

152.D THE
DOCTRINE

OF
Combinations, Permutations,
and Arrangements

AND

COMPOSITIONS,

OF

QUANTITIES,

Clearly and succinctly demonstrated.

In tenui labor ————— *VIRG.*

L O N D O N :

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ADVERTISEMENT.

THIS small Treatise was intended to make a part of the Treatise of Algebra; but other matters had swelled the book to too large a size, to admit of this; which therefore was postponed to a further opportunity.

The Subject of it, which is the Doctrine of Combinations and Alternations, is a very entertaining and curious speculation; by which, a great many very delightful problems may be resolved; which will appear strange and surprizing to them that are not versed with these sorts of calculations. The Doctrine thereof is here compleatly delivered, and in a little compass; and the rules demonstrated in the plainest and easiest manner, and therefore I hope it will prove beneficial and acceptable to the reader.



T H E C O N T E N T S.

The Doctrine of COMBINATIONS, &c.

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D E F I-

Combinations, Permutations, &c.

DEFINITIONS.

DEFIN. I.

THE *Combination* of quantities, is shewing how oft a less number of quantities or things can be taken out of a greater, and combined together, without considering their places, or the order they stand in. This is also called *Election* or *Choice*.

Here every parcel must be different from all the rest, and no two is to have precisely the same quantities or things.

DEF. II.

Permutation, shews how many several ways, the places of any given number of things may be changed. This is also called *Variation*, *Alternation*, and *Changes*.

Here the only thing to be regarded is the order they stand in; for no two parcels are to have all the quantities placed in the same situation.

DEF. III.

Composition, is the taking a given number of quantities, out of as many equal rows of different quantities, one out of every row; and combining them together.

Here no regard is had to their places; and it differs from combination, in which there is but one row of things.

B

DEF.

COMBINATIONS, &c.

DEF. IV

Combinations of the *same form*, are those which are the same number of quantities, and the same repetitions. As $abcc$, $bbad$, $ccfg$, &c. are of the same form. Also AB^2C^2 , DA^2E^2 , C^2ED^2 , are of the same form; putting the numbers 2, 3 for the repetitions. But $ABBC$, AB^3 , $AACC$, are of different forms.

Here observe, when any quantity is written with an index at the top, it signifies so many repetitions of that quantity, as a^2 signifies aa ; a^3 signifies aaa and b^4 signifies $bbbb$, &c.

PROP. I. Prob.

To find the number of Permutations or Changes of m things, all different from one another.

RULE.

Multiply continually, $1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \times 5$, &c. to m terms; and the product is the number of changes.

For 1 thing a , is capable but of one position a . And if there be 2 things a and b ; they are only capable of these 2 variations ab , ba ; whose number is 1×2 .

If there be 3 things a , b , c ; then any 2 of them, leaving out the 3d, will have 1×2 variations; therefore when these 3 are taken in, there will be $1 \times 2 \times 3$ variations.

And if there be 4 things, every 3, leaving out the 4th, will have $1 \times 2 \times 3$ variations. Then taking in successively these four left out, and there will be $1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4$ variations. And so on as far as you please.

P E R M U T A T I O N S.

Cor. 1. $m \times$ changes of $m-1$ things = changes of m things.

Cor. 2. The changes of $m-1$ things out of m = changes of m things.

For the changes of $abc \equiv 1 \times 2 \times 3$, and taking in d , the changes of any 3 of $abcd \equiv 1 \times 2 \times 3 + 3 \times 1 \times 2 \times 3 \equiv 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \equiv$ changes of $abcd$. And the same of others.

Example 1.

How many changes may be made of the words in this verse? Tot tibi sunt dotes, virgo, quot fydera cœlo.

Anf. $8 \times 7 \times 6 \times 5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 40320$.

Example 2.

How many changes may be rung on 6 bells?

Anf. $1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \times 5 \times 6 = 720$ changes.

Examp. 3.

For how many days can 7 persons be placed in a different position at dinner?

Anf. $1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \times 5 \times 6 \times 7 = 5040$; near 14 years.

P R O P. II.

The number of permutations of m things taken n and n , or n at a time; is equal to m changes of $m-1$ things taken $n-1$ at a time.

For suppose these 5 things $abcde$, and first leave out a ; then we shall have the four $bcde$, out of which let there be taken all the 2's, bc , bd , &c. and put v = number of all the variations of every 2, out of the four quantities $bcde$.

Now let a be put in the first place of each of them, which will make abc , abd , &c; then each

P E R M U T A T I O N S.

will consist of three letters; and the number of changes will remain the same, whilst a possesses the first place; that is, $v =$ number of variations of every 3 out of the 5 $abcde$, when a is first.

In like manner, if b, c, d, e be successively left out, the number of the variations of all the 2's will also be v ; and, putting b, c, d, e in the first place to make 3 quantities out of 5, there will still be v variations, as before. But these are all the variations that can happen of 3 things out of 5, when a, b, c, d, e are successively put first; and therefore the sum of all these is the sum of all the changes of 3 things out of 5. But the sum of these is so many times v as is the number of things; that is, $5v$ or $mv =$ all the changes of 3 things out of 5. And it is evident, the same way of reasoning may be applied to any number, m, n .

P R O P. III. *Prop.*

Any number m of different things being given, to find how many permutations or changes can be made out of them, taken n by m , or n quantities at a time.

R U L E.

Multiply continually $m \times m-1 \times m-2 \times m-3 \times \&c.$ to n terms, for the changes.

Suppose any number of things $a b c d e f g$; here $m = 7$, and let $n = 3$. Subtract 1 from 3 and there remains 2, subtract 3 from 7 and there remains 5. Then set the numbers as follows,

n	m
1	5
2	6
3	7

Here it is evident, that the number of changes, made 1 by 1 out of 5 things, will be $5 = a$.

Then

P E R M U T A T I O N S.

Then (Prop. II.) when $m = 6$, $n = 2$, the number of changes $= mv = 6 \times 5 = v$, a second time.

Again, when $m = 7$, $n = 3$, the number of changes $= mv = 7 \times 6 \times 5$, that is, $= m \times m - 1 \times m - 2$, continued to 3 or n terms. And the like may be shewn for any other numbers.

Cor. 1. If $V =$ all the variations or changes of m things, taken n at a time; then, $m - n \times V =$ all the changes of m things, taken $n + 1$ at a time.

For when $m = 7$, $n = 3$, $V = 7 \times 6 \times 5$, and $m - n = 4$. But by this Prop. making $n = 4$, then the changes will be $= 7 \times 6 \times 5 \times 4$; that is, $= V \times m - n$. And so for all other numbers.

Cor. 2. $n V = m \times$ changes of n things out of m — the changes of $n + 1$ things out of m .

For $mV = m \times$ changes of n things out of m ; from which subtracting $m - n$. V (Cor. 1.) gives $n V$ as above.

Ex. 1.

How many changes can be rung with three bells out of eight?

Anf. $8 \times 7 \times 6 = 336$.

Ex. 2.

How many words can be made with 5 letters of the alphabet, admitting all consonants?

Anf. $24 \times 23 \times 22 \times 21 \times 20 = 5100480$.

PERMUTATIONS.

PROP. IV. Prob.

Any number of things m , being given; whereof there are p things of one sort, and q things of another, &c. To find how many changes can be made out of them all?

RULE.

Multiply and divide according to this formula.

$$\frac{1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \times 5 \dots \text{to } m}{1 \times 2 \times 3 \times \dots \text{to } p \times 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times \dots \text{to } q \text{ \&c.}}$$

$$1 \times 2 \times 3 \times \dots \text{to } p \times 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times \dots \text{to } q \text{ \&c.}$$

For suppose ab two quantities, then there will be two changes, ab , ba . But if for b , you put a , then aa admits but of one alternation $= \frac{2.1}{2.1} = 1$. For

ab and ba , being two variations, become aa and aa , which therefore will be but one.

In like manner abc affords six variations, but if it be reduced to aaa or a^3 , then these six variations become but one $= \frac{1 \times 2 \times 3}{1 \times 2 \times 3} = 1$. And if abc

be reduced to aac , the six variations will be reduced to only these three, aac , caa , aca ; but half so many as before $= \frac{1 \times 2 \times 3}{1 \times 2} = 3$.

In like manner, if all these be different $abcd$, there will be 24 variations; but if they be all the same, as $aaaa$ or a^4 , then all these 24 will be but one $= \frac{1.2.3.4}{1.2.3.4}$. And if they be reduced to $aaab$,

three of them being the same, there will but be four variations $aaab$, $aaba$, $abaa$, and $baaa$ $= \frac{1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4}{1 \times 2 \times 3} = 4$. And if the four quantities be

$aabc$, the 24 will be reduced to 12 $= \frac{1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4}{1 \times 2} = 12$.

PERMUTATIONS.

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= 12; for it was shewn before that aab is reduced to 3, and since c may have four positions among the quantities aab ; therefore the variations of all four $aabc$, will be 4×3 or 12.

After the same manner if we have $abbbcc$, if they are all different, they will admit of 720 changes, but because b occurs twice, and c thrice, it must be divided by 2, and then by 6, and the quotient will be $60 = \frac{1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \times 5 \times 6}{1 \times 2 \times 1 \times 2 \times 3}$, as is easily

tried. And the like may be shewn of any other such quantities.

Cor. Hence if any index p occurs twice or oftener, the series must be divided by $1.2.3 \dots$ to p twice, or as oft as that index occurs, in different quantities.

For in that case we shall have a^3b^3 , or $aaa bbb$, where p is 3. Or a^4b^4 , where p is 4.

Examp. 1.

How many variations may be made of the letters in the word Bacchanalia?

Ans. It will be in this form $abcdeffgggg$, and the changes will be

$$\frac{1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \times 5 \times 6 \times 7 \times 8 \times 9 \times 10 \times 11}{1 \times 2 \times 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4} = 831600.?$$

Ex. 2.

How many different numbers will the figures following make, 1220005555?

$$\text{Ans. } \frac{1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \times 5 \times 6 \times 7 \times 8 \times 9 \times 10}{1 \times 2 \times 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4} = 12600.$$

PERMUTATIONS.

PROP. V. *Prob.*

To find the number of permutations of m things, taken n at a time; in which there are p things of one sort, q things of another, &c.

RULE. L

First find all the different forms of combination of these m things, taken n at a time: and then how many combinations there are of each form.

Then by Prop. IV. find the number of changes in any form, which multiply by the number of combinations in that form.

Repeat the same for every distinct form; and the sum of all the products gives the whole sum of the changes required; as is evident from the nature of the Problem.

All the difficulty here is to find the combination required; and this is easily done, when the quantities are but few, by joining together every two, every three, &c. till you come at the number n ; and then reckoning how many different forms there are, having n at a time, and how many in each form.

But when the quantities are many and often repeated, this method would be impracticable; and then we must have recourse to Prop. VIII. following to find these combinations.

Examp. 1.

How many alternations or changes can be made of every four letters out of these eight, aabbcc?

Set them down as if you were going to multiply them, and all the products accordingly; omitting such as happen to be the same as some of the foregoing, and such as are out of the question.

PERMUTATIONS.

$a \quad b \quad c$
 $a \quad b \quad c$

 $aa \quad ab \quad ac \quad bb \quad bc \quad cc$
 $a \quad b \quad c$

 $aaa \quad aab \quad aac \quad abb \quad abc \quad acc \quad bbb \quad bbc \quad bcc$
 $a \quad b \quad c$

 $aaab \quad aaac \quad aabb \quad aabc \quad aacc \quad abbb \quad abbc$
 $abcc \quad bbbc \quad bbcc.$

Here we have four of this form $aaab$, whose number of changes is 4, by Prop. IV.

And three of this form $aabb$, number of changes 6.

And three of this form $aabc$, number of changes 12.

Therefore $4 \times 4 = 16$
 $3 \times 6 = 18$
 $3 \times 12 = 36$

Number of changes 70

Examp. 2.

How many changes can be made of eight letters out of these ten; $a^4 b^2 c^2 d e$?

Here the sum of the indices must always be 8. And all the forms being found by Prop. VIII. following, and the combinations in each; put them down as in the following table, writing the indices of the quantities for the repetitions. Then find the changes (by Prop. IV.) for every eight, in these different forms, and multiply them severally by the number of combinations in each form, as in the last column.

PERMUTATIONS.

Forms.	Numb. Combi.	Chang.	Chang. multip.
422	1	420	420
4211	6	340	5040.
41111	1	1580	1680
3221	2	1680	3360
32111	2	3360	6720
22211	1	5040	5040
Sum of all the Changes, 22260			

Ex. 3.

How many different numbers can be made out of 1 unit, two two's, 3 three's, 4 four's, and 5 five's; taken five at a time.

Put a, b, c, d, e for 5, 4, 3, 2, 1; then the things given will be $a^5 b^4 c^3 d^2 e$. Then by Cor. Prop. VIII. following, find all the different forms, these five things are capable of, and by that Prop. the number of combinations in each form; which set down as below. Then the changes in each form, being found by Prop. IV. must be multiplied into these combinations, as follows.

Indices.	Forms.	Combi- nations.
54321	5	1
$m = 15$	41	8
$n = 5$	32	9
$L = 5$	311	8
	221	18
	2111	16
	11111	1

Then

P E R M U T A T I O N S.

Then the number of alternations or changes will be,

$$1^{\text{st}} \text{ form, } \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5} \times 1 = 1 \times 1 = 1$$

$$2^{\text{nd}} \text{ form, } \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 1} \times 8 = 5 \times 8 = 40$$

$$3^{\text{rd}} \text{ form, } \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \times 1 \cdot 2} \times 9 = 10 \times 9 = 90$$

$$4^{\text{th}} \text{ form, } \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \times 1 \times 1} \times 18 = 20 \times 18 = 360$$

$$5^{\text{th}} \text{ form, } \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5}{1 \cdot 2 \times 1 \cdot 2 \times 1} \times 18 = 30 \times 18 = 540$$

$$6^{\text{th}} \text{ form, } \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5}{1 \cdot 2 \times 1 \times 1 \times 1} \times 16 = 60 \times 16 = 960$$

$$7^{\text{th}} \text{ form, } \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5}{1} \times 1 = 120 \times 1 = 120$$

$$\text{Number of all the changes, } \underline{\underline{2111}}$$

Note, if 10 be to be taken at a time, the number of the forms of combination would be the same; but the combinations themselves would be different.

P R O P. VI.

If C be the number of combinations of m different things taken n at a time; then $\frac{m-n}{n+1}C$ will be the number of combinations, taken $n+1$ at a time.

Let $abcde$ be the different things proposed. Then all the different combinations, taken by one's, by two's, by three's, &c. will be as follows.

a ab

COMBINATIONS.

a	ab	abc	abcd	abcde
b	ac	abd	abce	
c	ad	abe	abde	
d	ae	acd	acde	
e	bc	ace	bced	
	bd	ade		
5	be	bcd	5	
	ed	bce		
	ce	bde		
	de	cde		
	10	10		

1. Here the combinations of all the five simple letters, is evidently 5 or m .

2. Then all the quantities $abcde$, being combined with all the same 5, the whole number of combinations of two letters, will be 5 times 5 or 25, but the 5 squares are to be rejected, aa , bb , cc , dd , ee . Then there remains 20, which is 4×5 or $m \times m - 1$, but out of these 20, every one is repeated twice over, as ab and ba , ac and ca , &c.

Therefore $m \times \frac{m-1}{2}$, or $C \times \frac{m-1}{n+1}$ will be the just number of the combinations of 2 things, n being = 1.

3. Then if the last 10 or C , be combined with the 5 $abcde$, there will be produced 5×10 or 50 combinations of 3 letters. And out of these there must be rejected 4 with aa , and as many with bb , cc , dd , ee ; that is, 5×4 or $20 = 2C$. Then there remains 30 combinations, or $m - n \times C$. But each combination is thrice repeated, for three letters; for we shall have abc , bac , cab ; and abd , bda , dab , &c. that is, they are as often repeated as there are letters; therefore taking a third part, $C \times \frac{m-2}{3}$

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or $C \times \frac{m-n}{n+1} =$ the just number of combination,

in this case $= 10$.

4. Again, if these last be again combined with the five, we shall have 5×10 , or 50 combinations of four letters, in this example. But out of these, there will be six with *aa*, and as many with *bb*, *cc*, *dd*, *ee*; that is, 6×5 or 30, to be rejected. Then there remains $20 = 2 \times 10 = \frac{m-n}{4} C$. But these contain as many repetitions of each, as there are letters, that is, 4 or $n+1$. For amongst them we have *abcd*, *bacd*, *cabd*, and *dabc*; and so of the rest, therefore we must take only $\frac{1}{4}$ of these; and then we shall have $\frac{m-n}{4} C$ for four quantities

combined, which in this case is $5 = \frac{m-n}{n+1} C$.

5. Then if these five be combined with *abcde*, we shall have 5×5 , or 25 of all; but among them there will be four with *aa*, and as many with *bb*, *cc*, *dd*, *ee*; that is, 4×5 , or 20 to be thrown out; then there remains 5, but all these 5 are but the repetition of the same letters differently placed; and therefore we must take the 5th part, or $\frac{5}{5} = 1$, for the number of combinations $= \frac{m-n}{5} C =$

$\frac{m-n}{n+1} C$, in our example.

And it is evident, that the same reasoning may be applied to any number of distinct things whatsoever. And therefore if *C* be any number of combinations of *n* quantities, then $\frac{m-n}{n+1} C$ will be combinations for $n+1$ quantities.

COMBINATIONS.

PROP. VII. Prob.

To find the number of Combinations of m things, all different from one another, taken n at a time.

RULE.

Multiply continually $\frac{m}{1} \times \frac{m-1}{2} \times \frac{m-2}{3} \times \frac{m-3}{4}$ &c. to n terms, for the number of combinations.

For let m be the number of the quantities $abcd$, &c. then it is plain, that m will be the number of all the one's.

Then let $n = 1$, and $C = m$, and by the last Prop. the combinations of all the two's will be $C \times \frac{m-1}{2} = \frac{m}{1} \times \frac{m-1}{2}$.

Again, let $n = 2$, $C = \frac{m}{1} \times \frac{m-1}{2}$; then by the last Prop. the combinations of all the three's will be $C \times \frac{m-2}{3} = \frac{m}{1} \times \frac{m-1}{2} \times \frac{m-2}{3}$.

Also if $n = 3$, $C = \frac{m}{1} \times \frac{m-1}{2} \times \frac{m-2}{3}$; then the combinations of all the four's will be $C \times \frac{m-3}{4} = \frac{m}{1} \times \frac{m-1}{2} \times \frac{m-2}{3} \times \frac{m-3}{4}$.

And so forward as far as you will.

COR. I. The number of combinations of n things, taken out of m , is equal to the uncia or coefficient of the $n+1^{\text{th}}$ term of a binomial, raised to the m^{th} power.

For

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For $\frac{m}{1} \times \frac{m-1}{2} \times \frac{m-2}{3} \&c.$ to n terms is the $n + 1^{\text{th}}$ term of a binomial; by Cor. 1. Prob. V. Sect. I. Algebra.

Cor. 2. *The number of all the possible combinations, of all the one's, two's, three's, &c. is one less than the sum of all the unciæ of a binomial raised to the m^{th} power, and that is equal to $2^m - 1$. This is the number of all the elections.*

For the sum of the coefficients of the m^{th} power = sum of the coefficients of $1 + 1^m = 1 + 1^m = 2^m$.

Cor. 3. *There is the same number of combinations of n things out of m , as of $m - n$ things out of m .*

For there is the same variety of taking n things, as of leaving n things; that is, of taking $m - n$ things.

Cor. 4. *There is but one combination of m things out of m ; whether they be all different, or several of one or more sorts.*

Cor. 5. *The number of permutations of m things taken n at a time = the like number of combinations $\times$ into $1.2.3.4.5 \&c. \dots$ to n terms.*

This is plain from this Prop. and Prop. III.

• Ex. 1.

How many combinations can be made of six letters out of ten?

$$\text{Ans. } \frac{10 \times 9 \times 8 \times 7 \times 6 \times 5}{1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \times 5 \times 6} = 210.$$

Ex. 2.

How many combinations can be made with three letters of the alphabet?

$$\text{Ans. } \frac{24 \times 23 \times 22}{1 \times 2 \times 3} = 2024.$$

SCHOL.

S C H O L.

The number of divisors of m quantities, $abcd$, &c. is $2^m - 1$. And the number of aliquot parts, $2^m - 2$. For the number of all the combinations of the one's, two's, three's, &c. is the same as the number of the divisors. And the number of aliquot parts is one less, because $abcd$ is a divisor, but not a part of itself.

P R O P. VIII. *Prob.*

To find the number of combinations of m things, taking n at a time; in which there are p things of one sort, q things of another sort, &c.

Here when any quantity is often repeated, as aaa , $bbbb$, &c. they are written thus a^3 , b^4 , &c. where the index shews the number of repetitions, of any quantity, or how often it is to be taken. In the former cases of combination where the quantities are all distinct, the solution is had by a single rule, or a single operation. But this cannot be done where any of the quantities are repeated, for this requires several operations, for the different forms of combination, that n things are capable of, one for each form; whereas if they were all distinct, there could be only one form for all.

To proceed regularly, we must first find how many different forms n things will admit of, and what they are; and then how many combinations are in each form. And the sum of all these combinations will be the number required.

R U L E, *for the number of forms.*

1. Place the m things so, that the greatest indexes may be first, and the rest decrease in order. Then begin at the first letter, and join it with the second,

second, third, fourth, &c. to the last; then take the second letter and join it with the third, fourth, &c. and then take the third letter and proceed the same way; and then the fourth, and the fifth, &c. till all be done; always taking care to reject such combinations as you have had before. Thus you have the combinations of all the two's.

Then for all the three's, join the first letter to every one of the two's, successively; and then the second, and third, &c. to the last; taking care to leave out such combinations as are had before. Then you have all the combinations of the three's.

Proceed the same way to get the combinations of all the four's, all the five's, &c. till you come at n , whose combinations are required. So you will at last get all the several forms of combination of n things; and how many there is in each form.

But in particular cases, shorter ways than this may often be found out.

2. To find the number of combinations in any form; let the quantities, both in the m things, and n things, be ranged according to the indexes, setting the greatest first, as has been said. Then if the quantities are not many, the number of combinations may be found out, and reckoned up, after a like manner, as their different forms were found out before; beginning at the first, and going gradually thro' them all. As if you have $a^3 b^2 c^2 d$; and you would know how many are contained in it, of this form aa^2bc . Here aa may be connected with bc , bd , cd ; and there are three such squares which may be connected in like manner, viz. aa , bb , and cc ; therefore 3×3 or 9 will be the number of combinations in that form.

But when there are many terms, we must proceed to calculation in this manner. Let the things given whose number is m , be those $a^p b^q c^r d^s$, &c. where p , q , r , s are the indices or repetitions, no matter

matter whether equal or unequal. And let $a^t b^v c^w d^x$, &c. be the form to be combined, the indices being t, v, w, x , &c. either equal or unequal. And when a letter is but once expressed, its index will be 1. Then for the

RULE for any single form.

Let A, B, C, D , &c. be the number of different letters in the m things exposed, whose indices are equal to, or greater than (t, v, w, x , &c. respectively) the indexes in the n things.

Then the number of combinations in that form is $A \times B - 1 \times C - 2 \times D - 3$, &c. continued to RS , &c.

as many terms as there are different letters in the form proposed; where $R = 1 \times 2$, or $1 \times 2 \times 3$, or $1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4$, &c. when any index in the form is twice, thrice, or four times, &c. repeated; and the like for S , &c.

3. The same operation is to be repeated for every form; and then the sum of all, gives the number of combinations; being all that n things out of m , can admit of.

For suppose any number of things as $m = a^1 b^1 c^1 d^1$, and the form proposed $a^1 b^1 c^1$.

It is evident 2 (the index of a^1) is contained in 5 and 3 , (the indexes of $a^1 b^1$), which gives 2 cases, where a cube can be taken out of the m things, here $A = 2$.

Then, 2 (the index of b^1) is contained in $5, 3, 2$ (the three indexes of $a^1 b^1 c^1$); here $B = 3$. So there are three cases where a square can be taken, considered singly. But as some cube goes along with it, that takes away one case, and there remains $B = 1$ or two cases only. Now for every one of these, there will be A cases, where the cube and square are both contained in the m things: that

is, the number of combinations with a cube and a square will be $A \times \overline{B - 1}$.

Again, 1 (the index of c) is contained in 5, 3, 2, and 1, (the indices of all the quantities $a^5 b^3 c^2 d$); whence $C = 4$; so that there will be four cases, where (c) any simple quantity can be taken. But since a cube and a square is to go along with it; these take up two places, and destroy two of the cases; so that the number of cases where a simple quantity can be connected with a square and a cube (whose places are fixt, or species determined), will be $C - 2$. And for every one of these, there will be $A \times \overline{B - 1}$ cases by varying the species of the cube and square; so the number of these three combinations, will be $A \times \overline{B - 1} \times \overline{C - 2}$. And in like manner, if there had been a fourth quantity (d) to be combined, we should have $D =$ number of the simple cases, and $D - 3$ the number of cases, when going along with the other three. And then the whole number of combinations of quantities, with four different indices, would be $A \times \overline{B - 1} \times \overline{C - 2} \times \overline{D - 3}$, for d must be supposed to have a different index from any of the rest.

It is evident, this way of reasoning is general, and may be applied to any collections of quantities whatever; where the indices of all the quantities n , in the proposed form, are all different. But it matters not, whether the indices in the whole collection of quantities m , which are exposed, be the same or different.

Now when any index in the proposed form happens to be repeated several times, the former number must be divided by a correspondent number, after a like manner as was shewn in Prop. IV. for the changes of things.

Let $m = a^3 b^2 c^2$, the form $a^2 b$, then $A = 3$, $B = 3$, and $A \times \overline{B - 1} = 6$. But if the form be $a^2 b^2$

a^2b^2 or ab , in either case A and B remain the same, and $\frac{A \times B - 1}{1.2} = 3$, which shews all the cases that

two squares, or two single letters, can be taken out of m . Here $R = 1 \times 2$.

Again, let $m = a^2b^2c^2d^2$, and the form a^2b^2c , then $A = 4$, $B = 4$, $C = 4$, and $4.3.2 = 24$, the number of combinations of a cube and a square and a single letter. But if the form be a^2b^2c , A ,

B , C will be the same as before, and $\frac{4.3.2}{1.2} = 12$

$= 12$ combinations of two squares and a single letter, as is easily tried. And if the form be $a^2b^2c^2$, A , B , C , will still be the same, and then

$R = 1 \times 2 \times 3$, whence $\frac{4.3.2}{1.2.3} = 4$, the combina-

tions of three squares; and it is evident by inspection, there can be no more. And there would be the same number for the form ab^2c . And the same will hold in all such quantities, where the indexes are alike. For a repetition of the same index causes a certain number of repetitions among the quantities combined; which ought to be reduced in proportion. And what is said of the repetition of one index, is equally true for the repetition of any other index, and then S comes into the calculation.

Cor. Hence it appears, that before the required number of combinations can be found; all the different forms of combination must be had. And these may be obtained by Art. 1. before; or rather, when the quantities are many, by the following method.

Let us now work by the indices. Put $L =$ number of different letters.

Then set down all the indexes contained in the m quantities, taking the greatest first. Then out of these

these must be made so many rows of figures as there are different forms, and the sum of the figures in each row must make n , and no row must exceed L places. Now to get all these forms, set down the greatest index first, and the next lesser towards the right hand, and so on. Then proceed from one row to another, by breaking the least numbers (those towards the right) still into lesser numbers, till they be units. Thus proceed gradually figure by figure, from the right towards the left, till all the numbers be diminished as low as they will admit of.

Ex. 1.

Let the things proposed be $a^3b^2c = m$, to find the number of combinations made of every 3 (n) of these quantities.

The indexes 3 2 1 . $L = 3$.

Forms	3	combin.	1
	2 1		4
	1 1 1		1
Sum of the combinations,			6

In this example there are 3 forms; 1. a cube; 2. a square and a single one; 3. three single ones. The first admits of one combination only; the second of 4, and the third of 1, whose sum is 6.

Ex. 2.

Let $a^3b^3c^2$ be proposed; to find the number of combinations, taken 4 at a time?

Indexes.	Forms.	Combin.
3 3 2	3 1	4
$L = 3$.	2 2	3
	2 1 1	3

Sum of the combin. 10.

C 3

Ex.

COMBINATIONS.

Ex. 3.

How many Combinations, in $a^4b^3c^2de$; taking 8 at a time?

Indexes.	Forms.	Combinations.
$n = 8$ $L = 5$	422	1
	4211	6
	41111	1
	3221	2
	32111	2
	22211	1

Combinations 13

In this example there is no three's to be combined with the four.

Ex. 4.

Suppose $a^5b^5c^4d^4e^4f^4g$ be proposed; to find all the combinations, taken 10 at a time.

Indices.	Forms.	Combinations.
$n = 10$ $L = 7$	55	1
	541	40
	532	40
	5311	100
	5221	80
	52111	100
	511111	12

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Forms.

COMBINATIONS.

23

Forms.	Combin.	Forms.	Combin.
442	40	3331	80
4411	110	3322	90
433	50	33211	360
4321	400	331111	75
43111	250	32221	180
4222	50	322111	240
42211	300	3211111	30
421111	125	22222	6
411111	5	222211	45
		2221111	20
	1320		1126
			1320
			373
			2819

To give account of our proceedings in this Example, it may be observed, that all the figures decrease towards the right. In the first place, we take the greatest 5 and 5, and then break the latter 5 into 4 and 1, or into 3 and 2, or into 3 and 1, 1. Having done with 5, 3, we take 5, 2, and fill up (10) with 2, 1, or with 1, 1, 1.

Having done with 5, we take 4, and fill up with the greatest numbers, not exceeding 4; as with 4, 2, and 4, 1, 1. For if we had taken a bigger number than 4, we shall find it dispatched before; and therefore we must always take an equal or a less number. In the next place we take 4, 3, and fill up with 3, or 2, 1, or 1, 1, 1; and thus we go on till all the right hand numbers are dissolved into 1's.

Having finished those with 4, we take 3, and put to it 3, 3, 1, the greatest numbers that exceed not 3; and proceed as before; but we have now

C 4

no

COMBINATIONS.

additional numbers, to do with, above 2. And being done, we go to 2, and the whole collection ends with 2221111; for we cannot break 2 into 1 and 1, for the number of places would then exceed 7, which it cannot do.

All these forms being thus had, their several combinations are obtained, by the second article, and set against them in the table. And this example may serve as a specimen for other more difficult cases.

SCHOLIUM.

When n , the number of things to be taken, is very great; you may first take the number of $m - n$ things; and find how many combinations there will be for them; for there will be just as many for one as for the other. And then having the combinations of $m - n$ things; by taking these severally out of the whole, you will have the combinations of n things required. As if $m = a^3b^2c$, and $n = 4$, then $m - n = 2$, and all the two's will be aa, ab, ac, bb, bc . These taken severally out of a^3b^2c , will leave $abbc, aabc, acbb, a^2c, a^2b$; which are all the combinations of the four's. But the number of forms will not be the same in both, there being only two forms in the two's; and three forms in the four's. Neither will the number of combinations, in the correspondent forms, be the same.

PROP. IX.

The number of compositions of n things taken out of n rows, each row consisting of m things, is m^n , or the n^{th} power of m .

Let there be any number of rows $a \ b \ c \ d$
as these annex. It is plain the num- $e \ f \ g \ h$
ber of single things as a, b, c, d , is $i \ k \ l \ m$
 m of m .

Then

PROP. X. Prob.

If there be m rows of quantities given, having the same quantities, and the same number of them, as $a, b, c, d, &c.$ To find the number of compositions of m things taken out of the m rows; for any given form, of these quantities, as $a^1 b^1 c^1 d^1, &c.$

R U L E.

Put $V =$ variations of the things $a^1 b^1 c^1 d^1,$

And $A =$ variations or alternations of the indexes, Rows, both found by Prop. IV. Then will

$AV =$ number of compositions required.

For let the different rows in the last Prop. be made all alike, or the first row $a \ b \ c \ d$ m times repeated, as here. And let the number of things proposed be $a^1 b^1 c^1,$ and first let the index 3 be fixt to $a,$ and 2 to $b,$ &c. Now since a^1 may be taken out of any 3 rows, and b^1 out of any two remaining rows; and c^1 out of the last remaining row; therefore there will be so many ways of taking these letters, as each of them can be placed in different rows, that is, in different places or situations; for the varying the rows is the same thing as varying the places of the letters; and consequently the number of different ways of taking them out of the several rows, is equal to the number of variations or permutations of these letters, to be found by Prop. IV. which number is $V.$ And this will hold as long as the indexes are fixt to these particular letters, and to none else.

But since in any one form as $a^1 b^1 c^1,$ that form will take in as many cases, as there can be variations made in shifting the indices, from one letter to another; therefore there will be so many times $V,$ as is the number of these variations. Therefore if

$A =$

COMPOSITION.

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A = number of variations or alternations, of the indices 3, 2, 1; or in general, of t, v, x, w . Then AV will be the whole number of compositions, that particular form will admit of.

Cor. 1. Hence in any $a^t b^v c^w d^x \&c.$ where the indices are fixt invariably to their particular letters; the number of compositions V will be,

$$= \frac{1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \dots \text{to } m}{1.2.3 \dots \text{to } t \times 1.2.3 \dots \text{to } v \times \&c.}$$

Cor. 2. If n = number of different letters in any form $a^t b^v c^w d^x \&c.$ Then the whole number of compositions for that form will be =

$$\frac{1.2.3 \dots \text{to } n}{R \&c.} \times \frac{1.2.3 \dots \text{to } m}{1.2 \dots t \times 1.2 \dots v \times \&c.}$$

where $R = 1.2$, or $1.2.3 \&c.$ according as any index is twice or thrice, &c. repeated; and the like for S , and so on.

Here follow some examples.

Examp. 1.

How many compositions are in the form $a^t b^v c^w$?

Here $n = 3, m = 6, t = 3, v = 2, w = 1$. And here is no repetition of indexes. Therefore

$$\text{Ans. } 1.2.3 \times \frac{1.2.3.4.5.6}{1.2.3 \times 1.2} = 6 \times 60 = 360.$$

Ex. 2.

How many compositions in the form $a^t b^v c^w$?

Here $n = 3, m = 5, t = 2, v = 2, w = 1$. The index 2 is twice repeated. Therefore

$$\text{Ans. } \frac{1.2.3}{1.2} \times \frac{1.2.3.4.5}{1.2 \times 1.2} = 3 \times 30 = 90.$$

Ex. 3.

To find the compositions in the form $a^t b^v$.

Here

Here $n = 3$, $m = 6$, $l, v = 3$, $w = 0$. The index 3 is twice repeated; and the letters a , thrice.

$$\text{Ans. } \frac{1.2}{1.2} \times \frac{1.2.3.4.5.6}{1.2.3 \times 1.2.3} = 1 \times 20 = 20.$$

Ex. 4.

To find the number of compositions of the form $a^3b^2c^2d^2$.

Here $n = 4$, $m = 10$, $l, v = 3$, $w, x = 2$. The index 3 is twice repeated, as also the index 2. The letters, a , b , are thrice repeated; and c , d , twice.

$$\text{Ans. } \frac{1.2.3.4}{1.2 \times 1.2} \times \frac{1.2.3.4.5.6.7.8.9.10}{1.2.3 \times 1.2.3 \times 1.2 \times 1.2} = 6 \times 25200 = 151200.$$

Ex. 5.

How many compositions in the form $a^5b^3c^3def$?

Here $n = 6$, $m = 14$; $l = 5$, $v, w = 3$, $x = 1$, &c. Here the index 3 is twice repeated, and the index 1 thrice. The letter a , 5 times repeated; and b and c thrice. Hence,

$$\text{Ans. } \frac{1.2.3.4.5.6}{1.2.3 \times 1.2} \times \frac{1.2.3.4.5.6.7.8.9.10.11.12.13.14}{1.2.3.4.5 \times 1.2.3 \times 1.2.3} = 60 \times 20180160 = 1210809600. \text{ So prodigi-}$$

ously do the numbers increase in their operations.

SCHOL.

It may be observed, that if the multinomial $A + B + C + D$ &c. be raised to the m^{th} power, and the given form, whole number of compositions is sought, be found among the terms of that power; the numeral coefficient annexed to it, will always be the number of variations V , that we want. See my Algebra, Schol. to Prob. LIX. B. I. Thus for the form a^3b^2c , look in the sixth power, and you'll find $60A^3B^2C$; therefore $60 = V$. Also in the fifth

fifth power, you'll find $30A^2B^2C$, therefore $V=30$, for the variations of a^2b^2c . Also with a^3b^3 in the sixth power, you'll find 20 for V ; and so of others. And this being known, this doctrine may be serviceable for finding the unciæ of any term of a multinomial. As suppose you have the 4th term of the 7th power of $A+B+C$ &c. which is A^4B^3 , A^5BC , and A^6D ,

The variations of A^4B^3 is $\frac{1.2.3.4.5.6.7}{1.2.3.4 \times 1.2.3} = 35$.

and the variations of $A^5BC = \frac{1.2.3.4.5.6.7}{1.2.3.4.5} = 42$.

and the variation of $A^6D = \frac{1.2.3.4.5.6.7}{1.2.3.4.5.6} = 7$;

therefore the complete term is $35A^4B^3 + 42A^5BC + 7A^6D$. And the same may be done for any other term, if the letters that compose it be known. The doctrine of Combinations and Permutations, is likewise applicable to many other purposes, particularly to several problems of chance, which for brevity's sake I omit.

F I N I S.

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CHRONOLOGY:

Or, the ART of

ECKONING TIME.

DESCRIBING

several Divisions of TIME in common Use;
Nature and Original of CYCLES and PE-
riods, and the most remarkable AERA's; and
Manner of Computing the Numbers of such
Years, of the Common Notes, for any Year;
the Moveable Feasts; the Places of the Sun and
Moon; and the Nature of the Calendar.

Founded upon

ASTRONOMICAL PRINCIPLES.

To which is added,

SHORT CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

*— res antiquæ laudis et artis
ingredior, ————— VIRGO.*

L O N D O N :

Printed for J. Nourse, in the Strand;
Bookseller in Ordinary to his MAJESTY.

MDCCLXX.

T H E
P R E F A C E.

I Suppose little or nothing need be said in praise of an art, which we stand in need of, and are forced to practise every day; and such is the art of Chronology. Without this art we could not tell how time goes on, nor understand the difference of times and seasons. We daily want to know the rising and setting of the sun and moon, the increase or decrease and the length of days, the moon's changing and full, and such like things.

There is such a near connection between Astronomy and Chronology, that some authors treat of them together; and in this Treatise I have laid down such astronomical problems as are always wanted in Chronology; which are here solved or rather reckoned, after a short way for common use. But to have them accurate, must be performed more laboriously by Astronomy.

As Chronology is of such service in reckoning time, and every body has some business or other with time; therefore every body should at least know the use of the Calendar, and the common Chronological notes; and be acquainted with so much Chronology, as to be able to point out the several times and seasons, as they are distinguished in the country where he lives. Therefore I have here put together the easiest elements of

Chronology, or those of most frequent use, being such as relate to the civil computations of time.

Chronology is absolutely necessary to be known by all such as want to understand history; without which he will wander in the dark, and be always at a loss. For as the History tells us the person that acts, and Geography gives us the place of action, so Chronology must give us the time of acting; without which we shall have very imperfect notions of what we read. For this reason, I have added a Chronological table, containing the most memorable actions that have happened, and the most remarkable events; and the times when the most famous men were alive.

It is true, the Chronology of ancient times is very obscure and uncertain; for though the facts are mostly true, yet these being annexed to wrong periods of time, has occasioned infinite perplexities and inconsistencies in Chronology, which stood in great need of amendment. For this reason Sir I. Newton set about rectifying the times, which he did with wonderful sagacity; and has given us a table of ancient transactions, adjusted to their proper periods of time, as far as he had any data to work by, and perhaps as far as it is possible to be done in this age. By this means he has made a great many events in history, surprisingly to agree. This he effected by reasoning from the lengths of generations of men, and of the reigns of kings, and by astronomical observations, where they could be had; and these are infallible guides.

For to confirm the time of any transaction, several characters, taken from Astronomy, are of especial use; as the eclipses of the sun and moon, the conjunctions of the superior planets, the acronical rising or setting of the stars, the occultation of the fixt stars by the moon, the places of the equinoctial points, and such like. These, when taken notice of by any historian, go a great way in determining the time of any action or event, then mentioned.

But

But some perverse people, bigotted to another way, and resolved to oppose all improvements; not content with what Sir I. Newton had done, have ventured to write against him; tho' they cannot tell how to give a better system, or clear the common system of Chronology from its known inconsistencies. In what they advance, they only give us the chaff and the corn together; some truths mixt with endless falsehoods, absurdity and nonsense; knowing no way to separate them, and wanting Sir Isaac's philosophical sieve; so they blunder on in the old road, and stick fast among their absurdities, not knowing how to extricate themselves. Some of them attempt to confute Sir Isaac's astronomical computations, which perhaps may go down with such as are no judges; but will be laughed at by such as are; for when things are examined, they appear to be most wretched computers. The way to confute him is to invalidate his proofs, which they can never do. Therefore the table I have annexed is mostly taken from his table, as being evidently the most consistent scheme that has yet appeared.

W. Emerson.

CHRONOLOGY.

DEFINITIONS.

DEF. I.

CHRONOLOGY is the art of measuring time, and adjusting all actions and events, to the several points of time in which they happened. And these parts of time are years, months, weeks, days, hours, minutes, seconds, &c.

DEF. II.

A *Year* is the time wherein the sun (apparently) moves round the earth in its orbit, or the earth (really) moves round the sun. This is the most obvious and sensible measure of large portions of time.

DEF. III.

The *astronomical* or *periodical Year*, is the time wherein the earth moves round the sun, from any star or fixt point in its orbit, to the same point again, and consists of 365 days, 6 hours, 9 minutes, 24 seconds.

DEF. IV.

The *tropical Year* is the time wherein the earth (or sun) performs its revolution thro' all the seasons; which being ended, they all return again as before. It consists of 365 days, 5 hours, 48 min. 57 sec.

DEF. V.

The *Egyptian Year* is the ancient year used by the *Egyptians*, and now used by the *Persians*, and

is just 365 days continually. This being shorter than the tropical year by near 6 hours, a day is lost in 4 years; and in about 1500 years, the beginning of the year moves backward thro' all the seasons. This year is the most convenient for astronomical calculations, as it is always the same, having no intercalary days to interrupt it.

D E F. VI.

The *Julian Year* is the year instituted by *Julius Caesar*, 46 years before Christ. It contains 365 days for three years, which are called *Common Years*; and 366 days, every fourth year, which is called *Leap Year*; whence the Julian Year is 365 $\frac{1}{4}$ days at a mean. But this year being longer than the tropical year by full 11 minutes, a day is gained in 130 years; or the seasons come sooner by a day in 130 years. And in 47540 years the beginning of the year would move forward, thro' all the seasons of the year.

D E F. VII.

The *Gregorian Year*, is the year instituted by *Pope Gregory*, in 1582; it consists of 365 days for three years, and 366 for the fourth, which is leap year, like the Julian. But then every hundredth year, that is, not divisible by 4, must be only a common year, instead of a leap year.

This sort of year is nearest the tropical year of any, and agrees nearly with the apparent motion of the sun, and is designed to keep pace with the tropical year. But it is very unfit for astronomical calculations, being perplexed with so many intercalations.

It was contrived to be brought to the sun's motion as it was at the time of the council of Nice, in 325; which was done by dropping 10 days out of the Calendar in the month of October. In the

last

last century it was 10 days before the Julian account; and in the present century, is 11 days before the Julian year; and gains one day more, every following century, except in such as are exactly divisible by 4. But it is strange that the Pope should bring back the beginning of the year, only to the Nicene council; when it ought to have been brought back to the time of Julius Cæsar, when the error was first begun; at which time the vernal equinox was on March 24 or 25. And then instead of 10 days, 13 or 14 should have been cut off.

• This year was brought into use in England in the year 1752; before which, the Julian account was always used. It was effected by striking out 11 days in September, calling the third day the fourteenth, and so on. And the year to begin on Jan. 1.

D E F. VIII.

The *civil Year* is the year which is in common use in any nation. Thus the Julian year was used in England till 1752, and after that the Gregorian year was to be always used.

Different nations begin the year at different times. The ancient *Egyptians* fixt its beginning in August; the *Athenians* and *Grecians*, at the summer solstice; some places in *Germany* and *Italy*, at the vernal equinox; and others at the autumnal equinox. But most of the *Europeans* begin it at the first of January; as England does by a late act of parliament.

The year is divided into 12 months; as also into four quarters, for the four seasons of the year; spring, summer, autumn, and winter.

D E F. IX.

The *lunar Year* consists of 12 lunations, or 354 days; it is used by the *Turks* and *Mahometans*. It runs thro' all the seasons in 32 years.

D E F.

D E F. X.

The *lunisolar Year*, is the most ancient year of all; it consisted of 12 lunations or months of 30 days each; which fell short of the solar year, and therefore they were obliged to add a month, whenever they found it too short for the return of the seasons; and to omit a day or two in an intercalary month, when they found it too long for the course of the moon.

D E F. XI.

A *Year current* is a year running on, and not yet compleated. The same of days, &c.

D E F. XII.

A *Month* is the 12th part of the year.

D E F. XIII.

A *solar Month* is the time of the sun's passing thro' a sign of the zodiac.

D E F. XIV.

A *lunar or synodical Month*, is the time between one conjunction of the sun and moon to another. It consists of 29 days, 12 hours, 44 min. at a mean lunation.

D E F. XV.

Periodical Month, is the time of the moon's revolution, till it came again to the same point, or the same star. It is 27 days, 7 hours, 43 min.

D E F. XVI.

Civil or calendar Month, is the length of 30 or 31 days, according as is set down in the Calendar.

D E F.

D E F. XVII.

A month of weeks; this consists of four weeks; and 13 of these months make a year, wanting a day.

D E F. XVIII.

A week is a collection of seven days, the 1st day is sunday, 2 monday, 3 tuesday, 4 wednesday, 5 thursday, 6 friday, 7 saturday; then they come about again in the same order. These days have their names from the seven planets.

D E F. XIX.

A day is the time wherein the sun seems to make one revolution. This is the most sensible part of time for measuring the small parts of it.

D E F. XX.

A natural day, is the time wherein the sun moves round the earth, from one meridian to the same again. This is longer by about four minutes, than the time of the earth's rotation.

Different people begin the day differently. The *Astronomers* and *Arabians* begin the day at noon the preceding day, and end it at noon again. The *Jews*, *Italians*, *Athenians*, *Austrians* and *Bohemians*, begin their day at sun-set the preceding evening, and reckon till sun-set again. The *Babylonians* begin and end their day at sun-rise. The ancient *Egyptians*, and most *Europeans*, begin the day at midnight preceding, and reckon to the midnight following.

D E F. XXI.

An artificial or shining day, is the time the sun is above the horizon, or the time between sun-rise and sun-set. And *night* is the time of the sun's absence.

D E F.

D E F. XXII.

An *hour*, is the 24th part of a natural day. The *Italians* reckon to 24 hours; most others reckon twice 12.

D E F. XXIII.

Planetary hour, is the 12th part of the time the sun shining; as also the 12th part of the time of his absence.

The Jews and ancient Romans divided the day into 12 hours, whether long or short: and began to reckon their hours at sun-rise, and ended at sun-set, when they began to reckon the hours of the night, which they also divided into 12 parts or hours. Whence the hours of their day were longer than the hours of their night in summer; and shorter in winter. The Turks use this way at present.

D E F. XXIV.

A *minute* is the 60th part of an hour; a *second* the 60th part of a minute; and so of *thirds*, *fourths*, &c.

D E F. XXV.

A *period* or *cycle*, is a certain space of time, or a revolution of a certain number of years, which being ended, it begins anew. Thus,

The *Julian period* consists of 7980 years; the product of the numbers, 19, 28, 156. This period was 4713 at the beginning of the Christian Era.

The *Dionysian* or *Victorian period* is 532 years: being the product of 19 and 28. This period was 457 at the beginning of the Christian Era. And

D E F. XXVI.

An *Era* is a particular account or reckoning of time, from some remarkable point, to which account all events and memorable actions are referred.

referred: This has a beginning but no ending, as a period has.

The following are the most remarkable Era's, according to the common account.

	Years before Christ.
Of the world,	4000
Noah's flood,	2294
Of the Olympiads (Greek)	776
Building of Rome (Roman)	753
Nabonassar,	747
Of Christ's birth,	2

	Years after Christ.
Dioclesian persecution,	284
Hegira, among the Turks,	622
Gesdegird, among the Persians,	632

D E F. XXVII.

Epocha is the first point of time, or the beginning of an Era.

D E F. XXVIII.

Stile, the method of reckoning time. The *Julian stile* is the *old stile*, in use from the time of Julius Cæsar. The *Gregorian stile*, is that begun by Pope Gregory, called the *new stile*; and used in *England* since 1752.

D E F. XXIX.

The *Calendar* is a day book for a year, divided into twelve parts for the twelve months, and each month into its proper number of days, all regularly numbered; which numbers are to shew the day of the month.

The names of the months from the beginning to the end of the year, and the days in each are, January 31, February 28, March 31, April 30, May 31,

31, June 30, July 31, August 31, September 30, October 31, November 30, December 31: in leap year February hath 29. The number of days in each month may be remembered by these lines,

*30 days hath September,
April, June, and November;
February has 28 alone,
And all the rest have 31.*

Against the days of the month in the Calendar are set all the remarkable days, holy days, festival term times, with such Phænomena of the sun and moon, as are useful for measuring and determining the several times and seasons of the year, but especially all the fixt days; for if the moveable days are inserted, it is more properly an *Almanack*, and lasts only for a year; whilst the Calendar is perpetual.

Every week is divided into seven days, which are denoted by the first seven letters of the alphabet, A, B, C, D, E, F, G; A is set at the first day of January, B at the second, C the third, &c. all following in order, and keep their places invariable. The letter that falls on a Sunday is called the Dominical letter.

Since a common year has 365 days, or 52 weeks and one day; therefore A will stand against the first day of the year, as well as against the first. Therefore if any year begins on a Sunday it will also end on a Sunday; and therefore the next year will begin on a Monday; and therefore the next year, that, on a Tuesday; and the next, on a Wednesday; and so on till a leap year happens, when February has 29 days, and then that year goes forward, it leaps two days. And hence it follows, that the Sunday letter for each succeeding year moves one letter back, in this order, A, G, F, E, &c. In a leap year, and then it moves two letters back.

In the yearly Diarys or Almanacks, the Sunday letter is commonly marked a red letter, to denote it belongs to Sunday. For all nations set apart one day in the week for publick worship. The *Chryistians* observe the first day in the week, or Sunday, which they call the Lord's day. The *Greeks*, Monday; the *Persians*, Tuesday; the *Assyrians*, Wednesday; the *Egyptians*, Thursday; the *Turks*, Friday; the *Jews*, Saturday, which they call the Sabbath.

Besides the periods or cycles before mentioned, there have been several others in use among the ancients; as a *Jubilee* 49 years, used by the Jews. An *Olympiad* 4 years, used by the Greeks. A *Lustrum* 5 years, used by the Romans; and the *Roman Judicature* 15 years. An *Age* or *Century* 100 years.

SCHOLIUM.

I shall here make some remarks concerning the calendar and the division of the year; not only in their present form, but as formerly used.

Before the time of *Julius Caesar*, the months consisted alternately of 29 and 30 days, by which means the new moon kept to the first day of every month, when once rightly adjusted; and their year always begun with the new moon nearest the vernal equinox. But afterwards, by the order of *Julius Caesar*, the months were made to consist of 30 and 31 days alternately, and the last of 29; which made up the year, or 365 days. And the year began at March. The months and days were as follows,

March 31	July 31	November 30
April 30	August 30	December 30
May 31	Septem. 31	January 31
June 30	October 30	February 29, and 30 in leap year.

But

But this regular and uniform method was altered by *Augustus Caesar*, who made August 31, and February 28, and the rest as we have them now. But tho' the said uniform method of computing, was altered at the pleasure and humour of a Roman tyrant; yet it is strange that none restored it again after his death, upon account of its simplicity.

This Julian year with its months thus disposed, has several advantages; as 1. the year beginning at March; the intercalary day, in leap year, would come in at the end of the year, where it ought to be, and would disturb nothing. Thus in leap year, Feb. 30 would be the last day of the year. 2. From this distribution of the months into days, it will follow, that if the day of the moon's changing in March, is known for any year, it will be known in all the following months, according to her mean motion, by continually adding a day for every month past March; because each month taken one with another, is a day longer than the moon's synodic revolution. 3. The year beginning at March, it would be near the time when the sun is in the vernal equinox, which is the beginning of all astronomical computations.

It is certain, the more simple any account of time is, the more easy and regular will any computation be, that depends upon it. But the year now in use is quite otherwise. For the beginning of the year is fixt to the first of January; and the intercalary or additional day, which comes in every fourth or leap year, is added at the end of February; which in effect makes two beginnings of the year. For at the beginning of January, there is a change of the dominical letter, and of every other thing depending on it. And on the first of March there is another change of the dominical letter, and of all other things relating thereto.

thereto. So that one fragment of the year is regulated by one rule; and another, by another rule; which is a manifest absurdity. For it must needs appear absurd to any body, to see an additional day thrust into the middle of a year, where there is no room for it. But this is not all, for in the times following *Julius Cæsar*, this intercalary day was absurdly thrust into the middle of a month; and the 24th of February was to be reckoned twice over; as if it were possible for one day to be two, or two days to be only one day.

It may be said for excuse, that most of Europe follows that way of reckoning, and therefore we in England, for the conveniency of corresponding with them, ought to follow the same. However, all nations that observe this sort of year, must labour under the like absurdities.

When Pope Gregory altered the civil year, and imposed it upon all Christendom to observe; he should have rectified it to the time of Christ's birth, and not to the time of the council of *Nice*. For our epocha is not dated from the Nicene council, but from the birth of Christ. And at that time the vernal equinox was not on the 21st of March, but on the 24th or 25th.

When the Protestant states of *Germany* came to a resolution to alter the Calendar, they would not receive the Pope's mandate, but did it in their own way, after this manner. They ordered that eleven days should be left out of February after the 18th day, in the year 1700. So that instead of writing Feb. 19, they should write March 1. And that the time of Easter for the future should be determined by astronomical calculation; which was to be the first Sunday after the first full moon after the vernal equinox. Or the Sunday after, when the full moon fell on a Sunday.

As to our Calendar, as now ordered by the Stile act, it keeps the same form, yet it differs in this particular, that the golden numbers are set to the full moons in each month, and not to the change, as formerly; which variation seems to have no manner of advantage in it, but a manifest disadvantage. For it is more material to know the moon's change, than the full, in every month except March.

To enquire particularly what sort of a year, or what kind of computation, had been the most convenient; we shall mention several ways that it may, or rather might have been ordered. And,

1. As the year consists of 365 days, 5 hours, 49 minutes very near. It might have been ordered to consist of 365 days for three years, and 366 every fourth year, as the Julian year does. And placing the odd day at the end of December; beginning the year with January. Or,

2. The Julian account might be preserved, and the odd day put at the end of February; and the year to begin at March. Then altering the dominical letters in January and February, so as to be continued from December in alphabetical order.

3. The year might always have begun on the same day of the week, as suppose on Sunday, which would have much facilitated any computation by the day of the month. But it would have happened that we should always have, at the end of the year, two Saturdays, and sometimes three. But I know of no inconvenience this could have been; and it would have had that advantage, that the first day of the week would also have been the first day of the year.

4. But this might at least have been done, viz. continuing the Julian year as it was, only beginning the year at March 1. For the Julian year is very near the solar year, and is very commodious for calculation, being a mean between the Astronomical

mical and tropical years. And is attended with no other inconvenience, but a small alteration of the seasons, the terms, fairs, &c. which might have been mended by putting them forward about a week in a thousand years, by an act of parliament. Whilst shifting the year to agree with these, is like shifting the fire to a man, to save him the labour of going to it. But be the convenience or inconvenience what it will, we must be forced to take up with what we have. However we know this, that we had but one account to follow before, and now we have two to follow.

P R O B. I.

To find how many years it is after leap year.

By the Gregorian account, which is the account we also follow; every hundredth year that is divisible by 4, is a leap year, and the others not. And moreover, every common year that is divisible by 4, is leap year, and the rest not. Whence,

R U L E.

Divide the year of our Lord by 4, and the remainder shews how long it is after leap year: if 0 remains it is leap year.

This holds for both Julian and Gregorian accounts. But in the Gregorian, no even hundreds are leap years, but such as can be divided by 4.

CHRONOLOGY

Example 2.

Let the year be 1769.

$$\begin{array}{r} 4)1769(442 \\ 16 \end{array}$$

16

16

9
8

1 the first after leap year.

P R O B. II.

To find on what day of the week, a given day of the month falls on.

R U L E.

The initial letters of the words in the following two lines, are the dominical letters for the first day of each month in order; whence it is easy to reckon any day by the dominical letter.

*A dram did give Ben ease;
Good cheer, for all did freeze.*

Examp.

On May 16, 1769; the Sunday letter is A, and B (Ben) is May 1st, whence A is the 7th, therefore the 7, 14, 21, 28 are all Sundays; and therefore the 16th is Tuesday.

P. R. O. B.

CHRONOLOGY.

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PROB. III.

To find the cycle of the sun, or the number of it, for any year.

The cycle of the sun, or rather of the Sunday letter, is a period of 28 years; in which time it shews all the variations of the dominical letter. And this period being ended, all the numbers and correspondent letters, return again in the same order, for ever, by the Julian stile; but only till the century is out, by the Gregorian. Its principal use is to find the Sunday letter; but it is also an ingredient in the Julian period.

RULE.

Add 9 to the year of Christ, and divide the sum by 28; the remainder is the number of the cycle. If 0 remains, take 28.

Examp.

Let the year be 1769.

$$\begin{array}{r} 9 \\ 28 \overline{) 1778} \quad (63 \\ \underline{168} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 98 \\ 84 \end{array}$$

rem. 14 the sun's cycle.

SCHOL.

The cycle of the sun continues always the same, and also the connection of the numbers, with the letters, according to the Julian form. But the connection of the numbers with the letters, by

B 3

the

the Gregorian stile, is variable; any cycle lasting but 100 years, and then a new cycle is to take place.

PROB. IV.

To find the dominical letter or letters, for any year.

I RULE.

Add 17 to the year of the Lord, and divide the sum by 28; the remainder being found in the old cycle below, shews the dominical letter, for the *new stile*. If 0 remain, take 28. This rule holds only till 1800.

For the *old stile*, seek the number of the sun's cycle (found by the last Prop.) in the old cycle below, and against it is the dominical letter. This holds for ever.

Note, there are two letters in leap year; one holds till the end of February; the other to the year's end.

The old Cycle.

1 GF	5 BA	9 DC	13 FE	17 AG	21 CB	25 ED
2 E	6 G	10 B	14 D	18 F	22 A	26 C
3 D	7 F	11 A	15 C	19 E	23 G	27 B
4 C	8 E	12 G	16 B	20 D	24 F	28 A

To make this rule general for the new stile; instead of 17, between the beginning of 1800 and 1900, add 5, between 1900 and 2100, add 21; from 2100 to 2200, add 9, &c. And in general, add 16 more at every hundred years forward, except such as are divisible by 4. But after 7 additions of 16, the same numbers will return again; that is, after 8 hundred years.

Example