

# Licensed,

## October 24th, 1677



Have perhaps troubled thee and the Press already too much ; if it be so, I shall however hope, that I am

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not unpardonable, because I have still intended well to the good f the Publick ; every one I think defires to give their Children the best Education that they can; but the highest degree of Education is not always best: And I muft beg thy Pardon, if I do offend thee, in laying, That next to the bare Reading of English, the sending of Children to the Latin School, is not the best way of giving them Education, for if th

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that were granted, which I must deny, That the Latin and Greek Tongues were not only necessary for all Children whatloever, but also more easily learned, than the liberal Arts; yet Writing is so necessary to be first Learned, that it is almost impossible to attain the other without it.

And as Writing is very necessary in order to the Latin and Greek Tongues, so is it also necessary in order to the true Spelling and Understanding of the English, or any other Native Language; and indeed the Art of Grammar is the only One of the Seven, that claims a propriety in every Native Language: As for the other Arts, they are the same, in all Languages, the Rules of Arithme-, tick and Geometry, of Musick and Aftronomy, of Rietorick and In-

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[] gick, are in the General, as Intelligible in every Language, as in the Latin and Greek, or any other; and therefore to them, that have no other need of the Latin and Greek Tongues, than the Learning of these Arts, may, I conceive, spare that pains, and Learn them in their own Native Language, or as many of them, as will be thought useful for them, in their several Stations in the World. Again, these Arts are not only attainable in every Native Language, but more eafily attainable than the Latin and Greek Tongues are, to which some seem defirous to confine the Arts; and being so attained, do render other Languages more easie also.

For thefe, and the like Reasons, as I have already Published distinct Introductions to every Art, excer-

Mussick; for which I refer thee to Mr. Job. Playford's Introduction; fo now I have been eafily perfwaded, to give thee a short view of them altogether; he that defires more full Instruction, may peruse the feveral Tracts by me Written, in our own, or those that are Written by other Men in other Languages. The whole Building is but small, and therefore I will not make the Porch great, I have placed the Arts in that Order, in which, (with fubmission to better Judgments) I do conceive they should be learned: And although I cannot fay now, as I have in some of my Epistles preceding my former Tracts, that there is not so much as one Mathematical School in England, for now there is by the Bounty of King Charles the Second a fair one Erected in Christs Hospital, London, anđ

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and a worthy Master chosen to Manage it, by Name Mr. Edward Pagest, who is fo well known, that he needeth no Mans Commendations to express his VVorth; Yet thus much I still declare to be my opinion, That it is more proper, that the Latin School should be supplied with Scholars from the Mathematical, than that the Mathematical should be supplied from the Latin and Greek Schools: However by this means, I hope it will come to pass, that afterages will be supplied with that. Knowledge in Arithmetick, Geometry, and Aftronomy, which his therto our Writing-Masters have not been able to Teach, nor our Grammar Masters either able or willing to undertake; fo that in a Word, There are few School-Mafters that can Teach

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things: But yet amongst them, the well Accomplished Mr. John Col/on, now living in Goodmans-fields, with whom I have not had the happiness to be immediately Acquainted, yet Report hath rendred him to the World a worthy Master and Teacher of that Science. And there are not many Tutors in eicher of our Universiries that do; and yet the usefulness of these Arts cannot be denied, and therefore my hopes are, that fome Universal Encouragement will yet be given for the Teaching of them.

And could I be so happy, as to see something done in order to it, I should think my self abundantly fatisfied for all the Pains I have hitherto taken, and shall ever rest,

Thine and his Countrys Servant, JOHN NEWTON.

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## PREFACE

THE

#### OR,

## 1XTRODUCTION

## TO THE

## Arts and Sciences in the General.



If domi is the principal thing, and therefore faith Solomon, Get Wildom, and with all thy getring, get Understanding. Pro. 4.7. And what is meant by Wif-

dom, Holy Job tells us, Job 28. 28 Behold the Fear of the Lord, that is Wifdom, and to depart from Evil, that is Understanding. They who seek for this Wifd נן **ב** 

Wildom, are the only true Philosophers : for Philosophy is nothing elfe but the love of Wildom, and they who Fear God, and depart from Evil, are the lovers of that, which is only real and true Wildom: Now for as much, as we cannot be said to fear God, except we know him, Wildom may well be defined to be the Knowledge of God, and the things that are of him, the knowledge of things Divine and Humane, and this is commonly called Philosophy, but Somewhat improperly, for Philosophy is not properly the Knowledge it felf, but the love of that Knowledge; and what sever Art or Science doth conduce to this Knowledge, may le rightly and truly called Sophia, or Wifdoni; and because all Men should love such Knowledge and Delight in it, I shall not gainfay the general Name by which it is called, cuftom will have it fo, let it therefore be called Philosophy.

Sophia then, or Philosophia, Wildom, or the love of Wildom, is the Knowledge of all Arts and Sciences, which any way no conduce to the Knowledge of God: And because fome of them do there unto conduce

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more, fome lefs: Thefe arts may be diffinguifhed into two Sorts, Superiour and Inferiour.

The Superious Arts are four;

1. Theology or Divinity, whofe Subject is the Divine Effence.

2. Metaphylicks, otherwife called the first Philosophy, whose Subject is, Being in common, or Being as Being.

3. Phyficks, whofe Subject is the Knowledge of Natural Bodies, as they are Natural.

4. Ethicks, whofe Subject is Morality, or the Doctrine of Manners and Civil Honefly.

The Inferiour Arts are of two forts;

1. Internal or Liberal Arts, so called, because they are attained by the faculties of the Soul, which is a liberal or free agent, and not by the Labour or Ministry of the Hands; and these are seven:

Grammar, J. S. Aftronomy,
Arithmetick, S. C. Rhetorick,
Geometry, S. T. Logick.
Mulick, S. Mulick,

[] And these are the Subjects of this little Book.

2. The External or Mechanical and Manual Arts, so called, because they depend more upon the labour of the Body, than the Mind; such are the Arts of Tillage; Hunting, Fishing, Fowling, Weaving, and many more, not needful to be named, because no part of the ensuing Discourse.

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## CHAP. I.





Rammer is an ART which Teacheth how to Speak and Write truly.

The Parts thereof are Four, Letters, Syllables, Words, and Sentences.

A Letter is a Character, or Index, of a fimple found. And in the *English* Tongue there are Twenty four. The which Letters are diftinguished from one another, partly by their shapes, and partly by their sounds.

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In reference to their shapes, they are distringuished by three different Characters, the Roman, Italick, and black En lish.

And in each of these Characters there is the great and the small Letter.

In the Roman Character, the Great Letter is thus formed,

A, B, C, D; E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, V, W, X, Y, Z.

The finall thus,

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a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, f, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z.

The great and fmall Italick Letters are finade thus,

 $A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O_2$ P, Q, R, S, T, V, U, W, X, T, Z.a, b, c, d, e, f, g, b, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r,f, s, t, H, V, W, x, y, z.

The great and finall black English thus, A, B, C, A, C, f, C, P, J, B, L, M, P, D, P, D. R, S, A, M, M, F, P, Z, a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, ?, l, s, t, u, b, w, r, g, ?.

The great Letters are used in the beginning of proper Names, Emphatical words, Sentences, and Verses. The Letter I when it stands alone, is always written with a great Character. These

These Twenty and four Letters are divided into Vowels and Consonants.

A Vowel is a letter which maketh a full and perfect found of it felf, and they are five, *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, belides the Greek Vowel y.

A Confonant is a letter which maketh a found by help of a Vowel, and thefe are Eighteen, belides the letters *j*, *v*, and *y*, which fometimes are Confonants alfo.

Of the eighteen Confonants, fome are inutes, as these eight, b, c, d, g, k, p, q, andt. Some semi-Vowels, as these eight, f, l, m, n, r, s, x, and x, of which these four, l, m, n, r, are also called Liquids, x, and x, double Confonants, and the other two, h, and w, irregular Letters.

Some of these Letters, as well Vowels as Conforants, have founds very different from their common names. Thus the letter  $c_i$ , hefore  $e_i$ , and  $i_i$  is founded like  $f_i$ , but before a, o, u, it is founded like  $k_i$ , as in  $cat_i$ , cot, cut.

The Letter f, is fometimes founded according to its usual name, as when it follows a Vowel, as in if, of, effeminate, but when it begins a Word or Syllable, it is founded fee, as in feet, foolish.

The Letter g, before n, o, and n, is founded hard, thus, ghee, as in gad, God, gnt, but before e and i it is fometimes, but not always, founded according to its ulual tame gee, as in danger, ginger.

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The Letter b, is never founded according to its name ach, but thus, hee, as in band, help, bim.

The letters j and v, when they come before themselves, or any other Vowel in the fame Syllable, become Confonants, and have different founds from their usual names, j is pronounced like g foft, thus ji is pronounced like gi, in ginger, v is pronounced vee, or vu, as in vanish, vine; and when they are thus founded, their shape is also changed, and hence fome would have them to be diffinct letters, and would have the number of our letters to be not 24. but 26.

The Liquids *l*, *m*, *n*, and *r*, when they begin a Word or Syllable, are founded thus, *lee*, *mee*, *ree*, as in *light*, *mind*, *need*, *read*.

The letter q, hath always n after it, to help its found, but is not to be founded according to its name en, but que, as in question.

ding to its name ex, but que, as in queftion. The letter f, when it begins a word or Syllable is to be founded thus; fee, as in fud, feerer, but in the end of a word, or between two Vowels or Dipthongs, it hath for the most part the found of z, as in easie, befom.

The letter t before i, if another Vowel followeth, hath the found of *f*, as in *Egyptian*, *patience*; but when it followeth *f* or *x*, it hath its own proper found, as in *beftial*, *mixtion*.

The letter w, hath its name from its fhape, being composed of twice u, it is called double u; but is in no case so founded, but we, as in wall, well, will, Deniese Google

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The letter x, when it begins a word or Syllable, is founded thus, see, as in Nerses; in other cafes thus, ex, or ces.

The letter y hath by no means its found according to its usual name wi, but when it begins a word or Syllable, and so becomes a Consonant, it is sounded yee; when it comes in the middle or end of a word, it is sounded like *i* Vowel, as in my, thy.

The letter z is to be founded zre, as in Zeal.

A Syllable is a literal or articulate Voice of one individual found.

Syllables are of two forts, improper and proper.

An improper Syllyble is made of one or more Vowels without a Confonant; as a-ny, e-vil, *A*-neas, Oe-dipus.

A Proper Syllable is the comprehension of one or more Confonants, with one or more. Vowels, in one found or breath; as Gennera-ti-on, Moun-tain, and in our English Tongue doth fometimes consist of eight letters, as firength.

When two Vowels are joyned together in one found or breath, they are called Dipthongs; of which there are two forts, Proper and Improper.

Of proper Dipthongs, there are these eight, ai, ei, oi, au, eu, ou, ee, and oo.

The first fix are fometimes written thus, sy, cy, oy, aw, ew, ow.

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Of improper Dipthongs there are but these three, ea, oa, and ic.

The two Vowels which make a Dipthong, are for the most part to be sounded together, as in Faith, neither, Eunuchy but in thefe words, Lany, Mafaick work, Deity, Atheift, moity, doing, reenter, reiterate, and fuch like; and in most Proper Names in the Bible they are to be founded feverally.

The Improper Dipthongs ea, and or, are founded together, except in these words, beaustude, Creator, creation, real, theatre, and most proper names of Women, Cities, and Countries; but the two Vowels in this Dipthong ei, are ufually parted, except in these two words, friend, grief, and when they come in the end of a word, as in mercie, charitie, and fach like.

An English syllable, though it may consist of eight letters, yet doth it never begin with more than two Nowels before a Confonant, of three Confonants bef. re a Vowel or Dipthong.

The two Confonants which may begin an English word or fyllable, are these thirty, Bl, br, cb, cl, cr, dr, dw, fl, fr, gl, gn, gr, km, pl, pr, fc, fh, sk, fp, fl, fm, fn, fq, fir, th, tr, tn, wh, and wr.

And the three Confonants that may begin an English word, are these nine, Sch, for, for, sky, fpl, fpr, ftr, thr, thw. In the founding of the Confonants, which

are joyned together in the beginning of zword, there is no difficulty, but in thefe few, cb, gb, and cb.

The letters cb, when they come before a Vowel in a pure English word, they are to be founded as in *chance*, *cheap*; and when they come after a Vowel, they are to be founded, as in ach, reach, rich. But in words derived from the Greek and Hebrew, they are to be founded like k, as in *character*, these few only excepted, Rachel, Chernbin, Tychicm, Arch-Bishop, Arch-Duke, Architett, Archenemy, Arch-pirat.

The letters gh, in the beginning of a word, are to be founded like g hard, as in ghoft, ghefs, in the middle of a word, they are either not founded at all, or but fortly, as in might, light, and in the end of a word they have the found of ff, as cough, tough.

These letters th, in words of one fyllable, and in words of more than one, ending in ther, thed, theth, thest, thing, they have the sound of d, in other words the sound of t<sub>3</sub> or the Greek Thua.

The letters pb, never begin a pure English word, but fuch only as are derived from the Greek and Hebrew, as Pharifee, Pharez, Epitaph, and in these they are founded like f. The Liquids, l, m, n, r, when another Confonant doth precede them in the beginning or middle of a word, do retain their own found, but in the end of a word, though B 4

the Vowel e, ought to be written, yet in the pronounciation, you must ftop at the two Confonants, and omit the Vowel; for Example, fable, acre, uncle, must be pronounced as though they were written thus, fab', acr, uncl.

#### CHHP. II.

#### Of Words.

A Word, is fuch a comprehension of letters and fyllables, as helpeth Man-kind to express their minds to one another.

There are eight kinds of Words, or parts of Speech, Noun, Pronoun, Verb, Participle, Adverb, Conjunction, Preposition, Interjection.

A Noun, is the name of a Person or Thing; as, an Author, a Book, learned, guilded.

Of Nonns, fome be Substantives, and some be Adjectives.

A Nonn Substantive, is a Word, that fignifieth fomething, and may have the fign (4) or (the) before it; as, a Man, the Book,

A Neux Adjutive, is a Word, that cannot fignifies, thing of it felf; as, good, bad.

There are two forts of Nouns Subfrantives.

A Noun Substanive proper, and a Noun Substantive common.

A Noun fulftantive proper, is a Noun that is proper to the perfon or thing, that it betokeneth; as, Henry, England.

A Noun substantive common, is a Noun common to all things of the fame kind; as, a Man, a Land, an Angel.

To a Noun there doth belong two things, number and comparison.

There be two Numbers, the fingular 22d the plural; the Singular number speaketh but of One; as a Man, a Book, a Scone. The Plural number speaketh of more than One, as, Men, Books, Scones.

Nouns substantive of the singular number, are turned into the plural, by adding unto them s or es, as web, webs, robe, robes, Church, Churches, hedge, hedges. Some Nouns of the singular number ending in f, being plurals, do change f imo v, as, beef, beeves, calf, calles. And fome are made plurals, by adding of en or ren ; as, Ox, oxen, chick, chicken, brother, brotheren, or by contraction, brethren, child, children; of Man is formed mannon, or men, boufe, boufer, bofe, bofen; to which may be added, mouse, mice, louse, lice, die, dice, saw, Saine, cow, kine, peney, pence, goofe, geefe, cooth. teerb, foor, jeer ; these two, Sheep and Mile, are both fingular and plural; as, one sheep, ten sheep, one mile, ten mile or niles.

Other variation of Nouns we have none in the English Tongue; all other distinctions are made by these Articles and Prepolitions; , of, to, the, o, and in, or from, &c.

Nouns that fignifie the Male-kind, we call Aces; Juch as fignifie the Female, we call forest by Google flues; and of fuch as fignific neither, we fay it; as,  $E \int au$  could not obtain his Fathers bleffing, though he fought it, with tears: *Jexabel* was a wicked woman, for the flew the Lord's Prophets.

Comparison belongeth only to Nouns Adje-Eves, whose fignificatoin may be increased, or diminished.

Positive, Comparative, and the Superlative.

The Positive degree setteth down the quality of a thing absolutely without excess, as bord, saft, swift.

The Comparisone degree raileth the fignification of the Positive, in comparison of some other, as barder, softer, swifter.

The Superlative exceedeth his positive in the highest degree, as hardest, fofteft, friftoft.

Adjustives are compared in the English . tongue, either by the figns more and most, or by the terminations er, and est, as hard, barder, or more bard, bardest, or most bard.

Some Adjettives are compared irregularly; as, Good, bestor, best; bad, worse, worst, direlo, less, least.

### CHAP. III.

#### Of a Prononn.

Preneum is a part of Speech, much like to Noum; implying a Perfon, and not admitting the lign a or the, before it. There

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There are twelve Pronouns, I, Thou, He, who, which, that, the fame, my, thy, this, bis, whofe.

Of Pronques, some be primitives, and some derivatives.

Pronoun primatives are of three forts, Perfonal, Relative, and Demonstrative.

There are three Pronoun performels, I, Thom, and He.

Pronoun Relatives, are likewise three, who, which, and that.

Pronoun Demonstratives, are these two, shis, the same.

Pronoun Derivatives, are these four, my, thy, his, whose. All which with their variations, are expressed in the following. Type.

Poffeffives.

1. Person. { Sing. } I, me, my, mine. Plur. We, us, our, ours.

2. Perfon. Sing. Sthou, thee, thy, thine. Plar. Ye, you, your, yours.

2. Person Sing. SFew. the, him, his. mich. it, its. Splur. they, them, their, theirs

Relatives. To perf. J who, whom, whole. To thing. L what, whereof.

Own is a Noun adjective, and felf, or felves, a Substansive, but are sometimes joyned to, or compounded with the Pranouns; as, my felf, thy felf, themsfelves, his own felf, their own felves.

This word where, with certain Prepositions following it; as, about, at, by, in, of, unto, with, hath the lignification of which as, wherein, or in which. And these words, here, there, and in like manner used for, this, that; as, herewith, therewith, for with this, with that.

#### CHAP. IV.

## Of a Verb and Participle.

A Verb is a part of Speech, that joyneth the Signification of other words together.

There are three kinds of Verbs, Active, Paffive, and Neuter.

A Verb Active, is a Verb that betokeneth doing, as, I love.,

A Verb lassive, is a Verb which betokeneth suffering, as I am loved.

A Verb Neuter, is a Verb which betokeneth being, as I am.

Four things belong to a Verb, Mood, Tenfe, Number and Perfon,

There are four Moods, the Indicative, the

13

Imperative, the Potential, and the Infinitive. The Indicative either sheweth a reason true or talke, as I lave, or asketh a Question, as, dost thou love.

There Imperative Mood, intreateth, permitteth, or commandeth, as love be, or les him love.

The Potential Mood, fignifieth a power, duty, or defire, and hath one of these Signs, may, can, might, would, floadd, could, or angle, as I may or can love.

The Infinitive Adood, notes no certain Number or Person, but followeth another Verb, or an Abjective, and hath commonly this Sign (to) before it, as I defire to learn, worthy to be praifed.

The Tenses or distinctions of Time, are five, The Prefent Tense, the Preterimperset Tense, the Preterperset Tense, the Preterplugerset Tense, and the Future Tense.

These Tinfes in respect of lignification, are thus diffinguished; in the Indianing Mond, do is the fign of the Prefent Tenfe, did of the preterimperfect Tenfe, have of the Preterperfect, badoof the Preterpluperfect, shall and mill of the Future,

In the Potential Mood, by the figns already given, the Prefent Tenfe by the figns may or can, the Preterimperfect would, footid, could, or ought, and the Preterperfect, by annexing the fign have to the former Signs, and the Future, by adding hareafter to the figns

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figns of may or can, the Signs of the Prefent; as, I may or can hereafter, the Preterpluperfect in this Mood is wanting in the English Tongue.

But in respect of Termination, there are no Moods but one, no Tenses but two, namely, the Present, and Preterimperfect Tenses.

And the Preterimperfect Tenfe is formed from the Prefent, by adding thereto the termination (ell) and in fome few the termination (en) as of love is formed loved, of fall, fallen.

The Perfons in every Tenfe are diffinguifhed by the perfonal Pronouns, *I*, *Thom*, and *He*, in the Singular Number, and *We*, *T*., *They*, in the Plural; only the Second Perfon Singular in the Prefent and Preterimperfect Tenfes is formed from the first, by adding thereto the Termination *est*, as of *love*, *lovest*, of *loved*, *lovedst*; and the Third Perfon Singular in the Prefent Tenfe is formed from the First, by adding thereto the Termination (*etb*) as of *love* is formed *loves*. other variations of Perfons or Tenfes there is none, but what is done by Signs, as was faid before.

A Verb Altive then is thus formed in the Indjentive Mood

Present Tense.

Sing. Love, loveft, loveth. Plur. Love, Infinitive, To love.

Preterimperfeit Tense. Sing. Loved, lovedst, loved. Plural. Loved.

This Verb Neuter, Am or Be is thus formed.

In the Prefent & Am, art, is, Plur. Are. Tenfe. S Be, beeft, be S Plur. Bee. In the Preserim- Was, wall, was, Plural. perfect Tenfe. S Were, wert, were, S Were. Infinitive. To be.

A Verb Passive, is the fame throughout all Moods and Tenfes, with a Verb Neuter, the Preserimperfett Tenfe of the Active Voice, being added thereunto; Thus the Passive Voice of this Verb Active, I love, is formed, by adding loved to all the Tenfes and Perfons of this Verb Neuter, I am.

For Example.

The Present Tense of the Indicative Mood is thus formed,

I am loved, Thou art loved, He is loved. We are loved, They

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A Participle is a part of Speech, derived of a Verb, from which it bath Signification, of Time prefent, paft, or to come.

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There are two Parriciples, one of the Active, and another of the Passive Voice.

The Participle of the Active Voice is derived from its Verb, by adding the Termination (ing) to the Prefere Tenfe; as of love, loving.

The Participle of the Passive Voice is for fie most part, the same with the Preterimperfect Tense of the Active; as the Parsiciple of the Passive Voice in this Verb love is tourd:

From this General Rule many Verbs are

•••		Exactica	
Make ]	( 1	Fmade	stake, took, taken
lead		led	shake, shook, shaken.
bereave		bereft	feeth, sod, sodden
fmell		fmelt	thear, thore, thorn
feek	ued.	fought	rife, rose, risen
befeech	>.5<	befought	give, gave, given
think	12	thought	strive, strove, striven
work	1	wrought	ling, lang, lung
buy		bought	know, knew, known
grinde		ground	throw, threw, thrown
ftand j	ļ	ftood	go, went, gone,

Of these, see more in my School Pastime.

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CHAP.

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Of Advert's, Contactions, Prepoficious, and Interjections.

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CHAP.

A N Adverb is a Word joyned to a Verb or Nonn, to declare their Signification. Some of Time, as when, now, then, to day. Some of Number, as, haw off, once, twice. Some of Order, as, first, next, afterward, Some of Place, as where, here, there. Some of Affirming, as, yea, perhaps. Some of Denying, as, no, not. Some of Shewing, as, lo, behold. Some of Similitude, as, fo, how much, more. A Conjanttion is a part of Speech, which joyneth Words and Sentences together, of which thefe are fome. And, alfo, likewife, nor,

neither, whether, or, cither, but, for, &c.

A Preposition, is a Word commonly set before other parts of Speech, either in apposition, as before the Master, or in composition, as overwise.

An Interjection is a Word, expressing some fuddain passion of the Mind, ob, alass, O strange, bo, bark, sirrab.

#### CHAP. VI.

#### Of Dividing of Words into Sylables,

**F**Or the dividing of Words into Syllables there are four Rules.

1. Two Vowels which make no Dipthong, must be divided; as, ie, in, na; as in qui-et, tri-umph, mutu-al.

2. Those Confonants which are doubled in the middle of a Word, must be divided; as in Abba, accord, adder.

Except they be needlefly doubled, as in words of the Plural Number; as in crabbs, rodds.

Except fuch words in which they are doubled for diffinction fake; as in the words, Ann, Cann, Inn.

3. Rule. When a Confonant cometh between two Vowels, it is to be joyned to the latter; as in *a*-vail, *a*-ni-mate.

But to this Rule there are four Exceptions r. Except Words ending in es, as in Nouns, of the Plural Number, and Verbs of the third perfon Singular, in which this particle is for the most part swallowed up, in the former Syllable; but in all proper Names, except Charles and James, it makes a distinct Syllable.

2. Except Words that are compounded of fuch Simple Words, as are fignificant a-

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part, in which each Simple Word must retain its own letters; as, Tradef-man, fafegnard, hence-forth.

3. Except Derivative Words, whole addition to the Primitive, doth fignific nothing of it felf, in which the Primitive must be founded by it felf, and the addition by it felf; as, hope-lefs, lov-ing, joyn-ing, and fuch like.

4. Except fuch Words in which x cometh between two Vowels, in which it must be joyned to the first Vowel; as, ox-en, exercife.

5. Rule. Any two or three Confonants, which may be joyned together in the beginning of a word, are not to be feperated in the middle; as in *a-gree*, befrow, en-thrall; defiruction; but in compounded words, each fimple word must retain its own Letters.

When you are to write any hard long word, mark how many founds or Syllables it hath, as if you were to write di dainfullnefs, mniverfalisse, or the like, before you write it, fay thus to your felf; dif-daim-full-nefs, w-ni-ver-fa-listic, and you shall hardly miss is the writing thereof.

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CHAP.

20

#### CHAP. VII.

Of Sentences, and fuch Diffinctions, or Points as are to be used in Writing, and obforved in Reading.

A Sentence, is a number of words, joyned together in perfect Sense.

The Stops or Points to be observed in Sentences, are of two forts, Primary, and Secundary.

The Primary Points are these Eight.

1. A Comma, made with a little stroke thus(2)

2. A Colon, made with two points thus . (:)

3. A Semi-colon, made with a point, and a little troke under it thus (;)

4. A Period, made with a fingle point thus

5. An Erstefis or Interrogation, made in this manner (?)

6. An Esphonefis, or note of Admiration, note note is a perpendicular right line, with a point under it thus (!)

7. A Parenthefis, is a note, like two half Moons, inclosing a fentence, which may be used or omitted, and yet the sense remain insire, thus ()

21

8. A Parathefis, is a note, which doth include a word which is opposed to another word, and is made with two Semiguadrats, thus []

#### The Secondary Points are thefe fix.

1. An Apostrophe, which is a note, set on the top or fide of a Letter, whereby two Syllables are contracted into one, and is made like a Comma, thus (?) as it's for it is.

2. An Eclipsis, which is a note cutting off one or more words in the beginning or ending of a Verse or Sentence, cited in our Writing, and is made with a long ftroke thus —— as

Who fleep themselves, and trust their servants (Eyes.

3. A Dierefis, which is a note for the parting of two Vowels, which otherwhie might feem to make a Dipshong, and is made with two pricks over the two Vowels, thus, ("] as in Laïs.

4. An Hyphen, which is a note of continuation, made thus (-) and is to be ufed when one part of a word concludeth the former line, and the cher part beginneth the next; or elfe, when two words are, by way of Elegency, as it were

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joyne

22 The English Structure. joyned into one; as felf-love, for the love of onessielf.

5. An Accent which is a fmall flroak drawn flopewife towards the left-hand, thus, (') and is to be fet over that Syllable in a word, which is to be pronounced long.

6. A Circumflex, which is the joyning together of two oblique fireaks into one figure, one of them being made towards the right liand, and the other towards the left, and is to be fet over a Vowel, thus, (2) which is to be pronounced long, as in bite, wile, frile, not in bit, will, fill.

The Accent in words of many fyllables is commonly placed on the third Vowel from the last; as in coleration, industry.

But words ending in (ary) have the accent on the first fyllable; as temporary; words that have many Confonants in the last fyllable; lave one, have their accent on that fyllable; as in eternal; words ending in ire and wre, have their accent in that fyllable; as indire.

A Noun hath its accent in the urft, a Verb hithe laft lyllable; as absent, to absent.

So Humane, when it comes before a Sub-Ann lige, as humane-learning; but in the laft Tyllab. 's when it comes after a Subflantive, as Chrip had gue natures, the one divine, the other hum life. THE
THE ENGLISH A CADEMY. The SECOND PART.

23

# OF ARITHMETICK.

#### CHAP, I.

Of single Arithmetick in mhole Numbers

Automerick is the art of accompting by Numbers; it is either polarie of mgative.

2. Politive Arithmetick, is that which is wrought by certain and infallible Numbers at first proposinded, and this is other flugle or comparative.

3. Single, which is wrought by Numbers, ronfidered alone, without relation to one another, and this either in whole. Numbers, prin Fractions: Despects Google 2 4. The 4. The parts of fingle Arithmetick, are two, Notation and Numeration.

Notation hath two parts; the first sheweth the value of the Notes, by which all numbers are expressed; the second sheweth how to read the Numbers which are expressed by those notes.

6. The Notes or Characters, by which all Numbers are usually expressed are these, 1. one, 2. two, 3. three, 4. four, 5. five, 6. fix, 7. feven, 8. cight, 9. mine, 0. nothing.

7. These notes are either significant Figures, or a Cypher.

8. The fignificant Figures, are the first nine, viz. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9. The first whereof is more particularly termed an un nite or unitie, the rest are faid to be compofed of unities; fo 2, is composed of two unites 3, of three unites, &c.

9. The Cypher, though it fignific nothing of it felf, yet being fet before or after any of the reft, increase or decrease that their value, as shall be farther shewed hereafter.

10. The second part of Notation, is the reading of the Number expressed by these notes; and this is done by distinguishing the Number given into Degrees and Periods.

11. The degrees are three, the first is that first place of a number towards the right hand, and is the place of Unity. The second is the second Figure towards the right hand, and this is the place of Tens. The third is the third

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third Figure towards the right hand, and is the place of Hundreds; fo this Character 9, doth fignific Nine; these Notes 27, Twenty seven; and these 235, Two hundred thirty five.

12. A Period, is when a number confifting of more notes than three, hath each three notes thereof (beginning at the right hand) diftinguished by Points or Commas: The feveral parts of the Numbers fo diftinguished, are called Periods; fo the Number 38156249. being diftinguished into Periods, will fand thus, 38.156.249. of which the first Period is read thus, Two hundred forty nine; the first Figure in the second Period is the place of Thousands, the second Tens of Thousands, and the third Hundredsof Thousands. In the third Period, the Figure is in the place of Millions, the fecond Tens of Millions, and fo this Number is thus to be read. Thirty Eight Millions, One Hundred Fifty Six Thoufand, Two Hundred Forty Nine.

13. Numeration, is that which by certain known Numbers propounded, doth difcover another Number unknown.

14. Numeration hath four Species; Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication, and Division.

15. Addition, is that by which divers numbers are added together, to the end that the Sum or Total may be difcovered. For which purpose, having placed the numbers as in the following Example, begin with those in the Unity

Using place first, then with these in the place of Time, then of Hundreds, and so forward, according as the Numbers given do confist of places, carrying the Tens, if there be any, to the place of the next greater rank, as here you see.

472961		3814527
341608	-	4567890
7-1.325		6549238
6739		5 816365
	1.	

895633

Ż

15748020

16. Subtraction is that, by which one number is taken out of another, so that the Refidue or remainder may be known. To perform this, you must rank your Numbers, and begin as in Addition; and in case any of the figures of the Number to be subtracted shall be greater than that, from whence the Subtraction is to be made, you must borrow one from the next place above it; as in the Examples following.

899633 341695		6549238 3814527
	 •	

#### 553938

2734711

17. Multiplication, is that by which we Multiply two numbers, the one by the other, to the end, that their Product maybe diffeovered.

18. Muitiplication hath three Parts, the Multiplicand, the Multiplicator, and the Product.

19. Multipli-

# The Loglish Scevenny.

19. Multiplication, is fingle or compound. 20. Single Multiplication, is when the Multiplication, is when the Multiplicator, do each of them confift of one only Figure; as if a waregiven to be Multiplied by 6, 9 is the Multiplicand, 6 is the Multiplicator, and 54 is the Products

21. Compound Multiplication, is when the Multiplicator and Multiplicand do either, or both confift of more Figures than one.

22. When the Product of any of the particular Figures shall exceed on, place the Exons under the Line, and for every tea that it fo exceeds, keep in mind one to be added to the next rank : Example; 76147, being to be Maleiplied by 9, the Product is 180739, and 3 side4, being given to be Multiplied by 47, the work will ftand as in the Margin, where the Product by 7 277438 is 277438, and the Product 198536 thereof by 4, is 198536, and the Sum of these two Products 1862798.

23. Division is that by which we discover how often one Number is commined in another, that we may find out the Quotient.

24. Division hath three Parts, the Dividend, the Division, and the Quotient; thus, if 35 were given to be Divided by 5, 35 is the Dividend, 5 the Division, and 7 will be found to be the Quotient. E 2 25. In

28 -

23.In Division, make a crooked line at each end of your Dividend, that on the left hand ferving for your Divisor, and that on the right for the Quotient; then see how of your Divifor is contained in the first Figure or Figures of your Dividend, and put the answer in the Quesient, then Multiply your Divisor by the Figure in the Quotient, and the Product fubtract from your Dividend, then draw down the next Figure of your Dividend, and ask how off your Divisor may be found in the remainer fo increased, & the answer put in the Quotient, and proved as before, till there be no Figures left in your Dividend, and fo oft as the Question is repeated, fo many places must be in the Quotient, as is manifest by the following Example,

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Let

Let 1862798, be given to be divided by 47, I ask how often 47 may be had in 186? the Answer is 3, which I place in the Quotient, then I Multiply 47 by 3, the Product is 141, which being Subtracted from 186, the Remainer is 45, to which draw down 2 the next Figure in the Dividend, and then it will be 452, now then I ask how often 47 may be had in 452? the which by the Table made by the continual Addition of 47 unto it felf, is 9 times, therefore I place 9 in the Quotient, and the Product of 47 is 423, which being Subtracted from 452, the Remainer is 29, to which I draw 7 the next Figure, and then proceed as before, and fo at last 1 find the Questient to be 39634.

25. Multiplication and Division, prove one another, for if you Multiply the Questions by the Division, the Product will be equal to the Dividend: 10 39634, being Multiplied by 47, the Product is 1862798, and this Product being Divided by 47, the Questions is 39634.

29

HAP.

#### CHAP. IL

#### Of Single Arithmetick in Fractions.

Single Arithmetick in whole Numbers, hath been shewed in the last Chapter; Single Arithmetick in Fractions now followeth.

2. A Fraction is a part of an Integer.

3. Single Arithmerick in Fractions, doth alto confilt of two Parts, Notasion, and Numeration.

4. Notation of Fractions, is that which fheweth how the Fraction part of any Integer may be expressed in numbers; that is, an Integer on one whole thing being Divided into any Number of equal parts, Notation fleweth how these parts may be express fed ; as if a Yard were Divided into four parts, and it were defired, that I should fet down three of these parts ; the usual manner is thus, draw a line, & fet the Number of parts into which the Integer is supposed to be divided, under the line, and the Number of parts you would express fet above the line; thus to express three of four parts, I write 4 under a line, and 3 above it, thus, ‡; and fo may you do with any other number propounded: Where note, that the number above the line is called the Numerator, and the number under the line the Denominator.

5. A Fraction is either Proper or Improper. 6. A

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10

• 6. A Proper Fraction is that whose Numerator is less than the Denominator, such as are these  $\frac{1}{2}$   $\frac{1}{2}$   $\frac{1}{2}$   $\frac{1}{2}$ .

7. A Proper Praction is eisher fingle or compound.

8. A Single Fraction is that which confifts of one Numerator and one Denominator, a fuch as are  $\frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{7^{\frac{1}{2}}} \frac{1}{7^{\frac{1}{2}}} \frac{1}{7^{\frac{1}{2}}}$ .

9. A Compound Fraction (otherwife called a Fraction of a Eraction) is that which hath more Numerators and more Denominators than one, which kind of Fractions are difcoverable by this word (of) which is interposed between their parts; as,  $\frac{2}{3}$  of  $\frac{1}{4}$  is a Fraction of a Fraction, or a Compound Fraction, and expredict two thirds of three fourths.

10. The things expressed by broken numbers or Fractions, are principally the Parts or Fractions of Money, Weight, Measure, Time, and things accounted by the Dozen.

11. The least part or Fraction of Money used in England is a Farthing; and four Farthings makes a Peny; twelve Pence, a Shilling; and twenty Shillings, one Pound Sterling.

12. The leaft Fraction of weight used in England, is a Grain; that is, the weight of a Grain of Wheat, well dryed and gather'd out of the middle of the Ear, whereof 32 make a peny weight, and twenty peny weight an ounce Troy, and twelve ounces a Pound; but

a peny weight being thus afcertained, it is now subdivided into twenty four Grains. 13. The weights used by Apothecaries are derived from a Pound Troy, which is Inbdivided in this manner.

the A Pound Troy, is ----- 12 Ounces.

An Ounce, is —— 8 Drams.
A Dram, is —— 3 Scruples.
A Scruple, is —— 20 Grains.

14. Befides Troy weight, there is another kind of weight used in England, called Averdupois weight, a Pound whereof is equal to fourteen Ounces, twelve peny weight Troy, the which is fubdivided into 16 Ounces, each Ounce into 16 Drams, and each Dram into 4 Quarters. Of this weight 112 makes a Hundred.

15. The Measures used in England are of Capacity or Length.

16. The Measures of Capacity are liquid or dry; Liquid Measures are according to this Table.

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One

# The Kaglifa Monteiny.

One pound of Wheat	One Pint.
Two Pints	One Quart.
Two Quarts	One Pottle.
Two Pottles	One Gallon.
Eight Gallons	One Firkin of Ale.
Nine Gallons	One Firkinof Beer.
Two Firkins	One Kilderkin.
Two Kilderkins	One Barrel.
Forty two Gallons	One Tearce of wine
Sixty three Gallons	One Hogshead.
Two Hogheads	One Pipe or But
Two Pipes	One Tun.

17. Dry Measures are those in which all kind of dry substances are Meted; as Grain, Sea-coal, Salt, and the like; their Table is this that followeth.

Cone Pint.
One Quart.
One Pottle.
One Gallon.
One Peck.
1 Buffel land meafure.
1 Bulhel water measures
One Quarter.
One Chaldron.
One Wey.

äG

18, Long

18. Long Measures are expressed in the Table following,

34

ThreeBarley-corns One Inch. in length One Foot. Twelve Inches One Yard. Three Foot One Ell. ThreeFoot 9Inches One Fathom Six Foot Five yards & a half One pole or pearch. Forty Poles One Furlong. One English Mile. **Eight Furlongs** 

Note that a Yard, as also an Ell is usually subdivided into four quarters, and each quarter into four Nails.

19. A Table of Time is this that followeth.

Sixty Minutes Twenty four hours Seven Days Four Weeks Fifty two Weeks, one Day, and fix hours

make one Year.

And these Fractions of Money, Weight, Measure, Gr. are usually written under thein several Denominations, instead of having their Denominators written under them thus;

pence.

**68.** 

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farth.

And

lib.

231

hill.

19.

And as their Notation is two-fold, fo is their Numeration also, First, then I will shew you the Numeration of parts when written, as Integers, and then as vulgar fractions.

20. Numeration of parts when written, as Integers, is Accidental or Essential.

21. Accidental Numeration, otherwife called Reduction, is either defcending or afeending.

22. Reduction Defcending, is when a number of greater Denomination being given, it is required, to find how many of a leffer denomination, are equal in value to that given Number of the greater. And this is performed by Multiplication; as if it were required to Reduce 329 Shillings into Pence, if you Multiply 329 by '20, the number of fhillings in a pound, the Product will be 6580 fhillings; and 6580 fhillings being multiplied by 12, the number of pence in a fhilling; the Product will be 78960 pence.

23. Reduition Afcending, is when a number of a leffer Denomination being given, it is required, to find how many of a greater Denomination, are equal to that given number of the leffer: And this is done by Divifion; as if it were required to find how many. Pounds there were in 78960 pence; if 78960 pence be divided by 12, the number of pence in a thilling, the Quotient will be 6580 Shillings, and if 6580 fhillings be divi-G 2 det

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35

36

ded by 20, the number of failings in a pound, the Quotient will be 329 Pounds, and to for any other.

24. Effential Numeration, doth confift of four Species, Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication, and Division.

25. In Addition of Numbers of feveral Denominations, you must begin with the least first, and when the fuer of any of the Denominations amounts to an Integer, add it to the next Denomination that is greater.

113	:	<b>00</b> :	Ø2 :	3	69:	08.1	10
44	•	19:	97:	3 .	18:	15 :	07
27	:	09:	11:	<b>. 1</b> . j.	17:	16	60
16	:	15/:	09:	2.	16:	37 3	90
23	;	14 :	10 ;	. <b>1</b> 15 - 14	15 1	18	10
1	÷	·	•		•		

Example.

26. In Subtrattion of Numbers of feveral Denominations, when any of the parts of the greater Number are lefs than the parts of the leffer Number fubferibed, Deduct the parts of the leffer Number from the parts of the greater, increased with an Integer, of the next fuperiour Denomination, and keeping one in mind, add to the next place of the pumber given to be Supersited.

> **Example** Digitized by Google

#### The English Measury.

Example.

44:13:07:1 69:08:09 25:19:11:3 42:19:11

18 2 13 8 070: 2 10 26 208 : 08

27. In Multiplication of numbers of feveral Denominations, you mult first reduce the numbers given to their least Denominations and then Multiply them as both been showed in whole numbers, the Product divided by the Square of the parts of an Integer, reduced to the least Denomination, shall in the Quotiont give the Product required.

Example.

Let the Product of 17 1. 19 s. 6 d. by 51. 13 s. 6 d. be required. 17 L. 19 s. 6 d. being reduced to make 4314 Pence. And of bh 5 s. 6 directiced do make 1362 Pence.

> > The

The Multiplicand, 43 14 The Multiplicator. 1362

The Product. 5875668

The number of pence in 2 pound are 240, and the square thereof is 57600, by which dividing 5875668 the Quotient; 302 lib. 00 shill as peny. 3 farthings, and  $\frac{46}{37}\frac{60}{60}$  is the Quotient fought.

28. In Division of numbers of feveral Denominations, first reduce your Divisor to its inumber of parts in the least Dehomination, then Multiply your Dividend, by the fquare of the parts in an Integer reduced to the least Denomination, & if there, be any parts annexed, to the Integers of then Dividend, they must be reduced to the highest Fraction, that the square of the parts in an Integer reduced to its least denomination will bear, and added to the former Product, the whole being divided by your divisor reduced, will give you the Quotient fought.

Example.

States, all a er

Let 1021: cd: ot: 3  $\frac{4424}{5}$  be given to be divided by  $\varsigma: 13:6$ . First I reduce the divifor given to its number of parts in the least denomination, and it makes 1362 peace, then I Multiply 102 the Integral part of my dividend, by  $\varsigma76co$ , the square of pence in a pound, the Product is  $\varsigma8752$ , and the Fraction of my dividend 00: 01: 3  $\frac{46}{5}$  being reduced, is  $\frac{1}{5756}$ , which being added to the former Product  $\varsigma8752$ , the sum is  $\varsigma875668$ , for the dividend.; which being divided by 1362,

1362, the Quotient is 4314 pence, that is 17 lib. 19 shill. 6 pence.

29. Numeration of Fractions, when written with their Numerators and Dehominators, is also Accidental and Elfentral.

30. Accidental Numeration, otherwise called Reduction, is three-fold.

1. To Reduce one Fraction which is not already in its leaft terms, to a leffer denomination.

To do this, divide the numerator and denominator by their greatell common meafure, the two Quotients'shall be one of them, a new numerator, and the other a new denominator of a Fraction equal to the Fraction given, and in its least terms.

Example 717 being given to be Reduced, the greatest common measure is 13, by which dividing 91, the Quotient is 7, for a new numerator, and dividing 117 by 13, the Quotient is 9 for a new denominator, and for 117 is reduced to  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

The greatest common measure between two numbers is found thus; divide the great ter number by the lefs, and your divisor by the Remainer, if there be any, your last divisor is the common measure lought, as in the following Example.

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91)

# The English Seaderny.

1) 117 (1

26) 91 78

2. To Reduce many Fractions of divers. Denominations into one Denomination.

13) 26 (2

To do this, Multiply each Numerator by all the Denominators except its own, the Products shall be the new Numerators, then, Multiply all the Denominators together, and the Product shall be the common Denominator fought.

· Example. 3 3 9 will be reduced to 3

3 To Reduce any Fraction from one Denomination, to any other Denomination defired. And to do this Multiply the Numerator given, by the Denominator required, & divide the Product by the Denominator given, the Quotient shall be the Numerator defired.

Example, let it be defired to Reduce  $\frac{1}{20}$  to a Fraction, whofe Denominator shall be 100, first Multiply 17 by 100, the Product is 1700 which being divided by 20, the Quotient is

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85,

#### Ebe : Englift Stademe

85, for the new Numerator defired of 31. Effectial Numeration of Fractions: hath four Species, Advision, Subdullion, Multiplication and Division.

32. In Addition of Fractions, the Fraction and given multipe first Reduced to one Des nomination, and then add the Numeratoria together, fo have you the Sam of the Fra-Rion, fo 2 and 2 make 3.

33- Subtraction of Fractions is thus, if off one Depomination, deduct the bis from the greater, their difference is the remainer, for a taken from 3 reft 5.

34. Multiplication of Fractions, is thus, Multiply all the Numeratorstogether, fo is their Product a new Numerator, then Multiply all the Denominators together, and their Product is a new Denominator.

Thus if 72 and 3 were to be Multiplied, the Product will be 32.

35. Druifion of Fractions is thus, Multiply the Numerator of the dividend by the denominator of the dividen, the Product shall be a new Numerator; also Multiply the numerator of the divisor, by the denominator of the dividend, fo shall the Product be a new denominator, and this new Fraction is the quotient fought; fo if  $\frac{1}{2}$  were to be divized by  $\frac{1}{2}$ , the Product will be  $\frac{2}{2}$ .

36. When the denominator of a Fraction is an Unite with Cypners, the Fraction is more particularly called a Decimal; and H 3

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40

#### The English Arebemy.

fuch Fractions may be expressed without their denominators as well as with them, thus, r; may be written thus, r.

37. When the Numerator doth not confift of formany places, as the denominator hath Cyphers, fill up the void places of the Númerator with Cyphers, fo, 100, 100, 100, are written thus, .05, and .025. 38. Numeration of Decimal-Fractions, is

38. Numeration of Decimal-Fraitions, is likewife two-fold, Accidental and Effential, 39. Accidental Numeration, otherwise called Reduction, is performed, by the third way of Reduction; flewed in the Twenty feventh Rule of this chapter.

40. Effential Numeration, hath in it the four usual Species, Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication, and Division.

41. Addition of Decimals is the fame, with Addition of whole Numbers, if a point or line be fet between the Integers and the Parts, as in the following Examples.

2:007419365-201	23.05678
.74258	16.14365
.96314	32.76108

#### 3.71313

71.96151

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42. Subduction of Decimals doth differ from Subduction in whole Numbers, but by a point to diffinguish the whole number from the broken; as in the Example following.

42

#### .The English Stademy

25.07496	- 	36.0143	б
17.89637	$\{ i \}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$	17.8358	9
	1.19		

7.17859

18.17847

43. Multiplication of Decimal Frattions, is the fame with Multiplication in whole numbers, but when the work is finished, to distinguish the Integers from the Decimals, do thus to many places of parts as are in both the numbers given, being separated by a point, the rest of the figures towards the left hand are Integers, and those towards the right are Decimal parts; as in these Examples.



44. Division of Decimal Fractions is the fame with Division in whole numbers, but when the Work is finished, to distinguish the Fractional part from the Integers, obfeave this general Rule.

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The

# Eine Lighilh Acedemy.

The first figure in your quotient will be always of the same degree or place with that Figure or Cypher in your dividend, which standeth over the Unites place in your divisor.

For Example: 78925, being given to be divided by 32, the quotient will be 24%6, & because the place of Unites in the dividor, doth frand under the place of seconds in the dividend, therefore the first figure in the quotient, will be in the place of seconds, and the first ment be supplied with a Oypher, and then the quotient will be 0.02466.

#### СНАР. Ш.

12155.

Of Comparative Arithmetick.

T Hus much hath been faid concerning Single Arithmetick, Comparative follows, which is wrought by Numbers, as they are confidered to have relation to one another.

2. This Relation confifts either in quansity or an apality. and the addition of the addition of the second secon

that the Numbers then the neferance "that the Numbers then the neferance another; any ben the comparison is made hetween 8 and 2, or 2 and 8, 17 and 3, or 3 and 7-And

And here the Numbers propounded are always two, whereof the first is called the Anteordent, the other the Confequent.

4. Relation in quantity, confits either in the difference, or in the rate or real in found between the Numbers propounded; the one is found by Subtracting the lefs from the greater; fo 6 is the difference between 8 and 2; but the other, to wit, the rate or reason, is found by dividing the greater by the lefs, and thus the rate between 8 and 2 is four-fold, because 2 is found four times in 8; Or the rate may be also found by dividing the lefs by the greater, or setting the Numbers given in manner of a Fraction, and thus the rate between 2 and 8 is 4 also, or  $\frac{1}{2}$  that is  $\frac{1}{4}$ .

5. This rate or reafon of Numbers is either equal or unequal; equal reafon, is the relation that equal Numbers have one to another, as 5 to 5,6 to 6. Unequal Reafon is the relation that Unequal Numbers have one to another, and this is either of the greater to the lefs, or of the lefs unto the greater.

in the one the greater Number is the Auteredent, and the lefs the Confequent; and in the other the leffer Number is the Antecedent; and the greater is the Confequent.

6. Relation in quality, (otherwife called Proportion) is the reference or refpect that the reafons of Numbers have one to another

# The Legili Sectemp.

ther, and therefore the Numbers anofthis more than two, or elic three cannot be the comparing of reafons in the Plural Number. 74. Proportion is two-fold, Arithmetical and Geometrical

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8. Arithmetical Proposition, is when nume bers differ according to equal reafon; that is, have equal differences; as, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10; or 3, 6, 9, 12, in the first rank the common difference is 2, and in the feedbd 3:

9. Arithmetical Proportion, is either con-

10. Arithmetical Proportion continued, is. when divers numbers are linked together by a continued Progression of equal difference, and in fuch a Progression, the fum of the first and last Terms being Multiplied by half the number of the Terms, the Product will be the fum of all the Terms, as in this Progression, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, the fun of the first and last is 13, which being Multiplied by 6, half the number of the Terms the Product is 78, the fam of all the terms in that Progression,

11. Three Numbers being given in Arithinstical Properties, the mean number being doubled is equal to the fam of the Extrans : 10 3, 6, 9, being given, the double of 6, the mean number is equal to the fum of 3 and 9, the two Extremes.

12. Aristmetrical Proportion Interrupted, is when the Progression is discontinued y

is in their numbers, 2, 4, 8. 10. 13. In Arithmetical Propertion continued, or differentiated, the fum of the Means is equal to the fum of the Extremus, as in 3; 6, 9, 12, being given, the fum of 6 and 9 is equal to the fum of 3 and 12; or 3; 8, 12; 15; being given, the fum of 6 and 12, is equal to the fum of 3 and 15.

12. Geometrical Proportion is, when dirers numbers differ by the like reafon j as, 1,2,4,8, 16, which differ one from another by double reafon; for as 1 is the half of 2, fo 2 is the half of 4, 4 of 8, 8 of ro.

15. Geometrical Propertion is either continued or interrupted, Geometrical Proportion continued, is when divers numbers are linhed together, by a continued Progression of the like reason; as, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, or 3, 6, 12, 24, 48.

16. In Numbers Geometrically proportional, If you Multiply the fail-Term by the common rate by which they differ; and from the Product deduct the first Term, and divide the Remainer by the former rate lefs by an Unite, the Quotient shall be the fum of all the Progressions; So 2, 6, 18, 54, 162; 486, 1458, being propounded the last term 1460, being multiplied by 3. the sate, the Product is 4374 out of which deducting 2. the first Term, the Remainer is 4372, which being divided by 2 the rate lefs one, the quotient 2.186 is the fum of that Progression. 17, Three

#### The English Acovery.

17. Three Proportionals being given, the fquare of the Mean is equal to the Product of the Extreams; fo 4, 8, 16, being given, the fquare of 8 is equal to four times 16.

18. Geometrical Proportion Interrupted, is when the Progression of like reason is difcontinued; as, 2, 4, 16, 32, where the Term between 4 and 16 is wanting, and therefore the rate between 4 and 16 is not the fame that is between 2 and 4, or 16 and 32.

19. Four Proportional Numbers whatfoever being given, the Product of the two Means is equal to the Product of the two Extreams; fo 2, 4, 16, 32, being propounded, 4 times 16 is equal to 2 times 32, which is 64.

#### CHAP. IV.

Of the Rule of Proportion, or Rule of Three.

**F**Rom the last Rule of the former Chapter ariseth that precious Gem in Arithmetick, the *Rule of three*, which for its excellency, deferves the name that is given to it, *The Golden Rule*.

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2: The Golden Rule, is that by which cere tain numbers being given, another number Geometrically proportional to them may be found out.

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3. The Golden Rule is either fingle or compound.

4. The fingle Rule, is when three terms or numbers are propounded, and a fourth in proportion to them is defired.

5. The Terms of the Rule of Three confift of two Denominations; two of the Terms propounded have one Denomination, the third propounded and fourth required, have mother.

6. Of those two mumbers given which are of one Denomination, that which moves the Question must polleds the third place, the other number of the fame Denomination, must be put in the first place, and confequently, the other known Term, which is of the fame Denomination with the fourth required, must possels the fecond place.

7. The three Terms propounded being thus placed, confider whether your third doth require more or lefs; if it requires more, Multiply the middle number by the greater of the two Extreams, and divide the Product by the leffer, the Quotient, is the fourth Number or Term defired.

But if the third Term in the Queffion require lefs, Multiply the middle Term by the leffer of the two Extreams, and the Pro-K due

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duct Divide by the greater, the Quotient Inall be the fourth Term delired; An Example in each Cafe will fufficiently explain the Rufe.

If 7 Pound of Sugar coft 2 s. 7 d. What fhall 28 Pound of Sugar coft ? The Terms mult ftand thus, the fugar. s. d. fb fugar 7 2 7

Where it is plain, that 28, pound of Sugar must needs cost more than 7, therefore I Multiply 2 s. 7 d. or 3.1 pence, by 28, the Product 868 being Divided by 7, and the Quotient is 124 d. or 10 s. 4 d.

2. Example: If 7 Men will digg a Garden in 31 Dayes, In how many Dayes will 28 Men digg the fame Garden? Here the Terms mult fland thus,

> Men. Dayes. Men. 7 31, 28.

And by the flate of the Queflion it plainly appears, that the third Term requireth lefs: therefore I Multiply 31, the middle Term, by 7, the leffer Extream, and the Product 217 being Divided by 28, the Quotient  $7\frac{1}{28}$  is the fourth Term defired. CHAP:

# CHAP. V.

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Of the Compound Rule of Three.

THE Compound Rule of Three, is when more than three Terms are propounded.

27 Under the Compound Rule of Three is comprehended the Double Rule of Three, and divers Rules of plural proportion.

3. The Double Rule of Three, is when five Terms are propounded, and a fixth in proportion to them is required.

4. In this Rule the five Terms given do confift of two parts; first a Supposition, and then a Demand; the Supposition is expresfed by three of the Ferms propounded, and the demand by the other two.

5. And here the greatest difficulty, is in placing of the Terms; for which observe amongle the Terms of Supposition, which of them hath the lame Denomination with the Term required, referve that for the fecond place, and write the other two Terms in the Suppolition one above another in the first place; and lastly, the Terms of Demand one above another, likewife in the third place, in fuch fort, that the uppermoft may have the fame denomination with the apperinost of those in the first place. Example

#### Example.

If 6 Clerks can write 45 theets of Paper in 5 Dayes; How many Clerks can write 300 thets in 72 Dayes A Here the Queftion is concerning the number of Clerks, the 6 Clerks mult therefore polles the found place, and the Dayes and Paper in the Suppolition mult be fet in the first, one over the other, of which, if Paper be the uppermoit in the other Terms, the Paper mult be for over the Dayes in the third place, and then the Number in the Queftion will stand thus,

6. The Terms proponded being thus placed, the Question may be perfolved by two Single Rules of Three in this manner.

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1. As the uppermost Term of the first place is to the middle, fo is the uppermost Term in the last place to a fourth Number.

2. As the lower Term of the first place is to that fourth Number, fo is the lower Term of the last place so the Term required.

But in both these. Proportions, coulde, ration mult be had to the Term required, namely, whether it mult be more or less than the middle Term given. In

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In our present Question, the fourth term in the first proportion must be greater than the fecond; for it is plain, that more work will require more men; therefore I fay,

**25** 45 . 6 :: 300 . 40 Clerks.

But in the second proportion, it is likewife plain, that the more time is given, the Sewer perfons are required; and therefore in this proportion, 5.40. 13. I multiply the middle term by the first, and the product 200 I divide by 13, the last, and the Quotient is  $15 \pm 3$ .

2. Example : If 100 L gain 6 L in 12 months, what shall 276 l. gain in 18 months? In this Qualtion the terms must be thus placed.

100 ------ 276 \$2 18

100 . 6 .: 276 . 16 . 56.

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1 2. 12 . 16 . 56 : 18 . 24 . 84

CHAP.

53

# CHAP. VI.

# Of the Rule of Fellowsbip.

The Rules of plural proportion are those, by which we Resolve Questions that are discoverable by more Rules of Three than one, and cannot be performed by the double *Rule of Three* mentioned in the last chapter.

Of these Rules there are divers kinds and varieties, according to the nature of the Question propounded; I will only mention one, and refer the rest to my larger treatise of this Subject.

2. The Rule of plural proportion that I mean to mention, is the Rule of Fellow (bip.

3. And the Rule of *Fellowship* is that by which in Accompts amongst divers Men, (their feveral stocks together) the whole Loss or Gain being propounded, the Loss or Gain of each particular man may be discovered.

4. The Rule of Fellowship is either fingle or double.

5. The Single Rule of Fellowship is, when the flocks propounded are fingle numbers; As in this Example: A and B were Partners in an Adventure to Sea, A put in 25 l. B 56, and upon return of the Ship, they fold the Fraight

Fraight for 50 4, profit; the quilbon is What part of this 50 4 is due to A, and what to B? torefolve this and the like Que; flions, the fum of the flocks must be the first term in the Rule of Three, the whole gain the fecond, and each particular stock the third; this done, repearing the Rule of Three, as often as there are particular flocks in the Question, the foin th term produced by these feveral operations are the respective Gains or Losses of those particular stocks propounded; so in the present question, the Resolution will be as here you fee.

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6. The Double Rule of Fellowship is, when the flocks propounded are double numbers, that is, when each flock hath relation to a particular time. *A*, *B*, and *C*, hire a piece of Ground for 45 7. per Annum, in which *A* had 24 Oxen 32 days, *B* 12, for 48 days, *C* 16, for 24 days; now the question to be refolved is, What part of the Rent each .perfon must pay ?

For this purpole you must first Multiply each particular stock by its respective time, and take the total of their Products for the first term, the Gain or Loss for the second, and every man's particular stock and time K 4 for

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for the third; this dong repeating the Rule bill lives to often as there are Products of the double Numbers; the four interms produced upon that for the in the queltion numbers fought. So then in the queltion propounded, the Product of 24 and 32 is 7684 the Product of 12 and 48 is 576; and the Product of 16 and 24 is 584, the fam of these Products is 1728, which is the first eeting 45 lithe Rent is the fecond, and cashs particular Product the third;

1728 • 45 :: 576 • 15. 384 • 10.

By which three Operations the question is Refolved.

Ger Tou Diver et l'épithére et l'épithére et l'épithére et le 199 1 hi flucies propounded are chair e anne cerry thiat ist when each flock fouther et fou to a grafficular tente d'act é and d'un le re picte

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# ACADEMY.

OF GEOMETRY.

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Of the Definition and Division of Geometry.

EOMET RT is the Art of Meafu

2. The Subject of Geometry is Magnitude, or continued Quantity, whole parts are joyned together by a common term or limit. 3. Magnitude is either a Line, or fonc-

thing made of a Line or Line, or lone-

4. A Line is a Magnitude, confifting only of length, without either breadth or thicknefs, the term or limit whereof is a Point.

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G. A Point is an indivisible fign in Magniunde. A Point therefore is no quantity, but the beginning of all continued quantities, which are divisible in power infinitely.

6. A Line is either confidered fimply by it felf, or elle comparatively with another Line.

7. A Line considered simply of it felf, is either Right or Oblique:

8. A. Right line, is that which lyeth equally between his Points.

10. A Versphary, or Girchlar Line, is that which is equally diftant from the middle of the comprehended space, which middle is called the *Centre*, and the distance between that Centre and the Circumference, is called the Redier.

11. Lines compared to one another are of the fame or different Species.

Species, are either Parallel or Angular.

13. Parallel lines, are fuch as are equally diftant in all places, and are either Right, lined Parallels, or Circular.

14. Right lined Parallels, are fuch as being in one and the felf fame plane, and infinitely produced on both fides, do never meet in any part.

Within or without another Circle.

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ro. Angular
59

16. Angular lines are fuch as inclining, or bowing to one another, touch one another, but not in a direct line.

-> 12. An Angle is either Right or Oblique. 18. A.Right Angle, is that whole legs or fides are Perpendicular to one another.

or fides do incline to one another upon one fide more than upon another.

Denfe, an Obligne Angle is either Acute, or

21. An Acuse Oblique Angle, is that which is less than a Right.

- 322 An Ohrafs Oblique Angle, is that which is greater than a Right Angle.

23. The Measure of an Angle, is the Arch of a Circleodderibed upon the Angular Point, and interfected between the fides of the Angle inficiently prolonged; but of shis Measure there can be no errain knowledge, unlefs the quantity of that Arch be arsprefield in Numbers.

24. Every Girclo therefore is supposed to be divided into 360 equal parts, called Degrets, and every flegree into 60 Minutes, and every Minute into 60 Seronds, and fo forwards, others suppose every Degree to be subdivided into 10 parts, and every one of those into ho more, and so forward, as far as you please.

25. A Semi-cirle is the half of a whole Circle, and containeth 180 Degrees.

26. A Quadrant, or fourth part of a Circle, is 90 Degrees:, and feeing that a Right Line falling Perpendirularly upon a Right Line, doth make the Angles on both fides equal, and cutteth a Semi-circle into two equal parts, the fourth part of a Circle, or 90 Degrees, must needs be the Measure of a Right Angle.

27. Thus are Lines compared with Lines of the fame Species, the comparing of Lines of different Species, is the comparing of Right Lines with those that are Oblique or Circular.

28. And Right Lines, as they have reference to, or are compared with the circumference of a Circle, are either fuch as are inferibed within it, or applyed to it.

29. A Right Line, infcribed in a Circle, either palleth through the Centre, 25 the Diameter and Radius, or is drawn befides the Centre, as Chords and Sines.

30. A Diameter, is a Right Line inferibeditirough the Centre of the Circle, dividing the Circle into two equal parts.

31. The Radius of a Circle is the one half of the Diameter, or a Right Line drawn from the Centre to the Circumference; thus the Right Line G B D; in Fig. 1. is a Diameter, G B; or B D, the Radius.

32. A Chord or Subtense, is an inferibed Right Line drawn through or besides the Centre bounded at both ends with the Circunsterence. 33 A

61

33. A Chord or Subtenfe, drawn through the Gentre is the fame with the Diameter.

34. A Chord or Subsense, drawn besides the Centre, is a Right Line bounded at both ends with the Circumference, but always lefs than the Diameter.

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35. Sines are either Right or Verfed.

36. A Right Sine is half the Chord of the Double Arch, and it is either the whole Sine, and Sine of 90 Deg. or Sine lefs than the whole.

37. The whole Sine is equal to the Semidiameter or Radius of a Circle, as the right Line B.E.

38. A Sine lefs than whole, is half the Chord of any Arch lefs than a Semi-circle; as C A is the fine of C D.

so. A Verfed Sine, is a part of the Diameter lying between the right fine and the circumference, as the Right Line AD, which is one part of the Diameter, is the verfed fine of the Arch C D, and the right line AG, which is the other part of the Diameter, is the veried fine of the Arch  $\mathcal{G} \in G$ . 40. A Right line applied to a Circle, is either a Tangent or Secant.

41. A Tangent, is a right line without but touching the Circle, drawn Perpendicular to the end of the Radius or Diameter, continued to the Secant.

42. A Secant, is a right line drawn from the Centre of the Circle, through the term of

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of an Arch, and continued to the Tengant; thus the right line F D, is the Tangent, and the right line B F, is the Secant of the Arch C D, or of the Arch C E G, the Complement thereof to a Semi-circle.

43. These Lines thus inscribed in, or applyed to a Circle, may to any limited Radius be drawn or made upon a Rule of Wood, Brafs, or other Metal; or, a Table may be made, expressing the length of these lines in numbers, answering to every Degree and part of a Degree in the Quadrant or Semicircle; That is, the lines of Chords and Verfed Sines may be made to any part of a Semicircle, and the lines of Sines, Tangents and Seconds, to any part of a Quadrant : The use of fuch Scales and Tables is fuch, that no Student in Geometrie can well be without them; here therefore I will lay down fuch Propositions as will sufficiently demonstrate the way of making these lines upon a Scale or Ruler, but as to the construction of the Tables by which the lengths of these lines are exprelled in Numbers: I refer them to my Trigonometria Britannica, and other Books of the like nature.

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#### Propofition 1.

Upen a Right Line given, to crell a Perpendisular, from any Point affigned.

Let it be required to erect a Perpendicular to the line DG, from the Point B, in Fig. 2. take two equidifiant Points, as D and G, open your Compafies to a convenient diffance, and fetting one Foot of your Compafies in B, draw the Arch EC, and keeping your Compafies at the fame diffance, let one Foot in G, and with the other draw the Arch H IF, and through the interfections of these two Arches draw a right line, as BL, which shall be perpendicular to the Point B.

But if it were required to erect a Perpendicular from the end of a line, do thus, your Compasses being opened to any convenient distance, fet one Foot in the Point given, as at A, in the line AB, and the other at D, or where you please, and making D the Centre, draw the Arch C A E, and from the points C and D, draw the right line C D E, then draw the line AC, which shall be Perpendicular to the line AB, from the point A, as was required.

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#### Proposition II.

Brom a Point affigned without a Right-Line given, to let fall a Perpendicular.

Let the given line be DG, and let the point affigned be L, at the diffance of L D draw the Arch DAGF, then fetting one Foot of your Compafies in D, draw the Arch IK, and keeping your Compafies at the fame diffance, fet one Foot in G, and with the other draw the Arch M; the right line L BD drawn through the Interfections of those two Arches fhall be Perpendicular to DG, from the Point L, as was required.

But if it were required to let fall a Perpendicular from the point E, upon the line  $A \cdot B$ , draw the line  $E \ D \ C$  at pleafure, which being bifected at D, upon D as a Centre at the diffance of  $E \ D$ , draw the Arch  $E \ A \ C$ , if the line  $E \ A$  be perpendicular to  $A \ B$ ; as was required.

#### Proposition III.

To Divide a Right Line given into any number of equal parts.

Draw the line AC, and from the points A and C erect the Perpendiculars AE and XC, and at any diftance of the Compasses, fet

fet off as many equal parts as you pleafe upon the Perpendiculars A E, and XC, and draw the Parallel lines E X, FV, GT, HS, KR, LQ, MP, and NO; and let it be required to divide the right line into three equal parts, open your Compafies to the length of the line given, and fetting one foot in A, where the other foot shall touch the third Parallel, make a mark which is at Z, draw the line AZ, fo shall the line AZ be divided into three equal parts, as was defired.

And thus may that line be made, which is commonly called the Diagonal Scale.

# Proposition 1V.

How to divide a Circle into 120 Parts; and by confequence into 360.

Draw the Diameter BC, and upon the point A, describe the Circle C D B L, then draw the Diameter D A N, at Right Angles, to the Diameter C A B.

2. The Semidianeter or Radius of a Circle will divide the Circle into 6 equal parts, and fo is equal to the Chord of 60 degrees, AC, therefore being fet from D to F, fhall mark out the Arch D F, 60 degrees.

3. The fide of a Pentagon or fifth part of a Circle, is 72 degrees; now then, if you bilect the Radius AC in the point E, and M 3. make

66

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make EG = ED; then shall DG = DM. the fide of a Pentagon or Chord of 72 degrees, and F M the difference between D M. 72. and DF60, that is the Chord of 12, which by bifection shall give the Chord of 6 and 3 degrees, and fo the Circle may be divided into 120 parts, as was propounded.

4. A Circle being thus divided into 120 degrees, the Arches are fo equal, that the third part of the Chord of 3 degrees will fubdivide it into 36, without sensible error; and your Circle being thus divided into 300 parts, lines at every degree, or half degree, drawn parallel to the Diameter, shall constiture the line of Chords, & half those Chords the line of fines; and the Segments of the Diameter, the line of versed fines, and as for the Tangents and Secants, a line touching the Circle drawn perpendicular to the end of the Diameter, and continued to the feveral lines drawn from the Centre, through every degree of the Quadrant, shall constitute the line of Tangents, and those lines. drawn from the Center to the Tangents, shall constitute the line of Secants alfo. And thus may a Scale be made with the lines of Sizes, Tangents, Secants, and equal parts.

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CHAP.



H Itherto we have spoken of the first kind of Maynitude, that is, of Lines, as they are considered of themselves, or among themselves.

2. The fecond kind of Magnitude, is - that which is made of Lines, that is a Figure.

3. A Figure is that which is every where bounded, whether it be with one only limit as a Circle; or with more, as a Triangle, Quadrangle, Pyramis, or Cube, Ge.

4. The terms or limits of every Figure, are either Lines or Superficies.

5. A Figure which is terminated by Lines is a Superficies.

6. A Figure, which is bounded or limited with feveral Superficies, is a Body or Solid.

7. A Superficies is a Magnitude, confifting of length and breadth, and is either right lined, curve lined, or composed of both.

8. A Right Lined Plane or Superficies, is that which is Terminated with right lines; and it is either a Triangle, or a Triangulate.

9. A Triangle, or the first right kined Figure, is that which is comprehended by M 4 three

three right lines. It is diffinguished from the fides, or from the Angles.

10. In respect of the fides, a Triangle is either Isopleuron, Isofceles, or Scalenum.

An *Ifopleuren Triangle*, is that which hath three equal fides. An *Ifofceles*, which hath two equal fides. And a *Scalenum*, whole three fides are all unequal.

11. In respect of the Angles, a Triangle is either Right or Oblique.

12. A Right Angled Triangle, is that which hath one right line.

13. An Oblique Angled plane Triangle, is either Acute or Obtule

14. An Oblique and Obtufe Angled plane Triangle, hath two Acute Angles and one Obtufe; an Acute angled Triangle hath all the three Angles Acute.

15. The second fort of right lined planes is called a Triangulate, or a Plane, composed of Triangles.

16. The fides of a Triangulate, are in number more by two than the Triangles, of which it is composed.

17. A Triangulare, is either a Quadrangle, or a Adultangle.

18. A Quadrangle, is a Plane comprehended, by four right lines, and is either a Panedelogram or a Trapezium.

19. A Parallelogram, is a Quadrangle, whose opposite fides are Parallel or Equidiflant, and it is either Right Angled or Olique. 20. A

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68

20. A Right Angled Parallelogram, is that which hath every Angle Right; and it is either a Square or an Oblong.

21. A Square is a Right Angled Parallelogram, whole four fides are equal, and the Angles Right,

22. An Oblong, is a Right Angled Parallelogram, whole Angles are all right, but the fides unequal.

23. An Oblique angled Parallelogram, is that whose Angles are all Oblique, and is either a Rhombus, or a Rhomboides.

24. A Rhombus, isan Oblique Angled Parallelogram, of equal fides.

25. A Rhomboider, is an Oblique angled Parallelogram of intequal fides.

26. A Trapezium, is a Quadrangle, but not a Parallelogram, and it is either Right angled, or Oblique.

27. A Right Anglod Tropezium, hath two oppolite fides, parallel, but unequal, and the fides between them perpendicular.

28. An Obique Angled Trapezium, is a Quadrangle, but not a Parallelogram, having at least two Angles thereof Oblique, and none of the fines Parallel.

29. A Right angled Multangled Plane, is that which is comprehended by more than four lines.

30. A Maltangled Right lined Plane, or Polygon, is either Ordinate and Regular, or Inordinate and irregular.

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31. Ordinate and Regulate Polygons, are fuch as are contained by equal fides and angles, as a Pentagon, Hexagon, Gc.

32. Inordinate or Irregular Polygons, are fuch as are contained by unequal fides and angles.

32. Having thus flewed what a right lined Figure is, with the feveral forts of them, we will now flew, how they may be measure ad, both in refpect of the lines by which they are bounded, and also of their Area or Superficial Content.

33. And first we will shew how the lives, and angles of all plane Figures, especially Triangles, may be measured, as being the first and chiefest of them, and into which all other may be reduced.

34. The fides of all plane Triangles, and other plane Figures, are to be Measured by the scale or line of equal Parts.

1 35. The Angles may be measured by the lines of Sines, Tangents, or Scoants, as well as by the line of chords; but here it shall fuffice to shew how any Angle may be protracted, or being protracted, be Measured by the line of Chords only.

# Propofision I.

How to protract or lay down an Angle to any quantity or number of Degrees propased.

Draw a line at pleafure at A B; then open your Compafies to the number of 60 degrees in your line of Chords, and fetting one of that extent in B, with the other defcribe the Arch (D, and from the point B, let it be required to make an Angle of 40 degrees; open your Compafies to that extent in the line of Choads, and fetting one Foot in D, with the other make a mark as at E, and draw the line E B, fo that the Angle A B E contain 40 degrees, as wasrequired.

# Proposition II.

How to find the quantity of any Angle alreaay protrated.

Let the quantity of the Angle ABE, be required; open your Compafies in the line of Chords, from the beginning thereof to 60 degrees, and fetting one foor thereof in the point B, with the other deferibe the Arch DE, then take in your Compafies the diffance between E and D, and applying that extent to the line of Chords, it will flow you the number of degrees contained N 2' in

in that Angle, which in our Example will: be found to be 40 degrees.

These things premised, we will now shew you how all place Triangles may be measured, in respect of their Sides and Angles, both by the Scale, and also by the Tables of Sines and Tangents.

## СНАР. Ш.

# Of the Solution or Mensuration of plane Triangles.

TN the Solution of plane Triangles, the angles only being given, the fides cannot be found, but the reason of the fides only; it is therefore necessary, that one of the fides be known.

2. In all plane Triangles, the three angles are equal to two Right: two Angles. therefore being given, the third is alfo given; and one of them being given, the fum of the other two is alfo given.

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3. In a Right angled plane Triangle, one of the Acute Angles being given, the other is also given, it being the Complement of the other to a Quadrant or 90 degrees.

4. In a Right Angled plane Triangle, there are feven Cafes, whole Solution fhall be shewed in the Problems following.

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5. The fides comprehending the Right angle we call the legs, and the fide fubtending the Right angle, we call the Hypothenufe.

#### - Problem I.

#### The Legs given, to find an Angle and the Hipothenuse.

In the right angled plane Triangle A B C, let there be given the legs.

AB 512. To find {Hypot. BC. AC 384. To find {Angl. B and C.

Draw a line at pleasure, as AB, and uponthe point A, erect the perpendicular AC, and by help of your Scale of equal parts, let off from A to B, 512, and also from A to C, 384, and draw the line BC, for the Hypothenule, which being Measured by the fcale of equal Parts, will be found to be 640. and by the line of Chords, the angle at B 36.87, whose complement is the angle ACB, 53.

, By the Tables, the Proportions are,

1. AB. AC :: Radius . tang. B.

2. B. AC :: Radine . B.G.

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#### Problem, II.

The Angles and one Leg given to find the Hypothenuse and the other Leg.

Draw a line at pleafure, as  $\mathcal{A}$  B, and at Right angles the point  $\mathcal{A}$  erect the perpendicular  $\mathcal{A}C$ , and by your scale of equal parts for off from  $\mathcal{A}$  to  $\mathcal{B}_{15}$  is and upon the point B lay down the angle  $\mathcal{A}$   $\mathcal{B}_{15}$  (2) 366.877 and draw the line BE, till it cut the perpendicular  $\mathcal{A}C$ , then measure the lines BC and  $\mathcal{A}C$ , by the scale of equal parts, fo shall the one, to wit, BC, be the Hypothenuse, and  $\mathcal{A}C$ , the other log inquired to be the

By the Tables, the Proportions are,

3. Rad. , AB .: 4 B . AC.

1.4. SizeCo. AB:5: Rad., BC. Compared growing & 1. aloren care and a mail served end an Obs aloren state a total, and de and

#### Problem III.

The Hyperhenus and Oblique Angles given, to find the Legs.

Draw s line at pleafure, as  $\mathcal{AB}$ , and upon the point  $\mathcal{B}$  protract one of the angles given, suppose the leffer  $\mathcal{ABC}$ , 36. 87. and draw

draw the line BC, & by your feale of equal parts, number the given Hy pothenule from B to C 640 and from the point C to the line AB, let fall the Perpendicular AC, then is BA one, and CA, the other leg inquired.

By the Tables, the Proportion is, 1944

Rad. BC :: SB . AC.

#### Problem IV.

The Hypothenuse and one Leg given, to find

Draw a line at pleafure, as AB, and by your feale of equal parts, number from B to A, the quantity of the given leg AB, 712. then upon the point Acres the Perpendicular AB, and opening your Compaties to the extent of your Hypothenuic BC 646, let cone Foot in B, and move the other, till it touch the Perpendicular AC, and there draw BC, fo fhall AC be the leg inquired, and either Angle may be found by the line of Chords.

31

75 The English Acatemy. By the Tables, the Proportions are, 6. BC . Rad. :: ABI, Sine C. 7. Rad. . BC :: Sine B . AG.

6. Hitherto we have spoken of Right angled plane Triangles, the Problems following concern fuch as are Oblique.

Problem V.

The angles in anOblique angled plane triangle one fide given, to find the other fides.

In the Oblique angled plane Triangle BCD, let there be given the fide CB632, and the Angles DCB 11.07. D. 26.37.

Draw the line CB at pleasure, and by your scale set off from C to B 632, and upon those points protract the given Angles  $DCB_{11}$ , or  $CBD_{142}$ , 56, and draw the lines CD and BD, till they intersect one another, then shall the one side be CD 865, and the other DB 273.

By the Tables, the Proportion is,

1. Sine BDC . BC :: : DCB . DB.

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#### Problem VI.

Two filtes of an Angle opposite to one of them being given, to find she other Angles and the third fide, if it be known whether the Angle op, posite to the other given side be Acute or Obtuse.

In the Oblique angled plane Triangle B C D, let there be given,

The Sides  $\begin{cases} G B & 632 \\ C D & 865 \\ \end{cases}$  Ang. D. 26. 37.

Draw the line C D at pleasure, and by your scale set off from C to D, 865, and upon the point D protract the Angle C D B 26. 37 and draw the line D B, then open your Compasses to the length of the other fide C B 632, and fetting one foot in C, turn the other about till it touch the line D B, which will be in two places, in the point B or point nearess to D, if the angle opposite to the side C B be Obtase, but in the point E, or point farthest from D if Acute; according therefore to the Species of that Angle, you must draw either the line C B or C E, and then you may measure the other angles and the third side, as hath been shewed.

By the Tables, the Proportion is,

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2. CB. Sine D:: CD. Sine B.

3. Sine D. C I :: Sine C. B D. Pro-

#### Problem VII.

Two Sides with the Angle compresended being given, to find the other Augles, and the shird Side.

In the Oblique engled plain Triangle BCD, let there begiven,

The Sides { DC 863 } Angle C. 11.107.

Draw a line at pleafure, as DC 865, and by your Scale fet off from Cto D, 865, then protract the Angle at C rs. 707, and draw the line BC, and by your Scale fet off from C to B632, and draw the kine B D; and fo have you conflicted the Triangle B DC, in which you measure the Angles and the third fide, as hath been thewed; but to refolve this Problem by the Tables, it is homewhat more troublefome.

1. To find the Angles, the proportion is,  $\frac{1}{2}Zerw.\frac{1}{2}Xcrw::t\frac{1}{2}Z << t\frac{1}{2}X. << \frac{1}{2}X. <<$ 

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#### Problem VIII.

# The three fides given to find an Angle.

Let the given fides be DC 865. BC 632. and D B 273.

Draw aline at pleafure, as DC, and by your Scale for off from C to D 865, then open your Compafies to the extent of ieither of the other fides, and fetting one foot of your Compafies in C, with the other draw an Occult arch, then open your Compafies to the extent of your third fide, and fetting one foot in D, with the other foot defcribe another Arch cutting the former in the point  $B_j$  then will the Lines BC and DB, conflictute the Triangle; whole Angles may be measured, as hath been already fnewed.

To refolve this Problem by numbers, the Proportions are for the Segments of the Bufe.

As the bafe is to the film of the other fides, 10 is the difference of those fides to the difference of the Segments of the Bafe; which being fubtracted from the Bafe, half the remainer will flew where the perpendicular mult fall, fuppofe at  $F_{i}$  and conftitute the two Right angled Trianges BDF; and FDC, in which we have given the Hypothenufes BD and DC, and the Legs BFand  $CF_{i}$  and therefore we may find the Angles

Angles of those Triangles, as hath been shewed in the fourth Problem.

80.

# Problem IX.

To find the Superficial consent of Right lined Figures.

Having shewed the Mensuration of Triangular planes in respect of their fides and Angles, we will now shew how the Arez or Superficial content of them, and any other plane Figures may be found : And becaufe all many-fided Figures may be best Measure red by reducing them first into Right angled Triangles, Quadrangles, or Trapezias, we will first shew how the Area or Superficial content of these Figures may be readily found; and first of a Right or Oblique angled plane Triangle.

2. To Measure the Right angled plane Triangle B D F, in Fig. 7. Multiply B F by F D, half the Product shall be the content.

'3. To Measure the Oblique angled plane Triangle B DC, let fall the Perpendicular D F, then Multiply BC by DF, half the Product shall be the content.

4. To find the Arca or Superficial content of any Oblique angular Trapezium, convert it into two Oblique angled Triangles, by a Diagonal, as the line *B* D in the *Irapezium A B C D*, then turn the Oblique angled

The English Atabemp. Sr angled Triangles into Right, by letting fall the Perpendiculars A E and C F, then Multiply B D by the fum of AE and C F, than the Product shall be the content. In like manner may any other Irregular Multangle be also measured by turning it into Triangles and Trapeziums, and computing them severally, and adding all their contents together. Vide A.

#### Problem I.

The Diameter of a Circle being given, to find the Circumference.

#### Vide B.

The Circumference of a Circle whole diameter is 1, is 3.14159 and therefore, As 1 is to 3.14159, fo is any other Diameter, to the Circumference aniwering that Diameter.

# Problem II.

The Diameter of a Circle being given, to find the Superficial content.

Archimedes hath Demonstrated, that the Area of a Circle is equal to the content of a Right angled plane Triangle, whole Lega P com-

comprehending the Right angle, are one of them equal to the Semidiameter, and the other to the Circumference of a Circle. And therefore the Area or Superficial content of a Circle may be found, by Multiplying half the Circumference by half the Diameter, or the whole Diameter by the fourth part of the Circumference, they taking the Diameter of a Circle to be one, and the Circumference 3.14159, the Superficial content of fuch a Circle will be found to be 0.7853975.

And therefore, As 1 is to 78539, fo is the Square of any other Diameter to the Superficial content required.

# Problem III.

The Diameter of a Circle being given, to find the fide of a figure which may be inferibed within the fame Circle.

The Chord or Subtense of the fourth of a Circle, whose Diameter is 1, is 7071067; therefore, as one, to 7071067, so is the Diameter of any other Circle, to the Side required.

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Problem

#### Problem IV.

83

The Circumference of a Circle being given, to find the Diameter.

By the Diameter to find the Circumference, the proportion by the tenth Problem is; As 1 to 3.14159, fo the Diameter to the Circumference, and therefore putting the Circumference of a Circle to be 1.

As 3.14159 . 1 :: 1 . 318308.

And therefore as 1 to 318308, fo is any other Circumference, to the Diameter fought.

#### Problem V.

The Circumference of a Circle being given, to find the Superficial content.

As the Square of the Circumference of a Circle given, is to the Superficial content of that Circle, fo is the Square of the Circumference of any other Circle, to the Superficial content of that other Circle,

And in a Circle whole Diameter is 1, the Circumference is 3, 14159, and the Area 7853975, and Supposing an Unite to be the Circumference of a Circle, it is, as the fquare of 3,14159 . 7853975 :: 1 . 0079578, and therefore, As 1 . 0079578, fo is the P 2 fquare

fquare of any other Circumference, to the Area defired.

84

#### Problem VI.

The Circumference of a Circle being given to find the fide of a square which muy be inscribed within the same Circle.

As the Circumference of a Circle whole Diameter is 1, viz. 3.14159, is to 707107, the fide of the inferibed square of that Circle, to is the Circumference of any other Circle, to the fide inquired; and putting the Circumference to be Unity, it is, as 3.14159 . 707107 :: I . 225078, therefore,

As 1 to 225078, fo is the Circumference given to the fide inquired.

#### Problem VII.

The Superficial content of a Circle being given to find the Diameter.

- This is the Converie of the 11. Problem, the Diameter given, to find the Contenn for which the Proportion is 3 is 1078553975. Jo is the Quare of the diameter, to the content: and therefore we mult fay; as 7853975 is ro 1 Jo 4 to 1.27324.3 and hence, we I to 1.27324. Jo is the Area, to the Square of the Diameter.

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Problem

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#### Problem VIII.

The Superficial content of a Circle being given, to find the Circumference.

This is the Converse of the 14. Problem, the Circumference given, to find the Content.

As 1 to 079578, fa Circumference square, to the Content : And therefore,

As 079578 . 1 :: 1 . 12.5664, and by confequence,

As 1 to 12.5664, fo the Area, to the Square of the Circumference.

#### Vide C.

#### Problem IX.

The Axis or Diameter of a Sphere being given, to find the Superficial Content.

As the square of the Iliameter of a Circle, which suppose 1, is to 3.14153 the Area, so is the square of the Axis given, to the Area that is required.

AP. IV.

or Solids.

86

A Fter the description of lines and planes, the Doctrine of Bodies is to be considered.

2. A Solid or Body, - is that which hath Length, Breadth and Thickness, whose bounds or limits are Superficies.

3. A Solid is either Plane or Gibbous.

4. A Plane Solid, is that which is comprehended of Plane Superfices, and is either a Pyramide or Pyramidate.

5. A Pyramide, is a folid Figure, which is contained by Planes, fet upon one Plane or Bafe, and meeting in one point.

6. A Pyramidate, is a folid Figure, composed of Pyramides, and is either a Prisme or a mixt Polyhedron.

'7. A Prisue, is a Pyramidate or folid Figure, by Planes, of which these two which are opposite, are equal, like, and parallel, and all the other Planes are parallelograms.

8. A Prisme, is either a Pentahedron, an. Hexahedron, or a Polyhedron.

9. A Pentabedron Prisme, is that, which is comprehended of five fides, and the Bafe a Triangle.

10. An Hexahedron Prisme, is that which is comprehended of fix fides, and the Bafe a Quadrangle.

11. An illexabedron Prisme, is either a Parallelipipedon, or a Trapezium.

12. A Parallelipipedon, is that whole fides or oppolite planes are parallelograms.

13. A Prisme, called otherwise a Trapezium, is that folid, whole opposite planes or fides are neither parallel nor equal.

14. A Panallelipipedon, is either Right angled or Oblique.

15. A Right angled Parallelipipedon, is that which is comprehended of right angled fides and it is either a Cube or an Oblong.

16. A.Cube, is a Right angled parallelipipedon of equal fides.

17. An Oblong, is a right angled Farallelipipedon of unequal fides.

18. An Oblique angled Parallelipipedon, is that which is comprehended of oblique fides

19. A Polybedron, is that which is comprehended of more than five fides, and the Bafe a Multangle.

20. A mixt Polyhedron, is that whole Vertex is in the Centre, and the feveral fides exposed to view, and of this fort, there are only three ; the Octahedron, the Icosohedron, and the Dodecabedron.

21. An Octabedron, is a folid Figure, which is contained by eight Equal and Equilateral Triangles.

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87

22. An Icofobedron, is a folid Figure, which is contained by twenty Equal and Equilateral Triangles.

23. A Dodecabedron, is a folid Figure, which is contained by twelve Pentagons, Equilateral and Equiangled.

24. A Gibbons folid, is that which is comprehended of Gibbous Superficies, and it is either a Sphere or Various.

25. A Sphere, is a Gibbous body, abfolutely Round and Globular.

26. A Various Gibbous Body, is that which is comprehended by various superficies and a circular base; and is either a Cone, or a Cylinder.

27. A Cone, is a Pyramidical Body, whole Bale is a Circle.

28. A Cylinder, is a folid Body of equal thickness, having a Circle for its Bale. The folid content of these feveral Bodies may be measured by the Problems following.

#### Problem I.

The Bafe and Aleitude of a Pyramide or Cons given, to find the Solid Contons.

Multiply the Altitude by a third part of the Bafe, or the whole Bafe by a third part of the Altitude, the Product shall be the folid Content required.

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Problem

#### Problem II.

89

## The Base of a Prisme or Sylander being given, to find the fold content.

Multiply the Bafe of the Prisme or Cylinder given, by the Altitude, the Product shall be the folid content.

#### Problem III.

In a Piece or Frustum of a Pyramide, Cone or other irregular Solid, both the bases being given, to find the content.

If the Aggregate of both the Bales of the Frustum, and of the mean Proportional between them, be drawn into the Altitude of the Frustum, the third part of the Product shall be equal to the folid content required.

#### Problem IV.

The Axis of a Sphere being given, to find the folid content.

A Sphere (as Archimedes hath fhewed) is equal to two thirds of a Cylinder circumfcribing it; now then, fuch a Cylinder being made; by the Area of a Circle multiplyed by the Diameter; and therefore the Q 3 Area

The English Academy. 90 Area of a Circle being multiplied by two thirds of the Diameter, the Product Ihall' be the folid content of a Sphere.

The Area of a Circle whofe Diameter is 1, is 7853975, which being multiplied by 666666, the two thirds of the Diameter, the Product 523598 is the folid content of fuch a Sphere; therefore,

As 1 to 523598, fo is the Cube of any Axis given, to the folid content required.

FINIS

# THE ENGLISH

# A CADEMY:

# The FOURTH PART.

# OF MUSICK.

## CHAP. I.

# Of SINGING.

Notes in Voice or Inftrument.

2. It doth confift in Singing or Setting.

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3. In Singing there are five things to be confidered : 1. The Number of the Notes. 2. Their, Names. 3. Their Tunes. 4. Their Times. And 5. Their Adjuncts.

4. The number of Musical Notes are three times feven, or twenty one, that is from the loweft Note of a Man's Bale, to the higheft of a Boy's Treble, we usually reckon twenty one Notes; though there are fome O 4 Bales 9.2 The English Academy. Bases that reach below, and some Trebles that arise above this ordinary compass.

The number of Musical Notes is therefore divided by Septenaries, because there are in Nature, but seven distinct sounds expression Musick, by feven distinct Notes, in the several Cliffs or Cleaves of the Scale; for the eight & fifteenth have the same found or tune, and therefore the name and eliff of the first; the 9th and 16th of the second; the 10th and 17th of the third; the 11th and 18th of the fourth; the 12th and 19th of the fifth; the 13th and 20th, of the fixth; the 14th and 21th, of the seventh.

6. These thrice seven Notes are descerned by their places. A place is either a Rule or space, and therefore in eleven rules with their spaces, is comprehended the whole scale

7. At the beginning of each rule and space is placed one of the first feven Letters in the Alphabet, and these Letters are thrice repeated one above another, the letter G being put upon the first or lowest place of each sepentary being the first letter in the word Greece, and in the first sepentary, retained the Name and Form of the Greek Gamma, in remembrance, that the Art of Mussek, as other learned Arts came to us from that feat of the Muses.

8. By these feven letters of the Alphabet, otherwise called feven *cliffs* or *cleaves*, the fcale

93

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fcale is divided into three feveral parts of Musick; the first and lowest is called the base ; the 2d. or middle part, the Mean ; the third or highest part, the Treble. - As for the Notes, which do exceed this compais, either in the base or treble, they are figned with double letters in the fame manner, that the ordinary Notes are with fingle.

9. The fecond thing to be confidered in Singing, is the Name by which each of these Notes is called.

10. And for these seven notes, signed by the first seven letters in the Alphabet, there are but fix feveral names invented to help the learner in the tuning of them ; ut, re, Mi, fa, fol, la, and for the feventh note, because it is but half a tone above 12, as the fourth is above Mi, (whereas the reft are all whole tone) it is fitly called by the fame name with the fourth, and fo the next will be an eight, or Diapafon to the first, and consequently placed in the same letter or cliff, and called by the fame name.

And thus they were wont to be placed in the Scale, in which the first name ut being placed upon the fame line with the Greek Gamma, hath caused the whole scale to be called the Gamut; bat modern Musicians in these latter times, have rejected the names of ur and re, as finding the other four to be fufficient for the exprelling of the feveral founds, and lefs burthensome to the Memories of Practisioners, 11. This feale or Gamue then is divided into for ...

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# She Luglish Academy.

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four Columns. In the first you have the Alaphabetical friers or cliffs, the other three thew the names of the notes, afcending and defeending according to their feveral names of keys

In the fecond column is set the names of the notes as they be called, where is *B* duraliz, or *B* (harp, as having no flat in *B* mi, and then your notes are called as they are set there on the rules and spaces ascending.

In the third Column is B proper, or B naturalis, which hath a B flas in B mi only, which is put at the beginning of the line with the Cliff, and there you have also the names as they are called on Rule and Space.

In the fourth Column is *B fa*, or *B molla*rie, having two *B flats*, the one in *B mi*, the other in *E la mi*, placed as the other; by observing of which you have a certain rule for the Names of the Notes in any part.

22. In these three colums observe this for agener al rule, that what name any note hath, the fame name properly hath his eight above or below.

13. Although the whole ordinary scale of Musick doth contain three septenaries of lines and spaces, yet when any of the parts which it is divided into, shall come to be Prick'd out by it self in Songs or Lessonly mual, for one of those Parts as being sufficient to contain the compass of notes thereunto belonging : And if there be any Notes that extend higher or lower, it is usual to add a Line in that place with a Fen. 14.
ŝ THE GAMEVT OR SCALE OF MUSICE 1 i et Sol Sol+ Sol eat ſa de. e Fredle or highest Keyes fα Æ Sol eys he la É la b fa mi Gá Sol Sol <del>la</del> Sol fa 01 Sol 1 С Sol Fa fa [¢ [a la 4-Ţ, Ufe. fa Sol fa favt The Means or ch fa fa 125 la soln ĺa. ľa امى A. sol L-6 fa Sel 1. Ā fa mj fa he maddleliges #mi : þ b L DY 11c m la SOE Sol B Salrev Cliffe Ia ٨. The Base on Sowert Keyes fa <del>fa</del> E nci Las Sol Ъ LA. THE e 9 al Đ Ĵ, Ĉ Sol fa fa vt B fa fa m La sf la, mj Å 5 h: fa t FF Sol fa fa fa vt fə ŗ EE 50 La c. ( DD Sol re £ ee anis 81 BI Š. Digitized by Google

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26

14. Though the feven Letters fet at the beginning of each Rule and Space, are feven Cleaves, yet four of them are only ufual: The first is called the F fa ut Cleave or Cliff, thus marked  $\overline{\mathfrak{B}}$  this is proper to the Base or lowelt Part, and is fet upon the fourth line, at the beginning of Songs or Leffons. The fecond is the C fol fa ut, which is proper to the middle or inner parts, and is thus marked  $\overline{\mathfrak{B}}$ . The third is the G fol re ut Cleave or Cliff, which is only proper to the Treble or highest, and is figned thus,  $\mathfrak{B}$  on the fecond line of the Songs or Leffons, and thefe are called the three figned Cliffs.

The fourth is the B Cliff, which is proper to all Parts, as being of two natures and properties; that is to fay, *Flat* and *Sharp*, and doth only ferve for the *Flatting and Sharp*ing of Notes; it is called by two Names, and figned by two Marks, the one is B fa, or B flat, and is known on Rule or Space by this mark, (b). The other is called B mi or B fharp, and is known by this mark **X**.

15. Concerning this fourth Cliff, you are to obferve: 1. That the *B* fa, or *B* fau doth alter both the Name and Property of the Notes before which it is placed; changing minto fa, and making that Note to which he is joyned, a Semi-tone or half note lower, 2. That the *B* mi or *B* faurp alters the property of the Notes before which he is placed, but not the Name; for he is ufually pla-

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ced

ced either before fa or fol, and they retain their name still, but their sound is raised half a Tone or Sound higher. Lastly, note, that these two B Cliffs are placed not only at the beginning of the Lines with the other Cliff, but is usually put to several Notes in the middle of any Song or Lesson, for the flatting and sharping of Notes, as the Harmony of the Musick doth require.

16. Of these four Notes now in use, Mi is the principle or master Note, for that being found, the rest are known by this direction; after Mi, sing fa folla, twice upward and la folfa, twice downward, and so you come to Mi again in the same Cliff both wayes.

17. This Note Mi, hath his being in four feveral places, but he is but in one of them at a time. Its proper place is in B mi, as in the fecond Column of the Gammat; but if a Bfa, or B flat, be in its place, then he is in Ela mi, as in the third Column of the Gammat, which is its fecond place. But if a B flat be placed there alfo, then its in A la mire, which is its third place. If a B flat come there alfo, then it is removed into its fourth place, which is D la folre, according to thefe Examples.

1. Example. Mi in B mi. fol. mi fa sol la fa Sol "la II. Ex Digitized by Google

D Recaberto. Mi in E la. II. Example. Sot ta fa fol la mi fa fol. III. Example. Mi in Ala mi re. **→**=-\$=\$ La mi fa fol ba fa fol la. IV. Example. Mi in D la fol. -<del>0--</del>-<del>0</del>-La fa fo la mi fa fol ta. снар Digitized by Google

# The English Arabemy.

## CHAP. II.

99

### Of the Tunes of Notes.

He next thing to be confidered in Singing, is the Tunes of Notes, which cannot be declared by Precept, but muft be learned either by the lively Voice of the Teacher, or by fome Inftrument rightly Tuned. Only observe that from mi to fa, and fo from la to fa, is but half a Tone; but between any other two Notes is a whole Tone, as from fato fol, or fol to la. And in the first guiding of the Voice, it will much help, if at the first Tuning, you found by degrees all these Notes, as folla mi, and at the second Tuning, leave out la the middle Note : this will not only help you to Tune a Third, as from folto mi, but it will also help you in the raising of Fourths and Fifths, &c.

Of which there are fome Examples in the plain Songs following..

Firft. Q+ Q ..... "Sol la mi fa fol la fa fol fol fa la fol fa mi la fol. Second. tto: " Solmi la fa mi folfa la la fa folmi fa la mi fol la fo Third S: 2 Digitized by Google

The English Academy. 100 Third. A 9 4 4 4 4 A 4 4 , Solla mi fol mi folla mi fa fol fa fol la mi fa fol 0000 84 fol fel fol la mi fa fol la fol la fol la mi fa fol la fa 7. \$ \$ \$ \$ fol fa fol la mi fa fol la fa fol fol fol fol fa la ---fol la fol fa la fol fol fol fol fa la fol fa sol fa sol fa la sol fa mi sol mi sol fa la sol \$-\$fa mi la fol la fol fa la fol fa mi la fol fol fol fa fol la fol fol fol fa fol mi fol la fol. CHAP Digitized by Google

## The English Steademy.

## CHAP. III.

#### Of the Time of Notes.

The Notes in Mulisk have two Names, one for Tume, the other for Time or Proportion. The Names of Notes in reference to their Tunes, are, as hath been faid, these four, Sol La Mi Fa; And their Names in Proportion of Time, are Eight; A Large, a Long, a Breve, a Semi-breve, a Minum, a Crochet, a Quaver, a Semi quaver.

The four first are of Augmentation, or Increase; the four latter are of Diminution or Decrease, and are thus proportioned. The Large being the first of Augmentation, and longest in Sound; the Semi-breve is the last of Augmentation, and the shortest in Sound, and in Time is called the Master-Note, being of one Measure by himself, all the other Notes are reckoned by his value, both in Augmentation and Diminution.

In Augmentation, the Large, is Eight Semi-breves, the Long four, the Breve two, the Semi-breve is one Time or Note.

In Diminution, the latter four do decrease in this proportion; two Minums make a Semi-breve, two Crotchets make a Minum, two Quavers make a Crotchet, and two Semi-quavers make a Quaver. As in the Table following may be seen.

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Notes

Notes of Augmentation. A Large. A Long. Å 1 Breve. ь A Semi-brove. Notes of Diminution. 1 Semibreve: A Minnen. 4 Crotsbet. A Quarter. 1 Semignavor 111

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## CHAP. IV.

-103

# Of the Adjuncts belonging to Musical Notes.

There belong to Notes, thus defcribed by their Number, Names, Tunes, and Time, these feven things. A Tye, a Repeat, a Pause, a Direct, a Close, with fingle and double Bars, and feveral Moods,

2. A Tye is a Semi-circle, whole two ends point to the two Notes conjoyned, as when two Minums, or one Minum and a Crotcher are tyed together; as allo, when two or more Notes are to be Sung to one Syllable, or two Notes or more to be plaid with one drawing of the Bow on the Fiel or Violin.

3. The middle and principal Note is the Semibreve: And when any Note & hishalf note in the fame place are conjoyned for one Syllable, the mark of the half Note, and of the Ligature too, is a point fet by the Note, as and it is as much, as if with the Note his half Note were express, and conjoyned by Ligature, and prolongeth the found of that Note it follows, to half as much more; thus a Semi-breve, which is of it felf but two Minums, having a prick after it, is made three Minums, in one continued. found, and fo in other Notes.

4. A Repeat is either of the fame Notes and Ditty together, or of Ditty with other Notes, and is marked thus,  $\Sigma$  and is used to fignific, that fuch a part of a Song or Lesson must be Play'd or Sung over again from that Note over which it is placed.

**5.** A Paufe is a mark of reft or filence in a Song for the time of fome Note, whereof it hath its name. A line defcending from a fuperiour Rule, and not touching the Rule below, is a Semibreve Reft: the like line rifing from an inferiour Rule, and not touching the Rule above, is a Minum Reft: the fame with a crook to the Right hand, is a Crotchet Reft, and to the left hand, a Quawer Reft: Alfo a line reaching from Rule to Rule, is a Breve Reft, or a Paufe of two Semibreves; a line from a Rule to a third Rule, is a Long paufe, or of four Semibreves, and two of them together make a Large paufe, or a Reft of Eight Semibreves.

6. A Direct in the end of a line, sheweth where the Note stands in the beginning of the next line, and is marked thus, 7. A Close is either Perfect or Imperfect; A Perfect Close is the end of Song, noted thus,  $\bigoplus$  or thus,  $\bigoplus$  or with two Bars thwart all the Rules, or both ways. An Imperfect Close, is the end of a Strain, or amy place in a Song, where all the. Parts do meet

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The English Academy. 105 meet and Close before the end, and it is marked with a fingle Bar.



8. The usual Moods are two, the Imperfect of the more, when all goes by two, except the Minims, which goes by three, as two Longs to a Large, two Breves to a Long, two Semibreves to a Breve, three Minums to the Semibreve, with a prick of perfection; this Mood is thus figned, G and is usually called the Triple Time.

The other usual Mood is the Imperfect of the lefs; when all goes by two, as two Longs to a Large, two Breves to a Long, two Semibreves to'a Breve, &c. this is called the Common Time, because most used, and is marked

thus, 在.

Thus much concerning finging; I leave fetting to the larger Treatifes of this subject.

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# The FIFTH PART.

OF ASTRONOMIE.

### CHAP. I.

# of the General Subject of Aftronomie.



Stronomy, is an Art, by which we are Taught the Measure and Motion of the heavenly Orbs and Stars that are in them.

2. The Heavenly Orbs are either drasgot, without Stars, as the *Primum Mobile*, or *insignt*, fuch as have Stars in them, as the eight inferiour Orbs.

3. The Stars are either fixed or moveable: The fixed Stars are those which al ways keep the same distance from one another: but the moveable Stars, otherwise called Planets,

Planets, are such as do not always keep the fame distance.

4. All the Stars, as well fixed as moveable have a double motion; the one occasioned by the Primum Mobile, from East to West, the other natural or proper to themselves, by which they move from West, to East.

5. According to this double motion of the Stars, this Art of Aftronomy is divided into two Parts; the first sheweth the motion of the Primum Mobile, and how the feveral Heavenly Orbs are by that carried round the World, from East to West, which is called the Diurnal motion of the Stars.

The fecond part of Aftronomy, ineweth the Periodical motion of the Stars, in which the inferiour Orbs, according to their own proper and natural motion, do move from Weft to Eaft.

6. For the better understanding of these feveral motions, the Primum Mobile, or tenth Orb, is usually represented by a sphere or Globe, with fuch lines drawn about it as the Stars in their motions are supposed to make, or may help to discover unto us, the quantity of their motions, and shew the time of their Rilings and Settings, and such like.

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7. This Sphere or Globe, is a round body, containing one Superficies, in the mddle whereof there is a Point, from whence all Right Lines drawn to the Superficies are equal. T z = 8. In

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8. In the Sphere or Globe, there are ten imaginary Lines or Circles, of which fix are great, and four are finall.

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9. The great Circles are these which divide the Sphere or Globe into two equal *Hemispheres*, and fuch are the Horizon, *A*quinoitial, Zodiack and the two Coln es; the two first of which are called external and musable, the other internal and immutable.

10. The Leffer Circles, are those which divide the Sphere or Globe, into two unequal Hemispheres, whereofone is more, and the other lefs than the half of the Sphere or Globe; such are the two Tropicks of Cancer and Capricorn, and the Arrick and Autaretick Circles, all which are represented in Fig. 9.

11. The Horizon, which is also called the Finitor, is a Circle, which divideth the visible part of the Heavens from the not vifible; that is, the lower Hemisphere from the upper, as the line A B; one of whofe Poles is in the Point directly over our heads, and is called the Zenith, the other Diametrically opposite, called the Nadir, and noted with the Letters Z. N.

12. The Horizon, is either Senfible or Rational.

13. That is called the Senfible Horizon, which bounds our fight, and feemeth to divide the Heavens into two equal Hemifpheres.

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14. And that is called the Rational or Intelligable Horizon, which doth indeed bifeCt the Heavens; and this is Right, when it paffeth through the Poles of the World; or Oblique, when one of the Poles is fomewhat elevated, and the other depressed; or Parallel, when one Pole is in the Vertical Point or Zenith, for then the Horizon is Parallel to the Aquator; it otherwise makes therewith either Right or Oblique Angles.

15. Hence there is a threefold position of Sphere. 1. A Right, where the Horizon is Right; that is, where the Aquator paffeth through the Zenith and Nadir, 2. Oblique, when the Horizon is Oblique; that is, when one Pole is fomewhat elevated and the other depressed. 3. Parallel, when one of the Poles of the world is in the Zenith.

16. In a Right Sphere, all the Stars do Rife and Set, but in an Oblique Sphere, fome are hid from our fight, and fome are always above the Horizon.

17. The Meridian is a great Circle, peculiar and proper to every place, and drawn through the Vertical point and the Poles of the World, to which when the Sun comes in his Diurnal motion, in the Day-time he maketh the Mid-day, and in the Night time, he maketh Midnight. There may be as many Meridians as there are Vertical points, but upon the Globe they are ufually drawn thro' every tenth or lifteenth Degree of the *L*quater.

# CHAP. II.

# Of the Internal and Immutable great . Circles.

I. Itherto of the two External and Mutable Circles, the Horizon and Meridian, Leome now to the Internal and Immutable.

2. The first Internal and Jumutable Circle is called the  $\mathcal{A}$  quator, or EquinoStral Circle, which divideth the whole Sphere or Globe into two equal parts between the Poles, to which when the Sun cometh, which is twice in the Year, the days and nights are equal in all places but in a Parallel Sphere: this Circle is noted with the letters  $EF_{+}$ 

3. This Circle is also the measure of Time; for asoft as 15 Degrees of this Circle do afcend above the Horizon, fo many hours are compleated in its going round.

4. The fecond Immutable Circle is called the Zodiak, which is a great Oblique broad Circle, under which the Planets do always move; the Poles of this Circle are diftant from the Poles of the world 23 Degrees, 31 Minutes, and 30 Seconds, or 23.53 Centefms.

5. This Circle doth differ from other Circles in the Heavens, in that other Circles to fpeak properly, have Longitude or Deputed by Google Length;

Length, but no Breadth, whereas this Circle is allowed to have both.

111

6. In respect of Longitude, this Circle is divided as other Circles commonly are into 360 Degrees, but more peculiarly into 12 parts, constituting, as it were, the 12 Parts or Months of the Year, or 12 Constellations of Stars, called Signs, each Sign bring subdivided into 30 Degrees or Parts. The Names and Characters of these 12 Constellations, or Signs, are as followeth. Aries V, Tauras &, Gemini II, Cancer S, Leo S, Virgo IN, Libra A, Scorpio M, Sagittarius I, Capricornus VS, Aquarius MS, visces X.

7. The Zodiack, in respect of Latitude, is divided into 16 Degrees, that is, into 8 Degrees North-ward, and 8 Degrees Southward, because all the Planets, except the Sun, do in their Motions vary from the middle Line, fometimes oneway, and fometimes another; to the quantity of 8 Degrees; and the middle Line in which the Sun moves, is the *Ecliptick* Line, because when the Sun and Moon are in Conjunction, the Sun is Eclipfed, but when they are in Opposition, the Moon is Eclipfed.

8. Of these 12 Signs, 4 arc called Gardinals, viz. Aries and Libra, in which do happen the Vernal and the Autumnal *A*quinostials; Cancer and Caprisorn, in which do happen the Summer and the Winter Solflices. U.2 9. Again

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9. Again thele Signs are diffinguished into Northern and Southern; the Northern figns are those which decline from the  $\mathcal{E}$ quator towards the North Pole, as  $\gamma$ ,  $\mathfrak{S}$ ,  $\pi$ ,  $\mathfrak{B}$ ,  $\mathfrak{A}$ ,  $\mathfrak{m}$ ; And the Southers figns are those which decline from the Æquator towards the South Pole, as  $\mathfrak{m}$ ,  $\mathfrak{I}$ ,  $\mathfrak{m}$ ,  $\mathfrak{m}$ ,  $\mathfrak{K}$ .

10. All other Constellations of fixed stars are referred to some one or other of the 12 signs, whether they be the 21 Northern constellations, called Ursa Minor, Ursa Major, Draco, Cephens, Arttophylax, Corona Borealis, Engonasis, Lyra, Avis, Cassiopeia, Persins, Heniochus, Serpentarius, Serpens, Sagitta, Aquila, Delphinus, Equisectio, Pegasus, Andromeda, Triangulus. Or whether they be the 15 Southern constellations, called Cetus, Orion, Eridanus, Lupus, Canis Major, Procyon, Argo, Hydra, Crater, Corvus, Centaurus, Fera, Ara, Sorona Auftr. Pisces Austra.

11. The two other great Circles called the Colures, are the two Circles which pafs through the Poles of the World, and the four Cardinal points in the Zodiack.

12. That circle which passed thro' the Poles of the world, and the two Solftitial points in the Zodiack, which are the beginnings of G and V, and is called the Solftitial Colure.

13. That Circle, which paffeth through the poles of the world and the two Æquinoctial points, or first entrance into  $\gamma$  and  $rac{1}{2}$ , is called the *Aquinostial Colure*, and in Fig. 9. represented by the line D. C. 14. The

14. The Lesser Circles of the Sphere are the two Tropicks of g and v with the Artick and Antartick Circles.

15. The Tropick of 5 is a Circle joyned to the Zodiack in the beginning of G, and is defcribed by the Suns Diurnal Motion, when he is in the Summers Solftitial point, and is distant from the Æquinoctial towards the North Pole 23 deg. 31' 30" or in Decimal Numbers, 23 deg. 5. 25. to which when the Sun cometh, he causeth the longest day and fhortest night to all Northern ; the shortest day and longest night to all Southern Inhabitants; and is noted with G 5.

16. The Tropick of w, is a Circle joyned to the Zodiack in the beginning of v, and defcribed by the Suns Diurnal Motion, being in the winters Solftitial point, and is diftant from the Æquinoctial towards the South Pole, 23 deg. 31' 30", or in Decimal Numbers, 23 deg. 5.25 parts, to which, when the Sun cometh, he maketh the longest day and shortest night, to all Southern ; the shortest day and longest night to all Northern Inhabitants, and is noted with H vy.

These two Circles are called of the Greeks Tgominoi, à convertendo, because when the Sun toucheth any of the Circles, he is at his greatest distance from the Æquator, and returneth thither again.

17. The Artick Circle, is distant from the North Pole of the world, as' much as

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the

114

the Tropick of  $\mathfrak{B}$  is diffant from the Æquinottial, and is noted with K L.

The Antarcick Curcle is diftant from the South Pole as much as the Tropick of vo is diftant from the Æquator, & is noted with OM.

18. By the Interfection of any three of the greatest Circles of a Sphere is made a Spherical Triangle.

19. A Spherical Triangle, is either Right Angled or Oblique.

20. A Right Angled Spherical Triangle, hath one Right Angle at the least.

21. An Oblique Angled Spherical Triangle, is either Acute or Obtufe.

22. An Acute Angled Spherical Triangle, hath all its Angles Acute.

23: An Obtuse Angled Spherical Triangle, hath all his Angles, either Obtuse or mixe, that is one Angle at the least Obtuse, and the other Acute.

24. In Spherical Trianglei, there are 28 Varieties or Cafes, 16 in Rectangular, and 12 in Oblique Angular, whereof all the Rectangular and 10 of the Oblique Angular, may be refolved by one Catholick, and Universal Proposition; for the understanding whereof, some things must be premised.

1. That in a Right Angled Spherical Triangle, the Hypotenusse and both the Acute Angles are supposed to be noted with their Complements.

2. That the Right Angle is not reckoned amongft the Circular parts, and therefore one of the other five will be always a middle part, and the other four extreams Conjunct or Dising the Degree by Google The

## The Proposition is this:

A Rectangle made of the Sine of the middle part & Radins, is equal to the Rectangle made of the Tangents of the Extreams Conjunct, or of the Cosins of the Extreams Disjunct: Therefore,

When two things are given, and a third required, you must first find out the middle part, and where the other Terms be Extreams Conjunct or Disjunct; if the things given and inquired lie together, the middle is the middle part, but if they be disjoyned, that which standeth by it set is the middle part.

Note allo, that when a Complement in the Proposition doth chance to concur with a Complement in the Circular Parts, you must take the Sincit sclf, or the Tangent it self, because cs of the cs = S. and ct of the ct = t.

25. These things being understood, the Analogies to be used in every of the 16 Cases of a Right angled Triangle, will from this Proposition be as followeth.

• •	Bara Q.   Analogia.
1	BC AB Rad cot. A:: t BC. s AB.
2	A AB BC cot A. Rad::s AB.t BC.
3	AB BC A tBC.sAB::Rad.ct A.
	4. AB

4 AB AC tAB. csA; Rad. cot AC. S AC A Rcot. AC :: t A B. cs A. 6 AC A B Cot AC . Rad :: cs A.t AB. 7 A AC Rad. st C :: st A. ss AC.  $8 \begin{array}{|c|c|} AC \\ A \end{array} C \quad et A. es AC :: et C.$ 9 AC BC Rad.sA: SAC.SBC. 10  $\begin{vmatrix} B & C \\ A \end{vmatrix}$  A C  $\begin{vmatrix} S A \cdot S B C :: Rad. S A C \end{vmatrix}$ 11 AC A SAC.SBC:: Rad.sA. 12  $\begin{vmatrix} AB \\ A \end{vmatrix} \subset Rad.s A :: cs A B. cs C.$ 13 AB A CSAB. CSC :: Rad. SA. 15. Digitized by Google

بر این از این مسیر به دار همیشد. این سید می میکند با میکند. این میکند این میکند این میکند. 
The English Academy. 117
15 BG AC Rad os AB:: csBC.csAC.
16 AC AB BC CS AB. CS AC::Rad.cs BC.
26. In Oblique angled Spherical Triangles, there are, as hath been faid, 12 Cafes, 10 whereof may be refolved by the Catholick Proposition, if the Spherical Triangle pro- pounded be first converted into two Right, which may be done by this General Rule.
From the end of a side given, being adjacent to an Angle given, let fall the Perpendicular.
A Type of the feveral Varieties here, followeth.
AC Rad. SC D:: s D. s BC.   I. CD A   D s AC. Rad :: s BC. s A.
$\begin{array}{c c} & G \\ B \\ 2 \\ D \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c c} A \\ A \\ A \\ A \\ C \\ A \\ S \\ A \\ S \\ D \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} S \\ S \\ S \\ S \\ S \\ C \\ D \\ S \\ S \\ C \\ S \\ A \\ S \\ C \\ S \\$
3. $\begin{vmatrix} AC \\ CD \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} CD \\ cos B \\ cos B \\ cos B \\ cos B \\ cos A \\ cos $

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4.

The English Academy. 118 A.CD ct D. Rad :: es C D. et BCD. E ct C D. cs B C D :: R. t B C. R.tBC :: ct AC . cs AC B. D BCD + ACB = ACD. I.Tri.'BCD - ACB = ACD.2.Tri.Ct A. R :: CS AC. Ct ACB. 5. A D С SACB.csCAB .: R. csBC. cs BC. R :: cs BDC. cs BCD. ACB+BCD=ACD. 1. Tri. BCD - ACB = ACD.2.Tri. ct. AC.R:: cs DAC.tAB. 6. *A D* AD ct. DAG.RAB:: R. + BC. R. t BC :: ct ADC.s BD. A C  $AB \rightarrow BD = AD.$  1. Tri. R D - A B = A D. 2. Tri. ct. C AB. R :: cs AC. ct ACB. 7. A D ACD - ACB = BCD. 1. TrisA ACD-ACB=BCD.2.Tri. SACB.csCAB:: R. csBC. R. cs BC :: s BC D. cs CDB. ct C A B. R :: cs AC. ct ACB. 8. C DC ACD\_ACB=BCD. 1. Tri.  $ACD \rightarrow ACB = BCD. 2$ , Tri. AC ct AC. cs ACB :: R , t B C. t BC. Rad. :: cs B C ? stDC. Digitized by Google.

The English Academy. 119 ct AC.R :: cs C A D.t AB. AD - AB == BD . 1. Tri. AD--- AB==BD. 2. Tri. cs A B. cs A C :: R . cs B C. R. cs BC :: cs B D. cs DC. ct AD.R :: cs C AD. tAE. AC AD Ċ AE - AC = CF in 1. Tri.  $AE \rightarrow AC = CF$  2. Tri. A ct C AD. s AE :: R. t DF. tDF.R::sCF.ctDCF. SACXSCD. Rad. Square.  $C \ 2s \ \frac{1}{2} \ z \ A \ C \ s \ \frac{1}{2} \ z \ - \ C D.$ DC **)**Q.s∔C. The Twelfth, is but the Converse of the last taking the Angles for Sides, and the Sides for Angles; fo shall the Angle found, be the Side inquired.

### CHAP. III.

# Of the Ascensions and Descensions of the Parts of the Zodiack.

HItherto we have fpoken of the general Principles of Aftronomy, from whence the motion of the Primum Mebile is explained; come we now to these affections which properly belong to the motion thereof, and these are the Afcension and Descension of

of the Parts of the Zodiack, or Aftronomical Rifing and Setting.

120

2. Afronomical Rifing and Setting, is the Elevation of the parts of the Zodiack or Echiptick above the Horizon, and Depressed under it, compared to the Afcension and defcension of the parts of the Æquator; and this comparison is in reference to diverse. Elevations of the Peles.

3. But this Aftronomical Rifing and Setting, takes his Denomination from the parts of the Zodiack; which are above the Horizon or beneath it, and are measured with respect unto the Æquator; for Aftronomers do not refer the Æquator to the Zodiack, but, the Zodiack to the Æquator, for it is Zodiack, and not the Æquator which stands in need of measuring.

4. And an Arch of the Ecliptick or Zodiack, is to be understood two manner of ways; namely, Continued or Diferent; A Continued Arch, is when it is reckoned in the Æquator in a Continued Series, from the beginning of Aries, and so forward into the consequent Signs.

5. A Difcreet Arch, is fo called, because it is not reckoned from the first Degree of Aries, but from any other point; as from the fourteenth of Gemini, to the fourteenth of Taurus.

6. Any part of the Zodiack is then faid to Afcend Right, when a greater part of the Æquator.

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Æquator rifeth above the Horizon than of the Zodiack. And that is faid to be a greaten Arch of the Æquator, which is more than 90 Degrees.

7. Any part of the Zodiack is then faid to Defcend Right, when a greater part of the Æquator than of the Zodiack is beneath the Horizon.

8. Any part of the Zodiack therefore is faid to Afcend Obliquely, when a lefs part of the Æquator than of the Zodiack doth Afcend; as alfo, to Defcend Obliquely, when lefs of the Æquator than of the Zodiack is below the Horizon.

9. Afcenfion, is either Right or Oblique.

10. Right Afcension or Descension, is that which is in a Right Sphere.

11. In a Right Sphere, the four Quedrants of the Zodiack beginning from the Equinoctial and Solftitial Points, do equally Alcend and Defeend, fo that in these whole Quadrants, as many Degrees of the Equator as of the Zodiack do Afcend; but the intermediate parts of those Quadrants in the Zodiack do vary, and have not equal Afcension and Descension with the parts of the Equator.

12. Those Signs that are equally distant from any of those Points, have also equal Afcension, as Gemini and Cancer. And the Afcension of a Sign is always equal to the Defcension of the same.

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13. In a Right Sphere therefore, four Signs only do rife Right, all the reft do rife Obliquely.

14. In an Oblique Sphere, the two halves that begin at the two Aquinoctial Points, do rife together, but the parts of those halves do rife Obliquely. And those Signs that rife Rightly, do Defcend Obliquely, and the contrary.

15. The Ascension of opposite Signsinan Oblique Sphere, taken together, are equal to the Ascension of the same in a Right Sphere. And those figns that are equally distant from either of the Æquinoctial Points, have equal Ascensions, because they equally Decline from the Æquator.

16. Besides the Astronomical Rising and fetting of the stars, or their rising and setting, in respect of the Horizon and Aquator, there are other affections of the ftars to be confidered, namely, those which they have in respect of the fun.

17. In respect of the Celestial Circles, that is in respect of the Zodiack, Aquator, and Horizon, there is a fourfold affection of the stars. 1. Longitude. 2. Of Altitude. 3. Of Latitude. 4. Of Declination.

18. The Longitude of a star is his distance from the first Degree or Point of Aries, ac--counting from West to East.

19. The Altitude of a ftar is to be confidered generally or specially. Generally confidered

<sup>122</sup> 

The English Academy. 123 fidered, the Altitude of a far is the height thereof above the Circle of the Horizon.

20. Specially confidered, the Elevation of the Pole ftar above the Horizon, is called the Altitude.

21. The Latitude of a ftar is his Diftance from the Ecliptick, that is from the very middle of the Zodiack towards either Pole, whether North or South.

22. The Declination of a ftar, is his Diftance from the Æquator, and as he declines from thence either Northward or Southward, fo is his Declination nominated either North or South.

23. Thus much of these affections of the ftars, which they have in respect of the Celeftial Circles; come we now to those which they have in respect of the fun; usually called the Poetical rising and setting; and this is threefold. The first of these in Latin, is called Ortum Maturinus five Cosmicus, The Morning or Cosmical Rising. The second, Vespertinus five Achronicus, The Evening or Achronical; and the last, Heliacus vel Solarw, Heliacal or Solary.

24. The Colmical or Morning Riling of a ftar, is when it Rifeth above the Horizon, together with the fun. And the Colmical or Morning fetting of a ftar is, when it fetteth at the opposite part of Heaven; when the fun rifeth.

25. The Achronical or Evening Rifing of Y 2 2

124

a Star, is when it Rifeth on the opposite part, when the Sun fetteth; And the Achronical Evening fetting of a Star, is when it fetteth at the fame time with the Sun.

26. The Heliacal Rifing of a Star, which you may properly call the Emersion of it, is when a Star that was hid by the Sun beams, beginneth to recover it felf out, and to appear. And so likewife, the setting of such a star, which may be also called the Occultation of the same, is when the Sun by his own proper motion overtaketh any star, and by the brightness of his beams doth make it invisible unto us.

And thus having briefly flewed the chief affections of the Primum Mobile; how the quantity of these affections may be computed by the Doctrine of Spherical Triangles, shall be declared in the Problems following.

#### Problem I.

#### To find the Suns Greatest Declination and ' the Poles Elevation.

In Fig. 9. AZ, B N represents the Meridian, EF the Æquinoctial, HR the Zodiack, P the North Pole; O, the South; AB, the Horizon; Z, the Zenith; N, the Nadir; HC, a Parallel; of the Suns Diurnal Motion at H, or the Suns greateft Declination from the Æquator towards the North Pole; RQ,

R Q, a Parallel of the Sans greatest Declination from the Æquator towards the South From whence it is apparent, that Pole. from A to H, is the Suns greatest Meridian Altitude, from A to Q, his least; if therefore you deduct A Q, the least Meridian Altitude, from A H, the greatest, the Difference will be HQ, the Suns greatest Declination on both fides the Æquator; and becaufe the Angles EDH, and FDR, are equal. therefore the Suns greatest Declination towards the South Pole is equal to his greatest Declination towards the North, and confequently; half the Diftance of the Tropicks; that is, E Q, or E H, is the quantity of the Suns greatest Declination; and then if you deduct the Suns greatest Declination, or the Arch HE, from the Suns greatest Meridian Altitude, or the Arch A H, the Difference will be AE, the height of the Aquator above the Horizon, the Complement whereof to a Quadrant, is the Arch AO equal to BP, the height of the Pole.

#### Example.

The Sunsgreateft Meridian / Altitude, taken June the Ele- 61.99167 venth at London. -

The Suns least Meridian Al-214.94167 titude December the tenth Their

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126

Their Difference is the diftance } 47.05000

Half that is the Suns greateft Declination whole difference from the Suns leaft Meridian Altitude, is \_\_\_\_\_\_

The Elevation of the Æquator? and the Complement thereof to 38.46667 90, is the Elevation of the Pole--- \$1.53333

### Problem 11.

The Suns greatest Declination being given, to find his Declination in any point of the Ecliptick.

In Fig. 9. In the Right Angled Spherical Triangle G L D, we have given the funs greateft Declination G D L, and the funs diffance from the next Æquinoctial point L D, to find the prefent Declination G L, for which the Proportion is Rad. s L D :: s D . s G L.

### Problem III.

The funs greatest declination and his distance from the next Equinostial point given, to find his Right Ascension.

In Fig. 9. In the Right Spherical Triangle G D L, we have given as before the Angle, G D L, and the Hypotenule D L, to find the

127 the funs Right Ascension DG; the Proportion is Rad. + DL :: s s D, + DG.

### Problem IV.

The Elevation of the Pole, and declination of the fun being given, to find his Amplitude.

In Fig. 9. In the Right Angled Spherical Triangle DTV, we have given the Complement of the Poles Elevation or Angle  $V D T_{1}$ . and the funs declination VT, to find DT, the funs Amplitude; for which the Proportion is; sVDT. Rad. :: sVT, sDT.

#### Problem V.

The Poles Elevation and funs declination being given, to find the ascentional difference.

In Fig. 9. In the Right Angled spherical triangle DVT, we have given the Complement of the Poles Elevation, or Angle V DT, and funs declination VT, to find the Afcen-fional Difference  $D_{V}$ ; the Proportion is, t V DT. Rad. :: t VT. s DV.

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Problem

#### Problem VI.

The right ascension, and ascensional difference being given, so find the Oblique ascension and declination.

In Fig. 9. GV, reprefents the tight Afcention; DV, the Afcentional difference; GD, the Oblique Afcention, which is found by deducting the Afcentional difference DV, from the Right Afcention GV; for if the Declination be North,

Add The Afcenfional diff. to Afc. or from the right Afcen. Ob!. Defc.

If the Declination be South,

Sub. 7 The Afcenfional diff. to SAfcen. Sor from the right Afcen. Obl. Add Sand it will give Defce.

#### Problem VII.

To find the time of the Suns rifing and fetting with the Length of the day and Night.

First find the Ascensional difference, as hath been shewed in the fifth Problem; which, when the Sun is in the Northern signs,

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129

Problem

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figns, is to be added to the Semi-diurnal Arch of the Right frhere, which is 90, but is to be fubtracted from the fame, if he be in the fouthern figns, and the fum or difference will be the femi-diurnal Arch, which doubled, is the day Arch, whofe Complement to 24, is the night Arch, which Bifected, is the time of the funs rifing.

#### Problem VIII.

The Poles Elevation, and the funs Declination on given, to find the time when he will be due Eaft and Weft.

In Fig. 10. In the Right Angled fpherical Triangle TPZ, we have given PZ, the Complement of the Poles Elevation, and TP, the Complement of the funs declination, to find the Angle TPZ, for which the Proportion is, Rad. tPZ :: ctTP. csTPZ. whose Complement to a Quadrant TPD, being converted into time, sheweth how much it is after fix in the Morning, when the fun will be due East, and before fix at night, when he will be due West.

Z

#### Problem IX.

The Poles Elevation, with the Suns Altitude and Declination given, to find the Suns Azimuth.

In Fig. 10. In the Oblique Angled Ipherical Triangle S P Z, we have given S P the Complement of the funs declination, PZthe Complement of the Poles Elevation, and S Z the Complement of the funs Altitude, to find the Angle S Z P, the funs Azimuth from the North; for which by the eleventh cafe of Oblique Angled Ipherical Triangles, the Proportion is; As the Rectangle of the fines of S Z, and Z P, is to the fquare of Radius, fo the Rectangle made of fines of the differences of those containing fides and half fum of three fides given, to the Square of the fine of the half angle inquired.

# CHAP. IV.

Of the Secundary or Periodical Motion. of the Stars.

Having done with the first part of Astronomy, the motion of the Primum Mobile, and the affections of the stars, occasioned by that motion; we are now to speak of their own
own Proper or Periodical motion, in which contrary to the motion of the Primum Mobile, they are carried from West to East.

2. This motion of the fixed ftars is very flow; for they alter their places but little in many Years, but are not immoveable as fome thought; the quantity of their annual motion, according to Tycho Brabe is 50 feconds, and 37 thirds of a degree, and others fince him do conceive that 50 feconds only is the quantity of their annual motion, that is most agreeable unto truth and observation.

3. This motion in the Planets is more fwift, and although they never move out of the Zodiack, yet they do move fometimes in one part of Heaven, fometimes in another, fometimes towards the fouth Pole, fometimes towards the North, fometimes near one fixed flar, fometimes near another, and fometimes nearer, fometimes farther from one apother alfo, whereas the fixed flars do always keep the fame difference from one another.

4. The Planets do not move in one Orb, but every Planet hath a feveral Orb, whereas the infinite number of fixed ftars do all move in one only fphere or Orb.

s. The Names and Characters of the planets are these :

1. Suturn, whole matk is h, finisheth his revolution in 29 Years, 174 Days, 4 Hours.

2. Jupiter, whose mark is ¥ finisheth his Revolution in 11 Years, 317 Days, 19 Hours: Bestered by Google

131

3. Mars, whole mark is 3, finisheth his Revolution in 1 Year, 321 Days, 23 Hours.

4. The Earth or Sun, marked thus O, finisheth his Course in 365 Days, 5 Hours, 49 Minutes, 4 seconds, and 21 thirds.

5. The Moon, marked thus ), finisheth her Course in 27 Days, 7 Hours, 43 Minutes, and 6 seconds, but returneth not into Conjunction with the Sun, under 29 Days, 12 Hours, 44 minutes, and 3 seconds.

6. Venus, marked thus 9, finisheth her Course in 224 Days, 16 Hours, 40' and 30". 7. Mercury, marked thus 9, finisheth his Course in 87 Days, 23 Hours, 00' and 15".

6. The Civil Year, though it doth not exactly agree, yet hath it some proportion with the Motions of the sun and Moon in every Nation; Romulus the Founder of Rome, appointed the year at first to confiss of 10 Moons, or Months, and called the first March, 2. April, 3. May, 4. June, the rest Quintilia, Sextilis, September, Ottober, November, December, because they were 9, 6, 7, 8, 9; and 10 Months distant from March.

After whom, Numa Poinpilius added two Months more, and called them January and February, and appointed each Month to contain 29 and 30 Days, whereby the Year did confift of 354 Days, in which time the Moon returneth into Conjunction with the Sun, and this is the quantity of the Year in Turky

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132

133:

at this day; only in every third Year, they reckon 355 days. The Perfians and Agyptians do also count 12 Moons or Months to their Year, but their Months are proportioned to the time of the Suns continuance in every of the 12 figns: In their Year therefore, which is folar, there are always 365 days, that is, 11 days more than the Lunan Year.

And the Julian Year, which is the accompt of all Christendom, doth differ from the other only in this, that by reafon of the fins excels in motion above 305 days, which is about 5 Hours, 49 Minutes it hatha day intercalated once in four Years, and by reafon of this Intercalation, it is more agreeable with the motion of the Son, the former differing from the Numan Year, up days and 6 Hours, the which I I days, Fidieus Cafar dit Aributed amongst the Months; and the month Quincilis, was by him called July, according to his own name ; and Augustus Cafar called the Month Sentilies, by the name of August, and altered the Polition of days in each month to that which we now use, in which there are 52 Weeks, and one odd day, and this one day supernumerary maketh an alteration in all the reft, fo that the days of the Week, which used to be affigned by the Letters of the Alphabet, fall not alike in feveral Years, but Sund y this Year, must fall out upon the next, ears Monday, & lo forward, till 11.11 13 Aa Digitized by Goog

134

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feven years, and becaufe the fix odd Hours do make a day in four years, every fourth year hath a day added to its accompt, and fuch a year doth confift of 366 days, which doth accafion the Sunday letter fill to alter till four times 7, that is, 28 Years be gone about. This Revolution is called the Cycle of the Sun, taking name from  $\odot$ ; Sunday, the Letter where of it doth appoint for every year, as by the Table may be feen.

To find which of 28 the prefent is, add 9 to the Year of Our Lord, because this Gircle was to far gone about at that the time of *Chrift's birth*, divide the whole by 28, what remains, is the prefent year; if nothing remain, the *Cysle* is out, and that year you must call the last, or 28.

This Intercalation of a day placed in February, doth cccasion the letter F to be twice repeated in the latter end of that Month, yiz, upon the 24 and 25 days, and in fuch a year St. Matthian day is to be observed upon the 25 cf that month, and the very next Sunday doth change and alter his letter; from which Leaping or Changing, such a year is called the Leap Tear, and the Number of days in each Month is well expressed in these Diffichs.

Thirty Days hath September, April, June, and November ; February bath Twenty Eight alone, All the rest hash Thirty and One: -But when of Leap Year cometh the time, Then Days bath February Twenty & Nine.

That this Accompt is fomewhat too long, is acknowledged and confell d by the molt skilful Astronomers, as for the Number of days in a year, the Emperours Mathematicians were in the right, for it is certain, no Year can confift of more than 365 days, but for the odd Hours, it is as certain that they cannot be fewer than five, nor fo many as fix, fo that the doubt is upon the minutes, fixty whereof goeth to the making of an Hour; a fmall matter one would think, and how great in the receis and confequence we shall fee.

Julius Cafar alotted 365 days, 6 hours, to his Revolution; but the Sun goeth about in lefs time, that is, (according to the most exact accompt,) in 365 days, 5 hours, 49 Minutes, and a little more; fo that the Emperours year must of necessity breed a differ rence in fo many Minutes every year, betwixt the year which the Sun it felf defcribes in the Zodiack, and that which is reckoned upon in the Calender, which though for a year or two may pass insensibly, yet in the fpace of 134 years it will rife to a whole day A a 2 Google that

that is, the beginning of the year in the Calender must be set one day back.

136

As for Example.

Let the Year begin in the Vernal Æquinox, or Spring, in the Emperours time, that fell out to be the 24th of March, but now this year it fell out the 10th of March, 13 days backward and fomewhat more; and foil it be let alone, will go back to the first of March, and first of February, till Easter come to be on Christmas day, and so infinitely.

To reform this difference in the accompt, fome of the latter Roman Bishops earnestly endeavoured, and the thing was brought to that perfection it now standeth, (so much . as it is,) by Gregory the Thirteenth, in the year 1582. his Mathematicians, (whereof Lylins mas the chief) advised him thus : That confidering there had been in agitation in the Council of Nice, fomewhat concerned in this matter upon the motion of the Queition about the Celebration of Easter; and that the Fathers of that Assembly, after due diliberation with the Aftronomers of that time, had fixed the Vernal Æquinox ; st the 211h of March, and confidering alfo, that fince that time a difference of 10 whole days had been past over in the Calender, that is, that the Vernal Equinox or Spring, which began upon the 21th of March, had prevented to much as to begin in Gregories

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137

days, at the 10th of the fame, 10 days difference, or thereabout; they advised, that 10 days should be cut off from the Calender, which was done, and the 10 days taken out of October, in the Year 1582, as being the Month of that Year in which the Pope was born, fo that when they came to the 5th of the Month, they reckoned the 15th, and fo the Æquinox was come up to its place again, and happened upon the 21th of March, 23 at the Council of But that Lylins should bring back Nice. the beginning of the year to the time of the Nicene Council, and no farther is to be marvelled at; he fhould have brought it back to the Emperours own time, where the mi-Itake was first entred; and instead of 10, cut off 13 days; however this is the reason why these two Calenders differ the space of 10 days one from another.

And thus I have given you an accompt of the year as it now stands with us in England, and with the rest of the Christian World, in respect of the Sun; fome other particulars there are with us and them, that do depend upon the motion of the moon, for the better understanding of them, I will give you a brief accompt of her Revolution.

The Solar year confifting, as hath been faid, of 11 days more than the Lunar year; those 11 days called the Epach, are therefore added to the Lunar Year, to made it e-A 2 2 qual

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r38 . qual with the Solar, by the addition of which access, in every three years there is gotten a number more than 30, but because the Moon between change and change toth never pais 30 days, the Epact cannot exceed that number, and the time in which the Moon is fup posed to make her several Motions, and so return to the place where the first began, is a circle or Revolution of 19 years, first found out by Meton, an Athemian, who lived about 439 years before Chrift, this Cycle is therefore called Cyclus Decennovennalis, and from the Autor Annus Metonicus, from whose Athenians, the Agyptians may feem to have receiv'd it, as the Romans from them, in letters of Gold, from whence (if not from the more precious ufe of it) it attained to be called, as yet still it is, the Numerns Aurens, or Golden Number : It is made Christian, by the Fathers of the Nicene Council, as being altogether necessary to the finding out of the Neomenea Paschalis, upon which the Feast of Easter and all the reft of the moveable Feasts depend: It felf is found by adding a Unite to the year of our Lord, and dividing the whole by 19, the Romainder fhall be the Cycle of the Moon, or if nothing remain, the Cycle is out, that is, 19. 🐐

And the Epact is found by Multiplying the golden Number by 11, and dividing the Product by 30, what remains is the Epast; but to favethistrouble of Calculation, you have it fet down to your hand in the table before the Ca-L. C. lender Digifized by Google

lender, the use whereof as of the Golden Number is to find the Change of the Moon, for the Ancient Philosophers Supposing the Moon to make a perfect Revolution in 19 years. did Calculate the feveral Changings of the. Moon that happened in each Month for that time, and placed the golden number for each year, right against the day of the Month on which the Moon changed, that fo having found the golden number, they might thereby prefently know on what day of the month the Moon did change, in any Month of the year forever, as also the time, when the Feast of Easter was to be observed, according to the Canon made at a General Council held at Nice, in the year of our Lord, 322, in which it is commanded that Easter should be Celebrated upon the next Sunday following the first Full Moon after the Vernal Æquinox, which then was upon the 21th day of March, and according to this rule is this Feaft obferved with us at this day, and not according to the true Motion of the Moon, or precife time of the Vernal Æquinox, which now is about the 10th of March; This nfe of the Golden Number is well expressed in these Diffichs.

In March after the first C,

Look the Prime where e're it be; The third Sunday after Easter day shall be, And if the Prime on the Sunday be, Then reckon that for one of the three.

- 140

## The English Academy.

To find the New Moons by the Epact, do thus, To the Epact for the year given add the number of the months from March including both Months, and the days of that Month paft, the Sum of these three Numbers shall give you the age of the Moon, if they exceed not 30, if more than 30, cast away 30, and the Remainder shall be the Age as before.

#### Example,

I would know the Age of the Moon on the Fifteenth day of Angust, 1672. The Epace is 11, and the Months from March to August are 6, and 15 the day of the Month, all which put together, do make 32, from whence take 30, and there refts 2, the Age of the Moon that day.

And to know the day of the Change, do thus . To the Epact add all the months from March, and if they joyned together, come not to 90, look what they lack of 30, and at fo many days of the month the moon changeth: If they be above 30, and the month you defire have 31 days, then Subtract 30 ; but if 30 days, then Subtract 29, and that reft take from 30, then look what remains, and at fo many days of the month the moon changeth, by either of these ways the time of the new moons may indeed be guest at, but not exactly found : How that may be done, is flew d in the larger Treatifes of this Subject ; this we deem fufficient for our "refent purpofe. A

The English Academy. A Lable, hewing the Cycle of the Suns, Dominical Golden Number, and the Epast. Letter. Cycl. Dom. Year Year of our olden Number . Ó of our Lett. Lord. Epalt Lord. GF E D Ĉ 4: BA ·:X G F 8 E Ŝ БC б 28 B :7 -8 A IA G E F 168.1 D С B AG F 26 E D .7 18 1692 21 C B 1689. A G  $\widetilde{F}$ 2:4 ED С B Google 1699 28

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# THE ENGLISH ACADEMY: The SIXTH PART.

147

OF RHETORICK.

## CHAP. L

Of the Definition and Parts of RHETORICK.

R HETORICK, is the Art or faculty of Eloquent and delightful Speag king.

The Parts of Rhesorick are Five; Invention, Diffosion, Elocution, Memory, and Pronounciation.

In Invention, we are to confider three things:

1. What we are to Invent. 2. By what Arguments we may confirm the Matter Invented. 3. From what Topicks or general

148

ral Heads those Arguments may be raised. And first, the thing or matter which we are to invent, is the scope and purpose of the intended Oration : I hat is, we must propound forme certain Proposition to which we mean to direct our Speech; and of those feveral Propositions which may be raised from the subject propounded, we should still make choice of that which is most agreeable to the Semente given

Secondly, When we have refolved upon a Propolition, we are to bethink our felves of fome Arguments or probable Reasons, by which that Proposition may be confirmed.

Thirdly, We are to confider the feveral Topicks or common places from whence these probable Arguments may be invented. and raifed, and these are of two forts; Intrinferal and Entrinferal ; those that are called Intrinsicel, which are comprised in the matter which is propounded, and the Topicks or Heads, from whence fuch Arguments may be invented, are these following. 1. Definition. 2. Division. 3. Notation. 4. Conjugation. 5. Genus. 6. Species. 7. Semilitude. 8. Dissimilitude. 9. Contraries: 10. Opposites. 11. Comparison. 12. Causes. 13. Effects. 14. Adjuncts. 15. Antecedents. 16. Consequents. All other Topicks, from whence Intrinfecal or Artificial Arguments may be raifed, are contained in these or may be derived from them.

1. Definition.

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1. Definision, is a Spotch explaining or declaring what a thing is ; The parts whene of, according to Logicians are two; J.The Gennis; or general name agreeing with she thing defined, and with feveral other things besides. 2. The difference or particular name, which doth only agree with that which is defined :

#### . For Example.

Man is a Living Creature, endued with Reafon. In which the Genus is living Creature; and this agrees with other Greatures befides Man; the Difference, is endued with Realon, and this is proper to Man only. But fuch Definitions as thefe, are feklom uled by Orecors, but fich rather as are called Descriptions, more properly than Definitions; as when a thing is defcribed by its pants, or by its effects, or by the caufes by which effects are produced, and fuch like.

. Division, is the distribution of the matter propounded into its parts ; Thus the Life of Man may be divided into Infancy, Child-hood, Youth, Middle-age, Old-age.

3. Natation, or Elynningie, in the Interpretation of a Work, howing as wall the Original thereof, as the Significations: As a Senser is to called from the convention of that Seniors or Old Men.

4. Conjugation, is either what hack veriens endings ; as haifs, huises ; or when C 3

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when feveral words do come from one Primitive, thus; beautiful and beautifulnefs, are both derived from beauty.

5. A Genus, is that which comprehends feveral things under it; which are really different from one another.

6. A Species, is that which may with other things be referred to one common Genus: And thus this word Art, is a genus, in respect of the seven Liberal Sciences; as Grammar; Rhetorick, &c. and these Sciences Grammar, Rhetorick, &c. are the Forms and Species which are contained under this Genus or general term, Art.

7. Similitade, is the comparing of two or more things together, which are in them felves divers, but do agree in some particular.

#### For Example.

A floadow and glory, are in themfelves very different things; but yet they agree in this, that the floadow doth accompany the body, and glory, wirine.

8. Diffimilicude, is the difagreeing of two or more things in fome particular.

9. Centraries, are fuch things which cannot both at the fame time, agree with one & the fame thing: Thus no man can be faid to be wife in that thing in which he is a Fool.

10. Opposites, are such things as can never agree together, as wrath and friendsbip,

11. Comparison, is the comparing of one thing

thing with another; This is either equal or unequal.

151

Equal Comparison is, when two equal things are compared together; as thus, He back deceived thee, therefore he will deseive me also.

Unequal Comparison, is two ways, first, when we argue from the greater to the lefs:. As God spared not the Angels shat somed, how then shall He spare Man?

Secondly, when we argue from the lefs to the greater; As, He will not les one fin go unpunified; much more will be therefore punific a multitude of fins.

12. Caufes, are fuch things by which any thing is in any fort produced; there are Four forts of Caufes; Efficient, Maserial, Formal, and Final.

The Efficient canfe, is that which maketh a thing: Thus the Sun causeth or maketh the day.

The Material cause, is that of which a thing is made, as Money, of Gold and Silver, &c.

The Formal can/e, is that by which the thing is what it is, or that by which it is diffinguified from other things; thus a Ship and a Timber-house do differ in the form, or divers disposing of the parts.

The Final canfe, is that for which a thing is made.

13. Effects, are such things as are propounded by their caufes. 14. Adjuncts.

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14. Adjustis, are luch things which are joyned to the thing or perfon propounded, buyeness nestflity; and their are usually fores.

Quis ? Quid ? Whi? Quibps Anorities & Cur ? Quemodo ? Quando ?

In English thus,

. E to St ask, Who ? What ? and Whene ? and Then, What aid ? wish Why ? and Haw ? and When?

Quis? Who? doth fignific the quality of the Person, in which there must be confidered his Nature, Sex, Age, Nation, Kindred, and Effate, in respect of his Body, Mind, and Fortune.

Quide What importer an Inquiry aftes the nature of a thing, as whether it he of importance or not; whether great or fmall; noble or ignoble.

• Ubi? Where? denotes the place.

Quibus Auxilia? VVith substaid? notes an inquiry concerning the perion that joyned with him in that action, or other inftruments by which it is effected.

Cur? VVhy? denotes the final caufe, with what intent, or to what end it was done.

Quantide<sup>3</sup> How? flows the manner of doing it s as namely, with cafe, or haw hardly. Quante? When? notes the time in which it was done, and this hard doth many times afford great plenty of matter.

15. Antecedents, are fuch things which go before the thing or matters as you made

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152

## The English Atabemy.

him tremble, therefore he is fensible.

16. Confequents, are fuch things which do necessary follow after the thing or matter as he that is thruk through the heart, mult needs die; these are the intrinsceal or Artificial Topicks, from whence Arguments may be raised on any Theme or matter propounded in this manner.

Every Theme or Proposition doth confist of three parts; 2 Subject, 2 Predicate, and 2. Copula.

That is called the Subject, of which we fpeak ; The Predicate, is that which is fpoken of the Subject; and the Copula, is some · Verb, which joyns the Subject with the Predicate, as in this Proposition; Claudius laid (nares for Milo : Claudins is the Subject, because it is of him that we are to speak. Snares for Milo, is the Predicate ; because that is the thing which is faid of Claudius. And the Verb laid, is the Copula, which. joyns the Subject with the Predicate. Now then if you will find out Arguments on this. Proposition, take the Subject, and go through every Topick: First go to Definition, and ask what it is e what is the nature of it ? and how it is distinguished from other things? then go to Division, and fee into how many parts the Subject may be divided; and fo forward from Topick to Topick. And still observe to yourfelf every Argument, which doth by this means arise from the Subject, md

133

154

and apply it to the Predicate; fo fhat you eafily fee, whether it doth fully confirm your Proposition, and when you have done, with the Subject, take the Predicate, and run through the feveral Topicks with that alfo; but if the matter require it, and that you judge it more convenient to take the whole Proposition, then the Subject and Pres dicate a part by themfelves, you may in that manner run through all the heads of Invention; but flay not too long upon any one, for if matter offer not it felf in one head, go to another, for every head perhaps may not afford matter, at least not fuch as is apt and fit. But if you would know whether your Arguments or matter be drawn from the Subject, or from the Predicate, put it into the form of a Syllogifm, and if the major be most certain, you may conclude, that the Argument is drawn from the predicate; but if the minor be most certain, it is then drawn from the Subject.

When you have found the Arguments which prove the Proposition, you mult reduce them into the form of a Syllogium, which doth confist of three Propositions: the first whereof is called the Major, the feband the Miner, and the third the Cancingen be Inforence.

#### Eor Example.

In the former Proposition, Claudius laid frares for Mile; the matter of Subject of the Discourse

155. Discourse may be drawn from the Predicate the fnares laid for Milo; which being a treacherousthing, every one may naturally infer, that it doth deferve punifhment.

Now then joyn this Inference with the Predicate of your Proposition ; faying, He that layeth Inares deferveth punifument, and this is your Majer; then take the Subject of your Propolition, and joyn that with the Predicate, and fay, Claudius layers fnares, and that is your Minor : From both which, this conclusion mak needs follow, Therefore Claudi-138 de fervith punifoment.

- 17. Hithertowe have spoken of Artificial Agguments, Inartificial are either Teltimonies or Examples.

Testimonics are either Divine or Human. a Divine Festimony is that which hath God for its Author ; fuch arothe Oracles of God. and the predictions of his Prophets.

Humane Teftimony, is either Common or Proper.

Common Teftimony, is that which depands either upon fome Law, Cultom, or Opinion and Sayings of wife Men.

Aroper Teltimony, is that which is peculiar so fome particular Caufes.

Example, is an Inartificial Argument, by which the truth of a thing is confirmed and illuffrated. 1171

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156

Diffestition, is the orderly placing of those things which are invented : It is two-fold.

First, Natural, in which things are difcoursed in that order in which they were done, or in which according to Nature, they should be done; as if you were to commend a Person, you should begin with his Childhood, next his Youth, and so to the other degrees of his Age.

The fecond way is Artificial, which doth either for delight or profit diverily mingle and confound the matter, putting that in the end, which should be in the beginning, and the beginning in the end, that so he may both delight the Auditors, and hold them in suffective; which in an unexpected event doth not a little please and delight the Hearers.

The Orator then having refolved of his Proposition, must first consider of what nature it is, whether fingle, or coulifing of feveral parts; and which of the parts should be first handled, which next.

Secondly, he must choose some few of the best Arguments he hath invented, and place

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fome folid Argument in the beginning, those that are less forcible in the midst, referving still the best and most convincing for the conclusion; because the Auditor at the first being greedy of knowing, must be preposfessed and convinced; but in the end he must be strongly confirmed and forced.

157

And the most perswasive Arguments are those which proceed from the Definition, Distribution, Genus, Causes, and Effects of the thing discoursed of, for these explain the nature thereof; and less forcible Arguments are such as are collected from some trivial Adjuncts and Conjectures.

Thirdly, he must Logically dispose of these Reasons and Arguments; First, into Syllogisms, and then confider how to enlarge them in an Oratorical manner.

Fourthly, he must confider into what parts his Oration should be divided, and the parts of an Oration are usually reckoned to be these five.

- 1. Exordium. 3. Narration.
- 2. Proposition. 4. Confirmation.
- 5. Peroration, or Conclusion.

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As for Confutation, it is comprised in Confirmation: But all these parts are not always necessary; for the ingenious Orator, may as he shall fee it convenient, femetimes opti the Narration, fometimes the Exordi-E.e.

188 um, fometimes the Peroration or Conclusion, yea, and the Confirmation is many times fcarce difcernable; as when the things propounded are certain, there is more need of Ornament than Proof, as in Gratulatory Orations, and the like. As for the placing of these parts, their natural Order is that in which we have named them. 1. The Exordium. 2. The Proposition: 3. The Narration, if it be not thought fit to omit it. 4. The Confirmation; and Laftly, The Pe-Y TRAtion.

An Exordium, is as it were the door of the Oration, in which the Orator doth pre-Dare the minds of the Auditor for that which is to follow: And this is commonly done by one of these three ways; By bespeaking their Favour; by making them Docible; or by begging their Attention. The Favour of the Auditors is bespoke either from the perfon of the Orator, from the perfons of the Auditors, from the perfons of the Adverfaries, or from the subject matter of the Discourse. The Orator may befpeak the Favour of the Auditors, in respect of himfelf, if his gesture and deportment be suitable unto theirs that are his Auditors, and express himself modestly. And in respect of the Auditors, if he shew how well they have deserved of the Common-wealth, of him, and other men. And in respect of the Adversaries, if he modestly shew wherein they

they are faulty, and render them to the Auditors inexcufable. And laftly, in respect of the matter in hand, if he fay, that it is fome excellent, necessary, and profitable thing.

Secondly, the Orator may be faid to make the Auditors Docible, if he clearly explain the thing of which he is to fpeak, and how he purpofeth to enlarge upon it.

Thirdly, the Attention will be quickened, if he faith, that he intends to speak of some great and wonderful thing, and something that is delightful, necessary, and very much concerns his Auditors, Sc.

The fecond part of an Oration is the Propolition; and the Propolition is that part of the Oration, in which the Orator doth briefly deliver the fum of the whole Matter, of which he intends to fpeak, and befpeaks the Hearers Attention, if need be. Sometimes it doth immediately follow the Exerdium; fometimes it follows the Nairation; in what place foever it be put, it mult be fhort and clear, and fit for Confirmation.

The third part of an Oration is Narration, by which a relation is made of the matter or thing done. And this is either a diftinct part of the Oration, and then for the most part it doth immediately follow the Exordium, that the Proposition with the Confirmation, which is to be done in fuch Orations which assume the explaination of  $E \in Z$  the

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159.

If you were to prove that fome Valiant Perfon had been a Souldier in fome Warr; it is neceffary that you fhould declare what the particular Actions were in which he fhewed his Valour.

But now in that Narration, which is made a diffinct part of the Oration; the thing done muft be briefly and fimply declared without any exaggregation: And in fuch a Narration as makes way for Confirmation, the things done may be illustrated with great neatness of Language, with Sentences and Figures, and some Discourses may be made concerning the worthiness of the action, with some amplification from Similitudes and Comparisons.

The fourth part of an Oration, is Confirmation : and Confirmation is as it were the very Heart and Soul by which an Oration may be chiefly faid to Live: Or it is the chief part of an Oration in which the Arguments are produced, by which we would prove our Proposition, and refute or answer the contrary opinion of our Adversary, if need require: What is necessary in this behalf, may be collected from what hath been already faid. Seeing that Confirmation doth confist of the Arguments that are invented and the right disposition of them, both which have been fully enough declared before. Confutation.

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161

Confutation, is a part or kind of Confirmation, in which we Answer all Objections; it doth either precede or follow Confirmation, or may be here or there used in all the parts of the Oration.

And these objections may be either all Anfwered together, or those first which are first made, and then the latter; or those first which are most material, and the rest may fall of themselves; or the weakest first, that they being avoided, the strongest Arguments may be somewhat weak hed. And the manner of doing this, is by shewing, that the Adversaries Allegation is either false, imposfible, uncertain, or impertment, and the like.

Peroration, or Conclusion, is the last part of an Oration, in which the Orator should very much endeavour to set an edge in the minds of his Auditors, and incline them to be of his side; and here he should therefore use such Figures, as are most proper to move the Affections: It doth chiefly consist of two parts, Enumeration, and Amplificatien.

. Enumeration is required, that the chief Arguments more largely opened in the former difcourse may be clearly repeated in a new form of words.

Amplification, defires that this repetition may be made, by fome ferious expressions, a. dorned with Sentences and Figures. E e 3 CHAP.

## CHAP, III

### Of Elocation.

E Locution, or the garnishing of Speech, is an Art by which the Speech is beautified with the Elegancy of Words and Sentences.

And this is performed two ways; by the fine manners of Words, called a Trope; or by the fine frame of Speech, called a Figure.

A Trope is fuch an Elocution or manner of Speech, as doth change the fignification of a word into a different fignification from the natural.

In a Trope two things are to be confidered. 1. The Affections. 2. The Kinds.

Catachrefis. The Affettions of 2 Hyperbole. Trope are four, Matalepfis. Allegoria.

Catachrefis, is a harsh and unpleasant change of a Word; as namely, when one word or name is put to another, not by any proper relation, but by a kind of force. He threatens me a good turn.

Hyperbole, is a very high relation of a thing, or a more bold excess of a Trope, which dothexceed belief, either by Augmen-

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162

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tation or by Diminution. Note that though an Hyperbole doth vary from the truth, yet doth it not deceive us through Fiction, or fuch variation.

163

An Hyperbale is two-fold; Auxesis or Meinfis.

An Auxefis is, when for Argumentation fake or Amplification, we interpose a more vehement expression, in his proper place; as when we fay, magnificent for liberal.

A Meiofis, or a Tapinofis, is when for extenuation fake, we use a milder or more favoarable expression, than the matter requis reth; as when we fay a flatterer is a courteous and an affable perfon.

A Matalepsis, is that which containeth many Tropes in one expression; as, when we by an improper Speech, fignifie, first, that which is improper, and by that improper Speech perhaps another, and so forward, till we come to that which is proper, making way for Transition, by interposing a mean degree; as All the City was moved. Mat.21. 10. where the City is put for Yerussalem, by a Symechodoche Generis: and Jerussalem for its Inhabitants, by a Metonymy of the Subject.

An Allegory, is the continuation of a Trope as where many Tropes of the fame kind are joyned together; as, Put on the whole Armor of God, Ephefians 6, 11.

In an Allegory, observe to end with the fame kind of Trope with which you begin, or elfe

164 The English Academy. else the Consequence will be abused.

The feveral kinds of Tropes are these four: 1. A Metonomy. 3. A Metaphor : and 2. An Irony. 4. A Synechdoche.

A Metanomy, is a Trope of the Caule to the Effect, of the Subject to the Adjunct : and the contrary, of the Effect to the Caule, or of the Adjunct to the Subject.

There are four kinds of Caufes.

1. The Efficient Caufe, by which a thing is.

2. The Material Caufe, of which a thing is made.

3. The Formal Caufe, by which a thing is what it is.

4. The Final Caufe, for which a thing is; of which the two first only belong to our prefent purpose.

A Metonymy of the Cause, is of the Efficient, or of the Matter.

A Metonymy of the Efficient Caufe, is when the Author or Inventor of any thing is put for those things which he hath invented; as Virgil, for the Poem or Works composed by Virgil.

A Metonymy of the Material Caufe, is when the name of the Matter is put for the Effect; as Brafs, for Brafs Money.

A Metonymy of the Effect, is when the Efficient Caufe is fignified by the Effect; as, Pale Death, which make the Pale.

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A Metonymy of the Subject, is when the proper name of any Subject is made to fignifie the Adjunct; as, the Cup, for the Drink in the Cup.

165

A Metonymy of the Adjunct, is when the Adjunct is put for the Subject; as Gen. 31. 53. Jacob freear by the fear of his Father I faac, i.e. by God, whom I faac feared.

An Irony, is a Trope from one opposite to another, or in which we speak by contraries.

Opposites; are either unlike or contrary; all things of different natures are faid to be unlike; as a Man, a Stone; and all things of contrary natures are faid to be contrary to one another; as light and darkness.

An Irony of a thing unlike, is when any thing is fpoken of one person, and underftood of another.

An Irony from the contrary, is when one contrary is fignified by another; as O thou haf done very well; meaning that he had done very ill.

Paralepsis, is a kind of Irony, by which we feem to pass by, or take no notice of fuch things which yet we strictly observe and remember.

Apophasis, is a kind of Irony, by which we deny to fay or do what yet we speak with greatest carnestness, and do with all our might.

A Merapher, is a Trope, by which we

expre's our felves by a word, which is of the like fignification with that we mean; as, the King is the Head of the Common-wealth.

Syncedeche, is a Trope, by which a part is put for the whole, or the whole for a part.

A Part, is either a Member or Species.

A Synecdoche of a Member, when by a Member the whole is fignified; as, the Roof for the Houfe.

A Syre doche of the Species, is when the Species is put for the Genus; 28, Crasu, for a Rich man.

The whole is either an Integer or Gennu.

A Synecdoche of an Integer, is when an Integer is put for a Member; as, His Army was fogreat, that it drank the Rivers dry; meaning a great part of the Water in the River.

A Synecdoche of the Genus is, when the general is put for the fpecial; as, Preach the Gospel to every Creature, meaning Mankind only, and not to every Creature.

Hitherto of Tropes, the first kind of elocution, the second kind of Elocution by Figure.

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CHAP.

166

## CHAP. IV.

# Of a Figure.

A Figure, is a kind of Elocution, by which the form of a Speech is changed from its right and plain use.

A Figure, is either of a Word, or of a Sentence.

A Figure of a Word, is that by which an Oration or Speech is composed of words aptly and sweetly suitable to one another, and this confists in the Dimension or Repetition of Sounds or VVords.

A Figure, in the Dimension of Sounds, is the fweet number of Sounds in a Sentence.

Number, is either Poetical or Qratorical.

A Peetical Number, is that which is confined to a perpetual observation of certain Spaces.

. A Number Poesical, is either Rhyme or Meter.

Rhyme is a Poetical Number, containing a certain number of Feet, without any regard to the quantity of the Syllables; whether long or fhort, As,

Dare to be true; nothing can need a lye: A fault that needs it most, grows two thereby. A Miter, is a Poetical Number; confisting of
of certain Feet, of which the laft Foot hath the laft Syllable indifferent or common; that is, long or fhort.

Oratorisal Number doth indeed confift of Feet, but not of any certain number of Feet, but of as many or as few as the Orator pleafeth.

The Figure of a word in respect of the repetition thereof, is either of like or unlike Sounds.

A Figure of a word in the repitition of the like Sound, is either with, or without Intermission.

Repetition of the like Sound without intermission, is either an Epizenxis, or an Anadiples.

An Epizenxis, is when a like Sound is repeated in the fame Sentence without Intermiffion; as, a foord, a foord is sharpened.

An Anadiplefis, is when a like found without Intermission is repeated in divers featences, i.e. when it ends one and begins another; 25,

If then, why I take not my leave, the ask; Ask her again, why the did not anask?

Repetition of like found with intermission in the fame place, is either an Anaphera or Epistrophe.

An Anaphera, is when a like found is repeated

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peated in the beginning of Sentences; as,

By art of Sails and Oars, Seas are divided : By art the Chariot runs, by art Loves guided.

An Epistrophe, is when a like found is repeated, in the close of fentences; as, Are they Hebrews? fam I: Are they Ifraelites? fo am I: Are they of the feed of Abraham? fo am I.

Repetition of like found with intermission in divers parts or places, is either an Epanalepsis, or an Epanados.

An Epanalepsis, is when a like found is repeated in the beginning and ending of the fame Sentence; as, In forrow was I bern, and I must dye in forrow.

An Epanados, is when the like found is in the beginning and ending of divers fentences, an Anadiplofis coming between; as Parthenia defired above all things to have Argalus; Argalus feared nothing but to miß Parthenia.

A Figure of a Word made by the repetition of founds fomewhat unlike, is either Paronomafia, or Polyptoton.

Paronomafia, is when a Word being changed in a Letter or Syllable, it is alfo changed in fense and fignification; as, Though you advise me to repent, I have not Grace to follow your advise.

A Polyptoton, is when words of the fame Digitized by GOOGG g Origi-

170

ginal are reiterated, but with fome variation on; as, Decciving, and being Deceived.

A Figure in reference to a fentence, is a Figure which affecteth the whole fentence with fome motion of the Mind, either in ablolute reafoning, or in reafoning Dialogue-wife.

Logifmus, or absolute Reasoning, is when a sentence is composed without any talking with other supposed; this is either Ecphones fis, a recalling of ones self, Apostrophe, or Prostopeia.

Ecptonesis, is a Figure in reasoning, by way of Exclamation, by an Adverb expresfed, or understood; as, O wretched manithat 1 um?

Recalling of ones felf, is when fomething is called back; and it is as it were a Diminution of the over-haftinefs or heat of fpeech; and this is either Epanorthofis, or Apofiopefis.

An Eparnorsboss, is when fomething precedeing is called back, by correcting it; as, I bid one only Young Man to my fon; ab! what bave I faid! I had ! yea I had! It is now ancertain whether I have or not.

An Aposicopesis, is when the close of a fentence begun is stopped, by keeping in a part, which yet is understood; as, You Rogue if 1 Live ?

An Apostrophe, is when a speech is direeted to another, than was by the speech it felf

171

felf at first intended; as, God knows I lye not.

A Profopopæiz, is when in our Oration, we fuppose another person to be speaking; as, Josh. 24 27. Behold this shall be a witness unto us; for it bath heard all the Words of the Lord, which he hath spoken unto us.

A Figure, in reasoning Dialogue wife, is when a fentence is composed in form of a Conference; this confistent in Question and Answer, in Conferting or differting Dialogism.

A Figure of confenting Dialogifm, is when ones Answer doth admit of the Objection expressed or understood; yet so, as that from thence the inconfequence of the Objection may be shewed if need be.

Diffenting Dialogism, is when ones anfwer doth impugn or cross the Objection.

And thus much concerning Elecution, as for Memory and Prenounciation, which are the other two parts of Rhetorick, I purpofely omit them, as being natural Endowments, which may be better improved by constant practice, than by any Precepts which can be given.

# THE ENGLISH ACADEMY: The SEVENTH PART.

# Of the ART of LOGICK.

#### CHAP. I. Of Simple Themes.

Ogick, is an Art which conducteth the Mind in the knowledge of Things. 2. The Parts of Logick are two, Thematical and Organical.

3. The *Thematical* part is that, which Treateth of Themes, with their various affections, and fecond Notions, as of the matter of which Logical Inftruments are composed.

4. The Organical part, is that which treateth of these Instruments, and their Composition.

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5. A Theme, is any thing propounded to

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the understanding, that it may be known.

174

6. A Theme, is either simple or compound.

7. A Simple Theme, is one Voice, fignifiing one thing as, a Man, a Horfe.

8. A Compound Theme, is a Theme made of feveral fimple themes rightly Joyned together; fignifying many or feveral things; fuch are all Orations.

9. A Simple Theme or Voice, is,

1. Concrete, which expressed a thing Concretely or Joyntly; as, Learned.

2. Abstract, which noteth something Abstracted from all others ; as, Learning.

10. An Abstratt Voice, or simple theme, is Singular or Universal.

11. A fingular theme, is that which in its own nature can be spoken of no more than one, and is called an Individual.

12. Individuals are of two forts.

1. Such as are Certain and Determinate;

25, this man, Paul, Alexander, the Apostle of the Gentiles, &c.

2. Such as are uncertain and indeterminate, as fome man.

13. An Universal fimple Theme, otherwise called a Predicable, is that which may be spoken of many; as, a Body; and this is either of the first or second Intention.

14. A fimple Theme of the first intention, is that which expressed the thing it felf; as, Gold, Stone, &cc. fo called, because they are the names by which the things themselves are first made known. 15. A

13. A fimple Theme of the fecond Intention, is that which doth not express the things it felf, but certain affections agreeing to the thing, and fuch are all Words of Art; as, a Noun, a Metaphor,  $\mathcal{O}$  c.

i'6. An Universal simple Theme, may be fpoken of many, two ways.

1. In Quid? or by declaring what a thing is; and thus it is fpoken of fuch as do differ in the *species*, and is called *Genus* gas, a living Creature, colour, & c. or elfe of fuch as dodiffer in number only, and is called *spe*cies; as, a Man.

2. In Quale, or by declaring what a kind of thing it is, of which it is fpoken; & that Effentially or Accidentally, Effentially, and then it is called Difference, the which is,

1. Divisive, by which a Genus is divided into its feveral species, as by rational and irrational a Living Creature is divided into a Man or a Beast.

2. Constitution, which doth Essentially constitute some species, and this is,

1. Generical, which doth conflitute fome remote species, but not the next, for the next is the Genus, thus fensibility in respect of Man, is a generical difference, conflituting first a living Creature, and then a man. And this is always spoken of many differing in species, or number. 2. Specifical, which doth conflitute the nearest species; as, rationalibility doth conflitute man. 2. Accidentally, and that either of neces

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176

fity, and then it is called a proper Accident, which is convertable with its Species, perpetually inherent in every of them, and in no other, as the visible faculty in a Man.

Or not of necessity, and then it is called a common or simple Accident, not convertible with its Species; as white.

17. All simple Themes, may be reduced to ten ranks or orders, called Predicaments, of which Tome are more principal, some less.

18. The more principal Predicaments are the first fix, the less principal, are the other four.

19. The Predicamental Ranks or Orders, are of two forts, the one of Substance, and the other of Actidents.

20. Of Substance, there is only one, and it is called by that name Substance, which is a thing substiting of it felf, and it is either first or second.

21. The first fubstance, is a Singular substance, or a substance that cannot be predicated of its subject; as, Alexander.

22. The fecond Subfrance is an Universal fubfrance, or a fubfrance which may be predicated of its fubject; as, a Man, a Hor/e. The first fubfrance is chiefly and properly a fubfrance, and among the fecond fubfrances, every one isby formuch more a fubfrance, by how much it is nearer to the first.

23. The Predicamental Ranks or Orders of Accidents, are of two forts.

1. Abfilute, as the Predicaments of quan-

tity, Quality, Action, and Paffion.

2. Relative, as the Predicament of Relation. 24. Quantity, is an abiolate accident, by which a thing is faid to be great in bulk or number.

25. Quality, is an absolute Accident, by which it is fimply and determinately declared what kind of thing, that subject is, of which it is the Quality.

26. Aftion, is an Accident, by which a fubject is faid to be doing.

27. Paffinn, is an Accident, by which the fubject is called Patient; or it is the reception of Action.

28. Relation, is a respective accident, by which one thing is predicated of another, cr may by some way be referred unto another.

29. The lefs principal Predicaments are thefe four, When, Where, Scienation, and Habit.

30. The Predicament Wken, is an accident, by which finite things are faid to be in time, paft, prefent, or to come.

31. The Predicament Where, is an accident, by which things finite, are faid to be in fome place.

32. The Predicament of Scituation, is a certain Ordination, or placing of parts in Generation.

33. The Predicament of Habit, is an accident, by which fome garment or fomething like a Garment, is put about, hanged upon, or fome way or other joyned to a Body.

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## CHAP. II.

#### Of Compounded Themes.

H Itherto of Simple Themes : Compounded Themes, or fuch as are made of feveral Simple Themes are next to be confidered; otherwife called Enunciations, or Propositions.

2. An Enunciation, or Propesition, is an Indicative, Congruent and perfect Oration, fignifying true or falle without any Ambiguity.

3. The parts of a Proposition are two, the parts Signing or Signed.

4. The parts Signing are *fimple terms*, whole parts can fignifie nothing, being feparated from the whole, or no fuch thing as they did fignifie being joyned all together.

5. These simple terms are of two forts, Categorematical, or Syncategorematical.

6. Categorematical, or Significative terms, or fuch fimple terms, as do by themselves fignifie fomething perfectly; and these are either Nouns or Verbs.

7. A Noun, is a fimple term or word, which doth fignifie fome certain thing without destinction of time; as, a man, a horse.

8. A Verb, is a fimple term, which doth fignifie fomething, with fome definition of time paft, prefent, or to come; as, he runnerb.

9. Syncategorematical, of Confignificative terms, are fimple terms, which of themfelves do not fignifie any certain thing, or

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conftitute a Proposition, but being joyned with other Words, are fignificative, to exprefs the manner of fuch a thing; and fuch are all Words which ferve to express the quantity of a proposition; as, *all, none, fome, & c.* with all Adverbs, Conjunctions, Prepositions, and Interjections.

10. The parts figned are three ; the fubjest, the predicate, and the Copula.

ii. The subject is all that which precedes the Copula in the Proposition.

12. The Predicate, is all that which is spoken of the *subject*.

13. The Copula, is the principal Verb, joyning the Predicate to the fubject, and in every Proposition is fome perfon of this Verb Substantive, as in this Proposition, A Manis a living Creature; a Man is the fubject; a living Creature is the Predicate; and the Verb is the Copula; fometimes the Copula is fome Perfon of a Verb Adjective; as in this Proposition, Socrates lived at Athens.

Here note, that the fubject doth not always precede, and the *predicate* follow the Copula, in order of the parts or terms, but in fenfe and conftruction; and alfo, that in fome Propolitions, the three terms are not always expreft, but implyed; as, I malk, for I am walking.

14. Propositions are distinguish'd three ways, according to Substance, Quantity, and Quality.

15. A Proposition, in respect of the substance or parts of which it doth consist, is either Categorical or Hypothetical. 16. A

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179.

16. A Categorical Proposition, is that which doth confist of one *subject*, one *Predicate*, and one Copula; as, a man is a Living Creature, and this is either Pure or Modal,

17. A Pure Categorical Proposition, is when the Predicate is purely affirmed or denyed of the *fubject*, without expressing the manner of affirming or denying.

18. A Modal Categorical Proposition, is when besides the *subject*, predicate, and Copula, we add fome modification, to shew how the Predicate is in the Subject, as, it is necefary; it is contingent, it is possible; it is impossible that a man should be without reason.

19. An Hypothetial Proposition, is that which doth confist of two Categorical Propositions, joyned together by fome Conjunction, as, if a man be a living Creature, then a man is a Body.

20. A Proposition, in respect of Quality, is distinguished two ways; first, according to the Quality of the fign, and so it is Affirmative or Negative; fecondly, according to the quantity of the thing; & so it is either True or False.

21. A Proposition, in respect of Quantity, is universal, particular, indefinite, or fingular.

22. An Universal proposition, is that which hath a note of Universality added to a common or universal Subject; as, every man is a Living Creature.

23. A particular proposition, is that in which a note of particularity is added to an universal Subject;

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Subject ; as, fome man is a Living Creature.

24. An Indefinite proposition, is that, in which no note, whether Universal or Particular is put before the universal Subject; 23, a man is a Living Creature.

25, A Singular proposition, is that in which the fubject is fingular, whether it be a proper Name; as, Secrates is a Philosopher; or whether it be a common name, with a note of fingularity fet before it; as, this man is Learned.

26. Pure Categorical propositions, as they have reference to one another, have three affections; Opposition, Aquipollency, and Conversion.

27. Opposition, is the repugnancy of two categorical propositions, either in quantity alone, or in quality alone, or else in quantity and quatity both, in which there is the fame *subject*, the fame predicate, and the fame Copula, as, every man is just, no man is just.

28. The sategorical propositions, may be faid to be opposite four ways; Contrarily, Subcontrarily, Subalternately, and Contradictorily.

29. Two propolitions, that are contrarily, and fubcontrarily oppolite, are oppolite only in quality; and fuch as are fubalternately oppofite, are oppolite only in quantity; and fuch as are contradictorily oppolite, are oppolite both in quantity and quality.

30.Opposition, by way of contrariety, is the repugnancy of two Universal Propositionsin quality; as, every man doth run, no man doth run; Ii and

182 The English Academy. and these inacontingenematter, may be both . False, but cannot be both together true,

31. Subcontrary Opposition, is the repugnancy of two particular Propositions in quality; as, some man doth run, some man doth not run; and these in a contingent matter may be both true, but cannot be both together False.

32. Sabali ernate Opposition, is the repugnancy of two Affirmative, or two Negative Propositions in their quanticy; as, every man detb run, fome man detb run.

33. Contradictory Opposition, is the repugnancy of two Propositions, both in quality and in quantity, fo that if one of them be Affirmative, the other shall be Negative; if one be Universal, the other shall be particular; as, Every man is Learned, fome man is not learned: All which may be easily apprehended by the following Scheme.



34. Aquipolliney, is the equivalency of two Propositions, in fenfe and fignification, though they differ in Words, by virtue of this Word of Negation (nor) being fet before the Sign and Subject, after the Sign and Subject, or both before and after, in which there is the fame Subject, and the fame Predicate; as, fome man is Learned; not every man is Learned: The feveral varieties whereof are fully expressed in these Diffichs.

If after fign and fubject, this (not) be, Contraries then, make Æquipollencie. Only before make contradictories, But 'fore and aft' are fubalternate guife.

35. Conversion, is an apt mutation of the whole subject, into the place of the whole Predicate, and of the whole Predicate, into the place of the whole subject, keeping the fame Quality, but fometimes changing the Quantity; as, Every man is a Living Creature; some Living Creature is a man.

36. This Conversion is three fold ;

1. Simple, in which the predicate is chan<sup>3</sup> ged into the place of the whole Subject, and the Contrary, keeping the fame both quality and quantity; as, No man is a Stone, therefore no from is a man.

2. By Accident, in which the whole predicate is changed into the place of the whole Subject, and the Contrary, keeping the fame I i 2 Quality,

181

Quality, but changing of the Quantity; ss, Every man is a living Creasure, therefore fome Living Creature is a man.

3. By Contrapolition, in which the whole Subject is changed into the place of the whole predicate; and the contrary, keeping both the fame Quality and Quantity, but changing the terms from Finite to Infinite; as, Every Man is a Living Creature, therefore every thing that is a Living Creature, is not a man: What Propositions may be converted this or that way, these Verses do express.

E E, II, Conversion Simple make. A I, E O, of Accident partake. A A, Q O, for Contraposits sake.

And what these Letters A, E, I, Q, do fignific these Diffichs do declare:

A, affirmes, E, denies both universal are, I, affirms, O, denies, bus both parsicular.

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CHAP.

181

## CHAP. III.

#### Of Difinition and Division.

HAving done with the first part of Logick, namely, that which treateth of Themes.

I come now unto the fecond, called the Organical, or that which treateth of Legical Inftruments, and their Composition.

2. Logical Inftruments are four ; Definition, Jivifion, Argumentation, and Method.

3. Definition, is the explication of the thing which is defined; and this is either Nominal, or Real.

4. A Nominal Difinition, is that which fheweth the Signification of the Name; whether it be by giving the Etymology thereof, or by expressing it by fome other Synonymous word more generally known.

5. A Real Definition, is that which theweth what the thing is; and this is either perfect or imperfect.

6. A Real and a Perfect Difinition, is that which doth, explain the thing by Elemial Attributes.

7. A Real, but Imperfect Definition, otherwifercalled a Defeription, is that which explains the Nature of a thing, by certain Accidental Attributes.

8. Division, is the Deduction of fome thing

thing that is large, into a ftraighter and narrower comprehension; and this is either of some ambiguous word, into its feveral fignifications, and then it is called Distinction on, or of the whole into its parts.

9. The whole is either Simple, or Aggregate; Division of the whole, simply and properly fo called is three-fold.

1. Univerfal into its fubjective parts, or of the General into the Specials; as, to divide Animal into Man and Beaft.

2. Effential, which refolves the whole into effential parts, and this either of a Species into its Ocmu and Difference, or of fome fpecial nature into its matter and form ; as, A Man into Seul and Body.

3. Integral, which refolveth the whole into Integral parts, and this is the Division of fome individual, either into its femible or material parts.

4. Division of the aggregated whole into its parts, and by Accident is five-fold.

1. When the Subject may be divided by its Accidents; as, Men are Learned or Unlearned.

2. When an Accident may be divided by its Subjects 1 as, Feavers are in the Spirits or in the Humours, or in the folid parts.

3. When an Accident may be divided by Accidents ; as, Good is either profitable, beneft, or pleafant.

4. When things may be divided by their Objects;

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Objects; as, Sight by Colours, Hearing by Sound.

¥87

5. When Causes may be divided by their Effects; and the Contrary; as, Heavenly heas u fram the Sun; and Elementary from Fire.

### CHAP. IV.

## Of Argumentation.

A Reumentation is an Oration by which fome Problem is proved by inference.

1. A Problem, is the proposition or Queftion to be proved; the which Problem, when it is fo proved is the Conclusion, and follows the Illative note, or note of inference: All that which precedes is the Antecedent, that which follows is the Confequent or Conclusion; the Illative is commonly this word (therefore,) and in this doth the tye or force of the Argument confift.

2. Argumentation, may be confidered either in reference to the form and manner of Arguing, which is the more general confideration; or as it is refirained to certain matter, as shall be shewed in his place.

3. The kinds of Argumentation are usually reckoned to be four; Syllogifm, Industion, Eu-

Enthymenn, and Example, but may be reduced to two; for an Enthymenne is nothing but an imperfect Syllegism; an Example, an imperfect Industion; Other lefs principal kinds of Argumentation there are, which either are of no use, or may be reduced to a Syllegism; as, Sorites and Dilemma, which are indeed redundant Syllegisms; Sorites Categorical, and Dilemma Hypothetical.

4. A Syllogifm, is an Oration, in which fomething being taken for granted, fomething elfe not granted before, is proved or inferred from them.

5. A Syllogifin is two-fold, Categorical, in which all the propositions are Gaugorical: or Hypothetical, in which one or more of the propositions are Hypothetical; in both which we are to confider the Matter and the Form.

6. The Matter of a Syllogism, is either Remote or Next.

7. The Remote matter, is that of which it is remotely made, as the Simple Terms which in the propositions of the Syllogism are made Subject and predicate.

8. The Simple Terms of a Syllogifin are three, of which one is called the Middle Term, the other two are the Major and the Minor Extreams, The Major and Minor Extreams are the Predicate, and the other the Subject of the question, and the Middle Term or Argument, is the Term not expressed

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The English Academy. 189 pressed in the question, but is united once to the Major Express, and once to the Minor.

9. The next or immediate matter of a Syllogifm, is that of which the Syllogifm is immediately made, as the three propositions, which are made of the fimple terms, of which the first is called the Major, the fecond the Minor, & the third is called the Conclusion.

ro. The form of a Syllogism is the right disposing of the two-fold Matter, Next and Remote, and this comprehendeth two things, Figure, and Mood; the one, to wit Figure, hath respect to the Remote Matter or Simple Terms, and Moods respects the next Matter or the propositions.

11. A Figure, is the fit difpoling of the middle Terms with the Extreams, in reference to subjection and Predication; this is three-fold.

12. The first Figure maketh that which is the middle simple term to be the subject in the major proposition and the Predicate in the minor.

•13. The second Figure, maketh the middle fimple term to be the Prodicate, both in the major and the minor propositions.

14. The third Figure maketh the middle fimple term to be the subject both in the major and the minor propositions; according to these Distichs.

Beeh sub and præ, doth the first Figure afe. Twice præ the next, the third t vice sub 1 muse. K k 15. A

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190. 15. A Moad is the difpoling of the propolitions according to quantity and quality.,

16. There are 19 Moods, of which there are nine in the first Figure; four in the fecond; and fix in the third, according to these Verles.

1, Barbara, Celarent, Darii, Ferie, Baralipton. Colomics, Dabisis, Fapefmo, Frisefomorum. 2. Cefare, Camestres, Bestine, Baroco, 3. Darapti :

Felapson, Difamis, Datifi, Becardo, Ferifon.

17. Their moods are to many words of Art, which ferve only to denote the quality and quantity: of every propolition, by help of the Vowels, A, E, I, O, as bath been. shewed already; and are some of them porfect, as the four first Moods in the first Figare, and all the monds in the fecond, and shird Figures ; the reft are imperfect.

18. And the question propounded is proved by or inferred from the premises, by help of these moods two ways, viz. Diretly, and Indirectly.

1. Directly, when the Minor Extream is.

the subject in the Canabifion, and the Major in the Predicate.

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2. Indirectly, when the Major Extrem is the fubject in the Conclusion, and the Miner the Predicate, and this is in the five last moods of the firft Figure only, according to these Distichs. All

#### The English Arabany.

All the Nineteen directly do conclude, Except of Figure first, the last 5 Mood.

191

19. These things premised, a Syllogisin, may be made in any Mood and Figure in this manner.

The queffion propounded is always the conclusion of the Syllogifm, and by the quantity thereof doth plainly flew in what mood or moods it may be framed, and by confequence, in what Figure alfo.

20. If the Syllogism be to be made in such a mood as doth directly infer the Conclusion from the Premises; then the *subject* in the Proposition is the Minor Extream, and the Predicate the Major; as in the four first moods of the first Figure, and in all the Moods of the first Figure, and in all the Moods of the fecond and third Figures; but in the five last Moods of the first Figure, the *subject* in the Proposition is the Major Extream and the Predicate the Minor; and the middle term is the Cause or Argument by which the truth or falsitie of the proposition is to be proved.

ar. The Middle Term or Argument being joyned to the Major Extrem, doth make the Major properties, and being joyned to the Minor Extrem, it maketh the minor properties on.

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Example

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#### Example.

Let this be the Proposition, No Man is a frame: This Proposition being an Universal Negative, the Syllogistim may be framed in Celarent, Celantes, Cefare or Camefires; if in Celarent, man is the Minor Extream, and Stone the Major; and to find out the middle Term, I confider of fome Reason or Argument by which to prove the Question; as, A Man is not a Stone, because be is a Living Creature; fo then Living Creature is the Middle Term, and these three Terms being thus placed;

Middle Term.

Living Creathre.

Minor Extrem. Major Extremm. Stone. Man.

Because Celarent belongs to the first Figare, the middle Term Living Creature must be the Subject in the Major Proposition, and. the Predicate in the Minor; thus,

Subj. Prad. Major. Living Creature. Minor. Living Creature. Conclu. No man is a Stone.

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193

And joyning this middle Term to the Major Extream, and also to the Minor; the feveral Propositions will be these;

Major. A living Creature is not a ftone. Minor. A man is a living Creature. Conclu. A man is not a ftone.

Laftly adding the Quantity to every Proz polition according to the Vowels in this-Mood, the Compleat Syllogifm is,

Major. 7 Ce- No living Creature is a ftone. Minor. Sla- Every man is a living Creature. Conclu. Srent. No man is a ftone.

#### The like may be done in the other moods.

22. An Enthymem, is an Imperfect Syllogifm, inferring the Conclusion from some one Proposition only; as, A man is a living Creature, therefore he hath a foul.

23. An Induction, is an Imperfect fyllogifm, in which from many fingulars, fome Universal Conclusion is inferred; as, This man is a living Creature, and that man is a living Creature, &c. therefore every man is a living Creature.

24. Example, is an imperfect fyllogifinin which from one or more fingulars, we infer another particular; as, Cariline **man** punified

for making of Sediison, therefore this, Seditions Fellow should be punified,

25. Sorites, is an imperfect fyllogism, in which, from four or more Premises, we infer a Conclusion, in which the first subject is joyned with the last Predicate; as, Socrates is a main, a man is a living Creature, a living Creature is a Body, a Body is a substance, therefore Socrates is a substance.

26. A Dilemma, is an Argumentation which by disjoyning of the Members, doth fo enforce the Adversary, that which part foever he choofeth, he will be catched, as, Tribute must be given to Cæsar, or to God; If to God, then not to Cæsar, and this is Treason; If ta Cæsar, then not to God, and this is Sacriledge.

And thus much concerning a fyllogifm in the General, with the feveral kirds and forms thereof.

#### CHAP.

Of A Material Syllogism.

**L** Come now to speak of a Special or Material fyllogism, as it is constrained to certain Conditions of Matter.

2. A special or material syllogifm, is of thee

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The English Academy. 195 fhree forts; Apodictical, Dialectical and Sophistical.

3. An Apodictical fyllogifm, otherwise called a Demonstration, may be defined two ways; either from the end, or from the matter of Demonstration.

4. From the end of Demonstration, an Apodiffical filligifm, is a fyllogifm begetting knowledge, or making to know. And we are then faid to know a thing, when we know the cause for which it is fo, and cannot be otherwise.

5. All Knowledge is of fuch Conclusions, to which we allent, for our preceding knowledge of the Premiles; and the Pracognita in every Science are thefe three: The Subjest, the Affection, and the Caufe. And the means by which thefe are foreknown, are called Pracognitions, and they are two; That a thing is, and what a thing is.

6. The *fabject*, is the lefs Extream, in a Demonstration, concerning which fome accident is Demonstrated by its next Caufe; as, a man; concerning whom we rough know both that he is, and what he is.

7. Affection of Paffin, is a proper accident; which is Demonstrated of the fubject, by a proper Canfe, it is always the greater Extream, which is Predicated in the Conclusion; as; Rifibility, the which is necessary to be foreknown, in respect of its name, Whan it is, but not, that it is; for that is the thing L1 2

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196

to be enquired after, the thing we are to find by Denomination.

8. A Canfe, is that by which the Affection is Demonstrated of its fubject, and is always the Major Proposition in the Demonstration; as, Every rational Animal is risible; what the Canfe is cannot be foreknown, becaufe it is a compounded Proposition, but it ought to be known, That it is, or elfe the Conclusion cannot be inferr'd from it.

9. An Apodictical fyllogism, being defined from the matter of DemonAration, is a fyh logifm, which proveth its Conclusion from fuch Premises, as are of themselves sufficiently known.

10. A Demonstration, is to be considered, either in respect of the Matter or in respect of the Form.

11. In respect of the Matter, one kind of Demonstration, sheweth why the Predicate is inherent in the *subjett*, and another sheweth that it is inherent in the *subject*.

12. In the first of these kinds of Demonstration, called the Demonstration causal, why a thing is; the Conditions to be observed, do partly belong to the Question, partly to the Canfe or Medium of the Demonstration, and partly to the Premifes.

13. Every Question doth not admit of; the first and most perfect kind of Demonstration, called, Why a thing is ? but fuch a Question only as is true, and hath a certain and

and immutable Cause of its own Truth.

14. The Medium of a Demonstration, ought to be the next Cause of the Predicate; and that either Efficient or Final, and the Efficient either Internal or External.

15. The Conditions to be observed in the Premises of a Demonstration, are Abselute or Relative.

16. The Abfoluse Conditions are two; the first is, that the Propositions be necessarily true and reciprocal; The second, is that they be immediate or first, in respect of the fubject; as, A man is Rational, and in respect of the Causes; as, That which is rational, is visible, a man is rational, Ergo.

17. The Relative Conditions to be observed inreference to the Conclusion, are three. 1. That the Premises be the Cause of the Conclusion. 2. That they be before it: and 8. That they be more known than the Conclusion.

18. The other lefs principal kind of Demonstration in respect of the Matter, or the Demonstration what, is two-fold, the one is from some sensible Effect, and the other from a remote Cause.

19. The form of these Demonstrations, is descerned partly from the Quantity, and foit is Univerfal or Particular; Partly from the Quality, and so it is Affirmative or Negative; partly from the manner of the proof, and so it is Oftensive, or by Reduction to Impossibility, LI 3 CHAP.

#### CHAP. VI.

# Of a Topical Syllogifm.

HItherto we have fpoken of a Demonftrative fyllogifin, whole matter is necellary, and the end a perfect Knowledge ; come we now to a Dialectical or Topical fyllogifm, whole matter is Probable and Contingent, and the end Opinion.

2. In a Dialectical, or Topical Syllogism, we are to confider of Problems, Propositions, and Invention of Arguments.

3. A Problem or Queffion, is the thing of which it is probably difcourfed, and the Conclusion of a fyllogilin already made.

4 Dialectical Propertions, ought to be certain, at leaft probable, and not Paradoxes; now that is faid to be Probable, which not being abfolutely true, doth feem to be true rather than faile: And that is faid to be Paradox, which is true, though contrary to the vulgar opinion.

5. For the Invention of Arguments, we are to confider Common places and Rules.

6. A Place, is common Note, by whole help an Argument is found.

7. A Rule or Canon, is a Proposition, con-

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100

taining the Reason of the Consequence, in a Dialect cal syllogism.

8. Arguments are of two forts, Artificial and Inartificial.

9. Artificial Arguments, are fuch as from the confideration of the parts of a Problem, are not found but by Rules of Art.

10. Inartificial Arguments, are fuch as are found without any help of Art, and there are nothing but Testimonies.

11. Artificial Arguments, may be raifed from these feven Topicks or Heads. 1. From the Cause and the Effect. 2. From the subject and the Accident. 3. From Diffental and Comparison. 4. From Conjugates and Notation. 5. From the Whole and its Parts. 6. From Comma and Species. 7. From Definition and Division.

12. A Cause in General, may be defined to be that, by whose power a thing is.

An Argument therefore from the Caufe, is when in a probable fyllogifin, the middle term is the caufe of the Major Extream.

13. There are two kinds of Caufes; Internal as the material, or matter, of which a thing is made; and the Formal, by which a thing is; as, The shape and form of a statue.

External, as the Efficient, which doth bring the thing to pais; and the Final or End, for which a thing is done.

14. An Argument from the Efficient Cause, is when in a probable syllogism, the middle

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middle Term is the Efficient of the Major Extream: as, The Earth is Diametricaly interpofed between the Sun and the Moon, therefore the Moon shall be eclipsed.

13. An Argament from the Final Caufe, is when in a probable fyllogism, the middle Term is the Final Caufe of the major Extream.

16. An Argument from the material cause, is when in a probable syllogism, the middle Term is the material cause of the Major Extream, or the Genus or Species thereof.

17. An Argument from the Formal Caufe, s when in a Probable fyllogifm, the middle Term is the Form, Definition, Description, or Difference of the major Extream.

18. In the Topicks of the *subject* and the Accident, we do not take the *subject* for the *subfance*, in which the Accident is inherent, or the Accident for that which doth precifely and adiquately adhere to the *subfance*; but *subject* is here taken for all that, to which any thing not belonging to its effence is attributed: And Accident is here taken for any fuch attribute, as, Number is the *subject* of Equality, that is, it is an Accident of an Accident.

19. An Argument from the fubjett, is as, oft as the middle Term in a Probable syllogifm, is the fubject of the major Extream.

21. The third General Topick for the Invention of Arguments, is from Deffentainies and Comparison. 22. Dif-

22. Défentanes, are either Opposités or Disparates; as, a Horse, and a Bull: There are four kinds of Opposités; Relative, Centrary, Privative, and Contradictory. Comparifons are either in respect of quality; as, like and unlike, or in respect of quality; or also of degrees; as, equal and unequal; and what ever may be faid to be more or les or equal.

23. An Argument from Diffentanies, is when in a Probable Syllogifin, the middle Term is opposed to the Major Extream, whether it be by way of a Difference, or a Contrary, or otherwise.

24. An Argument from Comparison, is as oft as in a probable fyllogism, one part of the Major proposition is compared with the other, in reference to their agreement or their disagreement.

25. The fourth general Topick, for the Invention of Arguments, is from Conjugates and Notation. And they are properly called Conjugates, which for the affinity of Signification, have also an affinity in the Voiceor Sound; as, Juft, Justice, and Juftly; fome Conjugates are only Nominal, and fome Real, and fome both, and do comprehend Denominatives under them, and are either fubstantives where one is a Noun fubstantive abstracted from the Subject; as, Justice, Just; or Adjestives, where they be both Denominatives, or Concretes, which

. 201

thew the form in the Abstract; as, Just, Justly. Notation or Etymology, is the Explication of a Word by the Original thereof; as, a Conful, from Counfelling the Common-Wealth

102

26. An Argument from Conjugates, is as oft as in a probable fyllogism; the one the Conjugates in the major proposition, is the fubject of the major Term; as, He that dotb Justly is Just.

27. The first General Topick for the Inventing of Arguments, is from the whole and its parts. And an Argument from the thing divided to the divided members, is as oft as the thing divided is the middle Term, and the dividing Members the Major Extream, in a Probable Syllogism. And an Argument from the dividing. Members, to the thing divided, is as oft as the dividing Members are the middle Term, and the thing divided the Major Extream.

28. The fixth General Topick, is from Genu and Species; And an Argument from Genu and Species, is when we prove that 2 thing doth not agree with the Genus, becaufe it doth not agree with the fpecies; or that it doth not agree with the fpecies, becaufe it doth not agree with the genu.

29. The feventh General Topick for the Inventing of Arguments, is from Definition, and Division. We raile an Argument from the Topick or Definition, when we leek for

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the Definition of either Extream, that is, of the Subject or the Predicate in the queftion, which being found, is put into the place of the Mean, that it may be known whether the Extreams fould be conjoyned or feparated; thus we prove that Peter is a man, because he is a Rational living Creature. We argue from the Topick of Division, when we shew something to agree with the dividing Members, because it agrees with the thing divided, or not to agree with the thing divided, because it doth not agree with any of the Dividing Members.

30. Inartificial Arguments, are only fuch as are raifed from Divine or Humane Teftimony. And an Argument is raifed from Teftimony, as oft as the Authority of him that beareth witnels, is the middle Term, agreeing or not agreeing with the Major Extream.

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204

## CHAP. VII.

# Of a Sophistical Syllogism.

A Sophistical Syllogy/m, is a Captions Argumentation, which is feemingly, or apparently true, but is indeed deceitful.

2. Sophistical, or Fallacious Arguing, is either in respect of the Words or of the Things.

3. Eallacies in Words, are five; Ambiguitie, Amphibolic, Composition, Division, and Figure of a Word.

4. Fallacies in things are feven, Accident, Of a thing spoken after a fort, to a thing spoken Simply; Ignorance of the Argument; a falle or wrong Cause, Consequent, Beginning of the Question, and an asking of many Questions.

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205

MEthod is the difpoling of thingsbelonging to the fame Matter or Subject, fo, as that they may be belt understood, and eafieft remembred.

2. Method is two-fold, Natural or Arbitrary.

3. A Natural Method is that, in which the order of Nature and our diffinct Knowledge is observed.

4. In a Natural Method, we must fpeak first of Generals, and then of Particulars; and as we proceed from one thing to another, every part must have a dependence on that, which was last spoken of by some apt transition.

5. A Natural Method is either Total, or Parsial.

6. A Total Method is that, in which a whole Science is Methodically ordered or difperfed. And this is either, Synthetical, or Analytical.

7. A Synthesical or Competitive Method is that, which begins with the first and most fimple Principles, and to proceeds to those, which do arife from, or are Composed of the first Principles.

8. An Analysical or Refolutive Method, is N B that

that, which begins with the end, and fo proceeds ftill lower and lower, till we come to the first and most Simple beginnings.

206

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9. A Partial Method is that, by which any part of any Art or Science is Methodically ordered or difposed : or by which any particular Theme or Subject is handled by it felf.

10. An Arbitrary Method is that, which not regarding the Natural order, is fitted for fuch a confused Knowledge, as may be most taking with the People, or fute best with their Capacities.

And thus much concerning Merhod, which is the fourth and last Logical Instrument; and with this I shall conclude these my Logical Precepts, and laft Part of my Emplifh Academy : He that defires to be more fully acquainted with these Arts and Sciences, may for all, but Mussek, Read my other particular Tracts of these Subjects, till some body that hath more knowledge in them, shall furnish us with more ample and perfect Instructions; and as for Musick, I am much of Opinion, that Mr. Playford's Introduction may very well ferve, to Instruct our Youth in the first Principles of that excellent Science; For which, and all other helps of Learning, To the only Wise God, be all Honour and Glory, now and for ever. Amen.

FINIS.

# The ART and MISTERY OF NAVIGATION;

207

As to Obfervation in taking Heights, &c. Sailing the Sundry ways, &c. And other useful matters worthy of note to Navigators, &c.

Mongft the many Undertakings, that redound to the Advantage of Mankind, Navigation is very confiderable; for on it depends not only the Welfare of private Perfons, but of Nations and Kingdoms, as being Enriched and Improved in Knowledge by it: Wherefore it is highly neceffary to fpeak fomething of it in this Treatife of Arrs and Sciences, that may Infruct the Unexperienced, and, perhaps, improve the knowledge of the Elder Practitioners.

In the Treatife of Aftronomy, you find the names of the Stars, and many other things neceffary to be taken notice of in Navigation; for on that Art much of this depends, especially in taking the Suns height or Merizdian Altitude, and the Elevation or height N n. 2. of

208

of the Pole, as being the Computation or Distance in Latitude from the Equator, either North or South, or any other Imagined Parralel, as we find East and West is the distance of Long unde, where ever the Meridian is found, there must confequently be computed an equal diftance on either side of it; fo that the Meridian thus confidered, the Rumb must be folikewise, for that leading from place to place, may be termed the distance run upon fuch a point of the Compais. And to come nearer the taking of these distances and heights are the principal things to be observed in this Art as to the Carrying a Ship to any Country and Port, and knowing at any time where you are, and all these (according to the greatest Proficients) are more clofely, or briefly comprized. 1. In the difference of the Latitude. 2. In the difference of the Longitude. 3. The Rumbs. 4. The diftance run upon the Rumb.

Now if two of these be known or given, the two that remain may be easily found, the first by Observation, and the last by Trigonometry, or Arithmetical Calculation, &c. And in further confideration of these things, to find the Latitude or Elevation of the Pole, you must observe the Meridian Altitude either of the Sun or Stars, and though there are many ways described to do this, yet what ensues is found the most plain and easy. Do it by the Astronabe or Quadrant in this

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manner

200

manner, viz. by what we call backward obfervation, and not troubling your Eyes with looking through the fights, permit the Sun to fhine through the fight, that is next to the *Center*, fo ordering it, that the beam may fall directly upon the hole of the other fight, by which means the thread will fall upon the right Altitude in the Quadrant, or the Index in the Afrolabe will in the fame manner divide the degrees of Altitude.

If the Sun shine not, and you are desirous to find its Meridsan Altistude, you may do it by informing your felf of the declination and Latitude; And upon this observation, if you find the declination North, then add to the Complement of the Latitude, which you will ever find to be the fame with the height of the Æquinoctial, but on the contrary, if it be a South declination, then fubtract from the Complement of the Latitude, and that will at any time give you the Meridian Alistude. As put the cale we find in any place the Elevation of the Pole, that is the Latitude to be 52 degrees, the complement thereof to 90 degrees, is 38 degrees, which likewife is found to be the height of the Æquinoctial, and then it being granted, that on May 2, the Sun being 20 degrees, 24 minutes of Taurne, his declination Northward is 117 degrees, 56' 21 s. which, when you add to 38, brings the Suns Meridian Al: tunde to be 55 degrees, 56 minutes, and 12 feconds Na3

12 feconds, but if this be required to be found when the Sun comes to the Æquinoctial, either on the 13 of September, or the 11 of March, then the height of the flars or fun, when they are upon the Meridian, will hew the true Latitude if fubtracted from 90 degrees, but at other times you must find out their declinations, and if it happen Northerly, fubtract it from the Altitude, but if Southerly, you must add it to the Altitude, by which means you will find the height of the Æquinoctial above the Horizon, and Confequently fubtracted from 90 degrees, will give you the true Latitude of the place where you make your Obfervation.

If by the Globe yourare defirous to find the Elevation of the Pole, take the Suns Moridian Altitude, bringing the Suns place in the Ecliptick, or the Stars to the Brozen Meridian, and fo move that Meridian with the Globe through the notches it stands in, till you find the stars, or the funs places Elevated as many degrees above the Horizon, as their Moridian Altitude is; and whilf the Globe stands in this polition, you may be confident the Pole will be Elevated to a true Latitude of the place.

As suppose you find the Suns place in the beginning of Camer, which may be the 12 of June, and the Meridian Altinude of the sum is 62 degrees from the place where you are to make your observation, then bring the

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the first degree of the fign Cancer to the Meridian, and Elevate the fame 62 degrees above the Horizon, and you will find the Pole Elevated 51 degrees and 30 minutes.

The next thing in Navigation to be confidered, is the finding the Longitude, which could it be brought to perfection, failing would be far more eafy than it is, and difcoverys of yet unknown Countrys, Rich perhaps as either Indias; but indeed, though many have attempted it, and gone very far, they have never brought to perfection, however, for the light of the Navigator, we will confider fome things herein.

Suppose the Moon to be Eclipsed, observe how much sooner it begins at a place of known Longitude, for which fearch the Ephemerides, then at the place where you stand, and observing your Latitude by the stars. as has been directed, the true hour of the night may be found; which done, observe the difference of time of the Moons beginning to be Eclipfed, or its middle or endings, at the place where you make your observation, which spaces convert into degrees and minutes, which added or fubtracted from the hour of the beginning, middle or end of this Eclips at a place of known Longitude, these degrees and minutes in their difference between the hour at one place, and the hour at an other, added or fubtracted from the degrees and minutes of the known Longitude, you

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you will find them give the required Longitude.

If the Moon be not Eclipsed, which Eclips cannot be expected upon every occafion, then you may observe it by the Sun and Moons motion, as thus; fuppofe, and it is granted, that the Moon is flower in motion than the Sun 48 minutes, in 24 hours, or 360 degrees, then by the help of Mathematical Inftruments, find the true Meridian in any place, fuppose the West-Indias, &c. you must also find the hour of the Moons coming to that Meridian by the Ephemerides, or other helps; and this being calculated for London, you find by those helps, that on fuch a day the Moon comes to the Meridian, at four in the Afternoon, and you being the fame day in the Indias aforelaid, you find her come to the Meridian 10 minutes past 4, whereupon confider by the Rule of Proportion, that the Sun and Moons difference in motion, being 48 minutes in 36 degrees, what will it come to in ten minutes, or if 48 gives 360, confider what ten gives, and the fourth proportional number will be 751 and fo much is the distance of that place in India from London, and the longitude of London being fubtracted from that number 20 degrees, and 55 Remainder again fubtracted from 360, what remains produces the longitude to be 305. Some other ways are laid down to prove a knowledge of the longitude,

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The English Academy. 213 gitude, but the whole matter being in a man-, ner in the dark, these may suffice for an Experiment.

But in plain or circular Sailing, the Compass is very much heeded, but sometimes there may be mistakes by the variation of the Needle, which you may Rectifie by the Globe, in this manner; let the Suns place be brought to the East fide of the Horizon, and observe the Circle of Winds, and then against the Suns place you have the point of the Compass, whereon it rifeth, and so proceed to take notice upon what point it rifes. or fets, observe then the difference happening by the Globe, and by the Compais, and if there be any, that is the Variation, for which Variation, allowing that the Needle will ever shew the Rumb, which is the true point of the Compais, as to the fteering the Ship.

If you would know how much way your Ship makes in fuch and fuch fpaces of time, this you may obferve by the Logline, or Minute Glafs, and by the first fo many knots as she runs in half a minute, fo many Miles is the counted to Sail in an hour, or it may be done by hanging up a Bullet in a string, which will count the Minutes by its fwinging, for if the string be proportioned to  $38\frac{1}{2}$ Inches, it will fwing about 60 times in a minute, but if longer not fo many, and therefore it is left to your differentian, to proportion

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tion it as you make observation by the half minute glass, instead of which, this (for necessity) may serve turn.

If you would find the Suns Amplitude, and thereby the variation of the Compais, observe, That as the Proportion of the Cofine of the Latitude is to the Radim, the fame you will find the fine of the declination to that of the Amplitude, as, It being granted the Latitude of 31 degrees, 23 minutes, its Cosine, or Complement, is 38 degrees, 28 minutes, and the declination of the Sun 15 degrees, 10 minutes; the Amplitude then will be found 24 degrees, 52 minutes North, by reason the declination is fo. As for the Circumference of the Compass divided into 360 degrees, observe when the Sun rifes and fets, how many degrees it is from the direct point of the Amplitude, fo much you will find the Needle vary in that place.

As for this kind of Navigation it is vulgarly proposed in three manner of ways, or Methods, effectially, as relating to private Scamen as plain Sailing, Mersators way or Instruction of Sailing, and Sailing by an Arch or great Circle, ca''ed Circular Sailing. The plain way of failing is by a plain Chart, which is the most fubstantial, and that on which the other are grounded, and to those that fail near the Æquinoctial, they have little or no occasion for any other

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way,

215

way, as having their degrees of Latitude and Longitude equal, each degree divided in to 60 minutes, and each minute put for a Mile, yet fomewhat exceed the English meafured miles, as containing about 6000 feet ; but if you are to come far from the Æquino-Etial, then though you may keep your Latitude in plain failing, yet you will be at a loss for your Longitude, and therefore to be better informed, confider that as the Radims or whole fine of 90 degrees, is to 60 Miles, fo you will find the Cofine of the latitude, is to the Miles contained in one degree of longitude in that latitude, fo that in the las titude of 60 degrees, 30 Miles make a degree; as fine 90 degrees to 60 Miles 10000, to Cofine 60 degrees to 30 Miles 5000.and by this rule we find, that if your departure from the Meridian was 280 Miles, and they being divided by 60, reduced into degrees and minutes of longitude under the Æquinoctial, it yields 4 degrees and 4 minutes, but if these 280 Miles happen to be East or weft, or your departure from the Meridian fhould be in the latitude of 60 degrees, where 30 Miles make a degree of longitude, then divide the 280 Miles by 30, and you will find it yields 9 degrees 18, or one third, which is 20 minutes for the difference of longitude in that latitude. To fail by Mercators Chart, is little other than coming to a knowledge of the true latitudes, Meridians, 002 and

and Elevations of the Poles, Miles, minutes, C. as when it fo fall out that one place is under the Æquinoctial, and the other nearer one of the Poles, then we find, the Meridiomal minutes, an Iwerable to that place, which hath latitude, is to be Accounted for the Meridional difference of latitude, or that latitude inlarged.

Again, suppose both places are towards one of the Poles, thereupon subtract the Meridional minutes that are found answering to the lesser latitude, and the remainer will be found to be the Meridional minutes required.

Again, if we find one place to have North latitude, and the other be in South latitude; then add the Meridional minutes, appertaining to either place together, and you will find the fum thereof to be the Meridional minutes required, Gc.

Circular failing is held to be a very good way of failing, as the beft, flewing the neareft way and diftances between any two places, yet carrys with it fome little difficulty, fo that the Seamen feldom keep to their courfe near this Arch, wherefore leaving you to confider of what has been faid, I proceed to other uleful matters.

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CH AP.

Horology, or the Carious Art of Dialing made plain and eafy in deferibing, and directing the politions of the Sundry forts of Dials now in use; also to know by a Sun-dial the time of the night by the Moons shaddow.

D laling is a very Curious AR T, and requires much Care and Industry to come up to it in all Points; for of Dyals there are fundry forts, varying in fomewhat or other, according to their Places, Politions, and the Suns Degrees, form are movable, and may be carryed from place to place, others fixed, and are found to be Regular, or Irregular; the Regular are fuch as are on a Plain, directly towards one of the Eminent parts of the world, as full West, or full East, but the Irregular are those that have no direct pointing to any principal quarters of the world, but rather declines them.

Of those called Regular, they have many names to diffinguish them; 'as, The Meridian East, The Meridian West, The Horizontal Dial, The Vertical Northward, and the Vertical Southward, The Æguinottial below, The Æquinottial above, the Polar below, and the Polar above.

The Horizontal, is when it is equally diftant towards the Horizon. P P The

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The Vertical, is a Perpendicular crected above the Horizon, tending directly towards the Vertical point, being Parallel to the Primary Vertical Circle, and is duplex, as North Vertical looking to the other which is South Vertical.

The East and West Meridians have particularly either of them their several ways, being equally distant from the Meridian Circle.

The Aquinottials mentioned are those of which either have their several ways equally distant from the Aquasor, the one above and the other beneath the Horizon.

The Polars have likewife their different ways, the one being beneath, and the other above, they are found as *Parallels* to the Worlds Axis.

The Irregular are either inclining, or declining; the first of these is equally distant from any Vertical Circle, and from thence is often called Vertical, though declining from the Primary Vertical, properly fo named, and is of two forts, there being one declining from the South to either East or West, and the other from the North to either East or West.

That which inclines falls away from the Vertical Point, having its inclination toward the Horizon, is not being equally diffant from it.

As for the hours which these several forts of

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- 219

of Dials, are to parcel out time anto, they are Reckoned as to the days they make divers, according to the diftant Latitudes, the Suns afcending or declining, yet all allow 24 hours to the day and night, dividing each hour into 60 minutes, and those into feconds parts, and fmaller proportion of time, till it can be different only by imagination. The days are held in two diffinctions, the one natural, and the other Artificial, the Natural day is accounted 12 hours the Artificial as many as the Sun allows either the longer or the lefter it faines.

But to be an exact Horologian, observe these methods, be fure to have the exact E-. levation of the Pole, which to find, you are directed in the treatife of Navigation, for by that your determination of the Center of hours must be had also the stile of the Dial's Altitude, and the order of it, and whatever is requisite beside of that nature 3 you muft likewife know the true Meridian line, that fo the Dials Meridian line may have its place directly under the Meridian of the place where it is posited. And he that undertakes this work, must be furnished with fuch Mathematical and Aftronomical Inftruments and Materials, as may give him a due understanding of the proportions of time, as a Rule, Compaís, Aftronomical Quadrant, divided exactly into 90 degrees, with a description of the hour line & points and Pp 2 .

and to bring this Ingenious work to perfection, you must be careful the figures of the hours are set at their proper and proportionable distance to answer the moving of the ftiles shaddow, and that your stile be well contrived as to its Form and Altitude, and make your observation to fix it exactly;allo be very careful in the Application and Difposition of the Dial when it is finished.

220

But to come to what is more curious, be fure the hours be defcribed, and to do it there are granted to be two right lines fecting each other at right Angles crofs ways, one of them being the Meridian line, or the 12th hour line, the other is termed the Ocente line, by which the first crofs ways are cut to the right Angle, and this is generally called the line of hours, because in it the horary points are defigned, but if we come to its more proper denomination, it may be called the Æquinoctial line, fince it reprefents the Æquinoctial Circle, the chief rule of all hours,

Thus much being explained as to Dialing, in general, we come now to more particulars.

If you are defirous to have a right Dial, you mult be fure to know its right Center, or the Center of the hour, to do which, be very mindful of the Elevation of the Pole, especially in the Horizontal Dial, or any of that fort, for they will not declare the hours

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in any place, but under a certain Elevation. and therefore if they are removed far, you must be again proportioned to that Elevation Conjecture we then the Pole be Elevated 49 degrees in this Region, which is 41, place here the foot of your Compais in the Instruments Center, extending the other foot from that to the Æquinoctial line defcribed in the inftrument, where in that part the 41 degrees is cut by the Radim, fo numbering from the 12th hour line, and tranffer this extension of the Compais upon the Dial, having yet the Compasses foot fixed in the Meridian, and Aquinoctial lines, concourse, and the other fix in the distant part of the Meridian line, determining, that point to be the hours Center, and so from thence, and each point in the Æquinoctial line, you are to draw all the lines, which fome term, the Arches of bours. And further a line is to be drawn through the Center of the hours, a line Parallel to the Æquinoftial, and this is to be accounted the line of the fixth hour, as well in the Evening as the morning, as likewise of the hours of 4 and 5 in the Evening, are to be drawn out beyond the Center of hours, for the like hours in the morning, and fo of the reft, equally compeering; and thus you have an exact description of a Horizontal Dial, whose figure you may form as you please, placing the Characters of the hours at the ·]f end of the line. Pp 3

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222

#### The English Acavemy.

If you defign a Vertical Dial, it may be done upon a Regular wall, the fame way as the former, yet there is fome difference to be observed, not only in the Scituation, but likewife in the Vertical, in cafe of being certain of the Center of the hour, the Polar Elevation degrees are to be here taken for the Alistude of the stile, allowing the degrees complement, though the Horizontal Dial is the contrary; however, there being a distinction between a Vertical to the North, and a Vertical to the South, the Vertical to the North is, as we may fuppofe, a Meridian Inverted, having the Center of hours. downwardsfalling fhort, in fhewing fhort, in shewing the hours, for in some Adjacent Countreys, it shows but from 4 to 8 in the morning, and the like in the afternoon, and the South Vertical hath the Center of hours and its stile upwards, thewing from the fix in the morning to noon.

A Meridianal Dial either East or West, for the first, it must have a Line Parallel drawn to the Horizon, and a slight Circle at any opening of the Compass, beginning from the Horizontal line towards the right fide where the Eastern Dial is to be drawn, conceiving in the Instrument fuch an Arch at the like opening of the Compass, in which Arch cut off the Elevation of the Aquator, and carry the Interval to the Circle drawn from the point, and allow the Arch to be cut off.

#### The English Acovery.

To frame an Aquinettial Dial, two lines must be drawn at right Angles, whereof one is to be the Meridian, the other that of the hour, 6 morning and evening, and from the usual section of these times, draw a Circle. as you think fit to be divided into 24 proportionable and equal parts, for in this kind of Dyaling, all the Intervals must be equal as to the hours:

The Polar Dial goes Parallel to the Axis of the world, lying as it were in it, and is to be Elevated above the Horizontal Plain, the fame degrees as the worlds pole, the lowermoit part in many places, containing not above 4 hours, yet generally the morning hours are 4. and 5, towards the left fide the Evening hours 7 and 8, but the topmost fhews the hours from 7 in the morning to 5 in the Evening, but not the fixth by reason the Sun then is parallel to the Dial glancing then upon its fide.

A Dial of Irregular Declination may be beft managed by the Marriners Compais, and applying the Semi-Circle divided in the Plan to a competent number of degrees, the pin or file placed at its Center, fo that in that Meridional hour, you will perceive the degree the fhaddow cuts, and the way it casts, by the which you may the better determine the species, and how it declines; by which observation, you may draw a Dial in any place, fixing your file of what

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224

what Magnitude you please at right Angles.

If you are defirous to find by the fhining of the Moon, the hour of the night upon a Dial, suppose you have a Horizontal Sun-Dial, movable or fixed, joyn to it a Dial, by fome called a Moon Dial, made up of two Concentrick Circles, where in one you will meet with the day of the Moons Age, by applying a Globule to the number 30, in the other, the 12 hours diversly fet down; then knowing the Moons Age, fo place your Sundial, that the Moon may fairly fhine on it, and being placed as for the day, fee what hour the Moon fhaddows on, as fuppose the 8, then place the Globule, the hour you find fet down in the Horary Circle, and then again having recourse to the Moons Age, it will give you the hour required, as fuppose it be the 12 of the Moons Age, you will find the fhaddow about 5 and a half, which is the time, if (as it frequently hap-pens) the Moon Diel be composed of 3 Centrical Circles, whereof the last and greatest be that of the Moons day, the next to it the hour Circle, and the inmost the Index; let the Index be applyed to the day of the Moon, and then by that Circle, observe what hour, or part of an hour the fhaddow marks, and you will find the true content.

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Flan metry,

Planimetry, or, The most Exact and Curions Arts of Surveying Lands, &c. after the newest and most Experienced Method and Practice, &c.

Planimetry, or Surveying, is numbered among the Curious, and deferves worthily here to take place; and to be exact in this, have (belide other Instruments proper to the matter) a Ruler of about 7 or 8 Inches long, and an Inch and a half broad, and place two Scales, one of 12, and the other of 11, in an Inch describing a line of Cords 2 Inches long, or fomewhat lefs than 60 or 90 degrees, the Radius of which or 60 degrees, being equal to the Semidiameter of the same Circle, and after the order of these on the other side, place several other scales which may be of 16, 20, 24, or the like in an Inch, whereby you have an Instrument necessary for fundry occasions, and for this scale in its use you must be provi-ded with a pair of Brass Compasses, also a curious pair of Calem Compass, having fcrews to alter the points, as to draw as occafion requires to the beautifying the Plats with black Lead or the like; being provided with Instruments, and all things fitting for measuring, you must consider the Meafures, and reduce that which is called Sta-Digitized by GOOS tute .

226

tute Meafure into fuch meafure as is Cuftomary and Ufual, for by an Act of the 23 of Eaward the 1. an Acre of Land was to contain 160 Perches or Poles to be made out fquare,  $\mathcal{O}_{\mathbf{r}}$ . but by Cuftom in divers places of this Kingdom, this has been altered by the varying of Perches in the number of feet, as, 18, 20, 24, and fometimes 28 foot to the Perch, and this requires the Surveyers diligence to reconcile the one to the other, of which we fhall give fome infight.

Suppose you are to Reduce 5 Acres, 2 Rocds, 20 Perches measured Statute meafore by 18 foot the Perch, in this cafe feek the least proportional terms between 18 and 16 foot and a  $\frac{1}{2}$ , and to effect it, because the latter carries with it a fraction, reduce it into halves, and that they may be of one denomination, let the 18 foot be. likewise halved, and you will find them in this manner 33, which you must abbreviate by 3, in faying, how many times 3 shall I find in 33, and the Answer will be 11 times 3, and the fame do by 30, and you will find it 12 times 3, and thereupon the two proportional terms between 16; and 18, will appear to be 11 and 12, which being done, reduce the Given Quantity of 5 Acres, 2 Roods, and 20 Perches, all into Perches, by which means you will find them to be 900 Perches; then observe. what is the Proportion, the Square 11, which

which is found 121, bears to the fquare 12, which is found 144, the fame does the Acre containing 16 and a half feet to the Perch, bear to that that contains 18 feet to the. Perch or Pole.

Always observe, in this was particularly that the greater measure is to be reduced into the lesser, then multiply the Quantiy Given, viz. 900 Perches by 144 the arger square, and you will find the Product to be 129600, and that divided by 121, you will find the Quotient to be 1071 Perches, and 121 parts, which reduced into Acres, gives us 6 Acres, 2 Roods, and 31 Perches, and 12, parts of a Perch, and this competers with the Quantity of Acres Parallel with Statute measure ; but on the other hand, if it had been required for the reducing Statute Measure into Customary Measure, you must then Multiply 900 perches, your given measure or quantity, by 121, which is the leffer fquare, becaufe the leffer is to be reduced into the greater, and you will find the Product to be 108900, which if you divide by the greater fquare 144, you will have the Quotient 756 4, which being reduced into Acres, is 4 Acres, 2 Roods, 36 2 Perches; and this rule is to be taken with what ever Customary quantity is proposed in their differencce, and degrees, as when the Perch is 20, 24, or 28 foot, or other difproportions of number. Qq2 If

228 '

The English Academy.

If in this Menfuration, you are required to reduce Perches into Acres, and fo on the contrary, observe that by the Aforementioned Statute, an Acre of Ground fhould contain 169 square perches or poles, being every Rood 4 square perches, so that if you find any number of perches, that must be done into Acres, the given number, must consequently be divided by 160, and the Acres are shewed by the Quotient, but if there be any remainder, and it be under 40, they are perches, but if they are found to exceed 40, divide by 40, which you will find to be the number of perches contained in a Rood, so that the Quotient will be Roods, and the Remainder Perches.

But to reduce Acres into Perches, there: is no great difficulty, confidering it is but turning it as it were backward, for in the other to bring Perches into Acres, the division was by 160, but in this case, to turn Acres into Ferches, it must be multiplied; by 160, which being observed, we come now to more nearer particulars, as to the matter in hand. If the piece of ground you measure be square, having considered well that the Acre is 160 Perches, then multiply one of the fides by the other joyn, ing to it, & you will find the fum is to be die vided by 160, and suppose your Ground be 40 poles one way and but 20 another, these multiplyed, make 800. Poles or Per-

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ches,

ches, which divided by 160, shews 5 Acres to be the content.

In measuring a Triangular piece of Ground, you must first observe to meafure the longest fide of the Triangle, as also the Perpendicular opposed to the faid long fide, then multiplying the half of one by the whole of the other, you must divide by 160.

Suppose the side be 60, the Perpendicular 40; 60 must be multiply'd by 20, or 40 by 30, which so done, make 1200, which being divided by 160, renders 7 Acres and 5 for the true content.

If you are to measure that which we call a Trapezia, or a double Triangle, then both the Perpendiculars must be multiply'd by the Diagonal Line, as being the usual or common Base of both the Triangles, and aust be divided by 160 in this manner. Let the Diagonal Line be 40, and one of the Perpendiculars 15, the other 8, which beling put together make 23, which being inultiplyed by 20, which is half the Diatronal Line, make 460, and that divided y 160, renders two Acres, three Roods, and 20 Poles.

<sup>21</sup> If the Ground be Circular, then half the <sup>3</sup> Diameter must be multiplyed by half the <sup>3</sup> Lircumference, and the product divided <sup>3</sup> by 160, whereby the Diameter of the Circle being found to be 140 poles, the Circum-Rr ference

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230

ference is 440 poles, and the half of there two producing 220, and 70, they are to be multiplyed together, and then produce 15400 Perches, which being divided by 100 produce 96 Acres and a  $\frac{1}{4}$ .

If the piece of Ground given, be Oval, fuppole it to be 30 Perches one way, and 40 the other, to know the content, multiply the length 40 by the bredth, fwhich as aforefaid is 30, and you will find it make 1200, which again divided by 203  $1\frac{1}{2}$ , and you will find it yield 5 Acres, 3 Roods, and 23 Perches, and by this laft number fo working, you may find the number of Acres contained, in a Semicircle, a quarter or fixth part, or any fection or division of a Circle greater or leffer, multiplying the half Diameter.

If you are to measure wood Land, which is the difficulteft of all, you may fix a mark at either corner of the Wood, that 3 marks may be seen at once, then having a Quadrant in your hand, lay it flat thereon, and take fight to two of the marks on each fide. and then upon paper, mark the degrees of the Angle, and measure to the two marks in fight, and place them on the fame paper by your line of equal parts, and do so to all other corners, till you have closed up the Plat or Wood, which then may be easily brought into Acres by the line of equal parts. And Note here, if your

231

Quadrant be too fmall, you may joyn two together, or do it by a board for want of a plain Table, fo your Plat upon the paper make 3 Triangles, and to meafure one of them, measure for one Triangle the longest doted line, by half the middle doted line, or Perpendicular, which gives the content, and by fo working the other two Triangles you have compleated it.

232

The Art and Mystery of Gauging Veffels of Sundry Forms and Quantities, by Exact Rules laid down plain and easie : Also to Gauge and know the Burthen of any Ship, and ather matters.

GAuging is very necessary to be un-derstood by all People that deal in Commodities, wherein Casks, or the like, give the Dimensions of their Measure ; wherefore, for their better Instruction in this Art, there are two things principally to be confidered : First, That feeing Veffels are mostly of Irregular Forms, it must be the care of the Ganger, to confider how they are to be reduced to Regular Proportions; and, in the Second place, to inform himfelf, of the true content of the Gallonin Cubick Inches, or parts of a Foot; and for the first of these, carefully Measure the Diameter of the Cask at the Bung and Head, and, by those Diameters, to find: out the Afea of their Circle, and fo take > thirds of the Area at the Bung, and 1 third at the Head, which, being added, will be found to be the mean Area of the Cask; and if you multiply that Area by the length of the Veffel, it will fhew how many folid Inches are contained in that Veffel,

Vessel, which being divided by the number of Cubick Inches in one Gallon, the Quotient will demonstrate what number of Gallons the Cask holds.

As, if we suppose that a Vessel of Wine be 18 Inches Diameter at the head, and 32 Inches at the Bung, the length being 40 Inches, if you would be fatisfied in the content, confider, that one third of Area at the head, is found to make in its due proportion 85, 823

And two thirds of the Area of the Bung, make \_\_\_\_\_\_

And then confider the fum of the two, to be ------------- 620, 909

When Multiply'd by the length -----40.

Makes Inches solid ----- 24839, 560. These being divided by the folid Inches inone gallon of Wine, they being 231 In-thes for the content, yield 170 Gallons, 330 parts, which is fome finall matter a-bove half a Gallon, yet fome raise a difpute about the certain number of Inches in a Gallon, yet the Wine Gallon is generally concluded to confift of 231 Cubick, or folid Inches, and the Ale Gallon is held by many in Computation with the Wine Gallon, as 4 to 5, fo that in fuch a degree of difference, it must be 288 ± Inches, but upon the imposition of Excise, it has been gene-

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233

214

generally Effected but 282 Cubick In-

If you would know the content of any Wine or Beer in Als or Beer Gallons, obferve for the Beer Barrel.

The diameter at the head,9 inches,9 parts . For the diameter at the Bung,23 inch.oparts .

The length \_\_\_\_\_ 27 inches, 4 parts

The Kilderkin has for its measurings. The diameter at the head, 16 inches, 1 part -Its diameter at the Bung, 18 inch.6 parts The Length 12 inches, 1 part

And these are called the Coopers feantlings, and very well agree with the received quantity of the Ale Gallon, allowing it so be a88 Inches and a half, fo that the Barrel this was reckoned to be a Pint over 36 Gallons, and a Kilderkin a Pint and a half over the half of that, though as I have faid, this Gallon has lately been agreed upon by a Committee of Excile, to hold no more than 282 Cubick inches.

Now to measure Brewers Veffals, & c. whether they be Square or Round, or of any other form : First, to know their true Content, observe what has been faid in Measuring fuch Bodies, dividing by 282 the inches in one Gallon, demonstrates the content in Gallons, and if you divide the Gal-

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lons

## The English strademy.

Ions by 36, the contents in Barrels are fhewed, and fo by knowing the true number of Inches, any measure is to be taken. If you would know the Burthen of a Ship, or how many Fun fhe will hold, or Commodioufly carry : First, inform your felf by measure of the length of the Keels and take the breadth at the Mid-fhip beam, and take the breadth at the Mid-fhip beam, and take the breadth at the Mid-fhip beam, and the depth of the Hold, and these three you mult multiply one by the other, then the product thereof mult be divided by 100, and fo the Tuns of Burthen will be plainly

' demonstrated.

As, granting the length of a Ships Keel to be 50 Foot, and at the Middle-beam her breadth 20, and the depth in the hold ren foot, then to know how many Tuns the will carry, let 50 be multiplied by 20, and it makes 1000, and that again multiplyed by 10, makes 10000, the which, when divided by 100, and catting of the two laft Figures, it thews the Ship to be 100 Tuns of Butchen ; but this way is usually attributed to Men of War, but for Merchant Ships, they give no Allowance for Masts, Sails, Ordnance, and Anchors, the which, though they are a Burthen, yet are not accounted Tunnage ; wherefore, as to Merchant Ships, your product must be divided by 95, and then a Merchant Ship, of the aforefaid length, breadth, and depth, will be found 105 Tuns \$5 parts Burthen, though there moft Digitized by Google

236

must be regard had in this cafe, to the midle of the Ship, for fear of Erring, and if you are doubtful whether you are right or not, if the Ship be Irregularly built, find out how many Cubick Feet it contains, and Reckoning that a Cubick Foot of water, weighs, as it is generally accounted, 55 Averdupois, or 16 ounces to the pound, fo that confider 2000 weight being allowed to the Tun, and every hundred 112 fb. the Dimensions must be taken accordingly, and by this Rule you must take your proportion: But to come fure of this another way;

Measure on the out fide the Ship to her Lightmark, when the is in the Water unladen, and there you will find the weight or content of the Empty Vellel, fo that if you take your measure from her 'Lightmark to her full draught of Water, being Laden, you have the true Burthen of her Tunnage. Allo, if you're defirous to know the Burthen of another Ship double or treble of the fame Mould, or a greater or leffer proportion, multiply the measure of the Length, and Breadth, and Depth Cubically, after that is done, double or treble the Cube, and Extracting the Cube Root, your work is done, and fo you may go on to other matters of this nature, or any other belonging to Gauging, which your Rules and Instruments of direction will furnish you, in your proce-

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dure,

The English Acauciny. 237 dure, when you are once thus far entered, and by degrees it will become easy, if you caft a Method in your mind.

Exact Rules and Directions for Fortification, Regular and Irregular for War, Offensive or Defensive, Outworks and Inward Strengths, &c.

**F**Ortification is of great moment, and in the well observing and Regular performing it for defence and offence, many times confist the Safety of Countries and Kingdoms, however the Scituation and Circumstances require much Variation, fo that to prescribe the Models of all Fortifications would be Endless, and therefore it will be most convenient to treat of the modern, or those most generally in use.

Observe then of this kind, your works require to be Flanked to keep the Enemy from a sudden Entrance, where any Breach is made by the great Guns, for if the Befiegers have made their approaches so near, that the Besser and the solution of the solution of the Diuch, and then if they perceive any place out of sight of the Besser and their will have an opportunity to make their Busser and SSS and the solution of the solution

238

Mines with little difficulty, so that a place unlefs the Garrifon be very Large to make frequent Sallys, may be taken in 8 or 10 days, that with Flankers might hold out much Longer, fo that it has been the practice of late to turn the Antient Rourd Baftions into fharp pointed ones, which not only upon occasion ferve for Flanker's to defend against any hafty approach, but to flaunt and hinder the force of the great Shot playing against the Town or Fort.

Amongst other things necessary on this occasion, the great Line of defence is to be confidered, or what may be found near Equal into it, viz. the Polygon Interiour, which ought not in most cases to exceed 120 Fathoms, or 720 Feet, and this is found to be a point blank of the Execution of a Mufquet, the Cannon being here Incommedious, and therefore the defence is to be taken from the former, the latter beside the wafte of Ammunition, lying much lyable to be difmounted, and not to eafily again remounted, as the Emergency requires, and the difficulty is likewife greater in maintaining a continual Fire, and if the work be not incommoded by their over largeness, the more Capacious, the Gorges and Flanks are, the better will the Fortification: be found for defence, for then the Soldiers may pais to and fro in a good front to the Bafion, when Cannon is planted on both

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fides

#### The English Araberny.

299]

fides the Flank, and give no interruption to those that are at the Flanks, and if there be but a supposed necessity required, there must be a vacancy left for Retrenchments, and a place under the Bastions left fit for Mining, that if it come to extremity when you have drawn off as soon as the Enemy has posselled the Bastion, it may be blown up, or their Attacque cleared till the Besieged may know what is further to be done in the defence. of the place, and draw their firengths from other parts thitherwards.

Above all, the Curtain Flanks and Faces of the opposite Baftion are to be well fecured and guarded, as likewife the Ditch and Counterfearp being made as large as the due proportion of the Baftion will allow, for if they be too great, their Gapitals will be found too long, and thereupon the dsfence Line exceed the Port of any Mufquet, or finall piece and being too little they will become blunt, and fo cut off the fecond Flank, whilk it ought to be held confiderable.

The degrees of the Angle of a Baffion, ought not to be lefs thanke, or more than ge, fome finall matter allowed over or under; and the reafon is, if it be much under 60, it will be found too flender, or above getoo large, or more than may be well fupplyed; and moreover, by that the fecord Flank is faortned, and it will be computed Sf p in

in lefs Ground than the Bastion, where it is an Angle of lefs degrees, though built on the like Gorge and Flanks, and observe in all your works to let them be Cannon proof.

240

If we proceed to a description of Regnlar Fortification, it is to be understood of fuch Models as are equally Angular, and founded upon Equilateral Figures, to be defcribed in a Circle, as it may be a Triangle, Quadrangle, or a Quartil Pentagon, or a Figure of 5 fides to a Dodecagon, or a Figure of 12 fides, and in this cafe the Baftion must be so posited, that all the points may answer in like distance from the Centre. The Curtains of Equal Length, and all the Angles and Lines to be of an equal Magnitude for Regular Models are to be computed from a Calculation of the Angle at the Centre, and that is done by divi- . ding 360, the number of the degrees that a Circle is usually divided into, and wherein the Regular Figure is to be defcribed by the number of any Polygons fides, or the Regular Figure, that any Fort or Work of War of this nature is to confift on, for hereby the Quotient demonstrates the Angle of the Centre, as may be demonstrated by a Figure of five fides, wherein by operation, the Angle of the Center is certain to be 72 degrees, and the like of any other figure, then if you draw a Circle with

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the
## The English Academy.

242 the Protractor, or Line of Chords, the first being a Semi circle, and the last the fourth part of a Semi-circle, or 90 degrees projected on a straight line, and the Angle beset off at the Center at 72 degrees, the Circle will thereby be divided into 5 equal proportions, or parts, and the straight line drawn to the points, produces a Pentagone. Besides this Model of Fortification, there are fundry Outworks required for ftrengthening a place, they hinder much the Besiegers from making their Lodgments if the ground happen to be low near the Counterscarp, or from suddeinly raising Batteries by the advantage of that ground, if it happen to be high; wherefore a careful Enginier always provides Outworks to hinder it, and prolong the approaches to the main Fort, and these Outworks are various as the Situation of the place, or the danger requires.

Ravelins, being an ufual Outwork, they are ufually of two kinds, one with lines, and the other wanting; the first of these are placed before long Curtains, where the two Bastions are not capable of Flanking each other within Musquet shot, and the length of the Curtain not sufficient for the erecting a Plate Bastion in its Center, and supply the defect of a Bastion by covering and defending, and to erect these kind, the Ditch must be cut parallel with Tt the

242

## The English Academy.

the Cartain, and above it erect a Capital from 18 to 20 Poles, and let your Demigorges be no more than from 10 to 12 Poles the Flanks, from 8 to 10, the Ditch furrounding them, and the greatness of the Flanks Parallel to the face of the Ravelin till the ditch of the place of the face of the Bastion be met by it, that so the Ravelins Flanks may fcowr over all the ditch that faces the Bastion.

The Ravelins without lines, confift only of a Capital and two faces, the Capitals from 12 to 18 Poles the face, edging or drawing nearer to the fhoulders of the Baftion, that within the Ravelin may be commanded by the Curtain and two Flanks.

The half Moon is a work ever raifed before the Bafbions point, being to named from the lownefs of its Gorges Cavity, & c. and is to fecure the two faces of the Baftion, but when the faces have but a weak defence from the Ravelin, thefe works are foon made ufelefs, or ruined, and give the Befieged an opportunity of Lodgment, & may ferve for Batteries and Flanks against the oppoling Baftions, however, they may be retrenched by Traverfes, yet they will not fail to attacque entirely in the face, or where you have your last retrenchment, alfo, that called the Counterguard runs the like hazard.

The Outworks, called the Hornworks, are placed before the Curtains, a Perpendicular Line

The English Academy.

243

Line being drawn from it at the two Flanks about 60 Pole front, towards the Campaign, their front to be 36 Poles, equal to the Curtain, to be divided into 3 Parts, one of them for the Curtain, and the other for the Demigorges, appertaining to the Hornwork, as for the Flanks, they are to be fix Rods, or 72 foot each, and this work is held one of the beft and strongest Outworks, if well manned and managed, especially when a Ravelin is placed before it.

The Outworks called the *Tenalis*, is built to fecure the Bridge when it is hard prefied upon their fides, containing 50 Poles, and the Fronts no more than 36, which being divided into 4 equal parts, a Perpendicular is drawn in the middle, whereon a  $\frac{1}{2}$  of the front is fet off inwards towards the Town, and the Lines must be drawn from the fides, to form the face; this work is advantageous for *Counter Approaches*, and for receiving fuccours into the Town.

The Crownwork is ufually crefted, a when heighth is fo near to the place, that a Musquer fhot may reach it, and then the fides of the works mult be extended before the Baftion, or Curtain about 65 Poles, & the Demibaftions point to be about 60 degrees, then the Extremities of the fides mult be joyned, and a Perpendicular Line raifed on the middle, on which fix, for the Capital, 18 Rods, making an Angle of two Interiour Polygons.

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