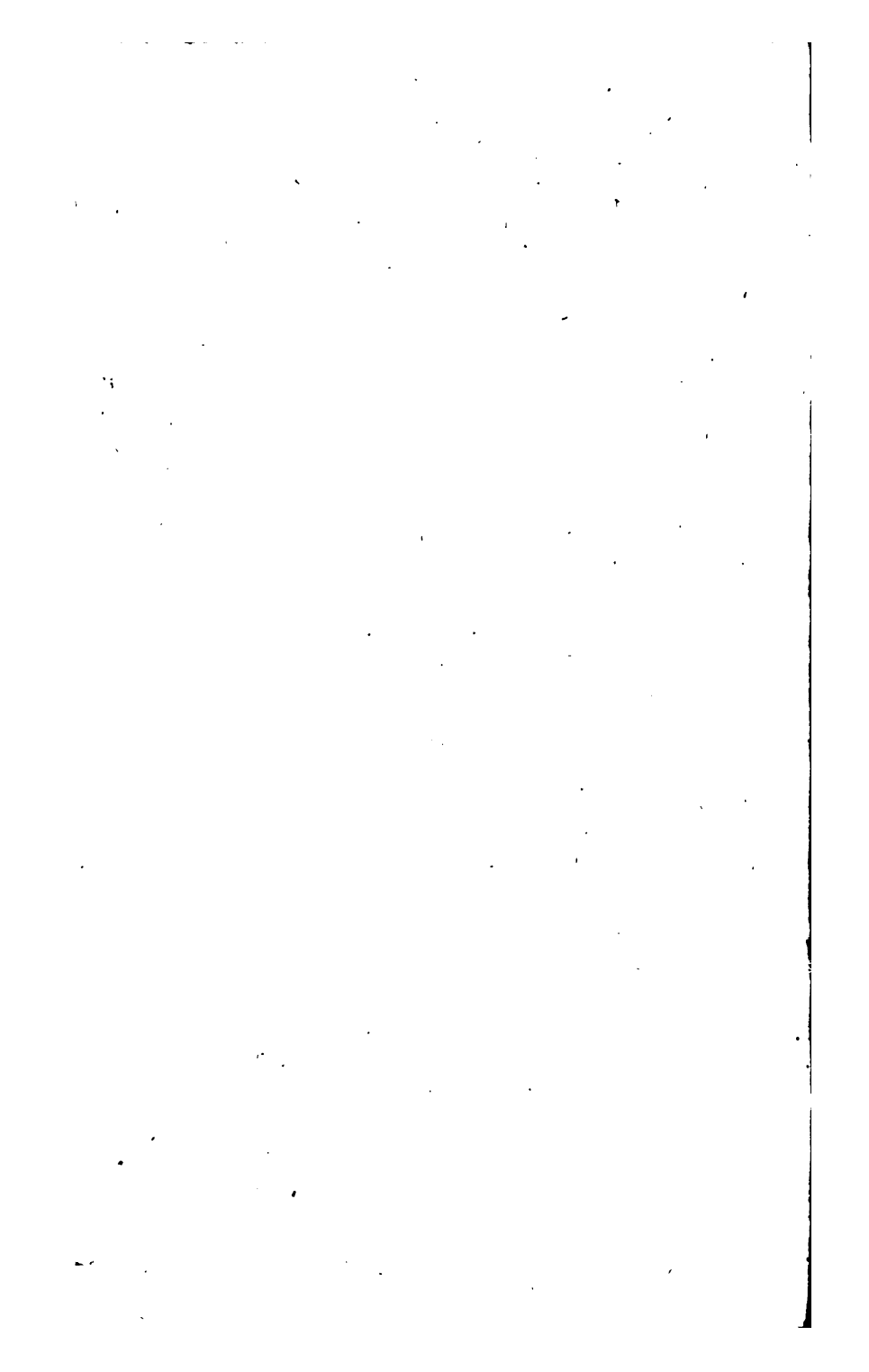
from the centre be equal to the square of the semidiameter of the circle, the point *G* may be found by the intersection of a right line and circle.

This problem has both a maximum and minimum, if none of the given points be in the circle ; but if one of the given points be in the circle, it has only a maximum.

This problem may be solved otherwise by the sixth proposition.

From this it is evident, that a circle can intersect the Cassinian curve in no more than four points.

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Fig. 21

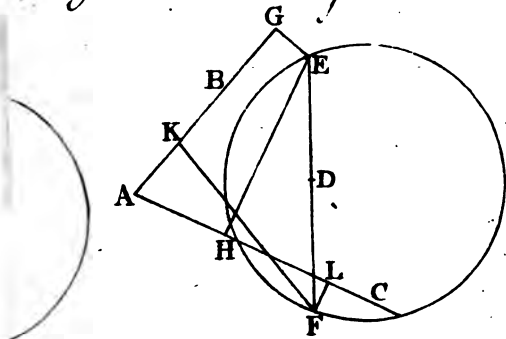
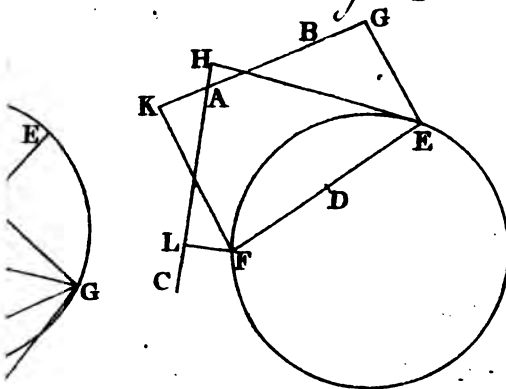


Fig. 24



A
TREATISE
OF
PRACTICAL GEOMETRY.
IN
THREE PARTS.

BY

The late Dr. *DAVID GREGORY*,
Sometime Professor of Mathematicks in the Uni-
versity of *EDINBURGH*, and afterwards
Savilian Professor of Astronomy at *OXFORD*.

Translated from the Latin; with Additions.

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E R R A T A

Page 81. Line 14. after *Glaziers* read *use*. Page
143. Line 17. for .0036, read .0034.

ADVERTISEMENT.

THIS Treatise was composed in Latin about sixty Years ago by Dr. David Gregory, then Professor of Mathematicks in the University of Edinburgh, where it has been constantly taught since that time, immediately after Euclid's Elements and the plain Trigonometry, as proper for exercising the Students in the Application of Geometry to Practice. The Bookseller having procured an English Translation of it, which had been made by an ingenious Gentleman when a Student here, this Translation has been revised; and several Additions have been made to the Treatise itself, in order to render it more useful at this time. The Reader will find these distinguished from the Author's Text.


College of EDINB,
May 1. 1745.

Col. Maclaurin





A
TREATISE
O F
Practical Geometry.

 Having explained the first books of *Euclid*, with the eleventh and twelfth, which may serve for geometrical elements; and having also taught the plain Trigonometry; we are now to subjoin some corollaries which are easily deduced from them, that contain practical
A rules

rules of great use in the affairs of life, concerning the mensuration of lines, angles, surfaces and solids.

This treatise of practical Geometry is divided into three parts. In the first, we treat of the mensuration of lines and angles; to which we have subjoined Surveying. In the second, we treat of surfaces, not of such as are plane only, but of some curve surfaces likewise; as of the surface of the cylinder, cone and sphere; and of those parts of the sphere which we have frequently occasion to consider. It is shewn how to express the area of these in the superficial measures that are now in use amongst us. The third part treats of solid figures and their mensuration. After deducing the rules for finding the solid content of the parallelepipedon, prism, pyramid, cylinder, cone, &c. from *Euclid*, we add from *Archimedes* the mensuration of the sphere and spheroid, and of their segments,

ments, demonstrated in an easy manner; from whence a method is derived for finding the contents of vessels that are either full, or in part empty, in the wet as well as the dry measures that are now in use amongst us.

P A R T I.

A Line, or length to be measured, whether it be distance, height or depth, is measured by a line less than it. With us the least measure of length is an inch; not that we measure no line less than it, but because we do not use the name of any measure below that of an inch; expressing lesser measures by the fractions of an inch; and in this treatise, we use decimal fractions as the easiest. Twelve inches make a foot, three feet and an inch make the *Scotch* ell, six ells make a fall, forty falls make a furlong, eight furlongs make a
A 2 mile.

mile. So that the *Scotch* mile is 1184 paces, accounting every pace to be five feet. These things are according to the statutes of *Scotland*, notwithstanding which the glaziers use a foot of only eight inches; and other artists for the most part use the *English* foot, on account of the several Scales marked on the *English* foot-measure for their use. But the *English* foot is somewhat less than the *Scotch*, so as that 185 of these make 186 of those.

Lines, to the extremities and any intermediate point of which you have easy access, are measured, by applying to them the common measure a number of times. But lines, to which you cannot have such access, are measured by methods taken from Geometry. The chief whereof we shall here endeavour to explain. The first is by the help of the geometrical square.

“ As for the *English* measures, the
“ yard

“ yard is three feet or thirty six inches. A pole is sixteen feet and a half, or five yards and a half. The chain, commonly called *Gunter's* chain, is four poles, or twenty two yards, that is sixty six feet. An *English* statute mile is fourscore chains, or 1760 yards, that is 5280 feet.

“ The chain (which is now much in use, because it is very convenient for surveying) is divided into a hundred links, each of which is $7\frac{2}{100}$ of an inch; whence it is easy to reduce any number of those links to feet, or any number of feet to links.

“ A chain that may have the same advantages in surveying in *Scotland* as *Gunter's* chain has in *England*, ought to be in length seventy four feet, or twenty four *Scots* ells; if no regard is had to the difference of the *Scotch* and *English* foot above-mentioned. But if regard

“ gard is had to that difference, the
 “ *Scotch* chain ought to consist of
 “ $74 \frac{2}{7}$ *English* feet, or 74 feet, 4
 “ inches, and $\frac{2}{7}$ of an inch. This
 “ chain being divided into an hun-
 “ dred links, each of those links is
 “ 8 inches, and $\frac{222}{1000}$ of an inch.”
 “ In the following table the most
 “ noted measures are expressed in
 “ *English* inches and decimals of an
 “ inch.

	<i>Eng. Inch.</i>	<i>Dec.</i>
The <i>English</i> foot is	- 12	000
The <i>Paris</i> foot,	- 12	788
The <i>Rhinland</i> foot, measur- ed by Mr. <i>Picart</i> ,	- 12	362
The <i>Scotch</i> foot,	- 12	065
The <i>Amsterdam</i> foot by <i>Snellius</i> and <i>Picart</i> ,	- 11	172
The <i>Dantzick</i> foot by <i>He- velius</i> ,	- 11	297
The <i>Danish</i> foot by Mr. <i>Pi- cart</i> ,	- 12	465
The <i>Swedish</i> foot by the same,	- 11	692
		The

practical Geometry.

Inch. Dec.

The <i>Brussels</i> foot by Mr.		
<i>Picart</i> , - - -	10	828
The <i>Lyons</i> foot by Mr.		
<i>Auzout</i> , - - -	13	458
The <i>Bonian</i> foot by Mr.		
<i>Cassini</i> , - - -	14	938
The <i>Milan</i> foot by Mr.		
<i>Auzout</i> , - - -	15	631
The <i>Roman</i> Palm used by merchants, according to the same, -	9	791
The <i>Roman</i> palm used by Architects, - -	8	779
The palm of <i>Naples</i> , ac- cording to Mr. <i>Auzout</i> ,	10	314
The <i>English</i> yard, -	36	000
The <i>English</i> ell, - -	45	000
The <i>Scotch</i> ell, -	37	200
The <i>Paris</i> aune used by Mercers, according to Mr. <i>Picard</i> , -	46	786
The <i>Paris</i> aune used by Drapers, according to the same, - -	46	680
		The

A Treatise of

	<i>Inch.</i>	<i>Dec.</i>
The <i>Lyons</i> aune by Mr.		
<i>Auzout</i> , - - -	46	570
The <i>Geneva</i> aune, - -	44	760
The <i>Amsterdam</i> ell, - -	26	800
The <i>Danish</i> ell. by Mr. <i>Pi-</i>		
<i>cart</i> , - - -	24	930
The <i>Swedish</i> ell, - -	23	380
The <i>Norway</i> ell, - -	24	510
The <i>Brabant</i> or <i>Antwerp</i> ell,	27	170
The <i>Brussels</i> ell, - -	27	260
The <i>Bruges</i> ell, - -	27	550
The brace of <i>Bononia</i> ac-		
cording to <i>Auzout</i> , - -	25	200
The brace used by archi-		
tects in <i>Rome</i> , - -	30	730
The brace used in <i>Rome</i> by		
merchants, - -	34	270
The <i>Florence</i> brace used by		
merchants, according to		
<i>Picart</i> . - - -	22	910
The <i>Florence</i> geographical		
brace, - - -	21	570
The vara of <i>Seville</i> , - -	33	127
The vara of <i>Madrid</i> , - -	39	166
The		

practical Geometry. 9

The vara of <i>Portugal</i> ,	44	031
The cavedo of <i>Portugal</i> ,	27	354
The antient <i>Roman</i> foot,	11	632
The <i>Persian</i> arish, accord- to Mr. <i>Greaves</i> ,	38	364
The shorter pike of <i>Con-</i> <i>stantinople</i> , according to the same, -	25	576
Another pike of <i>Constan-</i> <i>tinople</i> , according to Messrs. <i>Mallet</i> and <i>De la</i> <i>Porte</i> , - -	27	920

PROPOSITION I.

PROBLEM I.

To describe the structure of the geometrical square.

THE geometrical square is made of any solid matter, as brass or wood, or of any four plain rulers joined together at right angles, (as
B in

in fig. 1.) where A is the centre, from which hangs a thread with a small weight at the end, so as to be directed always to the centre. Each of the sides, BE, and DE, is divided into an hundred equal parts, or (if the sides be long enough to admit of it) into a thousand parts; C, and F, are two sights fixed on the side AD. There is moreover an index GH, which, when there is occasion, is joined to the centre A in such manner as that it can move round, and remain in any given situation. On this index are two sights perpendicular to the right line going from the centre of the instrument; these are K and L. The side DE of the instrument is called the upright side, BE the reclining side.

PROPO-

PROPOSITION II. FIG. 2.

*To measure an accessible height, AB,
by the help of a geometrical square,
its distance being known.*

LET BR be an horizontal plain,
on which there stands per-
pendicularly any line AB: Let BD,
the given distance of the observa-
tor from the height, be 96 feet;
let the height of the observer's
eye be supposed 6 feet; and let the
Instrument held by a steady hand, or
rather leaning on a support, be di-
rected towards the summit A, so that
one eye, (the other being shut,) may
see it clearly thro' the sights; the
perpendicular or plum-line mean
while hanging free, and touching
the surface of the instrument: Let
now the perpendicular be supposed
to cut off on the right side KN 80
equal parts: It is clear that LKN,

B 2

ACK,

ACK, are similar triangles; for the angles LKN, ACK, are right angles, and therefore equal; moreover LN and AC are parallel, as being both perpendicular to the horizon; consequently, by *prop. 29. 1. B. of Euclid.* the angles KLN, KAC are equal; wherefore by the second corollary of the *32. prop. 1. B. of Euclid,* the angles LNK, and AKC, are likewise equal: So that in the triangles NKL, KAC (by the *4. prop. of the 6. B. of Euclid*) as $NK : KL :: KC$ (*i. e.* DB) : CA; that is, as 80 to 100, so is 96 feet to CA. Therefore, by the rule of three, CA will be found to be 120 feet; and CB, which is 6 feet, being added, the whole height is 126 feet.

But if the distance of the observer from the height, as BE, be such that when the instrument is directed as formerly toward the summit A, the perpendicular fall on the angle P, opposite to H, the centre
of

of the instrument ; and BE or CG be given of 120 feet, CA. will also be 120 feet. For in the triangles HGP, ACG, æqui-angular, as in the preceding case, as $PG : GH :: GC : GA$. But PG is equal to GH ; therefore GC is likewise equal to CA. That is, CA will be 120 feet, and the whole height 126 feet, as before.

Let the distance BF be 300 feet, and the perpendicular or plum-line cut off 40 equal parts from the reclining side : Now in this case the angles QAC, QZI, are equal, by the 29. *prop.* 1. B. of *Euclid*. And by the same *prop.* the angles QZI, ZIS are equal ; therefore the angle ZIS is equal to the angle QAC. But the angles ZSI, QCA are equal, being right angles. Therefore in the æquiangular triangles ACQ, SZI, by the 4. *prop.* of the 6. B. of *Euclid*, it will be as $ZS : SI :: CQ : CA$. That is, as 100 to 40, so is 300 to CA. Wherefore, by the rule
of

of three, CA will be found to be of 120 feet. And by adding the height of the observator, the whole BA will be 126 feet. Note, that the height is greater than the distance, when the perpendicular cuts the right side, and less, if it cut the reclined side: And that the height and distance are equal, if the perpendicular fall on the opposite angle.

S C H O L I U M. FIG. 3.

If the height of a tower, to be measured as above; end in a point, as in fig. 3. the distance of the observator opposite to it, is not CD, but is to be accounted to the perpendicular from the point A; that is, to CD must be added the half of the thickness of the tower, viz. BD: Which must likewise be understood in the following propositions, when the case is similar.

PROPOSITION III. PROB. FIG. 4.

From the height of a tower AB given, to find a distance on the horizontal plain BC, by the geometrical square.

LET the instrument be so placed as that the mark C in the opposite plain may be seen through the sights, and let it be observed how many parts are cut off by the perpendicular. Now by what hath been already demonstrated, the triangles AEF, ABC, are similar; therefore, by 4th, 6. *Eucl.* it will be, as EF to AE, so AB (composed of the height of the Tower BG, and of the height of the centre of the instrument A, above the tower AG) to the distance BC. Wherefore, if by the rule of three, you say, as EF to AE, so is AB to BC, it will be the distance sought.

PRO-

PROPOSITION IV. FIG. 5.

To measure any distance at land or sea, by the geometrical square.

IN this operation the index is to be applied to the instrument, as was shown in the description ; and by the help of a support, the instrument is to be placed horizontally at the point A ; then let it be turn'd till the remote point F, whose distance is to be measured, be seen through the fixed sights : and bringing the index to be parallel with the other side of the instrument, observe by the sights upon it any accessible mark B, at a sensible distance : then carrying the instrument to the point B, let the immovable sights be directed to the first station A, and the sights of the index to the point F. If the index cut the right side of the square, as in K, in the two triangles BRK, and BAF, which

which are æquiangular, it will be (by 4th 6, *Eucl.*) as BR to RK, so BA (the distance of the stations to be measured with a chain) to AF; and the distance AF sought, will be found by the rule of three. But if the index cut the reclined side of the square in any point L, where the distance of a more remote point is sought; in the triangles BLS, BAG, the side LS shall be to SB, as BA to AG the distance sought, which accordingly will be found by the rule of three.

PROPOSITION V.

PROB. FIG. 6.

To measure an accessible height by means of a plain mirror.

L Et AB be the height to be measured; let the mirror be placed at C, in the horizontal plain BD at a
C known

known distance BC: let the observer go back to D, till he see the image of the summit in the mirror, at a certain point of it which he must diligently mark, and let DE be the height of the observator's eye. The triangles ABC and EDC are æquiangular: For the angles at D and B are right angles; and ACB, ECD, are equal, being the angles of incidence and reflection of the ray AC, as is demonstrated in optics; wherefore the remaining angles at A, and E, are also equal: therefore, by 4th, 6. *Eucl.* it will be, as CD to DE, so CB. to BA; that is, as the distance of the observator from the point of the mirror in the right line betwixt the observator and the height, is to the height of the observator's eye, so is the distance of the tower from that point of the mirror, to the height of the tower sought; which therefore will be found by the rule of three.

Note

Note 1st, The observator will be more exact if at the point D, a staff be placed in the ground perpendicularly, over the top of which the observator may see a point of the glass exactly in a line betwixt him and the tower.

Note 2d, In place of a mirror may be used the surface of water contained in a vessel, which naturally becomes parallel to the horizon.

PROPOSITION VI. FIG. 7.

To measure an accessible height AB by means of two staves.

LET there be placed perpendicularly in the ground a longer staff DE, likewise a shorter one FG, so as the observator may see A, the top of the height to be measured, over the ends D, F, of the two staves; let FH and DC parallel to the horizon meet DE and AB in H and C,

C 2 then

then the triangles FHD, DCA, shall be æquiangular; for the angles at C, and H, are right ones, likewise the angle A, is equal to the angle FDH, by 29. 1. *Eucl.* wherefore the remaining angles DFH, and ADC, are also equal: wherefore by 4. 6. *Eucl.* as FH, the distance of the staves, to HD the excess of the longer staff above the shorter, so is DC the distance of the longer staff from the tower, to CA the excess of the height of the tower above the longer staff, And thence CA will be found by the rule of three.

To which if the length DE be added, you will have the whole height of the tower BA, Q. E. F.

S C H O L I U M FIG. 8.

Many other methods may be occasionally contrived for measuring an accessible height. For example, from the given length of the shadow BD,

BD,

BD, I find out the height AB thus ;
Let there be erected a staff CE per-
pendicularly, producing the shadow
EF: the triangles ABD, CEF, are
æquiangular, for the angles at B, and
E, are right ; and the angles ADB,
and CFE, are equal, each being e-
qual to the angle of the sun's eleva-
tion above the horizon ; therefore,
by 4. 6. *Eucl.* as EF the shadow of
the staff, to EC the staff itself, so BD
the shadow of the tower, to BA the
height of the tower ; tho' the plain
on which the shadow of the tower
falls be not parallel to the horizon,
if the staff be erected in the same
plain, the rule will be the same.

PROPO-

P R O P O S I T I O N VII.

To measure an inaccessible height by means of two staves.

Hitherto we have supposed the height to be accessible, or that we can come at the lower end of it: now if, because of some impediment, we cannot get to a tower, or if the point whose height is to be found out, be the summit of a hill, so that the perpendicular be hid within the hill; if, I say, for want of better instruments, such an inaccessible height is to be measured by means of two staves, let the first observation be made with the staves DE and FG as in PROP. I. then the observator is to go off in a direct line from the the height and first station, till he come to the second station, where he is to place the longer staff perpendicularly at RN, and the shorter staff

staff at KO, so that the summit A may be seen along their tops, that is, so that the points KNA may be in the same right line. Through the point N let there be drawn the right line NP parallel to FA : wherefore in the triangles KNP, KAF, the angles KNP, KAF are equal by the 29th 1. *Eucl.* also the angle AKF is common to both ; consequently the remaining angle KPN is equal to the remaining angle KFA. And therefore by 4th 6. *Eucl.* $PN : FA :: KP : KF$. But the triangles PNL, FAS, are similar. Therefore, by 4th 6. *Eucl.* $PN : FA :: NL : SA$. Therefore by the 11th 5. *Eucl.* $KP : KF :: NL : SA$. Thence alternately it will be as KP (the Excess of the greater distance of the short staff from the long one above its lesser distance from it) to NL, the excess of the longer Staff above the shorter, so KF, the distance of the two stations of the short-

shorter staff, to SA the excess of the height sought above the height of the shorter staff. Wherefore SA will be found by the rule of three. To which let the height of the shorter staff be added, and the sum will give the whole inaccessible Height BA, Q. E. F.

Note 1. In the same manner may an inaccessible height be found by a geometrical square, or by a plain speculum. But we shall leave the rules to be found out by the student for his own exercise.

Note 2. That by the height of the staff we understand its height above the ground in which it is fixed.

Note 3. Hence depends the method of using other instruments invented by geometricians; for example of the geometrical cross; and if all things be justly weighed, a like rule will serve for it as here: but we incline to touch only upon what is most material.

PRO-

PROPOSITION VIII. FIG. 9.

To measure the distance AB, to one of whose extremities we have access, by the help of four staves.

LET there be a staff fixed at the Point A, then going back at some sensible distance in the same right Line; let another be fixed in C, (so as that both the points A and B be cover'd and hid by the Staff C.) Likewise going off in a perpendicular from the right line CB at the point A, (the method of doing which shall be shown in the following *Scholium*) let there be placed another Staff at H; and in the right line CKG (perpendicular to the same CB at the point C,) and at the point of it K, such that the points K, H and B may be in the same right line, let there be fixed a fourth staff. Let there be drawn; or let there be supposed

D

to

to be drawn a light line HG parallel to CA . The triangles KHG , HAB will be equiangular; for the angles HAB , KGH are right angles. Also by 29th 1. *Eucl.* the angles ABH , KHG are equal, wherefore by the 4th 6. *Eucl.* as KG (the excess of CK above AH) to GH or to CA ; the distance betwixt the first and second staff, so is AH the distance betwixt the first and third staff to AB the distance sought.

S C H O L I U M. FIG. 10.

To draw on a plain a right line AE perpendicular to CH , from a given point A , take the right lines AB AD , on each side equal, and in the points B and D , let there be fixed stakes, to which let there be tied two equal ropes BE DE (or one having a mark in the middle) and holding in your hand their extremities joined, (or the mark in the middle, if it

is

FIG. 3.

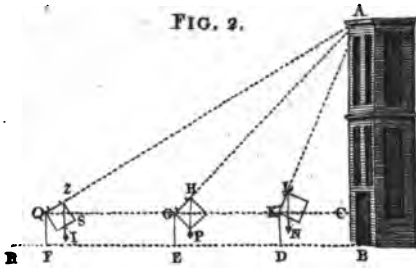


FIG. 4.

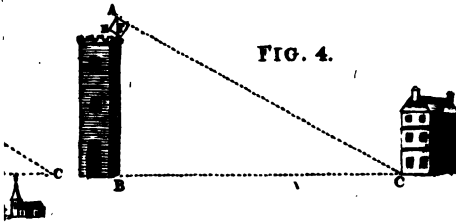


FIG. 6.

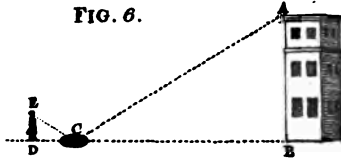


FIG. 8.

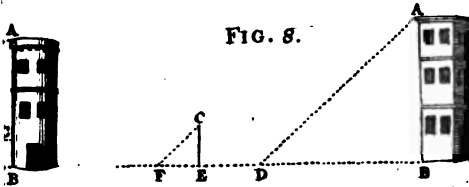
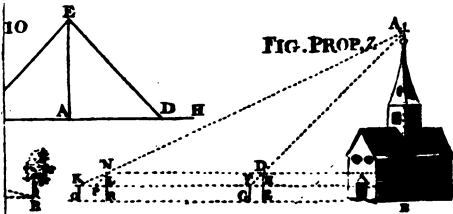


FIG. PROP. 2.





is but one) draw out the ropes on the ground; and then, where the two ropes meet, or at the mark, when by it the rope is fully stretched, let there be placed a third stake at E, the right line AE will be perpendicular to CH in the point A, by 11th 1. *Eucl.* In a manner not unlike to this may any problems that are resolved by the square and compasses, be done by ropes and a cord turned round as a radius.

PROPOSITION 9. FIG. 11.

To measure the distance AB, one of whose extremities is accessible.

FROM the point A, let the right line AC of a known length be made perpendicular to AB (by the preceding Scholium,) likewise draw the right line CD perpendicular to CB meeting the right line AB in D, then by the 8th 6. *Eucl.* as DA :

D 2

AC

AC :: AC : AB; wherefore when DA and AC are given, AB will be found by the rule of three, Q. E. F.

S C H O L I U M.

All the preceeding operations depend on the equality of some angles of triangles, and on the similarity of the triangles arising from that equality. And on the same principles depend innumerable other operations which a Geometrician will find out of himself, as is very obvious. However, some of these operations require such exactness in the work, and without it are so liable to errors, that, *ceteris paribus*, the following operations which are performed by a trigonometrical calculation, are to be preferred. Yet could we not omit those above, being most easy in practice, and most clear and evident to those who have only the first elements of Geometry. But if
you

you are provided with instruments, the following operations are more to be relied upon. We do not insist on the easiest cases to those who are skilled in plain Trigonometry, which is indeed necessary to any one who would apply himself to practice. It will be easy to the reader to find examples, and we have shown in plain Trigonometry how to find the angle or side of any plain triangle that is required, from the angles or sides that may be given.

PROPOSITION X. FIG. 12.

To describe the construction and use of the geometrical quadrant.

THE geometrical quadrant is the fourth part of a circle, divided into ninety degrees, to which two sights are adapted, with a perpendicular or plumb-line hanging from the center. The general use of it is for
in-

investigating angles in a vertical plain, comprehended under right lines going from the center of the instrument, one of which is horizontal, and the other is directed to some visible point. This instrument is made of any solid matter, as wood, copper, &c.

PROPOSITION XI. FIG. 13.

To describe the make and use of the graphometer.

THE graphometer is a semicircle made of any hard matter, of wood, for example, or brass, divided into 180 degrees; so fixed on a *fulcrum*, by means of a brass ball and socket, that it easily turns about and retains any situation; two sights are fixed on its diameter. At the center there is commonly a magnetical needle in a box. There is likewise a moveable ruler, which turns round
the

the center, and retains any situation given it. The use of it is to observe any angle, whose vertex is at the center of the instrument in any plain, (though it is most commonly horizontal, or nearly so) and to find how many degrees it contains.

P R O P O S I T I O N XII.

FIG. 14. and 15.

To describe the manner in which angles are measured by a quadrant or graphometer.

LET there be an angle in a vertical plain, comprehended between a line parallel to the horizon HK, and the right line RA, coming from any remarkable point of a tower or hill, or from the sun, moon or a star. Suppose that this angle RAH is to be measured by the quadrant: let the instrument be placed
in

in the vertical plain, so as that the center A may be in the angular point and let the sights be directed towards the object at R, (by the help of the ray coming from it, if it be the sun or moon, or by the help of the visual ray, if it is any thing else,) the degrees and minutes in the arch BC, cut off by the perpendicular, will measure the angle RAH required. For from the make of the quadrant, BAD is a right angle; therefore BAR is likewise right, being equal to it. But because HK is horizontal, and AC perpendicular, HAC will be a right angle; and therefore equal also to BAR. From those angles subtract the part HAB that is common to both; and there will remain the angle BAC equal to the angle RAH. But the arch BC is the measure of the angle BAC; consequently it is likewise the measure of the angle RAH.

Note,

Note, That the remaining arch on the quadrant DC is the measure of the angle RAZ, comprehended between the foresaid right line RA and AZ, which points to the Zenith.

Let it now be required to measure the angle ACB (Fig. 15.) in any plain, comprehended between the right lines AC and BC drawn from two points A and B, to the place of station C. Let the graphometer be placed at C, supported by its *fulcrum* (as was shown above) and let the immovable sights on the side of the instrument DE be directed towards the point A, and likewise (while the instrument remains immovable) let the sights of the ruler FG (which is moveable about the center C) be directed to the point B. It is evident that the moveable ruler cuts off an arch DH, which is the measure of the angle ACB sought. Moreover, by the same method, the inclination of DE, or of FG may be observed

E ved

ved with the meridian line, which is pointed out by the magnetick needle inclosed in the box, and is moveable about the center of the instrument, and the measure of this inclination or angle found in degrees.

PROPOSITION XIII. FIG. 16.

To measure an accessible height by the geometrical quadrant.

BY the 12th PROP. of this part, let the angle C be found by means of the quadrant. Then in the triangle ABC, right angled at B (BC being supposed the horizontal distance of the observator from the tower) having the angle at C, and the side BC, the required height BA will be found by the third case of plain Trigonometry.

PROPO-

PROPOSITION XIV. FIG. 17.

To measure an inaccessible height by the geometrical quadrant.

LET the angle ACB be observed with the quadrant (by the 12th prop. of this part) then let the observer go from C to the second station D, in the right line BCD (providing BCD be a horizontal plain) and after measuring this distance CD, take the angle ADC likewise with the quadrant. Then in the triangle ACD, there is given the angle ADC, with the angle ACD, because ACB was given before: therefore (by 32d 1. *Eucl.*) the remaining angle CAD is given likewise. But the Side CD is likewise given, being the distance of the stations C and D; therefore (by the first case of oblique angled triangles in Trigonometry) the side AC will be found. Wherefore in

the right angled triangle ABC, all the angles and the hypotenuse AC are given; consequently, by the 4th case of Trigonometry, the height sought AB will be found; as also (if you please) the distance of the station C from AB the perpendicular within the hill or inaccessible height.

PROPOSITION XV. FIG. 18.

From the top of a given height, to measure the distance B C.

LET the angle BAC be observed by the 12th of this part; wherefore in the triangle ABC right-angled at B, there is given by observation the angle at A; whence (by the 32d 1. *Eucl.*) there will also be given the angle BCA; moreover the side AB (being the height of the tower) is supposed to be given. Wherefore
by

by the 3d case of Trigonometry BC
the distance sought will be found.

PROPOSITION XVI. FIG. 19.

*To measure the distance of two places
A and B, of which one is accessible,
by the graphometer.*

LET there be erected at two points
A and C, sufficiently distant, two
visible signs ; then (by the 12th of
this) let the two angles BAC, BCA be
taken by the graphometer. Let the
distance of the stations A and C be
measured with a chain. Then the
third angle B being known, and the
side AC being likewise known ; there-
fore by the first case of Trigonometry
the distance required AB will be
found,

PRO-

PROPOSITION XVII. FIG. 20.

To measure, by the graphometer, the distance of two places, neither of which is accessible.

LET two stations C and D be chosen, from each of which the places may be seen, whose distance is sought; let the angles ACD, ACB, BCD, and likewise the angles BDC, BDA, CDA, be measured by the graphometer, the distance of the stations C and D be measured by a chain, or (if it be necessary) by the preceding practice. Now in the triangle ACD, there are given two angles ACD and ADC; therefore the third CAD is likewise given. Moreover the side CD is given; therefore, by the first case of Trigonometry the side AD will be found; after the same manner in the triangle BCD from all the angles, and one side

side CD given, the side BD is found. Wherefore in the triangle ADB, from the given sides DA and DB, and the angle ADB contained by them, the side AB (the distance sought) is found by the 4th case of Trigonometry of oblique angled triangles.

Let it be noted, that it is not necessary that the points A, B, C, and D be in one plain, and that any triangle is in one plain, by 2d prop. 11th of *Eucl.*

PROPOSITION XVIII. FIG. 21.

It is required by the graphometer and quadrant to measure an inaccessible height AB, placed so on a steep, that one can neither go near it in an horizontal plain, nor recede from it, as we supposed in the solution of the 14th prop.

LET there be chosen any situation as C, and another D, where let
some

some mark be erected ; let the angles ACD and ADC be found by the graphometer, then the third angle DAC will be known. Let the side CD , the distance of the stations, be measured with a chain, and thence (by Trigon.) the side AC will be found. Again in the triangle ACB , right angled at B , having found by the quadrant the angle ACB , the other angle CAB is known likewise ; but the side AC in the triangle ADC is already known ; therefore the height required AB will be found by the 4th case of right angled triangles. If the height of the tower is wanted, the angle BCF will be found by the quadrant, which being taken from the angle ACB already known, the angle ACF will remain ; but the angle FAC was known before ; therefore the remaining angle AFC will be known ; but the side AC was also known before ; therefore, in the triangle AFC , all the angles, and one

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of the sides AC being known, the height of the tower above hill will be found by Trigonometry.

S C H O L I U M.

It were easy to add many other methods of measuring heights, and distances; but if what is above be understood, it will be easy (especially one that is vers'd in the elements) to contrive methods for this purpose, according to the occasion: so that there is no need of adding any more of this sort. We shall subjoin here a method by which the diameter of the earth may be found out.

F

PRO-

PROPOSITION XIX. FIG.

*To find the diameter of the earth
one observation.*

LET there be chosen a high hill
AB, near the sea-shore, and
let the observator on the top of
it with an exact quadrant divided
with an exact quadrant divided in
minutes and seconds by transverse
divisions, and fitted with a telescope
in place of the common sights, mea-
sure the angle ABE contained under
the right line AB, which goes to the
center, and the right line BE drawn
to the sea, a tangent to the globe at E,
there be drawn from A perpendicular
to BD, the line AF meeting BE in F.
Now in the right angled triangle BAF
all the angles are given, also the side
AB, the height of the hill, which is to
be found by some of the foregoing
methods, as exactly as possible; and, by
Trigonometry, the sides BF and AF
are

are found. But by corol. 36. 3d *Eucl.* AF is equal to FE; therefore BE will be known. Moreover, by 36th 3d *Eucl.* the rectangle under BA and BD is equal to the square of BE. And thence by 17th 6. *Eucl.* as AB : BE :: BE : BD. Therefore, since AB and BE are already given, BD will be found by 11th 6. *Eucl.* or by the rule of three, and subtracting BA, there will remain AD the diameter of the earth sought.

S C H O L I U M.

Many other methods might be proposed for measuring the diameter of the earth. The most exact in my opinion is that proposed by Mr. *Picart*, of the academy of sciences at *Paris*; but since it does not belong to this place, we refer you to the philosophical transactions, where you will find it described.

“ According to Mr. *Picart*, a de-

“ gree of the meridian at the lati-
 “ tude of $49^{\circ} 21'$ was 57060 *French*
 “ *Toises*, each of which contains six
 “ feet of the same measure; from
 “ which it follows, that if the earth
 “ be an exact sphere, the circumfe-
 “ rence of a great circle of it will
 “ be 123,249,600 *Paris* feet, and
 “ the semidiameter of the earth
 “ 19,615,800 feet: but the *French*
 “ Mathematicians who have exami-
 “ ned Mr. *Picart's* operations of
 “ late assure us, That the degree
 “ in that latitude is 57,183 *Toises*.
 “ They measured a degree in *Lap-*
 “ *land*, in the latitude of $66^{\circ} 20'$
 “ and found it of 57,438 *Toises*.
 “ By comparing these degrees, as
 “ well as by the observations on
 “ pendulums, and the theory of
 “ gravity; it appears that the
 “ earth is an oblate spheroid; and
 “ (supposing those degrees to be
 “ accurately measured) the axis or
 “ diameter that passes through the
 “ poles

“ poles will be to the diameter of the
“ equator as 177 to 178, or, the
“ the earth will be 22 miles high-
“ er at the equator than at the poles.
“ A degree has likewise been mea-
“ sured at the equator, and found to
“ be considerably less than at the
“ latitude of *Paris*; which confirms
“ the oblate figure of the earth;
“ but an account of this last men-
“ suration has not been published as
“ yet. If the earth was of an u-
“ niform density from the surface
“ to the center, then, according to
“ the theory of gravity, the meridi-
“ an would be an exact ellipsis,
“ and the axis would be to the di-
“ ameter of the equator as 230 to
“ 231; and the difference of the
“ semidiameter of the equator and
“ semi-axis about 17 miles.

In what follows, a figure is often
to be laid down on paper, like to
another figure given; and because
this likeness consists in the equality
of

of their angles, and in the sides having the same proportion to each other (by the definitions of the 6th of *Eucl.*) we are now to show what methods practical Geometricians use for making on paper an angle equal to a given angle, and how they constitute the sides in the same proportion. For this purpose they make use of a protractor, (or, when it is wanting, a line of chords) and of a line of equal parts.

PROPOSITION XX.

FIG. 23, 24, 25, 26, and 27.

To describe the construction and use of the protractor, of the line of chords, and of the line of equal parts.

THE protractor is a small semi-circle of brass, or such solid matter. The semi-circumference is divided into 180 degrees. The
use

use of it is to draw angles on any plain, as on paper, or to examine the extent of angles already laid down. For this last purpose, let the small point in the center of the protractor be placed above the angular point, and let the side AB coincide with one of the sides that contain the angle proposed; the number of degrees cut off by the other side, computing on the protractor from B, will show the quantity of the angle that is to be measured.

But if an angle is to be made of a given quantity on a given line, and at a given point of that line, let AB coincide with the given line, and let the center A of the instrument be applied to that point. Then let there be a mark made at the given number of degrees; and a right line drawn from that mark to the given point will constitute an angle, with the given right line of
the

the quantity required; as is manifest.

This is the most natural and easy method, either for examining the extent of an angle on paper, or for describing on paper an angle of a given quantity.

But when there is scarcity of instruments, or because a line of chords is more easily carried about, (being described on a ruler on which there are many other lines besides) practical Geometricians frequently make use of it. It is made thus: let the quadrant of a circle be divided into 90 degrees; as in fig. 24. the right line AB is the chord of 90 degrees; the chord of every arch of the quadrant is transferred to this line AB, which is always marked with the number of degrees in the corresponding arch.

Note, That the chord of 60 degrees is equal to the radius, by corol. 15. 4th *Eucl.* If now a given angle
EDF

EDF is to be measured by the line of chords; from the center D, with the distance DG (the chord of 60 degrees,) describe the arch GH, and let the points G and H be marked where this arch intersects the sides of the angle. Then if their distance GH, applied on the line of chords from A to B, gives (for example) 25 degrees, this shall be the measure of the angle proposed.

When an obtuse angle is to be measured with this line, let its complement to a semicircle be measured; and thence it will be known. It were easy to transfer to the diameter of a circle the chords of all arches to the extent of a semicircle, but such are rarely found marked upon rules.

But now if an angle of a given quantity, suppose of 50 degrees, is to be made at a given point M of the right line KL (fig. 26.) From the center M, and the distance MN equal to the chord of 60 degrees, describe

G

scribe

scribe the arch QN. Take off an arch NR, whose chord is equal to that of 50 degrees on the line of chords; join the points M and R, and it is plain that MR shall contain an angle of 50 degrees with the line KL proposed.

But sometimes we cannot produce the sides, till they be of the length of a chord of 60 degrees on our scale; in which case it is fit to work by a circle of proportions (that is a sector) by which an arch may be made of a given number of degrees to any radius.

The quantities of angles are likewise determined by other lines usually marked upon rules, as the lines of sines, tangents and secants; but as these methods are not so easy or so proper in this place, we omit them.

To delineate figures similar or like to others given, besides the equality of the angles, the same proportion
is

is to be preserved among the sides of the figure that is to be delineated, as is among the sides of the figure given. For which purpose, on the rules used by artists, there is a line divided into equal parts, more or less in number, and greater or lesser in quantity, according to the pleasure of the maker.

A Foot is divided into inches, and an inch, by means of transverse lines, into 100 equal parts; so that with this scale, any number of inches below twelve, with any part of an inch, can be taken by the compasses, providing such part be greater than one 100th part of an inch. And this exactness is very necessary in delineating the plans of houses, and in other cases.

PROPOSITION XXI. FIG. 28.

To lay down on paper, by the protractor, or line of chords, and line of equal parts, a right lined figure like to one given, providing the angles and sides of the figure given be known by observation or mensuration.

FOR example, suppose that it is known that in a quadrangular figure, one side is of 235 feet, that the angle contained by it and the second side is of 84° , the second side of 288 feet, the angle contained by it and the third side of 72° , and that the third side is 294 feet. These things being given, a figure is to be drawn on paper like to this quadrangular figure. On your paper at a proper point A let a right line be drawn, upon which take 235 equal parts, as AB. The part represent-

ing

ing a foot is taken greater or lesser, according as you would have your figure greater or less. In the adjoining figure, the 100th part of an inch is taken for a foot. And accordingly an inch divided into 100 parts, and annexed to the figure is called a scale of 100 feet. Let there be made at the point B, (by the preceding prop.) an angle ABC of 84° , and let BC be taken of 288 parts like to the former. Then let the angle BCD be made of 72° , and the side CD of 294 equal parts. Then let the side AD be drawn; and it will compleat the figure like to the figure given. The measures of the angles A and D can be known by the protractor or line of chords, and the side AD by the line of equal parts; which will exactly answer to the corresponding angles and to the side of the primary figure.

After the very same manner, from the sides and angles given, which bound

bound any right lined figure, a figure like to it may be drawn, and the rest of its sides and angles be known.

C O R O L L A R Y.

Hence any trigonometrical problem in right lined triangles, may be resolved by delineating the triangle from what is given concerning it, as in this proposition. The unknown sides are examined by a line of equal parts, and the angles by a protractor or line of chords,

PROPOSITION XXII. PROB.

The diameter of a circle being given, to find its circumference nearly.

THE periphery of any polygon inscribed in the circle is less than the circumference, and the periphery of any polygon described about a circle is greater than the circumference.

circumference. Whence *Archimedes* first discovered that the diameter was in proportion to the circumference, as 7 to 22 nearly; which serves for common use. But the moderns have computed the proportion of the diameter to the circumference to greater exactness. Supposing the diameter 100, the periphery will be more than 314, but less than 315*. But *Ludolphus van Ceulen* exceeded the labours of all; for, by immense study he found, that supposing the diameter

100,000,000,000,000,000,000,000,000,000

the periphery will be less than

314,159,265,358,979,323,846,264,338,327,951,

but greater than

314,159,265,358,979,323,846,264,338,327,950

whence it will be easy, any part of the circumference being given in degrees

* The diameter is more nearly to the circumference, as 113 to 355.

degrees and minutes, to assign it in parts of the diameter.

Of surveying and measuring of land.

Hitherto we have treated of the measuring of angles and sides, whence it is abundantly easy to lay down a field, a plain, or an entire country: for to this nothing is requisite but the protraction of triangles, and of other plain figures, after having measured their sides and angles: but as this is esteemed an important part of practical Geometry, we shall subjoin here an account of it, with all possible brevity, suggesting withall, that a surveyor will improve himself more by one day's practice, than by a great deal of reading.

PROPO-

PROPOSITION XXIII. PROB.

To explain what surveying is, and what instruments surveyors use.

First, it is necessary that the surveyor view the field that is to be measured, and investigate its sides and angles, by means of an iron chain (having a particular mark at each foot of length, or at any number of feet as may be most convenient for reducing lines or surfaces to the received measures*) and the graphometer described above. Secondly, It is necessary to delineate the field *in plano*, or to form a map of it; that is, to lay down on paper a figure similar to the field, which is done by the protractor, (or line of chords) and of the line of equal parts

* See above p. 5. the account of Gunter's chain, and of the chain that is most convenient for measuring land in Scotland.

parts. *Thirdly*, It is necessary to find out the area of the field so surveyed and represented by a map. Of this last we are to treat below in the second part.

The sides and angles of small fields are surveyed by the help of a plain table, which is generally of an oblong rectangular figure, and supported by a *fulcrum*, so as to turn every way by means of a ball and socket. It has a moveable frame, which surrounds the board, and serves to keep a clean paper put on the board close and tight to it. The sides of the frame facing the paper are divided into equal parts every way. The board hath besides, a box with a magnetick needle, and moreover a large index with two sights. On the edge of the frame of the board are marked degrees and minutes, so as to supply the room of a graphometer.

PROPOSITION XXIV.

PROB. FIG. 29.

To delineate a field by the help of a plain table, from one station whence all its angles may be seen, and their distances measured by a chain.

LET the field that is to be laid down be ABCDE. At any convenient place F, let the plain table be erected, cover it with clean paper, in which let some point near the middle represent the station. Then applying at this place the index with the sights, direct it so as that through the sights some mark may be seen at one of the angles, suppose A, and from the point F, representing the station, draw a faint right line along the side of the index, then, by the help of the chain, let FA the distance of the station from

the foresaid angle be measured. Then taking what part you think convenient for a foot or pace from the line of equal parts, set off on the faint line the parts corresponding to the line FA that was measured, and let there be a mark made representing the angle of the field, A. Keeping the table immoveable, the same is to be done with the rest of the angles; then right lines joining those marks shall include a figure like to the field, as is evident from 5th 6. *Eucl.*

C O R O L L A R Y.

The same thing is done in like manner by the graphometer; for having observed in each of the triangles, AFB, BFC, CFD, &c. the angle at the station F, and having measured the lines from the station to the angles of the field, let similar triangles be protracted on paper (by the

the 21. of this) having their common vertex in the point of station. All the lines, excepting those which represent the sides of the field, are to be drawn faint or obscure.

Note 1. When a surveyor wants to lay down a field, let him place distinctly in a register all the observations of the angles, and the measures of the sides, until at time and place convenient, he draw out the figure on paper.

Note 2. The observations made by the help of the graphometer are to be examined; for all the angles about the point F ought to be equal to four right ones by 13th 1. *Eucl.*

PRO-

PROPOSITION XXV.

PROB. FIG. 30.

To lay down a field by means of two stations, from each of which all the angles can be seen, by measuring only the distance of the stations.

LET the instrument be placed at the station F; and having chosen a point representing it upon the paper which is laid upon the plain table, let the index be applied at this point, so as to be moveable about it. Then let it be directed successively to the several angles of the field; and when any angle is seen through the sights, draw an obscure line along the side of the index. Let the index, with the sights, be directed after the same manner to the station G; on the obscure line drawn along its side, pointing to A, set off from the
the

the scale of equal parts a line corresponding to the measured distance of the stations, and this will determine the point G. Then remove the instrument to the station G, and applying the index to the line representing the distance of the stations, place the instrument so that the first station may be seen through the sights. Then the instrument remaining immoveable, let the index be applied at the point representing the second station G, and be successively directed by means of its sights, to all the angles of the field, drawing (as before) obscure lines; and the intersection of the two obscure lines that were drawn to the same angle from the two stations will always represent that angle on the plan. Care must be taken that those lines be not mistaken for one another. Lines joining those intersections will form a figure on the paper like to the field.

SCHO-

S C H O L I U M.

It will not be difficult to do the same by the graphometer, if you keep a distinct account of your observations of the angles made by the line joining the stations and the lines drawn from the stations to the respective angles of the field. And this is the most common manner of laying down whole countries. The tops of two mountains are taken for two stations; and their distance is either measured by some of the methods mentioned above, or is taken according to common repute. The sights are successively directed towards cities, churches, villages, forts, lakes, turnings of rivers, woods; &c.

Note. The distance of the stations ought to be great enough, with respect to the field that is to be measured, such ought to be chosen as are
not

not in a line with any angle of the field. And care ought to be taken likewise that the angles, for example FAG, FDG, &c. be neither very acute, nor very obtuse. Such angles are to be avoided as much as possible; and this admonition is found very useful in practice.

PROPOSITION XXVI.

PROB. FIG. 31.

To lay down any field, however irregular its figure may be, by the help of the graphometer.

LET ABCEDHG be such a field. Let its angles (in going round it) be observed with a graphometer (by the 12th of this) and noted down; let its sides be measured with a chain, and, (by what was said on the 21st of this) let a figure like to the given field be protracted on
I paper.

paper. If any mountain is in the circumference, the horizontal line hid under it is to be taken for a side, which may be found by two or three observations, according to some of the methods described above; and its place on the map is to be distinguished by a shade, that it may be known a mountain is there.

If not only the circumference of the field is to be laid down in the plan, but also its contents, as villages, gardens, churches, publick roads, we must proceed in this manner.

Let there be (for example) a church F, to be laid down on the plan. Let the angles ABF, BAF be observed and protracted on paper in their proper places, the intersection of the two sides BF and AF will give the place of the church on the paper; or more exactly, the lines BF, AF being measured, let circles be described from the centers B and A, with parts from the scale correspond-
ing

ing to the distances BF and AF, and the place of the church will be at their intersection.

Note 1. While the angles observed by the graphometer are taken down, you must be careful to distinguish the external angles as E and G, that they may be rightly protracted afterwards on paper.

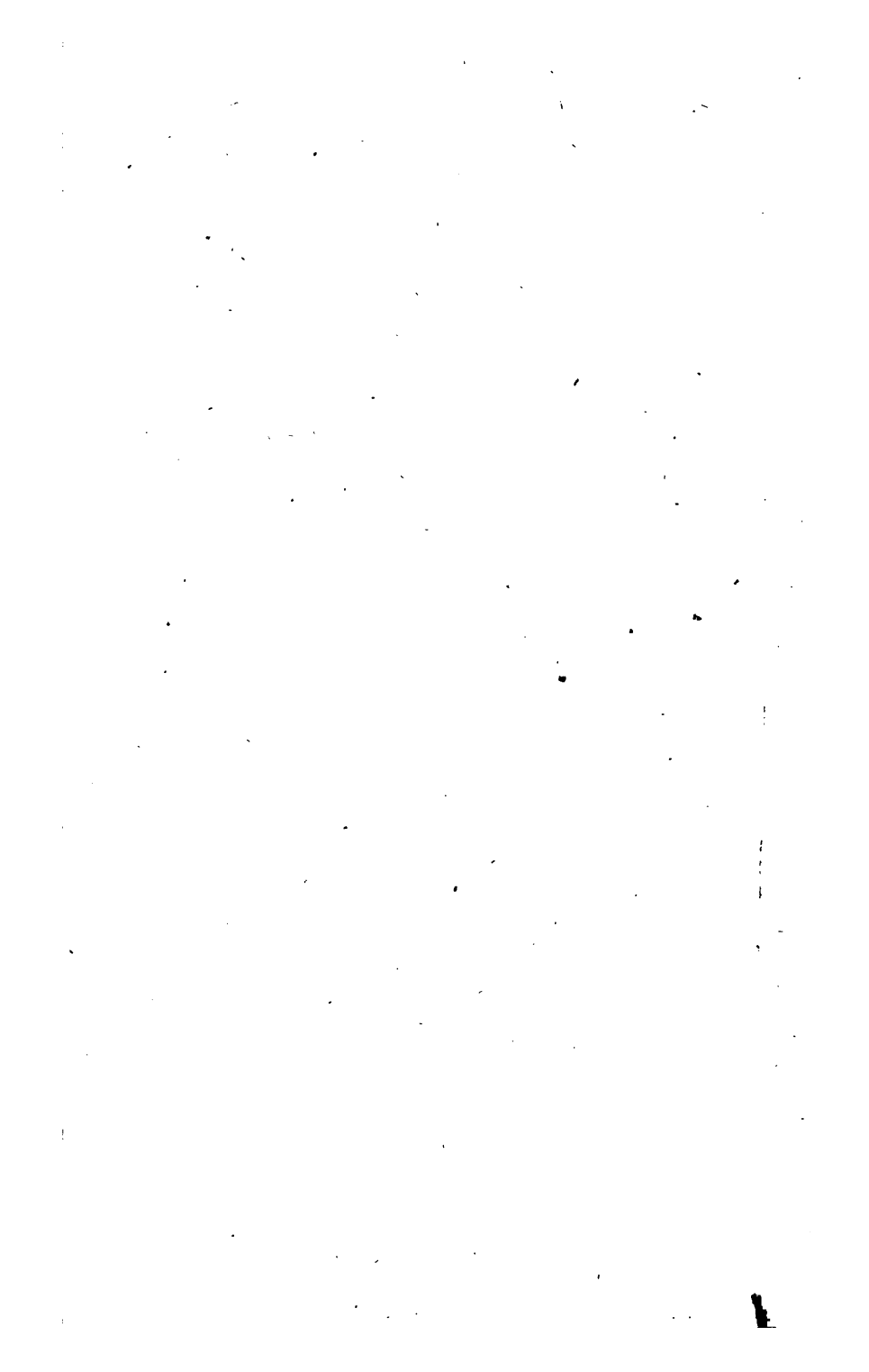
Note 2. Our observations of the angles may be examined by computing if all the internal angles make twice as many right angles, four excepted, as there are sides of the figure: for this is demonstrated by 32d 1. *Eucl.* But in place of any external angle DEC, its compliment to a circle is to be taken.

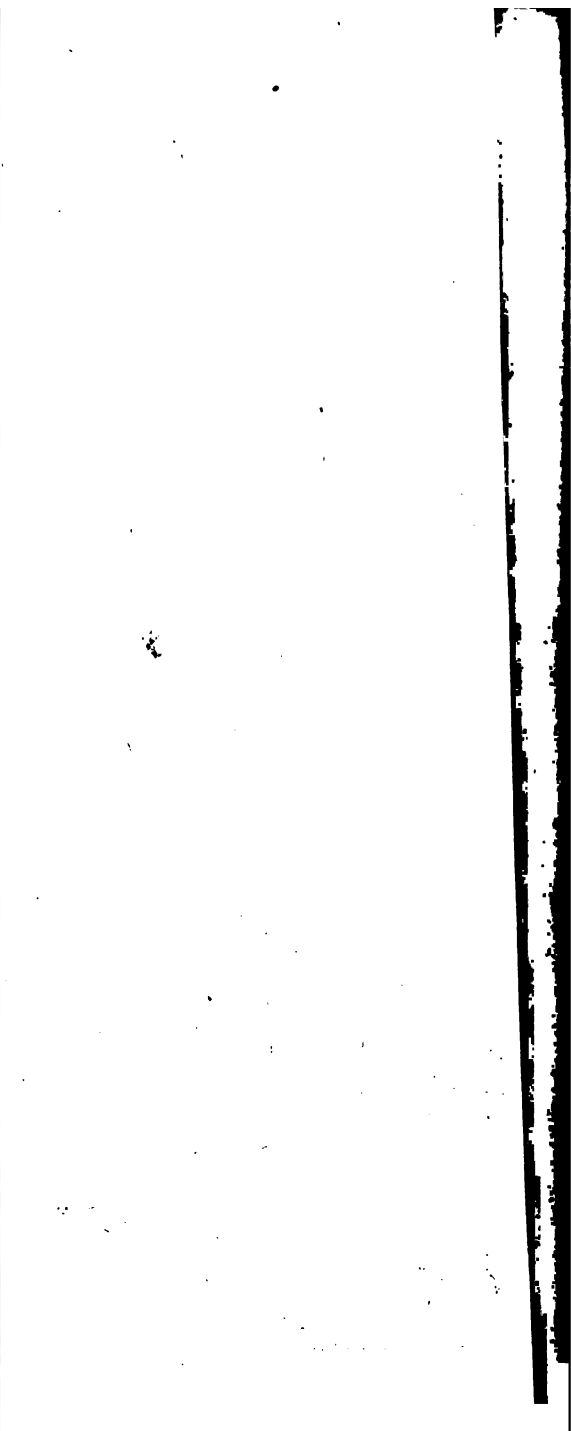
PROPOSITION XXVII.

PROB. FIG. 32.

To lay down a plain field without instruments.

IF a small field is to be measured, and a map of it to be made, and you are not provided with instruments; let it be supposed to be divided into triangles, by right lines, as in the figure, and after measuring the three sides of any of the triangles, for example of ABC, let its sides be laid down from a convenient scale on paper, by the 22d. of this. Again, let the other two sides BD, CD of the triangle CBD be measured and protracted on the paper by the same scale as before. In the same manner proceed with the rest of the triangles of which the field is composed, and the map of the field will be
per-





erected; for the three sides of a triangle determine the triangle; hence each triangle on the paper similar to its correspondent triangle in the field, and is similarly situated; consequently the whole figure is like to the whole field.

S C H O L I U M.

If the field be small, and all its angles may be seen from one station, it may be very well laid down by the plain table by the 24th of this. If the field be larger, and have the requisite conditions, and great exactness not expected, it likewise may be plotted by means of the plain table, or by the graphometer, according to the 25th of this; but in fields that are irregular and mountainous, when an exact map is required we are to make use of the graphometer, as in the 26th of this, but rarely of the plain table.

Having

Having protracted the bounding lines, the particular parts contained within them may be laid down by the proper operations for this purpose, delivered in the 26th proposition; and the method described in the 27th proposition may be sometimes of service; for we may trust more to the measuring of sides than to the observing of angles. We are not to compute four-sided and many-sided figures till they are resolved into triangles, for the sides do not determine those figures.

In the laying down of cities, or the like, we may make use of any of the methods described above that may be most convenient.

The map being finished, it is transferred on clean paper by putting the first sketch above it, and marking the angles by the point of a small needle. These points being joined by right lines, and the whole illuminated by colours proper to each part,

part, and the figure of the Mariner's compass being added to distinguish the North and South, with a scale on the margin, the map or plan will be finished and neat.

We have thus briefly and plainly treated of Surveying, and shown by what instruments it is performed, having avoided those methods which depend on the magnetick needle, not only because its direction may vary in different places of a field (the contrary of this at least doth not appear) but because the quantity of an angle observed by it cannot be exactly known; for an error of two or three degrees can scarcely be avoided in taking angles by it. As for the remaining part of surveying, whereby the area of a field already laid down on paper is found in acres, roods, or any other superficial measures; this we leave to the following part, which treats of the mensuration of surfaces.

‘ Besides the instruments descri-
‘ bed above, a Surveyor ought to be
‘ provided with an off-set staff, e-
‘ qual in length to ten links of the
‘ chain, and divided into ten equal
‘ parts. He ought likewise to have
‘ ten arrows, or small streight sticks
‘ near two feet long, shod with iron
‘ ferrils. When the chain is first
‘ opened, it ought to be examined
‘ by the off-set staff. In measuring
‘ any line, the leader of the chain
‘ is to have the ten arrows at first
‘ setting out. When the chain is
‘ stretcht in the line, and the near
‘ end touches the place from which
‘ you measure, the leader sticks one
‘ of the ten arrows in the ground,
‘ at the far end of the chain. Then
‘ the leader leaving the arrow, pro-
‘ ceeds with the chain another
‘ length; and the chain being
‘ stretcht in the line, so that the
‘ near end touches the first arrow,
‘ the leader sticks down another ar-
row

row at his end of the chain. The line is preserved streight, if the arrows be always set so as to be in a right line with the place you measure from and that to which you are going. In this manner they proceed till the leader have no more arrows. At the eleventh chain the arrows are to be carried to him again, and he is to stick one of them into the ground, at the end of the chain. And the same is to be done at the 21, 31, 41, &c. chains, if there are so many in the right line to be measured. In this manner you can hardly commit an error in numbring the chains, unless of ten chains at once.

The off-set staff serves for measuring readily the distances of any things proper to be represented in your plan, from the station-line while you go along. These distances ought to be entred into

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your

‘ your field-book, with the corre-
‘ sponding distances from the last sta-
‘ tion, and proper remarks, that you
‘ may be enabled to plot them just-
‘ ly, and be in no danger of mistak-
‘ ing one for another, when you
‘ extend your plan. The field-book
‘ may be conveniently divided into
‘ five pages. In the middle column
‘ the angles at the several stations
‘ taken by the Theodolite are to be
‘ entred, with the distances from
‘ the stations. The distances taken
‘ by the off-set staff, on either side
‘ of the station-line, are to be entred
‘ into columns on either side of the
‘ middle-column, according to their
‘ position with respect to that line.
‘ The names or characters of the
‘ objects, with proper remarks may
‘ be entred in columns on either
‘ side of these last.

‘ Because in the place of the gra-
‘ phometer described by our Author,
‘ surveyors now make use of the
‘ Theo-

‘ Theodolite, we shall subjoin a
‘ description of Mr. *Sisson’s* latest
‘ improved Theodolite from Mr.
‘ *Gardner’s practical Surveying im-*
‘ *proved.* See a figure of it in plate 4.

‘ In this instrument the three
‘ staves by brass ferrils at top screw
‘ into bell-metal joints, that are
‘ moveable between brass pillars fixt
‘ in a strong brass plate, in which
‘ round the center is fixt a socket
‘ with a ball moveable in it, and upon
‘ which the four screws press, that set
‘ the Limb horizontal ; next above
‘ is another such plate, thro’ which
‘ the said serews pass, and on which
‘ round the center is fixt a frustum
‘ of a cone of bell-metal, whose axis
‘ (being connected with the center
‘ of the ball) is always perpendicular
‘ to the Limb, by means of a conical
‘ brass ferril fitted to it, whereon
‘ is fixt the Compass-box, and on
‘ it the Limb, which is a strong bell-
‘ metal ring, whereon are moveable

‘ three brass indexes, in whose
 ‘ plate are fixt four brass pillars,
 ‘ that, joining at top, hold the cen-
 ‘ ter-pin of the bell-metal double
 ‘ Sextant, whole double Index is fixt
 ‘ on the center of the same plate;
 ‘ within the double Sextant is fixt
 ‘ the Spirit-Level, and over it the
 ‘ Telescope.

‘ The Compass-box is graved
 ‘ with two diamonds for *North* and
 ‘ *South*, and with 20 degrees on both
 ‘ sides of each, that the needle may
 ‘ be set to the variation, and its er-
 ‘ ror also known.

‘ The Limb has two flower-de-
 ‘ lices against the diamonds in the
 ‘ Box, instead of 180 each, and is
 ‘ curiously divided into whole de-
 ‘ grees, and number’d to the left
 ‘ hand at every ten to twice 180,
 ‘ having three Indexes distant 120,
 ‘ (with *Nonius*’s divisions on each
 ‘ for the decimals of a degree) that
 ‘ are moved by a pinion fixt below
 ‘ one

‘ one of them without moving the
‘ Limb, and in another is a screw
‘ and spring under, to fix it to any
‘ part of the Limb: it has also di-
‘ visions number’d for taking the
‘ quarter Girt in inches of round
‘ *Timber* at the middle height, when
‘ standing ten feet horizontally di-
‘ stant from its center, which at 20
‘ must be doubled, and at 30 trebled,
‘ to which a shorter index is used,
‘ having *Nonius’s* divisions for the
‘ decimals of an inch; but an abate-
‘ ment must be made for the bark,
‘ if not taken off.

‘ The double Sextant is divided
‘ on one side from under its center
‘ (when the Spirit-Tube and Tele-
‘ scope are level) to above 60 de-
‘ grees each way, and numbred at 10,
‘ 20, &c. and the double Index
‘ (through which it is moveable)
‘ shews on the same side the degree
‘ and decimal of any Altitude or De-
‘ pression to that extent by *Nonius’s*
‘ di-

‘ divisions; on the other side are
‘ divisions number’d for taking the
‘ upright height of *Timber, &c.* in
‘ feet, when distant ten feet, which
‘ at 20 must be doubled, and at 30
‘ trebled; and also the quantities
‘ for reducing hypothenuſal Lines
‘ to horizontal: it is moveable by a
‘ pinion fixt in the double index.

‘ The Telescope is a little shorter
‘ than the diameter of the Limb,
‘ that a fall may not hurt it; yet
‘ it will magnify as much, and ſhew
‘ a diſtant object as perfect, as
‘ moſt of treble its length; in its
‘ focus are very fine cross-wires,
‘ whoſe interſection is in the plane
‘ of the double Sextant, and this was
‘ a whole Circle, and turned in a
‘ Lathe to a true Plane, and is fixt
‘ at right angles to the Limb; ſo
‘ that whenever the Limb is ſet ho-
‘ rizontal (which is readily done by
‘ making the Spirit-Tube level o-
‘ ver two ſcrews, and the like over
‘ the

the other two) the double Sextant and Telescope are moveable in a vertical Plane, and then every Angle taken on the Limb (tho' the Telescope be never so much elevated or deprest) will be an Angle in the Plane of the Horizon, and this is absolutely necessary in plotting a horizontal Plane.-----

If the Lands to be plotted are hilly and not in any one Plane, the Lines measured cannot be truly laid down on paper, without being reduced to one Plane, which must be the horizontal, because Angles are taken in that Plane.

In viewing my objects, if they have much altitude or depression, I either write down the degree and decimal shewn on the double Sextant, or the links shewn on the back-side, which last subtracted from every chain in the station-line, leaves the length in the horizontal Plane; but if the degree is taken,

• taken, the following Table will
 • shew the quantity.

*A Table of the links to be subtracted
 out of every Chain in hypothenu-
 fal Lines of several degrees alti-
 tude, or depression, for reducing them
 to horizontal.*

Degrees	Links	Degrees	Links	Degrees	Links
4,05 . . .	$\frac{1}{4}$	14,07 . . .	3	23,074 . . .	8
5,73 . . .	$\frac{1}{2}$	16,26 . . .	4	24,495 . . .	9
7,02 . . .	$\frac{3}{4}$	18,195 . . .	5	25,84 . . .	10
8,11 . . .	1	19,95 . . .	6	27,13 . . .	11
11,48 . . .	2	21,565 . . .	7	28,36 . . .	12

• Let the first station-line real-
 • ly measure 1107 links, and the
 • Angle of altitude or depression be
 • $19^{\circ},93$; looking in the Table I
 • find against $19^{\circ},95$ is 6 links,
 • now 6 times 11 is 66, which sub-
 • tracted from 1107 leaves 1041,
 • the true length to be laid down in
 • the Plan.

It

‘ It is useful in surveying to take
‘ the angles which the bounding
‘ lines form with the magnetick
‘ needle ; in order to check the an-
‘ gles of the figure, and to plot
‘ them conveniently afterwards.



P A R T II.

Of the surfaces of bodies.

THE smallest superficial mea-
sure with us is a square inch,
144 of which make a square
foot. Wrights make use of these in
the measuring of deals and planks ;
but the square foot which the Glaziers
in measuring of glass, consists only
of 64 square inches. The other
measures are, *first*, the ell square ;
2dly, The fath, containing 36 square
L ells.

ells. *3dly*, The rood containing 40 falls. *4thly*, The acre containing 4 roods. Slaters, Masons and Pavers use the ell square and the fall. Surveyors of land use the square ell, the fall, the rood, and the acre.

The superficial measures of the *English*, are, *1st*, the square foot; *2dly*, the square yard, containing 9 square feet; for their yard contains only 3 feet; *3dly*, the pole, containing $30 \frac{1}{2}$ square yards; *4thly*, the rood, containing 40 poles; *5thly*, the acre, containing 4 roods. And hence it is easy to reduce our superficial measures to the *English*, or theirs to ours.

In order to find the content of a field, it is most convenient to measure the lines by the chains described above, *p.* 5. that of 22 yards for computing the *English* acres, and that of 24 *Scots* ells for the acres of *Scotland*. The chain is divided into 100 links, and the square

‘ square of the chain is 10000 square
‘ links ; ten squares of the chain, or
‘ 100000 square links give an acre.
‘ Therefore, if the area be expressed
‘ by square links, divide by 100000
‘ or cut off five decimal places, and
‘ the quotient shall give the area
‘ in acres and decimals of an acre.
‘ Write the entire acres apart, but
‘ multiply the decimals of an acre
‘ by 4, and the product shall give
‘ the remainder of the area in roods
‘ and decimals of a rood. Let the
‘ entire roods be noted apart after
‘ the acres, then multiply the deci-
‘ mals of a rood by 40, and the pro-
‘ duct shall give the remainder of
‘ the area in falls or poles. Let the
‘ entire falls or poles be then writ
‘ after the roods, and multiply the
‘ decimals of a fall by 36, if the
‘ area is required in the measures of
‘ *Scotland* ; but multiply the deci-
‘ mals of a pole by 30, if the area
‘ is required in the measures of *Eng-*

• *land*, and the product shall give
 • the remainder of the area in square
 • ells in the former case, but in
 • square yards in the latter. If, in
 • the former case, you would reduce
 • the decimals of the square ell
 • to square feet, multiply them by
 • 9.50694; but in the latter case,
 • the decimals of the *English* square
 • yard are reduced to square feet,
 • by multiplying them by 9.

• Suppose, for example, that the
 • area appears to contain 1265842
 • square links of the chain of 24
 • ells, and that this area is to be ex-
 • pressed in acres, roods, falls, &c.
 • of the measures of *Scotland*. Di-
 • vide the square links by 100000,
 • and the quotient 12.65842 shows
 • the area to contain 12 acres and
 • $\frac{65842}{100000}$ of an acre. Multiply the de-
 • cimal part by 4, and the product
 • 2.63368 gives the remainder in
 • roods and decimals of a rood.
 • Those decimals of the rood being
 mul-

multiplied by 40, the product gives 25.3472 falls. Multiply the decimals of the fall by 36, and the product gives 12.4992 square ells. The decimals of the square ell multiplied by 9.50694 give 4.7458 square feet. Therefore the area proposed amounts to 12 acres, 2 roods, 25 falls, 12 square ells, and $4 \frac{7458}{10000}$ square feet.

But if the area contains the same number of square links of *Gunter's* chain, and is to be expressed by *English* measures, the acres and roods are computed in the same manner as in the former case. The poles are computed as the falls. But the decimals of the pole, *viz.* $\frac{1472}{10000}$ are to be multiplied by $30\frac{1}{4}$ (or 30.25) and the product gives 10.5028 square yards. The decimals of the square yard multiplied by 9, give 4.5252 square feet: therefore in this case the area is in *English* measure 12 acres,

‘ 2 roods, 25 poles, 10 square yards,
 ‘ and $4 \frac{1212}{10000}$ square feet.

‘ The *Scots* acre is to the *English*
 ‘ acre by statute as 100000 to 78694,
 ‘ if we have regard to the difference
 ‘ betwixt the *Scots* and *English* foot
 ‘ above mentioned. But it is custo-
 ‘ mary in some parts of *England* to
 ‘ have 18, 21, &c. feet to a pole,
 ‘ and 160 such poles to an acre;
 ‘ whereas, by the statute, $16 \frac{1}{2}$ feet
 ‘ make a pole. In such cases the
 ‘ acre is greater in the duplicate
 ‘ ratio of the number of feet to a
 ‘ pole.

‘ They who measure land in *Scot-*
 ‘ *land* by an ell of 37 *English* inches,
 ‘ make the acre less than the true
 ‘ *Scots* acre by $593 \frac{1}{10}$ square *English*
 ‘ feet, or by about $\frac{1}{37}$ of the acre.

‘ An husband-land contains 6 acres
 ‘ of sock and sythe land, that is, of
 ‘ land that may be tilled with a
 ‘ plough, and mowen with a sythe;
 ‘ 13 acres of arable land make an ox-
 ‘ gang

gang of oxengate; four oxengate make a pound land of old extent (by a decree of the Exchequer, March 11. 1585) and is called *librata terra*. A forty shilling land of old extent contains eight oxgang, or 104 acres.

The *arpent* about *Paris* contains 32400 square *Paris* feet, and is equal to $2\frac{4}{7}$ Scots roods or $3\frac{17}{28}$ English roods.

The *actus quadratus*, according to *Varro*, *Columella*, &c. was a square of 120 Roman feet. The *Jugerum* was the double of this. 'Tis to the Scots acre as 10000 to 20456, and to the English acre as 10000 to 16097. It was divided (like the *As*) into 12 *uncias*, and the *uncia* into 24 *scrupula*. This with the three preceding paragraphs are taken from an ingenious manuscript written by Sir Robert Stewart Professor of Natural Philosophy. The greatest part of the table
in

in p. 6. was taken from it likewise.

P R O P O S I T I O N I.

PROBLEM FIG. I.

To find the area of a rectangular parallelogram ABCD.

LET the side AB, for example, be five feet long, and BC (which constitutes with BC a right angle at B) be 17 feet. Let 17 be multiplied by 5, and the product 85 will be the number of square feet in the Area of the figure ABCD. But if the parallelogram proposed is not rectangular as BEFC, its base BC multiplied into its perpendicular height AB (not into its side BE) will give its area. This is evident from 35th 1. *Encl.*

PRO-

P R O P O S I T I O N II.

P R O B. FIG. 2.

To find the area of a given triangle.

LET the triangle BAC be given, whose base BC is supposed 9 feet long, let the perpendicular AD be drawn from the angle A opposite to the base, and let us suppose AD to be 4 feet. Let the half of the perpendicular be multiplied into the base, or the half of the base into the perpendicular, or take the half of the product of the whole base into the perpendicular, the product gives 18 square feet for the area of the given triangle.

But if only the sides are given, the perpendicular is found either by protracting the triangle or by 11. and 13. 2d *Eucl.* or by trigonometry; but how the area of a triangle may

M

be

be found from the given sides only shall be shown in the 4th Prop. of this part.

PROPOSITION III.

PROB. FIG. 3.

To find the area of any rectilineal figure.

IF the figure be irregular, let it be resolved into triangles; and drawing perpendiculars to the bases in each of them, let the area of each triangle be found by the preceding Prop. and the sum of these areas will give the area of the figure.

SCHOLIUM I.

In measuring boards, planks and glass, their sides are to be measured by a foot rule divided into 100 equal parts; and after multiplying the sides,
the

the decimal fractions are easily reduced to lesser denominations. The mensuration of these is easy, when they are rectangular parallelograms.

S C H O L I U M. 2.

If a field is to be measured, let it first be plotted on paper by some of the methods described in the preceding part, and let the figure so laid down be divided into triangles, as was shown in the preceding proposition.

The base of any triangle, or the perpendicular upon the base, or the distance of any two points of the field is measured, by applying it to the scale according to which the map is drawn.

S C H O L I U M 3.

But if the field given be not in a horizontal plain, but uneven and

mountainous, the scale gives the horizontal line between any two points, but not their distance measured on the uneven surface of the field. And indeed it would appear that the horizontal plain is to be accounted the area of an uneven and hilly country. For if such ground is laid out for building on, or for planting with trees or bearing corn, since these stand perpendicular to the horizon, it is plain that a mountainous country cannot be considered as of greater extent for those uses than the horizontal plain; nay, perhaps, for nourishing of plants, the horizontal plain may be preferable.

If however the area of a figure as it lies irregularly on the surface of the earth, is to be measured, this may be easily done by resolving it into triangles as it lyes. The sum of their areas will be the area sought, which exceeds the area of the horizontal figure more or less according as the field is more or less uneven. PRO.

P R O P O S I T I O N IV.

P R O B. FIG. 2.

The sides of a triangle being given, to find the area, without finding the perpendicular.

LET all the sides of the triangle be collected into one sum, from the half of which let the sides be separately subtracted, that three differences may be found betwixt the foresaid half sum and each side; then let these three differences, and the half sum be multiplied into one another, and the square-root of the product will give the area of the triangle. For example, let the sides be 10, 17, 21, the half of their sum is 24, the three differences betwixt this half sum and the three sides, are 14, 7 and 3. The first being multiplied by the second, and their product by the third, we

we have 294 for the product of the differences, which multiplied by the foresaid half sum 24 gives 7056; the square-root of which 84 is the area of the triangle. The demonstration of this, for the sake of brevity we omit. It is to be found in several treatises, particularly in *Clavius's practical Geometry*.

P R O P O S I T I O N V.

T H E O R. F I G. 4.

The area of the ordinate figure ABEFGH is equal to the product of the half-circumference of the polygon multiplied into the perpendicular drawn from the center of the circumscribed circle to the side of the polygon.

FOR the ordinate figure can be resolved into as many equal triangles, as there are sides of the figure; and

and since each triangle is equal to the product of half the base into the perpendicular, it is evident that the sum of all the triangles together, that is the polygon, is equal to the product of half the sum of the bases (that is the half of the circumference of the polygon) into the common perpendicular height of the triangles drawn from the center C to one of the sides, for example to AB.

P R O P O S I T I O N VI.

P R O B. FIG. 5.

The area of a circle is found by multiplying the half of the periphery into the radius, or the half of the radius into the periphery.

FOR a circle is not different from an ordinate or regular polygon of an infinite number of sides, and the common height of the triangles
into

into which the polygon (or circle) may be supposed to be divided, is the radius of the circle.

Were it worth while, it were easy to demonstrate accurately this proposition by means of the inscribed and circumscribed figures, as is done in the 5th prop. of the treatise of *Archimedes*, concerning the dimensions of the circle.

C O R O L L A R Y.

Hence also it appears that the area of the sector ABCD is produced by multiplying the half of the arch into the radius, and likewise that the area of the segment of the circle ADC is found by subtracting from the area of the sector the area of the triangle ABC.

P R O-

PROPOSITION VII.

THEOR. FIG. 6.

The circle is to the square of the diameter as 11 to 14 nearly.

FOR if the diameter AB be supposed to be 7, the circumference AHKB will be almost 22 (by the 22d prop. of the first part of this) and the area of the square DC will be 49; and by the preceeding prop. of this, the area of the circle will be $38\frac{1}{2}$, therefore the square DC will be to the inscribed circle as 49 to $38\frac{1}{2}$, or as 98 to 77, that is, as 14 to 11. Q. E. D.

If greater exactness is required, you may proceed to any degree of accuracy; for the square DC is to the inscribed circle as 1 to $1 - \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{7} - \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{7} - \dots + \frac{1}{7} - \dots + \frac{1}{7}$ &c. in infinitum.

This series will be of no service

N

for

' for computing the area of the cir-
 ' cle accurately, without some fur-
 ' ther artifice, because it converges
 ' at too slow a rate. The area of
 ' the circle will be found exactly e-
 ' nough for most purposes, by mul-
 ' tipling the square of the diame-
 ' ter by 7854, and dividing by
 ' 10000, or cutting off four decimal
 ' places from the product; for the
 ' area of the circle is to the circum-
 ' scribed square nearly as 7854 to
 ' 10000.

P R O P O S I T I O N VIII.

P R O B. F I G. 7.

To find the area of a given ellipse.

L Et ABCD be an ellipse, whose
 greater diameter is BD and les-
 ser AC, bisecting the greater per-
 pendicularly in E. Let a mean pro-
 portional HF be found (by the 13th
 6.

6. *Eucl.*) between AC and BD, and (by the 6th of this) find the area of the circle described on the diameter HF. I say that this area is equal to the area of the ellipse ABCD. For because, as BD to AC, so the square of BD to the square of HF (by 2. *Cor.* 20th 6. *Eucl.*) but (by the 2d 12. *Eucl.*) as the square of BD to the square of HF, so is the circle of the diameter BD to the circle of the diameter HF: therefore as BD to AC, so the circle of the diameter BD to the circle of the diameter HF. And (by the 5. prop. of *Archimedes* of spheroids) as the greater diameter BD to the lesser AC, so is the circle of the diameter BD to the ellipse ABCD. Consequently (by the 11th 5. *Eucl.*) the circle of the diameter BD will have the same proportion to the circle of the diameter HF, and to the ellipse ABCD. Therefore, by 9th 5. *Eucl.*

the area of the circle of the diameter HF will be equal to the area of the ellipse ABCD. *Q. E. D.*

S C H O L I U M.

From this and the two preceding propositions, a method is derived of finding the area of an ellipse. There are two ways; 1st, say, as 1 is to the lesser diameter, so is the greater diameter to a fourth number (which is found by the rule of three.) Then again say, as 14 to 11, so is the 4th number found to the area sought. But the second way is shorter. Multiply the lesser diameter into the greater, and the product by 11; then divide the whole product by 14, and the quotient will be the area sought of the ellipse. For example, let the greater diameter be 10, and the lesser 7, by multiplying 10 by 7, the product is 70, and multiplying that by 11, it is 770, and dividing 770 by

by 14, the quotient will be 55, which is the area of the ellipsis sought.

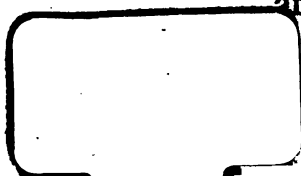
‘ The area of the ellipse will be
 ‘ found more accurately, by multi-
 ‘ plying the product of the two di-
 ‘ ameters by .7854.

We shall add no more about o-
 ther plain surfaces, whether rectili-
 near or curvilinear, which seldom
 occur in practice ; but shall subjoin
 some propositions about measuring
 the surfaces of solids.

P R O P O S I T I O N IX. PROB.

To measure the surface of any prism.

BY the 14th definition of the 11.
Eucl. a prism is contained by
 plains, of which two opposite sides
 (commonly called the bases) are
 plain rectilinear figures ; which are
 either regular and ordinate, and mea-
 sured by prop. 5. of this part, or
 however irregular, and then they
 are



are measured by the 3d prop. of this book. The other sides are parallelograms which are measured by the 1. prop. of this second part, and the whole superficies of the prism, consists of the sum of those taken altogether.

PROPOSITION X. PROB.

To measure the superficies of any pyramid.

Since its basis is a rectilinear figure, and the rest of the plains terminating in the top of the pyramid are triangles, these measured separately, and added together, give the surface of the pyramid required.

PRO-

PROPOSITION XI. PROB.

To measure the superficies of any regular body.

These bodies are called regular, which are bounded by equilateral and equiangular figures. The superficies of the tetraedron consists of four equal and equiangular triangles; the superficies of a hexaedron or cube, of six equal squares; an octaedron of eight equal equilateral triangles; a dodecaedron of twelve equal and ordinate pentagons. And the superficies of an icosaedron of twenty equal and equilateral triangles. Therefore it will be easy to measure these surfaces from what has been already shown.

In the same manner we may measure the superficies of a solid contained by any plains.

PRO-

PROPOSITION XII.

PROB. FIG. 8.

To measure the superficies of a cylinder.

BECAUSE a cylinder differs very little from a prism whose opposite plains (or bases) are ordinate figures of an infinite number of sides, it appears that the superficies of a cylinder, without the bases, is equal to an infinite number of parallelograms, the common altitude of all which is, with the height of the cylinder, and the bases of them all differ very little from the periphery of the circle which is the base of the cylinder. Therefore this periphery multiplied into the common height, gives the superficies of the cylinder, excluding the bases; which are to be measured separately by the help

help of the 6th prop. of this part.

This proposition concerning the measure of the surface of the cylinder (excluding its basis) is evident from this, That when it is conceived to be spread out, it becomes a parallelogram, whose base is the periphery of the circle of the base of the cylinder stretched into a right line, and whose height is the same with the height of the cylinder.

P R O P O S I T I O N XIII.

P R O B. FIG. 9.

To measure the surface of a right cone.

THE surface of a right cone is very little different from the surface of a right pyramid, having an ordinate polygon for its base of an infinite number of sides; the surface of which (excluding the base) is equal to the sum of the triangles.

○

The

The sum of the bases of these triangles is equal to the periphery of the circle of the base, and the common height of the triangles is the side of the cone AB; wherefore the sum of these triangles is equal to the product of the sum of the bases (*i. e.* the periphery of the base of the cone) multiplied into the half of the common height, or it is equal to the product of the side of the cone multiplied into the half of the periphery of the base.

If the area of the base is likewise wanted, it is to be found separately by the 6th prop. of this part. If the surface of a cone is supposed to be spread out on a plane, it will become a sector of a circle, whose radius is the side of the cone, and the arch terminating the sector is made from the periphery of the base. Whence by corol. 6. prop. of this, its dimension may be found.

COROLLARY.

Hence it will be easy to measure the surface of a *frustum* of a cone cut by a plain parallel to the base. As to what relates to the measuring of the surface of the scalenous cone, because it is not very useful in practice, we shall not describe the method, which would carry us beyond the limits of this treatise.

PROPOSITION XIV.

PROB. FIG. 10.

To measure the surface of a given sphere.

L Et there be a sphere, whose center is A, and let the area of its convex surface be required. *Archimedes* demonstrates (37. prop. 1. book of the sphere and cylinder) that its surface is equal to the area of four

O 2

great

great circles of the sphere; that is, let the area of the great circle be multiplied by 4, and the product will give the area of the sphere, or by 20th 6, and 2d 12. of *Eucl.* the area of the sphere given is equal to the area of a circle whose radius is the right line BC the diameter of the sphere. Therefore having measured (by 6. prop. of this part) the circle described with the radius BC, this will give the surface of the sphere.

P R O P O S I T I O N XV.

P R O B. F I G. 10.

To measure the surface of a segment of a sphere.

LET there be a segment cut off by the plain ED. *Archimedes* demonstrates (49. and 50. 1. *de sphaera*) that the surface of this segment, exclu-

cluding the circular base, is equal to the area of a circle whose radius is the right line BE drawn from the vertex B of the segment to the periphery of the circle DE. Therefore by the 6. prop. of this part, it is easily measured.

C O R O L L A R Y 1.

Hence that part of the surface of a sphere that lieth between two parallel plains is easily measured, by subtracting the surface of the lesser segment from the surface of the greater segment.

C O R O L L A R Y 2.

Hence likewise it follows that the surface of a cylinder described about a sphere (excluding the basis) is equal to the surface of the sphere, and the parts of the one to the parts of the other intercepted between plains
pa-

parallel to the basis of the cylinder.



P A R T III.

Of solid figures and their mensuration.

AS in the preceding parts we took an inch for the smallest measure in length, and an inch square for the smallest superficial measure; so now, in treating of the mensuration of solids, we take a cubical inch for the smallest solid measure. Of these 109 make a *Scots* pint; other liquid measures depend on this, as is generally known.

In dry measures, the firloft by statute, contains $19\frac{1}{2}$ pints, and on this depend the other dry measures: there-

1

2

3

4

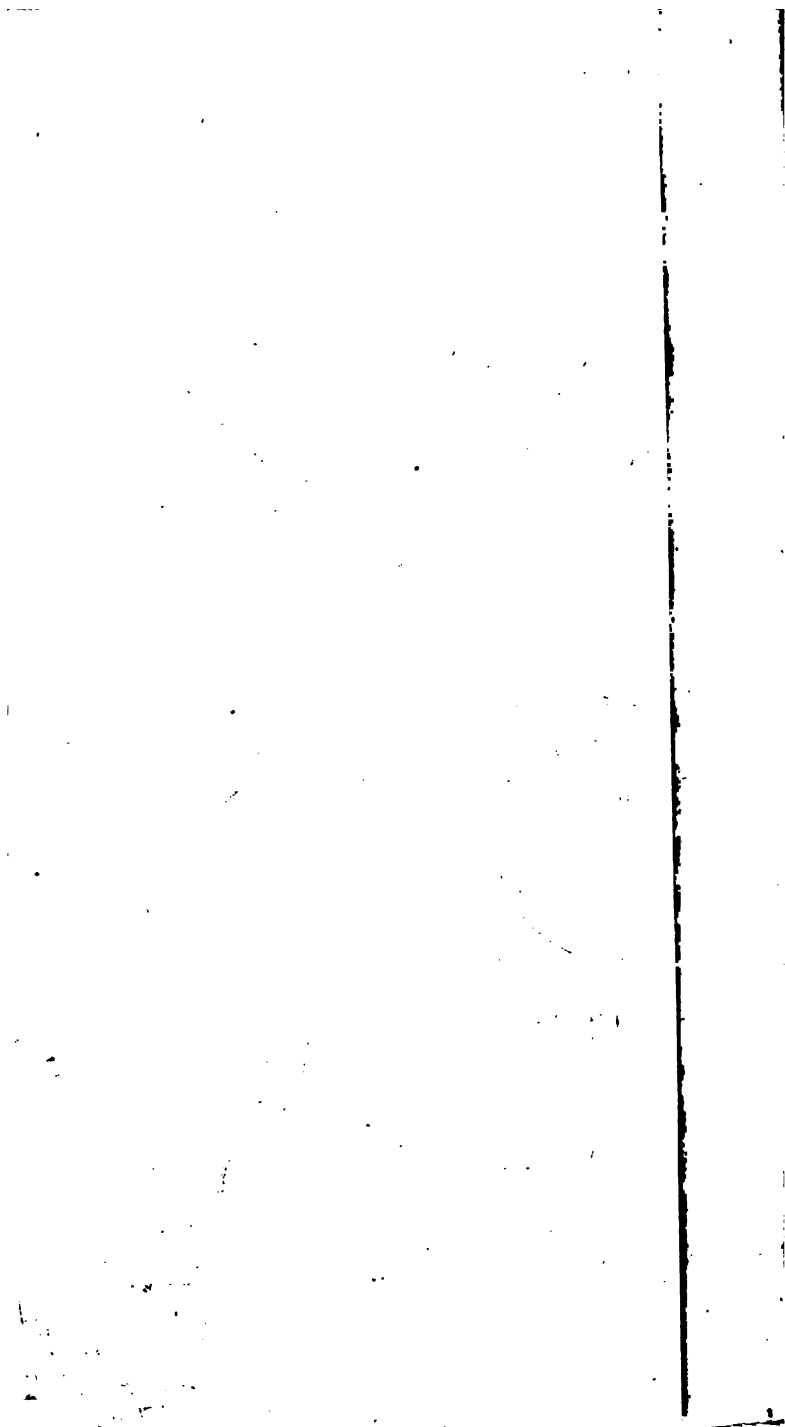
5

6

7

8

9



therefore, if the content of any solid be given in cubical inches, it will be easy to reduce the same to the common liquid or dry measures, and conversely to reduce these to solid inches. The liquid and dry measures in use among other nations are known from their writers.

As to the *English* liquid measures, By act of Parliament 1706, any round vessel, commonly called a cylinder, having an even bottom, being seven inches in diameter throughout, and six inches deep from the top of the inside to the bottom; (which vessel will be found by computation to contain $230 \frac{27}{1000}$ cubical inches) or any vessel containing 231 cubical inches, and no more, is deemed to be a lawful wine gallon. An *English* pint therefore contains $28 \frac{7}{8}$ cubical inches; two pints make a quart, four quarts a gallon, 18 gallons a roundlet, three roundlets

lets and an half, or 63 gallons
 make a hoghead; the half of
 a hoghead is a barrel; one hog-
 head, and a third, or 84 gal-
 lons make a puncheon; one pun-
 cheon and a half, or two hog-
 heads, or 126 gallons, make a
 pipe or butt; the third part of a
 pipe, or 42 gallons make a tierce;
 two pipes, or three puncheons, or
 four hogheads make a tun of
 wine. Tho' the *English* wine-gal-
 lon is now fixed at 231 cubical in-
 ches, the standard kept in *Guildhall*
 being measured before many per-
 sons of distinction, *May 25. 1688,*
 it was found to contain only 224
 such inches.

In the *English* Beer-measure, a
 gallon contains 282 cubical in-
 ches; consequently $35\frac{1}{4}$ cubical in-
 ches make a pint, two pints make a
 quart, four quarts make a gallon,
 nine gallons a firkin, four firkins
 a barrel. In ale, eight gallons make

‘ a firkin, and 32 gallons make a
‘ a barrel. By an Act of the first
‘ of *William and Mary*, 34 gallons
‘ is the barrel, both for beer and
‘ ale, in all places, except within
‘ the weekly bills of mortality.

‘ In *Scotland* it is known that four
‘ gills make a mutchkin, two mutch-
‘ kins make a chopin, a pint is two
‘ chopins, a quart is two pints, and
‘ a gallon is four quarts or eight
‘ pints. The accounts of the cubi-
‘ cal inches contained in the *Scots*
‘ pint vary considerably from each
‘ other. According to our Author
‘ it contains 109 cubical inches.
‘ But the standard jugs kept by the
‘ Dean of Gild of *Edinburgh* (one
‘ of which has the year 1555, with
‘ the arms of *Scotland*, and of the
‘ town of *Edinburgh* marked upon it)
‘ having been carefully measured se-
‘ veral times, and by different per-
‘ sons, the *Scots* pint, according
‘ to those standards, was found to

‘ contain about $103 \frac{1}{2}$ cubic inches.
 ‘ The Pewterers jugs (by which the
 ‘ vessels in common use are made)
 ‘ are said to contain sometimes be-
 ‘ twixt 105 and 106 cubic inch-
 ‘ es. A cask that was measured
 ‘ by the Brewers of *Edinburgh*, be-
 ‘ fore the Commissioners of Excise
 ‘ in 1707, was found to contain
 ‘ $46 \frac{1}{2}$ *Scots* pints; the same vessel
 ‘ contained $18 \frac{1}{2}$ *English* ale gal-
 ‘ lons. Supposing this mensuration
 ‘ to be just, the *Scots* pint will be to
 ‘ the *English* ale gallon as 289 to
 ‘ 750; and if the *English* ale-gallon
 ‘ be supposed to contain 282 cubi-
 ‘ cal inches, the *Scots* pint will con-
 ‘ tain 108.664 cubical inches. But it
 ‘ is suspected on several grounds that
 ‘ this experiment was not made
 ‘ with sufficient care and exactness.
 ‘ The Commissioners appointed
 ‘ by authority of Parliament to settle
 ‘ the measures and weights in their
 ‘ Act of *February* 19. 1618, relate,
 ‘ That

‘ That having caused fill the *Lithgow* firloot with water, they found
‘ that it contained $21 \frac{1}{4}$ pints of the
‘ just *Stirling* jug and measure. They
‘ likewise ordain that this shall be
‘ the just and only firloot, and add,
‘ *That the wideness and breadness of*
‘ *the which firloot, under and above,*
‘ *even over within the buirds, shall*
‘ *contain nineteen inches, and the*
‘ *sixth part of an inch, and the deip-*
‘ *ness seven inches, and a third part*
‘ *of an inch.* According to this Act
‘ (supposing their experiment and
‘ computation to have been accurate)
‘ the pint contained only 99.56 cu-
‘ bical inches; for the content of
‘ such a vessel as is described in the
‘ act is 2115.85, and this divided
‘ by $21 \frac{1}{4}$, gives 99.56. But by the
‘ weight of water said to fill this fir-
‘ lot in the same Act, the measure of
‘ the pint agrees nearly with the *E-*
‘ *dinburgh* standard above mentioned.

‘ As for the *English* measures of

‘ corn the *Winchester* gallon contains
 ‘ 272 $\frac{1}{2}$ cubical inches, two gallons
 ‘ make a peck, four pecks or eight
 ‘ gallons (that is 2178 cubical inch-
 ‘ es) make a bushel, and a quarter is
 ‘ eight bushels.

‘ Our Author says, that 19 $\frac{1}{2}$ *Scots*
 ‘ pints, make a firlo; but this does
 ‘ not appear to be agreeable to the
 ‘ statute above mentioned, nor to the
 ‘ standard jugs. It may be conjectu-
 ‘ red that the proportion assigned by
 ‘ him has been deduced from some
 ‘ experiment of how many pints, ac-
 ‘ cording to common use, were con-
 ‘ tained in the firlo. For if we sup-
 ‘ pose those pints to have been each
 ‘ of 108.664 cubical inches, accord-
 ‘ ing to the experiment made in the
 ‘ 1707, before the Commissioners
 ‘ of Excise described above; then
 ‘ 19 $\frac{1}{2}$ such pints will amount to
 ‘ 2118.94 cubical inches which a-
 ‘ grees nearly with 2115.85 the
 ‘ measure of the firlo by the statute
 ‘ above

‘ above mentioned. But it is pro-
 ‘ bable, that in this he followed the
 ‘ Act 1587, where it is ordained
 ‘ that the wheat firLOT shall contain
 ‘ 19 pints and twa joucattes. A
 ‘ wheat firLOT marked with the *Lin-*
 ‘ *lithgow* stamps being measured, was
 ‘ found to contain about 2211 cubi-
 ‘ cal inches. By the statute of 1618,
 ‘ the barley-firLOT was to contain 31
 ‘ pints of the just *Stirling* jug.

‘ A *Paris* pint is 48 cubical *Paris*
 ‘ inches, and is nearly equal to an
 ‘ *English* wine quart. The *Boisseau*
 ‘ contains 644.68099 *Paris* cubical
 ‘ inches, or 780.36 *English* cubical
 ‘ inches.

‘ The *Roman Amphora* was a cu-
 ‘ bical *Roman* foot, the *Congius* was
 ‘ the 8th part of the *Amphora*, the
 ‘ *Sextarius* was one sixth of the *Con-*
 ‘ *gius*. They divided the *Sextarius*
 ‘ like the *As* or *Libra*. Of dry
 ‘ measures the *Medimnus* was equal
 ‘ to two *Amphoras*, that is about 1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Eng-

English legal bushels ; and the *Medius* was the third part of the *Amphora*.

PROPOSITION I. PROB.

To find the solid content of a given prism.

BY the 2. prop. of the 2d part of this, let the area of the base of the prism be measured, and be multiplied by the height of the prism, the product will give the solid content of the prism.

PROPOSITION II. PROB.

To find the solid content of a given pyramid.

THE area of the base being found (by the 3d prop. of the 2d part) let it be multiplied by the third part of the height of the pyramid, or the
third

third part of the base by the height, the product will give the solid content by 7th 12. *Eucl.*

C O R R O L A R Y.

If the solid content of a *frustum* of a pyramid is required, first let the solid content of the entire pyramid be found, from which subtract the solid content of the part that is wanting, and the solid content of the broken pyramid will remain.

PROPOSITION III. PROB.

To find the content of a given cylinder.

THE area of the base being found (by prop. 6. of 2. part) if it be a circle, and by prop. 8. if it be an ellipse for in both cases it is a cylinder) multiply it by the height of the cylinder, and the solid content of the cylinder will be produced.

C O-

COROLLARY, FIG. I.

And in this manner may be measured the solid content of vessels and casks not much different from a cylinder as ABCD. If towards the middle EF it be somewhat grosser, the area of the circle of the base being found (by 6th prop. of 2. part) and added to the area of the middle circle EF, and the half of their sum (that is an arithmetical mean between the area of the base, and the area of the middle circle) taken for the base of the vessel, and multiplied into its height, the solid content of the given vessel will be produced.

Note, That the length of the vessel as well as the diameters of the base and of the circle EF ought to be taken within the staves; for it is the solid content within the staves that is sought.

PRO-

PROPOSITION IV. PROB.

To find the solid content of a given cone.

LET the area of the base (found by prop. 6th, 2. part) be multiplied into $\frac{1}{3}$ of the height, the product shall give the solid content of the cone; for (by 10th, 12. *Eucl.*) a cone is the third part of a cylinder that has the same base and height.

PROPOSITION V.

PROB. FIG. 2. and 3.

To find the solid content of a frustum of a cone cut by a plane parallel to the plain of the base.

First, let the height of the entire cone be found, and thence, (by the preceeding prop.) its solid content; from which subtract the solid

Q

con-

content of the cone cut off at the top, there will remain the solid content of the *frustum* of the cone.

How the content of the entire cone may be found, appears thus, let ABCD be the *frustum* of the cone (either right or scalenous, as in the figures 2. and 3.) let the cone ECD be supposed to be compleated; let AG be drawn parallel to DE, and let AH and EF be perpendicular on CD. It will be (by 2d 6. *Eucl.*) as $CG : CA :: CD : CE$; but (by the 4th prop. of the same book) as $CA : AH :: CE : EF$; consequently (by 2d 5. *Eucl.*) as $CG : AH :: CD : EF$, that is, as the excess of the diameter of the greater base of the *frustum* above the lesser base, is to the height of the *frustum*, so is the diameter of the greater base to the height of the entire cone.

COROLLARY, FIG. 4.

Some casks whose staves are remarkably bended about the middle, and streight towards the ends, may be taken for two portions of cones, without any considerable error. Thus ABEF is a *frustum* of a right cone, to whose base EF, on the other side, there is another similar *frustum* of a cone joined EDCF. The vertices of these cones, if they be supposed to be completed, will be found at G and H. Whence, by the preceding prop. the solid content of such vessels may be found.

PROPOSITION VI.

THEOR. FIG. 5.

A Cylinder circumscribed about a sphere, that is, having its base equal to a great circle of the
Q 2 sphere

sphere, and its height equal to the diameter of the sphere, is to the sphere as 3 to 2.

Let ABEC be the quadrant of a circle, and ABDC the circumscribed square; and likewise the triangle ADC; by the revolution of the figure about the right line AC as axis, a hemisphere will be generated by the quadrant, a cylinder of the same base and height by the square, and a cone by the triangle. Let these three be cut any how by the plain HF parallel to the base AB, the section in the cylinder will be a circle whose radius is FH; in the hemisphere a circle of the radius EF; and in the cone, a circle of the radius GF.

By the 47th 1. *Eucl.* EAq , or $HFq = EFq$ and FAq taken together, (but $AFq = FGq$, because $AC = CD$) therefore the circle of the radius HF is equal to a circle of the radius EF together with a circle of the radius GF,

GF, and since this is true every where, all the circles together described by the respective *radii* HF, (that is the cylinder,) are equal to all the circles described by the respective *radii* EF and FG (that is to the hemisphere and the cone taken together;) but by 10th 12. *Eucl.* the cone generated by the triangle DAC is one third part of the cylinder generated by the square BC. Whence it follows that the hemisphere generated by the rotation of the quadrant ABEC, is equal to the remaining two third parts of the cylinder, and that the whole sphere is $\frac{2}{3}$ of the double cylinder circumscribed about it.

This is that celebrated 39th prop. 1. book of *Archimedes* of the sphere and cylinder, in which he determines the proportion of the cylinder to the sphere inscribed to be that of 3 to 2.

C O R O L L A R Y.

Hence it follows that the sphere is equal to a cone having a circle equal to the superficies of the sphere, or to four great circles of the sphere, or to a circle whose radius is equal to the diameter of the sphere (by 14th prop. 2. part of this) for its base, and its height equal to the semidiameter of the sphere. And indeed a sphere differs very little from the sum of an infinite number of cones, that have their bases in the surface of the sphere, and their common vertex in the center of the sphere: so that the superficies of the sphere, (of whose dimension see 14th prop. 2. part of this) multiplied into the third part of the semidiameter, gives the solid content of the sphere.

PRO-

P R O P O S I T I O N VII.

P R O B. FIG. 6.

To find the solid content of a sector of the sphere.

A Spherical sector ABC (as appears by the corol. of the preceding prop.) is very little different from an infinite number of cones, having their bases in the superficies of the sphere BEC, and their common vertex in the center. Wherefore the spherical superficies BEC being found (by 15. prop. 2. part) and multiplied into the third part of AB the radius of the sphere, the product will give the solid content of the sector ABC.

C O R O L L A R Y.

It is evident how to find the solidity

dity of a spherical segment less than a hemisphere, by subtracting the cone ABC from the sector already found. But if the spherical segment be greater than a hemisphere, the cone corresponding must be added to the sector, to make the segment.

P R O P O S I T I O N VIII.

P R O B. FIG. 7.

To find the solidity of the spheroid, and of its segments cut by plains perpendicular to the axis.

IN the second prop. of this part, it is shown that every where $\text{EH} : \text{EG} :: \text{CF} : \text{CD}$; but circles are as the squares described upon their rays, that is, the circle of the radius EH, is to the circle of the radius EG as $\text{CF}q$ to $\text{CD}q$. And since it is so every where, all the circles described with the respective rays EH
(that

(that is the spheroid made by the rotation of the semiellipsis AFB around the axis AB) will be to all the circles described by the respective radii EG (that is the sphere described by the rotation of the semicircle ADB on the axis AB) as FGq to CDq; that is, as the spheroid to the sphere on the same axis, so is the square of the other axis of the generating ellipse to the square of the axis of the sphere.

And this holds, whether the spheroid be found by a revolution around the greater or lesser axis.

C O R O L L A R Y I.

Hence it appears that the half of the spheroid, formed by the rotation of the space AHFC around the axis AC, is double of the cone generated by the triangle AFC about the same axis; which is the 3^d prop. of *Archimedes*, of conoids and spheroids.

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C O-

COROLLARY 2.

Hence likewise is evident the measure of segments of the spheroid cut by plains perpendicular to the axis. For the segment of the spheroid made by the rotation of the space ANHE round the axis AE, is to the segment of the sphere having the same axis AC, and made by the rotation of the segment of the circle AMGE, as CF q to CD q .

But if the measure of this solid be wanted with less labour, by the 34th prop. of *Archimedes*, of conoids and spheroids, it will be as BE to AC + EB, so is the cone of the same base and height to the segment of the sphere made by the rotation of the space ANHE around the axis EA; which could easily be demonstrated, (was this a proper place for it) by the method of indivisibles.

C O R O L L A R Y 3.

Hence it is easy to find the solid content of the segment of a sphere or spheroid intercepted between two parallel plains, perpendicular to the axis. This agrees as well to the oblate as to the oblong spheroid, as is obvious.

C O R O L L A R Y 4. FIG. 8.

If a cask is to be valued as the middle piece of an oblong spheroid, cut by the two plains DC and FG, at right angles to the axis. First let the solid content of the half spheroid ABCED be measured by the preceding prop. from which let the solidity of the segment DEC be subtracted, and there will remain the segment ABCD, and this doubled, will give the capacity of the cask required.

The following method is generally made use of for finding the solid content of such vessels. The double area of the greatest circle, that is of that which is described by the diameter AB at the middle of the cask, is added to the area of the circle at the end, that is, of the circle DC or FG (for they are usually equal) and the third part of this sum is taken for a mean base of the cask, which therefore multiplied into the length of the cask OP gives the content of the vessel required.

Sometimes vessels have other figures, different from those we have mentioned; the easy methods of measuring which may be learned from those who practise this art. What hath already been delivered is sufficient for our purpose.

PROPOSITION IX.

PROB. FIG. 9. and 10.

To find how much is contained in a vessel that is in part empty, whose axis is parallel to the horizon.

LET AGBH be the great circle in the middle of the cask, whose segment GBH is filled with liquor, the segment GAH being empty; the segment GBH is known, if the depth EB be known, and EH a mean proportional between the segments of the diameter AE and EB, which are found by a rod or ruler put into the vessel at the orifice. Let the basis of the cask, at a medium, be found, which suppose to be the circle CKDL, and let the segment KCL be similar to the segment GAH (which is either found by the rule of three, because as the circle AGBH is

is

is to the circle CKDL, so is the segment GAH to the segment KCL; or is found from the tables of segments made by authors) and the product of this segment multiplied by the length of the cask, will give the liquid content remaining in the cask.

PROPOSITION X. PROB.

To find the solid content of a regular and ordinate body.

A Tetraedron being a pyramid, the solid content is found by the second prop. of this part. The hexaedron or cube, being a kind of prism, it is measured by the first prop. of this part. An octaedron consists of two pyramids of the same square base, and of equal heights, consequently its measure is found from the second prop. of this part. A dodecaedron consists of twelve pyramids

ramids having equal equilateral and equiangular pentagonal bases ; and so one of these being measured (by 2d prop. of this) and multiplied by 12, the product will be equal to the solid content of the dodecaedron. The icosiaedron consists of 20 equal pyramids having triangular bases, the solid content of one of which being found (by the 2d prop. of this) and multiplied by 20, gives the whole solid. The bases and heights of these pyramids, if you want to proceed more exactly, may be found by Trigonometry.

PROPOSITION XI. PROB.

To find the solid content of a body however irregular.

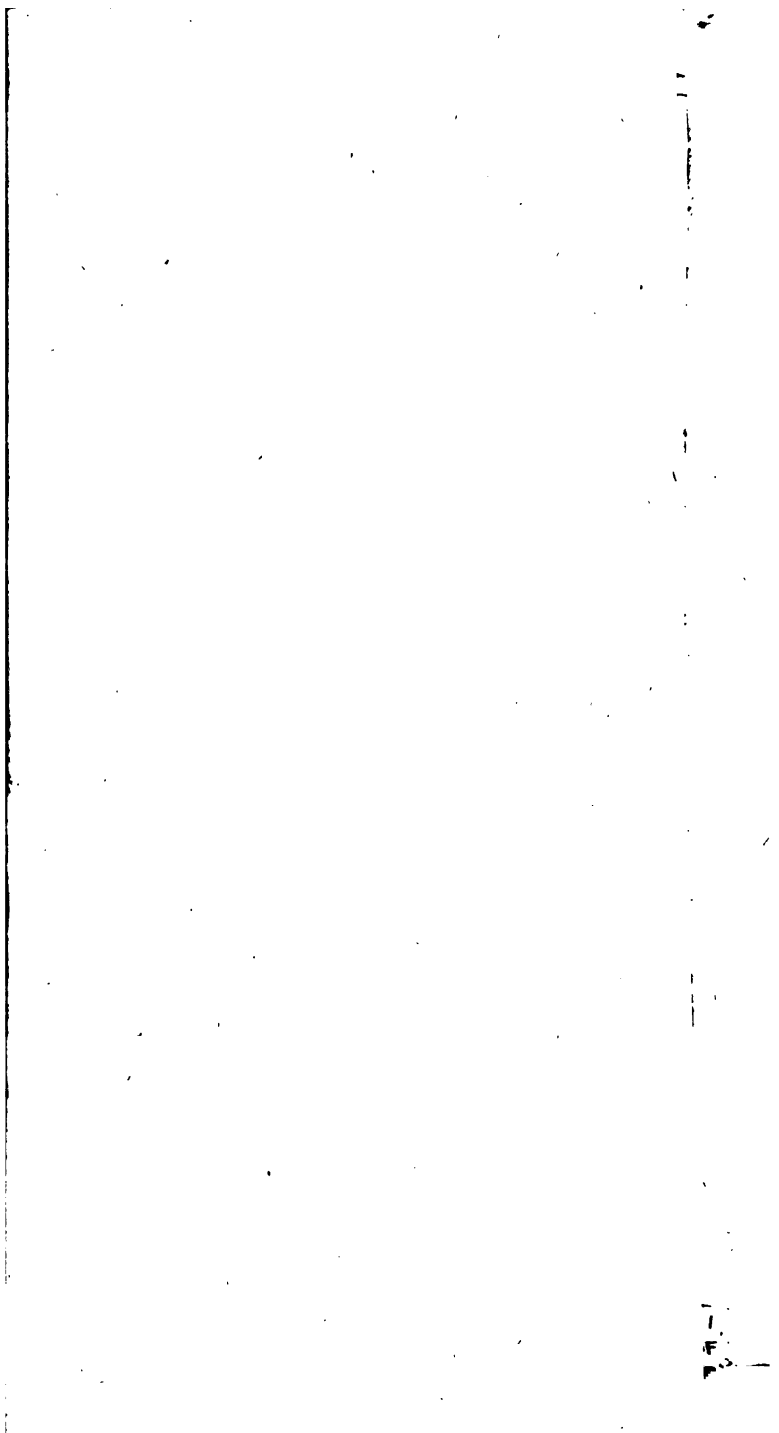
LET the given body be immersed in a vessel of water, having the figure of a parallelopipedon or prism, and let it be noted how much
the

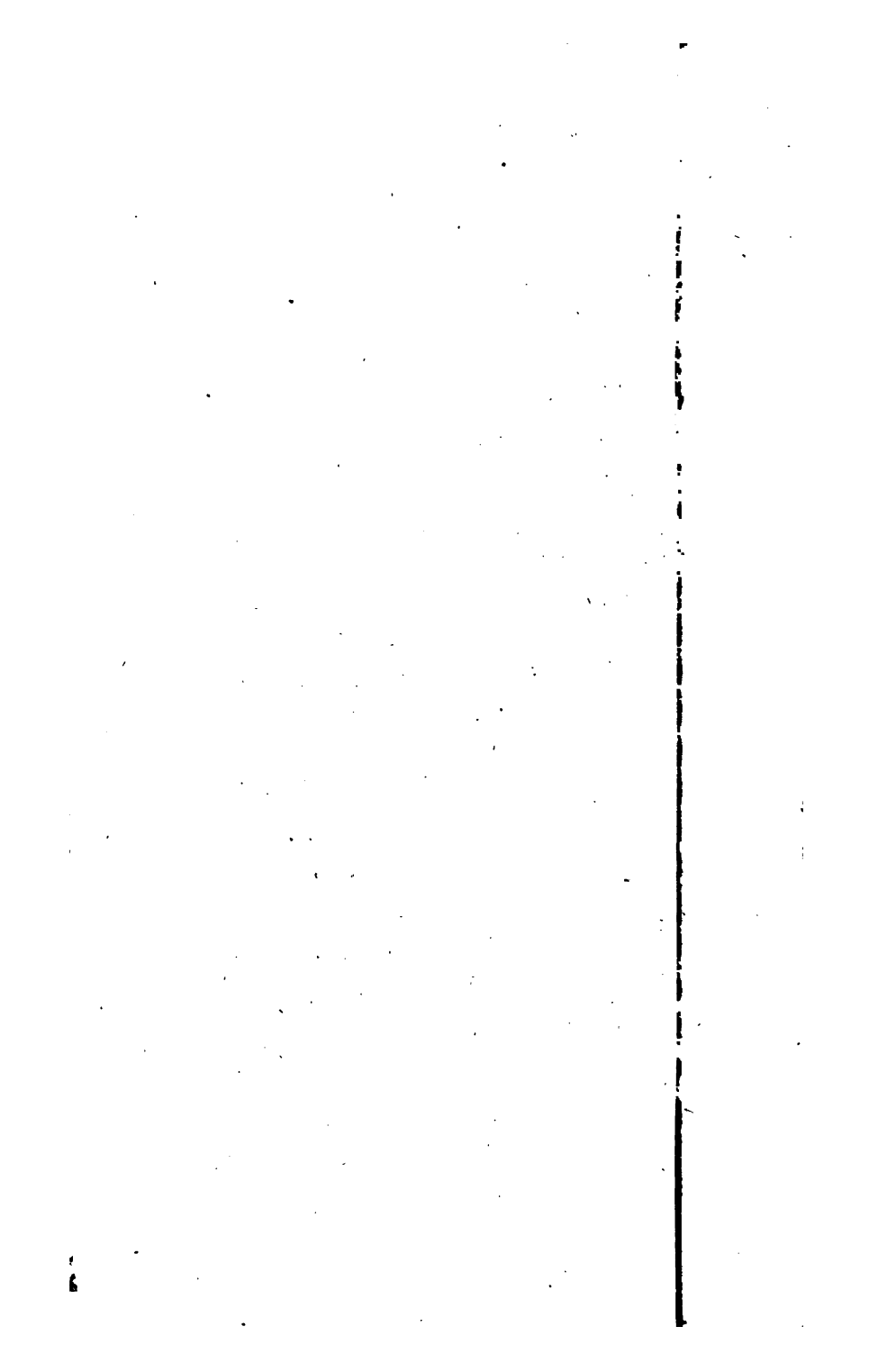
the water is raised upon the immersion of the body. For it is plain that the space which the water fills, after the immersion of the body, exceeds the space filled before its immersion, by a space equal to the solid content of the body however irregular. But when this excess is of the figure of a parallelopipedon or prism, it is easily measured by the first prop. of this part, to wit, by multiplying the area of the base, or mouth of the vessel, into the difference of the elevations of the water before and after immersion. Whence is found the solid content of the body given. *Q. E. I.*

In the same way the solid content of a part of a body may be found, by immersing that part only in water.

There is no necessity to insist here on diminishing or enlarging solid bodies in a given proportion. It will be easy to deduce these things from the 11th and 12th B. of *Euclid*.

THE





THE following rules are sub-joined for the ready computation of the contents of vessels, and of any solids in the measures in use in *Great Britain*.

I. To find the content of a cylindric vessel in *English* wine gallons, the diameter of the base and altitude of the vessel being given in inches and decimals of an inch.

Square the number of inches in the diameter of the vessel; multiply this square by the number of inches in the height; then multiply the product by the decimal fraction .0034; and this last product shall give the content in wine gallons and decimals of such a gallon. To express the rule arithmetically, let D represent the number of inches and decimals of an inch in the diameter of the vessel, and H the inches and decimals of an inch in the height of the vessel; then the content in

S

wine

wine gallons shall be $DDH \times \frac{14}{10000}$,
 or $DDH \times .0034$. *Ex.* Let the di-
 ameter $D = 51.2$ inches, the height
 $H = 62.3$ inches, then the content
 shall be $51.2 \times 51.2 \times 62.3 \times .0034$
 $= 555.27342$ wine gallons. This
 rule follows from prop. 7. of the
 second part, and prop. 3. of the
 third part; for by the former, the
 area of the base of the vessel is in
 square inches $DD \times .7854$; and
 by the latter, the content of the
 vessel in solid inches is $DDH \times$
 $.7854$; which divided by 231 (the
 number of cubical inches in a wine
 gallon) gives $DDH \times .0034$ the
 content in wine gallons. But tho'
 the charges in the excise are
 made (by statute) on the supposi-
 tion that the wine-gallon contains
 231 cubical inches, yet it is said
 that in sale 224 cubical inches
 (the content of the standard mea-
 sured in *Guildhall*, as was mentioned
 above)

‘ above) are allowed to be a wine
‘ gallon.

‘ II. Supposing the *English* ale
‘ gallon to contain 282 cubical inch-
‘ es, the content of a cylindric ves-
‘ sel is computed in such gallons,
‘ by multiplying the square of the
‘ diameter of the vessel by its height
‘ as formerly, and their product by
‘ the decimal fraction .0027851.
‘ That is, the solid content in ale
‘ gallons is $DDH \times .0027851$.

‘ III. Supposing the *Scots* pint to
‘ contain about 103.4 cubical inch-
‘ es (which is the measure given by
‘ the standards at *Edinburgh*, accor-
‘ ding to experiments mentioned
‘ above) the content of a cylindric
‘ vessel is computed in *Scots* pints,
‘ by multiplying the square of the
‘ diameter of the vessel by its height,
‘ and the product of these by the
‘ decimal fraction .0076. Or the
‘ content of such a vessel in *Scots*
‘ pints is $DDH \times .0076$.

' IV. Supposing the *Winchester*
 ' bushel to contain 2178 cubical
 ' inches, the content of a cylindric
 ' vessel is computed in those bushels
 ' by multiplying the square of the
 ' diameter of the vessel by the
 ' height, and the product by the
 ' decimal fraction .0003606. But
 ' the standard bushel having been
 ' measured by Mr. *Everard* and o-
 ' thers in 1696, it was found to
 ' contain only 2145.6 solid inches;
 ' and therefore it was enacted in the
 ' Act for laying a duty upon malt;
 ' *That every round bushel, with a plain*
 ' *and even bottom, being 18 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches*
 ' *diameter throughout, and 8 inches*
 ' *deep, should be esteemed a legal Win-*
 ' *chester bushel.* According to this
 ' Act (ratified in the first Year of
 ' Queen *Anne*) the legal *Winchester*
 ' bushel contains only 2150.42 so-
 ' lid inches. And the content of a
 ' cylindric vessel is computed in such
 ' bushels, by multiplying the square
 ' of

of the diameter by the height, and
 their product by the decimal fra-
 ction .0003652. Or the content
 of the vessel in those bushels is
 $DDH \times .0003652$.

V. Supposing the *Scots* wheat
 firloft to contain $21 \frac{1}{2}$ *Scots* pints,
 (as is appointed by the Statute
 1618) and the pint to be conform
 to the *Edinburgh* standards above
 mentioned, the content of a cylin-
 dric vessel in such firlofts is com-
 puted by multiplying the square
 of the diameter by the height, and
 their product by the decimal fra-
 ction .00358. This firloft, in 1426
 is appointed to contain 17 pints,
 in 1457 it was appointed to con-
 tain 18 pints, in 1587 it is $19 \frac{1}{2}$
 pints, in 1618 it is $21 \frac{1}{2}$ pints;
 and tho' this last Statute appears to
 have been founded on wrong com-
 putations in several respects, yet
 this part of the Act that relates to
 the number of pints in the firloft
 seems

' seems to be the least exceptionable;
 ' and therefore we suppose the fir-
 ' lot to contain $21 \frac{1}{4}$ pints of the
 ' *Edinburgh* standard, or about 2197
 ' cubical inches; which a little ex-
 ' ceeds the *Winchester* bushel, from
 ' which it may have been original-
 ' ly copied.

' Supposing the bear firloot to con-
 ' tain 31 *Scots* pints (according to the
 ' Statute 1618) and the pint con-
 ' form to the *Edinburgh* standards,
 ' the content of a cylindric vessel in
 ' such firlots is found by multiply-
 ' ing the square of the diameter by
 ' the height, and this product by
 ' .000245.

' When the section of the vessel is
 ' not a circle but an ellipsis, the pro-
 ' duct of the greatest diameter by
 ' the least is to be substituted in
 ' those rules for the square of the
 ' diameter.

' VII. To compute the content
 ' of a vessel that may be considered

' as

‘ as a *frustum* of a cone in any of
 ‘ those measures.

‘ Let A represent the number of
 ‘ inches in the diameter of the grea-
 ‘ ter base, B the number of inches
 ‘ in the diameter of the lesser base.
 ‘ Compute the square of A, the pro-
 ‘ duct of A multiplied by B, and the
 ‘ square of B, and collect these into
 ‘ a sum. Then find the third part
 ‘ of this sum, and substitute it in
 ‘ the preceding rules in the place
 ‘ of the square of the diameter; and
 ‘ proceed in all other respects as
 ‘ before. Thus, for example, the
 ‘ content in wine gallons is $AA +$
 ‘ $AB + BB \times \frac{1}{3} \times H \times .0034$.

‘ Or to the square of half the sum
 ‘ of the diameters A and B, add one
 ‘ third part of the square of half
 ‘ their difference; and substitute this
 ‘ sum in the preceding rules for
 ‘ the square of the diameter of the
 ‘ vessel; for the square of $\frac{1}{2} A + \frac{1}{2} B$
 ‘ added to $\frac{1}{3}$ of the square of $\frac{1}{2} A -$
 ‘ $\frac{1}{2} B$

‘ $\frac{1}{2}$ B, gives $\frac{1}{2}$ AA + $\frac{1}{2}$ AB + $\frac{1}{2}$ BB.

‘ VIII. When a vessel is a *frustum*
 ‘ of a parabolic conoid, measure the
 ‘ diameter of the section at the
 ‘ middle of the height of the *fru-*
 ‘ *stum*; and the content will be pre-
 ‘ cisely the same as of a cylinder
 ‘ of this diameter, of the same height
 ‘ with the vessel.

‘ IX. When a vessel is a *frustum*
 ‘ of a sphere, if you measure the
 ‘ diameter of the section at the
 ‘ middle of the height of the *fru-*
 ‘ *stum*, then compute the content of
 ‘ a cylinder of this diameter of the
 ‘ same height with the vessel, and
 ‘ from this subtract $\frac{1}{2}$ of the con-
 ‘ tent of a cylinder of the same
 ‘ height on a base whose diameter is
 ‘ equal to its height; the remain-
 ‘ der will give the content of the
 ‘ vessel. That is, if D represent the
 ‘ diameter of the middle section, and
 ‘ H the height of the *frustum*, you
 ‘ are to substitute $DD - \frac{1}{2} HH$ for
 ‘ the

‘ the square of the diameter of the
 ‘ cylindric vessel in the first six rules.

‘ X. When the vessel is a *frustum*
 ‘ of a spheroid, if the bases are e-
 ‘ qual, the content is readily found
 ‘ by the rule in *p.* 132. In other
 ‘ cases, let the axis of the solid be to
 ‘ the conjugate axis, as n to 1 ; let
 ‘ D be the diameter of the middle
 ‘ section of the *frustum*, H the
 ‘ height or length of the *frustum* ;
 ‘ and substitute in the first six rules
 ‘ $DD - \frac{HH}{3nn}$ for the square of the di-
 ‘ ameter of the vessel.

‘ XI. When the vessel is an hyper-
 ‘ bolic conoid, let the axis of the solid
 ‘ be to the conjugate axis, as n to 1,
 ‘ D the diameter of the section at the
 ‘ middle of the *frustum*, H the height
 ‘ or length, compute $DD + \frac{1}{3nn} \times HH$,
 ‘ and substitute this sum for the
 ‘ square of the diameter of the cy-
 ‘ lindric vessel in the first six rules.

‘ XII. In general, it is usual to

T

mea-

• measure any round vessel, by di-
 • stinguishing it into several *frustums*,
 • and taking the diameter of the se-
 • ction at the middle of each *fru-*
 • *stum*; thence to compute the con-
 • tent of each, as if it was a cylin-
 • der of that mean diameter; and to
 • give their sum as the content of the
 • vessel. From the total content
 • computed in this manner they sub-
 • tract successively the numbers
 • which express the circular areas
 • that correspond to those mean di-
 • meters, each as often as there are
 • inches in the altitude of the *fru-*
 • *stum* to which it belongs, begin-
 • ning with the uppermost; and in
 • this manner calculate a table for
 • the vessel, by which it readily ap-
 • pears how much liquor is at any
 • time contained in it, by taking ei-
 • ther the dry or wet inches; having
 • regard to the inclination or drip of
 • the vessel when it has any.

• This method of computing the
 • content

' content of a *frustum* from the dia-
 ' meter of the section at the middle of
 ' its height is exact in that case only
 ' when it is a portion of a parabolic
 ' conoid ; but in such vessels as are in
 ' common use, the error is not consi-
 ' derable. When the vessel is a porti-
 ' on of a cone or hyperbolic conoid,
 ' the content by this method is found
 ' less than the truth ; but when it is
 ' a portion of a sphere or spheroid,
 ' the content computed in this man-
 ' ner exceeds the truth. The dif-
 ' ference or error is always the same
 ' in the different parts of the same
 ' or of similar vessels when the
 ' altitude of the *frustum* is given.
 ' And when the altitudes are diffe-
 ' rent, the error is in the triplicate
 ' *ratio* of the altitude. If exactness
 ' be required, the error in measur-
 ' ing the *frustum* of a conical vessel,
 ' in this manner, is $\frac{1}{7}$ of the con-
 ' tent of a cone, similar to the ves-
 ' sel, of an altitude equal to the
 ' height

‘ height of the *frustum*. In a sphere,
 ‘ it is $\frac{1}{3}$ of a cylinder of a diameter
 ‘ and height equal to the *frustum*.
 ‘ In the spheroid and hyperbolic
 ‘ conoid, it is the same as in a cone
 ‘ generated by the right-angled tri-
 ‘ angle contained by the two semi-
 ‘ axes of the figure revolving about
 ‘ that side which is the semi-axis of
 ‘ the *frustum*. These are demon-
 ‘ strated in a treatise of fluxions by
 ‘ Mr. *Mac Laurin*, p. 25. and 715.
 ‘ where those theorems are extended
 ‘ to *frustums* that are bounded by
 ‘ planes oblique to the axis in all the
 ‘ solids that are generated by any
 ‘ conic section revolving about ei-
 ‘ ther axis.

‘ In the usual method of comput-
 ‘ ing a table for a vessel, by sub-
 ‘ ducting from the whole content
 ‘ the number that expresses the up-
 ‘ permost area as often as there are
 ‘ inches in the uppermost *frustum*,
 ‘ and afterwards the numbers for the
 ‘ other

‘ other areas successively, it is ob-
 ‘ vious that the contents assigned
 ‘ by the table, when a few of the
 ‘ uppermost inches are dry, are sta-
 ‘ ted a little too high, if the vessel
 ‘ stands on its lesser base, but too
 ‘ low when it stands on its greater
 ‘ base; because, when one inch is
 ‘ dry, for example, it is not the a-
 ‘ rea at the middle of the upper-
 ‘ most *frustum*, but rather the area
 ‘ at the middle of the uppermost
 ‘ inch, that ought to be subducted
 ‘ from the total content, in order to
 ‘ find the content in this case.

‘ XIII. To measure round tim-
 ‘ ber, let the mean circumference
 ‘ be found in feet and decimals of
 ‘ a foot; square it, multiply this
 ‘ square by the decimal .079577,
 ‘ and the product by the length.
 ‘ *Ex.* Let the mean circumference
 ‘ of a tree be 10.3 feet, and the
 ‘ length 24 feet. Then 10.3×10.3
 ‘ $\times .079577 \times 24 = 202.615$ is the
 ‘ num-

' number of cubical feet in the tree.
 ' The foundation of this rule is, that
 ' when the circumference of a circle
 ' is 1, the area is .0795774715, and
 ' that the areas of circles are as the
 ' squares of their circumferences.

' But the common way used by
 ' Artificers for measuring round tim-
 ' ber, differs much from this rule.
 ' They call one fourth part of the
 ' circumference the *girt*, which is
 ' by them reckoned the side of a
 ' square, whose area is equal to the
 ' area of the section of the tree ;
 ' therefore they square the *girt*, and
 ' then multiply by the length of the
 ' tree. According to their method
 ' the tree of the last example would
 ' be computed at 159.13 cubical
 ' feet only. How square timber is
 ' measured, will be easily under-
 ' stood from the preceeding propo-
 ' sitions. Fifty solid feet of hewn
 ' timber, and forty of rough timber
 ' make a load,

XIV. To find the burden of a ship, or the number of tons it will carry, the following rule is commonly given. Multiply the length of the keel taken within board, by the breadth of the ship within board, taken from the mid-ship beam from plank to plank, and the product by the depth of the hold, taken from the plank below the keelson to the under part of the upper deck plank, and divide the product by 94, the quotient is the content of the tonnage required. This rule however cannot be accurate, nor can one rule be supposed to serve for the measuring exactly the burden of ships of all sorts. Of this the reader will find more in the memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences at *Paris* for the year 1721.

Our Author having said nothing of weights, it may be of use to add

‘ add briefly that the *English* Troy-
 ‘ pound contains 12 ounces, the
 ‘ ounce twenty penny weight, and
 ‘ the penny weight 24 grains; that
 ‘ the *Averdupois* pound contains 16
 ‘ ounces, the ounce 16 drams, and
 ‘ that 112 pounds is usually cal-
 ‘ led the hundred weight. It is
 ‘ commonly supposed that 14 pounds
 ‘ *Averdupois* are equal to 17 pounds
 ‘ Troy. According to Mr. *Ever-*
 ‘ *ard*’s experiments, one pound *A-*
 ‘ *verdupois* is equal to 14 ounces,
 ‘ 11 penny weight and 16 grains
 ‘ Troy, that is, to 7000 grains;
 ‘ and an *Averdupois* ounce is $437 \frac{1}{2}$
 ‘ grains. The *Scots* Troy pound,
 ‘ (which by the Statute 1718 was
 ‘ to be the same with the *French*)
 ‘ is commonly supposed equal to
 ‘ $15 \frac{1}{4}$ ounces *English* Troy, or 7560
 ‘ grains. By a mean of the stan-
 ‘ dards kept by the Dean of Gild of
 ‘ *Edinburgh*, it is $7599 \frac{1}{17}$, or 7600
 ‘ grains. They who have measur-
 ‘ ed

‘ ed the weights which were sent
 ‘ from *London*, after the Union of
 ‘ the Kingdoms, to be the standards
 ‘ by which the weights in *Scotland*
 ‘ should be made, have found the
 ‘ *English Averdupois* pound (from a
 ‘ medium of the several weights)
 ‘ to weigh 7000 grains, the same as
 ‘ Mr. *Everard*; according to which
 ‘ the *Scots, Paris* or *Amsterdam*
 ‘ pound will be to the pound *Aver-*
 ‘ *dupois* as 38 to 35. The *Scots*
 ‘ Troy stone contains 16 pounds,
 ‘ the pound two marks or 16 ounces,
 ‘ an ounce 16 drops, a drop 36
 ‘ grains. Twenty *Scots* ounces make
 ‘ a Trone pound; but because it is
 ‘ usual to allow one to the score, the
 ‘ Trone pound is commonly 21
 ‘ ounces. Sir *John Skene* however
 ‘ makes the Trone stone to con-
 ‘ tain only $19\frac{1}{2}$ pounds.

F I N I S.